Investigating the Impact of Using an Integrated Approach to the Teaching of Writing Skills amongst Secondary Students of English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia

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By

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Abstract

This research investigates the impact of the use of an integrated approach to the teaching of writing on Saudi EFL students in secondary education. Specifically, it examines its impact on the development of metacognitive strategies, students’ behaviour and levels of motivation and performance.

The approach combines genre, process and content approaches and integrates them with meta-cognitive strategies in the teaching of three selected writing styles: academic, argumentative and creative. It also considers teacher training and the strategy development of EFL students.

The research follows a mixed-method approach. Quantitative data collection was directed through pre questionnaire and – post 1 and 2 questionnaires and analysis of pre- and post-tests marks. Qualitative data included material from the students’ and a purpose-trained teacher’s interview, analysis of students’ essays, class observations and a teachers’ questionnaire.

The results of this study show a positive impact of this integrated approach, which was manifested in improved writing performance, motivation, attitude towards writing in English and awareness of meta-cognitive strategies, as well as the sustained use of these strategies.

While the study confirms and expands on previous work in the field of language learning strategies (Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Al-Otaibi, 2004; Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Macaro, 2001; Oxford, 1990; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990), it also stresses the need for further research into EFL writing strategies and the impact of meta-cognitive strategies on students and teachers in the Saudi Arabian education context (Alhaisoni 2012; Aljuaid 2010; Mehrdad et al., 2012). Moreover, it identifies insufficient teacher training and curricular design as factors which fail to promote autonomous learning, and calls for further studies to improve integrated and sustainable teaching approaches.
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>English for academic purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a foreign language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>English language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELL</td>
<td>English language learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>English language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESOL</td>
<td>English for speakers of other languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communications technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>International English Language Testing System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First language or mother tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LLS</td>
<td>Language learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NES</td>
<td>Native English speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCA</td>
<td>Student-centred approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second language acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCA</td>
<td>Teacher-centred approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL</td>
<td>Teaching of English to speakers of other languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL</td>
<td>Test of English as a Foreign Language</td>
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Chapter One: Introduction

This research study attempts to understand whether implementing an integrated approach that consists of a combination of three approaches used to teach writing and the integration of explicit meta-cognitive strategy training may help in improving the writing skills of secondary-level female learners in Saudi Arabia (aged 16-18) and change their perceptions of writing in English. The study consists of a combination of three writing approaches integrated with three types of planning and revising meta-cognitive writing strategies. This integrated approach was incorporated into the curriculum and taught to one class of students (30 students in an experimental group), while the others (30 students in a control group) were taught writing in the conventional way in Saudi Arabia, which follows a controlled composition approach. The students were monitored for around 11 months and evaluated on the basis of quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The researcher utilised an integrated approach, incorporating process, genre and content approaches, with meta-cognitive strategies and applied them to three writing styles: academic, argumentative and creative. It was argued that utilising this combination of approaches would allow students to compose using an identified process, deal with writing as problem-solving (process approach) with specified purposes that help writers to communicate with readers (genre approach), and consider the accuracy and quality of the details provided (content approach). In addition, training in meta-cognitive writing strategies was utilised to equip students with an understanding of the fundamental process of writing and skills for sustainable independent learning. Explicit teaching of three planning strategies (generating ideas: brainstorming, outlining and mind-mapping; planning at the textual level; and
planning at the lexical level) and three revising strategies (revising content, sentence structure and organisation) supported the use of the integrated approach.

This chapter describes the main aims of the research, the English language teaching situation in Saudi Arabia, the wider education and school contexts, the rationale behind the study and, finally, the structure of the thesis.

The findings of this investigation may be said to contribute to the field of English as a foreign language (EFL) theory and will, it is hoped, result in further understanding of the nature of second language (L2) composition in Saudi Arabia. The investigation demonstrates that a number of aspects may affect L2 writing performance and behaviour in a complex non-linear L2 writing process that considers the quality of content and serves a specific purpose. A writer’s perception of the importance of meta-cognitive writing strategies, knowledge, attitude towards writing in a second language and the application of writing strategies are important aspects, which may be positively changed when the student is explicitly instructed.

1.1 Aims of the study

This study aims to investigate how the use of an integrated approach impacts on the teaching of EFL writing and students’ performance and how the explicit teaching of meta-cognitive strategies contributes to changing students’ perceptions of the writing skill, the writing process and the importance of using meta-cognitive writing strategies in different genres.

The research addresses the following questions:

1. How effective is the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?
2. What changes can be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?
3. What differences in students’ approaches and conceptualisations of writing can be observed when exposed to this approach?

1.2 The English language situation in Saudi Arabia: The wider educational context

In Saudi Arabia, the government controls all education policies. The textbooks and curriculum are uniform throughout the Kingdom (Oyaid, 2009). Education is under the administration of the Ministry of Education (responsible for public schools, which are equivalent to comprehensive schools in the UK, and private schools, which are equivalent to public schools in the UK) and the Ministry of Higher Education (responsible for universities) (ibid). The educational system is divided into three main compulsory levels, preceded by optional pre-school education for children aged four to six. The first level is primary school (called elementary school in Saudi Arabia) for pupils from the age of six to 11; the second level is intermediate (for 12-15 year olds), followed by the secondary level (for those 16-18 years old). After that, students can choose to continue to higher education (universities and colleges) (Ministry of Higher Education, 2006).

In accordance with the rules of Islam, Saudi Arabia has adopted a segregation system, which results in the division of education for males and females (Hamdan, 2005). For this reason, as the researcher is female, the study was conducted in a girls’ secondary school.

1.2.1 English within the educational system

English is the only non-Arabic language that is a compulsory subject in Saudi schools. The teaching of English in Saudi Arabia started in the 1970s when, in 1973, the Ministry of Education designed a special programme for English language
teaching in public (comprehensive) schools starting from the first grade of the intermediate level (year 7) (Al-Abed Al-Haq & Smadi, 1996). It is worth noting that private (public) schools had been offering English language education from year 1 since the beginning of the 1970s (Al-Abed Al-Haq & Smadi, 1996: 459).

In public primary schools, which provide six years of education, English was introduced at grade 6 in 2003 and then at grade 4 in 2012 (Faruk, 2013). In intermediate schools, where pupils stay for three years (years 7, 8 and 9), students have four English periods a week, each lasting 45 minutes. Hence, students should have completed six years of studying English before they reach secondary school education (Ministry of Higher Education, 2006). Secondary school education lasts for three years (years 10, 11 and 12). In the first year, pupils share a common curriculum. At the end of the first year, students are divided according to either a scientific or a literary pathway, after which they continue their final two years of compulsory education (Ministry of Higher Education, 2006). Students in secondary school have four English periods a week, each of 45 minutes in the General System and the King Abdullah Advanced Learning Project, and four periods a week, each of 60 minutes, in the Courses System.

Hence, secondary schools in Saudi Arabia follow one of three systems: the original, traditional system is the General System, and the two newer ones are the Courses System and The King Abdullah Advanced Learning Project (Tatweer).

The General System relies on government-agreed textbooks and focuses on memorising as the central approach to study (Khan, 2011). This centralised education system lists the following six objectives for teaching English at the secondary level:
1. Allowing students in secondary school to acquire and transfer knowledge.
2. Broadening their experience by offering reading samples of the English language in domains such as the sciences and arts.
3. Instilling in students the power to think critically by cultivating intelligent reading as an adjunct to English language (EL) texts.
4. Engaging students’ imagination through character visualisation and poetry.
5. Providing a basis for the English language for students intending to aspire to higher education.
6. Empowering students in this language so that they can use it when Islam needs to be defended against criticism or whenever Islamic culture needs to be propagated (Ministry of Education, 2004: 6-7; 2007: 12-13).

In the General System, students take 18 subjects in the first year and 12 in the second and third years. According to Faruk’s (2013) study on English language teaching in Saudi Arabia, this system does not prepare students for university, as they are not given the space to share their ideas due to the teachers’ control of the learning process.

The Courses System is the second system, applied from 2004 and extended officially in 2005 (Ministry of Education, 2007). In this system, English consists of five courses: courses 1 and 2 are taught in the first year, 3 and 4 in the second year and 5 in the third year. Some third-year classes include course 5 in the first semester and others include it in the second. The Courses System prepares students for university and college by addressing the skills required in higher education to produce competent students equipped with scientific knowledge and life skills that will enable them to take decisions and solve problems in creative ways (Secondary Education Development Project, 2013: 9). This education system is intended to modify and
improve the inputs and processes of the General System. It shares similar objectives with the General System but adds some fundamental modifications to methods, structure and content in order to:

1. Equip learners with adequate knowledge and skills useful in systematic planning.
2. Develop the student’s personality, and provide him/her with a holistic educational experience.
3. Reduce the number of courses taught per semester and increase the student’s focus on each subject taught.
4. Develop the student's ability to take the right decisions for the future and increase his/her self-confidence.
5. Implement the principle of education for mastery and proficiency using a variety of learning strategies that provide students with opportunities for research, innovation and creative thinking.
6. Develop the student’s life skills, such as autonomous learning, cooperation, communication and teamwork, interaction with others, dialogue and debate and acceptance of the opinions of others within the framework of the shared values and interests of the society and the nation.
7. Develop the student’s skills to deal with different learning resources and modern technology (Secondary Education Development Project, 2013: 9-10).

Students in the Courses System also use government-approved textbooks but these books are different from those used in the General System in content, lessons and topics. A description of each course book is provided in Appendix R. In addition, the process of learning is different. For instance, students are involved in research
projects and presentations (ibid). In addition, this system has a number of goals, which include a reduction in the number of subjects students take in secondary school (no more than seven subjects and no fewer than three subjects in the first semester), and the provision of opportunities for optional practical training for students. Moreover, the students in this system can check their grades on the Internet via the website of the central system of the Ministry of Education for their school. Finally, in this system, students can finish in two-and-a-half years instead of three, as they can study during the summer in order to finish earlier (Secondary Education Development Project, 2013: 13-15).

The King Abdullah Public Education Development Project (Tatweer) is a system that was officially introduced in 2009 across 200 schools in the Kingdom and the teachers in these schools were trained to manage technological classroom environments, laptops and virtual libraries (Tatweer Project, 2009). The main aim of the curriculum is to integrate the use of information and communications technology (ICT) in education and improve and boost students’ skills, creativity and analytical thinking to fulfil all students’ needs in this age group (Oyaid, 2009: 21).

1.2.2 English in higher education

The Ministry of Higher Education was established in 1975. According to Al-Abed Al-Haq and Smadi (1996: 459),

The universities established before this period were under the government policy; King Saud University (1957), King Abdul-Aziz University (1961), Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud University (1974), King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals (1975), King Faisal University (1976) and Umm Al-Qura University (1980) had English departments and most of them had language centres and translation institutes.
There were only eight government universities in 2006. However, the number of universities had increased to 25 by the end of 2009 (Ministry of Higher Education, 2014). Government and private universities brought the total number of universities to 52, with 27 private universities (Denman & Hilal, 2011: 308). This substantial growth in the number of educational institutions had a direct effect on English language teaching. There are now English departments and English language centres in all the universities, which offer English courses not only for English language degree students, but also across different departments whose students are obliged to study English for at least one semester. Furthermore, English is the only language used for teaching in medical, engineering, and other science colleges (Faruk, 2013).

1.2.3 English teachers in the Ministry of Education

Almost all teachers of English are Saudi and they have studied English at Saudi universities for four years (Faruk, 2013). These teachers are graduates with a BA qualification in various majors: English Literature, Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies.

On-the-job teacher training is limited to an annual 2-5 workshops or seminars given by supervisors from the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education has set up training centres with Saudi trainers who are responsible for training the supervisors (Ministry of Education, 2004). According to Al-Seghayer (2014: 146),

In-service training programmes are currently conducted on a limited scale via the local education departments that are scattered all over Saudi Arabia and are handled in a poor manner. Another disturbing observation is that some English teachers have received almost no in-service teaching training, albeit they have been teaching English in public school for over a decade. … there is no incentive for English teachers who may engage in professional self-development and teacher-training resources are scarce.
The issue of English language teacher training was significant in this research, as it raised the matter of how the researcher should deal with the experimental group teacher when commencing teacher training on the integrated approach.

1.3 Local context for the study: A Saudi secondary school

This section focuses on the secondary school selected for this study: the Fourth Secondary School. This is an all-female school that has been following the Courses System since 2004. English in this school is divided into five courses, as explained in the previous section (1.2.1). Despite the objectives of the Courses System that aim to prepare for autonomous learning and adopt a student-centred approach, the teaching of writing still follows a teacher-centred and controlled composition teaching approach.

The Fourth Secondary School has 500 students in total. There are 18 classes in the school, each with around 30 students, with six classes in each of the three grades. Five of the classes are scientific and one is literary. In the third grade, three classes study English in the first semester and the other three classes study it in the second. Students have four English periods a week, each lasting for 60 minutes.

The school is well-staffed administratively. All staff members are of Saudi nationality. The staff can be divided into (a) administrative, (b) ancillary, and (c) teaching. There are six administrative staff members: the head teacher, three deputy head teachers, and two secretaries. The ancillary staff consist of six monitors (two for each grade), who are responsible for monitoring students’ academic progress, a typist and a janitor. There are 53 teachers, including five English language teachers (with
15-25 years of English language teaching experience). Each English language teacher has three classes and 15 periods a week.

The focus of this study was on the second-year secondary students (year 11), aged 17-18, since theirs was the only teacher who agreed to attend the one-to-one and online training sessions to be able to implement the integrated approach. There are six classes in the second year: five from the scientific section and one from the literary. They are 150 students in total, with 30 students in each class. The study was conducted in two classes in the scientific section. One class was the experimental group in which the study was implemented, and the other was the control group where the normal teaching approach continued to be used.

The previous sections gave a clear description of the teaching of the English language in Saudi Arabia in general and in secondary schools in particular to allow the reader to understand the EFL situation in the Kingdom. The following section gives a comprehensive description of the teaching of writing that shapes the rationale behind this study.

1.4 Rationale behind the study

Teaching writing in Saudi Arabia emphasises the final product and its linguistic features by following a traditional teaching approach where teachers are the centre of the learning process and control the writing process by using a controlled composition approach (Al-Hazmi, 2006). In this controlled approach context, the teacher decides the structure that will be used by the students and provides key words and phrases and a model text in which students substitute the underlined words with the key words and phrases provided by the teacher. A negative effect has been observed in undergraduate students’ performance in English writing in Saudi Arabia that has been attributed to this controlled approach to teaching writing in Saudi
secondary schools (ibid). The negative impact of this approach has been noticed particularly in critical thinking, composition (Al-Hazmi, 1998, 2007) and in students’ attitude towards writing in English (Al-Seghayer, 2014; Faruk, 2014).

These rigid teaching methodologies, the predominance of the native-Arabic language, and students’ poor attitude towards learning and low level of motivation have been considered responsible for the above-mentioned underachievement (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Massialas & Jarrar, 1983). According to Al-Shumaimeri (2003), the teaching of English in Saudi Arabia has been investigated from time to time by the Ministry of Education and unsatisfactory levels of academic achievement in secondary school students have been observed. These investigations took place due to the low levels of the students who graduated from secondary schools and proceeded to higher education. Al-Hakami (1999) investigated the responses of Saudi secondary school students towards their own language, Islamic Religious Science and the English language and the overall relationship with academic achievement. He also explored the role of teaching methodologies and aids in the low level of academic achievement and students’ performance and perceptions. The most startling finding was that teachers seldom used interactive approaches in teaching. Low achievement was, in that study, attributed to several factors, such as teaching methodologies, curriculum, and low motivation in students and teachers alike.

Al-Shaffi (1993) accepts that the lack of the desired teaching aids in schools could be a contributory factor to the low level of student motivation, as could the shortage of good teachers. This view supports Al-Hukbani’s (1991) investigation of Saudi EFL teachers. At the core of the problem, it was found that the challenges that hindered English language proficiency in Saudi Arabia were as follows: firstly, limited teacher training in language teaching methods, such as training in strategies to teach
language elements (grammar, punctuation and vocabulary) and in teaching the four skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing) (Al-Seghayer, 2005, 2011, 2014; Khan, 2011; Shehdeh, 2010; Zohairy, 2012).

Secondly, the setting of inappropriate objectives, whereby teachers’ proficiency and theoretical knowledge of second language learning were ignored in the main objectives of teaching English in Saudi Arabia (mentioned in section 1.2.1) (Al-Ahaydib, 1986; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Zafer, 2002). Thirdly, faulty curriculum design (Al-Hakami, 1999; Al-Hazmi, 2003, 2007) and, finally, inappropriate assessment methods (Al-Harbi, 2006; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

Concerns with regard to English language were, moreover, raised as far back as 1983 by the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States (Rasheed & Hengst, 1983). Concerns regarding English language attainment have been so deeply felt that the authorities have changed the secondary school curriculum a number of times in the recent past (Faruk, 2013).

More than two decades ago the problem was attributed to the widely prevalent traditional method of teaching, exacerbated by curriculum overload (Al-Hukbani, 1991). It was found that Saudi teachers relied heavily on the prescribed textbooks and did not venture beyond them or towards a more interactive methodology (Zohairy, 2012). Research ascribed this to the time factor i.e., the time available for teachers to spend with the students was barely enough to match the amount of work prescribed in the books, a facet of Saudi learning which resulted in low motivational levels in the secondary school student population. The focus was more on completing the course than learning something substantial from the education being imparted (Al-Seghayer, 2014; Massialas & Jarrar, 1983).
In recent years, Saudi Arabia’s awareness of the importance of the English language has risen. This emphasis on the study of English can be attributed to different factors, economic and political amongst the dominant ones (Faruk, 2013). However, despite the importance of this language, it is believed that the Saudi educational system does little to boost it among secondary school students. This can be seen in the general objectives of teaching English to secondary level, as these objectives do not seem to be in congruence with the overall purpose for which English is being used worldwide. For example, the Saudi educational system lays little emphasis on what students will be able to do and how and where they can expect to use English. The objectives, according to Faruk (2013), seem to be broadening the scope in the first instance only to narrow it simply to accomplish an ultimate Islamic gain. It has been argued (Al-Hazmi, 2006; Al-Seghayer, 2014) that there should be a broader objective of learning English for secondary-level students to prepare them for higher education and better career opportunities.

Alshehri (2004) has argued that these objectives are highly generic in nature and they say little about how and why teachers must impart this language. He maintains that a deeper assessment in this direction could help achieve both competence at the teachers’ level and higher expectations at the levels of students’ performance and perceptions. Further studies conducted in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) in Saudi Arabia (Al-Hazmi, 2003, 2006, 2007; Al-Seghayer, 2005, 2011, 2014; Alshehri, 2004; Faruk, 2013; Khan, 2011; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013; Shehdeh, 2010; Zohairy, 2012) have emphasised the need for better teacher training and curriculum development.

Emerging research in the field of TESOL in the Saudi context coupled with my own extensive experience (13 years) as a teacher and three years as a teacher
trainer informed my decision to pursue this academic investigation and base it specifically in the field of EFL writing approaches and meta-cognitive writing strategies due to lack of investigation in the Saudi context.

My study examines the effect of introducing an integrated approach on students’ writing and evaluating the students’ perceptions and performance as a result of their exposure to this approach. In this approach, the teacher is trained to shift her teaching mode to that of a facilitator rather than a controller in the classroom. At the same time, students are trained to use meta-cognitive writing strategies to enhance their learning process. In addition, the students who took part in this study were able to learn how to write in three different writing styles: academic, argumentative and short stories, and, during the study, feedback was given in different ways: written, oral debate-and peer feedback.

Most research into teaching language and language learning strategies involving Arab EFL students - particularly Saudi learners - compared to other nationalities and ethnic groups remains in its early stages (Aljuaid, 2010; Al-Seghayer 2014). However, an integrated approach under the umbrella of the student-centred approach would be useful for secondary Saudi students who have traditionally been taught using controlled composition as part of a teacher-centred technique. This would be useful for a number of reasons, for example: giving opportunities to students to use a specific process of writing integrated with meta-cognitive writing strategies that involve them in the process and have personalised compositions with their own goals, ideas and personal experiences; learning how to learn; and motivating students to write by using interesting topics and considering readers other than their teacher. All these changes in writing lessons for secondary Saudi students will, it is hoped, result in a more positive perception of the writing skill, as well as better performance.
1.5 Clarification of terms

Key terms utilised in this research are listed below to avoid ambiguity.

- The integrated approach that is examined in this study consists of a combination of three writing approaches (process, genre and content) integrated with meta-cognitive strategies and applied to three writing styles (academic, argumentative and creative writing).

- Meta-cognitive writing strategies include the following: three planning strategies (generating ideas: brainstorming, outlining and mind-mapping; planning at the textual level; and planning at the lexical level) and three revision strategies (revising content, sentence structure and organisation).

- Student-centred approaches are “ways of thinking about teaching and learning that emphasise student responsibility and activity in learning rather than content or what the teachers are doing” (Cannon & Newble, 2000: 16-17).

- Language learning strategies are “behaviours and thoughts that a learner employs during learning and that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process” (Collins, 1994: 4).

- A mixed-method approach indicates the utilisation of both qualitative and quantitative research techniques in a single study.

- Methodological triangulation is “the use of different data collection techniques within the same study” (Cohen et al., 2007: 142).

- Pre/pre-period is the period prior to the implementation of the study.

- Post/post-period is the period eight months after the start of the study.

- The pre-questionnaire targeted the control and experimental groups before the study.
- Post-questionnaire 1 targeted the control and experimental groups eight months after implementing the study.
- Post-questionnaire 2 targeted the experimental group students three months after returning to the old method of teaching writing.
- Public schools in Saudi Arabia are similar to comprehensive schools in the UK.
- Private schools in Saudi Arabia are referred to as public schools in the UK.

1.6 Thesis structure

This thesis consists of seven chapters. The first and second chapters present the background against which this study framework is shaped and developed. The first chapter introduces the main aims of the research study, explains the situation of teaching English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, gives an overview of the background to the study and describes the rationale for conducting this study in the Saudi context.

The second chapter provides a literature review with a focus on:

1. Educational approaches that entail a teacher-centred approach and a student-centred approach with a critical review of their strengths and weaknesses.
2. Training in cognitive, social and meta-cognitive language learning strategies with a focus on meta-cognitive writing strategies.
3. Writing instruction and a review of the writing approaches used in Saudi Arabia - controlled composition and current-traditional rhetoric - and the approaches utilised in the integrated approach with a review of the integrated approaches examined in EFL research.
The third chapter reviews the methodological approaches adopted so far in English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) research and examines the researcher’s choice of a mixed-method approach. The latter combines quantitative and qualitative approaches with instruments selected to collect the research data. The chapter also describes how the research is designed and implemented and how the data are analysed.

The fourth chapter presents the quantitative results, starting with a verification of the reliability and validity of the students’ questionnaire, and examines and discusses the equivalence between the experimental group and the control group before the implementation of the integrated approach. Finally, the chapter addresses the research questions by comparing the two groups, using the pre-tests, post-tests, pre-questionnaire, post-questionnaire 1 and post-questionnaire 2.

The fifth chapter presents the qualitative results gathered from the students’ interviews, the teacher’s interview, the experimental group and control group teachers’ questionnaires, and written materials and class observations of both the experimental and control groups. The sixth chapter interprets and discusses the quantitative and qualitative findings in relation to previous literature on EFL writing theory and strategy use.

Finally, chapter seven draws conclusions from the findings, outlines the contribution of the study to existing knowledge and provides recommendations for further research. The limitations of the study are also considered in this chapter.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

Having described both macro and micro contexts for this research in the previous chapter, this chapter will critically review educational approaches, in particular, the teacher-centred and the student-centred, in teaching writing with specific emphasis on the effectiveness of student-centred practices. It will also review language learning and writing strategies, focusing on meta-cognitive writing strategies, writing strategy research, and strategy training and its models. As this study is applied in Saudi Arabia, in which English is taught as a foreign language, a review of different studies of first language (or mother tongue) (L1) and L2 writing processes is vital to help understand the nature of L2 writing. English as a second language (ESL)/EFL teaching writing approaches are reviewed, particularly the approaches used in Saudi secondary schools (controlled composition and the current-traditional approach) and the approaches that were combined in this study: the process approach, genre approach and content-based approach. Finally, the researcher provides the limitations of previous studies that inspired her to conduct her own study to investigate the effect of an integrated approach to writing and writing strategy instruction on Saudi secondary students’ perceptions and writing performance within the framework of second language acquisition theories.

2.1 Educational approaches

A great number of studies (Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman, 2012; Baeten et al., 2010; Tomlinson 1983; Wenden, 1985) have been conducted on student learning and have specifically examined approaches that embed the student’s intention when commencing a task, the strategies adopted and the learning process used to execute the task. Therefore, class practices are perceived as being led either by a teacher-
centred or a student-centred approach. Hence, a review of the literature on the approaches used to instruct these tasks and class activities is vital. The instructions given in teacher-centred and student-centred approaches regulate the language learning strategies used in class (Lessard-Clouston, 1997).

2.1.1 Teacher-centred approach (TCA)

According to Gibbs (2006), teacher-centred instruction is aligned with transmission paradigms of teaching, whereby instruction is the activity through which information is transmitted to the student. In addition, paradigms of teaching that facilitate reaction acquisition, such as practice and drilling, also lie within the teacher-centred focus (Ellis, 2005). Baeten et al. (2010: 249) note that the teacher-centred paradigm of instruction “focuses on a one-way process of transferring knowledge to or shaping of students”.

In this context, the teacher’s basic role is that of information and knowledge provider (Lewis et al., 2007). Typically, teacher-centred characteristics include more teaching and questions from the teacher and less talking and fewer questions from the students (Wagner & McCombs, 1995), more group instructions (Schuh, 2004), and greater dependence on textbooks with other supportive sources such as videos and information recall (Schweisfurth, 2011). Learners perform the same tasks simultaneously, following explicit guidelines offered by the teacher (Daniels et al., 2001); the teacher decides what is needed for the students by defining the attributes of guidelines, management and curriculum evaluation (Schuh, 2004). In this class context, students are less engaged during the learning process (Daniels et al., 2001). In this approach, there is a separation of the process of teaching from that of assessing or testing (Hinkel, 2004). Teaching occurs first and assessment comes later, as a way
of finding out whether the students have assimilated the knowledge passed on to them by the teachers. This method has been widely condemned by educational psychologists and students alike and has been considered a passive method of both disseminating knowledge and learning (Adler & Reed, 2002; Biggs, 1999; Bowers & Flinders, 1990; Trigwell et al., 1999).

A teacher-centred method does not engage the learner and is considered to be very passive in nature, students are on the receiving end and are given only little or no chance to stand up and ask questions (Adler & Reed, 2002). Students also have to accept what the teacher says and how the teacher interprets language; there is a void created by a lack of communicative input at the students’ end (Beard & Hartley, 1984).

According to Badri (1979), the teacher-centred method of teaching secondary-level students is disastrous and he argues strongly against it. The methodology he employed was to examine the ‘Assessment Criteria’, which he believes cause learners not to achieve the intended outcome in secondary school since it is a more traditional form of an exam-oriented system. The main objective of this system, according to Badri (1979: 281), is to make learners prove that they have the ability to accumulate facts and information as illustrated in their syllabus, which denies them the ability to explore their own talents and abilities.

### 2.1.2 Student-centred approach (SCA)

In contrast, a student-centred approach shifts the focus from the teacher to the learner and from the learnt and instruction to learning, and is based on a set of principles derived from research on learning and teaching (Alexander & Murphy, 1998; APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997; Lambert &
McCombs, 1998). This approach is defined by different scholars based on the American Psychological Association principles (APA, 1997) as:

The perspective that couples a focus on individual learners—(their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners). This dual focus then informs and drives educational decision-making. The learner-centred perspective is a reflection of the twelve learner-centred psychological principles in the programs, practices, policies and people that support learning for all (McCombs & Whisler, 1997: 9).

Cannon and Newble (2000: 16-17) define the student-centred approach as “ways of thinking about teaching and learning that emphasise student responsibility and activity in learning rather than content or what the teachers are doing”. According to Lewis et al. (2007) and Schuh (2004), student-centred principles consider a diversity of psychological factors that are located internally to the student while also identifying that the environment also plays a key role. This approach, therefore, considers students’ learning in and out of the classroom and provides a connected learning perspective combined with a holistic perspective of the learner (Kee et al., 2012). For example, Schuh (2004) observes that such an approach has an impact on motivation, individual learning and students’ developmental needs. In her research, she accentuates the principles of this approach, which are organised in four dimensions: meta-cognitive and cognitive, social and developmental, affective and motivational, and individual differences. Activities based on the principles of the student-centred approach have no formulated steps, and the principles are considered as being in contrast to the teacher-centred approach (Lewis et al., 2007). Instruction based on student-centred principles offers opportunities for students to draw upon their own experience and learning process interpretation (Abbad et al., 2009).
The basis of a student-centred approach entails learning as a constructive and natural process, in which learning is most effective when it is meaningful and pertinent to the student in an explicit learning environment (Center for Applied Second Language Studies, 2010; Chen, 2009; Cohen & Weaver, 2006). For example, Chen (2009) considers the use of collaborative learning and his findings demonstrate the effectiveness of using a student-centred approach in which students were involved in the learning process by being responsible for their own learning and were motivated to attain the required knowledge. Thus, the approach acknowledges that students are different in their perspectives and encourages them to be engaged in, and be responsible for, their own learning activities (den Brok et al., 2002). Applying a student-centred approach requires teachers to understand the student’s needs and support his or her abilities to achieve the desired learning goals. Therefore, cooperation between the students and their teacher to work out meaningful learning and ways of enhancing it according to each student’s talent, experience and abilities is an important aspect of the student-centred approach (McCombs & Whisler, 1997).

2.1.2.1 The effectiveness of the student-centred approach vs teacher–centered approach

With the student-centred approach, the teacher and the student are both active participants, since they share the learning responsibility (Nunan, 1993). Unlike the teacher-centred approach, the student-centred one has both the teaching and assessment being done together. As teaching continues, the students undertake exercises in pairs or groups (Chamot, 2005). De la Sablonnière et al. (2009) claim that assessment in a student-centred approach entails diverse activities combined to create an analytical way of asking and answering questions concerning the advance of each student, and the approach assists each student to attain his or her individual goals.
The previous discussion drew attention to how education and English language practitioners view the student-centred approach as an important factor that promotes autonomous learning. The curriculum policy issued by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia promotes the role of the teacher as the transmitter of knowledge, but neglects the student’s role and ignores research into student-centred approach definitions and practices. The effectiveness of the student-centred approach is highlighted below, as it plays a key role in this research study.

In the student-centred approach, learning promotes positive student perception and performance because students search to answer questions and learn how to find answers instead of already having received them from their instructor (Anderson et al., 1998). In the student-centred approach, students find themselves at the centre, such as when examining a topic or question, responding to it, interacting with each other, evaluating solutions and drawing conclusions (Alvermann et al., 1987). The student-centred approach has been attributed with yielding maximum benefits in English language teaching in respect of student perceptions and performance (Jarvis, 1995).

The teacher in this method acts as a guide or mentor who organises the act, synthesises the students’ responses and stimulates further learning. In this way the teacher is responsible for conducting a multi-way give-and-take exchange of information, rather than the one-way communication that forms the basis of teacher-centred learning (Kain, 2003). In contrast, teacher-centred approaches constrict the students’ involvement in language learning and fail to acknowledge learners’ needs to be active participants in class rather than imitating and accepting knowledge provided by the teacher (Shapii, 2011).

Many researchers (David, 2009; Feng, 2005; Schweisfurth, 2011) hold the view that a student-centred approach makes a deeper impact on the learner’s mind
since it aids recall and reflection in the long term, thereby promoting the assimilation of core proficiency and enhancing deep learning. Polio et al. (1998) note that the approach promotes lexical improvements, self-confidence, powers of expression and overall teacher-student performance. Several recent studies conducted by Harpe et al. (2012), Motschnig-Pitri and Standl (2012) and Usaci and Niculescu (2012) also observe that a student-centred approach is an effective way of developing better proficiency and comprehension in EFL students. These studies note that students had heightened involvement, motivation, and improved grades as a result of the development of the students’ autonomy. As stated by Usaci and Niculescu (2012: 557),

> these methods succeeded to develop the students’ autonomy and responsibility in learning; they offered a real opportunity for students’ improved cognitive abilities development, students’ higher capacity of arguing ideas, and their ability to solve problems; a deeper understanding of information and a higher level of power of decision making were also noticed.

Researchers in second language acquisition (Purcell-Gates et al., 2004; Reder, 2005; Smith et al., 2005; St. Clair et al., 2003) have emphasised the important role played by the student-centred approach in the development of second language learners. Amongst their arguments in favour of a student-centred approach are the relevance of the topic and the active participatory role of students.

Whilst early research into language learning approaches was mainly based on the learning approach students used, without trying to address the connections between any successes and the approaches taken (den Brok et al., 2002), more recent studies have tried to determine the links between a student-centred approach and language proficiency. Some of these studies (Abdulrahman, 2008; Collins, 2013; Denham et al., 2012; Usaci & Niculescu, 2012) have indicated that proficient EFL learners apply multiple educational approaches, in contrast to less proficient EFL students. For
example, Rahimi and Katal’s (2012) study on university and high school EFL students also confirms that the student-centred approach is fundamental to developing communicative competence.

Harpe et al. (2012) note, for example, that where Saudi EFL teachers apply a teacher-centred approach in writing lessons, students’ proficiency is low, as well as their motivation. In contrast, He and Shi (2008) utilised a student-centred approach for Chinese and Taiwanese ESL students that helped the students to present their own views and construct their own sentences rather than memorising them. He and Shi (2008) believe that a student-centred approach provides a wider measure of what learners can do.

Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), in their study of language learning strategies used by ESL students, note that a student-centred approach is an effective one for teaching ESL learning skills to Chinese and Japanese secondary learners, since it can measure students’ development, behaviour, learning needs, academic process and their achievement, in order to help ESL students in executing decisions about their future.

2.1.2.2 The impact of the ESL student-centred approach on teachers

The student-centred approach helps the teacher to design effective instructions for each student, regardless of his/her diverse learning needs. According to Smartl and Whiting (2001), by its nature, the student-centred approach is adaptable to satisfy the needs of each student. In addition, the student-centred approach has a positive impact on ESL learners, since it heightens motivation, performance, and actual learning, as stated in an interview analysis of 12 students (Taçman & Menteş, 2010). In their study, as a result of using a student-centred approach, students communicated actively in class practice, they used different tools of evaluation such as peer-evaluation and self-
evaluation, and were involved in group studies and learning process discovery from an autonomous point of view. In addition, diverse hands-on activities using this approach were administered to facilitate successful learning and the use of viable learning skills.

Taçman and Menteş (2010) argue that the impetus for the shift from the traditional to a more effective student-centred approach was the realisation that the teacher-centred approach was not producing the anticipated results in the classroom, such as: students’ ability to think critically, to solve problems, to search for information, to integrate previous knowledge with new knowledge and to be able to be involved in discussions. They observe that the acquisition of a language is increased when students are involved in the learning process rather than being passive and controlled by the teacher.

Srisawasdi (2012) posits that, through the student-centred approach and depending on the task or context, teachers can observe changes in how students behave, what they believe or the combination of their inherent abilities, which has an impact on the teacher’s teaching methods and role in class.

In addition, McCombs and Whisler (1997) note that ESL teachers who apply a student-centred approach talk less than the students in class, use a variety of instructional materials with individuals and with groups, share the physical arrangements of the class with the students and facilitate the learning process, which serves as an encouragement and motivation tool for both the students and the teacher.

Moreover, with the use of the student-centred approach, Jun and Lee (2012) note that the three teachers and 43 international undergraduate students are involved in a collaborative and cooperative assessment process that enables both the teachers
and the students to observe that learning is not a simple individual activity but a communicative two-way process.

2.1.2.3 The impact of the ESL student-centred approach on students

Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman (2012) argue that despite EFL Saudi students starting to learn English at primary level or even pre-school, their proficiency level is still wanting, especially in terms of productive skills and the positive results in their study are attributed to students’ control of their own learning process. Mehrdad et al. (2012) in a study that attempts to find out whether teaching cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies affect 180 EFL BA students reading comprehension in Iran, have noted that poor EFL skills are characterised by a lack of interaction between the teacher and the students and the application of the teacher-centred approach. Furthermore, Mehrdad et al. (2012) assert that despite the large amount of time and effort spent by teachers on students, most students have failed to go beyond the basics, thus creating difficulty in developing their EFL writing proficiency.

In a study conducted by Usaci and Niculescu (2012) in Taibah University in Saudi Arabia, the researchers observed that the challenges facing EFL students included the gap between the requirements of the initial EFL programme and their previous secondary education. This finding encouraged the current researcher to conduct a study based on a student-centred approach for secondary-level students.

It is crucial that students have adequate motivation to learn, as this creates a responsibility for learning independently and actively. According to Chang and Chen (2009), learning materials should be adequately attractive and interesting to enhance students’ appetite for ESL learning, since resource materials which seem shoddy may
fail to be taken seriously by students. Chang and Chen (2009) posit that effective learning materials offer students carefully selected exercises and tasks that boost their learning capabilities.

According to Baeten et al. (2010), the approach is intended to deal with students holistically in a real-world learning context, where the student is the centre of the learning process and should be content with the features of the course, such as appropriate tasks, applicable information, effective teaching methods, the teacher’s role and clear goals, among others, to help students to be more independent learners. They also argue that the student-centred approach considers assessment methods, such as self-assessment and peer and teacher feedback, as important factors in the learning process. Thus, the approach can enhance students’ understanding effectively since it is motivational, effective and reduces the individual difference factors that influence students and their learning procedures (Baeten et al., 2010).

Hence, exploring the needs of students can lead to the provision of the right assistance, so it is vital that students’ requirements, perceptions and current learning knowledge levels are ascertained before offering ESL students the required help (Lee, 1997).

From this point of view, Chang and Chen (2009) argue that ESL students have attitudes and perceptions concerning learning feedback. In addition, the classroom context plays a vital role in ESL students’ perceptions of instructor feedback, whereby students may perceive feedback either as a positive or negative indicator of their learning. Therefore, from this perspective, the student-centred approach can have a general impact on the performance and learning perception of ESL students.

A study by Polio et al. (1998) confirms a positive correlation between learning-approach application and language learning performance and identifies the benefits of
students’ self-efficacy, which is one of the student-centred approach beliefs regarding ESL learning. Self-efficacy is defined as a person’s judgement of his or her own competences to achieve given tasks (Schunk, 1991). In addition, a study by Baeten et al. (2010) found that self-efficacy has a positive correlation with and significance for ESL students’ academic performance, and concluded that self-efficacy was a significant forecaster of academic performance for secondary school ESL students.

A recent study by Rahimi & Katal (2012), has suggested a possible connection between the student-centred approach and students’ overall performance; these findings have crucial implications, as developing EFL learning competence presents a vital challenge to EFL students (Rahimi & Katal, 2012). He and Shi (2008) assert that exposing ESL students to educational activities that need self-monitoring and self-evaluation offers learners control over their writing as they gain knowledge. Mittendorff et al. (2011) support this view and observe that students expect their teachers to assume responsibility for defining learning goals and supervising progress, yet to advance as a student one should actively learn how to regulate and monitor one’s own progress through a strategy of self-evaluation. Den Brok et al.’s (2002) findings report that participants in their study (10 Asian-American high school students and 16 teachers) claimed that applying a student-centred approach at the secondary level correlated positively with their writing performance, from which students can benefit.

Mehrdad et al. (2012) have noted that more proficient language learners use a wide range of student-centred approaches compared to less proficient learners. This is because effective learners are inclined to apply more strategies in a suitable fashion than less proficient students (He & Shi, 2008). In addition, in assisting second language acquisition and promoting student performance, the application of the student-centred approach facilitates higher levels of learner autonomy due to the
adoption or use of suitable strategies that permit learners to take more responsibility for their individual learning; this creates sustained learning beyond the students’ normal classroom setting (Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman, 2012). Alongside the positive effect on learning strategies, scholars have also evidenced the improvement of ESL students’ language skills (Baeten et al., 2010).

Based on interviews with Saudi EFL university-level learners in different academic fields who were studying a similar English composition course, as well as their teachers and from his personal observation, McMullen (2009) discovered nine meta-cognitive student-centred-based strategies: directed orientation, self-management, self-reinforcement, advanced organisers, delayed production, advance preparation, selective attention, self-evaluation, and self-monitoring. From this point, a review of language learning strategies is vital, since they can be regulated in a student-centred context.

The previous sections empirically reviewed the literature on student-centred and teacher-centred approaches. The latter is the type of teaching approach used in Saudi Arabia in writing lessons, while the former is applied in this study in the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing.

### 2.2 Language learning strategies (LLSs)

The absence of teachers’ agreement on the optimal teaching approach that can be adopted within various sociocultural backgrounds provides a chance for a new research environment that needs further investigation on the ideal teaching approaches to writing and the strategies that can help students to produce a good piece of writing in a second or foreign language (Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Hyland, 2003; Macaro, 2003). Hence, the researcher has chosen to investigate the effect of a combined approach to teaching writing integrated with meta-cognitive writing strategies on Saudi secondary
students. According to experts’ definitions of LLS, these strategies are an important part of class activities as they facilitate the learning process.

According to Wenden and Rubin (1987: 6), learning strategies are “techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information”. Oxford (1990: 8) considers LLSs as “any specific action taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. Different arguments have been presented to examine the relationship between language learning strategies and the ability to learn different languages. For example, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and O’Malley and Chamot (1994) examined LLSs as specific behaviours that students use to enhance their own L2 learning where they use LLSs consciously or unconsciously when they deal with different activities and new information in their second language classroom. Cohen (1998: 68) extends this analysis and defines language learning strategies as “the conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language”.

When left to their own devices, and if not encouraged by the teacher or by the selected resources or activities to use a certain set of strategies, students typically use learning strategies that reflect their basic learning styles (Nunan, 1997). The use of learning strategies, in subject areas outside L2 learning, is obviously related to student achievement and proficiency (Mullins, 1992). In light of this significant association between learning strategy use and positive learning outcomes, it is not surprising that students who frequently employ learning strategies enjoy a high level of self-efficacy (Nunan, 1997; Wang, 2008). For example, Yang’s (1999) study was on the relationship between students’ perceptions of language learning and the learning
strategies of 505 EFL university students. By using Oxford’s (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, Yang (1999) explores the positive relationship between the self-efficacy of EFL students and the LLSs which also have a positive effect on their performance. Wang (2008) explores a correlation between LLSs, in particular the writing strategies utilisation and positive writing achievement in 88 Chinese EFL university students. Wang employed an Intensive Writing Strategy Development Course for seven weeks to investigate the effect of writing strategy instruction on students’ perceptions and performance. In her study, despite the differences in strategy use, students improved at generating ideas, organising them, and writing improved content with better language use. In Abdul-Rahman’s (2011) investigation into the English academic writing strategies and language learning strategies employed by university-level native and non-native speakers of English in the UK, it was observed that the students’ tendency to adopt various learning and writing strategies resulted in self-efficacy and self-regulation among the participants in her study, especially the non-native participants, which improved their writing ability. Abdul-Rahman’s investigation was based on comparisons among the participants according to their gender, nationality, L2 proficiency, discipline and level of academic writing skill.

Language learning strategies consist of cognitive, meta-cognitive, and social/affective strategies (Cohen, 1998: 68) that can be directed towards and manipulated for utilisation in any of the language skills. For example, Cohen’s (1998) study, which focused on the speaking skill, on the effect of strategies-based instruction on college students studying a foreign language indicates a positive effect of integrating strategy instruction into the course. Wang’s (2008) study was on integrating strategy instruction into the writing skill. Hence, as this study is concerned
with writing strategies, a review of the three types of language learning strategy, writing research and writing strategy instruction literature are discussed in the following sections.

### 2.2.1 Types of language learning strategies

The main types of LLSs, according to O’Malley and Chamot (1994: 62-63), are cognitive, meta-cognitive and affective/social strategies, summarised in table 2.1.

Chamot et al. (1988: 18) define cognitive strategies as “interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task”. Cognitive strategies help students form and brace associations between new and known information (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990) and facilitate the mental reformation and organisation of information. Cognitive strategies include analysing, reasoning inductively and deductively, guessing, taking notes, and the restructuring of information (Carter & Nunan, 2001: 167).

Metacognition is understood as “thinking about one’s own thinking” (Taylor, 1999: 319). A meta-cognitive strategy is

- an appreciation of what one already knows, together with a correct apprehension of the learning task and what knowledge and skills it requires combined with the ability to make correct inferences about how to apply one’s strategic knowledge to a particular situation and to do so efficiently and reliably (Peirce, 2003: 2).

Students who can identify appropriate learning strategies in the proper situation are using metacognition. For instance, a student may confront difficulties in linking between key concepts within a story. If he/she has been taught to use a graphic organiser, such as a concept map, to identify the main concepts and link them together using lines, similar to a spider web, then that student has used metacognition to
complete the task (Nelson & Conner, 2008). In general, metacognition is the engine that drives self-directed learning.

According to Chamot et al. (1988: 17), meta-cognitive strategies involve “thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned” (see Table 2.1).

According to Raimes (1991), a generalised EFL learner cannot be found and each classroom of EFL learners will be different for the teacher who deals with it. The strategies or approaches framed in general may not work but, in using them, one builds a new repertoire of strategies. If generalisation were possible, teachers could make decisions about the optimal instructional approach with the available theories and principles and the importance of meta-cognitive strategies would be minimal. The lack of generalisation of ESL/EFL learners is due to diversity in cultural backgrounds, as well as language proficiency and cognitive development. The difference in cognitive development concerns the cognitive thinking of ESL learners about English, despite their cognitive capabilities of other aspects perhaps being of the same standard (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998).

Each ESL learner may have differences in standards of exposure to, or knowledge of, English and that makes each classroom of ESL learners different from the others. Cultural differences render the attitudes of ESL learners different towards learning, as well as to following formal instructions (Bazron et al., 2005). The “age, academic goals, aptitude, anxiety, cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy use, language awareness, and social distance” (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998: 22) make an ESL learners’ classroom complex for teachers. However, there is one aspect that makes ESL learners different from other types of learner. It is the status given to “linguistic, meta-linguistic, cognitive and meta-cognitive skills that are different from the native English
speakers (NES) counterparts” (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998: 15). ESL learners have bilingual/bicultural knowledge and these have two types of effect on the progress or development of English writing skills; this may impede or facilitate the development of English writing skills or L2 writing proficiency (Banks, 1993).

The third type of learning strategies identified is social and affective strategies which Chamot et al. (1988: 19) define as “Interacting with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task”. Social strategies help learners to understand the target language by asking for help, asking questions for clarification, learning about culture, working with classmates inside and outside the classroom and thinking positively (O’Malley & Chamot, 1994) (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Learning strategies in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEARNING STRATEGIES IN THE CLASSROOM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategy name</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meta-cognitive strategies</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advice organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monitoring</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluating</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LEARNING STRATEGIES IN THE CLASSROOM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-assessment</th>
<th>Check back</th>
<th>Keep a learning log</th>
<th>Reflect on what you learned</th>
<th>Judging how well one has accomplished a learning task.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Cognitive strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy name</th>
<th>Strategy description</th>
<th>Strategy definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resourcing</td>
<td>Use reference materials</td>
<td>Using reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias, or textbooks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping</td>
<td>Classify Construct graphic organisers</td>
<td>Classifying words, terminology, quantities, or concepts according to their attributes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>Take notes on idea maps, T-lists, etc.</td>
<td>Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration of prior knowledge</td>
<td>Use what you know Use background knowledge Make analogies</td>
<td>Relating new to known information and making personal associations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarising</td>
<td>Say or write the main idea</td>
<td>Making a mental, oral, or written summary of information gained from listening or reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deduction/Induction</td>
<td>Use a rule/Make a rule</td>
<td>Applying or figuring out rules to understand a concept or complete a learning task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Visualise Make a picture</td>
<td>Using mental or real pictures to learn new information or to solve a problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory representation</td>
<td>Use your mental tape recorder Hear it again</td>
<td>Replaying mentally a word, phrase, or piece of information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making inference</td>
<td>Use context clues Guess from context Predict</td>
<td>Using information in the text to guess meanings of new items or predict upcoming information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Social/Affective strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy name</th>
<th>Strategy description</th>
<th>Strategy definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questioning for clarification</td>
<td>Ask questions</td>
<td>Getting additional explanation or verification from a teacher or other expert.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Cooperate Work with classmates Coach each other</td>
<td>Working with peers to complete a task, pool information, solve a problem, get feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-talk</td>
<td>Think positive!</td>
<td>Reducing anxiety by improving one’s sense of competence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.2 The classification of language learning strategies

Cognition has formed the major benchmark and basis for the classification of language learning strategies (Macaro, 2001). Cognition refers to brain processing and retrieving information. Researchers of LLSs agree that “they cannot usually be observed directly; they can only be inferred from language learner behaviour” (Griffiths, 2004: 11). Ellis (1986) explains that it is a difficult task to classify language learning strategies and Griffiths (2004: 11) states that “the challenge has been to devise a means first of all to record and subsequently to interpret the phenomena involved”. Classification is a means of creating a guide for instructors as well as facilitating the establishment of a link between the mental processes taking place in learners due to the strategies and processes used, as purported by Chamot and O’Malley (1996). The last few decades have, therefore, seen an overwhelming interest in the processes involved in learning languages, thus prompting a need for the classification of strategies. A brief description of different classifications of strategies is presented below.

The essence of strategy classification is identification: “knowing about language and relating to what language and language learning involves, planning relating to what and how of language learning and self-evaluation” (Wenden & Rubin, 1987: 76). Self-evaluation involves the progress in learning and learners’ responses to the experiences while learning (Rivers, 2001). Such identification leads to the development of a framework that helps in classifying EFL or ESL learning strategies.

Dansereau (1985) classifies learning strategies as primary and support strategies. Primary strategies are used to manage learning materials directly, while support strategies help to establish the necessary learning attitude. Dansereau (1985) states that support strategies are more important for ESL/EFL learners who learn in
English-speaking countries because an appropriate learning attitude helps in managing
the distractions, fatigue and frustrations that may depend on the personal conditions
of the learners, as well as their native language and associated problems.

Rubin’s classification (1987) was primarily based on a clear distinction
between those strategies that have a direct effect and those that contribute indirectly.
Notably, the three types of strategies he postulated (learning, communication and
social strategies), given below, added to the clear demarcation that there are cognitive
and self-management aspects in the learning process.

1. Learning strategies have a direct contribution that revolve around developing
the language system constructed by the student. Cognitive and meta-cognitive
learning strategies in her study make direct and indirect contributions to the
students’ language acquisition. Cognitive strategies are: guessing, clarification,
deductive reasoning, memorisation, practice and monitoring. Meta-cognitive
strategies are: planning, setting goals, organising and self-management.

2. Communication strategies contribute indirectly to learning and are aimed at
encouraging learners to participate and communicate with others by miming,
using synonyms and/or antonyms.

3. Social strategies also make an indirect contribution to learning and they involve
the students’ attempts to enhance and increase their language exposure.

O’Malley and Chamot’s (1990) classification also divides learning strategies
into cognitive, meta-cognitive and social/affective strategies.

1. Cognitive learning strategies consist of manipulation of the learning process and
materials to enhance learning, for instance using grammar books and
dictionaries, memorising, and repetition.
2. Meta-cognitive strategies encompass the planning, monitoring and evaluation of the learning process.

3. Social/affective strategies include participating with others. The three classifications developed by O’Malley and Chamot (1990), propelled the diversification of strategies, as further broken down in Oxford’s research (1990).

Oxford’s classification (1990) in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning divides strategies into two main strategies which are sub-divided into six groups. The main strategies are direct learning strategies that consist of cognitive, memory and compensation strategies, and indirect learning strategies that comprise meta-cognitive, social and affective strategies. In this classification, cognitive strategies are reserved for mental activity, the meta-cognitive dimension enables students to play a regulatory role in their learning, emotions being catered for in affective strategies and existing knowledge gaps are filled using compensation strategies.

The six sub-divisions of learning strategies, according to Oxford (1990: 9), are as follows:

1. Memory strategies that help students store and retrieve new knowledge, such as grouping or using visual images.

2. Cognitive strategies that help students to comprehend and produce new language by using, for example, summarising or deductive reasoning.

3. Compensation strategies that permit students to use the language regardless of their gaps in knowledge, for instance, guessing and using antonyms or synonyms.

4. Meta-cognitive strategies are “actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning
process” (Oxford, 1990: 136). For example, monitoring allows students to check comprehension and production while learning by “monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success” (Ehrman et al., 2003: 317).

5. Affective strategies that deal with feelings, attitudes, motivations, and values, such as encouraging and lowering anxiety.

6. Finally, social strategies consist of “asking questions, asking for clarification, asking for help, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) enable the learner to learn via interaction with others and understand the target culture” (Ehrman et al., 2003: 317).

2.3 Investigating the role of strategy awareness in writing

While discussing several strategies, it is necessary to consider the awareness of strategies by ESL learners. Dickenson (1992) suggests two types of learner awareness: language awareness (the knowledge to describe and talk about language) and language learning awareness (knowledge about the learning process and the aspects that affect it). Oxford and Cohen’s (1992: 13) definition of strategy awareness is “the learners’ understanding of his or her own strategy applications - how he or she takes in new language material, encodes it, and transforms it to make it usable for actual communication”. A lack of awareness about strategies can have an impact on students’ ability to understand the approaches of the teachers and they may not acquire the targeted skills by the approaches followed (Rose, 1998). Therefore, “many students may have difficulty knowing how and when to use the strategies they have been exposed to, organising and planning their strategy use, finding language-specific strategies, and transferring strategies across skills and tasks” Cohen (1998: 77). Hence, it is essential to help students improve their strategy awareness by perceiving
effective models to improve students’ learning skills (Wang, 2008). According to Wang (2008: 6),

Various models for the teaching of language learning strategies have been proposed: some are concerned with teaching strategies separately. Some with integrating instruction with language tasks and others with styles-and-strategies-based instruction. Few models focus on writing strategy instruction.

For example, Macaro (2001) suggests a training model for secondary students in England who learn French as a foreign language (involving three years of learning French). His model was concerned with writing and other language skills strategies and it succeeded to raise students’ awareness of the importance of strategy use. The writing strategies utilised in Macaro’s study were brainstorming, using bilingual dictionaries, using the right tense, adjective agreement and cooperative revising work. Therefore, the need to help learners explore and increase their strategy awareness is vital, in particular, to improve writing skills.

2.4 Research on writing strategies

Writing strategies are actions, behaviours and techniques that are consciously selected by students to produce a competent and effective piece of writing (Cohen, 1998: 4; Oxford, 1990: 8; Wenden, 1987: 6). An inclination to emphasise language learning strategies in general and neglect writing strategies in particular in second language acquisition research is indicated by Silva (1993: 657), who maintains that this was due to a postulation that “L1 and L2 writing are particularly identical or at least very similar”.

Research over the years has appreciated the complexity of writing, with L1 and L2 soliciting equal levels of interest. Most researchers have categorically stated and argued that the writing process is complex and its non-linearity and recursive nature may be a major contributor to complexity in the writing process (Archibald & Jeffery,
2000; Chamot, 2005; Emig, 1971; Flower & Hayes, 1981). To contextualise the point, cognitive models have tended to define writing in terms of problem solving (McCutchen et al., 2008). Generally, writing problems arise from the writer’s attempt to map language onto his or her own thoughts and feelings, as well as the expectations of the reader (Krashen, 2005).

A skilled writer can confront a staggering hierarchy of challenges, from how to generate ideas and organise them to how to construct grammatically correct sentences to correct use of punctuation and spelling, tone, and tuning to the desired audience. Hayes and Flower (1980) present evidence that these processes are frequently interleaved in actual writing. For example, authors may be planning for the next section even as they produce already-planned text; they may read what they have written and detect how they have gone astray from one of their intended goals and then either interrupt themselves to revise the section they just wrote or change their goals and plans for the next section. In short, writing involves complex problem solving, in which information is processed using a system of function-specific components and is constantly revised to achieve a set goal. Other aspects that have received considerable interest and research, but will not be discussed in detail here, are the differences between L1 and L2 writing or the characteristics of skilled and unskilled writers in L1 and L2, and the use of L1 in L2 writing. For example, Silva (1993) proposes that the processes of L1 writing are different from those of L2 writing. He compared L1 and L2 writing by evaluating 72 studies and reporting differences in the writing process and within the elements of the texts. This assumption is supported by Zimmermann (2000), who claims that L2 proficiency is the key difference between L1 and L2 writing. The same findings were reported by different researchers in different contexts. For example, Hirose’s (2003) study was on 15 Japanese students.
who learnt EFL; Abdul-Rahman’s (2011) study was conducted with 15 university students, four of whom were native English speakers, five Chinese and six Libyan.

Wang and Wen (2002) used a think-aloud protocol with 16 Chinese EFL undergraduate students who wrote L2 essays using their L1. In their findings, students were using the L1 in generating ideas and organising them. The more they relied on their L1 in writing, the less their L2 developed. A similar result was found in Woodall’s (2002) study on 28 adult participants. Several reasons for using the L1 while writing in the L2 have been reported by L2 writing researchers. The L1 is used for planning (Krapels, 1990; Wang, 2003; Woodall, 2002), for generating ideas (Beare, 2000; Krapels, 1990; Wang, 2003; Woodall, 2002) and/or vocabulary use (Beare, 2000; Wang, 2003). However, different conclusions on the effect of L1 use in L2 proficiency were stated by the above studies. That is, as discussed above, Wang and Wen (2002) and Woodall (2002) came up with the same result, while Wang (2003) and Cumming (1989) came up with a positive result.

In forming a foundation for this study and the methods that were to be used for the implementation and fieldwork in this research, the contributions of Hayes (1996) and Hayes and Flower (1980) indicated the composing process as a problem-solving activity whose complexity should not be undermined. Their cognitive process model provided a reasonable account of the way the brain goes about addressing writing tasks. According to Hayes and Flower (1980), the cognitive writing process consists of planning, translation and review. Idea generation, organisation and goal determination are the main divisions in the planning stage (Hayes, 1988). When written language is used to represent ideas in the form of sentences, that is, the writer puts down his or her ideas on paper, translation or composition is said to take place. Reviewing involved reading the composed material and editing for the final product.
All these, according to Hayes and Flower (1980), can be controlled through monitoring, such that coordination, examination and any mental activities affecting focus can be tapped to ensure a good-quality product is generated.

Earlier research depicted the process of composition as one that is a product of the brain developing ideas, evaluating them and rejecting them at times (Pianko, 1979). Contemporary scholars such as Flower and Hayes (1981) have indicated that in reality, as the cognitive process model suggests, the writing process is non-linear and recursive in nature. In research which involved college-level writers, there is evidence of an overlap of the stages and, as Perl (1979) and Pianko (1979) put it, the process is reflexive. That is, the writer can work forwards and choose to go back to cater for various elements in the writing process to add material. This view, eliminates the notion of a particular order since the writer can choose to add, correct, revise or rewrite any sections previously written at any point in the process.

### 2.4.1 Classifications of ESL writing strategies

Careful division has proved to be hard in the steps or processes that are involved in writing. Arguably, as Hartley (1994) stipulates, the planning, formulation and revision processes overlap at some point in the writing process but, for the purposes of description and understanding composition, they can be considered separately. Researchers have formulated different models and step-by-step processes for writing (Emig, 1971; Rohman, 1965) and a uniform approach is yet to be found. Variations are extensive, with some having three-step processes whereas others are multi-stage. An example of a three-step process model of classification was suggested by Rohman (1965): pre-writing, writing and rewriting. Anderson's steps (1985) were idea generation, actual composition, and rewriting. Larsen (1987) refers to pre-writing,
writing and post-writing. Hayes and Flower (1986) propose, as their three steps for the writing process, planning, translating and reviewing. Wenden (1991) classifies writing strategies based on the cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy use of eight ESL students as planning, evaluating and monitoring (see section 2.2.1 for more explanation). Wenden’s classification is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: ESL writing strategies (Wenden’s classification)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meta-cognitive strategies</th>
<th>Cognitive strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Clarification, Self-questioning, Hypothesising, Defining terms, Comparing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
<td>Retrieval, Rereading aloud or silently what had been written, Writing a lead-in word or expression, Rereading the assigned question, Self-questioning, Writing until an idea would come, Summarising what had just been written, Thinking in one’s native language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring</td>
<td>Resourcing, Ask researcher, Refer to dictionary, Deferral, Avoidance, Verification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Mu (2005)

Sasaki’s classification (2000) of EFL expert and novice Japanese students (writers) postulated differences in strategy use due to second language proficiency in expert students. Sasaki’s study cannot be generalised as it had only 11 participants divided into two groups. The first group contained six ESL learners who practised English writing in an English-speaking country for two to eight months. The second group consisted of five EFL learners who practised writing in English in Japan. Sasaki’s classification of her two groups can be considered as a limitation that hinders the current researcher in adopting it, since practising the writing skill for two months
in an English-speaking country is not enough for EFL learners to attain the required level of L2 writing. See Table 2.3 for further explanation.

