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Trinity College, University of Dublin

School of Education

WRITING STRATEGIES OF SAUDI ARABIAN ESP LEARNERS: COMPETENCE, APPREHENSION AND THE ROLE OF STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

A thesis submitted for the degree of

PhD in Education

May 2014

By

Mohammad Rajab Alnufaie

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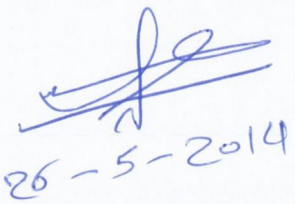

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the writing strategies of 121 second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who are studying English as a foreign language and for specific purposes in one of the Saudi industrial colleges: Jubail Industrial College (JIC). The writing strategies under investigation were classified into two categories (process-oriented writing strategies and product-oriented writing strategies) based on their instructional philosophies. A strategy questionnaire was designed for data collection, and think-aloud protocols of 4 participants were used for triangulation purposes. A writing Strategy Apprehension Scale (WSAS) was developed to collect data on apprehension levels and semi-structured interviews with 8 participants were conducted for deep investigation. The participants' writing competence levels were measured by an argumentative writing task. Based on the scores of the strategy questionnaire, the apprehension scale and the writing task, the participants were classified into three levels of strategy users, three levels of strategy apprehension and three levels of writing competence.

The results show that although JIC writing classes were assumed to be product-oriented, almost all of the participants (95.9%) were mixing the two kinds of strategies. More surprisingly, the top five writing strategies used were process-oriented. In addition, while the majority of the participants (57.9%) were average in their stress and apprehension towards writing strategies, almost a third of them (31.4%) were highly apprehensive. In addition, the most stressful strategies were those that involve a lack of generating ideas, ensuring accuracy, and meeting the teacher's expectations.

The results, also, show that the low competent writers were similar to the high apprehensive strategy users in their kinds of strategy use. Both of them tended

to use more process-oriented writing strategies than product-oriented ones. On the other hand, the high competent writers and the low apprehensive strategy users tended to use a mixture of both process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies.

The correlational analysis found that there is a significantly positive correlation between writing-strategy apprehension levels, on one hand, and the types of writing strategies and competence levels on the other hand, indicating that when students are users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies, they are more average in their writing apprehension and writing competence.

In addition, three other variables in the research (L1 use in L2 writing, L1 general writing practice, and L2 general writing practice) were found not to be strongly related to both strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence levels.

In the pre-experimental treatment, five students have been taught 7 process-based writing strategies over a period of 5 weeks for the sake of finding the effect of such type of strategies on students' competence and apprehension levels. The results of this pre-experimental part of the study revealed that three of the participants had reported a positive change in their apprehension and competence levels. However, all the changes were not statistically significant.

The researcher, therefore, has recommended JIC teachers to try and adopt a diverse view of EFL writing instruction and allow for constant access to different types of writing strategies. In addition, strategy instruction was found to be interesting and useful and teachers might need to adopt this in their writing approaches.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a foreign language

ESL: English a second language

L2: Second language

FL: foreign language

L1: first language

ELC: English language Center

JIC: Jubail Industrial College

WAT: Writing Apprehension Test

WSAS: Writing-strategy Apprehension Scale

RQ: Research question

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Chapter 1: General Introduction

"With any change from established ways of thinking, a stimulating debate often occurs" (Arnold, 2001).

This chapter offers a general introduction to the present research, the nature of investigation in the scope of L2/FL writing instruction and the organization of the thesis.