Table 2.3: Sasaki’s classification of ESL writing strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Global planning</td>
<td>Detailed planning of overall organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Thematic planning</td>
<td>Less detailed planning of overall organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Local planning</td>
<td>Planning what to write next.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Organising</td>
<td>Organising the generated ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Conclusion planning</td>
<td>Planning of the conclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Retrieving</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Plan retrieving</td>
<td>Retrieving the already constructed plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Information retrieving</td>
<td>Retrieving information from long-term memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Generating ideas</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Naturally generated</td>
<td>Generating an idea without any stimulus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Description generated</td>
<td>Generating an idea related to the previous description.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Verbalising</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Verbalising a proposition</td>
<td>Verbalising the content intended to be written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Rhetorical refining</td>
<td>Refining the rhetorical space(s) of an expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Mechanical refining</td>
<td>Refining the mechanical or L1/ESL grammar aspects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sense of readers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating</td>
<td>Translating the general ideas into ESL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluating</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) ESL proficiency evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluating one’s own ESL proficiency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Local text evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluating part of the generated text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) General text evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluating the generated text in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Others</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Resting</td>
<td>Resting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Questioning</td>
<td>Asking the researcher questions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mu (2005)

Abdul-Rahman’s (2011: 43-44) classification of English language writing strategies for university level native and non-native speakers (in the UK) was based on the L1 writing process cognitive models of Flower and Hayes (1981), Patric and Czarl (2003) and Soames (2006), which emphasise recursive, non-linear writing and divide the writing process into planning, translating ideas into sentences and reviewing. Abdul-Rahman’s classification is adopted in this research as it addresses SL writing strategies, and some of her participants were Arab speakers. Table 2.4 shows this in more detail.
Table 2.4: Abdul-Rahman’s writing strategies classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing strategies</th>
<th>Sub-strategies</th>
<th>Assumption</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before writing</td>
<td>Organisation strategies</td>
<td>Structure, guidance for readers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Content strategies</td>
<td>Thinking, generating, analysing ideas in L1/L2.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Feedback strategies</td>
<td>Sentences, wording, voice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When writing</td>
<td>Content strategies</td>
<td>Thinking, generating, mastering ideas in L1/L2.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Language strategies</td>
<td>Sentences, wording, voice.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Organisation strategies</td>
<td>Structure, guidance for readers.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Feedback strategies</td>
<td>Questioning, getting support from others.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mechanics strategies</td>
<td>Spelling, grammar, citations, typing, handwriting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revising and editing</td>
<td>Content strategies</td>
<td>Thinking, generating, mastering ideas in L1/L2.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mechanics strategies</td>
<td>Spelling, grammar, citations, typing, handwriting.</td>
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<td>Language strategies</td>
<td>Sentences, wording, voice.</td>
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<td>Feedback strategies</td>
<td>Questioning, getting support from others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation strategies</td>
<td>Structure, guidance for readers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Abdul-Rahman (2011: 44)

2.4.2 The sub-processes of writing

The sub-processes described in the Hayes and Flower (1980) cognitive model of L1 writing has been widely used in the L2 writing process, as discussed earlier (e.g., Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Wang, 2008). Significant contributions to the improvement of learner participation and interest in the process of writing have been observed in these two studies. These sub-processes are: planning, formulating and revising.

With regard to the planning stage, different strategies are utilised by students during the pre-writing stage. Among the elements that emerge are the point of view from which the essay will be written (the writer’s position on the topic), and the organisation and content of the paper (Alamargot et al., 2007). In accordance with the planning process, the goals of the essay are outlined and captured in the plan the writer makes to guide him or her in writing a text that meets the set goals (Hayes & Flower, 1980). According to Raimes (1985: 241), pre-writing strategies are “all the activities
(such as reading the topic, rehearsing, planning and making notes) that students engaged in before they wrote what was the first sentence of their first draft”. Some of the elements to be considered at this stage include the following:

i. Generating ideas. As explained by Hayes (1996), the first step solicits cognitive aspects that entail creative thinking that will approve of, or reject, ideas based on the desired trend. To some, the many ideas may cause confusion but, according to Hayes and Flower (1980), the instructor is a key player in ensuring that the cognitive ability of the learner is nurtured and processed and integrated into the other following insets of the general idea. Various pre-writing strategies can be used in an SL writing class, such as: “brainstorming, idea-mapping, outlining and listing” (Yu-wen, 2007: 12). Brainstorming is an important tool to stimulate students’ ability to produce ideas and it entails listing as many ideas as possible about the topic in hand, which also helps in further understanding of the topic (Williams, 2005).

Brainstorming is usually done in groups or as a whole-class activity and has a number of benefits, such as: “generating more ideas, stimulating new ideas, expanding the vision of thinking, activating previous knowledge, reviewing more words” (Wang, 2008: 75). Idea-mapping, or mind-mapping, is an option that is used usually after whole-class discussion or brainstorming and entails drawing a circle in the centre of the page and writing a trigger idea (usually a broad topic area, a question, or your working thesis statement) in the centre of the circle. Then ideas are recorded on branches and sub-branches that extend from the centre circle. Keep recording your ideas on sub-branches off the main branch, as long as one train of thought is pursued. Go back and start a new branch as soon as that train of ideas runs dry. Often thoughts jump back and forth between branches (Ramage & Bean, 1998: 58).

Outlining is a strategy of planning that starts with a short list of ideas written separately, then details are added to these lists (Wang, 2008). Previous
research indicated that generating ideas is the most difficult task when writing in L2 (Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Roca et al., 2001; Silva, 1993).

ii. Planning at the textual level is an advantage in ensuring that there is coherence in the writing and organisation in the ideas. According to Chamot (2005: 121), “more advanced students find it difficult to link their ideas with coherence and to produce appropriate target language discourse”. Contentious issues about cohesive devices such as pronouns and conjunctions within the sentence and between paragraphs emerge in this stage of planning (Gagne, 1985). However, this accentuates the importance of organisation at the textual level (Bereiter & Scarmadalia, 1986).

iii. Planning at the lexical level. Apart from normal vocabulary, there are some items in clause relations that hold sentences together in a paragraph or organise larger passages and discourses and, for this reason, provide the writer with a richer list of vocabulary. The function of these aids in writing has been termed by Flower and Hayes (1981) as a means of bridging the ideas and steps in the process.

The formulation stage defines when the writer follows the outlines designed, translates the different items in the planning stage into sentences and expands the sentences to paragraphs by adding examples and more details (Flower & Hayes, 1981). At this stage of writing, after putting the ideas into sentences, the writer creates connections that also entail questioning some of the aspects of the topic or the language being used (Manchón et al., 2007). According to Manchón et al., this includes putting into effect aspects of academic conventions and grammar, among other crucial considerations. This phase relies on the planning stage, which, if the ideas are good and well organised and the outlines are detailed, will lead to good
In interpreting the outlines and ideas in the planning sheet into a written text, it ought to be noted that the writer is following a non-linear writing process by moving from one point in the outline to another until the final point is covered (Zamel, 1983). While doing so, the writer adds supporting details and examples to expand the sentences into paragraphs and, at the same time, implements revising processes during the formulating stage, such as revising the structure and word choice, and finally moves to the revising stage (Plakans, 2008).

With regard to the revising stage, Williams (2005: 83) defines revising as rereading a text and rephrasing it if necessary anytime during the writing process, but “most inexperienced writers, including many L2 writers, tend to focus more on editing than on revising, making small changes in short stretches of text rather than critically considering the text as a whole”. The aim of revision is mostly to improve the quality of the writing and should be allocated considerable amounts of time (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1986). As a result of the neglect of the importance of this tool, most researchers have found revision to be centred on the language level (Hall, 1990; Porte, 1997; Whalen & Ménard, 1995). According to Manchón et al. (2007), revision is an important task that comes with discovery and through practice enhances writing performance. However, researchers claim that most students do not use revision strategies effectively; they concentrate on word choice and mechanics, which makes their revising ineffective in enhancing the quality of written essays/texts (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1986; Graham et al, 1995). Hence, there is a need to create all-round revision, as targeted by the implementation of this study. This can be achieved through revising content, sentence structure and organisation.
2.5 Strategy training and related models

According to Cohen (1998: 67), strategy training is explicit teaching on how students can apply language learning and how to use language learning strategies. Most of the universities in Saudi Arabia are yet to take strategy training seriously and develop the necessary infrastructure to impart EFL teaching methods and LLS training to their learners (Al-Hazmi, 2006). This compounds the problem at another level: the lack of a skilled workforce to impart ESL/EFL learning. The strategy required must, thus, be multipronged.

In the Saudi context, problems stem from more than one factor. For example, at the university level, there are not many trained teachers to take up the task of second language teaching in a more coherent manner (Zohairy, 2012). The difficulty of strategy training was stated by Brown and Palincsar (1982) and Derry and Murphy (1986), who attributed this issue to unsuccessful attempts to combine cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies while learning. Cohen (1998: 66) states that “learning will be facilitated if students are explicitly trained to become more aware of and proficient in the use of a broad range of strategies that can be utilized throughout the language learning process”.

Ellis (1997) has recorded issues regarding the strategies to be taught as well as the combinations that would be beneficial to students. Cohen (1991), on the other hand, highlights that students need to be trained and made aware of the strategies to be used beforehand to form a recognition basis on which to create a tendency to welcome the strategies when used by the instructor. Input from peer review has also been investigated with “positive results” in language and writing learning by Berg (1999: 232). To conclude, the difficulties in the observation of these strategies have been noted as being a problem for investigators, as Macaro (2001) stipulates.
Regardless of these views on the difficulties of applying effective strategy instruction in class, models of strategy training have been developed and a brief view is now discussed.

Pearson and Dole (1987) designed a one-strategy training model for L1 learners. In this model, students were explicitly trained to use a specific strategy by first modelling it, describing the benefits of the strategy used and transferring it to a new environment. After practising a number of strategies, the intention of the teacher was to encourage students to use the strategies independently and advocate autonomous learning. The author designed a number of activities which were done in sequence:

1. The teacher modelled the strategy and explicitly explained the importance and usage of the strategy.
2. In-class practice under the supervision of the teacher.
3. The teacher helped the students to recognise the strategy and when to use it.
4. The students used the strategy independently.
5. The students used the strategy in different tasks.

Thus, Pearson and Dole (1987) believe that students are able to comprehend the use of different strategies if the teacher uses scaffolding first, then students can practise the strategies independently. However, this model was proposed to train students to apply strategies for the four skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing, in their mother tongue. Wang (2008: 30) claims that this model “failed to identify the importance of the learners' needs and the evaluation of strategies”. However, this model accentuated explicit instructions, the practice of strategies guided by the teacher, discussion and transfer to a new activity, which can be used in the context of this research study.
Oxford et al. (1990: 208-210) proposed a strategy training model with seven steps:

1. Setting the scene and exploring attitudes, expectations, and current strategies.
2. Choosing strategies.
3. Considering strategy training integration.
4. Focusing directly on affective issues.
5. Preparing materials and activities.
6. Conducting completely informed strategy training, if possible.
7. Evaluating strategy training.

In this model, the series or arrangement of instructions designed to introduce the strategy are effective. They stress the explicit awareness of strategy, consider the benefits of using strategies, apply practical practice with the strategies, promote self-evaluation of students’ performance, and advise on appropriate ways of transferring the strategies into a new context or task. Therefore, this model, with this particular arrangement, explains a number of strategies that can be used by students for a variety of language learning tasks and consists of:

1. Asking learners to perform a language activity without any strategy training.
2. Having the students discuss how they did it and praise any useful strategies and self-directed attitudes that they mention.
3. Suggesting and demonstrating other helpful strategies, mentioning the need for greater self-direction and expected benefits, such as higher grades, faster progress, and greater self-confidence.
4. Allowing learners plenty of time to practise the new strategies with language tasks.
5. Showing how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks.
6. Providing practice using the techniques with new tasks.

7. Helping students understand how to evaluate the success of their strategy use and gauge their progress as more responsible and self-directed learners (Oxford et al., 1990: 209-210).

This model is designed for the ESL class context but it is difficult to apply in writing strategy instruction due to its focus on the attitudes and beliefs of language learning. It also emphasises specific strategies. Hence, it is useful for an ESL or EFL context but it is not intended to be used for writing strategy instruction.

The third training model is that of O'Malley and Chamot (1994), and consists of four steps of problem solving. First is planning, where the teacher introduces a task and its objectives and proposes that the students choose strategies to plan their own methods of doing the task. Second is monitoring, where students monitor their performance and understanding. Third is problem solving, where students are responsible for solving any issues they encounter. Fourth is evaluation, where students are given time to evaluate the activity.

The steps designed by O'Malley and Chamot (1994) promote students’ awareness of strategy use, so that they “have a chance to practise using and transferring the strategies, engage in self-monitoring and evaluation of strategy use, and participate in discussions about the rationale behind the strategies” (Wang, 2008: 31). However, this model is not applicable to Saudi students, whose knowledge of writing strategies is limited.

To conclude, all the above models serve in their contexts and each has its benefits and weaknesses. They could be useful if the researcher combined them and added aspects to them that suited the study context and the students’ needs. However,
the researcher prefers Oxford et al.’s (1990) model because it consists of clear instructions and processes on strategy training.

### 2.6 Second language writing

According to Anderson (1980), language production is considered as a process that emphasises meaning and is pertinent to speaking and writing skills. Several theoretical and experimental models exist that have been founded on the Hayes and Flower (1980) cognitive model of writing, which attempts to describe L1 and L2 writing as processes. The Hayes and Flower (1980) model describes text production in terms of three sub-processes: planning, formulation and revision, which interact recursively, and further posits that the task of writing involves writers cognitively manipulating the three sub-processes to achieve their set goals (Larios et al., 2001). The cognitive process of writing has four underlying principles: (a) writing is a group of distinctive processes that writers manipulate while composing; (b) the processes are hierarchical and easily embedded within one another; (c) the writer’s goals direct the thinking process during composition; and (d) writers create objectives by developing higher- and lower-level goals or establishing newer goals based on learnt skills or simply by revising the higher-level goals. Figure 2.1 illustrates the Hayes and Flower cognitive model of writing.
Figure 2.1: Hayes and Flower cognitive model of writing

Source: Hayes and Flower (1980)

The Hayes and Flower (1980) cognitive process theory of writing has three main components: the task environment, the writer’s long-term memory, and a composing processor managed by a monitor, who is usually the teacher in the classroom who monitors the writing process. The task environment refers to the factors that shape the writing process, and include the writing assignment, the readers and their knowledge of the text. The writer’s long-term memory refers to the writer’s knowledge of the assigned topic, genre and audience. The composing processor involves the three actual writing processes, which the monitor controls by allowing the writer to move between the three according to the requirements of the task. The first part of the writing process is planning, where the writer builds a representation of knowledge for use in writing, organises the ideas into groups and finds an order of presentation within the text to achieve the goals set by the writer. The second is translating, where the writer addresses the pragmatic, semantic and syntactic
operations of text generation. The third is reviewing, where the writer systematically evaluates and revises the text to improve it and/or automatically edits ideas and errors in the text. This writing model has been used to describe the L1 writing process and it was accepted to explain L2 writing. According to Wang (2008), planning and revising are essential processes in training writing strategy to help EFL students improve their writing performance.

The Hayes and Flower (1980) cognitive model was criticised by North (1987), who claimed that this model failed to build formal model criteria for identifying how to construct text material and what semantic imperatives should be used in the development of this text. The process approach to L1 writing initially consisted of generating ideas (pre-writing), writing a first draft with the emphasis on content, and producing successive drafts to revise and communicate ideas, using reader feedback for further revisions to achieve a written product (Reither, 1985). However, challenges still exist regarding the best research methodology to study the processes and their interaction in L1 composition.

Krapels (1990: 48) conducted an inclusive survey on the second language writing process and her findings determine five frequent concepts: 1) low achievement in second language writing results more from poor writing competence than an absence of linguistic competence; 2) the writing processes of second language writers are similar to those of first language writers; 3) writers transfer their first language writing strategies to the second language writing process; 4) the use of the first language in second language writing has some supportive functions; and 5) cultural topics inspired first language use more than other tasks. It is significant to mention that a number of the early studies had the same conclusion. For instance, Zamel (1983) studied L2 university-level writing processes and compared her results to L1 writing
processes, and her study is considered as part of the L1 research literature. Zamel (1983) studied six proficient L2 writers at university level using interviews, retrospective accounts of their writing processes and multiple essays. The study found that writing processes between L2 and L1 had no significant differences, which implied that proficiency in the process of writing had more influence than linguistic proficiency in the aptitude of the writers to be competent in writing. The study indicated that regardless of the level of L2 proficiency, L2 writers used their L1 composing competence in the L2 composing process. She also concludes that “composing is a non-linear, exploratory and generative process” (1983: 165), which is in line with Flower and Hayes’ (1981) model of the L1 writing process.

Diaz (1986) analysed videotaped records of the think-aloud protocols of eight L2 writers, the multiple drafts they used for generating data, and their post-writing questionnaires. The findings indicated that there was no difference between L1 and L2 composing processes, implying that writers use the same composing process across languages. Larios et al. (2001) conducted a cross-sectional study on L2 Spanish EFL writers at different stages in the process of language-learning (at different levels of L2 proficiency). In the study, data were collected using think-aloud protocols, where all participants tape-recorded themselves concurrently to neutralise variations that might arise due to cultural and gender-related interactions when engaging with the researcher. In addition, participants were given questionnaires to record their attitudes about the writing environment. The findings indicated that formulation time was relatively similar for L1 and L2 writers. However, participants with higher levels of L2 proficiency used less time in formulation, spent more time on composing, and employed increased interaction between formulation and other sub-processes.
Research on L2 writing has evolved into a research domain addressing five main areas of L2 writing: writers’ characteristics, the writing process, writing feedback, writing instruction, and the writer’s text. Among the five research areas, the L2 writing process has been predominant in L2 writing research (Zhang, 2008). Further, in L2 writing research, the research designs adopted have largely mirrored designs used in L1 writing, with the majority comparing L1 with L2 writing processes (Yanqun, 2009).

In countries such as Saudi Arabia, L2 learners face difficulties regarding grammar, as it is different from that of their mother tongue (Alnufaie & Grenfell, 2012). Hence, learning to write in a second language (L2) differs from learning to write in the first (L1) due to the use of two languages by L2 students “for cognitive operations” (Wang & Wen, 2002: 225). However, the study findings mentioned above (Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Diaz, 1986; Krapels, 1990; Larios et al., 2001; Wang, 2008; Zamel, 1983) support and share a number of insights that inspired the researcher to conduct her study in the Saudi context: firstly, writing is non-linear and this promotes students being more creative when generating ideas; secondly, ESL and EFL students’ low achievements are mainly attributed to their writing ability, and their linguistic ability plays a secondary role in their writing performance; thirdly, the L2 writing process is similar to the L1 writing process, which allows L1 writing strategies to be transferred to the L2 writing process. However, these studies, together with Hayes and Flower’s cognitive model, did not provide a clear EFL training programme that included the elements of planning and revising. Hence, this study was intended to fill this gap and develop an integrated approach for Saudi EFL students at the secondary level.
2.7 Writing instruction

The period in the late 1960s marked the beginning of second language writing studies in line with the growing number of international students who were joining institutions in the USA and the UK (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). According to Edelsky (1982) and Edelsky and Smith (1989), instruction in ESL mainly focused on enhancing students’ abilities in the skills of reading, listening to and speaking English, while overlooking the development of writing skills.

Graves (1984) asserts that the lack of attention paid to writing instruction can be attributed to a neglect of research studies that focus on writing. Nevertheless, the significance of writing should not be overlooked, since it is an important aspect of the learning process and there is a close link between writing and cognitive development (Scott, 1996). Consequently, a substantial number of ESL programmes have incorporated writing classes as an essential component of their curricula.

Since grammar translation and audio-lingual teaching dominated language teaching previously (Fries, 1945), the purpose of writing was to reinforce understanding of grammatical rules (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007; Larios et al., 2001). From sentence fill-ins and completion tasks, writing instruction developed to include sentence combining and guided composition (Matsuda et al., 2003). From the early 1970s, writing instruction took a rhetorical function (Kaplan, 1976) by introducing paragraph patterns, where instruction included descriptions, definitions, narratives, generalisation, and cause and effect (Zare-ee, 2011).

In the early 1980s, writing instruction took another route, as research into language composition began to shift towards a process-based approach (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Teachers’ and researchers’ interest in what actually goes on in an L2 writer’s mind as he or she writes influenced a shift towards a process approach, with
writing instruction focusing on helping writers choose topics, generate ideas, write multiple drafts, and revise according to the teacher’s feedback (Purves, 1992).

The process-based approach led to the content-based approach (such as English for academic purposes [EAP]), whose focus was on assessing writers using assignments and examinations (Medgyes, 1992; Nikolov, 1999; Shih, 1986). When the content approach was applied to cases of unskilled ESL writers, it was seen that these learners are more concerned with detailing on the surface level, while the teacher’s focus will be on the content (Zamel, 1985).

While early L2 studies considered the cognitive aspects of language composition and assumed that the language rather than the writer was social, Matsuda et al. (2003) posit that research in the late 1990s began recognising the social constructs of an L2 writer, leading to critical perspectives on L2 writing instruction. The critical perspective explored ideology, identity and reflection in texts to help writers make choices in their writing to reflect their identity (Zare-ee, 2011). To this end, the researcher urges the use of a student-centred approach to encourage the active involvement of learners in the process of learning to write and the process of language assessment.

As research into L2 writing evolved from considering writing as a product to a process, and later to including the social constructs of the writers, writing instruction also evolved along similar lines to those discussed above: from controlled composition, to a process approach, to a content approach, to a genre approach and to a critical perspective that includes the social constructs of L2 writers. In the same context, teachers require coherent perspectives and tools for teaching and evaluating the efficacy of competing writing approaches (Matsuda, 2003).
The following section of the review evaluates the approaches used in teaching writing to students. The approaches reviewed include controlled composition, current-traditional rhetoric, process, genre, content, and a combined approach to writing.

### 2.7.1 Controlled composition

Controlled composition, also sometimes referred to as guided composition, can be traced back to Charles Fries’ oral model (Fries, 1945), which defined the audio-lingual method of second language teaching. This approach is based on the premises that language is speech and that learning involves habit formation.

The above two premises are driven from perspectives in structural linguistics (Applebee, 1986; Center for Applied Linguistics, 1984) and behavioural psychology (Silva & Leki, 2004; Zamel, 1987). Proponents and researchers of controlled composition perceived writing as an avenue for enhancing students’ oral habits (Silva & Leki, 2004). As such, they placed less emphasis on the role of writing in enhancing students’ writing competency. Kroll (1990: 12) also commented on this perception: “writing was regarded as a secondary concern, essentially as reinforcement for oral habits”. In his book *Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language*, Fries (1945: 8) considered writing as an afterthought, when noting that “even written exercises could be part of the second language learner’s work”.

Under the controlled composition approach to teaching English to L2 learners, the teacher’s role involves developing the structure of the ideas that students need to express. Moreover, the teachers produce the necessary vocabulary to be used. Essentially, the teacher plays a pivotal role in guiding students throughout the writing process by spelling out the methodology for writing and in defining what needs to be written (Hyland, 2004).
Moreover, greater emphasis is placed upon formal accuracy, as teachers proactively and directly control the writing process (Kroll, 1990). In practice, the teacher writes the text and reviews it for structural flaws and the required vocabulary before allowing students to engage in a write-up. The teacher, therefore, includes his or her own vocabulary in the composition (Grossman et al., 1989). Using this approach, students can form habits (related to L2 learning) that are oriented towards the elimination of errors presumably resulting from interference from the learners’ first language (Yamashita, 2004). As a result, aspects such as the students’ own ideas and the organisation of texts take second place. As linguistic features take centre stage, students enhance their vocabulary as they manipulate familiar texts (Kroll, 1990).

Hyland (2004) notes that the controlled composition approach is largely applied in countries where students have low language proficiency. The approach is useful in helping students develop their confidence level in writing in English and is instrumental in enhancing students’ academic skills (Murray & Christison, 2010). However, controlled composition poses grave dangers for second language learners, since their teachers may limit language development due to the rigid control they may apply to the learning process. For instance, teachers may assign their learners course materials that are beyond their grasp, thus impeding their learning (Pincas, 1962).

As a result of writing instruction that involves controlled composition, the approach has produced outcomes that are damaging as well as expensive for ESL learners (Pincas, 1962). For example, brainstorming techniques, drafting or revising skills do not form an integral part of controlled composition, while academic vocabulary and formal features of grammar, as well as texts, are not consistent.
As a result, ESL learners are being failed in their final outcome, as well as in their professional pursuits (Leki & Carson, 1997).

Moreover, it may be difficult for teachers to enhance a student’s writing skills in different contexts (Bransford et al., 2000). This is compounded by the fact that the controlled composition approach emphasises the formation of the right expressions while negating the expression of the student’s ideas (Villalva, 2006). When teachers emphasise form over the communication of ideas, students are unlikely to master a language or develop high-level writing abilities (Hyland, 2004).

Furthermore, teachers using this approach orient their learners towards avoiding errors and providing accurate answers; this limits students, since it does not allow any room for mistakes or consider mistakes as an important stage of learning (Hyland, 2004). Therefore, students are constrained by the need only to construct sentences that make grammatical sense, as opposed to developing their conceptual abilities through individual choices of various topics.

In addition, high school students are mostly adolescents who prefer to present a good image of themselves to their peers. As such, students exhibiting lower proficiency levels in their writing may adopt various approaches in an effort to hide their lack of competence (Murray & Christison, 2010). For instance, some students may opt to memorise the texts presented by their teachers or copy such materials, which, according to Al-Harbi (2006), is what happens in Saudi Arabia. This undermines the efficacy of language development, since such students would rather mask their writing inadequacies than face embarrassment in front of their friends.

Erazmus (1960) and Briere (1966) recommended that writing exercises should be in the form of free composition, where the writer is the creator of the discourse and writing exercises extend the language control of the learners to promote fluency in
their writing. Nevertheless, such free composition was subject to much criticism from researchers such as Pincas (1962). Pincas (1962: 185) considered this approach to be “a naïve traditional view” that directly contrasted with scientific ideals on the habit-forming teaching approach. Pincas observed that considerations of original creativeness are difficult to dispel. People find it difficult to acknowledge that the use of language involves the manipulation of patterns that are fixed and that these patterns are learnt through imitation (Pincas, 1962). Therefore, until these fixed patterns have been learnt, originality cannot occur during the manipulation of these set patterns or the selection of different variables within these patterns (Pincas, 1962). A critical examination of Pincas’ perception shows that her views were supported by many researchers in this field, such as Dykstra (1964), Horn (1974), Moody (1965), Paulston (1966, 1972), Ross (1968) and Spencer (1965) and mainly accentuated formal correctness and accuracy in using inflexible and controlled programmes of habit formation developed to prevent errors that are presumably brought about by first language interference. These programmes also aimed to act as positive reinforcement for suitable second language behaviour. In this case, the preferred approach involved the careful manipulation and imitation of fixed patterns (Pincas, 1962).

Using the controlled composition approach, the writer is considered a manipulator of language structures that were previously developed. The reader is the ESL teacher who plays the role of proofreader or editor, who is not particularly interested in the quality of expression or the ideas presented, but is mainly concerned with the formal linguistic features employed by the writer (Kroll, 1990). This undermines the teacher’s role in helping students to develop linguistic skills. Using this approach, texts are considered to be a collection of sentences, vocabulary items
and patterns. These features are considered to be linguistic products which are a means for language practice (Noel, 2011).

Wang (2008) notes that despite the fact that a substantial number of people feel that controlled composition is not used in any ESL writing classes, the use of this approach is evident in ESL writing classrooms and textbooks and is infrequently addressed in the professional literature.

In addition, controlled composition disregards the audience for which a given text is written. The implication is that students do not tailor their write-ups for specific purposes (Bartholomae, 1988). This is understandable, since controlled composition is constrained in terms of its context, as its audience is the teacher who serves as the editor (Silva & Leki, 2004). The emphasis on errors as opposed to content implies that students merely focus on minimalist features and disregard the core aspects of writing development.

Pech and Buckingham (1976) observe that there are two major weaknesses associated with the use of controlled composition. The first is that this approach lacks the means of determining the gradations of control or decontrol which allow a smooth transition from highly guided or manipulated writing to free writing. The second weakness is that this approach forces ESL students to write for the purpose of complying with the requirements of teachers or textbook writers, rather than writing to express themselves. As a result of these two weaknesses, Pech and Buckingham (1976) recommended the need for approaches that utilise the knowledge and interests of students and also prepare ESL students for different writing tasks. They also recommended the need for approaches that would enable students to make the transition from spoken to written English smoothly and encourage them to realise their personal objectives in written communication (Pech & Buckingham, 1976).
Al-Hazmi (2006) observes that teaching writing in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and in the Arab world in general typifies a controlled composition approach at lower levels. A free composition approach is used at higher levels, whereas at intermediate levels a mixture of both controlled and free composition is employed. According to Halimah (1991), the teaching of writing skills in Saudi Arabia mainly focuses on the end product and the linguistic features used by using controlled composition approach and current-traditional rhetoric. Kharma (1985) notes that the greatest weakness in teaching EFL writing classes in the Arab world is that the approaches used are limited to the use of language at the sentence level. He states that the approaches used are either not adequate with regard to these learners or are not correctly understood. Moreover, the focus on linguistic features at the sentence level in teaching EFL writing in Saudi Arabia and the Arab world in general is teacher centred (Kharma, 1985). This in turn brings about negative effects on the development of learners’ writing skills (Liggett, 1983), examples of these undesirable effects having been mentioned previously. Consequently, EFL learners develop problems in relation to adequate self-expression and in the formulation of analytical and critical thought (Al-Hazmi, 2007).

Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), discussing instructional paradigms, state that composing processes were still evolving and, for that reason, it was necessary for teachers to consider different approaches depending on the assumptions and practices generated by various philosophies. The necessity for controlled composition arises from the necessity to teach remedial writing. As students learn to manipulate the pre-written material provided, the teacher has to promote improved student writing, including increased fluency, error control and a sense of essay structure, as well as
greater student self-confidence and motivation to improve writing further (Gorrell, 1981).

Controlled composition can be used by teachers to deal with errors in tenses made by learners of ESL/ EFL. Subject-verb agreement, punctuation, spelling and sentence formation all come under the umbrella of controlled composition exercises (Folse et al., 1999). Using controlled composition, teachers try to teach ESL learners to practise with some degree of manipulation but without prior theoretical knowledge or study (Pincas, 1962).

The system of controlled composition may well be useful for students using English as a second language because they face the problem of a lack of attention to written forms (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Most of the problems faced by ESL learners is that they can talk but cannot do the same while writing, and controlled composition helps them to write what they know through certain manipulations if they lack any knowledge regarding written language (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

Therefore, the various shortcomings of this approach, such as the teacher-originated discourse, rigidity and control of the writing process by teachers and lack of fluency of expression in the writer’s text, point towards the need to consider alternative approaches to teaching English to L2 learners and the development of a student-oriented discourse (Ahmed, 2011). A critical review of the controlled composition approach is vital in this research because it is the main teaching approach utilised in writing lessons in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia coupled with the current-traditional approach. Considering these two approaches in the literature review is a way of showing the real situation regarding the approach taken in writing lessons in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia which urged the need for research to find a suitable approach to teaching writing.
2.7.2 Current-traditional rhetoric

Current-traditional rhetoric, or the paragraph-pattern approach, emerged in response to the gap in ESL students’ writing skills resulting from the application of the controlled composition approach (Kroll, 1990). There was a need to ensure that students’ writing abilities developed beyond the construction of grammatical sentences. Silva (1990) likewise observed that the mid-1960s brought about an increased awareness of the needs of ESL students with particular regard to their production of extended written discourse. This awareness suggests that controlled composition was not appropriate since there is more to writing than creating grammatical sentences (Carter & McCarthy, 1995). Hence, the need to bridge the gap between free writing and controlled composition was identified and the current-traditional rhetoric approach was formulated to fill this gap. The emergence of current-traditional rhetoric in the 1960s embodied traditional discourse (one that was inclined towards the usage of language as opposed to expression by focusing on aspects such as syntax and punctuation) and the contrastive rhetoric model advanced by Kaplan (1976).

In the notion of contrastive theory, Kaplan (1967) defines rhetoric as a method used in organising syntactic units into larger patterns. He suggests that, in this case, writers use rhetoric and sequences of thought which contravene the expectations of the native reader. ESL writers’ level of expression is distinctly different from that of native speakers and, as such, the contrastive model provides a form that ESL students can use in developing their discourse (Nation, 2000). Contrastive rhetoric hinges on the premise that L2 learners are mostly influenced by their first language (background) and the culture in which they grew up, even as they make attempts to write in English (Kaplan, 1976; Silva, 1990; Silva & Leki, 2004). Kaplan’s model emphasises
paragraph construction, with specific reference to elements such as supporting sentences and transitions, and other aspects that enhance texts. These include the use of elements such as comparative analysis and illustrations (Kaplan, 1976). The current-traditional approach is also used by some teachers of English in Saudi secondary schools, according to Al-Seghayer (2005).

The key concern of this approach revolves around the logical arrangement and construction of discourse (Burns & Joyce, 1997). The paragraph is one of the key areas of interest. In this case, attention is not only given to the elements of the paragraph such as support, topic, transition and concluding sentence, but also directed towards different options for its development, such as exemplification, illustration, contrast, comparison, classification and definition (El-Aswad, 2002). The other crucial focus is directed towards essay development, a process which is considered an extrapolation of paragraph principles to larger discourse stretches (Master, 1995). In addition, an expository technique used in developing longer texts such as essays has been instrumental in this approach. Students learn to organise their texts through description or argumentation in order to express clearer meaning (Kroll, 1990).

Another variation in this approach entails reading and analysing a model and thereafter applying the structural knowledge obtained to a corresponding piece of original writing (Matsuda, 2003). The complex aspects of this approach may sometimes require students to list and categorise relevant facts and subsequently derive subject matter and supporting sentences from some of these facts. Furthermore, using this approach, students may be required to assemble, plan and write their composition from an outline (Silva, 1990).

Therefore, current-traditional rhetoric is concerned with the form of expression derived from the arrangement of various texts in a pattern that provides meaning. As
such, L2 learners develop their own content in order to fit it into a prescribed form (Li, 2000). That way, they can create academic content that reflects the form required by the discourse and mirror native-language writers (Kroll, 1990; Shih, 1986). Traditional rhetoric is widely used by English-language instructors in developing the linguistic abilities of L2 students (Hyland, 2004).

According to Silva (1990), the current-traditional rhetoric approach broadens the conditioning of language employed in the controlled composition approach by shifting the focus of learners’ attention, not only to using correct grammar, but also to employing an appropriate style. Classroom procedures direct students’ attention to form. Using this approach, students analyse the model and form of the structural knowledge that they have acquired and then incorporate it into their own writing. Silva (1990) notes that one similarity between current-traditional rhetoric and controlled composition is that these approaches do not focus on the process of developing writing skills in a second language; rather, they accentuate the end product and focus on how to enable students to create effective writing pieces that portray a mastery of the correct use of form in the second language (Silva, 1990). Connor (1996) notes that the current-traditional rhetoric approach differs from the controlled composition approach in that it advocates writing at the discourse level. Connor (1996) also observes that this approach has benefited writing in three ways: firstly, it has caused written products to become respectable aspects of academic enquiry; secondly, this approach has resulted in writing becoming an independent and significant discipline that is no longer taught by teaching assistants or part-time instructors; lastly, this approach has encouraged researchers to focus their studies on writing. Generally, the current-traditional rhetoric approach has contributed to the development of free writing and, as a result, writing has become an independent skill (Connor, 1996). This approach
has, however, been criticised for restraining and discouraging students’ creativity for its linearity and for concentrating on form rather than content and final product rather than process (El-Aswad, 2002).

According to the above discussion on the current-traditional rhetoric approach used by some teachers in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia, this approach is not applicable for student-centred practices, and its similarities with the controlled composition technique that is used widely in Saudi schools (Al-Harbi, 2006) led the researcher to eliminate the use of this approach from her study. In addition, adopting divergent approaches to writing about various genres would empower the learning process by integrating the content written and the language used (Tribble, 1996). Moreover, the teacher’s strategy in teaching English should help students to become effective learners, as they would then communicate their content more appropriately (Kroll, 1990).

### 2.7.3 The process approach

The introduction of the process approach to ESL writing was mainly brought about by dissatisfaction levelled against the current-traditional rhetoric and controlled composition approaches (Silva, 1990). Taylor (1981) claims that neither of these approaches adequately addresses the needs of ESL students, particularly with regard to equipping them to express their creativity in writing. He adds that there is more to writing than following a set plan or outline.

The process approach was first introduced to L2 by Zamel in 1976. She defined it as a process in which writers “discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (Zamel, 1983: 165). This approach views writing as a complex, non-linear and exploratory process (Flower & Hayes, 1981). According to
Faigley (1986), the process approach has two models: expressivist and cognitivist. The main focus in the expressivist model is on the writer’s voice, while the cognitivist model describes writing as a mental process where writers should receive explicit instructions to understand the writing process and deal with a writing exercise as a problem-solving task (Flower & Hayes, 1981; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). Therefore, the two process models emphasise fluency and meaning over accuracy and form (Tribble, 1996). In this approach, the writer is the main focus of attention and he or she engages in the expression and discovery of meaning. In this case, the reader is not preoccupied with the form of the written piece but instead focuses on the quality of ideas and expressions and also the way in which the writer conveys meaning (Applebee, 2000). Moreover, Silva (1990) notes that, based on the process approach, a text is a secondary derivative product or concern in which the form is considered a function of its purpose and content. In addition, there is no specific context for writing when using this approach; therefore, the writer, as an individual, is charged with the responsibility of identifying and appropriately addressing the task at hand (Silva, 1990). However, the approach does not negate the relevance of aspects such as punctuation and spelling, but instead lays greater emphasis on the meaning derived from written texts (Kroll, 1990).

This approach consists of steps that are recursive in nature, allows interaction between these steps and promotes creativity in writing. These steps are: re-writing, drafting, revising and editing, along with peer and teacher feedback (Reid, 1993). According to Wang (2008), using the process approach in ESL writing introduces writing instructions into the teaching of writing, such as viewing writing as problem solving, using multiple drafts and eliciting influential feedback. In fact, this is the main
motive behind the utilisation of this approach combined with genre and content approaches in this study.

Using this approach, the role of the teacher is to help students formulate viable strategies for generating ideas, planning their structures or procedures, and editing (Krapels, 1990; Zamel, 1976, 1983). From a process approach perspective, writing is a complex and recursive process. Learning to write involves developing an effective and efficient composing process. In using this approach, the focus is, essentially, directed away from the product. The teacher plays the role of facilitator and the students take on the roles of identifying and addressing tasks or situations in the socio-cultural setting revolving around them (Prior, 2006). Hence, teachers facilitate the writing process as learners consciously develop their writing skills (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006). Therefore, teachers do not actively engage in direct instruction. Moreover, students have the liberty to take any course of action in their assigned tasks (Tribble, 1996).

The process approach strives to enhance students’ linguistic skills as opposed to linguistic knowledge; grammar and structure do not take centre stage in this approach (Badger & White, 2000). Tribble (1996: 37) concurs that the emphasis of process writing approaches is on “writing activities which move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data through to the ‘publication’ of finished text”.

Essentially, the process approach entails four steps that are critical in enhancing students’ linguistic skills: first, students identify and plan for the topic on which they need to write by brainstorming with their peers in class and this forms the pre-writing stage; second, students prepare drafts or compositions in collaboration with their classmates or individually; third, peer editing facilitates the revision of the
students’ written texts; last, teachers conduct evaluations and provide feedback to the students (Roe et al., 2010; Tribble, 1996). Therefore, students actively engage in the feedback process since evaluations are conducted on a continual basis as opposed to being held at the end of the process (Martinez, 2005).

The above is an indication that students progressively enhance their skills throughout a cyclical writing process (Hyland, 2007). Based on the process approach, a student should focus on the message that he or she intends to convey, as well as its designated audience (Roe et al., 2010). It is also evident that this approach facilitates the development of writing skills as opposed to learning to write, as noted in the controlled composition approach (Badger & White, 2000).

Consequently, the process approach enhances students’ level of expression owing to the freedom the process accords them. The emphasis is on the writing process, implying that aspects such as grammatical errors or spelling are allowable and students can sharpen these abilities as they interact with others in group settings or through peer reviews of their write-ups (Saddler & Graham, 2005). Moreover, the teacher’s or classmates’ responses can help in providing useful feedback on the drafts presented and thereby facilitate the learning process (Kroll, 1990). Kroll (1990) adds that the responses that students receive in the form of feedback on their content are instrumental in developing their ideas without being constrained by predetermined linguistic features.

Martinez (2005) has evaluated the role of the process approach in enhancing the English-writing abilities of low achievers. By incorporating the facilitative role of teachers, students’ attitude towards learning improved over time as they gained more interest in learning. The teachers guided them in learning the vocabulary in the text and in creating coherent texts. As the students’ interest increased, so did their
motivation for developing their learning and writing performance (Martinez, 2005). This aspect of the process approach is needed in the Saudi context to address the low motivation level among secondary students, as stated by Saudi scholars such as Al-Hazmi (1998, 2007), Al-Seghayer (2014) and Zohairy (2012). Therefore, the process approach remains cognisant of the writer’s abilities, while considering the skills required for writing (Badger & White, 2000). The matching of these abilities and the skill requirements helps to develop students’ writing competencies.

Over the years, language teaching in Arab countries such as Saudi Arabia has been mainly dominated by a traditional, textbook-oriented, top-down teacher-led methodology. Nevertheless, with time, more liberal and student-centred approaches have been embraced (Al-Hazmi, 2006). In Arab countries such as Saudi Arabia, the need to give learners opportunities to think critically and express themselves has become central to the course of curriculum development processes (Daoud & Al-Hazmi, 2002).

Al-Hazmi (2006) observes that since the 1980s research studies on ESL writing methodology have mainly supported a process approach to writing. He further notes that the current methodologies for teaching writing in ESL classrooms emphasise cooperative learning between students and teachers. These methodologies also stress that students should be provided with more opportunities to exercise critical thinking, initiate learning and express themselves. Al-Hazmi suggests that through a process approach students can write about what they know, what they are interested in and what they want to communicate to others. As a consequence, he notes, writing becomes easier for the participants (19 university students) and they are likely to produce high-quality pieces when they are intellectually committed to conveying something meaningful in their writing.
However, according to El-Aswad (2002), the application of the process approach can present obstacles, especially in contexts where teachers have to deal with large class sizes. For instance, it would be difficult to schedule group discussions or class conferences with a large class. Moreover, some learners may develop negative perceptions of aspects such as revision or evaluation, revision being perceived as failure (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006). Furthermore, the process approach neglects the social context and the purpose of a piece of writing. It was also criticised for being ineffective when writing for academic purposes due to its emphasis on the writer and his or her personal experience and voice, which can weaken academic prose (Shih, 1986; Villalva, 2006), and disregards the context of writing by focusing on the steps of writing rather than the academic content (Reid, 1984a, 1984b). Despite all the limitations mentioned above in relation to the process approach, this study adopted the instruction element of this approach and combined it with two others: the genre and the content-based approaches.

2.7.4 The genre approach

According to Badger and White (2000), the genre approach is dependent on the various social contexts in which learning occurs. As such, writing tends to be situation-specific, while textual development has a bearing on the advancement of the writing syllabus (Hyland, 2004).

According to Swales (1990: 58), genre is “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”. The genre approach to teaching language focuses on the dissemination of language-related knowledge and the fulfilment of a given social purpose; the text matches the context in which it is relayed (ibid). This is contrary to controlled composition, which focuses
on developing students’ writing abilities through the imitation and manipulation of
texts under the rigid control of the teacher (Badger & White, 2000).

Hyland (2004) states that genre plays a significant role in contemporary
language education owing to the concepts it embodies. For instance, it facilitates the
grouping of texts so that writers can easily respond to various prompts during
academic writing (Yarrow & Topping, 2001). Furthermore, writing can be used in
genre-based approaches as a means for displaying learning (Roe et al., 2010). For
instance, essays and research papers are writing genres that display a student’s learning
abilities. In addition, a sense of genre is useful in enhancing students’ abilities to learn
(Hyland, 2004). For instance, reflective journals provide a tool for self-evaluation and
learning.

Kasper (2000: 126-127) mentions that genre is about the “nature of the
content” and “learners should have attained a certain level of writing” so that they can
think about content and genre. When teachers think about genre approaches, learners
should be able to analyse and evaluate a genre’s language use (Swales, 1990).
Teaching approaches only work when learners have an understanding of genre and
language, therefore the skills developed through controlled composition may not
qualify the learner to learn about genre and understand the genre-based approaches of
teaching (Kasper, 2000).

A writing teacher needs, then, to apply the data derived from a genre-centred
analysis in developing course content and syllabus (Wingate, 2012). In so doing,
students can become more familiar with the divergent forms that genre constitutes in
the courses they take in school (Lazar & Ellis, 2011).

Lazar and Ellis (2011) undertook a study to determine the efficacy of a
collaborative initiative in writing between instructors and students. It was determined
that a genre-based approach to teaching instruction was instrumental in enhancing students’ writing abilities across various disciplines, despite the fact there was implicit focus on genre-based pedagogy (Lazar & Ellis, 2011; Martin, 1993). Based on the collaborative model applied in Lazar and Ellis’ (2011) study, 100% of the students’ responses pointed towards an improvement according to the assessment criteria used. Moreover, there was an increase in students’ performance by about 13% after the application of the genre-based approach.

Cheng (2008) has examined the efficacy of genre exemplars in enhancing the linguistic abilities of 22 non-native speakers in an American University: 12 Chinese, seven Korean and three Saudi students. The analysis was based on two features of genre: rhetoric (the content, audience and purpose) and an evaluation of generic qualities. The findings of the study pointed to genre serving as a critical tool that would support and enhance academic literacy by positively influencing students’ perceptions of course discourse (Cheng, 2008).

Moreover, considerations need to be made in relation to the efficacy of genre-based approaches in discipline-specific writing. That way, teachers can implement the best strategies in enhancing learners’ writing skills (Tribble, 1996). Therefore, depending on the discipline that secondary-level students take up in their later years of study, they can adopt the genre approach in analysing varying texts (with the teacher’s intervening help). That way, the genre approach can promote greater understanding of writing requirements and thereby produce focused content (Martin, 1993; Wingate, 2012).

A study of the perceptions of students relating to various genre components (Wingate, 2012) determined that 87.9% of 180 undergraduate student respondents from different backgrounds in the UK believed that a focus on the genre of a text was
pivotal in enhancing their language development. Additionally, the intervention of teachers helps in providing input regarding the role of various aspects, such as the writer’s voice and stance in relation to the audience (Hyland, 2004). Wingate (2012) indicates that genre-based approaches are useful in teaching writing strategies and in enhancing students’ writing performance. Cheng (2008) further notes that students were able to adopt the genre approach and thereby become more confident as they learnt to write independently in English. From the outcomes of Cheng (2008) and Wingate (2012), this approach is important in the context of this research study. Bruce (2008) also reports the main strengths of the genre approach as emphasising the larger discourse units in language rather than the sentence level and treating linguistic features as part of the discourse rather than isolated mechanisms. Badger and White (2000) critique this approach for underestimating writing development through imitation of provided texts, which causes this approach to tend to consider students as passive participants. These shortcomings call for a consideration of other writing approaches.

### 2.7.5 Content-based approach

A content-based writing approach involves the “concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content materials” (Liaw, 2007: 52). Therefore, a focus on content entails the provision of an integrative tool for dealing with content and language. Shih (1986) affirms that content-based approaches contextualise language instruction and help to enhance students’ academic skills. Students learn to communicate in the academic context by applying language derived from a linguistic code and, in that way, they are better equipped to handle the varying textual formats that make up their academic lives.
(Hall, 2001). According to (Stoller, 2002: 35), content-based instruction integrates language and content, considering “language as a medium for learning content and content as a resource for learning and improving language”.

Throughout secondary school, students are required to convey information on a range of subjects and the manner in which they express themselves through writing has a large impact on their academic performance (Rothstein & Lauber, 2006). Therefore, content and the mechanics of writing play a pivotal role in shaping writers’ texts and in eliminating structural flaws in their language (Kohn, 1986). Moreover, writing on diverse subjects helps in promoting greater understanding of course content (Shih, 1986). It is the above perspectives on the content-based approach that the researcher utilised in her integrated approach.

According to Shih (1986), the focus on content is distinct from previously practised traditional approaches in various ways. First, it entails detaching writing from a personal experience basis to a focus on class readings or discussions. For instance, as students learn to synthesise the information derived from lectures, they become better equipped to think critically and evaluate texts. Second, content is more important than the manner in which it is expressed (Shih, 1986). As such, the teacher’s role in the content-based approach is to explain the subject of the material contained in lecture notes in a given discourse to students and, therefore, the nature of this approach is teacher-centred (Pessoa et al., 2007). Contrary to traditional approaches that merely focus on writing, a content approach strived to enhance students’ listening skills while promoting discussion of material before making a commitment to writing (Murray & Christison, 2010; Shih, 1986). Hence, due to its teacher-centred nature, it is combined in this research study with other student-centred approaches to move its benefits away from its drawbacks.
Various studies have been carried out to evaluate the efficiency of content-based approaches in promoting students’ writing abilities. For instance, Davidson and Dunham (1997) conducted a study to determine the critical thinking abilities of L2 learners in essay writing. The study was also aimed at evaluating the progress made upon the implementation of an extensive year-long EFL curriculum. The test group underwent a critical thinking course that complemented the content-based approach offered to the control group. The essay test scores of the test group were significantly higher than those for the control group. The results underlined the notion that content-based approaches helped to enhance students’ writing skills and critical thinking abilities.

Liaw (2007) implemented a content-based syllabus in order to enhance the instructional writing practices of L2 secondary-school students. The syllabus encompassed various disciplines ranging from mathematics to social sciences. Further, language proficiency tests were administered and an assessment made of the students’ critical thinking skills. The findings pointed out that significant strides were made in the students’ English proficiency upon the implementation of the content-based approach. The students also exhibited greater mastery of the course content and showed enhanced critical thinking abilities. In addition, the students responded positively to the language learning strategies and the problem-solving strategy adopted and were more participative in learning (Liaw, 2007). The study highlights the relevance of content approaches to language instruction and learning by ESL students. This was supported by Klein and Kirkpatrick (2010), who state that the content approach enhances students’ understanding of course content as they learn to synthesise information and make connections with the knowledge they acquire.
The findings of these studies support Hall’s (2001) statement that a content-based approach is critical to honing students’ language skills while taking into consideration their personal and academic goals. Based on such an approach, Liaw (2007) states that the subject matter of courses is involved with the activities that students undertake in class as they learn. For instance, when they learn English, students become equipped to think critically by applying language in practical writing.

Apart from helping students to develop critical thinking skills, a content-based approach to writing instruction “may be a more effective means of prompting students to develop the requisite skills because it deals with writing in a manner similar to how writing is assigned, prepared for and reacted to in academic courses” (Shih, 1986: 625).

Furthermore, the content-based approach can be coupled with others without interfering with the instructional approaches used in other disciplines (Bangert-Drowns et al., 2004). Instructors may only be called upon to play a facilitative role in the process (Shih, 1986). This is highly beneficial in that the approach is not only useful in enhancing English learning or instruction, but also facilitates the use of English in providing instruction in other disciplines. Consequently, the focus on content helps in enhancing the academic proficiency of students across disciplines (Hall, 2001). A content-based approach also helps in furthering the critical thinking capacities of students, which arises from the link existing between thinking and writing abilities (Liaw, 2007).

One of the criticisms raised (Kohn, 1986) is that the content-based approach takes little consideration of the process involved in composition. For instance, in relation to paragraphing, the content-based approach focuses on the development of topic sentences and grammar points while disregarding aspects such as training
students to choose appropriate topics. It also does not consider aspects such as developing students’ conceptual abilities so that they can transfer the concepts learned into writing.

To the effectiveness of this approach in developing writing skills, critical thinking abilities and academic writing, as stated in Davidson and Dunham (1997) and supported by Hall (2001) and Liaw (2007), can be added an increase in students’ knowledge of the course content that leads to an increase in motivation towards language learning. Therefore, the researcher adopted this approach and combined it with the process and genre approaches to the teaching of writing to EFL secondary-level students in Saudi Arabia.

Writing results from an evaluation of various issues, such as the content, audience, structure, choice of language and voice, which suit specific audiences (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). Therefore, there is a need to consider an integrated approach to English-language instruction and learning due to the limitations of this and previously reviewed approaches (i.e., controlled composition, current-traditional, genre, process and content). Such an approach would maximise the strengths of the individual approaches while trying to eliminate the gaps inherent in their shortcomings. A combined approach offers a plausible approach to English writing among L2 learners. Hence, the next section discusses approaches to teaching writing that have been integrated by several researchers and the shortcomings identified in their being combined.

2.7.6 Combined approaches

According to Lam (2009), a combined (integrated) approach allows teachers to synthesise the elements contained in other approaches in order to produce a stronger
and more focused model for teaching English. Researchers have, so far, covered two approaches. For instance, Badger and White (2000) propose a process-genre approach with an emphasis on product in an attempt to fill the gap between the weaknesses of the writing approaches (as discussed above). In this case, the writers considered the linguistic features and context to use in a given text (based on genre analysis) and later integrated processes involved in generating the text in order to reflect the actual elements in mind. The process-genre approach proposed by Badger and White (2000) adapted the genre approach because it focuses on the purpose for writing and the students’ awareness of the writing context, whilst the process approach endeavours to cater for writing skills by improving the process of planning, drafting and then publishing and allows teachers, peers and other texts to provide the input for the writing. Their study emphasised genre knowledge of the activity at hand. They also claim that writing skills are improved by observing the teacher and skilled writers.

Wingate (2012) initiates a content-genre approach to writing. She states that linguistic features cannot be undermined in ESL learning. Alternatively, in cases where a teacher is dealing with students whose language proficiency is low, a genre-content approach can help in enhancing the students’ writing abilities (Wingate, 2012). Wingate’s study is directed towards academic writing used for university students from different backgrounds in the UK. Students engage in collaboration (through group work), which provides a form of socialisation that can help weaker students to contextualise their content. Similarly, increased student interactions can enhance students’ perceptions and enable teachers to cover their entire course modules (Wingate, 2012). Moreover, a genre applied in the classroom context may lack the structure required in writing academic articles or may not be suited to a certain audience. This can be considered as a shortcoming of this approach. Therefore, the
focus of language in genre-based approaches should take into account processes through which content is generated without disregarding social contexts (Badger & White, 2000; Pullman, 1999).

Similarly, Jackson (2012) conducted a study to determine the efficacy of content and genre process-based approaches in writing among students. A content-genre approach served to enhance the students’ creativity by limiting the teacher’s influence on the English writing process. In this approach, students are free to prepare their write-ups and revise them in order to eliminate errors. In addition, it promotes creativity as students experiment with different approaches to writing (Jackson, 2012). The experiment was conducted with two groups: a control group and a test group. An analytical description of the findings showed that the test group exhibited higher levels of grammatical expression, with fewer mistakes than the test group. The average test scores of the students involved in the experiment rose from 56% before the implementation of the content-genre approach to 68% after the approach was adopted. Jackson (2012) attributed such change to the use of an integrated pedagogy, while the test scores for the control group only rose from 58% to 61%. Moreover, the positive achievement of the students attested to the relevance of integrated approaches to teaching English.

However, these approaches only provide a two-pronged approach to teaching instruction. This represents a gap that the current study intends to fill by combining three approaches (genre, content and process) and integrating them with meta-cognitive writing strategies.

ESL and EFL learners face challenges in immersing themselves in a second language setting in their classroom. Language learning strategies are procedures that
play a key role in eliminating these challenges and facilitating language learning (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990).

2.8 The integrated approach in the current study

All the approaches reviewed help ESL students to a greater or lesser extent but each has its own disadvantages. For example, controlled composition disregards the social and cognitive dimensions of the process of writing but focuses on form, which is useful for unskilled ESL students. The process approach helps to develop writing skills but neglects the type of text, social context and purpose of writing, which renders it inappropriate and inadequate for academic writing. The genre-based approach accentuates the context and purpose of writing but neglects the skills students need in order to produce a text. The quality of ideas and content and the accuracy of the facts and information provided are catered for in the content-based approach. Hence, this study adopted an integrated approach to teaching writing in order to enhance students’ writing abilities. The researcher opted to combine three approaches and integrate the approaches selected with explicit training in meta-cognitive strategies and employ them all in a student-centred context to promote autonomous learning. Adopting an integrated approach can help in developing the academic writing abilities of students. This capability develops when students can present texts after conducting systemic research, applying appropriate supporting references and formatting their texts in a way that is academically acceptable. As such, learners can also develop their critical thinking abilities by assessing the information gathered and choosing credible sources that are useful to their writing.

As students gain greater exposure to various methods of organising and structuring their texts, they can develop a deeper understanding of the English language through continual practice (Lam, 2009).
In this integrated approach, teachers need to facilitate the learning process by providing responses to learners’ ideas in order to improve students’ writing abilities. Teachers can also assist students in genre selection, language choice and in defining the purpose and audience. Teachers’ feedback can also facilitate the development of students’ cognitive abilities and heighten their motivation to learn English as a second language (Bruning & Horn, 2000). In this way, students can exercise their creativity, depending on various frameworks while learning to be better communicators in different disciplines (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Myers (2000) explains that instructions about language forms and function should facilitate results that persuade or help learners to perceive that the instructions were useful in achieving educational as well as professional goals. Explicit instruction was utilised in this study because of this perspective.

2.9 The limitations of previous studies

The critical review of the literature has provided a comprehensive picture of studies related to the student-centred approach and its positive effect on ESL learning and learners, the writing approaches used widely in the ESL/EFL context and their reflection in students’ performance, and the importance of applying language learning strategies and cognitive and meta-cognitive writing strategies in ESL/EFL classes.

Despite the increasing number of ESL research studies, various areas still need further examination. For example, few ESL writing research studies emphasise writing strategy instruction, and most researchers have investigated the differences in strategy use between skilled and unskilled, native and non-native or male and female SL students. One example of these studies was that conducted by Wang (2008), who investigated the effect of writing strategy instruction on 88 Chinese students’ perceptions and performance in argumentative writing. Her study had limitations, for
example, in that the researcher employed the same topic for the pre-test and post-test, which constrains the comparison of the students’ progress in the process of writing before and after the experiment specifically in generating ideas, organising them, and using new vocabulary, among others. The second limitation was that the participants were not randomly selected, which could have had an effect on the results of her study.

A very limited number of studies have investigated ESL students’ perceptions of their L2 writing performance and considered their behaviour towards writing. Sasaki’s (2000) study is an example of these but, due to the small number (11 participants) in her sample, her study cannot be generalised.

So far, no published research has conducted a study to investigate the effect of teaching using a combination of writing approaches and explicit meta-cognitive writing strategy instruction in a student-centred context on secondary students’ perceptions and performance utilising the same course book available in schools. Hence, all these limitations in ESL/EFL writing research inspired the researcher to formulate an integrated approach to writing and apply it in an EFL context to investigate its effect on teaching and on students’ performance. This current investigation is an attempt to fill the gap in Saudi secondary-school EFL teaching of writing by answering the following research questions:

1. How effective is the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?
2. What changes could be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?
3. What differences in approaches and conceptualisations of writing could be observed in students exposed to the integrated approach?
Chapter Three: Methodology

As seen in chapter one, the teaching of writing in English in Saudi Arabia is still operating within the framework of the teacher-centred practices and the controlled composition approach which were argued as inefficient in second language teaching as reviewed in the literature in chapter two. In contrast, the effectiveness of using teaching approaches to writing that are within the framework of student-centred techniques is agreed upon and stated in a review of the literature. The usefulness and importance of the utilisation of language learning strategies in class was discussed with special reference to meta-cognitive writing strategies. Hence, the researcher opted to combine three approaches to teaching writing integrated with meta-cognitive writing strategies and to implement this integrated approach in a secondary school in Saudi Arabia to establish the effectiveness of this approach in the teaching of writing, the changes observed in the students’ writing and the differences in their approaches and conceptualisations of writing after the implementation of the integrated approach.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the mixed-method approach selected for this study including qualitative and quantitative approaches; and introduce the research instruments developed and utilised in the pursuit of the objectives of the research. It also describes the research design and procedure; explains the data collection and analysis procedures; examines ethical issues emerging from the research and the validity and reliability of the data.

3.1 Research questions

This research study was designed to establish whether an integrated approach to teaching writing can improve the writing performance of Saudi secondary-school
students in Saudi Arabia. The procedures, both on- and off-the-field, were prepared in a way that would facilitate answering the following research questions:

1. How effective is the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?

2. What changes could be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?

3. What differences in approaches and conceptualisations of writing could be observed in students exposed to the integrated approach?

### 3.2 Mixed-method research

The research used a mixed-method approach, employing both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Ivankova et al. (2006) indicate that the application of a mixed-method approach improves the reliability of research in the sense that it helps in measuring the degree to which the research instruments yield consistent results after repeated administration. Furthermore, the use of different instruments to collect data about specific information increases research reliability.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, cited in Creswell, 2009: 4) state that:

Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms. It involves philosophical assumption, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the mixing of both approaches in a study. Thus, it is more than simply collecting and analysing both kinds of data; it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research.

In a mixed-method approach, the researcher

- collects and analyses persuasively and rigorously both qualitative and quantitative data (based on research questions);
• mixes (integrates or links) the two forms of data concurrently by combining them (or merging them), sequentially by having one build on the other, or embedding one within the other; and

• gives priority to one or to both forms of data (in terms of what the research emphasises) and uses these procedures in a single study or in multiple phases of a programme of study.

The choice of a mixed-method approach was influenced by different concerns. Firstly, in agreement with Creswell (2007), the reason behind embracing such an approach was that, “quantitative data and their subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problem. The qualitative data and their analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants’ views in more depth” (Creswell, 2007: 87).

Secondly, a mixed-method approach was one that could provide the best answer to the research questions, bearing in mind the richness and complexity of the study. Generally, a quantitative approach could test the impact of the integrated approach to teaching writing, while a qualitative approach was considered useful to test how effective the integrated approach was and to measure the correlation between students’ perception of writing strategies and their performance.

Thirdly, it has been perceived that integrating research methods strengthens the quality of research and many authors call for a combination of research methods to improve research quality and gain more insights and understanding of a research problem (e.g., Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2009).
Fourthly, detecting the same information using more than one research method helps to confirm research instruments, approaches and findings and explain how they occur under different circumstances.

Finally, this research sought a holistic view of a certain phenomenon. The mixed-method approach allowed me to obtain a complete and rich picture of the impact of the integrated approach.

Despite the importance of the mixed-method Creswell (2007: 10) informs that it is not an easy process, as it is “time and resources consuming” and also complicates the research procedure, which requires clear presentation to allow the reader to understand the research procedure. Creswell also claims that this form of research involves “the need for extensive data collection, the time-intensive nature of analysing both texts and numeric data, and the requirement for the researcher to be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative forms of research” (ibid).

The use of a mixed-method approach allowed triangulation of the data collected. Cohen et al. (2007) state that methodological triangulation is the use of more than one method to explore behavioural features. In this research, methodological monism was avoided, as the research included elements of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. In addition, triangulation allowed the researcher to compensate for any deficiencies that might occur during the data collection.

### 3.2.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research is concerned with non-numeric data in regard to phenomenological aspects such as people’s perceptions. In regard to a qualitative research design and approach, researchers indicate that it evolves as the research continues and is not succinctly clarified at the start (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). In
this study, issues such as the perception of the impact of meta-cognitive strategies of writing on students’ writing performance were deciphered through a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach.

Qualitative research is a type of scientific investigation that seeks to employ a set of predefined procedures systematically (Shank, 2002: 52) in order to collect evidence, answer questions and produce new findings that are applicable beyond the existing boundaries of study (Mack et al., 2005: 183). Lincoln and Denzin (2011) suggest that qualitative research entails a naturalistic and interpretative approach. In addition, it seeks to understand a particular research topic or problem from the perspective of a particular population involved (Mack et al., 2005). This type of research is, in most cases, effective in obtaining information that is culturally specific, particularly with regard to the behaviours, opinions and social contexts of specific populations (Mack et al., 2005).

Rofianto (2000) adds that the outcome of a piece of qualitative research will enhance development of an initial understanding of an identified problem. Rudestam (2007) indicates that a qualitative research approach is not grounded in routine strategies, but follows many ways of thinking based on the researcher’s subjective argument and the research problem being studied. Driscoll (2010) suggests that a good qualitative research approach is conducted through a logical sequence of reasoning, involving diverse sources of converging arguments that support an explanation of a research problem. In line with these arguments, the researcher in this study formed multiple but flexible questions that were intended to help in data mining the material most relevant to the issue of writing for secondary students in Saudi Arabia. The rationale for adopting a qualitative approach in this research was that it enables the researcher to decipher information that cannot be obtained using quantitative methods,
particularly in regard to data related to social perception, behaviour and belief or a research process that results in textual data. For instance, the perception of EFL writing is not numerical or statistical.

Moreover, methods of qualitative research are effective in identifying intangible aspects in research, such as students’ attitudes, level of motivation, perception and beliefs. These methods can also help to interpret and understand the complexity of a particular situation (Mack et al., 2005). Mack et al. (2005) add that a qualitative approach allows the formulation of systematic procedures that could evaluate the learning progress of a targeted group of ESL learners. Hence, the rationale for adopting this approach in the study was that it would supplement the findings and deductions obtained from the quantitative approach methods.

This approach was also suitable for this study because it would assist in avoiding the generalisation of information and allow the gathering of material that was contextually specific, particularly with regard to the behaviours, opinions and social contexts of a specific population.

Nevertheless, the use of a qualitative approach also presented various disadvantages. For instance, qualitative research is time-consuming, since it requires a lot of careful thought, planning and structuring to ensure that the results obtained are accurate. It also takes time to gather the data when compared with the quantitative approach (Alsamadani, 2008; Creswell, 2007). For example, to conduct an interview, the researchers needs time to prepare for the interview of one person, to conduct the interview itself and allow for transcription time (James et al., 2008). Furthermore, this approach is more open to personal judgement and opinions, thus researchers in some cases are bound to produce observations rather than results. In addition, the design of
qualitative research is often unique and cannot be recreated, which limits research replication (Experiment-Resources, 2011).

By adopting a qualitative approach as part of the methodological paradigm, the researcher tried to be aware of the issue of subjectivity throughout the research and remain critical, which is why a quantitative aspect was integrated into the study.

### 3.2.2 Quantitative research

Driscoll (2010) posits that the quantitative research approach aims at collecting numerical or statistical data. Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003) argue that the quantitative research approach is relatively simple for conducting and analysing the data collected in comparison with a qualitative research approach. Although the approach is simple, Cohen et al. (2003) argue that qualitative studies cannot be exhaustive and reliably conclusive on their own.

Quantitative research provides an opportunity to generalise the results from a sample to the whole population (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003). Quantitative approaches are valuable when there is a need to measure recurrence among participants or provide any numerical summary of the frequent actions of participants (Abeyasekera, 2003). It is also helpful when drawing meaningful findings from multiple qualitative instruments or a large amount of qualitative data (James et al., 2008).

The process of carrying out quantitative research provides different and valuable inputs and data which, when analysed, help to provide conclusive evidence regarding the manner in which business is performed (Cohen et al., 2003: 48). This will thereby help to improve the overall relevance and validity of research and act as a mechanism through which better data are collected and interpreted (Driscoll, 2010).
Using quantitative research provides an opportunity to use fresh and raw data which are analysed and will help to understand the different variables in relation to the research (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003: 31). The process also uses different software and mechanisms to generate results that will be replicated every time the research is carried out (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003). This thereby helps to improve the relevance of the findings, as it provides conclusive evidence based on which a better solution can be found (Driscoll, 2010). The overall framework looks to strengthen the manner in which different factors have a role in decision making.

Quantitative research also has certain disadvantages associated with it. For example, there is no chance of knowing how truthful a respondent is and respondents’ understanding of the questions vary, so that their answers are based on their own interpretation (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981).

### 3.3 Research design

Yin (2003) postulates that a study design acts as a framework or policy applied to guide data mining and inform the subsequent analysis of the data. Cohen et al. (2003) posit that exploratory study is one of the common designs that can be used to conduct research. According to Burns and Grove (2003: 313), exploratory research is “research conducted to gain new insights, discover new ideas and/or increase knowledge of a phenomenon”. For this reason, the researcher adopted this type of design to discover the effectiveness of the integrated approach, the changes in students’ composing abilities, awareness and attitudes, differences in their approaches and conceptualisations and finally to increase knowledge of teaching EFL writing skills.

Bell (2005: 115) posits that “decisions have to be made about which methods are best for particular purposes and then data collecting instruments must be designed
to do the job”. The research design in this investigation was guided by reviewing a number of key books and articles in the literature on research methodology (Atkinson, 2004; Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2007, 2009; Somekh & Lewin, 2005; Wiersma & Jurs, 2005), conducting questionnaires (Darzi & Athanasiou, 2010; Donyei, 2003; Munn & Drever, 2004), interviews (Creswell, 2007; Fontana & Frey, 2000) and the analysis and interpretation of quantitative and qualitative data (Bryman, 2008; Newman & Benz, 1998).

Lewis (2012) indicates that there are several study designs that a researcher can adopt in answering research questions or a study problem and to achieve the aim of the study. However, this study design is not intended to decipher final answers or decisions, but could provide an overview of a given phenomenon, such as combining teaching writing approaches and meta-cognitive strategies adoption in Saudi Arabian secondary schools. The research instruments were designed to investigate and understand the changes and differences in students’ writing and their approaches to writing, as well as their attitude and level of motivation towards writing in English.

Table 3.2 describes and frames the design of the programme conducted by the researcher.
Table 3.1: Summary of the design of the programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 1</th>
<th>What are the key aspects of the approach?</th>
<th>How</th>
<th>Why</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructing the programme (around 6 months)</td>
<td>Class practice</td>
<td>Student-centred</td>
<td>Help students to learn how to learn. Post instructions on the school website. Students search, discuss, generate ideas, plan, etc. under the teacher’s supervision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing approaches</td>
<td>Process approach</td>
<td>Combine the three approaches and explicitly teach to: a. Write as problem-solving in accordance with a specified writing process (planning, formulating and revising). b. Use language to communicate purpose(s) with the reader, consider culture and, c. Provide accurate information, consider quality of ideas and structure, word choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meta-cognitive Writing strategies</td>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Generating ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Textual level</td>
<td>Organising ideas, coherence in writing, supporting details, providing examples, awareness of introducing and closing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lexical level</td>
<td>Rich list of vocabulary, use of transition words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Revising</td>
<td>Content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mechanics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing styles</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Analysis - synthesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Argumentative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2</td>
<td>What are the key aspects of the training?</td>
<td>How</td>
<td>Why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Training the teacher 2 months before the implementation | Extensive training of these elements:  
- Characteristics of the process approach, genre and focus on content.  
- Planning strategies (e.g., brainstorming, mind-mapping, outlining).  
- Revising strategies.  
- Monitoring rather than controlling.  
- Grouping and discussion.  
- Tips for the teacher on the process of text creation for each type of writing.  
- Feedback strategies.  
- Teacher-student conference.  
- Writing criteria. | Two months of training prior to the implementation:  
- One-to-one workshops for 2 weeks, 4 sessions a week (2-3 h).  
- Training via Skype, 2-3 times a week/2 h.  
The training consists of theoretical and practical parts:  
- The theories behind the educational approaches, teaching writing approaches, language learning strategies and meta-cognitive strategies.  
- Analyse different authentic texts. Discuss different elements in the texts: introduction, length, word choice, ideas, conclusion, and the writer’s voice.  
- Plan a writing lesson and apply each element of the writing process to be taught to the students by explicitly instructing the teacher to write about “Success” using the integrated approach and meta-cognitive strategies:  
  - Brainstorm and accept all the ideas to promote creative thinking.  
  - Design a mind map about the topic. Then let her use outlining.  
  - Think about it as a problem to solve.  
  - Set goals to solve.  
  - Pay attention to the purpose of writing to add accurate, appropriate ideas and own experience to meet the reader’s needs in an attractive, well-written text.  
- Discuss the writing criteria, assessing and feedback.  
- Feedback is given orally, written and through the researcher-teacher conference. | The theoretical part and most of the practical part were conducted as individual workshops to ensure ample understanding and application of the study. On-line sessions were used to complete the practice. The theoretical lessons were for the teacher to increase her awareness of EFL theories and previous studies, and to provide an insight into teaching writing approaches. To know what to focus on when asking the students to analyse, then instruct them to compose an essay. The practical writing lesson allowed the teacher to follow all the steps of writing integrated with the strategies to be done later by the students. Various feedback strategies were used to halt students’ negative perspectives of feedback and to recognise the benefits behind it. A researcher-teacher conference was organised twice in the training period to enable the teacher to acknowledge how to manage the debate and discussion among the students and encourage them to speak about their errors, their difficulties, their weaknesses and strengths to help them accept criticism. |
### Phase 3

The teacher used all the features and aspects she was trained to use with the researcher. Unfortunately, there was not a third party who could monitor and evaluate the teacher’s performance during the implementation, although the process was monitored and discussed weekly with the teacher. The students’ achievement reflects the teacher’s training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training the students (11 months)</th>
<th>What are the key aspects of training?</th>
<th>How?</th>
<th>Why?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student-centred practices.</td>
<td>Post instructions on the school’s website: students search, read around the topic and collect information.</td>
<td>Boost autonomous learning. Enhance students’ research skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brainstorming, whole-class discussion, group/pair discussions.</td>
<td>- The teacher wrote the title on the board and gave students 1 min. to write down 3-5 ideas about the topic. - Discussed their ideas and set general goals. - Group work to discuss information collected at home.</td>
<td>Help students to generate more ideas, collect as much information as they can to prepare for the discussions and practise setting goals and objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outlining, mind-mapping (group discussion/individual work).</td>
<td>The teacher divided the board into two parts: 1. To outline the students’ ideas (bullet points) then, 2. She converted these bullet points into a mind map with the students’ assistance. (This was done twice then students could choose any method as part of the planning stage.) Then students were asked to add their personal goal(s).</td>
<td>To help them organise their ideas, generate more ideas and add their goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual planning and formulation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Organisation</td>
<td>The teacher explicitly instructed students to work individually and start writing by considering all the key aspects in this stage of writing (written in a checklist).</td>
<td>To practise individual writing and personalise their essays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Accurate supporting details related to the main idea.</td>
<td>The teacher provided help when necessary.</td>
<td>Checklist: to help students remember all the important key aspects of writing then they will get used to them gradually without the checklist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Own experience.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Students can choose the writing style, to feel free and be more creative to write according to their choice, as well as to practise different writing styles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Consider the reader.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Language use, accurate word choice, sentence form and structure.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Mechanics: spelling, punctuation and grammar.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revising: Content Organisation and structure</td>
<td>- Revising accurate content, organisation, own experience and word choice; this took place anytime within the writing process. - Revising mechanics, sentence structure, form and coherence.</td>
<td>- Writing is non-linear. - Revising can take place anytime in the writing process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in the table above, the research design was divided into three phases: firstly, constructing the programme; secondly, training the teacher; and finally, training the students. These phases are explained in detail in the research procedure in section 3.6.

As stated earlier, this study integrated quantitative (students’ questionnaires, pre-test and post-test marks) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews, teachers’ questionnaire, observations and written materials) methods to identify the effectiveness of an integrated approach to teaching writing on Saudi secondary-level students’ writing performance. Table 3.3 summarises the research strategy and design. It also shows how each instrument assessed the changes brought about by the integrated approach.
### Table 3.2: Summary of research strategy and design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Why?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>To assess reliability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson’s correlation</td>
<td>To assess validity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coefficient</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-test</td>
<td>To determine the significance</td>
<td>To determine the significance of the differences to check the</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the differences</td>
<td>equivalence between the two groups prior to implementation by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>calculating means and standard deviation and calculating the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>recurrences and percentages of responses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150 students’ questionnaires</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eta squared</td>
<td>To measure the size of effect</td>
<td>The significance difference between the averages of the control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the integrated approach on</td>
<td>and experimental groups “post-period” and the experimental group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the relative variables to</td>
<td>“pre-period” and “post-period”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>verify its effect on teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unidirectional variance</td>
<td>To find significance between</td>
<td>To find significance between the recurrences of measures for the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis</td>
<td>the recurrences of measures</td>
<td>experimental group “post-questionnaire 1” and “post-questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for the relative variables</td>
<td>2” for the relative variables to examine if students still use the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to examine if students still</td>
<td>strategies without the teacher’s instructions (relationship and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>use the strategies without the</td>
<td>comparison between variables) to support the third question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teacher’s instructions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 pre-tests 60 post-tests</td>
<td>T-test</td>
<td>To determine the significance differences between the control and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental groups’ “pre-tests”, to check the equivalence between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the two groups prior to implementation.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To measure the significance differences between the averages of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>control and experimental groups’ “post-tests” and the experimental</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>group’s “pre-test” and “post-test” to investigate the effect on</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>writing performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Coding, identifying categories and then producing themes</td>
<td>To gather more information about the tasks and strategies done in class, opinions, behaviour and values to help in answering the three research questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 teachers’ questionnaires</td>
<td></td>
<td>To compare the teaching methods, writing strategies and practices used by the two teachers to extract information that would answer the research questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class observations</td>
<td></td>
<td>To compare the two groups: instructions, materials, tasks, audience, grouping, teacher’s role, students’ role and strategies used to identify the changes and differences in approaches to writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written materials</td>
<td></td>
<td>To compare the two groups and the experimental group “pre-period” and “post-period” to investigate the changes in the students’ writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Settings and participants

This study took place at a girls’ secondary school in Riyadh in Saudi Arabia. In Saudi secondary schools, English is a compulsory subject and incorporated in the school’s curriculum. This school follows the Course System (see chapter two for more information). The researcher had intended to apply her study in a secondary school regardless of the system it followed. The researcher planned to apply the study in three secondary schools and consent was received from the three headmasters. Unfortunately, only one teacher in one of the schools agreed to apply the study and attend the training sessions prior to implementation (during part of her summer holiday). However, the implementation was carried out in the Fourth Secondary School, from which the researcher had gained the teacher’s consent. This teacher teaches the second year (year 11). Thus, the researcher randomly chose the school and the students’ grade as well. However, a number of students, particularly those in the second year, had sub-standard writing skills, despite the efforts of the teachers. This school provided a suitable base for evaluating the effectiveness of an integrated approach and awareness of meta-cognitive writing strategies and to evaluate levels of improvement in the writing skills of EFL learners in Saudi Arabia emerging from the adoption of this integrated approach.

The participants included second-year students and two teachers who expressed an interest in participating. The study involved two teachers: the experimental group teacher (teacher A) and the control group teacher (teacher B), and two groups of EFL learners: the experimental group and the control group. Each group was composed of 30 secondary-level learners between the ages of 16 and 18. These two groups were monitored for approximately 11 months in order to evaluate any improvements in their writing skills.
3.5 Research procedure

The research procedure was divided into three main stages: experiment preparation, programme delivery I and programme delivery II. The programme was designed by integrating the three writing approaches with meta-cognitive strategies to train the secondary students in this study to compose using three different writing styles. Prior to the implementation of the study, the researcher trained the teacher of the experimental group in using an integrated approach, and to be a facilitator rather than a controller of the learning process (see Table 3.2). She was also trained to use various second language writing strategies: for example, planning strategies such as mind-mapping, taking notes and outlining. The teacher then trained her students to use these methods as part of building their awareness of meta-cognitive writing strategies.

3.5.1 Experiment preparation

The preparation for the programme consisted of the programme design and teacher training.

1. Programme design: to construct the programme, the researcher considered four key aspects in her approach to writing. Firstly, class practice followed the student-centred approach to give students the opportunity to undertake responsibility for their learning. Secondly, writing approaches were carefully selected and combined to serve in the Saudi context and to fill the gap in the teaching of writing in secondary education (as discussed in chapter one, section 1.4). The researcher envisaged that the combination of process, genre and content approaches would help students to practise writing as a problem-solving exercise, use appropriate language to communicate general and personal goals with the reader and provide accurate, valuable and attractive
information and ideas that would meet the reader’s expectations. Thirdly, planning and revising meta-cognitive writing strategies were integrated within the process of writing to help enhance the learning process and increase self-directed learning by utilising various activities in each process of writing in accordance with student-centred practices. Fourthly, the writing styles (academic, argumentative and creative) were selected in accordance with the needs of EFL Saudi students at the secondary level. Students need to practise writing using academic styles and argumentative writing (Al-Hazmi, 2007; Faruk, 2014). They also need to practise creative writing and be explicitly trained in writing short stories, which, from the researcher’s own perspective, might positively affect their attitude towards writing in English.

2. Teacher training: training the experimental group teacher was an important part of the design because of the lack of appropriate training programmes for teachers in Saudi Arabia (as discussed in chapter 1, section 1.4). The researcher’s training sessions for the teacher lasted for two months and included four sessions a week. Each session lasted for three hours. One-to-one training took place for two weeks, and then the researcher usually used Skype to train the teacher. Weekly telephone calls between the researcher and the teacher of the experimental group lasted for the whole implementation period (11 months) in order to discuss any ambiguity she might face, to monitor the progress of the implementation and to observe her impressions regarding each lesson. (The key aspects of the integrated approach and how and why the researcher chose these specific aspects are included in Table 3.2 above).

The teacher’s training programme consisted of theoretical and practical training (see Table 3.2 above and the research procedure in section 3.6). The
theories, advantages and disadvantages of the teaching approaches, meta-cognitive strategies and writing styles selected were discussed extensively with the teacher to raise her awareness of EFL teaching writing theories and enrich her insight into teaching writing approaches. The practical training consisted of four steps:

1. Analysing various styles of authentic texts emphasising how the text was introduced, its length, the word choices used in each writing style, how ideas were presented, the conclusion, and the inclusion of the writer’s voice. This particular emphasis on certain aspects of the text was vital for the teacher when training her students, so that she would know what to focus on when training her students. At this point, the researcher provided the teacher with handouts of the process of text creation for each writing style and discussed the various points with her.

2. Synthesising texts using the three different writing styles (academic, argumentative and creative). In this step, the researcher explicitly trained the teacher in writing a text applying each element in the process approach integrated with planning and revising strategies that considered the purpose of the writing and provided valuable and attractive ideas to meet the reader’s needs. The teacher was asked to write an academic essay on “Success” and given two days to prepare for the writing session. Brainstorming, discussing the teacher’s ideas, planning her text using a mind map, setting her own goals, generating ideas and then formulating the text took place in the following training session.

3. Revising the texts considering various aspects of the piece of writing created, such as quality of ideas, valuable content, word choice,
organisation, structure, punctuation and spelling. The researcher brought
the teacher’s attention to the idea that this process could take place during
the formulation of the text.

4. Providing feedback and assessing the texts. The researcher first discussed
the assessment criteria used in this study (see Appendix J) and feedback
strategies by which the teacher could give written feedback, oral feedback
in class and in the teacher-student conference during which students would
discuss their errors with their teacher and peers in a debate guided by the
teacher. The use of different methods was to halt students’ negative
attitude towards feedback and encourage them to recognise its positive
effects. The next two practical sessions were similar to the previous one
but used different writing styles (argumentative and short stories).

3.5.2 Programme delivery I (integrated approach/controlled
composition)

During this phase, the programme was delivered according to the planned
research design and various instruments were used to serve the research objectives.

Prior to the implementation of the study, teacher A and teacher B pre-tested
the students in order to evaluate their writing skills and ensure equivalence between
the two groups. In this pre-test, the students were asked to write a short essay on a
topic of their choice or one they had studied in a reading lesson. Each student’s essay
was evaluated and results and samples were kept to be used at a later stage in the study
(see chapter five). The students in both groups were asked to complete a pre-
questionnaire about writing strategies and writing skills before commencing the
implementation of the study to examine the equivalence between the two groups in
the research relative variables (self-assessment, writing strategies and language learning strategies).

In the initial step of this research study, as mentioned above, the students were divided into two groups, each composed of 30 learners. In the experimental group, students were taught using an integrated approach. In the control group, the students were taught using the normal direct instruction method of “controlled composition”. Students in the experimental group were introduced to different styles of writing (academic, argumentative and creative) using the integrated approach to teaching. The students were taught how they could tap into their creativity and portray it in writing. Moreover, the students were taught about different elements of writing, such as diction, connotation, punctuation and sentence construction.

The process of the writing lesson showed the integrated approach in practice and entailed the following tasks: firstly, posting the instruction, objectives and goal(s) of the writing topic on the school’s website; secondly, students prepared for the lesson according to the instructions posted; thirdly, the teacher started by brainstorming instructions to help the students generate ideas; and fourthly, students then used their preferred planning method (see the teacher’s training in Table 3.2) by mapping or outlining their ideas. The class discussion (whole-class, group and pair discussions) were chaired by the teacher and helped the students’ ideas to grow into detailed sentences. The students were then allowed to work individually to organise their ideas and add examples and their own experience in accordance with the writing requirements and style. The students were also trained to revise their essays, not only for grammatical and spelling errors, but also to consider accurate and logical supporting details, examples, organisation, writer’s voice, use of a wide range of vocabulary, coherence and cohesion. In the course of the above-described teaching
process, teacher A used textbooks and materials approved by the Saudi school curriculum.

In subsequent months, teacher A focused on teaching the students specific styles of writing - academic, argumentative and creative - using an integrated approach in the experimental group. Teacher B did not change her method of teaching; that is, she continued to use the controlled composition approach for the control group. The following process of the teaching of writing represents the approach taken and, as the students were following a specific process of writing, they were able to identify their roles, plan, discuss, write and provide feedback.

In the first seven weeks of term one, teacher A focused on academic writing. Students engaged in extensive study on how to write good academic essays (Jordan, 1999; Leki, 1998; Whitaker, 2009). The students learnt how to write descriptive essays and formal reports. They also learnt academic vocabulary, transition words, and strategies for researching and writing an academic essay. Relevant materials were used to enhance the students’ understanding of important elements of academic essays, such as PowerPoint lessons, worksheets on tips and instructions on how to write academic essays (see Appendix G). In addition, samples of authentic academic essays were provided for each student to read, analyse, and discuss with the teacher as part of the learning process, in order for them to be able to see how academic essays were written and identify academic and transition words within the essays. After this stage, the students embarked on a series of writing tasks. They were asked to write an academic essay about “Global Warming”. The teacher posted the topic and its objectives on the school website (Edmodo) so that the students could prepare for the next lesson. Each writing lesson lasted for two periods, each of 60 minutes. Brainstorming, planning, and writing the first draft took place in the first period, while revising, editing, and
writing the second draft were carried out in the second. Students were then required to submit the second draft of their academic essay for appraisal.

After submission, the essays were reviewed by the teacher and appropriate feedback provided on how the students could improve the quality of their writing. Subsequently, the students were required to submit a final draft for marking, the essays were evaluated and marks awarded based on a writing rubric that covered all the necessary aspects in this study (see Appendix J). In addition, the marks given took into consideration how the students applied what they had learnt in class and how they had incorporated the feedback provided after the first draft.

During the subsequent seven weeks, the experimental group teacher (teacher A) started teaching another academic writing style: argumentative essays. During this course, the students engaged in extensive study on how to write good argumentative essays (Wood, 2000). Students learnt how to focus on a specific feature of a topic, consider the audience, use different sorts of evidence, debate and survey people’s opinions, look for supporting and opposing ideas, and express their findings, not their opinions. Relevant materials were utilised to enhance the students’ understanding of important elements of argumentative essays, such as worksheets on how to write argumentative essays (see Appendix H). Finally, samples of authentic argumentative essays were provided for each student to read, analyse, and discuss them with the teacher as part of the learning process, in order for them to be able to see how argumentative essays should be written. After that, students embarked on a series of writing tasks. The students were then asked to write an argumentative essay about “Summer Jobs”. The teacher posted the topic and its objectives on the school website for the students to prepare for the next lesson. Brainstorming, planning, and writing the first draft took place in the first of the two periods, while revising, editing, and
writing the second draft were carried out in the second. Students were then required to submit the second draft of their argumentative essay for appraisal.

After their submission, the teacher evaluated the essays and appropriate feedback was provided on how they could improve the quality of their essays. Subsequently, students were required to submit a final draft for marking, the essays were evaluated and marks awarded based on the writing rubric (see Appendix J).

Teacher A then focused on creative writing (Morley, 2007; Ramet, 2007), specifically short stories, for seven weeks. The students in the experimental group were taught how they could write short stories using an integrated approach, whereas the students in the control group were taught using the controlled composition approach. During the course of seven weeks, the students in the experimental group engaged in extensive study of how to write creatively. The students learnt how to plan to write a short story, write an attention-catching opening, describe the settings and characters, catch the reader’s attention with thrilling depictions of action, and reach a conclusion for the story. Relevant materials were provided to enhance the students’ understanding of crucial aspects of creative writing, and presented through PowerPoint presentations and tips on how to write short stories (Appendix I). Furthermore, the students were provided with a short story that they were to read and analyse. Subsequently, the students embarked on a series of writing tasks. Thereafter, the teacher asked each student to write a creative essay entitled “Believe it or Not”. She posted the objectives and strategies for creative writing on the school website for the students to prepare for the next period.

The students followed the same writing process they had used when writing their academic essays, using planning, formulating and revising strategies. The students were required to submit the second draft of their stories for appraisal.
Following their submission, their stories were evaluated by the teacher and feedback provided on how they could improve the quality of their writing. Afterwards, the students were required to submit a final draft for marking, the stories were evaluated, and marks awarded based on the writing rubric that covered all the necessary aspects for this study (see Appendix J).

While teaching the three writing styles and their strategies to the experimental group, the control group teacher (teacher B) was employing the controlled composition approach which is used in Saudi secondary schools. In this method, the students followed the teacher’s instructions, whereby she depended on a text that was studied and discussed as a reading comprehension exercise in the course textbook. The students were asked to write an introduction, body and conclusion using the guide words provided by the teacher and the ideas in the textbook. The teacher underlined some words in the text that needed to be substituted with words she provided. The writing lesson in the control group took only slightly less than one period of 60 minutes.

Subsequently, students from the experimental group were divided into three groups. The first group focused on the creative writing of short stories. The second group concentrated on academic essays that incorporated description, classification, analysis and comparison, among many other aspects. The third group focused on writing argumentative essays that incorporated aspects such as emotional appeal, logical stance and counterargument. Students in the experimental group were asked to select a writing style of their preference after discussing the topic and before starting to write. Each group wrote using different discourse modes in the same lesson while focusing on the same topic, whereas students in the control group were taught using the controlled composition approach. The students in the experimental group wrote
individually, while the students in the control group wrote in groups of six. The researcher emphasises on individual writing for the experimental group students to track individual idea generation, writer’s voice, student’s writing skills and control over the text. In addition, the writer, as an individual, is responsible to identify and address the task at hand (Silva, 1990).

In their respective groups within the experimental class, the students were required to complete monthly writing assignments on various topics. The members of each group were also required to present their assignments in front of their group members. For each written piece, the group members were required to critique and evaluate the quality of the ideas and make suggestions as to how each assignment could be improved. In the course of these group discussions of weaknesses and strengths, the teacher observed, which involved noting the participation of each student in critiquing and evaluating the quality of ideas and offering suggestions. Subsequently, the students were required to make the necessary amendments and then submit their assignments for marking. The students’ assignments were then evaluated by the teacher and awarded marks. The pieces of writing with the highest marks from each group were selected and published in the school journal or displayed on the English board in the school hallway. This activity was expected to motivate students to enhance their writing performance and consider a wider circle of readers than their teacher. Each student’s marks were recorded and samples of their assignments stored to be used at a later stage in the study.

Cohen et al. (2003) indicate that when conducting research in education where students are involved, such as in this situation, feedback from the students (respondents) is necessary. Consequently, peer feedback was applied during the study, where the teacher and the students undertook a class discussion on the major
difficulties or challenges they faced during the writing process. This is referred to in this study as a teacher-student conference. The teacher commented on each student’s writing skills and guided them all in how to improve these in order to achieve better results.

In November 2013, an in-depth data collection was carried out in order to gauge the students’ writing skills, identify their weaknesses and establish the effectiveness of the writing strategies employed by their teacher. Collecting data at this stage of the study was crucial, since it helped the researcher to understand the students’ level of writing and identify what needed to be done to improve their writing skills. Furthermore, the data collected helped the researcher to compare the performance of the students in the two main groups and the effectiveness of the integrated approach used in the experimental group. The data collection instruments that were used during this process included post-questionnaires 1 & 2, post-tests, semi-structured interviews, class observations and the collecting of written materials. Hence, the researcher requested that the experimental and control groups complete post-questionnaire 1 after eight months of implementing the study to compare between the two groups’ responses. Observations of writing lessons for the experimental and control groups were to record students’ use of the strategies, their attitude and behaviour, the collection of their essays and a post-test took place during this period.

After that, the researcher distributed a piece of paper among the experimental group students to ask them if they were willing to be interviewed. It was also mentioned that the interview would be in Arabic, would take place in the school and last for 40 minutes. Only eight students agreed. The researcher interviewed these eight students individually, as well as conducting a one-to-one interview with their teacher.
The main purpose of the interviews was to support the results extracted from post-questionnaire 1 and seek further clarification and information.

3.5.3 Programme delivery II (controlled composition)

Teacher A was then asked to return to the method she had previously used to teach writing by stopping feeding writing strategies to the students to investigate the students’ awareness and perception of the writing strategies used. The researcher also opted to measure the sustained impact of the integrated approach in order to assess the effectiveness of the approach in relation to students’ perceptions and conceptualisation of writing strategies that would help, if achieved, in changing their approaches to writing in English. Therefore, three months after returning to the previous method, the researcher applied post-questionnaire 2 with the experimental group, observed a writing lesson and collected written materials.

This method was used in accordance with studies on deep learning and to demonstrate whether instructions that promote deep learning lead to a sustained impact of the study variables. For example, Hidi and Renninger’s (2006) model consists of four phases in developing students’ interest in order to influence their learning and level of engagement by focusing their attention and encouraging positive feelings towards learning. Sustained engagement and interest in learning in their study were achieved by using challenging tasks and assistance from the teacher and others.

Deep learning, according to researchers (e.g., Biggs, 1987; Entwistle, 1981; Ramsden, 2003; Tagg, 2003), entails the engagement of higher-order thinking skills, such as analysis, synthesis, evaluation and individual responsibility, and commitment towards learning rather than learning to pass examinations. According to Floyd et al. (2009: 183), “Deep learners can transfer the learned concepts to a variety of situations
thereby creating a denser matrix of connections within their knowledge and understanding”.

The variety and extensive amount of data sources used in this research ensured triangulation of the data collected in order to provide richer, denser and more accurate information. Later, the information gathered was analysed, compared and conclusions drawn. Table 3.4 summarises the research procedure.

**Table 3.3: Summary of the research procedure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 months before the</td>
<td>Teacher A training</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implementation, 32 sessions,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 sessions a week, 3 hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before implementation</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students’ pre-questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For 6 months</td>
<td>An integrated approach and meta-cognitive writing strategies</td>
<td>Academic writing, argumentative writing and</td>
<td>Controlled composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>creative writing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>For 2 months</td>
<td>Each student chose her preferred writing mode. (The teacher had a</td>
<td>Controlled composition</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 months after implementation</td>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Twice (one lesson)</td>
<td>Once (one lesson)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Written materials</td>
<td>30 x 2 (individual work)</td>
<td>5 x 2 (group work)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students’ post-questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Marks and essay analysis (30)</td>
<td>Marks and essay analysis (30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students’ interview</td>
<td>8 students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For 2 months</td>
<td>Return to guided composition, no writing strategies</td>
<td>Teacher A returned to guided instruction</td>
<td>Controlled composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>teaching without writing strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After 3 months of returning</td>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Twice (one lesson)</td>
<td>Once (one lesson)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to the old method</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-questionnaire 2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher’s interview</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6 Use of L1 in data collection

According to Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998), it is good for researchers in a setting where there are multiple languages, as in a country where there is more than one official language, to translate their research instruments into the languages with which the respondents will be most comfortable. Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998: 31) add that some of the popular surveys conducted in diverse fields, such as Eurobarometer and Latinobarometer, translate their survey questionnaires into the first language, depending on the setting of their research, where the participants are second language learners.

However, Regmi (2010) indicates that the translation of instruments into the first language is not the only way to collect information across cultures. Nevertheless, Regmi (2010) adds that it is probably the only way of ensuring that there is equivalence and scalar equivalence. In addition, Marczyk et al. (2005) argue that conducting interviews in, and translating questionnaires into, the first language is commonly applied in most research whose setting has cultural diversity. Regmi (2010) posits that the rationale for using this approach is that it contributes to the validation and reliability of the data collection instrument.

However, this debate is not without criticism, as Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998) argue in their seminal work on questionnaires in translation that language is not isomorphic and hence what is sourced using the first language may not come out in the second language that is used in the analysis. In this case, Arabic was used as the first language to perform data mining or collection procedures, but analysis and presentation of the final results were based on English (the second language). If
the deductions by Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998) are anything to go by, then what goes in (first language findings) may not match what comes out (second language results). The basis for this argument is grounded in the view that an input and output mechanistic notion is misleading and that translation itself has intrinsic motives, such as emotional effects, in addition to the overall meaning of the words (Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998).

Therefore, in order to achieve reliability in translating into the first language, a researcher needs to have excellent skills in both the languages to be used in his or her study. The Research Consortium on Educational Outcomes and Poverty (2000) reinforces this recommendation and further postulates that it is not just a matter of linguistic competence; rather, it involves a thorough understanding of both languages by the researcher. It is worth noting that the researcher has a translation studies Bachelor’s degree in English-Arabic and Arabic-English translation, which supports her ability and understanding in both languages.

To achieve the translation effect in this study, a decentring technique was used whereby the questionnaire was refined several times and paraphrased in both the source and target languages (Werner & Campbell, 1970), as indicated in the questionnaires attached in Appendices A and C. Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998) indicate that decentring is one of the many techniques that can be used to translate or paraphrase a data collection instrument in two languages by constructing texts that are not focussed on a specific culture and language. In addition, the researcher has a good understanding of both languages (Arabic and English), so the validity of the study was not compromised by pursuing this approach.
3.7 Data collection and the research instruments

As stated elsewhere in this chapter, a mixed data collection approach increases the reliability of the data collected and improves the conclusions or deductions made (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). In regard to this study, five data collection procedures were employed: class observations, semi-structured interviews, semi-structured questionnaires, the analysis of written materials, and an assessment of students’ records (essays and records of marks). According to Cohen et al. (2003), there are various strategies of collecting data: questionnaires, direct observations, interviews, and a review of documentary evidence.

The instruments used for the quantitative part of this research included questionnaires distributed to the participating students and performance results, that is, the marks from the pre-test and post-test. For the qualitative aspect of the study, the process involved semi-structured interviews with the students and their teacher in the experimental class, class observations and the analysis of the written materials from both the experimental and the control groups. Overall, the research instruments used ensured that the relevance and value of the research were assured and that the different findings based on them would inform the research stages. The quantitative data collected were processed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program, so that the results could be interpreted and discussed to answer the research questions.

3.7.1 Questionnaire

One of the data collection instruments employed was a semi-structured questionnaire, which was issued to the students and teachers engaged in the study. Questions in a questionnaire may be open-ended or closed-ended (Tseng et al. 2006).
Open-ended questions entail respondents formulating their own responses or answers, whereas closed-ended questions require them to select their answers from the different options provided. Questionnaires can be administered through different modes. For example, they can be given face-to-face, in which case the researcher asks the respondent(s) questions orally and records the findings. Questionnaires can also be administered in written form, whereby the questions are printed or presented on paper and the respondents are required to fill in their responses. Questionnaires can also be administered online or through other computerised media (Ader & Hand, 2008).

Some of the benefits associated with the use of questionnaires include the fact that this method is cheap and requires less time and effort to distribute and analyse than other techniques. On the other hand, some of the disadvantages associated with this method include the fact that some questionnaires are standardised and, as a result, may produce general or vague information. Furthermore, in some cases, information obtained through the use of questionnaires may be inaccurate or biased, mainly because respondents can give superficial answers, especially when there are a number of questions (Cargan, 2007). Darzi and Athanasiou (2010: 48) recommend that when constructing a questionnaire it is important to use simple and clear language. Moreover, when administering a questionnaire, it is essential to ask the respondents to answer the questions honestly and accurately. In this study, the questionnaires were presented to the participating students and teachers in order to gather information pertinent to the aims of this research study.

Four sets of questionnaires were used during the study. The first questionnaire (pre-questionnaire) was for the experimental group and control group students in the secondary school (60 students in total) before the implementation of the integrated approach. The second set (post-questionnaire 1) was similar to that issued to the 60
students in both groups but targeted the same students eight months after the implementation of the study. The responses to these two sets of questionnaires were compared: the answers from the experimental group with those from the control group and the answers from the experimental group pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire1. The third set (post-questionnaire 2) targeted the 30 students who had acted as the experimental group three months after returning to the previous method of teaching writing (i.e., without the teacher feeding writing strategies to the students). The responses of the experimental group’s post-questionnaire 1 and post-questionnaire 2 were compared to assess the students’ awareness of the writing strategies. The fourth and final set was for teacher A, who had applied the new approach, and teacher B, who was engaged in the study but did not apply the integrated approach. Samples of the study questionnaires used can be found in Appendices A and C.

The above questionnaires amalgamated the advantages of structured and unstructured data collection instruments (Elbow, 2010). The questionnaires were written in two languages - English and Arabic - as can be observed in the samples in the appendices. It is worth noting that the questionnaires in this study were issued in person during visits to the study area.

The students’ questionnaire included four sections containing different questions, each aiming at eliciting specific data in regard to writing using English, as presented in Appendix C. The first section of the questionnaire covers background information, such as whether the students had attended any English lessons prior to this study, the kind of writing to which they had applied their English skills, and their perception of the application of English in writing. The core aim of this section was to understand the students’ abilities and perceptions of writing in English. This section
contained both open and closed questions. On the one hand, the students were required
to provide more information if applicable regarding their responses and, on the other,
they were asked to provide definite responses by selecting from the choices provided.

Having addressed the general beliefs and abilities of each student, the next
section sought to go deeper in assessing the students’ skills. The core purpose of the
second section (self-assessment of writing skills) was to address the skills that students
used when writing in English. This section also helped the students to reflect on their
abilities and assess them, as this plays a role in boosting skills to improve any
weaknesses they might face. It also assisted the researcher in identifying any changes
in students’ approaches and conceptualisation of writing and helped the researcher as
well as the teacher in deciding the right treatment by diagnosing the problem(s)
according to the students’ self-assessment. The questions in this section were
presented in a structured manner using a Likert scale. Students were asked to provide
definite responses to statements using one of the five points on the scales provided: 1
= never true; 2 = usually not true; 3 = somewhat true; 4 = usually true; and 5 = always
true. The rationale for using a structured set of statements in this section was to avoid
too much diversity in the responses, which would have become a challenge during
analysis, as recommended by Phellas et al. (2011). Hennink et al. (2010) indicate that
the application of structured research instruments has the advantage of providing the
precise amount of data that a researcher needs. However, this may compromise
quality, as stated by Schadewitz and Jachna (2000), who argue that this can arise in
the case that a researcher does not mention all the statements and that those omitted
may be more important in a given setting than those the researcher has identified. In
this study, this potential weakness was addressed through the use of one open
statement at the end of each use of the Likert scale, thereby giving the respondents the chance to mention skills that may have been omitted.

Section three aimed at assessing the writing strategies that the students used. Similar to the second section, this part of the questionnaire also presented a Likert scale, structured as follows: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = often; and 5 = very often. Different from section two, section three applied a thematic approach using three themes: strategies before writing, strategies during writing, and strategies after writing. In each of the strategy sub-sections, structured or closed-ended statements were given to which the students were to respond. To address the weakness of closed-ended questions, an open-ended statement was included at the end of this section.

The fourth section presented statements aimed at deciphering general learning strategies in writing, without a thematic approach. The core aim of including general learning strategies in this research was to identify the strategies used by the two groups (control and experimental) of Saudi secondary students to support research questions two and three in tracking any changes and differences in students’ writing, approaches and conceptualisation of writing. Therefore, if the use of general learning strategies increased, this could be interpreted as students being willing to learn, that their attitude towards learning English had been enhanced and their motivation had increased. A Likert scale similar to the one used in section three was applied with open- and closed-ended statements and questions presented to the student. The researcher believes that this research instrument was appropriately exhaustive and that it focused extensively on important key aspects of writing, thereby enhancing its reliability through the validity it provided with regard to the responses given.

With regard to the teachers’ questionnaire, there were four sections containing different questions, each aimed at eliciting specific data in relation to teaching writing
using an integrated approach and gaining insight into the teachers’ perspectives on the teaching of writing methods and the strategies used (see Appendix A). The first section of the questionnaire covered general questions about background information, such as whether the teacher had attended any English writing courses or workshops prior to this study, the kind of writing they had taught students in English classes, the activities used in the writing lessons and the main reasons for students’ revisions of their final drafts. The core aim of this section was to gain a general understanding of the teachers’ abilities and perceptions regarding teaching writing in English, similar to this section of the students’ questionnaire. The questions in this section were semi-structured, where the teachers were required to add more information to their answers and provide definite responses by selecting from the choices provided.

The next section sought to go deeper to ascertain the teachers’ assessment of the students’ writing skills. The questions in this section were presented in a structured manner using a Likert scale and used similar statements to those in the students’ questionnaire. Section three aimed at assessing the writing strategies that the students used. As with the second section, this part of the questionnaire also presented a Likert scale and used similar statements to those in the students’ questionnaire. The fourth section presented statements aimed at identifying the teaching approach used. The Likert scale used was structured as follows: 1 = totally disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = sometimes; 4 = agree; and 5 = totally agree. One notable aspect of the questionnaires was that each statement was translated into Arabic (the first language of all the respondents).
3.7.2 Semi-structured interviews

When undertaking an interview, the main task of the interviewer is to comprehend and extract meaning from what the interviewee is saying (Kvale, 1996). In this study, a great deal of information was obtained through semi-structured interviews with the participating teacher and eight students from the experimental group. The researcher transcribed the interviews in Arabic then translated them into English. A set of questions was formulated to facilitate conversation with the teacher and each of the students in the course of the interviews (Appendix D). The interviews were not limited to these questions. Based on the interviewee responses, other questions were included by the researcher to ask for further information or clarification. The questions that were incorporated into these interviews were mainly based on the key aims and objectives of the study, which are to examine the possible enhancement of secondary Saudi students’ awareness of meta-cognitive writing strategies and improve writing performance. The rationale for using a semi-structured interview was that it offered two advantages to the researcher. First, the unstructured part of the interview ensured that as many data as possible were collected from the respondents. Ivankova et al. (2006) argue that by allowing respondents to expound on the questions, other aspects that were not anticipated during the question-formulation stage are covered. Therefore, the description of a person’s experiences and perceptions regarding issues such as EFL skills and strategies is diverse and “thick” (Negari, 2011: 300).

Moreover, interviews with both the students and the teacher were conducted in order to establish the effectiveness of the different meta-cognitive writing strategies and teaching approaches used in class. These interviews sought to establish whether the integrated approach to teaching used had helped to improve the writing skills of
the students. According to Driscoll (2010), the advantage of semi-structured interviews is that they provide diverse data that can allow for more understanding of the situation in addition to the set of issues covered by the questions that the researcher drafted beforehand. In this case, the interviews took a maximum of 40 minutes. A tape recorder was used to record the progress and findings of each interview.

The semi-structured interviews were intended to help the researcher answer the research questions by deciphering the students’ perceptions and awareness of the use of writing strategies. The process also identified the students’ self-assessment of their writing performance, the effect of the teaching methods and the students’ attitude towards writing before and after the study.

An interview was also conducted with the teacher of the experimental group in order to establish whether the use of an integrated approach to EFL writing had had an impact on her teaching experience. The teacher’s interview took 40-50 minutes and a tape recorder was used.

The interview sessions were recorded on tape so that everything spoken by the respondents was retained and could be reviewed several times if required during the analysis stage. The researcher followed certain steps to ensure effective use of this instrument: she made an appointment at a time which suited each participant, created a quiet place avoiding disruption, and took the participants’ permission to record the interviews (see the head teacher’s, teachers’ and a sample of students’ parents’ and students’ consent forms in Appendix S).

Since interviews involve interaction with people, the issue of the cooperation of the respondents is crucial. Respondents in an interview may be ready to cooperate fully or may feel uncomfortable sharing everything that the researcher intends to explore. Driscoll (2010) indicates that when in-depth interviews are used in a study, a
subjective approach may derail the true purpose of the study. Therefore, research conducted with an objectivist premise will allow triangulation of the data mined via interviews with those collected through other methods.

In the course of the interviews, certain factors were considered in order to ensure the effectiveness of the process. Firstly, it was important to appear natural and engage interviewees on a person-to-person basis in order to gain access for interviews (Deuchar & Bhopal, 2013). Secondly, it was essential to foster empathy and gain the confidence of the interviewees in order to maximise the gathering of accurate information. Pratt (2006) observes that, if rapport is established between the interviewee and the interviewer, it will become easier for the interview to provide sincere and accurate responses. During an interview, it is also important to engage in active listening and search for opinions, ask for explanations, seek comparisons, and request clarification and further information (Pratt, 2006).

Some of the benefits associated with using interviews in qualitative research include the fact that they enable the researcher to obtain more in-depth responses or information. Interviews provide an opportunity and a platform for the researcher to search for opinions, ask for further details and seek evaluations or clarifications. Furthermore, the use of interviews enables the researcher to be certain about who provided what responses. However, this study cannot ignore the weaknesses of this data collection instrument, as some of the disadvantages associated with the use of interviews in qualitative research include the fact that they are time consuming and costly (Wood & Ross-Kerr, 2011).

The interviews in this study varied in regard to the latitude through which the interviewee responded to the interviewer’s questions. The researcher allowed the interviewees to express themselves freely to enable richer information to emerge from
the interviewees’ responses. Driscoll (2010) indicates that interviews can be categorised under five overall themes: informal interviews (carried out informally to gain information over an issue or agenda); conversational interviews (a one-to-one chat or talk over issues); general interviews (conversations that seek to find solutions to myriad themes); open-ended interview guides (using themes or questions that allow people to express their views and/or opinions freely); and standardised interviews (using regulated prompts that seek to identify restricted issues and respondents are restricted in the views and/or opinions they can give). In regard to this study, a conversational interview style was adopted and respondents were allowed to expand on their responses, albeit to a more limited (structured) extent. Similar to the language setting of the questionnaires used, the interviews were conducted in Arabic (the first language) with eight interviewees for 30 to 40 minutes in the Fourth Secondary School in Riyadh in order to enhance the free and easy expression of feelings and ideas by the students. Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998) indicate that when the first language is used in interviews, respondents find it easier to express their feelings, as they will not struggle in giving a response.

### 3.7.3 Observation

Observation is one of the qualitative approach instruments which requires the researcher to become a participant in the context of the study, observing the participants and gathering information. During visits to the Fourth Secondary School, observation was used to obtain the manner in which an integrated approach to teaching writing was being delivered to the students. An observation sheet was used by the researcher to identify the materials used in the writing lesson, the task audience, task objectives, the grouping method, learners’ role and activities, the teacher’s role and
activities, and, finally, the strategies used (Appendix E). According to Burney (2008) and Driscoll (2010), this method of data collection (participant observation) entails the systematic taking of notes and making records of events, students’ behaviours, the surrounding environmental attributes and the students’ social setting in regard to a given research problem with the aid of a checklist.

The level of personal inclusion as a participant-observer establishes how you see, record, and, in this manner, code your information (Adler & Adler, 1987). This also applies to the kinds of inquiries solicited and responses obtained in an interview (Kvale, 1996; Rubin & Rubin, 1995), the ethnicity of the participants and the researcher (Behar & Gordon, 1995; Stanfield & Dennis, 1993), and the age of the participants (Greene & Hogan, 2005; Zwiers & Morissette, 1999).

The observational records or field notes made during the lesson in this study were detailed, non-judgemental and concise descriptions of the EFL learning environment. According to DeWalt and DeWalt (2001: 20), the role of the researcher while using this type of study is that of an unremarkable observer, where the participant-observer “becomes a member of the group that is being studied”. I conducted my observations without any intervention in what the students or teacher did in regard to the delivery and practical application of EFL learning strategies and skills. According to Hyland (2003), classroom research, as with the study conducted here, is a good example of where observation can work well.

The advantages of this method of data collection are that it enabled the researcher to record issues, such as students’ attitude, use of strategies and behaviours, which cannot be deciphered through recorded evidence. Another advantage is that observation is simple to conduct (Woods, 1998). However, it must be borne in mind that extensive reliance on this method of enquiry may impair the reliability of a study,
as the subjects of an observation can fake their actions and behaviours, thereby resulting in false data. In this study, the researcher observed the application of the writing strategies, students’ and teacher’s discussions, and the process followed to write about a topic. Other researchers, such as Cohen et al. (2003), argue that observation is of a diverse range, from the extensively structured and detailed notation of observed activities and student behaviours to a holistic description of occurrences. As a researcher, I intended to evaluate the progress made and challenges faced by second-year secondary-level learners undergoing EFL writing classes in Saudi Arabia by observing their progress in, and awareness of, using meta-cognitive writing strategies in class.

3.7.4 Analysis of written materials

In this study, written materials acted as a useful source of information. In addition, written materials were included as data sources during this process for their importance in assessing the students’ progress in writing and whether their writing skills were improving and their awareness of the importance of the meta-cognitive writing strategies had increased. The written materials that were analysed in this study for both the experimental and control groups included pre-test compositions, two writing assignments with evaluations and comments from the teacher, and post-test compositions. These materials provided useful information that helped to identify effective pedagogical or instructional methods of teaching writing. In addition, written material such as students’ writing assignments provided a useful base for evaluating the effectiveness of an integrated approach and whether it had enabled the students to improve their writing skills.
As referred to previously, a rubric summarising the writing criteria for measuring the students’ writing performance was used by the teacher to assess and evaluate the written essays (Appendix J). It was also used by the researcher to analyse the essays.

3.7.5 Pre-tests and post-tests

The use of pre- and post-tests provided an opportunity to test the authenticity and validity of the research by analysing whether the different factors, such as the new teaching approach (the integrated approach) and the meta-cognitive writing strategies, had enhanced the EFL students’ writing abilities. The process of carrying out pre- and post-tests also provided an opportunity to validate the data and ensure that the sample which had been selected was representative. Using this mechanism helped to strengthen the overall study and provide a framework through which corrective methods and procedures could be used for the research.

A 60-minute pre-test for both the experimental and control groups was held before the implementation of the integrated approach to assess their writing skills and classify their strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, the students were asked to write an essay on either a topic they had studied before (“Theme Park”) or one of their own choosing. The essays were marked by the teacher, and marks kept to be used at a later stage in the study.

Eight months after the implementation of the integrated approach, a post-test for the experimental group and control group that lasted for 60 minutes was held. The teachers chose the topic that they were discussing with their classes as part of the textbook, so that they would not miss a whole lesson out of the required curriculum. The marks records of the students in regard to English writing were reviewed for the
pre-test and the post-test to assess any improvements in the students’ writing skills. This was done for both the control and the experimental groups.

3.8 Data analysis

According to Burns and Grove (2003: 479), “Data analysis is a mechanism for reducing and organising data to produce findings that require interpretation by the researcher”. In this study, the approach to data analysis followed the same approach as that adopted in collecting the data. The material collected in this study was mainly primary data, and both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Primary data are those observed or collected directly from first-hand experience or direct contact with the data source (Newman & Benz, 1998).

3.8.1 Qualitative data analysis

With regard to the qualitative data analysis, the analytical procedures adopted involved the following: a preliminary exploration of the data collected through the semi-structured interviews, observations, two teachers’ questionnaires, as well as two essays from each group (2 x 30 from the experimental group and 2 x 5 group work essays from the control group) and pre- and post-tests for both groups (60 essays). By the end of the study in December 2013, it was anticipated that each student would have completed approximately four written essays. Subsequently, the data were coded by segmenting and labelling the transcripts and the texts from the following four data instruments: interviews, teachers’ questionnaires, class observations, and written materials for the experimental group and control group. This was followed by the development of themes through the aggregation of the coded data and identifying connections between the themes. Ultimately, an analysis was constructed that
presented a succinct description of the core deductions drawn in regard to the overall study and in line with the study questions outlined at the start of this chapter.

In essence, the qualitative analysis was that of a thematic approach, where themes were generated in regard to the commonality of the responses from the different data collection instruments. Bryman and Hardy (2009) indicate that drawing on the commonality of responses can easily be arrived at through the use of key words. The researcher transcribed and analysed the material from the qualitative instruments manually to ensure close and deep reading and interpretation of the data collected.

When coding qualitative data, the researcher should delve into the main issues for the participants in the specific context of the study and continue to ask the research questions throughout the analysis to become better informed regarding potential answers (Strauss, 1987). A code can be a word and/or a phrase that typically appoints summative, noteworthy characteristics (ibid). While searching for a pattern in coded information to classify and categorise items to produce a theme, it must be acknowledged that grouping codes under one classification is not necessarily done for their similarities but because they shared something, such as a behaviour or characteristic (Saldana, 2003). According to Hatch (2002: 155), a pattern can be categorised by “similarity, differences, frequency, sequence, correspondence and causation”.

The written materials were assessed and marks awarded based on a writing rubric that covered all the necessary writing aspects for this study (see Appendix J). The writing criteria consisted of the main concerns of the three writing approaches: writer, reader and content, and considered meeting the purpose of the writing, meeting the readers’ expectations, communicating with the reader and providing a clear
writer’s voice. These criteria for assessment matched features of writing that would help improve secondary students’ writing performance.

Boeije (2010) argues that the qualitative analysis approach is not simple and it is advisable to commence it during the inception of the actual data collection process. The rationale for this approach to qualitative data analysis is that it allows for the discovery of other issues that were not included in the pre-formulation of the data collection instruments.

The qualitative data analysis in this study included the semi-structured interviews, class observations, the teachers’ questionnaire and written materials, as discussed below:

1. **Analysis of the semi-structured interviews**

   The interviews were transcribed, coded, categorised and then a careful study of the categories was conducted to create themes that enabled the researcher to analyse and interpret useful findings.

2. **Analysis of the class observations**

   The researcher built her observation analysis according to the aspects detailed in the observation sheet (Appendix E). A comparison between the experimental group and control group and the experimental group after eight months of the study and three months of returning to the old method was conducted. The aspects considered in this analysis were mentioned earlier in this section. Themes were established to support the research findings and answer the research questions to identify the impact of the integrated approach on teaching and the differences in the students’ approaches to writing after their exposure to the integrated approach.
3. **Analysis of the teachers’ questionnaires**

A qualitative analysis of the two teachers’ questionnaires considered each statement and made a comparison between the responses of the experimental group teacher and those of the control group teacher. These responses were then coded and themes identified to help strengthen the research findings (see Appendix B).

4. **Analysis of the written materials**

Analysis of the written materials was conducted in three phases: pre-test, written essays in class, and post-test. The significance of using this form of analysis was to enable the researcher to identify the effectiveness of the intervention or the implementation of the writing lesson. Hence, the analysis of the written materials was carried out according to the elements in the writing rubric to determine transformations in students’ writing (see Appendix J). Therefore, the analysis of the written materials was a control instrument for measuring variations in performance. Consequently, the pre- and post-tests were conducted with the 60 participants (30 in the experimental group and 30 in the control group) and a review was made of two assignments per participant (2 x 30 for the experimental group; individual work, and 2 x 5 for the control group; group work: five groups each consisting of six students). The pre-test was conducted on 15 October 2012, while the post-test was held on 28 October 2013.

Each of the essays in the pre-test, the essays written in class and for the post-test was rated by the teachers then analysed by the researcher using the writing rubric that consisted of the required criteria for rating essays and also served the requirements of this research. The researcher adapted a school writing rubric (Duxbury High School, n.d.) that was revised and agreed by the supervisor.
5. **Rating essays**

The researcher adopted various strategies in rating the essays to ensure reliability. First, after collecting the essays, the researcher classified them under experimental group pre-test, written material 1 and 2, and post-test. The same classification applied to the control group essays. Second, each essay was given a number to avoid the use of students’ names, hence the essays remained anonymous. Finally, the marking procedure was conducted by the teachers following the same aspects in the writing rubric (Appendix J) provided by the researcher to measure any changes in the students’ writing which reflected the effect of the integrated approach on the teaching and the students’ performance. All the essays were rated analytically by concentrating on six aspects of writing: Main idea (5 marks), Content (10 marks), Organisation (5 marks), Voice (5 marks), Language use (8 marks) and Mechanics (7 marks). The scores for the pre-test and post-test were processed through SPSS software and used in the quantitative analysis. The qualitative analysis of the essays involved interpreting each aspect of the rubric according to the student’s essay and making a comparison between the two groups to examine the effectiveness of the study variables. Another comparison was made between the different phases of writing in the experimental group (pre-test, post-test, after 8 months, and after 3 months of returning to the old method) to monitor their writing progress and establish if there was a correlation between students’ awareness and perceptions of the meta-cognitive writing strategies and their writing performance.