1.1. Preface

Reflecting on constant debates among JIC writing teachers regarding the best method of EFL writing instruction, I got a feeling that our students might be victims to a misunderstanding of their actual needs. I agree that students of English writing as a second/foreign language (L2/FL) face highly significant challenges in writing classes everywhere including those who are educated abroad. Data shows that ESL students in the USA, for example, face a lot of pressures to meet the standards of writing assessment in the entry-exams of higher education despite their years of schooling in the United States (Panofsky *et al.*, 2005). If this is the case with such students, then it will not be much better with our EFL students educated in their home country. One might argue that writing should be always instructed simply because the ability to write a text that is error free is not a naturally acquired skill but is formally learned in formal instructional settings (Banda, 2003). However, this argument seems to limit the dimensions of writing skill, in particular, and language in general because it only values the linguistic side of the skill and overlooks the strategic side. Students might need to be introduced to the most effective writing techniques and strategies. Learning to write seems to be a typical example where the components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) can meet, interact, and develop. In addition, certain cognitive, social and affective factors related to second language acquisition

show that strategies involved in the language learning process also affect L2 writing (Myles, 2002).

The ideas mentioned above helped in shaping and polishing the picture of the present research to include some inter-related elements in the literature of ESL/EFL writing instruction: writing approaches, writing strategies, writing competence, writing apprehension, and writing strategy instruction. The major aim is to find out how the type of EFL writing strategies (as inspired by the principles of a particular writing approach) correlate with writing competence and with a particular believed writing problem, i.e. writing apprehension. Then a simple intervention of process-based writing strategy instruction will take place to measure the effect of the treatment on high apprehension and low writing competence. Writing strategies in this study are classified into process-oriented and product-oriented strategies. This classification is based on the beliefs and philosophies of process approaches and product approaches in writing instruction. In each category, therefore, the reader might find cognitive, meta-cognitive, social, affective and problem-solving kinds of strategies.

The reasons behind focusing on reducing writing apprehension, in particular, are many. Despite the claim that successful writers might have a sort of writing apprehension that moves them up to care about what they are writing, some student writers might have a high level of apprehension that might have negative effects on them and causes them to start hating the writing skill. In this study, the interest is not in the stress of writing in general but in the stress of particular writing strategies and the association of that with writing competence. Excessive apprehension and stress might block the writing process inside classrooms.

The idea of writing apprehension has come popular in the field of writing since 1970s when Daly and Miller first introduced the term. Almost in the same era, the

researchers' focus has been shifted from the final product to the processes and strategies before producing the final piece of writing (Cumming, 1998; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Krapels, 1990a; Silva, 1993).

The present researcher eliminates and excludes some areas of research that could be considered relevant such as strategy research conducted with L2/FL secondary school students, L2/FL children's writing, research in L2/FL reading as it is believed to be related to L2/FL writing in many complicated ways, and research in writing block, self-efficacy and writing attitudes. By excluding those related areas, the researcher aims to emphasize the EFL writing strategies of undergraduate students and their relation to writing competence and one of the writing affective difficulties, i.e. apprehension, and be able to restrict his focus in order to concentrate on his central research questions rather than risking the diversion of a vastly expanded research base.

The next section will shed light on the position of the present research inquiry in the scope of L2/FL writing instruction.

1.2. L2/FL writing instruction: the nature of investigation

ESL/EFL writing instruction began with the focus on the written product and its textual features. Writing teachers were mostly interested in teaching grammar rather than anything else. Since 1980s, ESL writing instruction began to take a new dimension as a cognitive and communicative skill (Reid, 1993b). Generally speaking, when we talk about 'writing', we refer to three dimensions: textual features, composing processes, and sociocultural construction (see Cumming, 1998). This threefold dimension of writing represents the areas around which L2/FL writing research and instruction moves (see chapter 3).

Writing skill is different from the other language skills, particularly speaking (see Hughey *et al.*, 1983), in many aspects. Writing skills cannot be acquired naturally (not as claimed by Krashen (1984) that writing is naturally acquired in an authentic interaction). They have to be both instructed and naturally practiced (see Raimes, 1983b; Byrne, 1989). Writers depend on letters and structures to express their ideas, whereas speakers depend on voices and gestures to get their message through. Feedback and interaction cannot be immediate on the spot of writing, but they can be so in speaking. Speaking can be informal and repetitive; writing can almost always be formal and compact (see Raimes, 1983b). One more distinctive feature of writing is that it enhances and fosters the development of spilling, vocabulary and grammar. As writers write they search for suitable words and suitable structures.