It is worth noting that the two teachers (teacher A and B) rated the students’ essays to avoid bias; to help teacher A to provide useful feedback to be discussed in the teacher-student conference and the quality within students’ essays, positively
influences the teacher as stated in Harris’s (1977) study. This influence reflects on the
teacher’s feedback and teaching.

3.8.2 Quantitative data analysis

With regard to the quantitative data gathered from the first 60 students’
questionnaires for the two groups, the second 60 students’ questionnaires for both
groups, the subsequent 30 students’ questionnaires for the experimental group, and the
review of the pre-test and post-test marks records for the students of both groups, SPSS
and descriptive statistics (means and frequencies) were utilised in the analysis. Along
with various references such as SPSS textbooks, a statistics expert to ensure accurate
entering of data and correct test usage, and Pearson’s correlation analysis were
employed to analyse the relationship between students’ perceptions of the writing
strategies and performance. Any significant differences between the two groups of
students were also considered to determine the impact of an integrated approach on
the experimental group, and the effectiveness of this approach in the teaching of
writing for secondary-level students in Saudi Arabia represented by the marks scored
as indicated on the marks records and the three sets of students’ questionnaires.

3.9 Validity and reliability of the research

Boeije (2010) indicates that validity can be defined as the credibility or
trustworthiness of a study as a whole. The validity of a test is also defined as the degree
to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Cohen et al. 2007:
133). One of the most common approaches to assessing validity that was adopted in
this study was consistency checks. In this regard, the supervisors of this research
evaluated each stage of the study, including the data collection instruments adopted,
such as questionnaires, interview questions, observation sheets and writing rubrics.
The content validity of these instruments was assessed to determine whether they were structured in such a way as to obtain data that could answer the research questions accurately and appropriately. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were measured using SPSS. Test validity was measured by reporting the extent to which the results met the standards and aspects of the writing criteria. Validity is not about the quality of the test itself; rather, it is the degree to which the interpretations of the findings of the test are justified, which depends on the test’s intended utilisation (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). The results obtained are justified in the analysis and discussion chapters to demonstrate the validity of the research instruments.

Reliability was enhanced through the adoption of a mixed-method approach to research and data collection. For instance, the data collection entailed four different instruments: observations, interviews, analysis of written materials and questionnaires, in addition to a review of the students’ marks in the marks record under the quantitative research approach. A writing rubric (Appendix J) was used in assessing improvement in the secondary-level students’ writing skills. This writing rubric was performed at the commencement of the study, during the study, and at the end and supplemented the pre-test and post-test approaches to the analysis of the written essays.

Qualitative validity can be “addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of data achieved, the participants approached, and the extent of triangulation” (Cohen et al., 2007: 133). The use of SPSS to carry out the quantitative analysis contributed to strengthening the validity and reliability of the research. This was primarily due to the fact that it provides an opportunity through which, when the same data sets are entered, the same results will be achieved. This helps to increase the reliability and validity of the research as it ensures that the data sets, when entered,
will provide the same result and lead towards strengthening the overall research so that proper and correct directives can be identified. This will also ensure that the results achieved can be verified and will contribute towards strengthening the overall issues and highlight the manner in which the research was carried out.

### 3.10 Ethical issues

According to Orb et al. (2001), ethical observation during qualitative research is very important, so that the data collected do not lose their reliability. One of the ethical measures that were considered in this study included seeking permission from the head teacher of the school in Saudi Arabia to implement the writing strategies for an experimental group of second-year secondary-level students in her school. The head teacher also allowed the researcher to seek permission from the parents and guardians of the students who were engaged in the study. The second-year secondary-level English language teachers’ permission was also gained.

One class of around 30 students was invited to participate in the study of their own free will. The research objectives and benefits were discussed with the learners in their first language (Arabic). The study was explained to them, along with the consideration that their participation would be voluntary. Before commencing the study, consent forms were signed by the head teacher, the teachers involved, the students’ parents/guardians, and the students (see Appendix S).

The identity of all the respondents was kept anonymous (Burgess, 1985) and, in cases where a name has been used in this research, it is a pseudonym and not the real name of any of the participants (Soltis, 1989: 129). Each participant, whether student or teacher, engaged in this study of her own free will or through free consent. Consequently, the responses have been voluntarily given.
Before commencing the interview sessions, each respondent was briefed on what the research involved. With regard to the questionnaires, the purpose of the study was highlighted in an opening statement (see Appendices A and C).

### 3.11 Timeline

The study spanned two academic periods: 2012 to 2013. Three major aspects of writing were studied: academic, argumentative and creative writing. Academic writing instruction was conducted in seven weeks (two weeks in October, four weeks in November, and one week in December). The teaching of argumentative writing was then conducted for seven weeks starting in December 2012 (two weeks in December 2012, and one week in January and four weeks in February 2013) (see Table 3.5).

Creative writing took seven weeks (three weeks in March and four weeks in April 2014). From May to July 2013, the students chose their preferred writing style after discussing the topic in class. The new academic year commenced on 9 September 2013 and teacher A continued using the integrated approach to teaching writing. She then returned to the controlled method of teaching writing without the use of the meta-cognitive writing strategies from late October to December 2013.

Between November 2013 and January 2014, the researcher travelled to Saudi Arabia to collect the required data. This period marked the final assessment of the students’ performance in regard to writing skills and strategies.
Table 3.4: Timeline for the fieldwork

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic year</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fieldwork procedure</td>
<td>Sep</td>
<td>Oct</td>
<td>Nov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation and introduction</td>
<td>1st wk</td>
<td>1st wk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>1st wk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A focus on academic writing</td>
<td>3rd &amp; 4th wks</td>
<td>1st, 2nd, 3rd &amp; 4th wks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A focus on argumentative writing</td>
<td>2nd &amp; 3rd wks</td>
<td></td>
<td>4th wk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ preferred style of writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.12 Summary

In summary, the core purpose of this study was to help EFL students in a secondary school in Saudi Arabia enhance their awareness of writing strategies and improve their writing performance in academic, argumentative and creative writing by being explicitly instructed in meta-cognitive strategies (planning, revising) and using the integrated approach to writing.

The most appropriate research design adopted during the study was exploratory (as discussed in section 3.4.). The rationale for applying this design was that it would enable the researcher to obtain an understanding of the impact of an integrated approach to teaching writing on secondary-school students in Saudi Arabia. It was also flexible enough to provide relevant information regarding this complex subject (Negari, 2011).

The research used a mixed-method approach and applied both qualitative and quantitative elements. The rationale for this approach was to enhance the reliability of the study. With regard to the qualitative approach, four data collection instruments were used: observations, semi-structured interviews, teachers’ questionnaires, and essays written by the students. The quantitative approach involved the use of semi-structured students’ questionnaires and students’ pre and post-tests marks. The questionnaires and interviews were presented in the first language of the participants (Arabic) in order to enhance the free expression of their ideas.

Data analysis was thematic for the qualitative research and followed the process illustrated in Appendix B. Themes indicating commonality in responses were identified following the coding and categorising of interview, observation and questionnaire data. Quantitative data were obtained following a review of the students’ marks record and analysed using Pearson’s correlation analysis to identify the
relationship between students’ performance and their perceptions of writing strategy skills. The use of SPSS was identified to assist in strengthening the reliability and validity of the research and provide consistency.
Chapter Four: Quantitative Analysis and Findings

According to De Vos (2002: 339), data analysis is a process that entails “bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data”. It unearths facts and explanations and is crucial in pattern detection and hypotheses testing (Levine, 1996: 51). In the previous chapter, the methodological process of data collection and data analysis for this study was discussed. In this chapter, the data are analysed in depth and the findings that emerged from the analysis are recorded and explained. The instruments shared by both the control and the experimental groups were: questionnaires and pre-test and post-test marks, while some additional data were collected from the experimental group. The instruments in common included a pre-test and post-test, a student questionnaire before and eight months after the implementation of the study, class observation, analysis of written materials and a teachers’ questionnaire. The experimental group received an additional questionnaire that was used three months after returning to the previous method of teaching writing. Finally, eight students from the experimental group and their teacher were interviewed on a one-to-one basis. Data collected in this case were used for identification, description and exploration of the following:

1. How effective is the integrated approach in the teaching of writing skills for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?

2. What changes could be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?

3. What differences in approaches and conceptualisations of writing could be observed in students exposed to the integrated approach?
Since the study adopted a mixed-method approach, placing the quantitative and qualitative data analysis in separate chapters will provide a clear and chronological account of the data obtained and create a link that will be easy to understand. This chapter will begin by presenting and evaluating the reliability and validity of the study conducted to give clarity to the data presented. After that, the equivalence of the two groups, control and experimental, will be examined and, finally, the data will be explained in detail. The data analysis starts with a calculation of the mean scores and culminates by answering the research questions mentioned above. It was crucial to use SPSS software to analyse the data due to the amount of material collected.

4.1 Verification of the reliability and validity of the student questionnaire

As established in chapter three, the reliability and validity of this study will play a fundamental role in the acceptability of its findings, conclusions and recommendations. According to Saunders et al. (2009: 38), reliability refers to the measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated administration.

The verification of reliability and validity was conducted by means of calculation. The tools employed included the Cronbach’s alpha formula to assess reliability and Pearson’s correlation coefficient for validity, as described below. Bryman (2008) states that Cronbach’s alpha is a test that is used to measure internal reliability. According to Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008: 2277), “Reliability coefficients range from 0.00 to 1.00, with higher coefficients indicating higher levels of reliability”.

The researcher used Cronbach’s alpha in calculating the coefficients that indicate reliability. As shown in Table 4.1 below, the researcher calculated the
reliability of the entire scale in addition to the reliability of the phrases used. The student questionnaire self-assessment section had an overall reliability coefficient of 0.947, the three sections in the use of writing strategies had an overall reliability coefficient of 0.771 for “before writing” strategies, 0.820 for “during writing” strategies and 0.799 for “after writing” strategies. The entire reliability coefficient for the use of writing strategies (before, during and after) was 0.900. The general learning strategies value of the axle reliability coefficient was 0.886. Overall, the reliability coefficient of all the sections above had a high degree of reliability (see Table 4.1).

Since the value obtained was in accordance with Cronbach’s alpha coefficient and was within the acceptable range, it permitted this study to carry out research using the identified instruments, since the data obtained from research questions such as “What changes could be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?” would be reliable. The individual scale phrases for each section are indicated in the table provided in Appendix Q.

![Table 4.1: Values for the entire reliability coefficient for self-assessment, use of writing strategies and language learning strategies](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Entire reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-assessment of writing skills</td>
<td>0.947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before writing strategies</td>
<td>0.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During writing strategies</td>
<td>0.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After writing strategies</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The entire use of the writing strategies</td>
<td>0.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language learning strategies</td>
<td>0.886</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The validity of the questionnaire content was essential during the construction phase. A draft of the questionnaire was given to the researcher’s supervisors and two other EFL university lecturers in Saudi Arabia to obtain expert views on the applicability of the statements to the purpose of the questionnaire and to highlight any
wording issues. Appropriate changes were made according to their suggestions. For instance, the sentence “Please include any other skills not mentioned above” was added to sections two, three and four to capture anything that had not been addressed in those sections of the questionnaire. Content validity is usually established before checking reliability. Concerning construct validity, the questionnaire was constructed under the umbrella of language learning strategy theories (Chamot & O’Malley, 1987; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987) and second language writing literature (Hinkel, 2004; Hyland, 2004; Kroll, 1990; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Sessa, 2005; Silva & Leki, 2004). Specifically, the questionnaire was based on Flower and Hayes’ (1981) cognitive model of the L1 writing process, which divides the process into planning, translating ideas into text, and revising. The researcher also added some statements which addressed foreign language issues. For example, “I like to write it in my native language first then translate it into English” (Section four, students’ questionnaire Appendix C).

This research notes that validity has been defined differently depending on the context of the study. For instance, Abdul-Rahman (2011) defines it as a measure of the degree to which the instrument succeeds in measuring what it is constructed to measure. According to Campbell and Machin (1999), Pearson’s correlation coefficient is a reflection of the strength of association between variables: 0.5 to 1.0 indicates high correlation, while 0.3 to 0.5 indicates medium correlation. The selection of Pearson’s correlation coefficient in this study provided actual reflection concerning the strength of association between the variables as they have been used in this study. Notably, the sample included 60 female students in the second year (year 11) of secondary school in Riyadh. Validity and reliability were verified through an analysis of three sections of the questionnaire (excluding the first section, which contains general questions).
The sections analysed were the self-assessment of English writing skills (section two), use of writing skills (section three), and general learning strategies (section four). The first section, general questions, was not assessed for validity and reliability. A brief identification was provided for each of the sections tested and the results of the calculations for the three sections’ reliability and validity are provided in Table 4.1, while more detailed tables for each section can be seen in Appendix Q.

With regard to the objectives of the study, it was crucial to conduct assessment from multiple perspectives. In particular, the students were asked to carry out a self-assessment of the skills they had. There were two reasons for this option being of significance to the study. First, it would increase the students’ self-awareness through reflective practice, render the criteria for self-evaluation explicit, and make performance improvement practices intrinsic to ongoing learning (Johnson et al., 2010). Secondly, it would contribute to the development of critical reviewing skills, enabling learners to more objectively evaluate their own performance and that of others when used in conjunction with peer assessment (Ivankova et al., 2006). With peer assessment, they became more confident in giving constructive feedback, and receiving and acting on the feedback received. The statements relating to this section can be seen in the students’ questionnaire (see Appendix C).

The use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing and after writing) was to establish the extent to which the students used existing strategies in writing. In particular, the interest was divided into “before writing”, which contained planning strategies for the writing of any type of essay; the “during writing” part or the formulation of writing strategies; and finally “after writing”, which essentially captured the revision techniques that were implemented.
General learning strategies are referred to in the fourth section of the students’ questionnaire. It was crucial for the students engaged in the study to have the will to learn, as this would enhance their self-efficacy. The reason attributable to this is that it would help the students take control of their own learning and assessment, and give them the chance to manage their own learning and development more independently.

On the role of learning strategies and their integration within the questionnaire, strategies have a positive effect on enhancing the self-efficacy of learners, thereby supporting the importance of strategy training in promoting positive effects in the EFL classroom (Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman, 2012). Learners, therefore, are supposed to develop their own learning strategies to establish that sense of self-efficacy. However, within the context of a questionnaire, and not as a point of conclusion, by establishing a ‘process-product’ catalogue of writing strategies and understanding general tendencies, researchers can compare findings in different contexts, teachers can diagnose learners’ needs for a particular type of strategy instruction and establish priorities among them, and students can raise their strategy-use awareness.

This is manifested in taking extra steps towards self-improvement. In this case, the elements that revolve around using English in practice, such as reading, speaking and/or exploration, among other steps such as creating personal goals and seeking correction, represented an area of interest that the researcher addressed in the questionnaire. The relevant section in the student questionnaire contained phrases formulated to collect data on these and other related elements.

It should be noted that statement 21 in the self-assessment of writing skills, statement 16 in the “before writing” section, statement 21 in the “during writing” section, statement 20 in the “after writing” section and statement 13 in the “general learning strategies” section in the student questionnaire (see Appendix C) were not
included in the calculation of reliability and validity. The statements were intended to capture anything that the respondent felt had not been addressed and, where specific issues emerged, they will be discussed in a separate section in the qualitative analysis.

A content validity test was applied to assess the structure of the questionnaire and whether it would obtain data that could support answering the research questions. Construct validity in the students’ questionnaire reflects on the study design and its methods because validity alludes to the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to measure. In other words, the findings as established will truly represent the scenario the research is purporting to measure. Therefore, similar to the above examination, the validity assessment did not include phrase number 21 in self-assessment of the writing skills, statement 16 in the “before writing” section, statement 21 in the “during writing” section, statement 20 in the “after writing” section and statement 13 in the “general learning strategies” section for the same reasons. The validity calculation was also done for each section for each of the phrases on a scale from 1-5. The results obtained are presented in Table 4.2 below. The researcher calculated the validity of the scale phrases using internal consistency to find the value of the Pearson’s correlation coefficient and calculate the level of significance of each of the phrases of the scale. It should be noted that the data calculated were based on varying levels of significance for each of the phrases of the scale. Some of the phrases had a significance level of 0.05 (indicated by *), while others had a significance level of 0.01 (indicated by **). A review of the validity of the data presented in Table 4.2 demonstrated that the significance of the correlation of each phrase with the entire degree of the test was at a level of 0.01; consequently, these data showed that there was internal consistency of the scale in all the three tested sections of the questionnaire. The presence of internal consistency or the reason attributable to the
adoption of internal consistency, according to Saunders et al. (2009), is established by testing research validity, and in educational research the significance value is that at the 0.05 and 0.01 levels.

Table 4.2: Correlation values of the study relative variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation coefficient value</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation coefficient value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.728**</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.725**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.803**</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.768**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.739**</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.482**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.797**</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.762**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.682**</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.664**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.728**</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.695**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.584**</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.793**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.733**</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.740**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.650**</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.738**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.709**</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.557**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation value</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation value</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.621**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.679**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.489**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.597**</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.538**</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.672**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.507**</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.404**</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.660**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.561**</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.599**</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.465**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.279*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.675**</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.351*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.645**</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.428**</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.296*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.472**</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.274*</td>
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<td>0.396*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>0.650**</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.488**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.470**</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.689**</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.530**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.447**</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>0.615**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.426**</td>
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<td>0.580**</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.616**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.637**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.339*</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.237*</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.327*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.411**</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.317*</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.456**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.622**</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.502**</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.399*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.574**</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.484**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.280*</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.463**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.290*</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.514**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.576**</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.389*</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.530**</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| During writing                  |
| 1  | 0.621**           | 1   | 0.679**           |
| 2  | 0.597**           | 2   | 0.538**           |
| 3  | 0.507**           | 3   | 0.404**           |
| 4  | 0.561**           | 4   | 0.599**           |
| 5  | 0.279*            | 5   | 0.675**           |
| 6  | 0.645**           | 6   | 0.428**           |
| 7  | 0.472**           | 7   | 0.274*            |
| 8  | 0.540**           | 8   | 0.650**           |
| 9  | 0.470**           | 9   | 0.689**           |
| 10 | 0.447**           | 10  | 0.609**           |
| 11 | 0.426**           | 11  | 0.580**           |
| 12 | 0.435**           | 12  | 0.454**           |
| 13 | 0.339*            | 13  | 0.237*            |
| 14 | 0.411**           | 14  | 0.317*            |
| 15 | 0.622**           | 15  | 0.502**           |
| 16 | 0.574**           | 16  |                   |
| 17 | 0.280*            | 17  |                   |
| 18 | 0.290*            | 18  |                   |
| 19 | 0.576**           | 19  |                   |
| 20 | 0.530**           | 20  |                   |

| After writing                   |
| 1  | 0.621**           | 1   | 0.679**           |
| 2  | 0.597**           | 2   | 0.538**           |
| 3  | 0.507**           | 3   | 0.404**           |
| 4  | 0.561**           | 4   | 0.599**           |
| 5  | 0.279*            | 5   | 0.675**           |
| 6  | 0.645**           | 6   | 0.428**           |
| 7  | 0.472**           | 7   | 0.274*            |
| 8  | 0.540**           | 8   | 0.650**           |
| 9  | 0.470**           | 9   | 0.689**           |
| 10 | 0.447**           | 10  | 0.609**           |
| 11 | 0.426**           | 11  | 0.580**           |
| 12 | 0.435**           | 12  | 0.454**           |
| 13 | 0.339*            | 13  | 0.237*            |
| 14 | 0.411**           | 14  | 0.317*            |
| 15 | 0.622**           | 15  | 0.502**           |
| 16 | 0.574**           | 16  |                   |
| 17 | 0.280*            | 17  |                   |
| 18 | 0.290*            | 18  |                   |
| 19 | 0.576**           | 19  |                   |
| 20 | 0.530**           | 20  |                   |

<p>| General learning strategies     |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation value</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Correlation value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.671**</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.572**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.684**</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.726**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.804**</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.710**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.719**</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.588**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.636**</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.555**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.645**</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.706**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Equivalence between the two groups: control and experimental

As part of the analysis, it was imperative that the two groups (control and experimental) had an initial assessment. A pre-measurement was conducted to ensure that the groups had similar performance relating to variables that would have an effect on the study. Based on the research questions, it is vital to mention that equivalence of the experimental and control groups was fundamental to this study. As indicated in the assessment of both groups prior to using the integrated approach to teaching writing skills for each variable, explanations have been given for how disparity between the groups could give advantage to one of them. In this study, assessment of the effects of the integrated approach would be acceptable and genuine only if both the control and experimental groups had equivalent capabilities before the implementation of the study. It was clear to the researcher, as per the calculations and results indicated in Tables 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 below, that there was equivalence between the control and experimental groups. Despite minor variations in the arithmetic means and the standard deviations, the “T” values for each group for a variable were shown to be equal. This was a crucial determination before the implementation of the integrated approach when considering all the variables in the study. The researcher tested whether the control group and the experimental group were equal before the utilisation of the integrated approach to the teaching of writing skills by testing the equivalence in the numbers of years of English language study, academic achievement, self-assessment of English writing skills, use of writing strategies (before, during and after writing), general learning strategies and in the answers given to the general questions in the students’ questionnaire. The purpose of these measurements was to demonstrate that the two groups were equal before the
implementation of the study. If this was proved, the answers to the research questions about the changes in the students’ writing performance, perceptions, different approaches and conceptualisations of writing and the effect on teaching could be attributed to the use of the integrated approach to the teaching of writing skills, as this was the only independent variable in the experimental group.

The degree of equivalence between the control and experimental groups was calculated by finding differences between the averages for some variables. The results for these variables will be presented and interpreted in this section under the appropriate titles. If the level of significance is greater than 0.05 (measurements of levels of significance are discussed below), it indicates that the variability in the two groups is not significantly different. This means the two groups’ capabilities in relation to the variables measured were equivalent before the implementation of the study.

### 4.2.1 Number of years of English language study

Testing the equivalence of ‘number of years of English language study’ between the two groups was linked to the first general question in the students’ pre-questionnaire. In this study, the students had an acceptable pre-exposure to learning the English language, which is six years before secondary school, according to the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia (see section 1.2.1). Of concern to the researcher was that too much variation in the number of years the students had been learning English might have caused a disparity in their ability and skills. This difference could have had a great effect on the study results if either the control group or the experimental group had had such an advantage. According to the Centre for Applied Second Language Studies, the proficiency of a student is directly related to the number of hours he or she has received of instruction in the language (Boeije, 2010). As cited
in Boeije, the Centre indicates that in consideration of a normal school calendar and all the activities that contribute to the learning time of foreign languages (p. 1), the desirable scenario in this study would have been a situation where the groups had similar averages in the number of years spent studying English.

To calculate whether the groups would be equivalent, the average number of years for both groups was obtained and the significance of the differences determined using a “T” test. The results are shown in Table 4.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T” test</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.333</td>
<td>1.833</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.133</td>
<td>2.264</td>
<td>No function</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the results indicated above, it was evident that there were no significant differences between the control group and the experimental group, which confirmed the equivalence between the two groups. In terms of the number of years of English language study, the two groups provided a satisfactory sample that could be used to test the effects of the integrated approach. Note that in the data presentations, “pre” is an operational definition of the state of the two groups. It indicates a period prior to the implementation of the integrated approach to teaching writing skills. This will be utilised throughout the study to refer to that specific period of the research.

### 4.2.2 Academic achievement

As the groups used in the study comprised different students, it was imperative that there was a level platform upon which performance after the start of the
experiment could be established. Monk (1998) describes factors that affect academic achievement as including personal (non-cognitive and cognitive), demographic and institutional variables. Considering the setting of the study demographic and the institutional variables were equal for the students in the two groups as they studied in the same secondary school and they are all female Saudi students aged 16-17, the personal variables in the non-cognitive and cognitive aspects could be used to differentiate the control and experimental groups involved in the experiment.

After collection, the averages for academic achievement for the pre-test for both groups were calculated and the significance of the differences checked using a “T” test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.366</td>
<td>2.370</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.566</td>
<td>2.144</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results shown in Table 4.4 above demonstrate that the value of “T” was the same for both groups. This indicated that the differences in academic achievement between the students in the two groups were almost the same before the implementation of the integrated approach and would not create significant disparity during the research.

### 4.2.3 Self-assessment of English writing skills

Another relative variable that was of interest to the researcher was the self-assessment of English writing skills. The second section of the students’ questionnaire (pre-questionnaire) was used where certain statements had been assigned to verify the
students’ abilities in the writing skill. Indeed, the understanding of writing skills before the commencement of the research formed an important starting point that provided a means of determining the effect of the independent variable introduced in the experimental group. As collected from the data provided by the students, the averages of the control and the experimental groups were subjected to a “T” test to calculate the significance of the differences between the two groups. The “T” value for both groups was determined to be 0.958 despite the small difference in the arithmetic means. The results are shown in Table 4.5. There was clearly no significant difference between the control and experimental groups, which confirmed the equivalence of this variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54.233</td>
<td>18.414</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.344</td>
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<tr>
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<td>58.500</td>
<td>16.168</td>
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<td>No function</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.4 Use of writing strategies (before writing)

Adding to the elements and variables considered in equating the control and experimental groups, the capabilities of the two groups were weighed according to the writing strategies they used prior to the implementation of the integrated approach. In this case, the strategies before writing were considered as a start of the writing process. At this stage, according to Flower and Hayes (1981), Hartley (1994) and Hayes (1996), the main activities involve generating ideas and planning at different levels (textual and lexical). As provided in the data analysis (see Table 4.6), the uniformity in equalising means that the methods that were previously used were the same for both
groups and any positive or negative change in the experimental group performance in writing could be attributed to the integrated approach used in this study.

Equivalence between the control and experimental groups in the use of writing strategies (before writing) was established by first obtaining the averages and then calculating the significance of the difference prior to the research using a “T” test. The results are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Value of “T” and the averages of the control group “pre” and experimental group “pre” in the use of writing strategies (before writing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmeti c mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>44.133</td>
<td>9.999</td>
<td>1.031</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>46.533</td>
<td>7.903</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The standard deviation for the experimental group prior to the research was 9.999, while that of the control group was 7.903, as shown in Table 4.5 above. Notably, the “T” value for both groups was 1.031, indicating that the minor differences observed would not have a significant effect on the course of the study.

4.2.5 Use of writing strategies (during writing)

As a variable that represents the next step in writing following the above, the underlying importance remains similar to that mentioned for the “before writing” stage. It was recognised that the study would yield better comparative results if there were no major variations in the strategies the students had during the writing stage before the implementation of the integrated approach. Yielding an arithmetic mean of 62.533 for the experimental and 66.883 for the control group, the “T” value of the two groups was obtained as 1.350. Thus, the difference would not have any significant
effects, which meant the two groups were equal prior to the implementation and any differences in the experimental group students’ writing performance, awareness of writing strategies and their approaches to writing could be attributed to the independent variable in the study. The averages for the use of writing strategies (during writing) yielded the results shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Value of “T” and the averages of the control group “pre” and experimental group “pre” in the use of writing strategies (during writing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>62.533</td>
<td>14.180</td>
<td>1.350</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>66.833</td>
<td>10.157</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.6 Use of writing strategies (after writing)

When capturing what strategies the students used after the completion of writing, according to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1986), the techniques mostly revolve around revising. Similar to the two variables assessed above, this forms the three main divisions of the whole writing process. Equalising the two groups based on the use of writing strategies (after writing) variable relied on the average values from both groups, which were further assessed for significance in the differences that emerged using a “T” test. The results were as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Value of “T” and the averages of the control group “pre” and experimental group “pre” in the use of writing strategies (after writing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53.200</td>
<td>10.022</td>
<td>1.661</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57.833</td>
<td>11.534</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The “T” value in the equalisation of this variable was 1.661. In reviewing the arithmetic means for the experimental and control groups (53.200 and 57.833, respectively), it is important to mention that for the calculations given in Table 4.8, the equivalence in the “T” value is an assurance that any positive or negative differences in the experimental group after the implementation of the research independent and relative variables could be attributed to the impact of the integrated approach.

4.2.7 General learning strategies

This section of the student questionnaire was designed to capture the various strategies that were used to improve writing skills. Some of the strategies revolved around personal commitment, such as setting goals, persistence and willingness to seek correction while speaking the language. The equalisation of this variable indicated that the students employed almost the same strategies in using English reading, exploration and speaking, to add to the aforementioned personal commitment indicators. The averages of the control and experimental groups prior to the commencement of the research were subjected to a “T” test to calculate the significance of the variations. The results are shown in Table 4.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38.433</td>
<td>8.736</td>
<td>1.625</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control “pre”</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.300</td>
<td>9.674</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4.9: Value of “T” and the averages of the control group “pre” and experimental group “pre” in the general learning strategies*
It is clear from Table 4.9 that the underlying minor differences did not have an effect on the “T” value of the groups: the standard deviation is 8.73 for the experimental group and 9.67 for the control group. As a result, the two groups prior to the research experiment of using the integrated approach showed similarity in the general learning strategies variable.

The above data, as shown in Tables 4.3 to 4.9, demonstrate that the experimental and control groups were equivalent in all the relative variables before the implementation of the research study, which reflects on the reliability and validity of the research findings.

Finally, Table 4.10 summarises the equivalence results for the control group and the experimental group.

Table 4.10: Equivalence results for the control (C) and experimental (E) groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equivalence between the two groups (C + E)</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of years of English study</td>
<td>0.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic achievement</td>
<td>0.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-assessment of English writing skills</td>
<td>0.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies (before writing)</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies (during writing)</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies (after writing)</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General learning strategies</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.8 Equivalence in the general data

In another approach used by the researcher to check for any variations between the control and experimental groups, calculations of the recurrence and the percentages of the responses obtained from the “general questions” section of the student questionnaire were made. The main aim was to check for differences in responses from the two groups. This was used as the last means of assuring that the two groups could form an appropriate sample for the experiment. Note that question
1 in the student questionnaire was used in the equalisation of the groups in the previous section. Thus, it was omitted from this section to avoid repetition. The calculations are addressed in the subsequent sections with different treatments for each of the three general questions.

4.2.8.1 Joining a writing course in English in any institution

Attending a writing course could play a role in enhancing students’ performance in writing. The researcher wanted to establish whether the students had attended any writing courses to help them in assessing the effect of the integrated approach used in the study in relation to the research questions.

Table 4.11: English writing course attendance in any institution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1: Attendance of an English writing course in any institution
In both groups, as shown in Table 4.11 and Figure 4.1, the levels of attendance on writing courses in English were significantly low. A possible reason attributable to this, according to the data obtained from the students’ interviews during the qualitative analysis, was the students’ attitude towards English language, which caused them to neglect improving their skills (see section 5.1.5). Notably, there was a 20% difference for either response, with the control group having more students who had undertaken a writing course in English. Analysis per group showed that there were few students who had taken some writing courses in English in both the control (26%) and experimental (6%) groups. The groups showed no contradictions in their responses to the question, which indicated that they had only controlled composition as a teaching method prior to the study. This result supported the researcher in answering the research questions and determining the effect of the integrated approach on teaching, detecting changes in the experimental group students’ writing and the differences in their approaches and conceptualisation of writing, then attributing these to the independent and relative variables of the study, as will be seen in the quantitative and qualitative analysis.

### 4.2.8.2 Types of texts written in English classes

This question presented an opportunity for students to indicate their answers from multiple choices. Interestingly, there was still consistency between the two groups (see Table 4.12 and Figure 4.2). The widest gap in responses was noted in the writing of essays, where there was a 23.4% difference between the control and experimental groups. The researcher attributed this difference to teacher B’s own purpose in the writing lesson (as stated by the teacher in the interview, see section 5.2) and not to the control group’s ability in writing essays, where the teacher decides what type of writing style students are guided to write. This difference did not affect the
equivalence of the two groups prior to the implementation of the integrated approach due to the utilisation of controlled composition, where the teacher controls the process and students simply substitute certain words from the model essay, letter or report chosen by the teacher using vocabulary also determined by the teacher (see the students’ interview analysis in 5.1 and the teacher’s interview analysis in 5.2).

Articles received equal concentration in writing (90%). The two most-often written types of text are articles and creative writing for both groups. Notably, for the experimental group, the most-often written texts were articles, while for the control group these involved creative writing. This comes as a result of the type of text each teacher used as a model from which students substituted words to produce their new text. The least-often written texts for both groups were reports.

Table 4.12: Types of texts written generally in English classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Letters</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Emails</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Creative writing</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Reports</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Essays</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.8.3 Attitude towards writing in English

The researcher wanted to gain a first impression of the students’ attitudes towards writing in English for both groups, as this could affect the students’ acceptance of the new approach for the experimental group, and to establish the equivalence between the two groups before the implementation of the study.

Table 4.13: Attitude towards writing in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>No. I don’t like it at all.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>I don’t like it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>I don’t know.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>I like it.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>I like it a lot.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>I like it a lot.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the largest margin between the control group and the experimental group in the “I like it” response (16.7% difference), this set of data actually shows the
The smallest difference in relation to the other responses. This difference could be attributed to a narrowing margin when it comes to tasks that are likely to reduce collaborative activities, decrease cognitive overload, as well as lessen the development of metalinguistic terminology. The large margin drop for the experimental group, in this case, seems to have decanted to the “I don’t know” section (16.7% difference). A possible explanation for this is that students found it an easy response, especially if they were unsure. Choosing neutral responses (midpoints) rather than definite ones on Likert scales impairs the validity of the responses (Johns, 2005). Scholars such as Courtenay and Weidemann (1985), however, support the midpoints in a Likert scale and claim that they enhance the measurement reliability. A similar result was recorded by Adelson and McCoach (2010), who compared students’ responses on a 4-point scale instrument with the responses of another group of students using the same instrument but with a 5-point Likert scale. Other than that, the responses had minimal variations, showing very close similarity with a 3.3% difference or one recurrence (a difference of one person). For example, “I don’t like it” responses tied with 3.3%, while “I like it a lot” responses indicated 16.7% for the control group and 13.3% for the experimental group. When looking at “I like it a lot”, the number of students in both groups point to the students who studied English for 12 years, which might explain the reason for this positive attitude: they had had previous practice. This result can be seen in the qualitative analysis of the students’ interviews where those who studied English for around 12 years had a stronger positive attitude (see section 5.1.5).
Figure 4.3: Attitudes of students towards writing in English

From the general questions, the calculation of recurrences and percentages of responses in the control group as well as the experimental group showed similarity in the responses and attitudes prior to the commencement of the use of the integrated approach. The researcher noted a convergence of the recurrences and the percentages in responses to the three questions. No contradictory responses emerged. Essentially, this confirmed the equivalence of the control and experiment groups in the “pre” stage of the research (before using the integrated approach in teaching writing skills).

4.3 Answering the research questions

In this section, the results of the experiment are reported and interpreted. To ensure clarity, the researcher reports and analyses the data using the research questions. For each research question, the researcher reports all the quantitative results, analyses them and draws an interpretation. The form of presentation varies from tabulation to graphical. Comparisons are drawn from either the “pre-period” (prior to the experiment) or “post-period” (after or eight months into the study) of one
group or from the perspective of both the control and experiment groups. Other representations and analyses will be explained at the point of use.

### 4.3.1 Study question 1: How effective is the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?

The researcher measured the size of the effect of the integrated approach to teaching as an independent variable on the relative variables of the study. The relative variables are as follows: self-assessment of English skills, use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing, and after writing) and general learning strategies.

In this context, Abu Hatab and Sadiq (1991), Graziano and Raulin (2010), Huston (1993), Kirk (1996), Reid (2014) and Snyder and Lawson (1992) suggest specific statistical scales to measure the size of the effect of a treatment used in a study quantitatively. For example, “These scales have different nominations, including effect size scales, the strength and capacity of association scales, and influence and usage indicators” (Abu Hatab & Sadiq, 1991: 441-443). All these scales depend on the estimation of the ratio between the total variance, which can be interpreted or explained by the independent variable or treatment, which exists in the current research as the integrated approach to teaching, and the relative variables. Among the most well-known of these scales are the T-square value, degrees of freedom\(^1\) and eta squared (\(\eta^2\)) (Abu Hatab & Sadiq, 1991: 441-443).

It is worth mentioning that the amount of acceptable influence is as follows: “the influence which explains 1% of the total variance indicates minimal impact, while

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\(^1\) Degrees of freedom are the number of values free to vary when computing a statistic. The number of degrees of freedom for a contingency table of at least 2 rows and 2 columns of data is calculated from (number of rows in the table \(-1\)) \(\times\) (number of columns in the table \(-1\)) (Saunders et a, 2009: 453)
the influence that explains 6% of the total variance indicates average impact, influence that explains 15% of the total variance indicates significant impact” (Abu Hatab & Sadiq, 1991: 443).

In the above regard, the researcher used eta “$\eta$” squared to estimate the magnitude of the influence of the integrated approach on teaching writing with explicit meta-cognitive writing strategy instruction and the development during and after the study from the relative variables. The relative variables are the self-assessment of English skills, use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing, and after writing) and general learning strategies (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Size of effect ($\eta^2$) of using the integrated approach to teaching on the variables of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>Relative variables</th>
<th>Eta</th>
<th>Eta squared</th>
<th>Degree of influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrated approach</td>
<td>Self-assessment of writing skills</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>0.276</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching</td>
<td>Before writing</td>
<td>0.617</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>During writing</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After writing</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General learning strategies</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the data presented in Table 4.14 above, it is evident that the integrated approach to teaching had a significant influence on developing the aforementioned relative variables in the order of 27.6% - 38.1% - 19.2% - 26.4% - 12.2%. The researcher considered that the use of the integrated approach to teaching writing skills had a significant influence on developing the meta-cognitive writing strategies and was also responsible for the development of the relative variables. This is attributed to different elements, such as student-centred practices, which are fostered by the integrated approach, changes in the teacher’s role in the classroom and increases in the students’ autonomous learning as fostered by the explicit use of meta-cognitive
strategies. The utilisation of the process approach with the explicit teaching of meta-cognitive writing strategies supported the students’ abilities in writing in a foreign language. With the introduction of a new framework, the premise of the research was that an effect would be anticipated in some of the aspects of writing that needed most improvement, such as: generating ideas, which is considered one of the challenges in writing in a foreign language, and then the organisation that will translate these ideas into actual words that flow (Abdul-Rahman, 2011). The next aspect of writing that was expected to be improved was the ability to assess what one has produced, which involves the revision and correction of written work.

The area which was impacted the most, according to the data in Table 4.14, was the use of writing skills (before writing) variable, with a significant influence of 38%. The core of writing, ‘before writing’, is the central area that harnesses cognitive aspects comprising critical thinking (Hayes, 1996) and leads to idea generation and planning. Next, as explained, is the ability to conduct a self-assessment of writing skills, with an understanding of strengths and weaknesses. This forms the basis for development and personal commitment to tackle the areas in which one is weak. As a result, the next section, the use of writing skills (after writing) comes as a manifestation of a student trying to revise or correct the weaknesses that she has established in the assessment. Moving-on adjustments will trickle to the actual writing, use of writing skills (during writing), which takes fourth place and, finally, other personal commitments and strategies that are not part of the writing process but have an impact on the quality of writing (general learning strategies) as they provide opportunities for students to manage their own learning and development. From the data above, the size of effect is significant, which means that the effect on teaching was reflected in the students’ process and performance of writing and meta-cognitive
writing strategy use. This provides a clear answer to the first research question, which was supported by the qualitative instruments used (as will be seen in chapter five). Figure 4.4 illustrates the data from Table 4.14.

![Magnitude of effect of using the integrated approach](image)

**Figure 4.4: Magnitude of the effect of using the integrated approach**

The researcher also calculated the significance of differences between the averages of the experimental group (pre-period, post-period) in the self-assessment of English skills, use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing and after writing and in the general learning strategies) to demonstrate the effect of the integrated approach on teaching secondary-level students, as illustrated in Table 4.15.
Table 4.15: Significance level of differences between averages for the experimental group (pre, post) for the relative variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-assessment of English skills</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.933</td>
<td>13.605</td>
<td>5.191</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td></td>
<td>54.233</td>
<td>18.414</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies “before writing”</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>55.800</td>
<td>6.984</td>
<td>5.239</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.133</td>
<td>9.999</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies “during writing”</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>77.166</td>
<td>6.119</td>
<td>5.189</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td></td>
<td>62.533</td>
<td>14.180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies “after writing”</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71.166</td>
<td>7.602</td>
<td>7.823</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td></td>
<td>53.200</td>
<td>10.022</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning strategies</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>51.300</td>
<td>7.144</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.433</td>
<td>8.736</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By reviewing Table 4.15, the existence of statistically significant differences at a significance level of 0.01 between the experimental group’s “pre” and “post” questionnaires for the relative variables of the study is clear. By examining the arithmetic means for each of the variables, it can be seen that there is noted improvement. As given in the previous explanation, the standard deviation clearly shows that the performance of the students is converging, such that the margin between the top students and the lowest is decreasing. This can be attributed to the use of the integrated approach in teaching writing skills. Starting from the self-assessment of English writing skills, the increase in the standard deviation is in line with the qualitative analysis of the students’ and teacher’s interviews and the teachers’ questionnaire, where all the participants recorded their awareness of the weaknesses...
as well as the strengths which prompted them to seek improvement in writing in English (see sections 5.1.1, 5.1.2, 5.2 and 5.3). The use of writing strategies before, during and after writing increased according to the statistics shown in Table 4.15 and Figure 4.5 below. These findings are consistent with the qualitative analysis of the students’ and teacher’s interviews, the teachers’ questionnaire, and the class observations where the students were motivated to plan, write, revise and provide feedback (see chapter 5, sections 5.1.3, 5.1.6, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.5).

Figure 4.5: Significance levels of the averages of the experimental pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for the relative variables
From the results, the increase in the arithmetic mean puts self-assessment of English skills in first place with an improvement of 21.7, while use of writing strategies (after writing) is second with a change of 17.966. The lowest increment was registered for the use of writing strategies (before writing) (11.667). Considering the standard deviations, the largest change was noted in the use of writing strategies (during writing) variable (8.016). Self-assessment of writing skills and use of writing strategies (before writing) followed (4.809 and 3.015, respectively). It should be noted that there were discrepancies between the results from the measures of central tendency and eta squared, as shown in Table 4.14. Eta squared was found to be a fitting means of measuring the impact of the treatment in the experiment, as it conformed to the hypothesis of the study as well as the research questions. Abu Hatab and Sadiq (1991) indicate that the difference in results of the two methods is based on the ability of the methods to associate the scales and influence indicators used in a study. The use of eta squared gave a ratio between the total variance due to the treatment and systematic variance. Arithmetic mean and standard deviation measurements were reliable tools for analysing the state either before the experiment or after the administration of the treatment. Together, they provided a clear perspective of the states before and after the administration and the continual change that took place during the study.

In graphical form, the changes in the relative variables as discussed in detail above from the pre-period of the experimental group and the post-period of the same group are represented below (Figures 4.6 to 4.10).
Figure 4.6: Changes in self-assessment of English skills

Figure 4.7: Changes in use of writing strategies (before writing)

Figure 4.8: Changes in use of writing strategies (during writing)
Figure 4.9: Changes in use of writing strategies (after writing)

Figure 4.10: Changes in general learning strategies
4.3.2 Study question 3: What differences in approaches and conceptualisations of writing could be observed in students exposed to the integrated approach?

To answer this research question, the researcher applied a “T” test to establish the significance of the differences between the averages in the post-tests for the control and experimental groups. In addition to this, two pre- and post-test results collected before and at the end of the research from the experimental group are also shown.

*Table 4.16: The significance of differences between the averages of the control group “post” and experimental group “pre-post” for the achievement test*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24.300</td>
<td>5.324</td>
<td>6.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.466</td>
<td>1.870</td>
<td>6.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24.300</td>
<td>5.324</td>
<td>7.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.366</td>
<td>2.370</td>
<td>7.455</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.16 illustrates the differences between the averages of the experimental group (pre- and post-tests), as well as a row giving the experimental and control groups’ post-test results for the achievement test. The table shows the statistical significance within the variable at a level of significance less or equal to 0.05, which is statistically significant. Referring to the row that compares the post-test results from both the experimental and the control groups, it is evident that the value of the arithmetic mean for the experimental group is 24.300, while the control group had an arithmetic mean of 17.466. Note that these values were collected at the end of the research.
The researcher attributed the difference observed above to the use of the integrated approach to teaching writing. It was this method that had an influence on the acquisition of the experimental group’s knowledge of meta-cognitive writing strategies, planning and revising. The subsequent use of the strategies enabled them to perform better, as stated by the participants in the interviews (see section 5.1.3). The analysis suggests that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test total scores. This is attributed to the explicit instruction of the assigned process of writing integrated with meta-cognitive writing strategies whereby students gain self-confidence in planning, translating their ideas into words and paragraphs, revising and then following all the writing criteria used to assess the pre- and post-tests (see Appendices K, L, O and P). This result is supported by all of the qualitative instruments, for example, students stated in the interviews that the use of meta-cognitive writing strategies had had a positive effect on their self-confidence and writing performance (see sections 5.1.3 and 5.1.4). Similar findings were demonstrated in the teacher’s interview (see section 5.2). Looking at the analysis of
the students’ written materials (see section 5.4.2), the results provide clear evidence of the improvement in the students’ composing abilities. Comparing the scores of the experimental group pre- and post-tests while bearing in mind the elements in the writing rubric used in assessing the tests demonstrates the differences in the students’ approaches to writing in a second language. This is clearer when linked to the relative variables in the study. The variables are the self-assessment of English skills, use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing, and after writing) and general learning strategies. In particular, the second questionnaire for the control group and experimental group was used for this in the “post” period of the study. The researcher applied a “T” test to establish the significance of the difference between the averages for the relative variables. Both the experimental and control group results were evaluated and are shown in Table 4.17 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Value of “T”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-assessment of writing skills</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.933</td>
<td>13.605</td>
<td>4.700</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>61.066</td>
<td>10.728</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies (before writing)</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>55.800</td>
<td>6.984</td>
<td>5.971</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>45.766</td>
<td>5.992</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies (during writing)</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>77.166</td>
<td>6.119</td>
<td>3.716</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>71.133</td>
<td>6.452</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of writing strategies (after writing)</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71.166</td>
<td>7.602</td>
<td>4.566</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>59.300</td>
<td>12.034</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning strategies</td>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>51.300</td>
<td>7.144</td>
<td>2.835</td>
<td>0.01 Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>45.633</td>
<td>8.294</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In reviewing the results above, it is clear to the researcher that there exist statistically significant differences between the two groups using a significance level
of 0.01 between the experimental and control groups’ post-questionnaire. In all cases, the experimental group had the upper hand over the control group. In the self-assessment of English writing skills, the difference was 14.867 for the arithmetic mean. A similar comparison showed that in the use of writing strategies (before writing), the difference was 10.034; “during writing” a 6.033 difference was noted, and in “after writing” the difference was 11.866. The general learning strategies variable had a 5.667 difference for the two groups. It was noted from the data that the largest difference was in the self-assessment of English writing skills, while the smallest was in the general learning strategies. This difference meant that the experimental group students’ approaches to writing were different from those of the control group and the results of the academic achievement discussed in Table 4.16 demonstrate that this difference played a crucial role in enhancing the experimental group students’ performance. It should be noted that the researcher had demonstrated the equivalence of the two groups prior to the implementation of the integrated approach.

The researcher attributed the above difference to an increase in the students’ perceptions of the importance of writing strategies. This was due to the integrated approach used by the teacher with explicit instructions for meta-cognitive strategies and practice in the three planning strategies, as these were the only variables students encountered in the writing lessons. That is, first: generating ideas, planning at the textual level and planning at the lexical level; second: formulation; and third: revising strategies (revising the content, revising sentence structure and revising organisation). These findings are supported by the qualitative instruments discussed and analysed in the qualitative chapter, particularly the students’ and teacher’s interviews and the class observations (see sections 5.1.4, 5.2 and 5.5.2).
To answer this question statistically, the researcher also tried to establish the significance between the recurrences of measures for the experimental group on two occasions. The evaluations were both conducted in the “post” period. In “post” situation one, the researcher administered a second questionnaire eight months after using the integrated approach. In “post” situation two, the researcher administered a third questionnaire after the integrated approach training had ended and the method had reverted to the previous one. This was conducted for all the relative variables.

The researcher used unidirectional variance analysis\(^2\) for the recurrence measurement of the experimental group for the scales of the self-assessment of English writing skills, use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing, and after writing), as well as general learning strategies. The results are presented in the following tables. Each table was generated for a specific relative variable. Significant \(\geq 0.05 < \) no function.

Table 4.18: Results of unidirectional variance analysis for recurrence measures of the experimental group for the self-assessment of English writing skills scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource of variance</th>
<th>Squares total</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Squares average</th>
<th>Value of “F”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between scales A</td>
<td>336.067</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>336.067</td>
<td>2.605</td>
<td>0.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between individuals B</td>
<td>3851.600</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>132.814</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction A*B</td>
<td>3740.933</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>128.998</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7928.600</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>134.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^2\) (ANOVA): Analysis of variance; Statistical technique for comparing means for multiple independent populations: Partition the total variation in a response variable into Variability within groups, variability between groups (Creswell, 2009).
With a level of significance of 0.117, the analysis of the self-assessment of English writing skills showed that the “F” value was the same (2.605), as shown in Table 4.18. This demonstrates that the students’ ability in terms of the variable did not change after reverting to the old system. The effects of the integrated approach can still be traced. This is because the larger the value of “F”, the greater the variation between the two periods as compared within the group. The value shows that the difference between the two periods (post one and post two) within the experimental group was not very large. The value of the method shows that students understood the importance of the elements that the integrated approach brings. Particularly for this variable, for improvement there needs to be the capability to perform a diagnosis of the students’ ability at that time. The post-test was performed to measure the students’ performance at that time and compare it with their pre-test. The result of this comparison shows a clear positive correlation between the students’ perceptions of the writing strategies and their writing performance (Table 4.16). With similar steps, the results of the next variable (using writing strategies, before writing) are presented below in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Results of unidirectional variance analysis for recurrence measures of the experimental group for the use of writing strategies (before writing) scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource of variance</th>
<th>Squares total</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Squares average</th>
<th>Value of “F”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between scales A</td>
<td>88.817</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88.817</td>
<td>2.689</td>
<td>0.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between individuals B</td>
<td>1784.083</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>61.520</td>
<td>No function</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction A*B</td>
<td>957.683</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>33.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2830.583</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>47.976</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the scale for the use of writing strategies (before writing) resulted in an “F” value of 2.689. A significance level of 0.112 was found in the
analysis, as shown in Table 4.19 above. The results show that, after reverting to the old methods of teaching, the students still used the ‘before writing’ strategies that they had gained from the use of the integrated approach.

Table 4.20: Results of unidirectional variance analysis for recurrence measures of the experimental group for the use of writing strategies (during writing) scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource of variance</th>
<th>Squares total</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Squares average</th>
<th>Value of “F”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between scales A</td>
<td>81.667</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>81.667</td>
<td>2.727</td>
<td>0.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between individuals B</td>
<td>1830.000</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>63.103</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction A*B</td>
<td>868.333</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.943</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2780.000</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>47.119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the unidirectional variance analysis of the use of writing strategies (during writing), the level of significance found was 0.109 (Table 4.20). The researcher obtained an “F” value of 2.727 for those data, thus creating sound agreement with the theory posited in the previous relative variables. The effect of the use of the integrated approach together with explicit instructions for meta-cognitive writing strategies were the reasons behind the continuous use of the “during writing” strategies even after the teacher had converted to the controlled composition approach.

Table 4.21: Results of unidirectional variance analysis for recurrence measures of the experimental group for the use of writing strategies (after writing) scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource of variance</th>
<th>Squares total</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Squares average</th>
<th>Value of “F”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between scales A</td>
<td>135.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>135.000</td>
<td>2.689</td>
<td>0.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between individuals B</td>
<td>1772.333</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>61.115</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction A*B</td>
<td>1456.00</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50.207</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3363.333</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>57.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Performance in the use of writing strategies (after writing) showed that the “F” value of the data was 2.689 (Table 4.21). The level of significance was 0.112 for this set of data. As a fundamental part of the writing process, the students seemed to have grasped the importance of using these skills at this stage of writing. This explains why the students continued to use the methods given in the integrated approach.

Table 4.22: Results of unidirectional variance analysis for recurrence measures of the experimental group for the use of general learning strategies scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource of variance</th>
<th>Squares total</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Squares average</th>
<th>Value of “F”</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between scales A</td>
<td>91.267</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>91.267</td>
<td>2.444</td>
<td>0.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between individuals B</td>
<td>1677.733</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>57.853</td>
<td></td>
<td>No function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction A*B</td>
<td>1082.733</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>37.336</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2851.733</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>48.334</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For general strategies, the results had an “F” value for the data of 2.444, with a level of significance of 0.129 (Table 4.22). This can be interpreted as the students still using the strategies even after the teacher had returned to using the old methods of teaching English writing skills.

Tables 4.18-4.22 illustrate that the “F” value significance for the recurrence measures of the experimental group for the second questionnaire, administered eight months after the implementation of the integrated approach, and the third questionnaire (distributed three months after returning to the old method and the teacher had stopped feeding students writing strategies), indicates continuation of the influence of the integrated approach in teaching. It would be accurate to state that continuous use of the same writing process and meta-cognitive writing strategies without explicit instruction to do so meant that the experimental group students had acquired the process and it had led them to change their approaches and
conceptualisations of writing and that the improvement in the students’ perceptions of writing strategies improved their performance.
### 4.3.3 Analysis of the general questions in the questionnaire

### 4.3.3.1 Activities students engage in when producing a piece of text

**Table 4.23: Recurrences and percentages of activities used in writing for the control group “pre-post” and the experimental group “pre-post”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Taking notes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Mind-mapping</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Making an outline</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Drafting</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Revising</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Taking notes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Mind-mapping</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Making an outline</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Drafting</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Revising</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Van Weijen et al. (2009) note, writing needs critical preparation both in the class and in the mind, especially if it is not in one’s first language. It is for this reason that there are several activities that are crucial to the preparation of a good piece of writing. As discussed in the literature review, L1 represents a powerful source that can be applied to enhance writing but should be used in a principled way (Ellis, 2005). The idea of whether L1 assists in optimising learners’ interest in cognitively demanding writing tasks has been captured by the data above. Activities of this kind cut across many stages in writing, varying from the preparation to the final stage. The activities in this case include: 1. brainstorming, 2. taking notes, 3. mind-mapping, 4. making an outline of the work, 5. drafting and 6. revising. In the analysis of the responses (Table 4.23), the control group pre- and post-data show that there was a decline in the use of the activities in writing. Of the six activities mentioned above, only two recorded improvement in the control group: mind-mapping demonstrated an improvement of 3.4% and revising improved by 30%.

![Activities engaged in when preparing a text](image)

*Figure 4.12: Activities conducted when a student is writing a test in the groups’ pre-test and post-test periods*
On the other hand, the experimental group recorded improvements in the same activities measured in the “pre” and “post” periods. Making an outline declined by 66.7%, while drafting decreased by 6.6%. The trends in both groups seem to be inversely related. When the use of the activities in the control group diminished over time, it seemed that the experimental group was improving with time. The researcher attributes this change to the imparting of knowledge of the importance of some of the activities in the use of the integrated approach used for the duration of the training of the experimental group. However, the use of planning activities also increased due to the student-centred practices, interactions between students and between students and their teacher. One could conclude that the students’ involvement in the learning process helped in motivating them to practise and apply the activities. From the table above, the decrease in the use of “outlining” in the post-questionnaire when compared to the pre-questionnaire indicated a balance in the use of other methods of planning among the students in the experimental group.

In relation to the research questions, the results show that the use of the integrated approach was effective (research question 1). At the start of the experiment, equalisation had been achieved for the two groups. However, in the “post” period of the research, the students in the experimental group had shown improvement in the majority of the activities captured in this general question. The control group showed a decline in the use of the activities. The researcher attributes the improvement in the work of the students in the experimental group to the understanding of the role each of the activities plays in writing, as well as the explicit instruction for the meta-cognitive writing strategies within the process of writing bearing in mind the importance of writer-reader communication and content. The qualitative analysis in the next chapter shows the effect of the students’ perceptions of the integrated
approach and meta-cognitive writing strategies on their attitude, motivation, awareness of the approach and strategies that reflected positively on their writing performance (see chapter five, sections 5.1.2, 5.1.3, 5.1.4, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.5.2).

4.3.3.2 Number of drafts

Table 4.24: Recurrences and percentages of the number of drafts for the control and experimental groups “pre–post”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of drafts</th>
<th>Control pre (recurrence / %)</th>
<th>Control post (recurrence / %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of drafts</th>
<th>Experimental-pre (recurrence / %)</th>
<th>Experimental-post (recurrence / %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this question in the students’ questionnaire (Appendix C), the researcher hoped to establish the extent to which the students corrected their work before arriving at the final document. In the control group, there was an increase in the number of students who wrote one draft. The increase was by a margin of 10%. In the control post-questionnaire, the other students were spread across two and three drafts at 26.7% and 20%, respectively.
In the experimental group, the students wrote a number of drafts in the pre-questionnaire period, the maximum being eight. However, in the post-questionnaire period, the maximum number of drafts reduced to five, which indicates that there was a slight improvement that reduced the need to do numerous corrections. In the post-questionnaire period, the experimental group contained a number of students making two drafts. One of the points that can be drawn from the data is that the drafts could have resulted from concern over the final copy. In this case, the students wrote several drafts looking for errors in each to achieve a final and acceptable copy.
For the experimental group, prior to the use of the integrated approach, 40% made one draft and this dropped to 6.7% after the implementation of the approach. This result indicates that peer and teacher feedback were considered and revision strategies were used effectively. This can be demonstrated by looking at the increase in the number of students who made two and three drafts, which is consistent with the results of the students’ and teacher’s interviews in the qualitative chapter (see sections 5.1.2 and 5.2). According to Reither (1985), constructing drafts and considering feedback provided help to produce a piece of writing that communicates ideas with the reader and succeeds in composing a product.
### 4.3.3.3 Reasons for revising a text

Table 4.25: Recurrences and percentages of reasons for draft reviewing for the control group “pre–post” and experimental group “pre–post”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Reasons for reviewing</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Improving clarity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Improving style</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Developing content</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Correcting errors</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Rearranging the text</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control pre</td>
<td>Reducing length</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control post</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Reasons for reviewing</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Improving clarity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>58.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Improving style</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>77.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Developing content</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Correcting errors</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Rearranging the text</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental pre</td>
<td>Reducing length</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental post</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A question in the students’ questionnaire regarding the reasons for corrections formed a critical area of interest for this study. The reasons for revising text captured in the question included improving clarity in what was written, improving style, developing content, correcting errors, rearranging the text and reducing the length. All the students in the control group post-questionnaire corrected text for errors (100%), while the experimental group had 87.1% for the same activity (Figure 4.15). The result for the correction of errors was the largest in the respective groups. The lowest in the control group pre-questionnaire was 16.7% for the reduction of text length. This was maintained in the post-questionnaire period.

![Figure 4.15: Reasons for revising the last written text](image)

In the experimental group pre-questionnaire, the lowest percentage was in the same category (reducing length) with 3.3%. It was still the lowest in the post-test period for the same group, but with 40% this was attributed to the length of texts done (2-5 pages).

Overall, it is notable that except for the correction of errors in the experimental group, which improved by 0.4%, the other reasons for revising recorded large margins
of approximately 20% or more. In the control group, developing content decreased from 23.33% to 20%. As a fundamental reason for revision, the low level of concern shown by the students towards this, compared to an improvement from 13.3% to 61.3% in the experimental group, shows the impact of the methods used to teach writing strategies. Students in the experimental group seemed to demonstrate more concern for the revision of their texts in all the areas identified, especially in the post-questionnaire period. The researcher attributes this to the integrated approach to teaching writing skills, which puts emphasis on revision as part of the writing process and provides feedback in different manners: oral teacher feedback during writing which was instantly provided, peer feedback, written teacher feedback and the teacher-student conference in which students spoke freely about their errors.

On clarity improvement, the students in both groups were the same, but, in the “post” period, the experimental group improved clarity by 58%, which is an indication of the consideration they gave to the reader as well as the improvement they had made in their style and content. Note the large difference in developing content from 13.3% to 61.3%, which indicates a great impact in the students’ awareness of the reader and the importance of conveying a clear message and knowledge.

On error correction, this was more dominant in the control group (73%-100%), which suggests that the students focused on form more than other aspects of writing. The experimental group “pre” period and “post” period changed only slightly (86.7%-87.1%), which indicates that this activity did not affect the other factors or activities undertaken in the “post” period. Therefore, it is only part of the revising process and is not dominant. In the experimental group, the students gave greater importance to arranging their ideas and content (60%), against 26.7% assigned by the control group in the “post” period. These were results of the explicit teaching of the process and
writing strategies, which had an obvious effect on the students’ usage of the activities before, during and after writing.

It is apparent from the quantitative data analysis that the two groups were equivalent before the implementation of the study, the strategies and approaches adopted had positively influenced the teacher, teaching and students’ writing achievement and differences in students’ approaches of writing was observed.

The next chapter presents and interprets the findings extracted from the qualitative data analysis that played a key role in supporting the quantitative findings.
Chapter Five: Qualitative Data Analysis and Findings

In the previous chapter, the data from both the students’ questionnaires and the pre- and post-tests were analysed. The results of the quantitative investigations indicated significant differences between the control and experimental groups and within the experimental group at the end of the treatment in terms of the impact of the integrated approach on the students’ writing performance. The chapter also investigated the effect of the integrated approach on the teaching of EFL writing. In addition, the results of the unidirectional variance analysis for recurrence measures of experimental group questionnaires 2 and 3 and the results of the post-test scores revealed significant correlation between students’ improved perceptions of the writing strategies and their writing performance. These results suggest that explicit instructions for the writing strategies (planning and revising) had created a positive impact on the Saudi secondary-level students’ writing performance.

This chapter deals with the qualitative aspect of the data in the study to gain deep insights into how individual participants of this study were influenced by the integrated approach to teaching writing, as well as comparing the two groups to investigate the effect of the study variables. An analysis was made of the class observations of both groups, semi-structured interviews conducted with eight students from the experimental group and their teacher, and the control group and experimental group teachers’ questionnaires. The researcher also took into consideration the analysis of the written materials of both groups. The responses from the respondents are not only reported below, but are also connected to the research questions and are used to understand the previous statistical data. This chapter is divided into five sections, where the first contains the class observations, the second is the students’
interview analysis, teachers’ questionnaires analysis, followed by an analysis of the
teacher’s interview, the fifth section presents an analysis of the written materials.

5.1 Class observations

The researcher observed how different aspects of the classes in both groups
were conducted to establish the differentiating elements that would have an impact on
how the students performed. These elements framed the observation sheet that was
used by the researcher (Appendix E). Elements included the teaching aids, the task’s
audience, the type of task that was issued, the objectives set for the lesson, the
groupings in which the students were organised, learner activities that were issued and
teacher activities during the lesson, as well as the strategies that were used during the
lesson.

5.1.1 Control group

The teacher in the control group used the text in the course book. The task
targeted the students at an individual level and also involved the teacher. Objectives
for the lesson were not clearly defined, as the teacher orally told the students that they
would write about “Colours”. The teacher then started to write the new words studied
previously in the reading passage, asked the students some questions about the reading
passage, then wrote on the board: introduction, detail 1, detail 2, detail 3 and
conclusion. After that, the students started writing in groups of six, referring to the text
in their books. At the beginning and at the end of the lesson there were discussions
with the teacher, during which some of the students asked questions about the words
and some of the ideas in the reading passage to be included in their texts. In these
classes, the observation analysis (Appendix F) showed that the students were engaged
in discussions and the substitution of words, the discussion being about the previous
reading passage and the grammar lesson. The control group students were imitating the text in their course book.

With regard to strategy, the students began by revising a reading passage. The teacher proceeded to write an introduction and asked the students to write the body of the text by looking at the passage they had read. No new ideas were generated by the students. Following this, the teacher monitored the process. Corrections in spelling and grammar were made. At no point was the class involved in generating new ideas or gathering evidence from another source. This was replicated for two periods: one involving “Colours” and another that involved “Leadership”.

### 5.1.2 Experimental group

The experimental group setting was different from the classes described above. First, the materials used were handouts, a thesaurus, a dictionary and ICT tools. The audience was larger and comprised the teacher, peers, individual students, staff and other students in the school. There were multiple tasks in this case. Academic, creative, argumentative and descriptive styles were to be addressed. Students came to class with previous knowledge of the objectives of the written text and the goals to be achieved were drawn up before the class. Thus, each student was prepared to commence planning, then writing. As a result, the objectives were clearly defined and could be measured by the teacher at the end of the lesson. Consequently, the students were enthusiastic about showing their abilities in writing due to their freedom to choose the writing style they preferred. These patterns reflect a student-centred approach, which facilitates greater learner autonomy due to the adoption of suitable strategies that help students to be more independent learners (Cohen, 1998).
In this group, teacher A’s participation in the groupings was minimal and occurred only during brainstorming and discussion. Students’ individual participation was the highest when they wrote individually compared to pair work. The learner activities comprised discussion, taking notes, planning, reading (silent and aloud), writing, peer support, drafting and editing. The teacher’s role at first was to guide the discussions, stimulate brainstorming, support and provide feedback and act as a facilitator during the activities in the class.

The researcher attended eight months after the implementation and she also attended after three months of returning to the old method, where the teacher did not set objectives and post them on the school website. Teacher A also did not guide her students to use the meta-cognitive writing strategies during the lesson. However, the experimental group students in both lessons used the writing strategies appropriately. Students had also done some research on the topic at hand. The teacher brainstormed suggestions from the students on the topic and gave them time to consolidate their ideas. A discussion was held on the ideas as a whole class, in pairs and in groups of six students. Consultation was carried out, mainly regarding translating some Arabic words into English, word choice and spellings. On her side, the teacher encouraged the students and stimulated their abilities by using positive oral feedback, such as “wonderful idea, give it strong evidence”. She also reminded them to consider the reader’s expectations and whether they had achieved their goals.

In the second period, the students were given time to read their essay and to start revising the organisation, content and structure of the piece they wrote. They modified their essays by adding more examples, using different words, synonyms and smart connections, then revised the mechanism, coherence and cohesion. The distribution of time during lessons was appropriate: 5 minutes for brainstorming, 10-
15 minutes for individual planning, where students outlined their ideas using mind maps or bullet points, and the last 40 minutes for writing. During writing, the teacher emphasised having an attractive introduction, useful information in the body, adding their experience, opinion and background knowledge, then writing a focused conclusion. Feedback was organised in pairs, which enabled the students to check for coherence, flow and fluency. The students then produced the final draft of their work. Error identification was done by the students and this gave them a chance to improve their work in the third draft. In this case, the role of the teacher could still be seen as a facilitator, since the students themselves did most of the work.

The experimental group was observed again in a period when the teacher had been requested by the researcher to revert to the old teaching method. The lesson observed was held three months after stopping the use of the integrated approach. The material used was the class textbook. Audience and task types did not change. Objectives were not defined in the class to mirror the conventional set-up. Interestingly, the other elements, that is, the role of the teacher and the contribution, did not change.

The activities that the students undertook were similar to the ones taken during the experiment period. The teacher added an activity for herself: writing on the board. No brainstorming was done and the teacher simply issued instructions to the students and checked their work. She did not feed them strategies. From the observation, it was evident that the students still used the strategies they had learnt, even without a prompt from the teacher. For instance, they prepared their planning sheets, they discussed their ideas with their teacher and classmates without referring to the course book and they wrote individually about “Leadership” using different styles (see Figure 5.9 and Appendix N). The researcher attributed the continuity to a change in perception
regarding the writing process and an appreciation of the role strategies play in writing, which suggests there is a necessity to develop sufficient infrastructures that impart EFL teaching methods and LLS training to learners (Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman, 2012; Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1990; Wang, 2008).

When observing the lessons of each group, it was not difficult to detect the effect of the integrated approach on many aspects during the lesson in the experimental group class.

In class, the teacher used a process approach by training the students to use the steps of the planning, formulating and revising processes and accentuated meeting their purposes. She used a genre approach when focusing on ways to communicate with the reader, respecting cultural norms and analysing and evaluating genre language use. The focus on content approach was seen when the teacher instructed her students to put in useful and accurate facts and to think about the quality of their ideas.

It is worth noting that the class observation supported what the experimental teacher and her students had reported about enjoying writing lessons. It was obvious that the students enjoyed planning, writing and revising. They were enthusiastic when writing. They worked in pairs, took part in group work and class work during discussions and then worked individually. It was obvious that they were engaged in the learning process, since all the students were involved and none were passive in class. None of the above findings changed at all when the teacher did not specify the objectives and set goals for the writing lesson and used the text in the course book during the follow-up, final observation (where the teaching had reverted to the old method). Although the teacher wrote the text’s main ideas and words on the board, the students started to discuss the ideas that they had prepared at home. They led the lesson
in being student-centred and used the same strategies they had used before the teacher returned to the old method of teaching. The teacher did not assign time for each process of the lesson, thus the students started to work on the same track as previously. The teacher implicitly used the integrated approach by not controlling the students in following the controlled composition instructions, but offered them enough space to employ the three writing approaches and meta-cognitive writing strategies. She did not, however, remind the students of any strategy in order to assess their awareness of the writing strategies. The students’ employment of the writing strategies indicated the correlation between the students’ perceptions of writing strategies and their performance. As their use of the meta-cognitive writing strategies without the teacher’s instructions verified their perceptions, and the analysis of the two essays in the two phases (during the study and after returning to the old method) revealed equivalence between their performances in both essays, this demonstrated a correlation between their perceptions and their writing performance. It was apparent that the teacher could not return to the old method. There was no room for her to be a controller of the learning process, as the students would not allow her to do so in their unconscious application of the student-centred approach.

5.2 Students’ semi-structured interview analysis

The experimental group students were interviewed after eight months of the implementation of the integrated approach to understand the challenges and the effect the use of the integrated approach had had on the students’ writing. In total, there were eight students who were representative of the experimental group. They were the only students from the sample (30 students) who agreed to participate in an interview (see Appendix D.1 for the interview guide). The students had had a varying amount of time studying English, ranging from six to 12 years of learning. The interview questions
revolved around aspects related to the independent and relative variables to extract data that would support the quantitative data and help to answer the research questions. The independent variable is the integrated approach, while the relative variables are as follows: self-assessment of the writing skills, use of strategies: before; during and after writing; and language learning strategies. Therefore, the interview questions revolved around the challenges, the process of writing, language learning strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, writing skills, teaching approach, teacher’s instructions, behaviour and feedback strategy. The researcher transcribed and coded the interviews for the small sample of interviewees manually to enable closer interpretation of the data.

5.2.1 Challenges of writing in English

The main aim of this study was to help secondary EFL students improve their writing abilities. Hence, it was imperative that the researcher identified the problem areas that the students faced. Specifically, the aim was to establish whether the problem was within the scope of what the use of the integrated approach in teaching writing skills could address. In the students’ responses, the problems included: idea generation, grammar and writing mechanics (spelling, sentence structure and punctuation), and how teachers controlled the writing process in their teaching methods in class.

Before identifying the difficulties that students faced when writing, the researcher investigated whether writing was considered a difficult task by the students. All the students interviewed considered writing harder compared with other language skills. Most of the students gave time and the level of creativity as reasons for the difficulty, and the fact that there is a need to write structurally correct text also made
the process hard. Typically, students who had spent more time learning English were quick to point out the aspects of creativity. Other students took language structure and grammar into consideration; they also attributed the difficulty of thinking in another language rather than the mother tongue when one wants to write. It should be noted that student 6 stated that writing was not exactly difficult, but required more effort.

Generating ideas is among the first steps in writing. It entails gaining random or organised means of tackling a topic (Hayes, 1996). Some respondents attributed the challenges to individual levels of knowledge. This meant that those who had low levels of knowledge on the main theme of writing would take more time to create a guiding framework to help them meet the objectives of the topic. The problem was not constant but varied with the familiarity the student had with the topic. New topics involved more research to understand what was involved.

Another factor that had an effect on the ability to generate ideas, according to the students, was the level of interest the topic aroused. What students considered interesting was perceived as taking less effort in gathering ideas on what to write and vice versa. Idea generation in this case was more difficult for students who had not had many years of learning the language. The researcher attributed this to the exposure the students had had to the language and the difficulty they faced in using a second language. This confirms Bialystok’s (2001) research, which argues that the more a student learns a language, the more he/she learns to express him/herself in the language and even thinks from the perspective of the second language. He continues by observing that it is common for beginners to first reason in their native language (for example, to create ideas in Arabic) and then try to carry the ideas to the second language, making it a taxing affair. Further years of studying help one to reason in the second language and this shifts the problem to another level.
The next set of problems goes hand in hand with the process of writing. After an idea is generated, the next step is putting the idea on paper. Five (62.5%) of the students interviewed indicated grammar as a challenge (see Figure 5.1). For the others, the technical aspects of writing, such as sentence and text structure, were identified as causes of difficulty. Technical aspects also refer to parts of a paragraph (topic sentence, supporting sentences and examples, as well as the conclusion).

![Difficult bits of writing](image)

*Figure 5.1: Difficult aspects of writing according to the Saudi EFL students who participated in the study*

Attracting the reader with a good presentation of ideas was another difficulty mentioned by two of the interviewees. For example, student 6 mentioned:

*How to present your ideas in an interesting way to the reader. That makes the reader feel what you feel. As long as I have the idea, all the other aspects such as spelling or structure are easy to deal with.*

Note that the interviewee in this case had been learning English for 12 years. Therefore, the student was among the relatively experienced learners.

The interviewees limited the difficulties in writing to four dimensions: firstly, the teachers’ methods of teaching writing controlled their abilities and writing skills; secondly, generating ideas in a second language was a great challenge at the start of
the writing process; thirdly, grammar; and fourthly, the presentation of attractive, coherent ideas. The controlled composition method used in Saudi Arabia was also revealed as a cause of difficulty. It was indicated by the students as the teacher’s control in teaching and in writing skills. The researcher considered the use of the integrated approach as a means of shifting class practice to being student-centred, which can help in eliminating the teacher’s control in class and turning it more to facilitating and assisting in improving the writing skills of students. Based on responses provided by the interviewees, the students confirmed this. Student 4 criticised the controlled method as follows:

*When the teacher gave us specific ideas and asked us to write about them.
Or gave us the topic and specified the topic sentences of each paragraph.
We were not free to add our ideas. I prefer it when she gives us the title and then we are free to write using any style we prefer.*

All the students interviewed mentioned grammar as a difficult aspect of writing. Student 7, for instance, indicated:

*Grammar is difficult to me. I don’t think I do it right even if it’s right I have some doubts regarding grammar. I’m not very happy about my grammar.*

The students also remarked upon the strategies that each writing style requires (academic, argumentative and creative). Their appreciation of these strategies (see sections 5.1.2 and 5.1.5) enabled them to work towards becoming better at adopting the styles. Some of the styles identified as problematic included argumentative and academic writing. In the analysis below, there was a division in terms of whether a majority of the group had, or did not have, difficulties in any writing style in English.

For those who did not have a problem, they indicated language learning strategies as the main contributor to their ability to write in a number of styles. They were confident that as long as they knew the core strategies, practice was the additional element that would enable them to reach the point of excellence in writing in English.
On the other hand, the same strategies caused problems for some of the other students. Strategies for data collection in argumentative essays were among the identified difficulties:

*The argumentative essay, because my work depends on surveys and people. It takes time and maybe you will not find the right people. It is hard for that but if I collect the opinions it will be easy to organise and write. Academic. Because I must be certain that all the information is correct. And it needs a lot of searching from different sources. I need to practise more* (student 5).

*As long as I know the fundamental writing strategies of each style, nothing will be hard. We just need more practice to master it* (student 6).

This part of the interview showed that the same strategies could cause difficulties for some of the other students but more practice was required to solve these problems in writing in English. It also showed that the students are aware of the importance of the meta-cognitive writing strategies and they can identify their weaknesses and in what areas they need more practice, which is a sign of autonomous learning.

Special consideration was given to the “writing block”. Getting stuck when writing is not a new thing; it is the ability of the writer to overcome the block and return to writing that saves the situation (Zhang, 2008). This research needed to include overcoming writing blocks for their importance in saving time and keeping the writer in the same mood for writing and avoid interruption. Thus, knowing strategies or techniques for avoiding this “block” is a vital aspect of writing, especially if time is limited. Accordingly, this study investigated whether the application of the integrated approach could overcome such an obstacle if identified by monitoring students and if instruction were provided on how to recognise this type of block and act to defuse it. Blocks can be personal or external, according to the interviewees’ responses (see Table 5.1). Based on their responses, it seems that these factors were
not permanent but may present themselves intermittently. Some writing blocks can be very short-lived and achieving the right environment will eliminate most of them. This was of interest of the researcher to support answering the third research question about the differences in the students’ approaches to writing. Students first need to identify the block to overcome it and then pursue writing, as stated by Clark (2003), who notes that identifying writer’s block is vital for the continuation of the writing process. The students were precise in identifying the blocks they faced. Therefore, identifying how students tackled any block was carried out through the interview question that seeks to investigate students’ use of language learning strategies to help in easing or eliminating the block’s negative effect. The students provided similar answers:

*Noise. Also, if I still have things in my mind to write but there is not enough time to write them* (student 2).

*Too few ideas* (student 4).

*Noise, my mood, special circumstances that keep my mind busy. But these don’t stop me forever* (student 8).

**Table 5.1: Students’ writing blocks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal blocks</th>
<th>External blocks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not enough ideas</td>
<td>Noise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear ideas</td>
<td>Interruption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word choice</td>
<td>Time limitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiencing stress</td>
<td>Other tasks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A recent study from Usaci and Niculescu (2012) noted that there are many ways of overcoming such hurdles. Some come from the writer, while others will involve consulting another party to identify a solution (McMullen, 2009). In most cases, this involved identifying an activity or set of activities that stimulated creativity in a way that would eliminate the blockage. In the experimental group, the strategies
that were imparted to the students provided a platform for retracing steps and an alternative means of idea generation. It was evident from the responses that they all returned to the planning phase by checking their outlines and ideas.

None of the students went to look for a third party to help with blocks. All of them used a unique way to deal with blocks when writing. For instance, when student 1 experiences stress, she stated:

*I close my eyes, take a deep breath five times then read what I wrote.*

When ideas are not clear or not enough to address a written essay, most of the interviewees had the same strategy for overcoming this block. For instance, student 3 reported:

*I stop writing for a minute then reread my outlines then start over.*

Student 6 stated:

*I change the writing activity and do anything else for a while then come back to write. Actually, sometimes this stopping helps me to have more ideas. I might see a picture, a video clip or anything that adds an idea to me even if there is no correlation, I create it.*

Student 8 reported:

*I try to change my way of thinking. By looking at my ideas from a different angle.*

The students dealt with word choice block by making extra searches from different resources, such as websites, dictionaries or books. This shows an empirical change in students’ approaches to writing. For example, all the interviewees stated that external factors such as noise and interruptions were mostly dealt with by the teacher. When the teacher was asked to comment on that in her interview, she stated that she tries to make the class environment suitable for students to write (see section 5.2).

Limited time can be overcome by good planning, as stated by student 5:

*Teaching us to plan before writing helped a lot.*
These responses contextualise the fact that meta-cognitive strategies involve focusing on the learning process (understanding and production monitoring, planning for learning, and self-evaluation). It is worth noting that these strategies used by EFL secondary-level students were highly significant of their awareness of the importance of writing, which was reflected in their writing performance as discussed in the quantitative analysis chapter (see section 4.3.2).

5.2.2 Effects of the integrated approach on students

Within this theme, the researcher wanted to establish if the use of the integrated approach had improved the students’ ability to write. Some of the aspects considered included the effects of the process, genre and content-based approaches. In addition, these aspects entailed self-assessment, awareness of the entire writing process, the role of the teacher and the resources used.

The researcher also asked for the interviewees’ opinion of what was most important when writing, whether accuracy or fluency, to establish if the integrated approach had had an effect on their perceptions that grammar was the greatest challenge when writing. The researcher considered this perception as one of the factors that hindered EFL students in writing well due to students focusing on surface errors such as grammar, spelling and punctuation.

Some students placed more emphasis on one of these elements. Although some of the students admitted that both were valuable, the majority seemed to think that fluency in writing was more important. Examples of responses are as follows:

*All are important…but accuracy is not as important as fluency...for me...I do care about my ideas, and whether they satisfy me and the reader or not* (student 1).
Number one is fluency. I try to have many ideas, write them all, and delete the ones that will open other doors away from the main theme. Organise them and write, then in the revision phase I think about accuracy (student 2).

Both are important but fluency is more important for the writer and the reader as well. But if the structure or spelling is incorrect, your ideas will not be clear and you can’t convey or express well. So, both are important, they complete each other (student 5).

From the students’ responses, the researcher deduced that students’ fear of grammar had shifted, as the students had started to consider other aspects of writing such as word choice, quality of ideas and fluency. Although it remained difficult, students did not seem to be deterred from writing. The three remarks above highlight a greater emphasis on writing as a process and as a product.

In analysing the responses related to uses of different writing modes, it emerged that the entire sample could apply the full range studied. They showed awareness of the strategies involved and they perceived the strategies as being vital components of the writing process. For example, student 8 clearly showed her enjoyment in using different styles or modes depending on the nature of the essay:

Yes…We practise some of these. Like cause and effect, short stories and academic. And I like to write using various types or styles of writing...because in every writing lesson we learn a new style. Then the teacher said you can choose the style you prefer. I don’t have a preference style because I like changing (student 8).

Using different writing styles provided a chance for the students to identify their weaknesses in any style and to work to improve it, as illustrated by the following statements.

Yes…We practise those. And if I am not good at one writing style, I try to practise more to improve my writing skills (student 1).

Yes, we started practising those styles last year (student 2).

I prefer when the teacher specifies the topic and I am free to use any writing style, whether academic, short story, argument or anything else.
I prefer to choose the style and not when the teacher chooses one for me (Student 3).

The students were also asked to identify elements that, in their opinion, contributed to the improvement of writing skills and content. Some of the responses identified the following as sources of assistance: their teacher, classmates, the Internet, course books, class notes, magazines, other textbooks, a bilingual dictionary, and an English dictionary. Students relied on the assistance of these sources at all stages of the writing process, especially to build vocabulary and generate ideas to share in class discussions. From this, the researcher established that their perceptions had improved with their intention to learn from a greater number of sources (in addition to their textbook). As already reported in Tables 4.16 and 4.22, it had been demonstrated on many occasions in the quantitative data analysis that students’ perceptions had increased in many aspects of the writing activities, processes and strategies.

5.2.2.1 Effect of the process approach

The research examined whether, and how, the process of writing helped students to become good writers. To investigate this aspect, the perceptions of the students regarding the writing process and the students’ ability to assess the quality of their writing were investigated. All these areas were analysed across the processes of planning, formulating and revising.

All the students agreed that the process of writing contributed significantly to making one a good writer. As to the means through which it leads to better writing, divergent points of view emerged. According to students 1, 2, 4, 6 and 8, the writing process helped to generate ideas, organise them, evaluate them and decide whether they met the set goals and would be accepted by the reader.

This approach was clearly illustrated by student 8:
The process helped me to compose the right sentence using the right words. Put everything in its place. Organise my ideas. Generate ideas from ideas. Relate my background knowledge to new knowledge.

The student’s response showed the effect of the integrated approach, as she combined the genre and content-based approaches with the process approach in her answer. Similar responses were provided by students 1 and 4:

Knowing the process of writing is very important. It enables me to study my ideas, how effective are they? Do they help in achieving the goals? Will these ideas be accepted by the reader? If I accomplish these pillars I think my essay or article will be perfect and suitable for my reader (student 1).

Yes. It is very important. It helps me to generate more ideas, connects them and adds my own experience and thinks about the reader’s needs. It helps us also to assimilate the writing strategies and apply them in writing. The use of writing strategies helps me to write good compositions (student 4).

During the writing process, the students requested their teacher’s help, which accentuated the teacher’s role as facilitator in the class context. Generally, the ways in which the students benefited from the teacher revolved around the process of writing. Some of the help took place at the group or class level, while other assistance was personalised to the problems an individual had in a particular area. Some of the individual help focused on text coherence, idea organisation, choice of vocabulary, spelling, grammar and personal advice. The group help was identified in planning, writing styles and strategies, as well as final revision strategies. Some of the responses below exemplify this point:

I ask the teacher to help me in coherence and cohesion of the essay as well as ideas organisation. She helped in the choice of vocabularies when I asked her, I gave her the word in Arabic and she translated it (student 1).
When she taught us different styles of writing and gave us detailed instructions to practise with her in class and at home on how to write and steps for each writing style. I felt that using these steps improved my writing a lot (student 2).

If there is a missing word in any sentence, she highlighted it and sometimes gave me a number of words to choose from and fill the missing word, spelling mistakes, sometimes I wrote in detail and she underlined it and said you can say all this in one word. Also, she advised students to write down the errors that we frequently made so we can avoid them later (student 8).

5.2.2.1.1. Planning

The researcher investigated the students’ activities that transpire before starting to write with the aim of capturing the students’ activities during the planning stage of the writing process. Expected items included: defining the objectives and goals and generating and filtering ideas (Kember, 2009). Writing comes after the ideas have been determined and deemed fit to achieve the desired objectives (Silva & Leki, 2004). Students’ preparations before the writing lesson may vary according to their researching preferences. Some searched the Internet, some read class notes and textbooks, and others engaged in discussions (with the teacher or peers) or brainstorming sessions or read newspapers.

Student 6 provided a comprehensive response. (Student 6 had learnt English for the longest period among the students in the sample used.)

First, I need to know what is the topic of the writing and if the teacher has specified any goals. If not, I need to specify my own. I need to decide what style I’ll use, is it academic, argumentative or a story? Then I start searching for ideas in my mind or any resource that is available, like the Internet, books, newspaper or anything that inspires me. If the topic is related to something we studied I can look at my class notes so I will not repeat the same ideas. When I write, I try to make my writing close to people’s life, logical and express reality with the addition of my own imagination. So, this will add a flavour to my writing. I consider the context a lot. I think it helps in generating ideas and making your writing more effective (student 6).
It should be noted that prior to the experiment (use of the integrated approach), the students did not know the writing styles and strategies, as mentioned by students 3, 6 and 8. For example,

In the past, we didn’t even know the writing styles or try to write using writing strategies (student 8).

The researcher, therefore, attributed the improvements to the treatment in the experiment. As a result of this combination of approaches and explicit training and awareness of meta-cognitive writing strategies, students were able to describe and articulate their learning. There was a direct correlation between this and the experimental group.

As discussed in the literature review (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Zamel, 1985), students’ ability to organise ideas forms a critical foundation and starting point for the writing process. The majority of the students in this study were in a position to organise their ideas. Notably, the students identified the factors upon which idea generation relies. Some of the factors mentioned included the goals and objectives of the essay or text as well as the topic given. Clarity in instruction was also identified as one of the factors, while ambiguous titles or topics took time and a lot of effort, according to the interviewees.

The students indicated the following:

It is easy if the teacher determines the goals and objectives of writing a certain essay. If I know the goals, developing and organising the essay will be easier (student 1).

It is easy for me if done at the beginning and as long as my idea is clear, it is easy to put it in the right place. It is not an easy process but I get used to doing it (student 2).

Yes I organise them first and this strategy helped in generating more ideas. It depends on the ideas and the topic of the essay. If the ideas are very close in meaning it will be a bit hard to organise (student 8).
From the last response above, the timing of the organisation of ideas also plays a fundamental role.

The methods by which the students organised ideas were also revealed in the interviews. While some may use bullet points and outlines, some students used mind maps and others created planning sheets for this purpose. The students also expressed the benefits of organising ideas. For instance, student 2, who used mind maps and outlines, indicated that from the organised ideas she can engage with the topic in more depth and express herself more:

*and because we now write down our ideas as mind maps or make an outline it is much easier to extend the idea and express more.*

Student 7 indicated that considering the organisation of ideas had improved her writing, since she does not forget any of the original ideas that had been conceived. Finally, the creation of flow and the manifestation of fluency in the text were also part of the benefits the students expressed.

Student 3 indicated that prior to gaining knowledge of writing skills, the organisation of ideas was cumbersome. Based on the evidence presented in the response below, this is a direct implication of the effects of the use of the integrated approach on the process of organising ideas. In one statement, she reported:

*To tell the truth, it becomes easy after learning the writing strategies. You need to write them first as bullet points* (student 3).

It should be noted that the quantitative analysis revealed a decrease in the use of outlining compared to mind-mapping, but this was not an issue for the students as they used both planning strategies to help in generating and organising ideas (see Figure 4.12 and Table 4.23 in the quantitative analysis chapter).

The researcher attributed knowledge of an accurate planning process for creating coherent paragraphs to the use of the integrated approach that the students
were explicitly taught. In terms of the meta-cognitive strategies, which are a fundamental part of the process, the students knew the steps that one needed to follow to achieve the task.

This finding is in line with the quantitative findings regarding students’ planning processes and strategies used in class, where students attain ample practice and the differences were recorded (see chapter 4, Figure 4.7). As discussed in the literature review (Martinez, 2005; Zhang, 2008), this finding bears a close relation to accurate planning processes, insofar as students can actively engage in the feedback process, because evaluations are conducted on a continual basis as opposed to being held at the end of the process. Using this approach (an accurate planning process), the role of the teacher is to help students formulate viable strategies for generating ideas, planning their structures to translate these ideas into words, sentences and coherent paragraphs, and then editing.

5.2.2.1.2. Formulating and revising

The students’ abilities and perceptions of the process of writing and the roles that the teacher and student should play when formulating an essay in English were the main elements investigated for the formulation process.

The students overwhelmingly pointed out that they were capable of writing an idea(s) and developing it into a coherent paragraph. Interestingly, the students described the process in some detail. Student 1 stated that,

*I write all my ideas as bullet points first, and then take away any idea that does not suit the intended essay. After that I try to find a way to develop them. Before developing them I organise them then I start thinking of examples to support each idea. And I add details to each idea to make a paragraph. First I write using simple words that I know then I try to find synonyms of some of the words, it makes my writing good and I learn new words.*
From the above explanation, the student knew how to structure a paragraph. In addition, she showed that she had followed all the steps that are necessary in the creation of a text. These steps include searching before starting to write, planning, preparing a draft, writing a final copy and editing, among others, as cited by Liaw (2007) and extensively discussed in the literature review chapter. Note that the student in this case concentrated on gaining synonyms as part of the revisions made. Other students described a similar approach with some additions. For example, student 2 indicated:

*or I sometimes rephrase the sentence. Sometimes I seek help from others.*

*.... or my teacher in class.*

As an essential part of the writing process, it was crucial to determine whether the students had any regard for the revising process. Ideally, revision can start from the basic constituents of an essay (sentence level), after each paragraph or with the entire essay. It could also be a combination of two or all of the above. Analysis of the information gathered from the interviews confirmed this, as the students engaged in revision at the levels expected. This provides a link with the in-depth evaluation of the writing strategy contained in the literature review (e.g., Hayes & Flower, 1980).

The students provided justification for their revision techniques based on an understanding of individual capabilities, strengths and weaknesses. A sample of responses is given below.

*After each paragraph...because the flow of ideas are related. If I don’t revise, I’m afraid the ideas will not be well organised* (student 1).

*After each paragraph...because if I did it after each sentence it will cut the flow of writing and if I leave it at the end it might affect the coherence and cohesion of the essay* (student 2).

*I spend a lot of time revising. After each sentence, I revise spellings and punctuation. Then, when I finish a paragraph, I revise the coherence of it, word choice...because I like to use new words to learn more* (student 3).
When I finish a paragraph, I revise it before starting the other. I look for spelling, grammar and whether the sentences connected well. Then I revise again at the very end. Here, I look at cohesion (student 6).

One can deduct from the above that each student had a valid and unique revision method that was tailored to removing errors and influence from the native language, and generating a satisfactory essay or text. It showed that the students had a high regard for revision as part of the writing process.

In writing it is essential that the writer creates a draft from which improvements can be made to create a final acceptable document. Too many drafts would mean that the process is very taxing and too few would mean no consideration for revision, except when the revision process is intertwined with the writing process (Reither, 1985). In this experimental group, the number of drafts ranged from two to four. This was considered an acceptable range, as there were more drafts prior to the experiment (up to eight), as shown in the quantitative chapter. Indeed, the data extracted from the students’ questionnaire regarding the number of drafts did not correspond with the data obtained from the students’ interview. According to the quantitative data, the number of drafts before the implementation of the integrated approach could reach eight, where the students just substituted words from a model to form a new text. This means this the number of drafts (five to eight) could only have been written by the students without conscious understanding.

For the student who made only one draft, her response provided reasonable justification:

I don’t have time to write more and I am well prepared before writing so I don’t need to have more drafts (student 3).

This shows that the student did not disregard the process of writing but took steps that minimised the need for extra drafts. Those who made more drafts expressed
the need to change and revise down to the last detail until the essay was satisfactory, as illustrated by the response below:

*Two to three. Because when I revise I reorganise then I feel I’m not fully satisfied then I write it again* (student 7).

This is consistent with existing research that claims that in writing multiple drafts, “successful papers are not written; they are rewritten” (Maimon et al., 1981: 61) and that writing multiple drafts helps in improving critical thinking and problem-solving (Krashen, 2001).

Along with drafting as part of the revision process, there are numerous means of editing. According to the results from the students, only a minority of them were self-reliant when it came to the editing of their work. Those students indicated that, in general, there was no time for such activities and that everyone else was usually busy doing the same thing.

For those who edit with other people, the most common circle of consultation included peers (discussion or one-to-one), siblings, parents (those who have experience in the language) and the teacher. Note that for one-to-one peer consultation for revision, the responses indicated that the one consulted may in most cases be a better writer than the one seeking editing.

Notably, at least half of the sample made an individual effort and sought consultation when the need arose. The seriousness of the revision process was reinforced during the study. The students’ responses showed their perceptions of the writing process as non-linear.

From the analysis above, it is clear that the integrated approach, which was twinned here with meta-cognitive writing strategies, helped to employ ample use of the approach by the experimental group students. This was clear from the changes in the students’ performance reported in the quantitative analysis chapter (see Figure 4.11
and Table 4.16), and the change in their writing processes, the students’ use of meta-cognitive strategies, their perceptions and the differences in their approaches to writing as presented in this chapter. This will be discussed in detail in the discussion chapter.

5.2.2.2 Effect of genre approach

The second approach used in the integrated model adopted was the genre approach. The aspects of interest here were threefold: considering the purpose of writing, communicating with the reader and, finally, considering the social context, appropriate language and vocabulary (Matsuda et al., 2003).

General strategies to ensure continuous improvement were indicated during consultations with peers or teachers, as well as reading and collecting new vocabulary, adjectives, expressions, phrases and styles. In connection with this, student 6 specified the following:

_I love writing in English because I express my feeling by writing. ... writing is a process that as long as you live and keep on reading, it evolves and improves. The more you read, the more you will expose English writing styles, words, and structure. I usually write down new adjectives, phrases and expressions I like when reading. And I use them in my writing_ (student 6).

Based on her response, it is possible to create a sound differentiation in the period before the implementation of the integrated approach in teaching writing skills, as several of the interviewees strongly indicated that the previous teacher’s method (before the experiment) did not put emphasis on the goals of writing. It should be noted that this was the same teacher before and after the implementation. During the study, however, this element was emphasised to stress the importance of genre before starting to write. Some interviewees indicated negative attitudes towards writing before the use of the integrated approach since they did not see any additional value.
Our teacher previously, did not say anything about the goals and how important they are. But now my teacher always discusses the objectives of the essay before we start planning. If she did not, I will do it automatically. I think I can’t write without a goal. No one can! The goals help me to express more and have more ideas about the subject. I think also, a writer should not only convey his/her opinion, s/he must put in mind people’s background and culture (student 1).

Still on the same topic, this respondent indicated that for the entire time she had been learning writing English (six years), she felt for the first time that she was learning. This occurred during the experiment.

I can’t write something if I don’t have a goal for writing it. Our previous teacher didn’t teach us about the importance of goals and being prepared. Before we didn’t write at all. They call it writing but actually it was copying. Sorry for that, but we missed a lot. After six years we start learning writing well! (student 3).

Similar to the above interviewees, all the students expressed understanding of the critical role that setting goals has in writing. From the data, the students indicated that setting goals helped to 1. generate ideas; 2. shape ideas; 3. avoid writing vague text (“I cannot write without setting goals. My writing then will be vague”); 4. make decisions on styles based on expected audience; and 5. move from general goals (set by the teacher) to individual ones (essay personalisation).

Along with formulating ideas, developing one’s own experience and critical thinking were also mentioned as examples of the impact of the integrated approach and meta-cognitive strategy awareness. In this case, the students were expected to be in a position to personalise their writing by adding accounts of their experiences and showing the ability to present an argument in a logical, critical and effective way with special consideration to the social context. This would indicate the use of the genre approach within the process.
Only a minority of the students indicated that they had challenges in performing such a task. Admittedly, student 1 indicated that she knew the strategy but was not confident that she could plan an essay and achieve the objectives:

*Not easy for me...I still need more practice in planning to use my experience to support a certain idea. I think I know the strategy but still we did not have enough practice on it. This needs more effort from the teacher. And we are 30 students in the class, with different levels. I think time is responsible. We need more time for writing classes to practise more* (student 1).

She indicated that she might be one of the slower learners in class and more time and practice were needed to make her fully capable of tackling the task.

Other responses were:

*Yes, I can, but it is not important to highlight my experience if it doesn’t add something valuable to my essay* (student 4).

*Yes, easily, I can insert my experience and criticise it. I’m using my experience as evidence or as examples. My teacher can identify my essays because she can hear my voice in my essays* (student 6).

*The main purpose of any writer, I think, is to express his own ideas and transfer his experience with criticism for the readers to gain what they wanted. I put my experience and any experience I read about and criticise them as well* (student 8).

For those who indicated that they could do the task, they added certain conditions that would make them use their own experiences. None had an issue with the critical thinking dimension. Some indicated that, firstly, a personal experience must be applicable. Secondly, the use of the experience should have the potential to add value to whatever had been written already, such as criticising an experience or citing an example. Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly as indicated by students 3 and 5, the experience should not be in conflict with their norms and culture. The latter would bring shame if it were to be displayed for others to read, as indicated by student
3. This was due to the strict societal life in Saudi Arabia. It was clear that she was afraid of being “tagged” and of the hearsay that may come about as a result:

_I might write my experience if it doesn’t conflict with the cultural norms. You know our culture is very strict and I don’t want anyone to talk about me. My reputation in school is important to me_ (student 3).

The nature of the conditions and the need to use personal experiences was a culmination of the integrated approach adopted.

In addition, the analysis of the students’ interview has shown that the students had acquired a positive attitude towards writing strategies and the perception of the writing process had increased; this improvement in perception had led to an eagerness to attract the attention of their readership and achieve certain goals. The students’ understanding of the role of the writing process drove them to prepare better essays, as evidenced by some of the responses:

*Before, we did not think of the reader but our teacher changes our way of thinking about writing. And she made us aware of the reader* (student 1).

*I also specify who will read my writing to consider his or her expectations. For instance if I write for teenagers it’s not the same style to use if my readers are adults or more educators. The goals are changed according to the type of reader* (student 7).

*I need to put in mind what are the reader’s expectations. How they can benefit from my essay. The goals are useful in generating related ideas to the main topic. Because I try to put the most interesting ideas to attract my reader* (student 8).

Student 2 indicated that she did not take the reader into consideration. In trying to justify the action, the student indicated that she put a lot of effort into her writing and took her work seriously. Since she did her best all the time, she was satisfied and did not give more consideration to whom would read the text afterwards. Voicing a similar opinion, student 5 indicated:
No. If I like my writing essay, I don’t think of the reader.

The majority of the interviewees showed that they considered their readers during the writing process. Amongst the reasons provided were the need for acceptance and the knowledge of the intended audience:

Yes. The teacher will criticise my composition, my classmates might criticise it if it is one of the essays to be discussed in the teacher-student conference or everyone in school might read it if it will be hung outside the classroom. So, I think of all these possible readers (student 4).

Following the application of the integrated approach, a positive change was noted in the attitude of some of the students. Specifically, some who had not previously put a lot of thought into considering the readers adapted another approach once the benefits and relevance were revealed. In response, the interviewee in this case stated:

Actually, in class I consider my marks. So I try to do the best to have the best mark. But, when the teacher started to put our essays and short stories in the journal and in the corridors and we discussed certain essays in the conference, I started to give the reader special consideration. Other teachers gave us feedback. So we want a good reputation in our school (student 3).

The analysis of the interview question “Do you consider the reader when writing? Why?” shows that the students were not fully aware of the reasons why readers should be considered. Notably, the need for such consideration was highlighted in the course of the study, as one of the respondents indicated above. The underlying significance or justification may not have been understood by everyone. In the sample, 25% started considering the reader during the experiment, indicating that the perception they had had previously had changed. Hence, although the effects were not enormous, they were nevertheless significant. Continuous use of the integrated approach will shed light on the relevance, and cause an even greater impact, of the
genre approach, improvement in attitudes towards writing, and awareness of the integrated approach.

According to the information received from the interviewees, there were many people who might read their essays. Apparently, the teacher displayed good essays on the corridor walls for everyone in the school to read. Other essays may be read at the teacher-student conference or published in the school journal. Therefore, reward and motivation can be good propellers for the improvement of writing skills. Borrowing from student 3’s response above about considering the reader, students were more concerned about the reader since the essay might be read by everyone in the school, by classmates, or even published in the school journal.

5.2.2.3 Effect of content approach

The final approach adopted in this research was the content-based approach. The main interest in the content approach in this study was to provide accurate and useful information in the body of an essay and enhance students’ critical thinking and ability to synthesise information collected and make connections between the different aspects of their knowledge. As highlighted in the literature review, the content-based approach also considers form and sentence structure (Bransford et al., 2000). Thus, this approach is used to enhance academic writing (Shih, 1986), and the researcher combined it with the other two approaches to teach students to consider the reader by providing useful and correct information, evaluating that information and connecting it to their own knowledge using good sentence structure for the three styles of writing used in this study.

Accordingly, it was essential that the students became familiar with different styles of writing. In that regard, the researcher wanted to establish whether the students could use different styles. Generally, it was noted from the interviews that six of the
eight students seemed to have a preference for short stories when asked about their preferred writing mode or style. Other styles mentioned included argumentative, academic writing, and reports.

Starting with the most-favoured style, student 6 indicated that short stories required a significant level of creativity, and all the interviewees agreed that content should be attractive and respect the reader’s expectations. The interviewees gave varying reasons for their preference in writing styles. It was noted that the students could easily determine their preferred writing style and were aware of each style’s characteristics and the quality of the content (see the responses below).

*I am not excellent in writing but I like to write short stories. And if the essay is about something that I am interested in, I feel that my ideas are fluent and I become creative. Because when I write about something I love or like I’ll be creative and rich in knowledge and ideas about it.* (Student 6)

Students 1, 2, 6 and 8 stated that academic writing was mostly factual; in most cases, the objectives of the essay were given by the teacher and were very clear and precise. One respondent who preferred this style gave the following response:

*I like academic writing, because it depends on your research. You don’t need to have unique or perfect ideas to write. The goals are very clear in academic. The difficult bit in it is searching for the information and previous studies* (student 4).

All the students indicated that they could use several sentence structures when writing an essay. However, the level of confidence was not high for all the students. Some indicated that they were comfortable or that they did not struggle at all,

*I never think about it because it happened automatically* (student 6).

By contrast, others admitted that they made some errors (e.g., students 1, 4 and 5). Notably, half of the students could use different sentence structures while formulating without any problems. For those who encountered difficulties, tenses were indicated as a specific problem area. It is worth noting that there were a series of
lessons in each unit where students learnt a specific grammar rule, completed different exercises and read a passage that was related to the grammar lesson and writing an essay. Therefore, this series of scaffolding lessons could be regarded as one of the main reasons for the students’ ability to write using different sentence structures.

Furthermore, the researcher wanted to establish the students’ ability to paraphrase and summarise as part of the formulating process. Paraphrasing involves understanding a piece of text, finding synonyms and, to some extent, changing the sentence structure of the text (Liaw, 2007).

The level of confidence the students had in their level of skill in this was rather low. Although the students were aware of and had capability in paraphrasing, they insisted that their ability depended on the text provided. The ability to understand what the writer had written in the text was the determinant of whether the students would paraphrase the text well, as one interviewee comprehensively put it:

*It could be easy and could be difficult. Because it depends on my understanding of the original text, I’m afraid I will not be honest to the text if I misunderstand something in it* (student 3).

In contrast, all the students were confident in their ability to make summaries of what they were taught. One of the interviewees indicated that they had received lessons on this aspect of the writing process. It can be said that the students have had significant periods in which to practise summarising. Some added that they needed resources to do the work. Some of the resources mentioned included a dictionary (for new words) as well as class material to reorient and refresh their memory on the subject and the topics that were discussed.

The students were in a position to assess their skills and establish exactly what they would require to paraphrase a text. According to student 1,
The teacher taught us to understand the ideas of the author and write them again using our words and writing style. But we MUST be honest to the original ideas and text.

The researcher’s analysis found that the students were capable of paraphrasing and summarising texts. However, their level of confidence and commentary showed that their ability as far as the skill was concerned had not been optimised.

As shown above, the students were quite confident in summarising and paraphrasing and they were aware of the need for accurate content. They were also capable of supporting facts with their own knowledge and experience, as discussed in the genre approach analysis. In different parts of the interview analysis, the students accentuated the quality of ideas in having acceptable content. They also considered the mechanics of an essay while writing and after writing and this was clear in the analysis of the revising process and revising strategy (see 5.1.3).

Samples of the students’ responses are provided below:

*I concentrate on the quality of ideas and the coherence and cohesion* (student 6).

*I consider grammar. Spelling errors. If the information is correct or not. Then I revise my organisation of the ideas, are they connected to the main idea? The flow between paragraphs* (student 7).

In criticising their own knowledge, the students reported:

*When I finish my writing, I pretend that I am the reader, so I revise it using the reader’s eyes, to criticise its ideas* (student 3).

*Now, we can write, express and criticise* (student 4).

*I must be certain that all the information is correct* (student 5).

**5.2.3 Effect of the meta-cognitive writing strategies on students’ performance**

For this theme, the study assessed the effects of the writing strategies selected based on a few guidelines or sub-themes. The study aimed at identifying the sources
of information that the students used in preparing their work, how they employed different writing strategies, and the degree of awareness of these strategies. The sub-themes are identified in the planning and revising strategies.

5.2.3.1 Planning strategies

The students were trained to follow the three planning levels (Macaro, 2001; Oxford, 1990), whereby they commenced by generating ideas, planning at the textual level and planning at the lexical level.

As part of planning to write, especially in the case of the students, there needed to be a source of information since the students were familiar with all the topics that were to be addressed in their writing. As they discussed the main topic in the reading passage, they needed to enrich their essays with new knowledge from different sources. The performance of any writing is based on the reliability of the source of information. This places importance on acquiring reliable information. The students used a variety of sources which enriched their content. Some of the sources that the students used for analysis include the following: teachers, English dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, newspapers, textbooks (course books and other extra materials), articles and journals, and websites.

All the sources above are acceptable. However, websites and the Internet in general pose a risk in terms of credibility, as commented by the teacher interviewed. Some online publications are by individuals and the reference for the data cannot be verified or is not provided. It is, therefore, prudent that information should be obtained from reputable sources as indicated by the teacher in the interview, such as government websites (.go), organisations (.org), educational institutions (.edu), peer-reviewed journals and articles published online as well as accredited newsrooms.
However, according to students 1, 2, 4, 6, 7 and 8, reading is a source of knowledge, vocabulary, new writing styles, ideas and inspiration from a writer's perspective that build the capacity of the students as writers.

Students engaged in reading from different sources in both Arabic and English. Some sources are fictional, while some are non-fictional. The sources mentioned in the interviews included short stories, tweets, proverbs, English-Arabic translated novels, scientific articles and novels.

Care should be taken as to what is used as reading material to build knowledge. Tweets, for example, cannot be categorised as rich texts that can build one’s knowledge of writing in English. It is worth noting that students were not trained to use them as a source of information. Twitter is a micro-blogging website and the content that is placed there does not have to conform to grammar and spelling checks. Although they may include some links shared there to short stories and other content that can build one’s English writing skills, the tweets themselves do not count as a resource in this study. Social media does not form a platform from which one can read and observe writing skills (Murray & Christison, 2010). This should be taken into consideration in finding a resource for adding knowledge and improving writing skills. Overall, the students expressed interest in native English writing that may help improve their skills.

On tracing the point of influence of the first language, the researcher intended to assess whether Arabic was used during idea generation. Al-Hadhrami (2008) argues that the use of the learner’s first language in the English classroom is a contradictory and controversial pedagogical issue in a number of EFL programmes within Saudi Arabia.
The identification of the point of influence of the first language was crucial in assisting the students to overcome it. To be a good writer in a language, it is important to be in a position to undergo the whole writing process without interference from the first language or any other language apart from the one intended (Silva & Leki, 2004).

Not all the students were influenced by their first language in this regard. From the sample, it emerged that there was an equal division between students who were affected and those who were not. Since they were in the same class, most of the influence occurred during discussions where some tried to discuss in English while others insisted on speaking Arabic. Some found it easier to add idea entries to their essay outlines in Arabic. Some of the participants also wrote ideas in Arabic then translated them into English. According to a few students, it was easier and faster to think, discuss and jot down ideas using their mother tongue. Note that when discussion involved the whole class and the teacher, this was conducted in English. Some of the students did not feel obliged to speak and generate ideas in English to improve their skills.

Some of the responses to the question included the following:

Not exactly. I sometimes write the idea and want to add something to it so I write the addition in Arabic because it is faster. But this is in my outline not my essay (student 2).

As Arabs, of course we think and discuss using Arabic but on paper we try to write in English but sometimes we need to have it in our language then translate it (student 3).

No. In English from A to Z (student 6).

No. If we are discussing as a group, some girls prefer to use Arabic but I and the other girls always try to discuss in English (student 8).

On analysing the information received during the interview, the researcher established that the students did not write a draft of the essay in Arabic first and conduct a translation in subsequent drafts. This showed that the students made an
attempt to create ideas in English and approach the other parts in the same way. The influence of the first language did not infiltrate the writing process at this point. It was interesting to recognise that the students indicated that using Arabic and then translating it into English made the process harder. Finding English equivalents of words in Arabic and maintaining flow during translation was difficult. For this reason, they even declared that they would advise their peers not to attempt to follow that path.

Some of the direct responses from the interviews are listed below:

*No. No. It will make it difficult. Arabic might interfere and sometimes it’s hard to make equivalencies* (student 1).

*No. This will make me forget the words and the flow of ideas will not be very good* (student 2).

*Never. And I advise my peers not to do it. It will distract your mind* (student 3).

*I never did it. Each language is different. Therefore, I think it’s wrong to make my mother tongue interfere if I’m writing in English* (student 8).

The ability of the students to give comprehensive details of the strategies required for different writing styles was also examined. Different writing styles demand specific strategies and the students were trained to use these strategies. For instance, in academic writing, a goal and objective should be formulated first depending on the topic. Then, research should be conducted from class notes and course books, and other sources such as the Internet, newspapers and articles can also be included. Logic should be established and an appropriate thesis statement created if needed. As noted by Alamargot et al. (2007), an assignment can proceed to the writing and revision stages in their respective order. However, some students omitted one or more of the strategies, especially those at the very beginning such as the establishment of the goal or objective. Students 6 and 7 stated that they had grown to depend on the discussion sessions with the teacher and peers in class before finally
writing a text. It was a means of validating their data and obtaining corrections and additional ideas. These two students prepared their own ideas and the discussion with the teacher and the whole class resulted in refining and adding to these ideas. The problem of acquiring credible Internet sources emerged in the responses, with student 2 mentioning Wikipedia as a source. Arguably, the authors of the posts in Wikipedia could be anyone. Unless references can all be verified, it is wiser to look for other more credible sites. Most of the students’ responses indicated this additional scrutiny of sources as part of their process. All of them were capable of handling an assignment based on the strategies they had presented. For instance, student 7 stated:

*We usually know the topic a few days before the class. The teacher posts the topic...* So I gather the information by looking at my notes, Internet or/and books. Make my outlines from the information gathered plus my ideas. *We discuss the topic in class. This discussion might change some of my ideas or add to them. Then I write.*

With short stories the procedure remained the same apart from researching credible sources. This was because short stories can be fictional and do not need to have verified facts. Therefore, an objective or goal is formed, ideas generated (one can research if necessary), an outline prepared, then writing and, finally, revision take place. Note that in the idea generation nature of a story (fictional or non-fictional), the storyline (problem and actions) as well as the characters are determined (student 3, 6, and 8).

Unlike an academic assignment, the interview analysis showed that the students’ knowledge was more comprehensive regarding this writing style (short stories). Some went to the extent of even highlighting the type they would prefer (e.g., romance or horror). The students’ responses in the interviews showed the ease with which they could handle short stories and that they had a reasonable amount of knowledge of the process and techniques of this type of writing. Only one section was
not mentioned by the students: the revision part. Some of their responses are included here to illustrate their approach to this writing style and the different strategies they followed:

*First I will decide the main goal of the story. Then actions, then characters, then I start writing ideas and organise them. The settings of the story is important as well. I decide the actions of the story before the characters* (student 1).

*I first think of a problem that shapes the actions of the story. I usually duplicate Walt Disney stories. And I change a bit to match our culture. I decide whether my story will be imaginative or a true story. I decide a problem and according to it I write bullet points of the actions then the characters of my story. I also decide when and where the story took place. I like to write horror stories* (student 2).

*The main idea comes first then I start writing the actions setting time and place then write. I decide the characters while writing. The ending and everything else remain in my mind* (student 5).

*I choose how to end it at the beginning, is it happy, sad or open ending. I think of the objective of it, is it horror, moral or entertainment. I decide the main actions of the story to choose the characters. I’m an imaginative person, that’s why I really enjoy writing stories* (student 7).

Finally, unlike the above writing styles, argumentative essays had a considerably lower response rate. Part of those who responded gave negative attitudes towards argumentative essays:

*I don’t like it because you need to meet people and ask them about their opinions and this needs a lot of time. People are busy* (student 4).

With some emphasising that they had challenges in relation to the style:

*Of course I have some difficulties for this writing style, in choosing the right vocabulary for instance. But I will not make it stop me from improving my writing. I’ll use this obstacle to be the reason of making me a good writer* (student 8).

Most of the respondents just recalled the procedure given by the teacher during the use of the integrated approach:
I will start by surveying people’s opinions about the themes of the essay. Then I’ll categorise their opinions as pros and cons. I’ll write them then criticise them and put down my point of view (student 3).

I take a sample of people to ask them about the argument but I need to choose that sample carefully so that they represent society. Then I categorise the opinions to pros and cons then I put down my ideas then I start writing by introducing the argument and relate it to society or culture, then one paragraph will be about pros, the other is about cons then I can add my opinions in between or have another paragraph for my opinions. Then conclude it (student 5).

Accordingly, the teacher blogs the topic or the issue a week before the writing lesson. So we start planning how to persuade the reader... Collect as many as I can of pros and cons with strong evidence. I add my own experience as well... We analyse the issue and then organise the responses we got. In this stage we’re not dealing with them as right or wrong, we put them with evidence then at the end we insert our opinion and the effects of the issue on people. Then conclude the essay (student 6).

The students’ responses above show sufficient capability in relation to a planning strategy, which goes hand in hand with the quantitative analysis presented in the previous chapter. One possible explanation for some students struggling with producing argumentative writing may be the effort needed to collect data from other parties, as mentioned in their interviews.

5.2.3.2 Revising strategies

Another aspect of the training received was a focus on revision. The students were trained to revise content to ensure that it contained accurate supporting details and evidence that would be accepted by the reader and relate to the main idea. They also revised sentence structure, accurate word choice and coherence. In addition, they revised the organisation of the essay.

Depending on the individual, there were some aspects of language that the students were careful about when revising. Hence, the researcher enquired about the
students’ revision strategies and how the writing strategies they employed affected their performance in creating a good essay. The following responses were given:

I revise everything. I start by looking at the ideas. Are they well organised? Cohesion, at the end I revise spelling (student 1).

After ideas, I look at spellings, missing words, sometimes I change some words that I feel I can use better words. Oh, I forgot, grammar is one of the things that I look at (student 2).

Grammar and spelling are the last things to think about, if you’re asking about them. I concentrate on the quality of ideas and the coherence and cohesion (student 6).

I check grammar, spelling errors and the information (is it true or not?). Then I revise the organisation of the ideas, are they connected in the paragraph? Next I check the flow between paragraphs (student 7).

After analysing the data obtained from the interviews (as in the samples above), it emerged that the students adopted similar behaviour during the revision stage. Interestingly, all of them started from a very basic stage (ideas), in which they checked logic and organisation. They then proceeded to check for spelling, word change/replacement, grammar and sentence structure, punctuation, validation of written information and, finally, checked for coherence and cohesion. The students indicated that the best method for checking work was to act as the reader and go through the work criticising everything and looking for errors. Some concentrated on the quality of the ideas and coherence and put grammar and spelling as being of least importance.

However, teacher and peer feedback is an essential part of revision (Miller, 2012). In this study, the researcher considered three methods of feedback: the teacher-student conference, comparing one’s essay with those of classmates, and considering teacher and peer feedback.

A teacher-student conference was held twice during the study. The aim of creating the conference was to provide an avenue for the teacher and students to have
a forum for gaining feedback and for additional consultation. It was imperative that the students viewed the exercise as an important part of their development and took the feedback from the conference seriously, which they did.

All the students agreed that the conference helped them to become better writers. It gave them an opportunity to expose and discuss their mistakes for the sake of improvement. It gave clarity to some students who were blaming themselves for having work that was of a lower standard compared to their classmates. For instance, one student who was in such a position was persuaded by the teacher that it was not wise to continue blaming herself for such situations, as everyone’s style of writing differed. Some of the students were helped to build confidence; the kind of confidence that would enable them to discuss their mistakes with their peers and teacher in an open debate and gain feedback to help them improve. Some were sad that they did not have the conference a lot more often. They expressed regret that they had only had the conference twice.

Although the conference was held twice, the impact it had on the students was evident from their comments and their teacher’s as well (see section 5.2). The students valued the opportunity to receive feedback about the mistakes they had made and solutions they had found. They also had a good opportunity to talk about their errors and this motivated them to care about their essays and consider all the aspects they had learnt to produce a good written piece, as clearly expressed in the comments below.

*It helped to build my confidence. I can talk about my mistakes and listen to others and try not to repeat their errors* (student 1).

*The activities done were helpful. We were not scared of our errors and we knew exactly how and what to revise. A very good method to avoid errors is to talk about them* (student 4).
We discussed, made a presentation of the errors, the good expressions, debates. Everyone was free to say what she wants. Very useful but unfortunately, we had it only twice. There was no time for it (student 8).

Comparing one’s writing with that of a classmate can have a number of intentions. Whereas some may be non-constructive, some students may actually use this opportunity to identify the errors they made during writing. It therefore had a positive impact whereby the students became more flexible about their errors, both in identifying and correcting their mistakes.

For those who checked and compared their work with that of their classmates, most of the reasons for doing so were in relation to the constructive nature of the comments. Student 2 pinpointed that the comparison resulted in discussions with classmates and ultimately led to identification of errors for each individual. In that way, according to the student, she learnt from her mistakes and those her friend made as well. Others also compared the ideas from other classmates to broaden their thinking. Most students compared their work when they prepared for the conference and the nomination of the three essays to be displayed or the one that would be published in the school journal.

Some of the responses concerning whether the students compared their own writing with that of their classmates are included below:

Not always. But if we have a teacher-student conference, we compare, discuss and do a lot of useful things to learn from our errors and our classmates’ errors as well (student 2).

Sometimes, when the teacher asked us to nominate three essays to display and one essay to publish in our journal (student 7).

Those who did not compare their writing explained that they felt satisfied with their work since they appreciated that everyone has a different point of view and writing style. Others attributed their lack of engagement in this collaborative task to
their decision to stay focused on the employment of appropriate revision strategies in their writing. Essentially, the main objective of giving feedback was to seek improvement in future essays and learn from others (Yang et al., 2006).

Analysis showed that the students took feedback into consideration. Most of them connected it to the learning process and, therefore, this gave it a crucial role, just as with the rest of the strategies that they had learnt. In some cases, a student would respect the opinion of the teacher since she had more experience and knew what was right. To highlight the seriousness of the matter for some, they took notes of verbal feedback to ensure nothing was omitted. In contrast with this, some took feedback but could not guarantee its use if they were not convinced that the feedback was fitting or they strongly felt that they had not made a mistake. One such incident occurred when the teacher asked the students to replace a whole sentence with one word. One student felt that the sentence expressed what she wanted to convey as opposed to just the one word:

*Sometimes I don’t like the teacher’s feedback especially when she wants me to replace a phrase or a sentence with one word only. I feel that my sentence expresses me more than one word* (student 6).