In second language education, (as argued by Cumming, 1998) recent inquires about writing includes two considerations. The first is related to biliteracy where writing skill is influenced by the individuals' personal histories with and proficiency in L1 and L2, the uses and status of languages in different societies, and the similarities and differences between languages. Although there are similarities between L1 and L2 writing skills, there seems to be sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic features that distinguish L2 from L1 writing (see section 3.2). A number of research studies are interested in comprehending those features and their inter-relations (ibid). Quite recently, L2 writing research and pedagogy have developed an interest in the social nature of literacy (Leki, 2000). Social or 'situated' literacies refer to "the link between the activities of reading and writing and the social structures in which they are embedded and which they shape" (Barton *et al.*, 2000, p. 7). It is argued that "literacies are acquired through exposure to discourses from a variety of social contexts" (Johns, 1997, p. 14). This social view of literacies makes L2 writing

specialists to realize that "effective writing instruction must enable students to become readers and writers" (Hedgcock, 2005, p. 600). Reading and writing are closely related as signs of knowledge (see Reid, 1993b). L2 Researchers have found a strong connection between effective readers and effective writers (ibid). This necessitates reading a lot to be a good reader and consequently a good writer. "One does not become a good reader unless one reads a lot" (Grabe & Stoller, 2001, p. 198). Research findings show that the development of writing proficiency is strongly related to effective reading skills (Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005). Writing enhances reading, and reading reinforces writing as writers read to find proofs and examples supporting their argument. Grabe (2001, p. 15) showed that L2 reading and writing are connected and interactive in five aspects: "reading to learn, writing to learn, reading to improve writing, writing to improve reading, and reading and writing together for better learning". Moreover, one of the important findings of research in biliteracy is that reading and writing are very connected to the extent that they will be difficult and problematic when content and/or form are unfamiliar (Reid, 1993a). Joan Eisterhold (1990) outlined three models of reading-writing relationships: directional, non-directional and bidirectional. The directional model suggested by enthusiastic reading proponents (Krashen, 1984, 1993; Carson, 1993; F. Smith, 1988; see Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005) focuses on input and indicates that writing must be preceded by reading. The non-directional model "focuses on common underlying cognitive processes" and assumes that both reading and writing are interactive and share cognitive processes of 'constructing meaning' (Eisterhold, 1990, pp. 90-93). The bidirectional hypothesis proposes that reading and writing are interdependent to enhance, develop, and change the quality of one another in the stages of development. However, Hedgcock and Atkinson's survey (1993) of 272 ESL university students

reveals a correlation between L1 writing proficiency and school reading experiences in the L1, but no correlation between writing proficiency in the L2 and reading skills in either the L1 or the L2. In addition, Hughey *et al.*, (1983, p. 49) argued that "being a good reader does not make one a good writer. Reading serves to give the writer ideas, data, model sentence patterns, and structures, but a student will be able to become a good writer only by writing". The difference between writing and reading comes in the sense that the former is productive and active, while the latter is receptive and passive.

The second consideration in recent inquires about writing, which is related to the current study, is connected to "what particular teachers and students do, think, and accomplish in and through writing in relation to the settings in which they live" (Cumming, 1998, p. 62). In 1990s, the teaching of writing in L2 contexts has come front and center in the profession of applied linguistics (Kroll, 2003). A number of recent researches have shifted their interest from analyzing the texts and the composing processes of the writers "toward understanding these analyses within their educational, home, workplace, or community contexts" (ibid, p. 62). Similarly, the present research tries to understand how the way students write (behavioral strategies) in relation to a particular instructional context (process vs. product) influences their writing competence and apprehension. The aim is to give teachers some insight about the best way to organizing EFL writing instruction.