The teacher mentioned in her interview that they mostly accepted her feedback,

*…but sometimes students don’t follow what I told them. Like when I ask some of the students to rephrase a sentence or reduce it.*

In general, the students gave consideration to the feedback, thus giving it value and gaining the chance to improve their skills. The researcher concluded that the methods adopted by the students for the revision of written work were comprehensive.
5.2.4 The effect of the students’ awareness of meta-cognitive writing strategies on their writing performance

Improvement in writing is one of the main objectives of this study. To this effect, the researcher wanted to establish if the students had noted an impact in terms of their awareness of the meta-cognitive writing strategies in relation to their writing.

In their responses, the students mentioned several vital activities that had had an impact on their writing skills. Student 6 stressed the role of reading extra material in enhancing her ability to expand vocabulary as well as enriching her writing styles. The student claimed that the method helped in improving her planning and revising skills, which led to better essay writing. An addition to this came from student 4, who recommended the choice of interesting topics as a means of developing writing skills and addressing weaknesses. Three other students (students 2, 7 and 8) emphasised the role of practice in boosting their performance. This is consistent with the positive quantitative results extracted from the comparison between the experimental group pre-test and post-test presented in section 4.3.2. It was also reinforced in the students’ questionnaire replies to the “use of writing strategies” section as presented in chapter four (sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2). Rahimi and Katal (2012) and Taçman and Menteş (2010) assert the benefits EFL students gain from explicit instructions in student-centred practice. They also state its benefits in enhancing the teacher’s ability to guide students’ behaviour towards more effective learning.

According to students 4 and 6, teachers should demonstrate the writing strategies and the process of writing and subsequently allow students to have ample practice in these and give them room to learn (a dominant aspect of the process approach). In other words, the teacher’s role should not be that of controlling but of facilitating the learning process. As student 4 stated:
When teachers stop controlling our ideas...Thank God, this teacher helps us to be good writers. She taught us how to write and then she told us “you know now how to write different types of essays. Keep on practising. I cannot make you good writers. You can make yourself. Practice makes perfect.” And I think she’s right. She did her role and the rest is ours. We must work hard.

Notably, one of the responses received positively highlighted the need to shun old techniques and absorb what was taught in the new class context (the integrated approach). These responses provided encouraging evidence of the positive impact of the approach adopted in this research. The latter should be sustained in future research. The benefits of using the methods were explained by student 2, as shown in her response:

...maybe if they practise more, using the new way of writing like preparing and planning to write so they have their ideas before writing and depend on themselves not on the teacher to give them the ideas and words to use. Revise their ideas and if they fit in the context and are well-connected in the paragraph. I think this way improves many of my classmates’ writing and me as well.

The students indicated that the approach adopted had had a great impact on their writing ability. Some even claimed that they had transferred the strategies learnt to other languages; to be specific, their native language (Arabic), such as students 3 and 4.

Student 2 stated that before the commencement of the study she could not write a complete paragraph, let alone an essay. However, after the integrated approach and explicit strategy training adopted by the teacher, there was a positive trend towards learnability. Before the study, the student admitted to memorising what the teacher wrote just to pass exams. During the interview, the same student stated that she could now write several types of text with ease and confidence.

Other responses from the students on “whether the strategies used (planning and revising) improved their writing ability” were as follows:
Now I know the writing process. ... I learnt many things I wasn’t aware of. These things helped us all a lot to write well. Now I have self-confidence, enough to write about anything, even if I don’t have any information about it. I can search, ask, and prepare myself before the writing lesson (student 1).

Before these strategies, I did not know how to write a complete paragraph. I memorised them for the final test. It was the most difficult bit in the test. But now, it’s the easiest. I just worried that time might not be enough to write (student 2).

These strategies were pillars of writing. We didn’t know how to write before. We just memorised the teacher’s texts for the finals. Now it is completely different. We can write, express and criticise. Even the students who are not very good at English language realised a lot of changes in their learning abilities (student 4).

A lot...It increases self-confidence as well. I am 70% better, although, I still need to improve more (student 5).

From the above comments, it is evident that the impact the writing strategies had had on writing performance had been positive. The change in performance can be attributed to the framework provided by the integrated approach and the explicit teaching of meta-cognitive writing strategies in guiding the students in the writing process.

To test the reliability of such a claim, the researcher sought to assess whether the performance improvement noted during the experimental period would be sustained beyond the study, regardless of the teaching methods. The statistical results of the third questionnaire demonstrated a positive reflection of the students’ understanding of the integrated approach and their acquired command of the meta-cognitive writing strategies used in this study.

A unanimous response from the sample showed their recognition that the strategies had improved their writing performance. Furthermore, they described ways in which awareness contributed to the advancement of their skills. Some of the responses included the following:
Of course...I realised that by following these strategies, my errors are becoming less with time. I will continue using them even if the teacher has changed and the new teacher didn’t use this method. I like it, so I’ll use it (student 3).

Yes...It motivated me to learn more strategies when I realised how these simple pre-writing, while writing and after-writing strategies have changed my thinking of my abilities in the English language (student 5).

Student 3 stated that practice decreased errors with the use of this approach. She also indicated high acceptance and recognition of the role of meta-cognitive writing strategies in her performance. Finally, she showed the intention to sustain this approach beyond the presence of a specific teacher. The latter is a powerful shift towards autonomous learning (Cohen, 1998). The same was indicated by other interviewees:

Knowing how to write motivated me, I am confident while writing. I didn’t get to the level of confidence I am eager to, but I’m working on it. And my performance is 80% better...before these methods or strategies, the teacher used to give us a ready text then she highlighted some words that we were supposed to change with words written on the board. Then before the final test she gave us a paper with four texts to memorise since two of them would be in the final test. So we didn’t actually write (student 2).

If you ask me to rate the importance of strategy awareness from 1-5, I’ll choose 6 (student 8).

Evidently, the level of commitment from the responses assured the researcher that the students would be able to continue to use the methods they had been taught, even if the method was not taught by the teacher in the future. Based on the responses, the researcher posits that the rate of improvement could be sustained or even increased since all the interviewees liked the new methods used during the experiment. However, this cannot be assumed to apply to the whole class as this result was extracted only from eight students, whereas the rest (22 students) might have an opposing view and further extensive research should be conducted. Nevertheless, the
results of the recurrence usage of the writing strategies in post-questionnaire 2 (which was completed three months after returning to the old method of teaching), presented in section 4.3.2, were positive and support the conclusion that this integrated approach and explicit meta-cognitive strategy training had a significant impact on performance and behaviour.

5.2.5 Impact on attitude

In terms of the students’ attitudes, these were seen to have undergone a positive change, especially towards writing in English. Some of the students recounted the previous methods of teaching as falling short of what they expected and reflecting negatively on their attitude towards writing in English, which prevented them from improving this skill, even in private institutions. Hence, the students’ positive change of attitude towards writing in English reflects on their process of writing. For instance, the students believed that one cannot do any writing without having a defined goal. As a result, the students viewed the strategies as important elements in producing good writing. To that effect, termination of teaching using the integrated approach and reverting to the controlled composition approach was not expected to change this understanding and attitude towards writing. The findings from the students’ interviews support this.

Furthermore, the students gave individual explanations of some of the instructions given in class. Interestingly, the students had similar interpretations of the order of events that took place. According to the interview analysis conducted, the students did not have any negative reactions towards the methods the teacher used in class. Therefore, all the participants used positive expressions to describe this approach. For example, student 1 believed it “helps to build confidence”, student 2
said “it is very useful”, student 4 thought “The activities done are helpful” and student 8 said “We are motivated to learn more and practice more”.

The procedure was carried out in tandem with the writing strategies from the planning to the revision phase. From the interview analysis, it had been observed that the students disliked the previous method of teaching writing (controlled composition). The acceptability of the integrated approach can be attributed to its comprehensive and explicit nature, which gave the students a clear framework and room to participate actively in the writing process. The reason for this is that students need a clear process to follow and this should respect the needs of the students. Therefore, any strategy used by any participant was accepted as long as it served the main objective of the study (to consider ways to improve students’ writing performance in English). For instance, L1 is indeed an essential pedagogical tool which is used by EFL and ESL students, but it needs to be applied in a collaborative way so that L1 does not hinder L2 or vice versa (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001). Krapels (1990: 49) also believes that using L1 while writing in a second language is a “common strategy among L2 writers”, as discussed in the literature review (section 2.4). The students interviewed specified when and why they used their first language in an English writing lesson, as shown in their responses below:

Not exactly. I sometimes write the idea and want to add something to it so I write the addition in Arabic because it is faster. But this is in my outline not my essay (student 2).

No. Not all of my draft. I sometimes write some ideas in Arabic or some words then look them up in the dictionary. It saves time and helps me to generate ideas (student 4).

Not all the draft. Just some words or hints in my planning sheet (student 5)
An example of a comprehensive response that shows understanding of the writing process from an interviewee is shown below. The recollection of the steps is a manifestation of the understanding of the process required when one is writing.

At the beginning she writes the title on the board and tells us to write on a piece of paper five things that come to our minds about that theme. Then, she lets us discuss together as small groups, we then discuss as a whole class. Then she writes on the board “planning” so we turn to work individually to plan. Every student has her way of planning, we practised with the teacher last year how to use mind maps, bullet points, outlines. And everyone uses what she likes or feels is appropriate to her (student 1).

All indicated that the procedure of the instruction was helpful in the writing process. Analysis of this question showed that the students found it helpful because the procedure reduced the effort they would spend in writing; the interaction with other students during idea generation gave multiple points of view and added knowledge on how to approach different types of essays, thus improving writing skills. Some of the responses were as indicated below:

This method/procedure of writing makes our writing easy and we don’t feel tense like before (student 1).

I think this helps to have more ideas when planning. But the instructions change according to the essay. If we are to write an academic essay, we need to search first. And so on (student 2).

However, analysis of the following interview questions: “Do you think you’re a good writer?” and “Do you feel contented after you write anything?” showed that most of the students were not confident that their skills had reached the level of a good writer. In the sample, about 25% considered themselves to be good writers. The others considered themselves in between good and bad but were satisfied with the progress they were making. All of them were confident that they would become good with time. Some of them revealed their attitudes towards writing as the main contributor to this.
One specified that their dislike for writing and difficulty in conceiving ideas were the probable causes for not being a good writer. Some of the responses were as follows:

*No, and I’m responsible for that because I don’t like writing. The ideas do not come easily to me. It is easier to express myself orally* (student 1).

*I can’t say I am good but not bad. I’m in between…because, I find better writers than me in class who have more information, more creative ideas* (student 3).

*No…because I want to be better. And when I compare my writing with some of my classmates, I feel I can write better than I did. I am working on it* (student 5).

These responses highlight once again the gradual shift to taking responsibility for one’s learning, which is in line with Taçman and Menteş (2010), who recorded the effect of the student’s involvement in the learning process that facilitates autonomous learning.

Knowledge of the strategies and processes that they used formed part of the reason for some of the students feeling confident. Interest in and enthusiasm for learning something new was another driver of confidence in writing in English. Genuine love of expressing oneself in writing also emerged as a factor. However, if there was an examination, it caused panic for the students. Whilst still not fully confident, the students’ reflective account and self-awareness were significant in identifying strategies to sustain progress:

*No…I love writing because I feel it expresses my ideas, my knowledge. If it is in an exam, yes, I am scared to have spelling and structure mistakes then I’ll get bad marks* (student 3).

*No. I like writing. This adds enthusiasm to write and learn something new* (student 6).

This is in contrast with student 5’s response, who stated that she would be scared of writing

*if someone else will read it, yes. Because I am afraid it has some grammar mistakes.*
Student 2 also stated:

*Maybe, yes. I don’t want to write something and then I realise it is full of grammar mistakes. And in general, I don’t like writing even in Arabic* (student 2).

Analysis of the responses to whether they felt content after writing an essay indicated the students had some level of contentment with what they wrote. The level of contentment according to the analysis of this question was attributable to a combination of factors which were dependent on individual tasks as well as a personal assessment of skills at the time. The students claimed that they needed more practice to feel fully satisfied. In addition, the students felt content if they met the goals they set for themselves before writing and if their grammar was good.

Therefore, one can conclude that a shift in attitude towards writing was notable and, as indicated by the students themselves, could positively increase along with practice. A similar result was concluded from the teacher’s interview, in which she reported a positive increase in the students’ attitude and in herself, which reflected on their writing performance and her teaching methods alike (see section 5.2).

### 5.2.6 Impact on motivation

In an attempt to express the motivation they derived from the period of learning during this research, the students explained how the lessons had been difficult at the beginning of the new technique and how the use of the integrated approach had challenged and changed them.

Further into the research experiment, and at the time of the interviews with the students, which were conducted after eight months of being taught using the integrated approach, the students indicated that what had initially seemed hard was becoming clearer and easier as they continued and the strategies and methods learnt became
systematic. This is in line with Pearson and Dole (1987), who state that explicit strategy training leads to independent use of strategies. Cohen (1998) also states that explicit strategy instruction facilitates learning, as indicated in the literature review (sections 2.2 and 2.5).

All the students stated that they were happy and felt more motivated as a result of the explicit instruction contained in the integrated approach. Some of the responses about the most helpful or interesting elements of the writing lesson are reported below.

*It was difficult at the beginning because the teacher was giving us some American and British articles and short stories. We looked at them, analysed them, studied them then we learnt how to write like them by planning, searching and all the things we get used to. It was very difficult at the beginning but it helped a lot and now we do the strategies automatically* (student 2).

Whilst analysing an authentic text had been the greatest challenge for student 2, she admitted how helpful it became for her. Interestingly, all eight students interviewed stated planning as the most helpful aspect in the writing lesson:

*Planning. We learn how to organise our ideas, details, etc. While before using writing strategies, the teacher was doing everything. We just substituted words. That’s why we hated writing and were scared of it. Look we were asked to revise before but we just looked for spelling errors and capitalisation. We never revised ideas because we didn’t write our ideas. We copied the teacher’s ideas. But now we are aware of what should be done* (student 1).

*Everything like planning, the way of teaching, we know more ways to write and we have other considerations like our ideas, the reader. It becomes more interesting because each student writes her own way using her own ideas* (student 3).

*We are motivated to learn more and practise more. But not all of my desires have been met. We still need more and a lot of effort* (student 8).

All the students indicated that their teacher motivated them a great deal. Her oral and written positive messages and considering their essays by publishing them in the school journal and hanging them on the school hall also motivated them to write better, as illustrated by some of the responses below:
A supportive teacher. And a useful method that I can see its quick results in my writing. I know my writing is not perfect but 100% better than before (student 1).

Supportive tutor, positive messages from her. And when others may read our essays and criticise them (student 3).

The teacher motivated us and supported us to be good writers (student 4).

This brings this chapter to the analysis of the importance of teacher training and the changing role of the teacher. The next section examines the impact of the approach on the teacher involved.

5.3 Analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire

Each of the two groups in the study had a teacher: the experimental group teacher (teacher A) was trained by the researcher to use the integrated approach; the control group teacher (teacher B), on the other hand, used the controlled composition approach.

Both teachers were asked to complete a questionnaire (Appendix A) that consisted of four sections: “General Questions” to enable the researcher to have a clear idea about the teachers’ experience and training, students’ attitude towards writing as they observed it in class, the writing activities used in class, the number of drafts created and their rationale for revising a piece of writing; “Teacher-Assessment of Students’ English Writing Skills”; “Use of Writing Strategies” before, during and after writing. Sections two and three consisted of similar questions to those in the students’ questionnaire as they represent the heart of the study, which considers writing skills and strategies; and, finally, questions regarding the “Integrated Teaching Approach”.

The two teachers had taught English for 25 and 21 years, respectively. According to the data collected, neither of them had ever attended a writing course in any institution nor a workshop. Whilst the texts they taught the students were not
harmonised, the essays were common to both, although teacher A also taught creative writing, while teacher B preferred reports and letters in addition to essays.

On their assessment of the students’ English writing skills, the teachers gave different views on whether the students had a clear topic sentence in each paragraph. Teacher B was not confident of the ability of the whole group to do this. Teacher A’s students were better at the same task due to the implementation of the integrated approach in which students were trained to consider the topic sentences. Results obtained from the analysis of whether the students could organise their ideas, support and develop the main idea while writing a paragraph, and use an academic style and tone were positively reported by the experimental teacher for the experimental group due to the extensive training in the writing skills and meta-cognitive writing strategies imparted to the experimental group students for eight months. The responses showed that there was a gap between the writing skills imparted by the experimental group students and the control group students, which is supported in this chapter (section 5.1.2) and in chapter four (section 4.3.2 and Table 4.17), where the differences between the two groups were reported.

The students in the experimental group performed well on the use of vocabulary as stated in their teacher’s questionnaire. In line with other research (Lam, 2009; Martinez, 2005), the researcher attributed this outcome to the different tasks, such as referring to different resources other than their textbook, and gaining some academic vocabulary from researching and reading. Showing a similar trend to that previously established in the teacher’s interview section (5.2), students in the experimental group could use various sentence structures more effectively, as teacher A recorded a “usually true” response compared to teacher B who gave a “somewhat true” response to indicate the difficulty the control group students encountered. Self-
confidence and the ability to use different tones according to the context were also better in the experimental group that was taught using the integrated approach, as teacher A gave a “usually true” response in contrast to teacher B’s response (“usually not true”). Similar responses were obtained from both teachers for the following: using different styles of writing, such as explaining a process, making a comparison and showing cause and effect; linking the text to personal experience; supporting ideas by using different resources; and writing a good introduction and conclusion and revising for clarity and organisation. Teacher A’s responses to the above writing strategies of “usually true” supported the results obtained in this chapter from the students’ interview, the teacher’s interview and the statistical results in chapter four (4.3.2) that the experimental group students had been positively affected by the integrated approach. The control group teacher’s responses to the writing strategies section was negative, which indicated the need to include these writing strategies to encourage students to write well.

The “before writing” period was evaluated on the basis of different strategies as stated in the teachers’ questionnaire, such as reviewing task requirements and instructions, brainstorming, discussing with the teacher and peers, researching, and making notes and writing plans. It emerged from teacher A’s responses (“very often”) and those of teacher B (“sometimes” and “never”) that, on a comparative basis, the experimental group engaged more in these activities. The experimental group students also linked previous knowledge with new information, while the control group students were not free to write; they had guided words and ideas, as emerged from the responses to the control group teacher’s questionnaire (see the teachers’ questionnaire analysis in Appendix B).
In the actual writing process (formulation), the researcher considered the creation of an encouraging environment in which the students would be able to write, to which the experimental and control group teachers indicated in the questionnaire “very often” and “often”, respectively. This showed that both understood the importance of a suitable class environment in which students could write, but one of them, the experimental group teacher, put more emphasis on it. This was clear from the teacher’s interview section (5.2), and the students in their interview also mentioned the teachers’ care of the class environment to control external blocks and help students to keep writing (section 5.1.1). Other considerations during the writing process (see teachers’ questionnaire, Appendix A) included the use of background knowledge, rereading sentences and/or paragraphs to help in generating ideas, adjusting outlines, writing in the first language, editing content by using more academic vocabulary, organising ideas and clarifying them to meet readers’ expectations. Table 5.2 below shows the use of these activities by the two groups according to the teachers’ perspectives.

Table 5.2: Activities during writing in the experimental and control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity during writing</th>
<th>Teacher A</th>
<th>Teacher B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class environment</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of background knowledge</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reread sentences and paragraphs</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjust outlines</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of L1</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change the word choice</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reorganise ideas</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarify ideas to ease communication with the reader</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table above, the effect of the controlled composition approach in controlling the process of writing in class is reflected in the absent consideration of a range of activities performed during writing. This is also reinforced by the quantitative data presented in chapter four (the arithmetic mean for the control group
post-test was 17.466 and for the experimental group post-test this was 24.300). In contrast, the experimental group, as reflected in the teacher’s perspective, performed better during practice in class, which also reflected their writing performance as discussed in the quantitative results chapter (the arithmetic mean for the experimental group pre-test was 16.366; the post-test was 24.300). This outcome conforms with Sasaki (2000) and Wang (2008), who stress the positive effect of the activities used during (Table 5.2) and after writing (Table 5.3) on EFL writing performance.

In the after-writing period, according to the teachers, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the activities used, as shown in Table 5.3 below.

*Table 5.3: “After writing” activities for the experimental and control groups*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity after writing</th>
<th>Teacher A</th>
<th>Teacher B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Revise the content to clarify the ideas</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revise to improve organisation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revise to edit structure, spelling, vocabulary and punctuation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek peer feedback</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide feedback to peers</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make notes on the feedback</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm that the essay matches the objectives and goals set prior to writing</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm the essay meets readers’ expectations</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher can confidently attribute the difference to the use of the integrated approach, which emphasises the need to use all the activities in the writing process to achieve the best results. This happened due to the processes followed in the writing lesson, which motivated students to make revisions at the sentence level, paragraph level and while writing which would ease the process for students. The integrated approach motivated students to consider the readers and try to meet readers’ expectations by the use of the genre approach, which makes students seek feedback.
from the teacher and peers. For instance, the analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire, looking in particular at teacher A’s questionnaire (which is consistent with the teacher’s interview and students’ interviews), shows that the students revised their work, compared it with that of their classmates, engaged in discussions to obtain and understand feedback, evaluated each other’s work on a peer-to-peer level, and noted the feedback given. These activities were observed by the experimental teacher and, according to the analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire and the table above (5.3), showed that teacher B qualified the revising activities and the control group students focused on surface-level revisions. However, the students in the experimental group were evolving into autonomous learners when they asked for an explanation of their errors to help them improve and when they were given the chance to evaluate their peers they commenced with evaluating their essays (Cohen, 1998).

Teacher A’s responses to the questionnaire demonstrated her awareness of the integrated approach and its positive effect on her teaching, her attitude and her students. She observed that this approach had increased the quality of her instructions while teaching, modified her teaching style to that of a facilitator, shifted her focus while assessing essays from focusing only on structure to emphasising the quality of ideas in achieving the required goals, given her the opportunity to teach more writing styles which helped in discovering her students’ abilities, enhanced the students’ writing performance and motivated the students. She reported that explicit objectives had eased the process of writing for the students (see the teachers’ questionnaire and its analysis in Appendices A and B). All this information extracted from the teachers’ questionnaire analysis was emphasised by the experimental group teacher in the interview, as discussed earlier.
In contrast, teacher B did not recognise the value of using the integrated approach as deduced from her responses to the fourth section: “totally disagree” and “disagree”. However, she had read the experimental group’s essays and recognised the difference between the two groups. This was clear from her responses to the fourth section in the teachers’ questionnaire (“Integrated Teaching Approach”), where she disagreed regarding the effect of the approach on enhancing the teaching instructions in the writing lesson; modifying the teaching style to be a facilitator and monitor; focusing on other aspects of writing, such as the quality of ideas in achieving the required goals, not only mechanisms (spelling, grammar, punctuation); using different text types and genres; and offering students access to set goals, objectives and participate in the writing lesson. She also disagreed on the impact of the explicit teaching of the integrated approach on easing the process of writing for students. The findings stressed the need to implement training for teachers to help them understand how the integrated approach could create a different experience of teaching and learning and improve the performance of students. Further discussion on future research will be included in chapter seven.

Some research (e.g., Chacón, 2005; Kim, 2005) has shown a correlation between teachers’ beliefs and practices in class and negative or positive impacts on students’ learning, attitude and activities. Teachers’ beliefs and instructions provided to students have a direct impact on their learning and achievement (Scheerens & Bosker, 1997) and motivation (Brophy & Good, 1974; Good, 1981).

5.4 Teacher’s semi-structured interview analysis

One teacher was interviewed from the experimental group in the study (see the teacher’s interview guide in Appendix D.2). In preparation for the study, the researcher trained the teacher for three months on a one-to-one basis and other sessions were held
on Skype when needed and also for consultation purposes during the period of the experiment. Notably, the teacher had been teaching English for 25 years. The analysis of the interview resulted in identifying several themes that helped the researcher to understand the phenomenon under study. Themes included the following: the challenges of teaching writing in English to EFL students; the impact of the integrated approach and meta-cognitive writing strategies on the teacher; her teaching and her students’ motivation; the students’ attitude towards learning; and the abilities achieved by the students. The teacher was also asked to comment on the students’ responses in the students’ semi-structured interview.

5.4.1 Obstacles

The teacher indicated that the challenge in teaching writing came from the fact that the students do not like it. Compared with reading and speaking, students considered writing to be the most difficult skill and hard to master. Among the contributing factors she mentioned the fear of making spelling and grammatical errors. Another factor was the influence of the native language. To be specific, the response from the teacher showed that the students had problems formulating ideas in English since they think and converse in Arabic. Consequently, they try to translate ideas from Arabic into English. At this point, the teacher identified lack of motivation as another factor. She also stated that the high level of control in the teaching approach used in Saudi Arabia and in that school in particular had caused the students to become lazy in their thinking and creativity and their attitudes towards learning and their self-confidence had been very low for some time. This is evidenced in her statement below:

...students don’t like writing. They believe that writing is the most difficult skill and they will never master it. While speaking and reading are much easier for them.
Formulating the idea in English, is difficult. While monitoring, I saw some students write so many ideas in Arabic then they find difficulties when translating them into English. But I think one of the main reasons is lack of motivation. They get used to having everything ready, copy and paste method. They are so lazy to think and write. Their attitude towards learning is low. The education system here doesn’t give students enough space to think and become creative. So students become lazy to learn.

Another obstacle is that the writing styles used in classes by different teachers were not consistent. That is, for the same topic, one teacher might guide her students to write a letter while the other teacher might guide them to write an essay, depending on the teacher’s own purpose:

Also teachers use different types of compositions for the same grade and the same topic. Depending on the availability of the model text and what is easier to the teacher and goes with her personal aims.

This is in line with the analysis of the students’ pre-questionnaire 1, where the control group students’ type of texts written in class were different than the experimental group students’ texts (chapter 4, section 4.2.8.2)

The teacher also commented on some students’ “block” and how she was trying to ease this:

Mostly it is “time” but they were complaining about it at the beginning then they start to manage by preparing a good plan and in time, they start to be faster in generating ideas, organising and writing. Noise is also an issue in class which I try my best to avoid by sticking a note on the door (“do not disturb”) to stop knocking at the door.

5.4.2 Effect of the integrated approach on students

In terms of the students’ abilities, the teacher was asked to provide her perspective on whether the process of writing helped students to become good writers. The analysis revealed that the students had limited skills. They could summarise texts but, although they could paraphrase, they made a considerable number of errors. The
impact of the integrated approach on writing strategies was observed by the teacher, who stated that the students’ ability to write in different styles proved that they had succeeded in employing the writing strategies they were trained to use before, during and after writing:

*They are well prepared to write. They start by organising their ideas. Then they start writing the paragraphs. I can see the effect of this process in class (because they are excited) and in their performance (better compositions).*

Thus, the teacher claimed that the process motivated the students and increased their writing performance. The students understood that writing is a communicative process and they considered the reader by adding their own voice and experience in a way that would attract readers. It is worth noting that they also considered cultural norms:

*There were some superstitions that are inappropriate in Islam and in our culture as well. I try to instruct the students to think of the reader and whether their essay meets the reader’s expectations or not. Try to have beneficial output.*

Expounding on cultural norms, the teacher’s interview demonstrated what had also been mentioned in the students’ interview about this. As mentioned by the teacher, Saudis respect Islamic rules and strict social norms which place boundaries around some topics and restrict students’ freedom to express their ideas on these subjects (such as, writing a story that negates the oneness of God, writing about relationships with boys, etc.).

Goal-setting, according to the analysis of the question “Does setting goals for a writing topic help them to write? How?” was carried out by the teacher but, when the goals were not defined, a clear framework was given that would enable the students to set personal goals and use them in their writing. On the issue of the reader, the teacher explained that she puts emphasis on the readers’ expectations and asks the
students to consider this when writing, especially when writing essays. Fluency, according to the teacher, was slightly more important than accuracy. Although she noted that both were important, she insisted that a writer should be able to communicate and some errors could be overlooked if they did not hinder the clarity of the communication:

*Accuracy is important but it comes after fluency. But the written piece needs to be clear and understood.*

The teacher added the following regarding the students’ ability to develop a paragraph by adding details from their own experience:

*They are not relaxed. They still feel it is difficult. To tell the truth, this year, they are 70% better than before in their marks and compositions. The strategies used affect them a lot. Their attitude towards writing is better as well. Their recognition of the importance of the strategies leads them to be better writers and thinkers.*

This claim reinforces the positive correlation between the combination of the three approaches, the explicit use of meta-cognitive strategies imparted by the teacher and the observed improvement in the quality of the students’ performance and attitude towards writing. The teacher also correlated the positive impact of the study variables with students’ motivation and perceptions of the writing strategies, which was subsequently noticeable in their performance, as stated by the teacher:

*They realise how effective the writing is if they follow a specific strategy. They understand the importance of following a strategy to excel in what they ought to do and to shape their essays by addressing the topic, reader, norms and purpose. So they got better results.*

This supports research in strategy training that states that an explicit learning environment with explicit instructions provides effective and meaningful learning for students (Cohen 1998; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Mozzon-McPherson & Dantec, 2006).

The teacher indicated that, prior to the use of the integrated approach, the students had not been able to incorporate personal experiences and critical thinking
fully. She stipulated that since the introduction of the new approach they had shown
great improvement, which was also reflected in their writing essays and their marks,
as indicated in her response above: “they are 70% better than before in their marks
and compositions”. This reflects closely the progress the students indicated in their
responses, as reported in sections 5.1.2, 5.1.3 and 5.1.4 of this chapter and in sections
4.3.1, 4.3.2 and 4.3.3, Tables 4.14, 4.15, 4.17-21 and Figures 4.11, 4.12 and 4.15 in
chapter four. She pointed out that the students were no longer solely reliant on the
teacher and course book but had learnt to use other sources which enriched their
writing. From their writing styles, analysis revealed that the teacher could identify
students based on their essays, which indicated that the students could add their own
voice, experience and knowledge to their work. This was indicated by the teacher
below:

While reading the essays, I knew this is X. I can identify about 50% of my
students from their essays.

Literature on motivation (Bruning & Horn, 2000; Daniels et al., 2001;
Martinez, 2005) shows that the best students are also the most motivated. A realisation
emerged that the students had become more effective when they followed a specific
strategy. As an additional element to improve their abilities, the teacher identified pre-
writing activities as the most effective, which is in line with the finding in the students’
interview analysis in this chapter (section 5.1.3). This also had an impact on the
students’ self-confidence, attitude and motivation towards writing in English and had
produced a lasting effect on students’ ability to sustain a task however hard and
challenging. Students were motivated to discuss their ideas with the teacher and with
peers:

I also told them about international students’ failure in the IELTS and
TOEFL tests, especially in writing and reading. So they were motivated
to get the best from the lessons.
She also observed that external motivation played a key role, such as:

1. being assigned a different audience;
2. hanging good essays in the school hall;
3. publishing good essays in the school journal; and
4. speaking about their errors in the teacher-student conference.

The teacher reported that all these additional experiences had enthused the students to write:

\emph{I use verbal motivations. After writing I let them act it if it is a story. Make a presentation if it has good and useful information. Hang the nominated ones on the English board in the big hall in school. Publish one or two writing works in the school English journal.}

Overall, the students were motivated to “learn how to learn”, as strongly indicated by the teacher.

\subsection{5.4.3 Effect of the integrated approach on teacher and teaching}

The teacher admitted that her perception of the writing skill had been completely changed through the use of the integrated approach and she remarked on the effect this approach had had on her way of teaching and the understanding of her students:

\emph{I believed that writing is a gifted talent. Which a person could have it or not. And I was following the old method where we controlled the students by providing them with words and ideas and never let them try or help them to improve this skill. It was easier and does not take time but students did not learn anything out of it. This trial of the new approach teaches me as well, not only the students, to change my way of thinking about learning, writing and to discover my students’ abilities and encourage them to improve these abilities.}

It was clear from the teacher’s response that the integrated approach had shifted the teaching of writing from a teacher-centred practice to a student-centred one,
and had had a big effect on the teacher and students as described in detail below. This teaching method had had an impact on the teacher’s attitude towards the writing lesson, which changed her teaching process in accordance with the process of text creation. Therefore, the teacher’s instructions and preparation of the lesson are now different from before, where she was depending on the reading passage in the course book. After using the integrated approach, she enjoyed being a facilitator who encouraged and motivated students to be more independent. The teacher stated:

My teaching methods have changed a lot. Before using an integrated approach I hated the writing lesson but now I’m enthusiastic towards the writing lesson. And I started to enjoy correcting the essays...They follow the strategies automatically. This method helped my students to be more independent and create a new class context that consists of a number of teacher assistants because students start to do my role as a teacher and I enjoy monitoring them and helping them.

The combination of the three methods - process approach, genre approach and a focus on content approach – had helped to reshape the teacher’s perception of the writing skill and its requirements. These requirements include writing strategies (before, during and after writing), setting goals, communicating with the reader by producing respectable output and accurate facts, and writing as problem solving. As a result, the teacher’s role in class had shifted from being a controller to a facilitator; she posted explicit instructions before the writing lesson, guided the students to be more independent when writing by establishing writing process routines without controlling them by her own ideas, and encouraged the students to use different sources of information, among other techniques. This new class context created a number of “teachers” in the writing class. According to Oxford et al. (1990: 210), “strategy training can enhance both the process of language learning and the product of language learning”. They also state that “strategy training makes teachers more learner-oriented
and more aware of their students’ needs” (ibid). The same finding was depicted in the teacher’s responses above.

On another scale, the teacher’s instruction methods changed during the programme in accordance with the new perception of writing. Notably, the teacher indicated that the students could now write from scratch with about three drafts, as compared to substituting words in a text in the past. In teaching the students, revision was recommended as a part of writing, as well as part of the tasks to carry out when one has finished writing a text. When the texts reached the teacher, they were checked twice. The first time was to check the mechanism and language use, while the second entailed checking the content and organisation according to the writing rubric (see Appendix J). Therefore, having detailed writing criteria aided in providing reliable assessment of the written essays. Thus, the teacher’s method of assessing the essays changed and she was not only focusing on surface errors, but her own experience and background were having an impact on the essay-evaluation process:

My own experience, and particular background cannot reflect on my rating. It also decreased the amount of bias.

This was also reported by Weigle (2002: 72) as an important variable that can influence writing tests scores.

In terms of the texts used, in analysing the interview responses, the teacher admitted to not using authentic examples until she started the implementation of the integrated approach, when she was explicitly teaching the students how to use meta-cognitive writing strategies to write in different writing styles or genres.

For correction and feedback, the teacher-student conference, which was held only twice during the experiment due to time limitations, was considered an effective means of using feedback which contributed to avoiding the repetition of errors. She also stated the benefits of this conference for students’ attitude towards feedback. The
students had started to seek peer and teacher feedback and had also begun to avoid the mistakes they highlighted in their peers’ essays when providing feedback to their classmates. Consequently, they tried not to repeat their peers’ errors. During the conference, various rewards were given to the students. The teacher stated:

*The best thing about the teacher-student conference is when the students talk freely about their errors; they start to identify their own mistakes because they saw them in their classmates’ essays. So it helped them in many ways, for example they evaluate themselves, they look for feedback while before they were avoiding it and get embarrassed, it adds self-confidence to my students when they speak and debate their weaknesses and strengths.*

When asked about the writing styles she considered to be hard tasks for her students, the teacher noted that the students had a problem when it came to creative writing due to an inability to be creative. Then she digressed to admitting that they had made a good start during the research period:

*Creative writing. Because they need to use their special expressions, variety of words and other techniques entailed in creative writing. They started to write nice stories but they still need to be more creative. As a start, I think these are acceptable stories.*

Upon personal reflection of her attitude to assessment, she noted that she had had a negative attitude towards the writing lessons before the experiment, which was due to the teaching approach used (controlled composition) in which the teacher’s instructions do not give the students the opportunity to perform the writing task appropriately and be involved in the writing process (as stated by the teacher below).

The instructional method had changed with the integrated approach:

*Two years ago, I hated the writing lesson because it was boring for me and for my students as well. I tried many things with the other skills to make the lesson interesting but I did nothing to the writing lesson. After this implementation, I feel I did something very important, not only for the students but for myself. When I enter the class and see their desks full of their planning papers, when I see how excited they are, this has a great impact on me. No more passive students.*
In a comparison of the students before and after the study, the teacher’s interview revealed that the students had improved from the point of view of the teacher. The effort they had put forth was evident. Overall, the teacher appreciated the skills and the new methods for teaching that would help her in benefiting her students.

5.5 Written material analyses

Both groups had a pre-test, post-test and two written materials produced by the students during the study. The pre- and post-tests were timed (60 minutes each). The other writing topics, “Colours” and “Leadership”, were not timed but took two periods to write in the experimental group (60 minutes each) due to the application of the writing strategies; this took less than one period (30 minutes) for each topic in the control group due to the controlled instructions the written lesson undertook, as will be discussed in the class observation section (5.5).

5.5.1 Pre-test analysis

In the pre-test the two groups were equal in terms of their performance. The instructions allowed the students to choose one of the topics provided: the first was “Theme Park” and the second was free composition. All the students in both groups wrote about the first topic and the researcher attributed this to their lack of creativity in writing and self-confidence, as they simply gave a summary of the reading passage in their textbook (see Appendices K and L). A copy of a control group student’s text is provided below as an example in Figure 5.2.
Figure 5.2: An example of a pre-test from the control group
A copy of an experimental group student’s text is shown below in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: An example of a pre-test for the experimental group
The pre-test analysis showed that all 60 students in the control and experimental groups wrote on the same topic and the same text, they wrote in brief and did not try to develop their writing by adding details to link the written text to their personal experience; they did not express their opinions or consider the audience. It was noted that the teachers focused on the accuracy of the essays and not the cohesion, fluency and flow. Although they just focused on accuracy, some structural mistakes were not noticed (see Figure 5.2), which demonstrates that the assessment criteria were vague. It is worth noting that the assessment followed very simple writing criteria, as mentioned by the experimental teacher in her interview (*a quarter for every four spelling mistakes, half a mark for each two grammar mistakes and consider the number of ideas*).

The students’ ideas based on the theme were not very clear, the texts were quite short and contained repeated ideas. Feedback was not provided by the teacher in either the control or the experimental group. When compared with the reading passage in their course book, the researcher noticed that students were replicating the same ideas. A copy of the reading passage is provided in Figure 5.4.
This week, in our series on the world’s most famous theme parks, we are visiting The Window of the World theme park in Shenzhen, China.

This certainly is a theme park with a difference. The Window of the World contains over 130 replicas of the most famous natural and man-made sites in the world, all squeezed onto about 480,000 square metres. Some of the replicas are the actual size of the sites while others are smaller. In one afternoon, you can visit the Eiffel Tower, walk around the Grand Canyon and marvel at the Egyptian Pyramids. The Acropolis is here along with Niagara Falls.

“We want visitors to see and experience places and cultures they may not be able to actually get to in person. Not everyone can visit every famous landmark in the world in one lifetime and that is why this park is attractive to many visitors, both Chinese nationals and foreigners,” commented Mr Chiu, one of the managers.

The Window of the World theme park combines both fun and education. There are regular exhibitions about famous people in history, and the park often holds festivals which focus on different countries and cultural themes. Visitors also have the opportunity to try out food from all over the world in one of the many restaurants.

‘This week we are holding Indian Week,’ explained one of the organisers. ‘Visitors can learn all about Indian culture, customs and traditions. We are offering Indian food all week and there is also a special exhibition on famous Indians in history.’

Visitors to the park not only have the opportunity to see many famous sites and learn a lot about different world cultures, but they also have the chance to take part in many adventure trips in the park.

“We are waiting to go down the Colorado River by boat and some friends of ours are skiing in the Alpine Ski Resort,” said one visitor. “We actually come from Shenzhen and we think this park is a great benefit for our region. We will probably never be able to visit all of these places ourselves, so it is really interesting for us. Some friends of ours are visiting us next week from the USA and we are going to bring them to see the park, too.”

In this theme park it really is a ‘small world’!

Figure 5.4: The reading passage from the course book
5.5.2 Post-test analysis and written materials analysis

The post-test instruction specified writing about one topic identified by the teachers: “Success”. The researcher combined the analysis of the post-test and the two written pieces of material done during the study, “Colours” and “Leadership”, because she found similarities in the students’ writing performance. The researcher used a writing rubric (Appendix J) to examine the texts. This rubric consists of six elements:

1. “Main Idea”, which identifies clear and focused ideas and the student’s understanding of the task in hand;
2. “Content”, which considers accurate details that are linked to the main idea and meet the reader’s needs;
3. “Organisation” of the text, which involves an introduction, body, conclusion and the use of transition words;
4. the writer’s “Voice”, which addresses the reader’s needs;
5. “Language Use”, which emphasises the use of various and accurate vocabularies, form and structure of the sentences and coherence of the essay; and
6. “Mechanics”, which looks at the punctuation, spelling and grammar in the text.

In the post-test, the experimental group students had a variety of writing styles: academic, argumentative and short stories. The texts were detailed and had a defined purpose, for example, the “Success” essay about Tomas Edison (see Figure 5.5), where the student’s purpose was to show the reader that working hard leads to success. A similar idea was used on the same topic in the short story about “Mark”, where the student’s purpose was to demonstrate that failure can also lead to success (see Appendix P). Any evidence used in the writing was relevant and related to the main idea by using real successful people in the essay (Figure 5.5).
Success is what everyone dreams of. But you have to work hard and push yourself to achieve your goals and to be successful. In 1847, a great man was born. He was an example of success and persistence. He is the one who set the world on fire with his intelligence and passion. He didn’t stop trying and proved to all who looked at him humbly that he can do what they said he can’t.

He worked hard to be someone special and unlike the others. He wanted to prove that he can do something great. And with his passion, he achieved his goals and used his brain for a great idea. And his idea was to light the world, and because of this great idea, he became an amazing inventor. His idea served the world until now.

He pushed himself and his mother said to him "you’re better than them."

Edison began his career as an inventor in Newark, New Jersey, but the automatic repeater and his other improved telegraphic devices. He has invented the incandescent light bulb, Phonograph Carbon microphone, movie camera, Photographic, Electric power distribution and micrograph. With his persistence, he achieved so many things. Everybody spread the news to the world with his inventions.

He improved the time length of the light bulb to 1300 hours, and after he succeeded, lots of messages saying "come light our cities". They were very pleased with his great invention that served the world.

He used to focus on Chemistry, books and old successful people, and he was inspired by them. With his high education, he used all the information he knew. And all the...
The introductions were attractive and the conclusions logical. Vocabulary use and variation in sentence structure and coherence were noted. For example, in “A Gift that Changes my Life” (Figure 5.6), the writer (a student) used attractive expressions to describe the leader. There were some grammatical errors in the post-test but in the two written materials the students seem to have control of spelling, punctuation and grammar errors. They met the reader’s expectations and needs. A sample of the experimental group post-tests can be found in Appendix P.
A Gift That Changes my Life

A gift is any special ability that is given to people by God. Different people have different gifts that play an important role when it comes to changing their fortunes in life. Leadership is a gift, which changes my life. The ability to guide people through challenging situations gives me perfect satisfaction in life.

Leadership refers to a situation in which one is skilled to have a good level of social influence. The person with the gift of leadership can have the support of other people and guide them to achieve their goal. Actually, leadership did not refer to a person’s wealth or position. Leadership is an attitude that has a lot to do with a person’s mind.

As a leader, it is necessary to be polite and avoid using foul language as much as possible. In addition to avoiding the use of bad language, effective leaders use the language of passion, which increase the feeling of love among people.

In addition to that, excellent leaders should be able to understand the situation affecting people. This enables the leader to come up with a good solution due to the personal experience of the situation. Confidence is another important quality of a leader because it helps in encouraging people during difficult times. Furthermore, a gifted leader has to be both wise and well-organized. Moreover, the leader has to be intelligent in order to come up with creative solutions even when faced with great challenges. Finally, leaders are understanding persons who try to help other people’s best aspects.

Gifted leaders do an excellent job in guiding people under many circumstances. The qualities include confidence, wisdom, patience and commitment. They seek the truth before arriving at their conclusions. Such leaders own special communication skills and can do helpful discussions through listening to people.

Figure 5.6: Experimental group text on “A Gift that Changes My Life”
Notably, the post-test results as discussed in the quantitative chapter came eight months into the use of the integrated approach. Since there was no change in the control group, the test showed the same results as those obtained during the pre-test period (see chapter four: arithmetic mean = 17.466; standard deviation = 1.870). A sample of the control group post-test can be seen in Appendix O and a copy of one of the texts is provided below in Figure 5.7.

![Figure 5.7: Control group post-test: “Success”](image)

The “Leadership” essay that was written by the control group students does not show any improvement in the students’ writing skill, as it was controlled by the teacher. This can be seen from the instructions provided on the sheet of paper in Figure 5.8.
During the implementation of the study, both groups of students were given three essays titles as part of their textbook lessons: “Colours”, “Leadership” and “Success”. The essay on “Success” was given as a post-test for the two groups due to the time limitation, as the students needed to prepare for their other examinations and additional subjects. The analyses of these written texts showed a similar performance of the control group to that of the post-test (a sample of the control group written materials is in Appendix M). Unlike the pre-test for the experimental group, where the post-test and the other two essays showed different improvements (see Appendix P for the post-test and Appendix N for the written materials for the experimental group). First, the styles used in writing were varied. There were short stories, and
argumentative and descriptive texts. Notably, the students made at least two drafts of the two essays.

Figure 5.9: Experimental group text: “Colours”
In addition to the above, the writer could occasionally be traced in the paper through personal experience and points of view (see Appendix P for an example of the experimental group text “Success”). Engagement of the audience was achieved by most of the students (see the highlighted parts in Appendix P in the experimental group text “Success”). Coherence, fluency and flow were demonstrated. The texts showed the students had gained adequate control of mechanics and spelling, and grammar as well as punctuation errors were minimised. In all the writing styles used, the students used appropriate writing skills and tone and met the expectations of the reader (this can be seen in the essays in Appendices P and N). For instance, in the short stories, an appropriate setting was provided, as shown in Figure 5.9, (e.g., “Once upon a time in a village far, far away”) and in the short story about “Mark” in Appendix P some narrative techniques were used and characters were clearly identified (e.g., “Mark had been a very promising student” in Appendix P, and “there was a witch, a clever wise one” in Figure 5.9). Argumentative writing contained a valid and clear claim from the students (see Appendix P for the experimental group text “Success”). In addition, the use of metaphors and similes is an important part of the Arabic language, in which it is rich, so the students did not find it difficult to use them in their essays.

There was a significant difference between the experimental group before and during the study, and between the experimental group and the control group, as the post-tests showed marked improvement from the experimental group students in 11 months of using the integrated approach. Consistency was manifested in the similarity between the three essays written and used in this analysis. A sample of the written materials, the pre-tests and post-tests for both groups, can be found in Appendices K, L, M, N, O and P.
The qualitative data analysis provided deep understanding of how the integrated approach to teaching writing affected the participants of this study. Positive effect on the teacher, students’ behaviours, students’ achievements and activities were observed.

The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis process can be transformed into applicable guidelines, conclusions and recommendations. These will be presented in the next chapter.
Chapter Six: Discussion and Interpretation of the Findings

6.1 Introduction

The findings of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis on the effect of an integrated approach on the teaching of writing on secondary students’ writing performance, their approaches and perceptions of writing were described in chapters four and five. In this chapter, an interpretation and discussion of these findings is presented, first in relation to the research questions and subsequently to current research studies and literature.

The purpose of this research study was to explore whether there was an improvement in students’ writing performance after the implementation of an integrated approach with the use of planning and revising strategies and to measure the extent of the improvement via quantitative and qualitative research instruments.

The discussion of the findings has been organised around the three research questions:

1. How effective is the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?
2. What changes could be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?
3. What differences in approaches and conceptualisations of writing could be observed in students exposed to the integrated approach?
6.2 How effective is the use of an integrated approach to teaching writing for secondary learners of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia?

The study found that the integrated approach had a significant effect on the teaching of writing skills for the Saudi secondary school students of English as a foreign language.

When calculating the significance of the difference between the averages of the experimental group pre-period and post-period in the relative variables (self-assessment of the writing skills; writing strategies before, during and after writing; and general writing strategies), the results demonstrated the converging performance of the students where the margin decreased between the top student and the lowest. This result demonstrates a positive effect of the integrated approach on the teaching of writing (see Table 4.15). It is clear from figures in chapter four (Figures 4.6 to 4.10) that the level of the top student in the pre-period met that of the lowest student in the post-period. As shown below, before the implementation of the integrated approach, the top student’s level was 100 according to the differences between averages for the experimental group (pre-period and post-period) for the relative variables. This later increased to 190. The lowest student prior to the study was at 25, which increased after the study to 95 almost meeting the previous level of the top student. This indicates an improvement in the students’ performance (see Figures 6.1 and 6.2).
In more detail, self-assessment of English writing skills showed the highest effect from the integrated approach, which indicates that students had increased their awareness of their abilities, strengths and weaknesses and, in turn, this awareness indicated self-efficacy in personal reflection obtained from the integrated teaching approach. This also confirms the effect of a specific, explicit teaching approach on second language learning. The latter consolidates findings from previous research in the field (Kuhn, 2000; Zelazo & Frye, 1998) and expands it through the use of this innovative integrated approach. The data indicate that the use of an effective combination of teaching approaches helps students to plan their own learning and learn to evaluate their work. However, this does not correlate with the qualitative findings collected through the interviews with the experimental group students and their teacher. In the interviews, all the students emphasised the great effect of the integrated approach on the planning stage. According to the statistical results, however, this area
was the least affected. From the interview and the second section (self-assessment of writing skills) of the students’ questionnaire, it could be seen that the level of self-evaluation had increased and the students’ awareness of their weaknesses can be interpreted as a positive aspect of learning and as a strength of the use of the integrated approach. This is because the students’ identification of their weaknesses created an opportunity to share the same goal as their teacher of strengthening these weaknesses. Their awareness thus had an impact on the teaching of writing as a meaningful experience for the teacher as well, as commented upon by their teacher (teacher A) in her interview. Using this approach, teachers can employ the best of the approaches and strategies to facilitate learning and add reliable objectives and goals for writing. The awareness of one’s weaknesses and strengths is classified as a meta-cognitive strategy (Baker & Brown, 1984; Flavell, 1985). This is consistent with Hatano and Inagaki’s work (1986), which states that this type of meta-cognitive thinking improves students’ learning and encourages them to perform better. Recognising one’s limitation of knowledge is a key element in identifying a way to expand knowledge (Bransford et al., 2000: 67). Students’ awareness of the strategies in this study indicates an impact of the approach on teaching which can be seen in their writing performance. According to Rose (1998), if students are deficient in their awareness of possible strategies, they will not be able to understand the approaches of the teacher and it will be difficult for them to attain the intended skills by the approaches followed. This was the rationale for integrating meta-cognitive strategy training with the combination of teaching writing approaches.

The experimental group students compared the new teaching approach with the controlled composition technique used previously and articulated the effect of the former on their writing performance in general and in generating ideas in particular,
as they wrote about interesting topics and searched to solve problems in order to communicate with certain audiences. As seen in chapter five, the findings are highly supportive of this approach and are confirmed both by the qualitative instruments used (e.g., the students’ interviews, the teacher’s interview and questionnaire, class observations and the written materials produced by the students), the quantitative instruments (post-test marks and students’ post-1 and post-2 questionnaires) and the quality of their performance. The findings support Elbow’s (2010) argument that an exploratory kind of writing helps writers to develop interesting ideas and can help to solve the difficulty of idea generation. Integrating Elbow’s argument with the findings from this study, it can safely be suggested that an integrated approach to the teaching of writing skills for secondary learners of EFL in Saudi Arabia should be based on explicit learner-teacher communication and the development of meta-cognitive strategies and combine a range of approaches such as process, genre and content.

The students in this study became aware of the process of writing. This is clear from their responses to the interview questions, where they decided that writing was harder than reading and they then listed in some detail the difficult parts of writing. The students’ detailed identification of these parts showed a greater understanding of language-learning processes, and the benefit of explicit teaching of the meta-cognitive strategies was reflected in the students’ clear articulation of the process of writing which they had not been able to identify before (as indicated in the students’ interview, section 5.1). This supports Cooper and McIntyre’s (1996) claim that effective teaching reflects on students’ knowledge.

The effect of the integrated approach on teaching can also be extracted from the general questions in the students’ questionnaire. When looking at the activities in which students engaged when producing a piece of writing (question 5 in the general
questions in the students’ questionnaire, Appendix C), the experimental group students’ improvement in the use of the activities was obvious. Likewise, in their interviews, this development also emerged clearly when they named these activities and acknowledged the processes of writing, which demonstrates that the benefits of explicit teaching and teaching instructions during the writing lesson led to improvement in the writing processes for this group of students as well as in their knowledge (see Table 4.23 and Figure 4.12).

The tendency to write a number of drafts in the experimental group (2-4 drafts) meant that teacher and peer feedback had been considered by these students, which added a positive effect to the teaching using this method (see Table 4.24 and Figure 4.14). Before this approach was implemented, students did not receive or provide feedback for any written piece. Feedback is interpreted as seeking better writing performance, in line with Boice (1997), Maimon et al. (1981) and Rose (1980). As indicated by Roe et al. (2010), writing multiple drafts facilitates the revision phase and this is part of a successful teaching method for writing. In support of this view, Gallagher-Brett (2001: 58) argues that “if a handful of useful phrases are made available to learners, learners will take advantage of them.

Question 7 in the general questions in the students’ questionnaire (see Appendix C) shows the impact of the new approach of teaching by identifying that revision is part of the writing process and includes various goals, not just one goal restricted to correcting grammatical and mechanics errors as was done prior to the implementation of the integrated approach. These goals range from revising to improve clarity and style, developing the texts’ content, rearranging ideas, correcting mistakes and reducing length, if necessary. The students’ focus in the control group was on error correction (100% as seen in Figure 4.15), while in the
experimental group students’ revisions were in all the six areas mentioned in the questionnaire and listed above. The researcher further found that on “clarity improvement” the students in both groups were the same but, in the post-period, the experimental group improved clarity by 58%, which is an indication of the consideration they gave to the reader as well as the improvement they had made in their style and content. It can be deduced from these results that the students wanted to satisfy the reader.

Geiser and Studley (2001) state that the ability of students to produce adequate written texts plays an important role in determining individuals’ success both in school and in the workplace. They further suggest that writing proficiency has not been given much attention by educational stakeholders. The findings of this research further support those of Hinkel (2004) that the writing proficiency of L2 English learners lies in the extent to which they understand the nature of writing in English as a second language; their understanding is about the attainment of sufficient L2 linguistic proficiency. Regarding linguistic proficiency in English for EFL learners, Hinkel (2004) explains that proficiency helps someone to understand conversations and discourse exercises and that this increases vocabulary. The findings for the control group in this study for “developing content” decreased from 23.33% to 20% compared to an improvement from 13.3% to 61.3% in the experimental group, demonstrating the impact of the integrated approach on the students’ understanding of the nature of writing in English. This also indicates a positive correlation between the integrated approach and the writing proficiency of the students.

All the above practices are student activities that reflect the effect that the integrated approach had on the teaching that had a direct effect on the students’ learning context in class. The integrated approach shifted the teaching method to being...
more student-centred and the process of the new teaching approach in the writing lesson altered the teacher’s role to that of facilitator and monitor. This is related to the way lessons are structured in a student-centred integrated approach. This starts by brainstorming, discussing goals and objectives, stimulating students to generate ideas, developing these ideas and outlining them. In contrast, in the old method, teachers started the writing lesson by revising a reading passage, writing some guiding words and specifying these words for each paragraph. Then students started to write according to the teacher’s and the textbook’s guidance, with some amendments in word choice according to the teacher’s suggestions on the board. Hence, in the new approach, the instructions of the writing lesson changed in accordance with the practices and tasks required by the new approach. The student-centred approach also emerged clearly as one of the most effective ways of instructing students on improving their writing skills. The findings agree with McMullen (2009), who observed that nine meta-cognitive student-centred-based strategies, including direct orientation, self-management, advance organisers and self-evaluation, were key to improving students’ writing skills.

The teacher stated in the interview that her perception of the writing skill had changed. She originally had the perspective of writing as a talent, which one either possessed or not. That was one reason which hindered her from trying to enhance her students’ writing skills in addition to the use of a traditional approach to teaching writing. However, implementing the integrated approach had given her the chance to review this perception and discover her students’ abilities. She also acknowledged that changes in her teaching methods, in the assessment criteria through using a detailed rubric (see Appendix J) and in her own perception of writing skills can be attributed to the integrated approach.
The different stages of writing entailed the students’ contribution and their continuous work on their essays made them aware of their errors and the need to seek feedback that would enhance their essays. This is in line with Pritchard and Honeycutt (2006), who claim that when teachers facilitate the learning process in a writing class, this is reflected in the students’ development of their writing skills. Hinkel (2004) states that ESL teachers embrace the significance of writing in language development and, as they seek to impart effective writing skills to ESL learners, they need to choose effective instructional methods and strategies. The findings from this study propose the integrated approach as a highly appropriate and effective approach and highlight the need for explicit strategy training for EFL students and teachers.

6.3 What changes could be observed in students’ writing as a result of their exposure to the integrated approach?

This research question sought to establish the effectiveness of the integrated approach and, in particular, the explicit teaching of meta-cognitive writing strategies in students’ writing as the question was linked with the relative variables in the study. These variables include self-assessment of English skills, use of writing strategies before, during and after writing, and general learning strategies.

According to the quantitative data analysis, the equivalence between the two groups in the number of years of English study; academic achievement; self-assessment of English writing skills; use of writing strategies before, during and after writing; general learning strategies; students’ attendance of any writing course in English; types of texts written in English classes; number of drafts written; and their attitude towards writing in English was proved statistically (see Tables 4.10 to 4.13). This result suggests that any writing improvement in the experimental group students’
writing can be attributed to the independent and relative variables, as these were the only changes made in their classes. The groups were equivalent in the number of years of English language study, academic achievement, their assessment of their own writing skills, writing strategies and their general learning strategies. They were also equivalent in the general data that the researcher believed might influence the results, such as courses attended to enhance their English language in general or their writing in particular, the types of texts they had previously practised in their writing classes and their attitude towards writing in English.

When comparing the experimental group students’ pre-test and post-test marks and the experimental and control groups’ post-test marks, the researcher found that the experimental group students’ academic achievement had been enhanced (as shown in Table 4.16 and Figure 4.11). In contrast, the control group’s level of achievement had remained the same. The qualitative analysis of the pre- and post-tests provided reliable evidence of the differences between the two groups’ written essays and specified the reasons behind this enhancement of the experimental group according to the criteria followed in assessing the essays (see Appendix J). These criteria focused on various elements in the text: a clear and focused main idea, the content having accurate evidence and/or supporting details that are related to the main idea, organisation, writer’s voice, considers target audience expectations, good language use and mechanics. When comparing the two groups’ essays (the post-tests and two other essays), a noticeable shift had happened for the experimental group students. By looking at their essays (samples of which can be found in Appendices N and P), the first aspect that caught the researcher’s attention was the difference in writing styles (where there were short stories, academic and argumentative essays about the same topic), length, word choice and the flow of ideas. In addition, when
reading the content of the essays, they generally contained reasonable supporting
details that were related to the main idea, although some essays lacked the writer’s
voice and own experience. This deficiency can be attributed to the students’ level of
English, which can hinder voice and experience from emerging in the writing process.
Integrating the writer’s voice is relevant to the expressivist model that is part of the
process approach, as indicated by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and Tribble (1996).
If a student’s English level did not allow her to express herself fluently, it would have
been hard for her to insert her voice or experience within the written piece.
Nevertheless, the essays were, mostly, well written, displayed different ideas, looked
at the same topic from different perspectives and were attractive when compared to
those of the control group, whose texts were all the same but with different
handwriting (see Appendix O). The researcher attributes this positive change in the
quality of students’ essays to the implementation of the integrated approach, as it was
the only variable applied to the students. In accordance with this, den Brok et al. (2002)
recorded improvement in students’ writing as a result of the student-centred approach;
Abdul-Rahman (2011) and Mullins (1992) reported improvement in their studies in
response to the use of the writing strategies used; while Badger and White (2000)
attributed the improvement in their students’ writing to the integration of the process
and genre approaches. The achievements of the Saudi students in this study are in line
with the current research.

The analysis of the students’ interviews showed their awareness of having
unacceptable and inaccurate content. Their awareness enhanced their critical thinking,
as it led them to self-evaluate the ideas included in their essays. This supports Liaw’s
(2007) findings, where the content-based approach was used and visible
improvements in the students’ critical thinking abilities were recorded. In this study,
the students also stated that this approach had helped them to synthesise an essay from collected information by paraphrasing the material and adding their own knowledge and experience. According to Kroll (1990), this is related to the teacher’s strategy in teaching, which points to the integrated approach used in the writing lesson of this research investigation.

The greatest shift was that students had the chance to write using different genres, were free to add their own ideas, experience and objectives, use different sources and, most of all, they were free to write in their preferred writing style. This supports Tribble’s view (1996) that practising different genres helps develop the learning process by integrating written content and language. The same finding was reported by Wingate (2012), who noted that writing using various genres stimulates students’ understanding of writing requirements and thus produces better and more focused content.

In the interview, the students strongly indicated the benefits they had gained from the new teaching approach, whereby they set goals and followed a process that gave them space to add their personal goals and experiences and taught them how to be critical by evaluating the information collected and ensure its relevance to the main idea. It has been stated by Al-Hazmi (2006), Davidson and Dunham (1997) and Liaw (2007) that writing as a problem-solving exercise increases students’ critical thinking ability. The data above support such a claim.

In addition, the nature of the activities undertaken by the experimental group students before, during and after writing, as indicated by their teacher in the questionnaire and interview, changed to become more student-centred, interactive and collaborative. The students got involved in the learning process, which contributed to
their increased autonomy and self-confidence. This finding is similar to that reported by Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman (2012).

As noted in the literature review, Hyland (2003: 134) states that “writers need to gain control of five areas of writing knowledge to create effective texts”: content knowledge, system and language knowledge, process knowledge, genre knowledge (communicative purpose and rhetorical structure) and context knowledge (the reader’s expectations). This framed the employment in this study of the integrated approach coupled with the use of meta-cognitive writing strategies, as well as the three writing styles selected.

This research illustrates a significant shift and substantial changes in the Saudi secondary students’ writing skills. For example, the data in the students’ questionnaire, class observations, interviews and the analysis of the written materials showed improvement in the students’ behaviour and performance. The researcher noted a tangible effect of the independent and relative variables of the study, such as the use of the integrated approach producing better and more focused written pieces, and the employment of meta-cognitive strategies leading to more confident writers and more autonomous, self-aware learners.

6.4 What differences in approaches and conceptualisations of writing could be observed in students exposed to the integrated approach?

The researcher used an approach that integrates three writing approaches (process, genre and focus on content) and used three writing styles (academic, argumentative and creative) to avoid any narrow scope in the students’ writing and to allow students enough space and freedom to be imaginative. By practising to write according to specified processes, writing becomes a problem-solving task that helps
to communicate with identified audiences and considers their needs and the accuracy of the details provided. The greatest difference is that whilst students before the study were only substituting words in a model essay provided in their course books and tried to modify it according to the vocabulary and ideas given by the teacher, in this study, they wrote a complete essay without interference from the teacher’s ideas and the provision of vocabulary to insert into the text. They wrote it independently, starting from setting their goals to editing the final draft. Students in the experimental group were confident in speaking about their weaknesses and they were also able to list the stages in the process of writing and how they started and could explain everything in detail. They listed the strategies they used for each type of writing and mentioned the aspects they found difficult in each. For example, they mentioned that searching for other studies was a difficult aspect of academic writing and asking people for their opinions was time-consuming when they were involved in argumentative writing. It is also worth noting that the students’ ability to talk about how to write academic, argumentative and short stories was an improved factor in the Saudi students’ approaches and conceptualisations of writing.

The class observations showed a clear overview of the learning setting and supported the identification of these differences between the two groups. The use of multiple materials and tasks instead of just the course book and targeting a larger range of audiences instead of just the teacher were also significant differences. The work of the experimental group started with whole-class discussion, group work and pair work and ended with individual efforts. Conversely, the control group was involved in group work controlled by the teacher. The students’ activities differed according to the grouping system. A number of activities were done in one period prior to writing in the experimental group, in contrast with the control group whose work was conducted
as a group, reading the previous passage in their course book, then starting to change and substitute words to modify the text to another similar one. Usaci and Niculescu (2012) state that undergoing a variety of activities allows students to be involved in learning process discovery and leads to successful learning. However, it is important to stress that the teacher’s role as a facilitator in class helped the experimental group to be more independent and motivated them to use the strategies when writing, as suggested by Smartl and Whiting (2001).

In this study, the use of meta-cognitive writing strategies supports the use of the process approach in which the participants applied planning, formulating and revising strategies, which is in line with O’Malley and Chamot (1990). The strategies also support a content approach, as the teacher emphasised the quality of the ideas and accurate, useful facts. The genre approach was used in communicating with the reader, respecting social and cultural norms and using appropriate words according to the genre or the writing style and topic. Thus, meta-cognitive strategies permitted the students to manage, monitor and evaluate the writing process (Brown & Palinscar, 1982; Cohen, 1998; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990).

It was not expected and was not one of the researcher's aims to identify which of the three combined approaches was dominant. However, the findings revealed that the process approach was the most dominant of the three. This emerged from the class observations, students’ interviews and the teacher’s interview. The researcher extracted from these instruments the common writing tasks used by the teacher and students in the experimental group and their pedagogic purposes. These are reported in Table 6.1 below.
Table 6.1: Writing tasks used by the teacher and students in the experimental group and their pedagogic purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Set goals</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select information from a written text</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create a word list for a specific topic</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brainstorm to generate ideas</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss gaps and opinions</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create mind maps and outlines for pre-writing</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combine ideas</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct simple and complex sentences</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse an authentic text</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use media and visual information to create a text</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drafting</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practise different rhetorical forms, such as argument, process and description</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practise writing styles, such as academic, argumentative and creative</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revise a draft after feedback</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edit a draft for mechanical faults</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write a multi-draft essay</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criticise peer texts</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research, write and revise essays for specific readers and goals</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, it is clear that the use of the three approaches in class was equal but the process approach was dominant. However, it was obvious from the interviews that the students were talking about the independent and relevant variables in general but they referred to these as a “process”. When the experimental group students identified how the process of writing they learnt had helped them, the use of genre and content-based approaches were implied within their descriptions. For example, student 8 stated in chapter five (see section 5.1.2) that:

*The process helped me to compose the right sentence using the right words. Put everything in its place. Organise my ideas. Generate ideas from ideas. Relate my background knowledge to new knowledge.*
This explains the dominance of the approach. However, the use of the two other approaches had an important role in producing pieces of writing with which the writers were content.

This research question will now be discussed further in relation to the three stages followed in the writing lessons: planning, formulating and revising.

Throughout the students’ interview, the planning for writing process emerged as the most important theme, confirming O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 47) who state that “planning is a key meta-cognitive strategy for second language acquisition, involved in directing the course of language reception and production”. Students’ understanding of what they needed to initiate writing was a vital finding that demonstrated their perceptions and assimilation of the programme being taught. The students identified providing clear instructions and goals for the writing topic as very important for generating ideas.

The activities used by the experimental group were another important change in the process of writing: brainstorming, taking notes, mind-mapping and revising were among the activities used, as indicated in Table 4.23 (see chapter four for the quantitative analysis). In the students’ interview, they mentioned that most of these activities had not been used before the implementation of the integrated approach and they added setting goals and objectives as one of the changes they considered had had an impact on their way and process of writing. This can be attributed to what Van Weijen et al. (2009) had found to be necessary for ESL when preparing to write, as such preparation happens both in class and in the mind. It is for this reason that activities that are crucial to the preparation of a good piece of writing stretched beyond the six that have been listed. Therefore, the deployment of different activities, as noted in this case, might help fill writing-related knowledge gaps for L2 speakers and enable
them to solve the problems of ‘what to write’ and ‘how to write it’ during the pre-verbal stage of writing production (Kormos, 2006). This argument is consistent with that in Samuda’s (2001) study, which showed that learners mined relevant language from activities to bring about greater precision in negotiating meaning in writing tasks. As noted in the quantitative data analysis, there was a difference between the two groups in the use of activities (see Table 4.23 and Figure 4.12). When the use of the activities in the control group diminished over time, the experimental group showed improvement in the majority of these activities.

The students’ use of search tools (books, the Internet, newspapers, and surveying people) was another change that is worth noting. Whilst the students in the experimental group before the implementation and the control group simply relied on their course book and did not try to extract information in English from any other resource except for looking in a dictionary occasionally, students in the experimental group read about the topic to generate ideas, collect information, rephrase the material and add words and phrases to their vocabulary lists (as stated in the students’ interviews). This strategy, according to Collins (1994), stimulates critical thinking and leads to successful writing. Reading around a topic and seeking more understanding and language enhancement are consistent factors discussed by Myles (2002), Raimes (1991, 1998), Swales (1990) and Swales and Feak (2004), who state that practising different genres of writing improves students’ writing performance. These differences were also noticed during the class observations.

The students’ mother tongue interfered in the pre-writing processes when generating and organising ideas. Although this interference did not affect their production, it slowed down the writing process and resulted in bilingual outlines in which English and Arabic were used. This finding is consistent with Friedlander
(1990), who recorded that his participants’ planning by means of their L1 brought about longer plans and more drafts but good output. In contrast, Wang (2003) detected low writing performance in L2 writers who planned with the interference of L1, but higher performance in those who planned using only the target language. This was not the case in this study. Although the students were encouraged to think and plan in English, they tended to use Arabic in parts of their outlines and planning sheets and also while discussing in groups prior to individual writing (as discussed in chapter five). Researchers such as Belcher and Connor (2001), Dong (1998) and Woodall (2002) suggest that the combined use of L1 and L2 helps in complex cognitive tasks. Consequently, the combination of both languages in the process of planning seems acceptable.

One of the aims in adopting an integrated approach was to shift the teacher-centred practices to being more student-centred and to help students to learn how to learn and become autonomous learners. This was partially achieved by the end of the programme, as the students had started to initiate writing independently. The researcher noticed during class observations that some students asked the teacher about the meaning of words, and they sometimes consulted her about word choice, sentence structure and the organisation of the ideas within the essay. They also asked for oral feedback while writing, which caused some distraction for other students. This reveals a weakness in the teacher’s training sessions, as the researcher had not explained when to provide feedback and the amount of assistance to give to students while writing. This type of feedback should take place after writing, not when.

The students tended to check their usage of words: some used dictionaries (as in McDonough and McDonough’s study, 2001) and some simply consulted their teacher, as mentioned above. Students also tended to refer back to the earlier
paragraphs to check if their expression provided the intended meaning. According to Wang (2003) and Wolfersberger (2003), this leads to the generation of more ideas and richer text.

Revision techniques were understood differently in the integrated approach by revising the quality and organisation of ideas, structure, coherence, cohesion and length in addition to spelling and punctuation, and the process of revising took place at any time during and after writing. Despite all the researcher’s attempts to leave grammar, spelling and structure until the end and to focus more on flow and communication when writing, both the teacher and the students were observed giving much more consideration to surface errors. This emphasis on errors is in line with Abdul-Rahman (2011) and Stevenson et al. (2006), who found that teachers concentrate on surface errors when marking compositions. Although in their interviews all the students and their teacher stated that fluency was more important than accuracy, in practice, they looked for accuracy when writing. Elbow (2010) and Flower (1985) suggest that surface errors need to be considered at the revision and editing stage.

The number of drafts written by the experimental group (2-4) shows a change in the students’ attitude towards the revising process. Where there was only one draft (as indicated by the teacher in her interview, section 5.2) prior to the study because of the rigid control of the writing by the teacher, there was an increase in the number of drafts after the programme, as seen in the quantitative results chapter (see Table 4.24 and Figure 4.14). This can be attributed to the students’ reasons for revising (see Table 4.25 and Figure 4.15) as discussed in chapter four and five and these reasons show an important change in students’ approaches to writing in English. These reasons were: improving clarity, improving style, developing content, rearranging the text,
correcting errors and reducing length. The experimental group reasons prior to the implementation were comparable with those of the control group, where correcting errors was considered the most important purpose of revising. The control group teacher also indicated that revision was done only for surface errors, since the essays were written according to a model text where the students only have to change some of the words.

The amount of revision also revealed the difference between the two groups, with the experimental group undertaking more revisions compared with the control group. Significantly, Zhu (2004) suggests that one of the major differences between the skilled and unskilled writer may lie in their respective approaches to revision. This study’s findings suggest that the experimental group was by far the more skilled in this area at the end of the programme.

Based on the differences that were noted in the questionnaire, it is possible to argue that while the questionnaire findings provide valuable information, they do not necessarily reflect actual behaviours. It is, therefore, possible that the observations and interviews would have reflected behavioural learning outcomes better.

According to Zamel (1983), writing in English should not be considered a problem specific to second language learners, as it is shared by both native and non-native English speakers. As stated by Abdul-Rahman (2011), students who speak English as their first language still have writing difficulties. In the interview, the students identified problems with editing, committing ideas to paper, thinking of how to end a message, reducing the number of words, writing in depth, referencing, adjusting new ideas in the plan, keeping a train of thought, and expressing themselves in a more understandable way so that readers can understand the concept contained in the paper.
The above are problems related to the conceptualisation of writing difficulties. A plausible explanation for such problems is the one given by Swales and Feak (2004) and Bitchener and Bastrukmen (2006), which relates to insufficient knowledge of the distinguishing features of a genre.

The respondents believed that internal and external factors negatively influence their performance in writing skills. To help the students, it was imperative that the researcher identified the problem areas that the students faced (Riazi, 1997) and avoid their negative effect on their progress. In the students’ responses, the problems included some internal factors within their own ability and external factors that affected their capability and creativity: idea generation, grammar and writing mechanics (spelling, sentence structure and punctuation), and how teachers controlled the writing process in their teaching methods in class. Identifying such problems is the first step to addressing and improving them and in the move towards autonomous learning.

Difficulty in writing an argument can be explained by a different rhetorical structure in their L1 (Arabic), which, according to Bacha (2002), El-Seidi (2000) and Kamel (2000), tends to be more descriptive and subjective. According to these researchers, redundancy, which is repeating the same idea within a sentence or essay, is a feature of Arabic writing and a problem resulting from L1 interference.

It is clear from the findings that grammar caused more difficulties in writing compared with other factors, such as the technical aspects of writing that include sentence and text structure. Throughout the interview, the respondents agreed that grammar was important but that communication of the ideas was equally important and could prove crucial in improving the quality of a piece of work. The respondents argued that an essay may be grammatically correct but lack fluency and hence lack
quality. Therefore, the students stated that although they still feared grammar and considered it an obstacle, practically, they were trying to overcome this issue by focusing on the quality of the ideas presented, as evidenced in their essays and in the interview (see chapter five, section 5.1).

The students acknowledged the benefits of feedback as they identified the use of teacher and peer feedback and confirmed in the interviews that their attitude had changed from ignoring to seeking feedback. They also mentioned that it helped them to identify their errors, talk about them in front of the class and criticise their own essays. Hence, peer feedback helped them to notice their own errors. This is in line with Berg (1999: 232), who states three advantages of peer feedback that enable students to improve their writing:

- It can be an important tool in a writing course because it helps student writers do what they cannot yet do for themselves, and that is to detect incongruities in the texts. Secondly, experienced writers rely on colleagues for feedback as a natural part of their writing processes. Thirdly, the discussion of ideas and language in peer response may even help students discover viable text alternatives to unclear aspects of their writing.

On the other hand, the teacher’s feedback in this study identified positive aspects to motivate students, raised questions that allowed students to carry out revisions, and offered suggestions on word choice, changing the organisation of a piece of work, elaborating parts of an essay or improving the structure and spelling.

It became evident during the interview that the experimental group took the time and opportunity to discuss their plans with other group members and share views. This is an important difference in the process of writing in Saudi Arabia, as before the study students did not collaborate with each other while writing because writing was taught as a product rather than as a medium for communicating meaning. This is recorded in studies such as those by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) and Wharton
(2000) as a social strategy. A content strategy includes elements such as clarity of meaning, logical content, use of examples, and remaining focused on the subject. The result indicates that the difference was significant between the control group and the experimental group.

From the results of the quantitative and qualitative data, the students can be seen to have gained some behaviour skills, as shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Behaviour skills of the experimental group after the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour skill</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards learning</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards teacher and peer feedback</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment of writing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reliance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students’ consideration of goal-setting, generating attractive ideas, meeting the readers’ needs and expectations and inserting their own experience had changed their attitude towards writing lessons as well as their performance. Cohen and Weaver (2006: 7) suggest that students’ involvement in various activities when composing positively affects their attitude. These considerations were part of the integrated approach which was taught explicitly to students. Therefore, the students in the interview agreed on the effect of the new approach used by the teacher, and felt this had had a great influence on their attitude towards writing in English, the process of writing and the importance of the “before writing” process, which has shaped their ideas and helped them to set general and personalised goals before initiating writing. They stressed that it had led to better writing and increased their level of motivation. In considering a larger audience, hanging essays in the school hall and publishing
nominated pieces in the school journal were considered positive alternative tools for stimulating students’ motivation.

The students’ awareness of the writing strategies played an important role in changing their process of writing and enhancing their performance. This was clear from Tables 4.19 to 4.22 in the quantitative analysis chapter. This awareness was even more clearly demonstrated when the teacher returned to the old method (controlled composition) for three months but the students continued to use the same process and writing strategies taught during the implementation of the study. By doing so, the students showed that they were capable of using the strategies and the process of writing well without forgetting to consider the readers’ expectations and trying to produce a good piece of writing. The students forced the class environment to be student-centred and this was done automatically without the teacher’s involvement, which also demonstrates that the students had embedded the importance of using these writing skills and strategies during the process of writing.

The researcher attributed this difference in the students’ writing performance to an increase in their perceptions of the importance of the meta-cognitive writing strategies. This can be linked to the integrated approach used by the teacher and the intensive practice of the meta-cognitive writing strategies: 1. generation of ideas (planning at the textual level and at the lexical level); 2. formulation; and 3. revision strategies (revising the content, revising sentence structure and revising organisation).

This confirms the conclusion Schraw (1998) draws that cognitive skills are essential in performing a task, while metacognition is necessary in understanding how the task can be performed.

The researcher further investigated the relationship between the students’ perceptions of the integrated approach and their performance. In the interviews, all
the participants stated that they had had positive writing outcomes after initially experiencing adversity, which, to some extent, improved their perceived writing self-efficacy through improved self-perception within the meta-cognitive writing strategies (Baeten et al., 2010). Furthermore, it was noticeable that experiencing progress and writing success had a positive effect on the students’ perceptions and confidence about writing. Nevertheless, even though the participants reported improved writing skills, they were still in need of enhancing their perceived self-efficacy, as stated by two students in the interview and the teacher. Having low self-efficacy could potentially affect students’ perceived performance both in class and in normal writing scenarios (Gaylon et al., 2012).

The researcher verified that the two groups were equivalent prior to the implementation. Then she compared the experimental group pre-period (prior to the implementation of the study) and post-period (after implementation). She also made the same comparison between the control group post-period and the experimental group post-period to provide evidence of the effect of the integrated approach on the experimental group. If the implementation had not taken place, the experimental group’s results would have been equivalent to those of their peers in the control group. Hence, the independent and relative variables demonstrated their impact on changing the experimental group students’ writing approaches and their conceptualisations of writing.

### 6.5 Conclusion

The findings from this study support earlier research results (Al-Hazmi, 2006; Badger & White, 2000; Hall, 2001; Liaw, 2007; Martinez, 2005; Shih, 1986; Wingate 2012; Zamel, 1983) regarding the contribution of the teaching of writing approaches,
in particular, process, genre and content-based approaches, in enhancing ESL/EFL writing performance (Alamargot et al., 2007; Wang, 2008). The findings are also in line with studies on the correlation between students’ perceptions of the importance of meta-cognitive writing strategies and ESL/EFL writing performance. Significantly, the data provide a clear picture of the changes in the students’ writing and behaviour, how these changes accrued and what benefits were gained in relation to the use of the integrated approach.

Amongst the key findings emerging from this study is the effect of using the integrated approach within a student-centred context. This approach had a positive impact on the students, teacher and class environment and helped to achieve all the desired results. This reflects Saudi students’ need for more understanding of their requirements as learners who seek to be more self-regulated. The use of the previous teaching approach (controlled composition) did not allow student-centred practices; therefore, the use of the integrated approach permits this useful development in autonomous learning with an impact on performance as well.

The findings also emphasise the dominant use of the process approach combined with meta-cognitive writing strategies. The presence of this approach can be seen in all the instruments of the study (quantitative and qualitative) and in its effect on the students’ writing performance. However, the combination of this and the two other approaches (genre and content) was vital in this study because of the importance of the other approaches for EFL students to understand the L2 writing context through the use of different genres and the production of a well-written piece that contains accurate facts, audience-sensitive details and sufficient control of the writing conventions. Consequently, the combination of the three approaches can be claimed to have underpinned the satisfactory results in the Saudi secondary students’ writing
performance and supports the originality of this research study. In addition, the implementation of the three approaches used with the experimental group ensured that the strategies used in teaching the skills did not limit the students’ freedom in contributing to the process but taught crucial skills that enabled the experimental group students to be independent. Constant use of the integrated approach can generate improvement in attitudes towards writing, as well as awareness of meta-cognitive writing strategies.

Through this study, I hope to make a contribution to the continuing effort to improve the teaching of English writing to EFL students from Saudi Arabia.
Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The investigation of the effect of an integrated approach with explicit instructions and training and meta-cognitive writing strategies has demonstrated a positive impact on Saudi secondary students in different dimensions: on students’ EFL writing performance; on the students’ and teacher’s perception and awareness of meta-cognitive strategy training; on the teacher’s and students’ attitude and motivation; on the students’ understanding of the writing process, which is reflected in their ability to generate ideas, organise them and then to revise content and mechanisms; on the students’ understanding of the writing skill as a means of communication rather than as a product; and, finally, on the students’ self-efficacy and the feedback strategy of the teacher and students alike.

7.2 Contributions of the study

Whilst the current study has explored the effect of an integrated approach on EFL teaching and Saudi EFL secondary-level students’ performance, there is still a lot to be explored and learnt about EFL teaching approaches and writing strategies, particularly when embedded in non-Western academic contexts and cultures. One significant contribution of this study is to the understanding of the nature of L2 writing in the Saudi context. This is due to a lack of studies on the teaching of EFL writing skills in Saudi Arabia, and in Arab countries in general, for secondary-level learners. This study has highlighted the deficiencies of the approach currently used to teach writing in secondary schools (controlled composition), the lack of effective teacher training, and the attitude of the students who took part and that of their teacher towards
writing in English before and after the study, which will contribute to understanding the nature of EFL in Saudi Arabia.

Findings from this investigation add value by contributing knowledge and information regarding the nature of SL writing. The most significant findings are as follows. Firstly, composing in EFL is a recursive and complex process (as proposed by Hayes and Flower in 1980 in relation to L1 writing), in which many aspects can influence the writer’s performance and behaviour, as discussed in chapter five (see sections 5.1.1, 5.1.2 and 5.1.3). Secondly, the use of the integrated approach has positively changed students’ behaviour towards writing as well as the teacher’s pedagogic approach (sections 5.1.5, 5.1.6 and 5.2). Thirdly, changing the teacher’s role and that of the students so that classes became more student-centred is another contribution to understanding the Saudi context, because this shift in roles increased the students’ awareness of the writing process and strategies that stress the need for teacher training so that teachers take more of a facilitating role in class (sections 5.2 and 5.3). Fourthly, the use of an integrated approach by means of explicit training in different genres and writing styles (academic, argumentative and creative) is another significant contribution to the field of EFL teaching writing instruction in secondary education. More specifically, the use of a holistic approach will fill a gap in EFL teaching of writing in Saudi Arabia, as stated earlier by Saudi researchers (Al-Hazmi, 2006; Al-Hukbani, 1991; Al-Seghayer, 2011, 2014; Al-Shumaimeri, 2003). It does so by covering many of the aspects needed to produce a well-written piece by applying a variety of activities to increase students’ awareness of the relevance of meta-cognitive strategies in writing. They learn to plan, generate ideas, organise them, formulate coherent discourse, revise content and form and, finally, edit their essays after reflecting on the teacher’s and peer feedback.
As a result of the application of the study variables (self-assessment of English writing skills, meta-cognitive writing strategies, the combination of teaching writing approaches, student-centred practices and general learning strategies), the students not only learnt how to write strategically using different writing styles, but also improved their practice of employing the strategies within the writing process that lead to more developed writing performance in all the main writing criteria (clear ideas, content, organisation, word choice, language use and mechanics). The application of the study variables also promoted students’ self-directed learning. This study, with its use of the integrated approach and multiple instruments (questionnaires, pre- and post-test marks, interviews, written materials and class observations) reaffirmed and expanded earlier studies, such as those by Berg (1999), Cohen (1998), Macaro (2001), Oxford (1990), Sassaki (2004) and Yang et al. (2006), which called for more research on explicit strategy instruction.

The integrated teaching approach in this study can be useful in other EFL/ESL contexts and inform the development of future second language acquisition theories. The results and recommendations taken from this study (see chapter six) may equip EFL teachers of writing skills with a deeper understanding of a range of approaches and strategies and their potential impact on students. It can also provide a framework for further applications of the integrated approach.

Finally, whilst the study expands and strengthens existing EFL research (Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Alhosani, 2008; El-Aswad, 2002; Graham & Sandmel, 2011; Kormos, 2006; Martinez, 2005; Wang, 2008) on the effect of the process approach and the influence of writing strategies on students’ writing performance and perceptions, this study is the first to adopt three approaches to teach writing to EFL secondary students, adding originality to this study.
7.3 Pedagogical implications

The first implication of this study can be associated with the way in which the students who took part were taught to write in English. The qualitative findings (chapter five) demonstrate that before the implementation of the integrated approach students were only modifying a model text rather than learning how to write by using writing instructions and strategies. These students also had little independence in completing a written task (see chapter one, section 1.3). This study makes interesting recommendations for a change in writing instruction in such a context in Saudi Arabia.

This study may be of positive use in TESOL institutions for teaching writing skills using the integrated approach following the model adopted here. The study has illustrated the benefits of students’ perceptions of the study variables on their writing performance. The study variables include independent and relative variables; the independent variables were the combination of approaches integrated with the explicit teaching of meta-cognitive writing strategies; the relative variables included self-assessment of English writing skill, use of writing strategies (before writing, during writing, and after writing) and general learning strategies. This integrated approach to teaching writing and its positive results suggest that different policy is needed for teacher training as well as learner training.

In addition, the systematic training that the teacher gave the students played a major role in the sustainability of the approach. The systematic method of this teaching approach helped students at this level (A2-B1) to practise writing and produce acceptable essays. This method of instruction was based on explicit input suggested by Cohen and Weaver (2006), which emphasises how, when and why to use explicit instructions, and was developed by the researcher by providing a variety of activities.
(presentations, whole-class discussions, group discussions, individual thinking and teacher-student conferences) to stimulate students in this age group.

As pointed out in chapter five, all the students interviewed stated that the method previously used to teach writing (controlled composition) was not suitable. The teacher also indicated a lack of innovative teaching approaches in teachers’ training. Consequently, it is vital to consider students’ and teachers’ training needs and provide English writing methods that encourage deep learning.

The approach taken in this study considered both the students’ and the teacher’s role in class. The students’ role included their involvement with the preparation of writing, the process of writing, feedback strategies and their interaction with the teacher. The teacher’s role included facilitating the learning process by being involved with the students’ writing process to be able to assist the progress of their learning and their interaction. Methodologically, the study presents originality and rigour in its use of the integrated approach.

### 7.4 Research implications

This research has emphasised the importance of using triangulation as a research method, particularly when assessing an innovative approach, the teacher’s and students’ reflection on it, their behaviour, and the differences in the strategies employed. Although quantitative data were used to address aspects of the research questions, the data gathered using the qualitative approach (nine interviews, six class observations, four pieces of written material and the teachers’ questionnaire) gave a more comprehensive and thicker description of how and why the approach and the meta-cognitive writing strategies were helpful. Furthermore, some specific skills were practised by the students and improved during this study: paraphrasing, summarising, goal-setting, discussing, searching, problem-solving, peer feedback, appropriate
agreeing/disagreeing, analysing/synthesising, persuading, and vocabulary building. In addition, some behaviours were observed: increased self-confidence, improved motivation, a better attitude towards writing in English, stronger self-reliance, and greater enjoyment of writing in English.

This study followed a holistic approach to achieve the desired students’ achievement in writing by considering teacher training, student (writer) training, writer’s voice, readers’ expectations, writing style and context, the teaching of writing approaches, meta-cognitive writing strategies, instructions when teaching writing, student-centred practices, students’ and teacher’s motivation and attitude and, finally, teacher and peer feedback.

7.5 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

However comprehensive and thorough, this study could have benefited more if the following limitations had been avoided.

The first limitation was that the researcher failed to persuade a larger number of students to participate in the interview. The number of interviewees was originally expected to be 15, in order to gather information about the students’ behaviour towards writing in English and to extract data on the process they used when writing in class. However, only eight students participated in the interview, although this number was sufficient for the study.

The second limitation was the students’ pre- and post-questionnaire, which was considered long by some participants. This might have affected some of the responses, which can be tracked in the number of drafts they provided (as discussed in chapters four and five). Shorter questionnaires focusing on more specific aspects of
the study should be considered in future. In this regard, the number of statements in each section of the students’ questionnaire could be reduced.

The third limitation concerned generalising the impact of the integrated approach on teachers. Generalisation cannot be achieved because the researcher only had one teacher take part in the study (the experimental group teacher). The initial positive results and reflections gathered by the study should encourage further research on the systematic impact analysis of teacher training and, in particular, strategy training.

The fourth limitation was in only conducting the study in a girls’ secondary school with female students and their female teacher due to the segregated education system in Saudi Arabia. However, the researcher, as a female, would not have been allowed to apply the study in a boys’ school, thus the researcher could not have observed classes, interviewed students or trained a male teacher. The segregated education system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia limited the study to a girls’ secondary school, which offers the opportunity to extend the research to male secondary students in Saudi Arabia and compare the results. Further research on the implications of this integrated approach in a male school should be conducted.

The fifth limitation was in practising to write six different compositions. If students’ training was limited to four compositions instead of six, training could be more influential and students will have chances to compare, edit and learn more from their errors.

Finally, two weeks of one-to-one teacher training was not enough to cover all the practical elements; although distance training took place for two months.

Despite some of its limitations, this study has stimulated several opportunities for future research.
It has been confirmed that the training of the teacher in this study was effective and helpful. Hence, further research on teacher training using different approaches to teaching EFL writing is required in EFL pedagogy.

Further research with different groups of students, for example, more advanced-level learners from a university with suitable changes in instructions, timing and materials, would extend the implications of this study and further validate its findings.

The role of the mother tongue in planning and generating ideas was addressed from a methodological perspective. Some students in this study were observed using their L1 (Arabic) before and during writing with no impact on their performance in comparison with students who just used English, as discussed in chapter five.

To conclude, it cannot be stated with absolute certainty that the integrated approach was the only reason for this improvement. Many factors that are stimulated by an integrated approach also played a role. For instance, students’ readiness to be exposed to new teaching methods might have stimulated their motivation towards learning and contributed to a change in attitude towards EFL and writing. The very fact that they were part of this research project may have influenced their behaviour.

Nevertheless, the analysis of the data collected leads to the conclusion that the use of the integrated approach had an impact on the teaching of the secondary Saudi students who took part in this study; succeeded in developing the students’ writing performance and their self-reliance in learning; improved the students’ cognitive abilities and their aptitude in discussing and arguing ideas and their ability to solve problems; and increased their awareness of the importance of applying meta-cognitive writing strategies within the writing process and their effect on writing performance.
Hence, it can be demonstrated that a meaningful contribution to EFL theories is presented in this research study.

The results of this study urge a call to provide positive, supportive, and collaborative learning environments within which students, with sufficient time and a skilful teacher, can work through their writing process.
References


Abeyasekera, S. (2003) *Quantitative analysis approaches to qualitative data: why, when and how?* Statistical Services Centre, University of Reading.


Appendices

Appendix A: Teachers’ questionnaire

TEACHER’S QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been designed to gauge your teaching experience and use of writing strategies and to gain an insight into your perspectives on the writing strategies used, teaching approaches and your students’ writing skills. It should only take about 15-20 minutes to complete and all information will be treated as confidential.

SECTION ONE

General Questions

1. How many years have you been teaching English? ____________________
2. Did you attend a writing course or workshop in English in any institute? Please select. Yes No
3. What types of texts do you generally teach students to write in English classes? Please select.
4. Do you think your students like to write in English? Please select.

If No, please explain why ........................................................................................................................
Please rate your students’ abilities for each item below on a scale between 1 to 5. Circle your choice.

1 = never or almost never true  
2 = usually not true  
3 = somewhat true  
4 = usually true  
5 = always or almost always true

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students can write a clear topic sentence that identifies the topic and controlling idea of a paragraph.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students can write a paragraph with logically organized ideas.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students can support and develop the main point when writing a paragraph.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students can write using an academic style and tone.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students can communicate with the reader by using appropriate vocabulary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students can use a variety of sentence structures.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students can write confidently with correct spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Students can write a summary of information that have been read or have been taught in English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Students can paraphrase a given text in English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students can write a good introduction for an English essay.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Students can use several methods of writing (e.g. process, comparison, cause, effect).</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Students can develop an essay with their own experiences and critical thinking.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Students can support their ideas by tracing information in the internet search engines (e.g. Google).</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Students can write a good conclusion for an English essay.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Students can write an outline to organize ideas before writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Students can revise their own writing to improve the development and organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة مراجعة النص لتحسين تنظيمها وتطويرها للافضل</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>17. Students can edit their writing to improve the wording, grammar, punctuation, and spelling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة تحرير النص لتحسين الصياغة، النحو، علامات الترقيم، والتدقيق الإملائي</td>
</tr>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>18. Students can successfully write under time constraints</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة أن تكتب بنجاح تحت القيود الزمنية</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>19. Students can write using different tones according to the context.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة الكتابة باستخدام اساليب متنوعة حسب السياق</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>20. Students can write different text types responding purposefully to a particular situation (e.g. report, email, letter, …etc).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة كتابة انواع مختلفة من النصوص مستجيبه بصورة هادفة لحالة معينة</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>21. Students can write fluently in English.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة أن تكتب بطلاقه في اللغة الإنجليزية</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>22. Students can identify their writing problems and see how to improve them.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تستطيع الطالبة تحديد مشاكل الكتابة لديها وكيفية تحسينها</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>23. please include any other skills not mentioned above:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>الرجاء ذكر أي مهارة تم استخدامها ولم تذكر بالاعلي</td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</table>
Please rate your students’ use of each learning strategy below on a scale between 1 to 5. Circle your choice.

1=never 2=rarely 3=sometimes 4=often 5=very often

3.1. Before Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Students review their class notes, and task requirements before beginning to write.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Students consider the task instructions carefully before writing.</td>
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<td>3. Students discuss with classmates or the teacher what and how they are going to write.</td>
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<td>4. Students brainstorm and write down ideas before beginning to write.</td>
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<td>5. Students make notes and plans in their native language before writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Students make an outline or plan in English.</td>
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<td>7. Students commence writing without planning on a paper.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Students organize their ideas first then start writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Students make a timetable for the writing process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Students look at a model written by a native speaker or more professional writer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Before writing the first draft, students do extra out-of-classroom study to improve writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Students try to make an association with what they already know and new things that they have learnt.</td>
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<td>13. Students consult a dictionary to check things they’re not sure about before beginning to write.</td>
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<td>15. Students consider the purpose of writing and how to achieve it.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Other pre-writing strategies used:</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.2. During Writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. I try to create a suitable environment for students so they can concentrate.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Students use their background knowledge to further hone ideas for writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Students start with the introduction.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Students stop writing after each sentence to read it again.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Students stop after a few sentences or a complete paragraph, reread it to get ideas about how to continue.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Students go back to their outline and make changes to it.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Students like to write in their native language first and then translate it into English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Students edit for content (ideas) while writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Students edit for organization while writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Students like to change, or make their ideas clearer while writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Students consult a dictionary to check things they’re not sure about when writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Students use a bilingual dictionary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Students use an English-English dictionary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Students use a grammar book to check things they’re not sure about when writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. If students don’t know an English word, they use a word or phrase that means the same thing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Students simplify their thoughts if they don’t know how to express them in English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. If students don’t know a word in English, they use an Arabic word and try to find the appropriate English word later.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
18. Students say that their native language acts as an impediment in gaining correct writing strategies in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic Translation</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تقول الطلاب أن لغتهم الأم تحولهم إلى عقبة في اكتساب استراتيجيات الكتابة الصحيحة باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
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</table>

19. Learning to write well in English will help students succeed in other courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic Translation</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أن تعلم الكتابة جيدا باللغة الإنجليزية سوف يساعد الطلاب على النجاح لاحقا في مواد أخرى</td>
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</table>

20. I encourage my students by telling them that they can do well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic Translation</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أقوم بتشجيع الطلاب بأن أقول لهم أنهن يمكنهن أن تفوقا فيما بعد</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

21. Other during-writing strategies used:

### بعد الكتابة

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic Translation</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Students reward themselves when they have finished writing.</td>
<td>تعطي الطلاب نفسي مكافأة عند الانتهاء من الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students revise the content of writing and make their ideas clearer.</td>
<td>تقوم الطلاب بتقديم محتوى التحقيق، وجعل أفكارها أكثر وضوحاً.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Students revise their writing to improve organization.</td>
<td>تراجع الطلاب كتاباتهم لتحسين التنظيم.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Students revise their writing to edit the structure, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation.</td>
<td>تراجع الطلاب كتاباتهم لتعديل البناء اللغوي، والإملاء، وعلامات الترقيم.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Students hand in the essay without reading it</td>
<td>اقدم مقالتي دون قراءتها</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Students use a dictionary after they finish writing a draft.</td>
<td>تستخدم الطلاب قاموس بعد الانتهاء من كتابة مسودة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Students use a grammar book after they finish writing a draft.</td>
<td>تستخدم الطلاب كتاب نحوي بعد الانتهاء من كتابة مسودة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Students discuss what they wrote with peers to get feedback on how to improve it.</td>
<td>تناقش الطلاب ما كتبوا مع الزملاء فيما بعد لتحسينه.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Students compare their essays with the classmates' essays on the same topic.</td>
<td>تقارن الطلاب نصها مع نصوص زملائهم حول نفس الموضوع</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Students discuss what they wrote with the teacher to get feedback on how to improve it.</td>
<td>تناقش الطلاب ما كتبوا مع أستاذهم للحصول على ملاحظات عن كيفية تحسينه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Students evaluate peers’ writing and give them feedback on how to improve it.</td>
<td>تقوم تقييم كتابة الزملاء وإعطائها التغذية المرتدة على كيفيةتحسينها</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. If a student do not understand a comment in the feedback, s/he asks the person to explain it to her/him.</td>
<td>إذا لم تفهم الطالبة تعليق من ضمن التغذية المرتدة، تطلب من شخص ما التوضيح.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Students focus on one thing at a time when revising (e.g. content, structure).</td>
<td>تركز الطالبة على شيء واحد في وقت واحد عند التدقيق (مثل المحتوى، الهيكل).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Students make notes on the feedback, so they can use it the next time they write.</td>
<td>تعمل ملاحظات على التغذية المرتدة التي تحصل عليها حتى يمكن استخدامها في المرة القادمة حين تكتب.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15. Students take notes of the errors they have made so they can make the new writings better.

16. Students check if their essay matches the requirements.

17. Students notice their own English mistakes without any external aid.

18. Revising their writing is a regular practice.

19. Before submitting a text, students read it again to make sure it will satisfy the reader.

20. Other after-writing strategies used:

SECTION FOUR
Integrated Teaching Approach

Please rate your perception of the following statements on a scale between 1 to 5. Circle your choice.

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = sometimes
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

1. A multi-method approach to teaching writing increases the quality of writing instructions I use in teaching.

2. A multi-method approach to teaching writing modifies my teaching style to be a facilitator than being a controller.

3. A multi-method approach to teaching writing shifts the teacher’s focus from structure to quality of ideas in achieving the required goals.

4. A multi-method approach to teaching writing gives the opportunity to teach more text types.

5. A multi-method approach to teaching writing assists the teacher to discover her/his students writing abilities.


8. A multi-method approach to teaching writing offers the students an access to learn and participate in the writing lesson.

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</table>

9. Explicit objectives of writing ease the process of writing to students.

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</table>

5. Which of the following activities do your students engage in when producing their piece of text? You can select more than one:

- a. Brainstorming
- b. Note taking
- c. Mind mapping
- d.Making an outline
- e. Drafting
- f. Revising
- g. Other (please give details)

6. How many drafts do your students write when producing the last piece of text?

________________

7. What were your main reasons for asking the students to revise the last piece of text? You can select more than one:

- a. Improving clarity
- b. Improving style
- c. Developing content
- d. Correcting errors
- e. Re-arranging the text
- f. Reducing length
- g. Other (please give details)

________________

________________
Please feel free to give additional comments.

الرجاء لا تتردد في الإدلاء بتعليقات إضافية...

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

Thank you for participating

أشكرك كثيرا لمشاركتك

Adapted from

ESLP 82 Questionnaire: Self-Assessment of English Writing Skills and Use of Writing Strategies
http://www.marquette.edu/oie/documents/ESLP82QuestionnaireFa08.pdf
## Appendix B: Qualitative analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Teacher A</th>
<th>Teacher B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  How many years have you been teaching English?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Did you attend a writing course or workshop in English in any institute?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  What types of texts do you generally teach students to write in English classes? Please select</td>
<td>Creative writing, essays</td>
<td>Essays, reports, letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Do you think your students like to write in English?</td>
<td>They like it</td>
<td>They like it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Which of the following activities do your students engage in when producing their piece of text? You can select more than one:</td>
<td>Brainstorming Taking notes Mind mapping Making an outline Drafting Revising</td>
<td>Taking notes Revising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  How many drafts do your students write when producing the last piece of text?</td>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  What were your main reasons for asking the students to revise the last piece of text? You can select more than one.</td>
<td>Improving style Developing content Correcting errors Rearranging the text</td>
<td>Improving clarity Developing content Rearranging the text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Teacher Assessment of English Writing Skills

1. Students can write a clear topic sentence that identifies the topic and controlling idea of a paragraph

   **Usually true**
   In the sense that learning strategies and using a combined approach in teaching writing in English classes, make the student capable of identifying the meaning of the paragraph as well as understanding the basic idea in depth and find out the exact meaning.

   **Somewhat true**
   That means the traditional way make the student have language skills also but not to the same degree as the parameter that uses a combined and techniques and writing strategies, students can write a sentence but not clear or correct.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Students can write a paragraph with logically organized ideas</th>
<th>Usually true</th>
<th>Somewhat true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the sense that learning writing strategies and using a combined approach of teaching English writing, make the student write passages and phrases are arranged logically so that this logical order helps clear the exact meaning.</td>
<td>Mean that the student write a paragraph organized logically and efficiently not great</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students can support and develop the main point when writing a paragraph.</td>
<td>Somewhat true</td>
<td>Usually not true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the sense that learning strategies and using a combined approach in teaching writing, make the student able to support, develop and improve the core idea.</td>
<td>That means, students usually cannot support, develop and improve the main idea in a paragraph.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students can write using an academic style and tone.</td>
<td>Usually true</td>
<td>Given usually not true response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the sense that learning strategies and new methods allow students to use clear academic styles reflect the correct tone and sound with proper grammar and correct meanings.</td>
<td>Meaning that the requesting academic tone here is not strong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students can communicate with the reader by using appropriate vocabulary.</td>
<td>Somewhat true</td>
<td>Somewhat true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>As the use of appropriate vocabulary is somewhat unfamiliar process and require training and a knowledge of vocabulary.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students can use a variety of sentence structures</td>
<td>Usually true.</td>
<td>somewhat true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>That means the new method and writing strategies help in using different structure in different contexts.</td>
<td>Means, students find it difficult to use a variety of sentence structure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students can write confidently with correct spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.</td>
<td>Usually true.</td>
<td>Usually not true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the sense that learning writing strategies and teaching is reflected in the writing accuracy without spelling and punctuation errors</td>
<td>Meaning that student struggle in punctuation and spelling.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>usually true. Students can</td>
<td>usually not true. Meaning that student struggle in summarizing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Students can write a summary of information that have been read or have been taught in English</td>
<td>Usually true. Students can</td>
<td>Usually not true. Meaning that student struggle in summarizing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Students can paraphrase a given text in English.</td>
<td>Usually true. Students can.</td>
<td>somewhat true Students find it difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students can write a good introduction for an English essay.</td>
<td>Usually true. Students can write attractive introduction.</td>
<td>Usually not true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Students can use several methods of writing (e.g. process, comparison, cause, and effect).</td>
<td>Usually true. Students practice using different writing styles.</td>
<td>Somewhat true. The teacher controls the process so, students just imitating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Students can develop an essay with their own experiences and critical thinking.</td>
<td>Usually true. In the sense that a combined and writing strategies making improvement and evolution of students’ writing and critical thinking skills.</td>
<td>Usually not true. Student does not have the critical thinking skills in a language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Students can support their ideas by tracing information in the internet search engines (e.g. Google)</td>
<td>Usually true. In the sense that learning strategies and a combined make the student possesses the skills to search online easily and browse sites in English with ease and dealing with search engines.</td>
<td>Usually not true. Students do not have the ability to search in English. Because they didn’t practice it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Students can write a good conclusion for an English essay.</td>
<td>Usually true</td>
<td>Somewhat true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Students can write an outline to organize ideas before writing.</td>
<td>Always true. This shows how easy it is to students and the effect of planning strategies.</td>
<td>Somewhat true. Difficult to do it due to lack of practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Students can revise their own writing to improve the development and organization.</td>
<td>Usually true. Due to the intensive practise in revising strategies</td>
<td>Usually not true. Due to lack of practice and the use of controlled composition method in teaching writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|    | Students can edit their writing to improve the wording, grammar, punctuation, and spelling | Usually true  
Due to the intensive practise in revising strategies | Usually true  
Controlled composition focus on the sentence level so they focus on grammar and spelling errors. |
|----|---------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| 17 | Students can successfully write under time constraints. | Somewhat true.  
They follow a strategies that help them to be focused. | Somewhat true.  
The teacher did most of the work. They just substitute words and phrases. |
| 18 | Students can write using different tones according to the context. | Usually true  
Genre approach helped them to write according to the context. | Usually not true. |
| 19 | Students can write different text types responding purposefully to a particular situation (e.g. report, email, letter, ....etc.). | Usually true. | Somewhat true. |
| 20 | Students can write fluently in English | Usually true.  
They practice writing by the use of a combined approach and writing strategies away from the controlled composition. | Usually not true. |
| 21 | Students can identify their writing problems and see how to improve them. | Usually true.  
Students write using multiple methods depending on the context, make the student identify strengths and weaknesses and then employ the strengths and overcome weaknesses due to break the barrier of fear of language and familiarity with the strategies make students improve self-learning. | Usually not true.  
Students have difficulties to overcome weakness. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Use of Writing Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Before Writing</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students review their class notes, and task requirements before beginning to write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students consider the task instructions carefully before writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students discuss with classmates or the teacher what and how she’s going to write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students brainstorm and write down ideas before beginning to write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students make notes and plans in their native language before writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students make an outline or plan in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students commence writing without planning on a paper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Students organize their ideas first then start writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Students make a timetable for the writing process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students look at a model written by a native speaker or more professional writer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Before writing the first draft, Students do extra out-of-classroom study to improve writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Students try to make association with what they already know and new things that they learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Students consult a dictionary to check things they’re not sure about before beginning to write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Students use a grammar book to crosscheck things before writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Students consider the purpose of writing and how to achieve it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**During Writing**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I try to create suitable climate for students so they can concentrate.</td>
<td>Very often. Both teachers try to do their best of what they know</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students use their background knowledge to further hone ideas for writing.</td>
<td>Very often. Students were trained to do that as part of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Rarely. Guided composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students start with the introduction.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students stop writing after each sentence to read it again</td>
<td>Often. Due to revising strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students stop after a few sentences or a complete paragraph, reread it to get ideas how to continue.</td>
<td>Often. Due to writing strategies</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students go back to their outlines and make changes to it</td>
<td>Often. This happen as part of the writing process to create better meanings.</td>
<td>Never. They don’t use a planning sheet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students like to write in their native language first and then translate it into English.</td>
<td>Rarely. Time consuming and they try to think in English.</td>
<td>Rarely. They have ready ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Students edit for content (ideas) while writing</td>
<td>Often. Effect of a combined)</td>
<td>Sometimes. Guided composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Students edit for organization while writing.</td>
<td>Often. It is one aspect of the revising strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes. Guided composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students like to change, or make their ideas clearer</td>
<td>Often. Effect of a combined approach.</td>
<td>Sometimes. Guided composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Students use a bilingual dictionary.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Students use an English-English dictionary.</td>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Students use a grammar book to check things they’re not sure about when writing.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>If Students don’t know an English word, they use a word or phrase that means the same thing.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Students simplify their thoughts if they don’t know how to express them in English.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>If Students don’t know a word in English, they use an Arabic word and try to find the appropriate English word later.</td>
<td>Often. It is a good strategy in order not to cut the fluency of ideas.</td>
<td>Rarely. Guided composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students say that their native language acts as an impediment in gaining correct writing strategies in English.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Learning to write well in English will help students succeed in other courses</td>
<td>Very often. Because writing is an individual ability and it helps students to learn how to learn that is autonomy.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I encourage my students by telling them that they can do well.</td>
<td>Very often.</td>
<td>Often.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**After Writing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Students give themselves a reward when they have finished writing.</th>
<th>Often. Self- motivation by using positive words.</th>
<th>Sometimes.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students revise the content of writing and make their ideas clearer.</td>
<td>Very often. Due to revising strategies practiced and the impact of a combined approach where focus on content is part of it.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students revise their writing to improve organization.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students revise their writing to edit the structure, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation.</td>
<td>Often. Controlled composition focus on grammar and spelling NOT the fluency and quality of ideas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students hand in the essay without reading it</td>
<td>Never. The essay goes on a process where students read it many times to modify and correct.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students use a dictionary after they finish writing a draft.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students use a grammar book after they finish writing a draft.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Students discuss what they wrote with peers to get feedback on how to improve it.</td>
<td>Very often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Students compare their essays with the classmates’ essays on the same topic.</td>
<td>Very often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students discuss what they wrote with the teacher to get feedback on how to improve it</td>
<td>Very often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Students evaluate peers’ writing and give them feedback on how to improve it.</td>
<td>Sometimes. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Never.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>If a student does not understand a comment in the feedback, s/he asks the person to explain it to her/him.</td>
<td>Very often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Students focus on one thing at a time when revising (e.g. content, structure)</td>
<td>Rarely. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Students make notes on the feedback, so they can use it the next time they write.</td>
<td>Very often. They are motivated to be good writers.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Students take notes of the errors they have made so they can make the new writings better.</td>
<td>Very often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Students check if their essay matches the requirements.</td>
<td>Very often.</td>
<td>Sometimes. Guided composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Students notice their own English mistakes without any external aid.</td>
<td>Often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Rarely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Revising their writing is a regular practice.</td>
<td>Very often. Effect of a combined approach and writing strategies.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Before submitting a text, students read it again to make sure it will satisfy the reader</td>
<td>Often.</td>
<td>Sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Approaches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing increases the quality of writing instructions I use in teaching.</td>
<td>Agree.</td>
<td>Totally disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing modifies my teaching style to be a facilitator than being a controller.</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Totally disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing shifts the teacher’s focus from structure to quality of ideas in achieving the required goals</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Disagree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing gives the opportunity to teach more text types.</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Disagree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing assists the teacher to discover her/his students writing abilities</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Disagree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing enhances the writing performance of secondary school students</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Disagree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing increases students’ motivation towards writing lessons.</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Disagree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>A combined approach to teaching writing offers the students an access to learn and participate in the writing lesson</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Disagree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Explicit objectives of writing ease the process of writing to students.</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Totally disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C: Students’ questionnaire

STUDENT’S QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been designed to gauge your writing experience and use of writing strategies and to gain an insight into your perspectives on the writing strategies used, and your writing skills. It should only take about 15-20 minutes to complete and all information will be treated as confidential.

تم تصميم هذا الاستبيان لقياس تجربتك بالكتابة واستخدامك استراتيجيات الكتابة، واكتساب نظرة ثاقبة في وجهات النظر الخاصة بك من ناحية الاستراتيجيات المستخدمة، ومهارات الكتابة الخاصة بك أيضا. هذه الاستبانة قد تأخذ حوالي 15-20 دقيقة لإكمالها وستتعامل جميع المعلومات على أنها سرية.

1. How many years have you been studying English? ____________________
   ما عدد سنوات دراستك للغة الإنجليزية؟

2. Did you attend a writing course in English in any institute? Please select. Yes No
   هل تسنى لك حضور دورة عن الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية في أي معهد؟ اختاري الأجبة المناسبة
   -If yes, what was the main focus of the course? (e.g. writing strategies, academic writing, argumentative..etc) _____________________
   إذا كان الجواب نعم، ماذا كان التركيز الرئيسي للدورة التدريبية؟(مثل استراتيجيات الكتابة، الكتابة الإبداعية، الجدل الخ).

3. What types of texts do you generally write in English classes? Please select
   ما هي أنواع النصوص التي تكتب بها بصفة عامة في دروس اللغة الإنجليزية؟ الرجاء تحديدها.
   Letters emails creative writing reports articles essays others: 
   رسائل رسائل البريد الإلكتروني الكتابة الإبداعية تقارير كتابة المقالات تعبير من فقرات متعده أخرى 

SECTION ONE
General Questions

اسئلة عامة
Do you like to write in English? Please select.

No, I don’t like it at all  I don’t like it  I don’t know  I like it  I like it a lot

If No, please explain why

SECTION TWO
Self-Assessment of English Writing Skills
التقييم الذاتي لمهارات الكتابة الإنجليزية

Please rate your abilities for each item below on a scale between 1 to 5. Circle your choice.

1 = never or almost never true of me
2 = usually not true of me
3 = somewhat true of me
4 = usually true of me
5 = always or almost always true of me

1. I can write a clear topic sentence that identifies the topic and controlling idea of a paragraph.

2. I can write a paragraph with logically organized ideas.

3. I can support and develop my main point when I write a paragraph.

4. I can write using an academic style and tone.

5. I can communicate with the reader by using appropriate vocabulary.

6. I can use a variety of sentence structures.

7. I can write confidently with correct spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.

8. I can write a summary of information that I have read or have been taught in English.

9. I can paraphrase a given text in English.

10. I can write a good introduction for an English essay.

11. I can use several methods of writing (e.g. process, comparison, cause, effect).

12. I can develop my essay with my own experiences and critical thinking.
13. I can support my ideas by tracing information in the internet search engines (e.g. Google).  

14. I can write a good conclusion for an English essay.

15. I can write an outline to organize my ideas before writing.

16. I can revise my own writing to improve the development and organization.

17. I can edit my writing to improve the wording, grammar, punctuation, and spelling.

18. I can successfully write under time constraints.

19. I can write fluently in English.

20. I can identify my writing problems and see how to improve them.

21. Please include any other skills not mentioned above:

SECTION THREE
Use of Writing Strategies

Please rate your use of each learning strategy below on a scale between 1 to 5. Circle your choice.

أرجوا وضع معدل قدراتك لكل بنود من البنود أدناه على مقياس بين 1 إلى 5. ضع دائرة حول اختيارك.

1 = never  
2 = rarely  
3 = sometimes  
4 = often  
5 = very often

3.1. Before Writing
قبل الكتابة

1. I review my class notes, and task requirements before beginning to write.

2. I consider the task instructions carefully before writing.

3. I discuss with my classmates or my teacher what and how I am going to write.

4. I brainstorm and write down ideas before I begin to write.

5. I make notes and plans in my native language before writing.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Statement in English</th>
<th>Statement in Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I make an outline or plan in English.</td>
<td>أجعل المخطط أو الخطة باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I think about what I want to write and have a plan in my mind, but not on paper.</td>
<td>أفكر في ما أريد أن أكتب، وداني خطة في ذهنى، ولكن ليس على الورق.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I organize my ideas first then I start writing.</td>
<td>أعمل جدولًا زمنيًا لعملية الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I make a timetable for the writing process.</td>
<td>أعمل جدولًا زمنيًا لعملية الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I look at a model written by a native speaker or more professional writer.</td>
<td>أنظر في نموذج مكتوب باللغة الأنجليزية كاتبه انجليزي أو الكاتب أكثر مهنية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Before writing the first draft, I do extra out-of-classroom study to improve my writing.</td>
<td>قبل كتابة المسودة الأولى، أفعل دراسة إضافية خارج الفصل الدراسي لتحسين كتابتي.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I try to make associations with what I already know and new things that I learn.</td>
<td>أحاول ربط ما أعرفه مسبقاً مع أشياء جديدة تعلمتها.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>I consult a dictionary to check things I am not sure about before I begin writing.</td>
<td>أستشير قاموس للتحقق من الأمور التي لست متأكدًا منها قبل أن أبدأ في الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I consider the purpose of the writing and how to achieve it.</td>
<td>أهتم بالغرض أو الهدف من الكتابة، وكيفية تحقيقه.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Other pre-writing strategies I use:</td>
<td>استراتيجيات أخرى لم تذكر لما قبل الكتابة:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2. During Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I try to write in a suitable climate where I can concentrate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I use my background knowledge to further hone my ideas for writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I start with the introduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I stop writing after each sentence to read it again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I stop after a few sentences or a complete paragraph, reread it to get ideas how to continue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I go back to my outline and make changes to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I like to write in my native language first and then translate it into English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I edit for content (ideas) while I am writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I edit for organization while I am writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I like to change, or make my ideas clearer while I am writing.</td>
<td>ارغب في تغيير أو وضع أفكار مبسطة أثناء الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I consult a dictionary to check things I am not sure about when I write.</td>
<td>استخدم قاموس للتحقق من الأمور التي لست متأكدًا منها أثناء الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I use a bilingual dictionary.</td>
<td>أنا استخدم قاموس ثنائي اللغة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I use a grammar book to check things I am not sure about when I write.</td>
<td>أنا استخدم كتاب نحوي للتحقق من الأمور التي لست متأكدًا منها أثناء الكتابة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. If I don’t know an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.</td>
<td>إذا لم أعرف كلمة باللغة الإنجليزية، استخدم كلمة أخرى أو عبارة تعني الشيء نفسه.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I simplify my thoughts if I don’t know how to express them in English.</td>
<td>أنا أبسط أفكاري إذا لم أعرف كيفية التعبير عنها باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. If I don’t know a word in English, I use an Arabic word and try to find the appropriate English word later.</td>
<td>إذا لم أعرف كلمة واحدة باللغة الإنجليزية، استخدم كلمة عربية، وأحاول البحث عن الكلمة الإنجليزية المناسبة في وقت لاحق.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I feel that my native language acts as an impediment in gaining correct writing strategies in English.</td>
<td>أشعر أن لغتي العربية هي عائق في اكتساب استراتيجيات الكتابة الصحيحة باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I believe that learning to write well in English will help me succeed in my other courses.</td>
<td>أعتقد أن تعلم الكتابة جيدا باللغة الإنجليزية سوف يساعدني على النجاح في دورات أخرى.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I encourage myself by telling myself that I can do well.</td>
<td>وأشجع نفسي بأن أقول لنفسي أنني أستطيع أن أفعل جيدا.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Other during-writing strategies I use:</td>
<td>استراتيجيات أخرى أستخدمها أثناء الكتابة:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### 3.3. After Writing

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I give myself a reward when I have finished writing.</td>
<td>أعطي نفسي مكافأة عند الانتهاء من الكتابة.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I revise the content of my writing and make my ideas clearer.</td>
<td>أقوم بتقديم مضمون كتابي، وجعل الأفكار أكثر وضوحاً.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I revise my writing to improve my organization.</td>
<td>أراجع كتابي لتحسين التنظيم.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I revise my writing to edit the structure, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation.</td>
<td>أراجع كتابي لتعديل البنية اللغوية، والمفردات والإملاء، وعلامات الترقيم.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I hand in my essay without reading it.</td>
<td>أقدم مقالتي دون قراءتها.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I use a dictionary after I finish writing a draft.</td>
<td>استخدم قاموس بعد الانتهاء من كتابة مسودة</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I use a grammar book after I finish writing a draft.</td>
<td>استخدم كتاب نحوي بعد الانتهاء من كتابة مسودة.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. I discuss what I wrote with my peers to get feedback on how to improve it.