This study argues that in general it might be the students' instructional type of writing strategies that could create students' apprehension of writing skill, which in turn decreases their writing competence. The study is meant to measure the students' type of the frequently used EFL writing strategies and the association of that with strategy-related apprehension and writing competence. The strategic act of composing itself might be an important source of lacking writing competence and lacking

enjoyment in writing classes than students' lack of linguistic competence which also contributes to the accumulation of the problem. It has been observed by the researcher in his own writing classes that many students stand on a very good grammatical base, but still they hate and fear writing more than any other language skills. This feeling keeps them sluggish, inactive, and unable to generate even a single idea or to say what they want loudly and clearly. The reasons might be many and uncountable. They can be related to many overlapping issues of culture, education, past experiences, strategic competence, as well as language competence and performance. So, the scope of investigation seems very huge and wide to the extent that it might be unsearchable. However, the present researcher takes a little step in the wheel and tries to investigate one of those reasons by assuming that the sort of apprehension and low writing competence among Saudi student writers might be related to the type of their strategic act while composing. This is the argument. The researcher claims that apprehension and low competence is related to the strategies that care about the features of the written product rather than the general process of the composing.

The next section talks about the organization of the thesis.

1.3. Organization of the thesis

The thesis is organized in six chapters. Chapter one offers a general presentation to the present research and the nature of investigation. Chapter two talks about the research background, location, significance, educational contexts, objectives, terms and definitions. Chapter three provides an overview of the literature relevant to the understanding approaches, and their theoretical frameworks, of L2/FL writing instruction, writing strategies, writing apprehension and writing competence. Chapter four deals with research methods and methodology; it consists of four sections: (1)

introduction to research strategy and design, (2) research participants, (3) research instruments and data collection, and (4) data analysis. The results and findings of the study are presented in chapter five. The organization of the results is based on four main sections to answer the research questions. Then, the results of each section are followed by a discussion section to elaborate directly on the findings and provide further explanations. The study is then concluded in chapter six. The purpose of this last chapter is to critically assess some of the findings and suggestions that the study had found and provide recommendations for future research.

The next is chapter two to discuss the research context, background and objectives.

Chapter 2: Research Context and Background

This chapter discusses the educational system in the context of the present study, English language in Saudi Arabia and the research background, location, significance and objectives. Then, it concludes with a discussion of terms and definitions used throughout the thesis.

2.1. Educational system and English language in Saudi Arabia

In this section, we will talk about Saudi Arabia: its location, its administrative regions, its educational authorities and its educational system and the programs offered. Also, we will refer to the status of English language in the educational system.

In the south-west part of the Asian continent, Saudi Arabia is located in the middle of the Arabian Peninsula and occupies about 80% of its land. The approximately 2,149,690 square kilometres of Saudi Arabia are inhabited by a population of 27.137 million[1]. Of this population, 30% are 14 years or younger and only 4.75% are 60 years or older. 27.8% of the total population represents international migrant stock, such as quest workers.[2] Saudi Arabia's population living in rural areas makes up 18.6% of the total population.

Saudi Arabia is divided into14 administrative regions: 4 in the southern province (Al-Baha with the city of Albaha as the capital; Asir with Abha as the capital; Jizan with the city of Jizan as the capital; Najran with the city of Najran as the capital); One in the Eastern province with Dammam as the capital; two in the middle province (Qasim with the city of Buraidah as the capital; Riyadh with the city of Riyadh as the capital of the province and the country); two in the western province (Madinah with the holy city of Madinah as the capital; Makkah with the holy city of

[1] United Nations: Statistics Division, (2008) Saudi Arabia
[2] Ministry of Economy and Planning (2010-2014) Ninth Development Plan. Saudi Arabia.