9. I compare my essay with my classmates' essays on the same topic.

10. I discuss what I wrote with my teacher to get feedback on how to improve it.

11. I evaluate my peers’ writing and give them feedback on how to improve it.

12. If I do not understand a comment in the feedback, I ask the person to explain it to me.

13. I focus on one thing at a time when revising (e.g. content, structure).

14. I make notes on the feedback I get so I can use it the next time I write.

15. I take notes of the errors I have made so I can make my new writings better.

16. I check if my essay matches the requirements.

17. I notice my own English mistakes myself without any external aid.

18. Revising my writing is a regular practice.

19. Before submitting my text, I read it again to make sure it will satisfy the reader.

20. Other after-writing strategies I use:

SECTION FOUR
General Learning Strategies

Please rate your use of each learning strategy below on a scale between 1 to 5. Circle your choice.
1 = never
2 = rarely
3 = sometimes
4 = often
5 = very often

1. I try to find multiple ways to use my English.

2. I try to read as much as possible in English.
### 3. I try to listen as much as possible to English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
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</thead>
</table>

### 4. I try to speak as much as possible in English.

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<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
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</table>

### 5. I try to explore being a better English learner.

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<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
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</thead>
</table>

### 6. I use my mistakes to help me do better.

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<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
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</table>

### 7. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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</thead>
</table>

### 8. I encourage myself to use English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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</thead>
</table>

### 9. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
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</table>

### 10. I practise English with other students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### 11. I ask questions in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### 12. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### 13. Other learning strategies I use:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

---

5. Which of the following activities do you engage in when producing your piece of text? You can select more than one:

- a. Brainstorming
- b. Taking notes
- c. Mind mapping
- d. Making an outline
- e. Drafting
- f. Revising
- g. Other (please give details)  

________________________
________________________
________________________
________________________

6. How many drafts do you write when producing your last piece of text?

__________________
7. What were your main reasons for revising your last piece of text? You can select more than one
ما الأسباب الرئيسية التي من ورائها قمت بمراجعة وتنتقح اخر مسودة من النص الذي كتبته؟ يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة

a. Improving clarity التوضيح أكثر
b. Improving style تحسين الأسلوب
c. Developing content تطوير المحتوى
d. Correcting errors تصحيح الأخطاء
e. Rearranging the text إعادة ترتيب النص
f. Reducing length الحد من الطول
g. Other (please give details) أخرى ..... أرجوا ذكرها بالتفصيل

Please feel free to give additional comments.
الرجاء لا تتردد في الإدلاء بتعليقات إضافية.

Thank you for participating
أشكرك كثيرا لمشاركتك.
Appendix D: Interview guide

D.1: Interview guide: Students

Researcher: How long have you been studying English?
Researcher: Do you think writing is harder to learn than reading?
Researcher: Which bits of writing are difficult?
Researcher: If you have an idea, can you write it clearly then develop it into a coherent paragraph?
Researcher: Can you use a number of sentence structures?
Researcher: Can you write a summary of what you are taught?
Researcher: Can you paraphrase a given text?
Researcher: Do you think knowing the process of writing helps you to be a good writer? How? Why?
Researcher: Does setting goals for writing helps you to write? How?
Researcher: Do you consider the reader when you write?
Researcher: What is the most important when writing, accuracy or fluency?
Researcher: how do you develop your essay?
Researcher: Can you use several writing styles or modes: cause & effect, comparison?
Researcher: When you find it difficult to write, what do you do?
Researcher: Was it your tutor who helped you or advised you when writing?
Researcher: Can you list the ways you have been helped by your tutor in the class?
Researcher: Which of these ways have you found most helpful?
Researcher: How do you think students can improve their writing capabilities?
Researcher: Are you scared of writing in English? Why?
Researcher: Before writing, what do you usually do?
Researcher: In a writing lesson, what kind of instructions usually entitled to the lesson?
Researcher: How many drafts do you usually write? Why?
Researcher: Do you write your draft in Arabic then translate it to English?
Researcher: Is it easier for you to assimilate the idea in Arabic first then write in English?
Researcher: Do you read native English writing?
Researcher: Do you organise your ideas first then start writing?
Researcher: Do you prepare for writing before class?
Researcher: When do you revise your writing? Why and how?
Researcher: What aspects of language are you looking at when you revise? Why?
Researcher: Do you edit the draft yourself or with other people's help? Why?
Researcher: Do you discuss what you wrote with your peers?
Researcher: Do you try to compare your own writing with your classmates?
Researcher: Do you consider the teacher or peers feedback to write better later?
Researcher: What do you use to assist you while writing?
Researcher: What do you think is most important when you write?

Researcher: What sort of things do you prefer to write?
Researcher: Could you please tell me if you have any difficulties in any writing style in English? If yes, what strategies do you use to overcome them? And why do you use those strategies?
Researcher: If the English teacher asks you to write an academic assignment, what strategies do you use to plan for the writing assignment? What about short story, argumentative?
Researcher: Has this class helped you achieve what you wanted?
Researcher: Which bits of the class do you find the most helpful or interesting?
Researcher: Something that motivated you?
Researcher: Does the strategies used (planning, revising) improves your writing ability?
Researcher: How often do you feel contented after you write anything?
Researcher: Is anything unhelpful?
Researcher: Would you like to add anything to this interview?

Thank you for your time and help
D.2: Interview guide: Teachers

1. How long have you been teaching English?
2. Do you think teaching writing is harder than reading? Why? Which bits make it difficult?
3. Can your students write a summary of what they are taught?
4. Can they paraphrase a given text?
5. Do you think knowing the process of writing helps them to be good writers? How? Why?
6. Does setting goals for writing help them to write? How?
7. Do your students consider the reader when they write?
8. What is the most important when writing, accuracy or fluency?
9. Do they develop the essay using one’s own experience and critical thinking?
10. Do students’ perception of writing strategies have any effect on you? On them? On their writing?
11. Is there a correlation between their perception of the strategies and their writing achievement?
12. How do you think students can improve their writing capabilities?
13. In a writing lesson, what kind of instructions usually entitled to the lesson? Does it help?
14. How many drafts do they usually write? Why?
15. When do your students generally revise their writing? Why and how?
16. What aspects of language are you looking at when you correct their texts? Why?
17. Do you use authentic texts for students to look at, analyse before they start writing?
18. Do you discuss what they wrote in a teacher-student conference? Was it useful? How?
19. How do you motivate your students to write?
20. Do they consider your feedback, or peers feedback to write better later?
21. If they were asked to write an academic assignment, what strategies did they use to plan for the writing assignment? What about short story, argumentative?
22. Has this method helped you achieve what you wanted?
23. Does a combined approach have any impact on your instructions? Your teaching style?
24. Does it have an impact on you as an English teacher?
25. Which bits of the class do you find the most helpful or interesting? Something that motivated you and your students?
26. Does a combined approach to teaching writing help you to discover your students writing abilities? How?
27. Do you recognise any improvement in your students writing? What way?
28. How often do you feel contented after a writing lesson?
29. Is anything unhelpful?

Would you like to add anything to this interview?

Thank you for your time and help
### Observation Sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s name</th>
<th>Monday mindfulness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td>2/18 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson theme</td>
<td>Colours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Materials:**
- Handout
- Thesaurus, realia, ICT, text
- Dictionary
- Other

**Task audience:**
- Teacher
- Peers
- Self
- Other
- 5 to 7th

**Task type:**
- Academic
- Creative
- Letter
- Argument
- Descriptive

**Task objective(s):**
1. Search using appropriate resources
2. Plan for writing essay
3. Write using the preferred writing style

**Grouping:**
- Independent
- Pairs
- Small group
- Whole class

**Learner activity:**
- Discussion
- Planning
- Reading (oral, silent, loud)
- Writing
- Peer support
-Drafting
- Editing
- Oral exercise
- Taking notes
- Writing on board

**Teacher activity:**
- Instructing
- Supporting
- Feedback
- Q&A
- Assessing
- Writing on board
- Correcting
- Administration
- Model-sharing
- Modelling
- Dictating
- Scribing

**Strategies used:**
1. Brainstorming
2. Write ideas on the board and ask them to come up with words
3. Discuss, compare, discuss, with group, my own, partner, butterfly...
4. They write down ideas about the topic
5. Meaning, one sentence, schema
6. They use a dictionary when writing (2nd bilingual)
7. Pair discussion and group discussion
8. Use place, must
9. Revise ideas, combine
10. Revise the second draft, ends, spell, edit
11. Write in English
12. How to keep the encouraging, ask and estimate them, abilities, may use pictures
13. Write down ideas
14. What did you learn today?
15. Ask about the spelling of some words, although they have the dictionary
16. How to help them, before writing, to write, ask yourself, was the reader satisfied with the text?

**Observations:**
- 201016986
- 382
201016986
Observation Sheet

Teacher’s name: [Redacted] Date: 13.11.13
Class: [Redacted] Time:
Lesson theme: [Redacted] - [Redacted] -

Materials:
Handout, Thesaurus, realia, ICT, text:
other:
dictionary:

Task audience:
Teacher, Peers, Self, Other: [Redacted]

Task type:
Academic, Creative) Letter, Argument, Descriptive

Task objective(s):
- add their voices to their essays
- peer feedback
- accuracy

Grouping:
Independent, Pairs, Small group, Whole class

Learner activity:
Discussion, Planning, Reading (oral, silent, loud), Writing, Peer support, Drafting, Editing, Oral exercise, Taking notes, Writing on board

Teacher activity:
Instructing, Supporting, Feedback, Q&A, Assessing, Writing on board, Correcting, Administration, Model sharing, Modelling, Dictating, Scribing

Strategies used:
- Students gave them 5 min. time to read their essays.
- The teacher told them that in 10 min. they have to proofread their essay. They give them 15 min. to make their final revision.
- They revise their ideas, modifying their initial sentences and use different words.
- They ask to students to write down words that are repeated.
- They read the paragraph to check cohesion and cohesion.
- They work together to get feedback.
- They discuss in groups to evaluate an essay to be hanged or published on the journal, assigning the essay grade (A+, A, A-, B+, B, B-, C, D) to be hanged, one of them to be published.
- They use dictionaries, bilingual and English, English Dictionary.
- After drafting, they add their essays and hand them to the teacher for correction and feedback. Then they have a chance for a third draft.
Comments:
- Sts work individually when reading their essays.
- Work in pairs to get feedback.
- Discussion is very useful.
- The teacher is just a facilitator.
- Sts enjoy writing, planning, revising.
- Sts were engaged in the learning process, engaged with subject.
- Using a variety of methods in teaching enabled all pupils to be involved, and
  learn effectively.
E.2: Observation sheet: Teacher B

**Observation Sheet**

- **Teacher's name:** [Name]
- **Date:** 11/11/13
- **Class:** [Class]
- **Lesson theme:** [Theme]

**Materials:**
- Handout, Thesaurus, realia, ICT, text
- Dictionary
- Other

**Task audience:**
- Teacher, Peers, Self, Other

**Task type:**
- Academic, Creative, Letter, Argument, Descriptive

**Task objective(s):**
- Write a composition about colours.

**Grouping:**
- Independent, Pairs, Small group, Whole class

**Learner activity:**
- Discussion, Planning, Reading (oral, silent, loud), Writing, Peer support, Drafting, Editing, Oral exercise, Taking notes, Writing on board

**Teacher activity:**
- Instructing, Supporting, Feedback, Q&A, Assessing, Writing on board, Correcting, Administration, Model sharing, Modelling, Dictating, Scribing

- Give them the rules of writing: Leave space of 5 letters, start with a capital letter and end the sentence with (.)

**Strategies used:**
- They revise the reading passage which was about colours.
- The teacher drew a circle on the board and wrote 573 and ask the students to write about colours, write 2 paragraphs in the body, each has 3 sentences.
- They start by writing an introduction. (Whole class) Then she circle on the board, this is your introduction. They say a half of an idea and she wrote a sentence on the board.
- She put writing the body by looking at their books. They just put points.
- The teacher moves them and correct the spelling, grammatical mistakes. She didn’t ask them to add supporting ideas or evidence.
Comments:
- The teacher used a controlled composition teaching method.
  - When revising, they look for grammar and spelling errors.
  - The teacher didn't encourage the students to provide supporting details or be more creative. Although some sat finish early and did chatting, they didn't represent their own thinking or knowledge.
  - The teacher started the writing lesson after 21 minutes of the period. She was completing a grammatical rule on the board, not control, because they weren't engaged in the process.

Comparison between experimental group & controlled group
## Appendix F: Class observation analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Experimental Group Teacher</th>
<th>Control Group Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material 1st lesson (colours)</td>
<td>Handouts, Thesaurus, ICT, dictionary</td>
<td>Text in the course book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task audience</td>
<td>Teacher, peers, self, staff and other students in school</td>
<td>Teacher, self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task type</td>
<td>Academic, Creative, Argument, Descriptive</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task objectives</td>
<td>Students will be able to: 1. Search using appropriate resources. 2. Plan their writing essay. 3. Write using their preference writing style about colours. 4. Add their voice and experience to their essays. 5. Revise fluency, organization and accuracy.</td>
<td>Not clear! Students will be able to write about colours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping</td>
<td>Whole class &amp; teacher: 10% Pairs : 10% Individual: 80%</td>
<td>Teacher: 50% Small group: 20% Whole class &amp; teacher: 30% (at the beginning &amp; end)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner activity</td>
<td>Discussion, Taking notes, Planning, Reading (oral, silent, loud), Writing, Peer support, Drafting, Editing.</td>
<td>Discussion, Writing,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher activity</td>
<td>Supporting, Feedback, Dictating</td>
<td>Instructing, Writing on board, Correcting, Administration, Modelling, Dictating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies used</td>
<td><strong>1st period : colours</strong>  - Students brought papers of what they searched at home using websites and newspapers.  - Teacher brainstorm students, she wrote (colours) on the board and ask them “what comes to your minds?”  - They were given 5 minutes to write their ideas.  - They discuss different ideas as a whole class discussion.  - Students are free to choose any writing style (academic, argumentative or short story).</td>
<td><strong>1st and 2nd periods (1. Colours. 2. leadership)</strong>  - A whole class revision of the reading passage.  - The teacher drew a circle on the board and wrote 1, 2, 3, and asked the students to write about...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- Some students use dictionaries while writing (bilingual).
- Pair and group discussions are mostly in Arabic.
- Some students ask the teacher to translate some words into English (3 words 2 different students).
- Students revise their outlines and ideas while writing. They mostly discuss the word choice.
- The teacher keeps on encouraging students and stimulating their abilities by using positive words e.g. “wonderful idea, give it strong evidence”.
- Students ask the teacher about the spelling of some words although they have their dictionaries but to save time.
- The teacher asks them before starting to revise, “Ask yourself, will the reader be satisfied about your writing? Do you meet the readers’ expectations? ”
- The teacher told the students “next time you will revise your ideas, spelling, punctuation, structure, coherence and the flow between paragraphs.”
- Student-centred practice.
- The teacher is a facilitator and monitor.

**2nd period: colours**

- Students were given 10 minutes to read their essays and start revising the organisation, content and structure.
- The teacher assigned 15 minutes to write their final drafts.
- Students revise their ideas, modifying, adding more examples and use different words, synonyms, smart connections (though, likewise...). Then they revise the mechanism (spelling, punctuation & structure).
- Students used dictionaries (English- English and bilingual)
- Students reread the paragraphs to check coherence and cohesion.
- The teacher ask the students to work in pairs to get peer feedback.
- Students discuss in groups to nominate one essay in each group to be published in the school journal and another to be hanged in the English board in the main hall.
- After drafting, they edit their essays and hand them to the teacher for correction and teacher feedback.
- Then they have a chance for a third draft.
- Students talk about their errors and identify them.

- They start writing the introduction (whole class).
- The teacher wrote the introduction on the board.
- Students start writing the body by looking at the passage in their books. No new ideas, just paraphrasing.
- The teacher monitored them and correct the spellings and grammar mistakes. She didn’t ask them to add supporting ideas or evidences.
Students use dictionaries and they consider the reader’s expectation in their discussion when they give peer feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>1st period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Students prepared for the lesson before the class. The teacher posted the topic and its objectives on the school’s website (EDMODO).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Goals were clear to students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Brainstorming, can shift their way of thinking or/and add more ideas to them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 5 minutes for brainstorming.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 10-15 minutes to plan (outlines, mind maps, bullet points).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher accentuate on attractive introduction for the reader, useful information in the body, use PEE (Point, Example, Evidence), add your opinion and background knowledge, write a focused conclusion.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher monitors them while writing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students revise their ideas and structure while writing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher is using the process approach (each student has a paper of the steps of each writing style in her English file, told them write to solve a problem, meet your purpose). She is using genre approach (she focuses on the ways to communicate with the reader). She is also using focus on content approach when she asked them to put in useful ideas and think about the quality of their ideas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher was a facilitator and monitor so student centred practice is used in class.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students employ metacognitive writing strategies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2nd period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Students work individually when reading their essays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students work in pairs to get feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students’ discussion is very useful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher is just a facilitator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students enjoy planning, writing, revising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students were engaged in the learning process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- All the students were involved –no passive students-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students were enthusiastic when writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher needed 2 periods to finish the lesson.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st &amp; 2nd period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher used controlled composition teaching approach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher guided the students by writing the main ideas which are repetition of the ones in the text book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher didn’t encourage the students to write supporting details although some students finish early.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- When revising, they focused on spelling and grammar mistakes although they were copying from the passage in their books.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Their knowledge and own ideas are neglected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The teacher started the writing lesson after 20 minutes. Of the period. She was completing a grammatical rule (used to). Yet, the students finish early.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students’ attitude was negative. They were bored,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I asked the teacher to stop feeding students with the writing strategies and return to the old method to measure the students’ perception of the writing strategies. The following lesson was after around 3 months of stopping. It was not exciting because they were not engaged in the learning process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material of the second lesson (Leadership)</th>
<th>A text in the course book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task audience</strong></td>
<td>Teacher, peers, self, staff and other students in school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task type</strong></td>
<td>Academic, Creative, Argument, Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task objectives</strong></td>
<td>Not clear from the teacher. But the students set their own goals which are clear when they start the writing task. A paper in each group was displayed: Search &gt;&gt; Plan &gt;&gt; organise &gt;&gt; write &gt;&gt; revise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grouping</strong></td>
<td>Whole class &amp; teacher: 10% Small group: 10% Individual: 80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learner activity</strong></td>
<td>Discussion, Taking notes, Planning, Reading (oral, silent, loud), Writing, Peer support, Drafting, Editing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher activity</strong></td>
<td>Write on the board, Supporting, Feedback, Dictating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategies used</strong></td>
<td><strong>1st period: leadership</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students were prepared for the writing lesson. They brought papers of what they searched at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Teacher wrote (leadership) on the board, discussed the text in the text book and ask questions about it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- She wrote the main ideas of the text on the board and told them to write about leadership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students raise their hands and discussed the ideas they prepared as a whole class discussion. And they ask the teacher question about her opinion on some ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- They discuss the organisation of the ideas with their peers and sometimes ask the teacher. They also ask me about some words and my opinion on the organisation of their ideas.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- Students use bilingual dictionaries while writing and they sometimes ask the teacher to translate some words.
- Students are free to choose any writing style (academic, argumentative or short story).
- Pair and group discussions are mostly in Arabic.
- Students revise their outlines and ideas while writing. They discuss the word choice.
- The teacher did not use brainstorming and she did not remind them of the writing strategies but she keeps on encouraging students.
- Students ask the teacher about the spelling of some words.
- By the end of the period, the teacher told the students that next time they will be able to complete writing and submit their essays.
- Student-centred practice.
- The teacher is a facilitator and monitor.

2nd period: leadership
- Students were given 10 minutes to read their essays and start revising the organisation, content and structure.
- Students revise their ideas, modifying, adding more examples and use different words, synonyms, smart connections. Then they revise the mechanism (spelling, punctuation & structure).
- Students used dictionaries.
- Students reread the paragraphs to check coherence and cohesion.
- They ask the teacher to give them feedback on the flow of the paragraphs and some of the ideas written.
- They occasionally work in pairs to get peer feedback.
- The teacher assigned 15 minutes to write their final drafts.
- After drafting, they edit their essays and hand them to the teacher for correction and teacher feedback.
- Then they have a chance for a third draft.
- Students identify and talk about their errors.
- Students use dictionaries and they consider the reader’s expectation in their discussion when they give peer feedback.
\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Comments} & \text{1st period} \\
\hline
- Students prepared for the lesson before the class. The teacher posted the topic on the school’s website (EDMODO) and they discussed it in the reading passage in the previous lesson. \\
- Goals were not clear to students though, they set their own goals. \\
- The teacher didn’t use brainstorming strategies. She just revise the previous lesson which is related to the writing topic. \\
- When the teacher instruct the students to start writing, they start looking at their planning sheets, their outlines and mind maps. They didn’t use the teachers’ ideas from the reading passage. \\
- The teacher did not assign any time for planning, formulating and revising but I can see that the students are working in the same track and try not to waste their time. \\
- They spent around 15 minutes to organise their ideas. Then they start writing and working individually for the rest of the period (25 minutes). \\
- The teacher monitors them while writing. \\
- Students revise their ideas and structure while writing. \\
- The teacher is using a multi method approach but not explicitly. She also did not feed the students with the writing strategies or remind them of any strategy because we want to see if the students realise the importance of the writing strategies and whether they will use them automatically or they will return to the old method and just paraphrase the reading passage. \\
- Students use their own ideas, set their own goals, and use the metacognitive writing strategies automatically. They are concerned about the quality of their ideas, coherence, cohesion and reader’s needs. \\
- They use the three writing styles but they did not move in groups they decide the style and remain in their chairs. They did not change groups as the teacher didn’t assign three groups for each writing style (academic, argumentative and short stories). \\
- The teacher was a facilitator and monitor so student centred practice is used in class. The teacher is not the controller of the learning process \\
- Students employ metacognitive writing strategies. \\
- I observe how motivated they are. \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
| 2nd period |
|---|---|
| - Students work individually when reading their essays. |
| - Students work in pairs to get feedback. |
| - Students’ discussion is very useful. |
| - The teacher is just a facilitator. |
| - Students enjoy planning, writing, revising. |
| - Students were engaged in the learning process. |
| - All the students were involved – no passive students - |
| - Students were enthusiastic when writing. |
| - The teacher couldn’t return 100% to the old method. She cannot be the controller of the learning process anymore. The students wouldn’t allow her as they work in the lesson and being the centre of the learning process automatically. |
| - The teacher needed 2 periods to finish the lesson. |
Appendix G: Instructions for academic essays

Academic Writing Guide: (e.g. Essay writing)

Academic writing must be clear and informative.

Steps:
Define the context:
- What is the title?
- Who’s your audience (e.g. your teacher, a peer or a website)?
- And what is the right length of your essay?
- Remember, the main point is what you should concentrate on.

Choose a topic. Often this will be decided for you.
Gather your information:
- Remember, you’ll need evidence for personal observations or scientific facts
- Take notes in details
- Track the sources of the facts
- Don’t ignore facts and claims that seem to negate your cases. Include the disagreeing evidence and show why such evidence is not valid.

As you’re researching your topic.
Plan your essay. Look over all of your research and notes: Try making a mind map to organize your thoughts. Let the evidence speak for itself. If you don’t have enough information to demonstrate anything, you may need to do more research or modify your topic.
Write the body of your essay first. Identify three or more points that support and/or explain your topic. Each point should be supported by specific evidence, examples or arguments.
Each point should be supported by a single paragraph. Use your outline as a guide.
After you write out all of your points, arrange the points themselves so that they flow logically from one to the next.

- Be careful about generalizing. Statements such as "_____ is the most important problem facing the world today," can cause your reader to dismiss your position out of hand if he/she disagrees with you. On the other hand, "_____ is one of the most important problems facing the world today," is at least a bit harder to argue with.
- Be careful not to use "statements" such as "I think this..." For most essay topics, your opinions will not be persuasive. Use evidence instead. For the most part, however, using the third person is the conventional method.
- Unless you are writing a personal opinion piece, you should not use the personal pronouns "I", "you" or "we", nor "my", "your" or "our".

Conclude your essay. Summarize your points and suggest ways in which your conclusion can be thought of in a larger sense. What are the implications of your thesis statement being true? What's the next step? What questions remain unanswered? This is not the place to introduce any new information that supports your statements—you should only be "repackaging" what you already discussed, using a broader perspective.
Write the introduction. Now that you've written the body and the conclusion, you're in the best position to tell the reader what they're getting into. Explain your thesis statement, and how you're going to affirm it, without being too specific. Do not use obvious expressions such as, "This essay is about..." or "The topic of this essay is..." or "I will now show that...". One approach is to begin with a general statement, then follow it with a question or problem, then with your thesis statement, and a brief overview of your points.

Read through your essay. Does each sentence lead smoothly to the next? Does each paragraph flow logically to the next? Each statement should be connected or related somehow to the one before it, not thrown randomly together.

Revise, Make sure you're happy with the way your paper presents its points. Don't like it? Re-arrange it. Once you're happy with the body, make sure the conclusion and introduction (in that order) still match it AND match the way you see your topic now. If not, rewrite them to fit the essay you did write.

Proofread. Now check for spelling and/or grammatical errors.

- Do not use first person point of view: I, me, we, our, us, etc.
- NEVER use second person point of view: you, your, etc.
- Do not use phrases such as I think that, I believe that, I feel that, in my opinion, etc.
- Do not use slang or other informal diction.
- BE PRECISE AND CLEAR. AVOID Wordiness
- Don't give readers commands such as: Be sure to ..... or any similar sentences.
- Avoid negatives (use failed rather than did not, for example)
- Do not use THAT when referring to people. The pronoun WHO refers to people.
- Under no circumstances should you use these words at all: NEED, MUST, SHOULD -- these words imply that you are giving instructions to your reader.
- "to be" verbs should be used sparingly: is, are, was, were, etc.
- Do not make announcements such as this paper will, in this paper I will, in the article, in the essay, etc.
- Never use words that seem uncertain: could, might, may, maybe, probably, etc.
- Pick out any repetitive words. Vary your language with the help of a thesaurus. Consult a dictionary to make sure that you're using the synonym adversely.
- Do not use contractions or abbreviations, such as don't, can't, won't, shouldn't, couldn't, or haven't. Use formal English: do not, cannot, will not, should not, could have, have not. Your essay should have a serious tone, even if written in a light or lyrical style.
- Use English punctuation correctly. Consult a style book if you are unsure how to properly use quotation marks, colons, semi-colons, apostrophes, or commas.

Avoid using exclamation points to emphasize your statements.

Appendix H: Instructions for argumentative writing

How to Write an Argumentative Essay

It is also called the persuasive essay. The following 9 steps will help guide you through the writing process.

1) Choose your topic—carefully.
   • Your topic must be arguable. Your topic needs to be debatable; there has to be a clear opposing (different, opposite) argument that others support. Ask yourself: who would oppose me? Why?
   • Your topic must be up-to-date and relevant. Arguments do not exist in a vacuum; they arise because people of varied beliefs interact with one another every day. Your essay, even if it is about the past, should connect to values and ideas of the present. Look at what’s going on in the world that’s inspiring discussion and or disagreement? Ask yourself: does my topic matter to people right now? Why?
   • Your topic must have value to you. If you choose a topic you care about, you’ll write better and research deeper.

2) Narrow and focus your topic. Focus on a specific aspect of your topic: a specific method, a specific policy, or a specific perspective. Doing so makes your topic manageable.

3) Analyze your audience. Assign a specific audience to address. (your teacher, a knowledgeable and experienced reader in the subject area). But don’t skip this step. Your understanding of your audience, even if your teacher, is important in determining the development and organization of your argument, as well as the stylistic techniques you can use in your writing. For example, your teacher expects a formal tone, large amounts of evidence, analysis of ideas.

4) Research wisely. Google is quick and easy; lots of the readily accessible data via Google is inaccurate and risky. Make sure your online sources are from established educational/professional sites (like eNotes). Once you find a helpful source, look at its references/bibliography to get new leads on evidence for your paper. Wash. Rinse. Repeat.

5) Use a variety of evidence types: expert opinions—in the form of quotations or paraphrases—and historical examples to provide varied and insightful support. Include your own personal experience or observations if they help illuminate the topic for your audience.

6) Express your judgment, not your opinion. Your teacher is less interested in what side you take than in how you take that side. how you analyze the issue and organize your response. Forget about whether you’re right and someone else is wrong; focus on your “line of argument”—how you develop your paper by meeting your audience’s needs, adding evidence, and proving understanding of the topic. Steps 7 and 8 will help you get there.
7) Dig deeper. Look for the themes or big ideas of your issue. Seeing the “big picture” adds depth to your argument.

8) Complexify your argument. There are several patterns writers can use to improve their argument and show critical thinking about their topic. Here are short summaries of five of them:

   - Cause and effect: discuss what has led to your topic becoming an issue and why the issue is affecting people.
   - Advantages and disadvantages
   - Compare and contrast
   - Propose a solution: a logical and feasible solution to your issue provides authority and credibility, and it can make for a strong conclusion.
   - Examine the implications: what effect will this issue have on individuals and/or the world? Discussing what lies ahead for your topic also makes for a strong approach to a conclusion.

9) Revise, revise, revise. Edit for grammar and spelling only after you are comfortable with what you’ve written and how you’ve written it.

Writing Stage

An argument essay should contain three parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion.

1. Introduce your topic and assert your side

As in any essay, the first paragraph of your argument essay should contain a brief explanation of your topic, some background information, and a thesis statement (thesis statement must assert your point, suggest your evidence, and structure your argument, all in one).

2. Present both sides of the controversy

In the body of your essay, you should go into more detail about the two sides of your controversy and state the strongest points of the counter-side of your issue.

After describing the “other” side, you will present your own viewpoint and then provide evidence to show why your position is the correct one.

Select your strongest evidence and present your points one by one. Use a mix of evidence types, from statistics, to other studies and stories. This part of your paper could be any length, from two paragraphs to two hundred pages.

Re-state your position as the most sensible one in your summary paragraphs.
Tips for Your Essay:

- Avoid emotional language. I feel that writing an argumentative essay is definitely a challenging task. (Feelings cannot be supported; we cannot persuade other people)
- Know the difference between a logical conclusion and an emotional point of view
- Don’t make up evidence
- Cite your sources
- Make an outline
- Be prepared to defend your side by knowing the strongest arguments for the other side. You might be challenged by the teacher or by another student.

1. The body should tell the general perception, your viewpoint and your justification as to why you have chosen a side
2. Give as much justification to prove your point, this will show the depth of your knowledge & research.
3. The conclusion should drive your reader to their own conclusion either they should agree or disagree with you.

Organization: All argumentative topics have PROs and CONs. Before starting writing, it is imperative to make a list of these ideas and choose the most suitable ones among them for supporting and refuting.

Supporting our ideas: This is the most important part when persuading others. We are asking some people to change their beliefs or actions. We should be supporting our ideas with such facts, statistics and/or authorities that there should not be room for any doubts. Here are some faulty supports we should avoid:

Thesis: Leaving the university and starting to work is good for the young people because ...

- Feelings, emotional arguments (... it makes one feel much better)
- Irrelevant examples (... he would then be able to go to expensive restaurants)
- Overgeneralization (... only then would he understand what it means to be an adult)
- Hasty generalizations (... it is a widely known fact that all adolescents look forward to earning money)
- Unreliable, even false outside sources (... according to www.doubtme.com, 80% of working men wish they quit school when they were at university and started working at an earlier age)
- Refuting opposing arguments: Before we start saying that the opponents are wrong, we should specify their opposing ideas. Otherwise, it would be like hitting the other person with eyes closed. We should see clearly what we are hitting and be prepared beforehand so that he cannot hit us back. We can do this by knowing what we are refuting.

- e.g. X Some people may say that adolescents should not leave university education, however, they are wrong. (what they say is not wrong. Maybe their
supporting idea is wrong / irrelevant / insufficient. We should state their supporting idea specifically to be able to refute it.

- Some people may say that adolescents should not leave university education because they are not physically and psychologically mature enough to cope with the problems of the real world. However, they forget one fact: adolescents can vote or start driving at the age of 18 (in some countries even before that age!), which proves that they are considered physically and psychologically mature at that age.

When pointing out opposing arguments (CONs):
Opponents of this idea claim / maintain that …
The ones who disagree / are against these ideas may say / assert that …
Some people may disagree with this idea.

When stating specifically why they think like that:
The put forward this idea because …
They claim that … since …

Reaching the turning point:
However, but
On the other hand.

When refuting the opposing idea we may use the following strategies:
- compromise but prove that their argument is not powerful enough:
  They have a point in thinking like that.
  To a certain extent they are right.

- completely disagree:
  After seeing this evidence, there is no way we can agree with what they say.

- say that their argument is irrelevant to the topic:
  What we are discussing here is not what they are trying to prove.
  Their argument is irrelevant.

References:
- Courtesy the Odegaard Writing & Research Centre, (2012),
Appendix I: Guide for writing short stories

Elements of the short story

- Character:
  - Why important?
    - A. need to identify
    - B. bring own life experiences to the story
  - Identifying Character
    1. physical description
    2. character’s thoughts, feelings, words
    3. comments and reactions of other characters
    4. actions of the character and author’s stated opinion

- Setting:
  - setting (time, place) of the short story has definite impact on character development and plot
  - the climax is approached

Plot

Systematic chain of events which make up the short story. The main character is presented with a situation which presents a problem or conflict which he must resolve. The events leading up to the resolution or climax of the story is commonly referred to as the rising action.

Types of conflict

- External
  - Man vs. Man
  - Man vs. Nature
  - Man vs. Other

- Internal
  - Man vs. Self

Point of View

It is critical to be able to see things from another’s point of view. (2 sides to every story?)

1. Omniscient
   - Narrator knows all – thoughts, feeling, ideas

2. Detached observer – narrator can describe characters and what they are doing, but not their thoughts and feelings

3. First Person – main character tells his own story and refers to himself as “I”

Theme

The controlling idea or belief as to what is important or unimportant in life. It gives the basic meaning to a literary work.

Reference

## Appendix J: Writing rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>1- Unsatisfactory (1-9)</th>
<th>2- Satisfactory (10-19)</th>
<th>3- Proficient (20-29)</th>
<th>4- Exemplary (30-40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Idea</strong></td>
<td>Writing is extremely limited in communicating knowledge, with no central theme</td>
<td>Writing does not clearly communicate knowledge. The reader is left with questions.</td>
<td>Writing is purposeful and focused. Piece contains some details.</td>
<td>Writing is confident and clearly focused. It holds the reader’s attention. Relevant details enrich writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation</strong></td>
<td>Writing is disorganized and underdeveloped with no transitions or closure.</td>
<td>Writing is brief and underdeveloped.</td>
<td>Uses correct writing format with a strong beginning, middle and end.</td>
<td>Writing includes a strong beginning, middle and end with clear transitions and a focused closure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voice</strong></td>
<td>Writer’s voice/point of view shows no sense of audience.</td>
<td>Writer’s voice/point of view shows little or vague sense of audience.</td>
<td>Writer has strong voice/point of view.</td>
<td>Writes with a distinct, unique voice/point of view.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Main Idea**
  - Clear and focus
  - Writer understands task
- **Content**
  - Accurate supporting details/evidence
  - Details/evidence well suited to audience
  - Details/evidence relevant to main idea
  - Accurate conclusion
- **Organisation**
  - Introduction
  - Body
  - Conclusion
  - Transitions
- **Voice**
  - Writer’s voice/point of view shows no sense of audience.
  - The text addresses the specific audience needs
  - Writing engages the audience
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language use</th>
<th>Occasional use of accurate vocabulary</th>
<th>Acceptable use of accurate vocabulary</th>
<th>Ample use of accurate vocabulary</th>
<th>Extensive use of accurate vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accurate vocabulary</td>
<td>Limited word choice.</td>
<td>Effective word choice.</td>
<td>Extraordinary word choice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varied word choice</td>
<td>Negligible variation in Sentence form and structure</td>
<td>Substantial variation in Sentence form and structure</td>
<td>Extensive variation in Sentence form and structure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence form and structure</td>
<td>Product is rarely coherent and does not read well.</td>
<td>Product is sometimes coherent and sometimes reads well.</td>
<td>Product is usually coherent and reads well.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanics</th>
<th>Limited control of standard writing conventions (spelling, capitalization, punctuation and grammar)</th>
<th>Adequate control of standard writing conventions (spelling, capitalization, punctuation and grammar)</th>
<th>Effective control of standard writing conventions (spelling, capitalization, punctuation and grammar)</th>
<th>Commendable control of standard writing conventions (spelling, capitalization, punctuation and grammar)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Duxbury High School [http://www.duxbury.k12.ma.us/Page/1850](http://www.duxbury.k12.ma.us/Page/1850)
Appendix K: Pre-test, control group

**English 3**

**Unit One: A window on the World**

**Writing**

**Topic** Theme Park

**Introduction**

Did you go to any theme park in the world? Did you visit more than one landmark at the same time? Did you know that you can visit 130 replicas in one place? This place is in China.

The window of the world is a theme park in Shenzhen, China. Every year there are more than one million visitors to the theme park from all over the world.

**Detail 1**

In the theme park you can hang out with your friends and pop corn while you watching face work. You can buy food from different countries and see other countries’ culture and traditions.

You can document your trip with pictures and show to your friends and family. You can buy gifts and replicas as a remembrance. You also can buy clothes from all over the world.

**Detail 2**

In the theme park you will be full of fun and you will never feel bored. It will be an unforgettable trip ever.

**Conclusion**

Fourth Secondary School 1433-1434 Teachers: Munerah Al-Jabr & Hend Al-Saleh
Appendix L: Pre-test, experimental group

**Topic:** Theme Park

**Introduction:**
Why do we like going to the theme park? What things you can do there? What can you experience and what can you see there?

The theme park in China contains more than 130 replicas of the most famous landmarks in the world all squeezed onto one place.

**Detail 1:**
There are a lot of fun activities you can do and experience like trying other culture's food, clothes, dancing, and also different types languages.

**Detail 2:**
You can also watch shows and fireworks. After midnight, you can taste a lot of candies like popcorn and cotton candy while you enjoy watching clowns and big balloons.

**Conclusion:**
It's really a place where you can have a lot of fun and educate about new habits.
Appendix M: Written materials, control group

**Topic:** Colours

Colours are the beauty of life. There are a lot of colours in the world. Each colour has different meanings in different cultures.

The purple colour has a deep meaning. It helps to feel good, and it is the colour of meditation and reflection.

In China, the red colour is the colour of good luck and prosperity. On the other hand, in the western world, red represents danger.

In Western culture, white represents goodness and purity; while in Asian culture, white is associated with funerals and mourning. We see white colour in a lot of things like snow, cotton, milk and lace.

**Conclusion:**

I think learning about the colours is fun and important, with colours we can see life in better way. My favorite colour is pink.

10/1/14
Colours influence your mood and feelings; they have different meanings in different cultures. Each person has ideas about colours they are important in our life because they give us power, love and happiness.

**Red** is the colour of love, danger, angel and power. Red has many meanings like in China, red means good luck; the bride wears red dresses in their wedding. Japanese children draw the sun as big red circle. The red colour always using in stop signs.

Green is associated with health, nature, relax and some vegetables. Green is combination between yellow and blue. Some people when they see green colour they think about jungle.

**Yellow** is another colour that has various meanings in different cultures. In Saudi Arabia, it is related with money.
The person I admire most is Khalid bin Al-walid. He is one of the famous generals of all the times. In the glorious of Islam in particular.

Khalid bin Al-walid was strong, and brave and he had never lost a battle except the battle of Khaibar. His bravery and great work in the way of Allah and in spreading Islam was got him the title of The Sword of Allah.

As for myself, Khalid bin Al-walid had a lasting effect on me. What he did for Islam made me so proud to be Muslim.

Khalid bin Al-walid is one of the most amazing characters in Islam, and I'm so thankful about what he did for Islam. And Inshallah I'll meet him in the heaven.
Appendix N: Written materials, experimental group

Annae Alhendel

Amazing leader!

I spent my childhood trying to know my strengths in life. I had friends who were perfect storytellers, artists and singers. Some of my schoolmates were excellent in mathematics, and others were comedians who made us laugh. I was really annoyed because I could not find my talents. I tried out most of the activities hoping that my strong traits would reveal themselves.

I am an honest, intelligent boy and was one of my top performers in my class. However, I felt that I had a gift that is uncovered. It is interesting to note that I served under different leadership during my primary school years. However, it never happened to me that I had the gift of leadership. It was not until many years later that I realized that I was gifted leader.

It was a cold day during my final year in high school. A loud cry rent the air. I quickly jumped to my feet and listened carefully. Soon all the students in my class started murmuring about a confusion. I ran out to investigate and noticed that part of the school was already being destroyed by angry students. The whole situation was very messy and nobody could give any useful information. I realized that something must be done quickly before the situation got worse. I knew my way around the school and I had a plan in mind. It was with much difficulty that I made my way to the Main Hall and spoke to the students through the microphone. I carefully convinced the students to come to the hall to fix the problem.
After everybody had sat down, I talked to the students for ninety minutes. First, I set out to understand the cause of the students' anger and knew that they blamed the school management for unfair treatment. It was expected that some of our peers had illegally been dismissed from the school for searching the competence of some staff members. While I appreciated their worry for our school mates, I advised them against following the rule of the jungle. I outlined several ways that were available for students to complain. I also succeeded to form a committee of ten students who would meet with the school's headmaster later for more discussions. It was a magical moment; students volunteered information freely since I assured them that there would be no victims. I thanked the students in loud cheers and wished them a blessed day. Once the students had left, the entire staff came on stage and congratulated me for a job well done. That event shaped the rest of my academic life since I was awarded a full scholarship by the school administration.
Successful people work hard to achieve their goals. Everyone can be a successful person, and these are a few steps to follow:

First of all, you should believe in yourself, then follow your dreams and do what you love.

Second step, work hard as much as you can to reach what you want, be positive, think positive.

Third step, organize your time and sleep well, don’t forget to read Quran and Pray to Allah.

In my point of view, these are the most important steps, and when you follow them, you will get what you hope to have. Allah bless you.
Appendix P: Post-test, experimental group

Monday, 3. 14th

Dana Hains

Maher, had been a very promising student. He was an excellent student and made sure to be a great student with his great passion. However, when he was 16, his village suffered from a dangerous disease. In one week, thousands of people in his village, including all his family, passed away. On the 8th day, the ministry of health came up with a vaccine that brought the tragedy to a stop. When Maher learned about what had happened to his family, he was shocked. Luckily for him, all the school staff helped him cope with his sadness. With the help of a psychiatrist, Maher was able to survive the suffering. Shortly, he decided to focus on his education with the aim to be a doctor. He was driven by the urge of being able to help people and save people’s lives.

Maher needed everybody with a lot of respect. His teachers adored him and guided him through high school. It wasn’t surprising when he became the top student in the final exams. This won him an automatic scholarship at the University. He also appeared on TV to talk about his secret for academic excellence.

Patience, modesty, self-control, and his eagerness for knowledge were his answer. However, he insisted on his focus to be a doctor. Nothing could stop him from his dream, obtaining a successful professional.

Six years later, Maher graduated from the medical college with excellent qualifications. He served in the health sector and built an empire and served as an inspiration to millions of helpless children. In a few years, Maher was able to create huge wealth, while at the same time doing a great job. It was only last year that Maher made what he describes as his most important support to humankind.
When a viral infection was reported in Africa last year, everybody was scared. The disease was killing people within seconds of infection. It was the worst epidemic the world had ever come across. Nothing short of a miracle would save people. However, exactly 32 hours after the first case was reported, a united team of doctors, led by Dr. Maher, came up with a cure for the disease. The doctors in the team attributed their success to Maher, who had organized the team and watched its progress. His timely involvement has saved people.
Success is a bout getting all that you wanted to have It’s finding that you have achieved your goals and fulfilled your plans. It’s waking up in the morning feeling victorious rather than feeling defeated. Success can truly be defined in many ways. Whatever Personal meaning you have for success, what is important is that you do your best to achieve your goals, abide by the rules of life, and use your skills to fulfill the feeling of success will make you walk proudly in the streets.

First, you must believe in yourself and your ability to succeed without believing in yourself, you have already lost the race. Believe that you are going to make it, believe that whatever you go through for your self, one day, that will happen. Believe that whatever was your goal in life, you will get it some day.

Work hard and be very disciplined, success does not come over night. It is very important you can never become successful without hard work. Finding your inner self and believe won’t help you to become successful. If you are not ready to work hard, nothing can be achieved without pain. So don’t hide your self from hard work. If you don’t have goals or plans then you are going to be a part of other people’s plans. Manage yourself, plan your time and keep your self healthy by eating well and taking plenty of exercise. IF you don’t plan you will swept away by those who do. Planning is an essential skill in success tool kit.

Patience is the biggest thing you should believe in. If you want to be successful in life many successful people say that patience is a key to success and it is really true. If you don’t have patience, then a have all is waste. It won’t be easy but it can be done in everything you do. You should exact a high level of self-confidence. An idea about what the future could be like, you must be able to clearly see what you want, your vision must be clear and detailed. So get that pen and paper back out and make a list of all the things that needed to be done to reach your dreams and then under each item, decide what needs to happen or change for that task to be accomplished. Now the hard part, the first steps are very easy compared with this one. What steps apart the average person from the successful one is the ability to consistently.
put efforts of accomplishing their goals. That is where the motivation come in. You need to learn the skill of keeping that fire going inside you. Without this fuel of desire, you'll be dead in the water in a week. You can be good with a little effort but you can't be great unless you put an incredible amount of effort. There are no overnight successes. The tips which I mentioned above will help any one to become successful. These are basic steps which you should never forget, but here I want to tell you that the steps which I mentioned is really very difficult to follow, but as I said before you can't achieve any thing without pain, no pain, no gain simple.
Appendix Q: Reliability tables of the students’ questionnaire

Table 1: Values for the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the self-assessment section of the student questionnaire

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<th>S/N</th>
<th>Consistency coefficient value</th>
<th>Consistency coefficient value</th>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
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</tbody>
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Value of the entire reliability coefficient: 0.947

Table 2: Values of Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the use of writing strategies

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<tr>
<th>Before writing</th>
<th>During writing</th>
<th>After writing</th>
<th></th>
<th>Before writing</th>
<th>During writing</th>
<th>After writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>Reliability value</td>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>Reliability value</td>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>Reliability value</td>
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<td>0.815</td>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

The value of axle reliability coefficient: 0.771

The value of axle reliability coefficient: 0.799

Entire reliability coefficient: 0.900
Table 3: Values of the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for general learning strategies in the student questionnaire

<table>
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<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Consistency coefficient value</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Consistency coefficient value</th>
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<td>6</td>
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Value of the axle reliability coefficient: 0.886
### Appendix R: Description of English language courses for the secondary Courses System

(Secondary Education Development Project, 2013: 35)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>No of hours</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English 1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>This is a general English language course. It enables students to acquire various skills and sub skills. It also enables students to achieve a suitable level of proficiency in English language. A student is exposed to various language activities. Different language functions such as: greetings, occupations, using English in real life situations - are to be taught.</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English 2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>This is a general English language course. It enables students to acquire various skills and sub skills. It also enables the students to communicate with others in English properly. Various language functions such as expressing feelings and emotions, talking about familiar topics, using English in daily life routines... are to be taught.</td>
<td>English 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English 3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>This is a general English language course. It enables students to acquire various skills and sub skills. This course enables the students to use English within and beyond school setting. A student will be able to talk about performance of a certain task. Give their opinions about familiar topics, describe people and objects... etc.</td>
<td>English 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English 4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>This is a general English language course. It enables students to acquire various skills and sub skills. This course enables the students to obtain information from different sources. Also various functions such as giving and receiving instructions, talking about safety and precautions, communicating with others in various channels are to be taught.</td>
<td>English 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English 5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>This is a specific English language course. It enables students to acquire various skills and sub skills. The students will be capable to use English in field of humanities. They are exposed to English literature, various cultural concepts. Students should be able to deal with mechanics of understanding the beauty of English language and how use such knowledge for useful purposes.</td>
<td>English 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix S: Consent forms

S.1: University of Hull

Research Ethics Approval, A. Al Nooh

Dear [Name],

Many thanks for the added information provided in regard to your Research Ethics Approval application. I am pleased to inform you that the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee has agreed ethics approval for the proposed research.

Best wishes,

Carol

Carol Johnson
Family Secretary

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
University of Hull
Hull, HU6 7RX

www.hull.ac.uk

01482 462015
01482 462084 (Fax)
carol.johnson@hull.ac.uk
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education
Girls' Education
General Directorate of Education for girls in Riyadh

To whom it may concern

We would like to notify you that we do not mind the student Amel Alnooh who is studying the stage of PhD at the University of Hull, section of Modern Languages to apply her research about The impact of the multi method approach on teaching writing to secondary learners in the Fourth Secondary School for girls in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia/ Riyadh.

School Principal
Salwa Sulaiman Al Ghofaili
S.2.1: School head teacher

Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages.

School head teacher: Invitation to take part in a research project.

Implementing an integrated Approach to improve the writing skill for first year secondary female learners in Saudi Arabia

About the research.

This research project aims to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia. The study attempts to understand whether implementing a combined approach may help in improving the writing skills for first year secondary ESL learners. It also aims to observe and describe how learners and teachers perform writing strategies in the classroom. The research will investigate learners and teachers’ opinions and beliefs about the applied strategies and how effective are they on their writing skills.

The research will be carried out through the implementation of writing strategies, questionnaires and interviews with the Saudi ESL learners and their teachers. It also involves the analysis of written materials and classroom observation. Work on the research began in January 2011 and is scheduled to be ongoing for three years.

What does the study involve?

- Implementation of writing strategies and a combined Approach will take place in September 2012 to improve writing skills for first year secondary learners. One class will be asked to take part as the experimental group for the implementation of the multi-methods approach to writing being proposed. The writing teachers will also be asked to participate.

- Students in the experimental group will complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire aims to gauge their interest in writing and to evaluate their knowledge and writing skills. This will be completed anonymously. A sample of learners from each group (focus and traditional) will also be interviewed.

- Teachers will complete a questionnaire which has the same objectives as the students’ but from the point of view of the teachers. Teachers from each group will also be interviewed.

- The experimental group class will also be observed by the researcher.

- The student text book, teachers’ lesson plan, records of students’ marks and students’ assignments will also be analysed to evaluate the students’ progress and achievement.
Your involvement

- The researcher will work in partnership with the teachers and will carry out the questionnaires, interviews and observations with the experimental group class.

- All references to students and teachers will be made anonymous and all individual identities will be protected.

Benefits.

The views, participation and feedback of ESL Saudi students and their teachers are an essential part of the research. It is hoped that this research will make a contribution to the continuing effort to improve the teaching of English writing to the Saudi EFL/ESL students. The research gives teachers an opportunity to reflect on practice. The research gives learners an opportunity for their voice to be heard in their classroom and beyond. It is hoped that this will encourage learner autonomy and be an initial step in encouraging learners to develop their writing skills in the classroom and beyond.

Risks and Hazards

There are no risks or hazards associated with this research. All data gathered will be maintained under conditions of strict confidentiality and destroyed at the end of the research, and anonymity will be preserved in any published reports arising from the research.

Informed Consent

If you are happy to take part in the research, please sign and date the form. You will be given a copy of the form for your records. The researcher will keep a copy of the form in a locked cabinet.

If you would like further information about this research please contact;

Amel Al Nooh
Email: A.Alnooh@2010.hull.ac.uk

Additional Information.

Supervisor: Dr Marina Mozzon-McPherson, Head of Department, Modern Languages.
E-mail: M.Mozzon-McPherson@hull.ac.uk

Department of Modern Languages Research: [http://www2.hull.ac.uk/fass/modern-languages/research.aspx](http://www2.hull.ac.uk/fass/modern-languages/research.aspx)
S.2.2: Teachers

Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages.

Teachers: Invitation to take part in a research project.

Implementing a combined Approach to improve the writing skill for first year secondary female learners in Saudi Arabia

About the project.

This research project aims to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia. The study attempts to understand whether implementing a combined approach may help in improving the writing skills for first year secondary ESL learners. It also aims to observe and describe how learners and teachers perform writing strategies in the classroom. The research will investigate learners and teachers’ opinions and beliefs about the applied strategies and how effective are they on their writing skills.

The research will be carried out through the implementation of writing strategies, questionnaires and interviews with the Saudi ESL learners and their teachers. It also involves the analysis of written materials and classroom observation. Work on the research began in January 2011 and is scheduled to be ongoing for three years.

Your involvement

- You will be invited to take part in an interview/questionnaire/experimental group in connection with this study. This will concern applying some writing strategies in the writing lessons and your opinions about the strategies used in writing and the new method used. You will not be asked to discuss private information.

- All references to students and teachers will be made anonymous and all individual identities will be protected.

Benefits.

The views, participation and feedback of ESL Saudi students and their teachers are an essential part of the research. It is hoped that this research will make a contribution to the continuing effort to improve the teaching of English writing to the Saudi EFL/ESL students. It is hoped that this will encourage learner autonomy and be an initial step in encouraging learners to develop their writing skills in the classroom and beyond.
Risks and Hazards

There are no risks or hazards associated with this research. All data gathered will be maintained under conditions of strict confidentiality and destroyed at the end of the research, and anonymity will be preserved in any published reports arising from the research.

Informed Consent

If you are happy to take part in the research, please sign and date the form. You will be given a copy of the form for your records. The researcher will keep a copy of the form in a locked cabinet.

If you would like further information about this research please contact;

Amel Al Nooh
Email: A.Alnooh@2010.hull.ac.uk

Additional Information.
Supervisor: Dr Marina Mozzon-McPherson, Head of Department, Modern Languages. E-mail: M.Mozzon-McPherson@hull.ac.uk

Department of Modern Languages Research: http://www2.hull.ac.uk/fass/modern-languages/research.aspx
S.2.3: Students

Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages.

ESL Learners: Invitation to take part in a research project.

Implementing a Combined Approach to improve the writing skill for first year secondary female learners in Saudi Arabia

About the project.

This research project aims to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia. The aim is to use different methods to investigate your writing skills. The research will investigate your opinions and beliefs about the methods used.

The research will be carried out through practicing of writing strategies, questionnaires and interviews with you and your teachers. It also involves the analysis of written materials and classroom observation. Work on the research began in January 2011 and is scheduled to be ongoing for three years.

Your involvement

☐ You will be invited to take part in an interview/questionnaire/experimental group. This will concern learning some writing strategies in the writing lessons and your opinions about the strategies used in writing. You will not be asked to discuss private information.

☐ All references to you will be made anonymous and all individual identities will be protected.

Benefits.

It is hoped that this research will help our understanding of writing strategies. It is hoped that this will encourage your autonomy and be an initial step in encouraging learners to develop their writing skills in the classroom.

Risks and Hazards

There are no risks or hazards associated with this research. All data gathered will be confidential and destroyed at the end of the research, and anonymity will be preserved in any published reports arising from the research.
Informed Consent

If you are happy to take part in the research, please sign and date the form. You will be given a copy of the form for your records. The researcher will keep a copy of the form in a locked cabinet.

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E-mail: M.Mozzon-McPherson@hull.ac.uk

Department of Modern Languages Research: http://www2.hull.ac.uk/fass/modern-languages/research.aspx
S.2.4 Parents

Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages.

Parents/ guardians: Invitation for your child to take part in a research project.

Implementing a Combined Approach to improve the writing skill for first year secondary female learners in Saudi Arabia

About the project.

This research project aims to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia. The study attempts to understand whether implementing a combined approach may help in improving the writing skills for first year secondary ESL learners. It also aims to observe and describe how learners and teachers perform writing strategies in the classroom. The research will investigate learners and teachers’ opinions and beliefs about the applied strategies and how effective are they on their writing skills.

The research will be carried out through the implementation of writing strategies, questionnaires and interviews with the Saudi ESL learners and their teachers. It also involves the analysis of written materials and classroom observation. Work on the research began in January 2011 and is scheduled to be ongoing for three years.

Your involvement

☑ Your child will be invited to take part in an interview/questionnaire/experimental group in connection with this study. This will concern learning some writing strategies in the writing lessons and your child’s opinions about the strategies used in writing and the new method used. Your child will not be asked to discuss private information.

☑ All references to students and teachers will be made anonymous and all individual identities will be protected.

Benefits.

The views, participation and feedback of ESL Saudi students and their teachers are an essential part of the research. It is hoped that this research will make a contribution to the continuing effort to improve the teaching of English writing to the Saudi EFL/ESL students. It is hoped that this will encourage learner autonomy and be an initial step in encouraging learners to develop their writing skills in the classroom and beyond.
Risks and Hazards

There are no risks or hazards associated with this research. All data gathered will be maintained under conditions of strict confidentiality and destroyed at the end of the research, and anonymity will be preserved in any published reports arising from the research.

Informed Consent

If you are happy to let your child take part in the research, please sign and date the form. You will be given a copy of the form for your records. The researcher will keep a copy of the form in a locked cabinet.

If you would like further information about this research please contact;

Amel Al Nooh
Email: A.Alnooh@2010.hull.ac.uk

Additional Information.
Supervisor: Dr Marina Mozzon-McPherson, Head of Department, Modern Languages.
E-mail: M.Mozzon-McPherson@hull.ac.uk

Department of Modern Languages Research: http://www2.hull.ac.uk/fass/modern-languages/research.aspx
UNIVERSITY OF Hull
Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages
CONSENT FORM – For the School

1. salmon Al Qudah
   Head Teacher
   of the 4th Secondary School

Hereby give consent for the 4th Secondary School to be involved in a research study being undertaken by Amel Al Nooh

I understand that the purpose of the research is to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia and that involvement for the school means the following:

- The 4th Secondary School consents to allow Amel Al Nooh to apply the writing method, conduct surveys and interviews with first year secondary learners and their teachers.

I understand that:

1. The aims, methods, and anticipated benefits, and possible risks/hazards of the research study, have been explained to me.
2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent for the school to participate in the above research study.
3. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained through this school will not be used if I so request.
4. I understand that aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.

I agree that:

1. The school MAY / MAY NOT be named in research publications or other publicity without prior agreement.
2. I / We DO / DO NOT require an opportunity to check the factual accuracy of the research findings related to the institution/organisation.
3. I / We EXPECT / DO NOT EXPECT to receive a copy of the research findings or publications.

Signature: ____________________________ Date: 26-09-2012
Hereby agree to be a participant in this study to be undertaken by Amel Al Nooh and I understand that the purpose of the research is to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia.

I understand that:

1. The aims, methods, anticipated benefits and possible risks/hazards of the research study have been explained to me.

2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent to my participation in the study.

3. I understand that the aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.

4. Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my written authorization.

5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature: [Signature] Date: [Date]

The contact details of the researcher are:

e-mail: A.Alnooh@2010.hull.ac.uk Phone number: +447851170088
UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages
CONSENT FORM – For Teachers

Abdulrahman Mohammed Al-Jalil Al-Farwah Secondary School

I hereby agree to be a participant in this study to be undertaken by Amel Al Nooh and I understand that the purpose of the research is to improve the writing skills of secondary ESL learners in Saudi Arabia.

I understand that

1. The aims, methods, anticipated benefits and possible risks/hazards of the research study have been explained to me

2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent to my participation in the study

3. I understand that the aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals

4. Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my written authorization

5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature: ___________________________ Date: ____________

The contact details of the researcher are:

e-mail: A.Alnooh@2010.hull.ac.uk Phone number: +447851120988
UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages

CONSENT FORM – For parents/ guardians

I …………………………… of Mark Al Nooh…

I hereby agree to let my child ………………………… be a participant in this study to be undertaken by Amel Al Nooh, and I understand that the purpose of the research is to improve the ESL writing skills.

I understand that

1. The aims, methods, anticipated benefits and possible risks/hazards of the research study have been explained to me

2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent to my child’s participation in the study

3. I understand that the results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals

4. Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my written authorization

5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my child’s participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature: _______________________________ Date: 26-9-12

The contact details of the researcher are:

e-mail: A.ANooh@2010.hull.ac.uk  Phone number: +447851120088
UNIVERSITY OF Hull
Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
Department of Modern Languages
CONSENT FORM – For Learners

I ...dRew... of... t...m..s...S...n...d...lary, in K SA

Hereby agree to be a participant in this study to be undertaken by Amel Al Nooh, and I understand that the purpose of the research is to improve the ESL writing skills.

I understand that

1. The aims, methods, anticipated benefits and possible risks/hazards of the research study have been explained to me

2. I freely give my consent to my participation in the study

3. I understand that the results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals

4. Individual results will not be released to any person unless I give consent.
5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature: ___________________________ Date: 26-9-12

The contact details of the researcher are:

e-mail: A.Alnoooh@hull.ac.uk  Phone number: +447851120088