Makkah as the capital); one in the north west province with the city of Tabouk as the capital; and four administrative regions in the north (Northern Border with the city of Ara'ar as the capital; Hail with the city of Hail as the capital; Al-Jouf with Sikaka as the capital; Qirayyat with the city of Qirayyat as the capital).

The discovery of oil in the Eastern province in the 1930s helped the country to develop economically, socially, politically, and with no doubt educationally. The government devised a strategy to improve education through a series of five-year plans. The country has worked to meet the challenges of a rapidly developing country—minimizing illiteracy and encouraging citizens to be highly trained and educated in all fields.

There are three main authorities of education in Saudi Arabia: (1) the Ministry of Education, (2) the General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT), and (3) the Ministry of Higher Education. The Ministry of Education is the only authority responsible for funding, planning, supervising and teaching in the 12 years of general education in public schools. General education policy in Saudi Arabia springs from the Islamic teachings. The system of education consists of three stages: elementary (6 years), intermediate (3 years), and secondary or high school (3 years). Joining elementary school is compulsory for boys and girls at 6 years of age. The academic year is divided into two terms with a typically two-week examination period at the end of each term. Quite recently, the Ministry of Education has replaced term exams in the first three years of the elementary schools with a progress report instead. General education and textbooks are free for Saudis and foreigners in public schools. English language is taught as a foreign language and integrates the four skills in a class period of 45 minutes per day for four days a week in the intermediate stage up to the last year of the secondary stage in public schools,

while the majority of private schools introduce English to their students as early as kindergarten. In 2004, the Ministry of Education had approved a plan to start teaching English to students in the fourth grade of the elementary schools. However, till 2011, English was introduced only in the last year of the elementary stage. This was due to some social and cultural resistance refusing the teaching of a foreign language to elementary pupils. The English curriculum is designed in accordance with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. However, one can easily claim that the teaching methodology is following the audio-lingual method due to a number of issues including the class size.

In secondary schools, students have various options or streams to choose and attend. There are general, vocational, and technical programs. The GOTEVT is in charge of the vocational and technical programs at this level. Secondary-school graduates can pursue their higher education in almost 30 universities under the authority of the Ministry of Higher Education. The GOTEVT is also responsible for offering higher education in technical institutes and colleges.

There are other government agencies, like the Royal Commission of Jubail and Yanbu (RCJY), which also run programs in higher education. RCJY is responsible for industrial education in the two industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu. The present research will take place in that kind of education (see section 2.3.). English language proficiency in industrial colleges is very important since it is the medium of instruction in those colleges.

2.2. English writing instruction in Saudi Arabia

From the previous discussion about the Saudi educational system and despite its big change and development, we can notice that there is a slow interest in

developing English language education. In my experience as an ex-teacher in the public schools of Saudi Arabia, and out of my experiences as a student, English language was not taken seriously by both teachers and students. In the context of writing skill, writing was almost out of interest and highly neglected both in L1 and EFL. In fact, there seemed to be deficiencies and flaws in the Arabic classes in terms of teaching and learning positive L1 writing strategies. If this is the case in our native language, then it would not be much better in the poor, limited classes of English language. The story of teaching English language in Saudi Arabia seems to be generally hopeless. It rarely reports success, power, and confidence in Saudi young as well as adult English language learners.

I remember, throughout my study in the intermediate and secondary schools, that in our Arabic composition classes, we wrote about topics determined by the teachers in accordance with occasions. For example, we used to have and are still using to have weeks of occasions like the 'Week of Traffic' or the 'Week of a Tree' where I can be almost sure that all students all over the kingdom are writing in that week about the same topic. Teachers in Arabic composition classes were very keen about neatness, spelling mistakes, mechanics, syntax rather than genuine ideas and creativity. We could not think at that time, because simply we had not been taught how to think that writing is a communicative or social activity. We were simply not aware of the fact that writing is highly needed in many aspects of our life. Plagiarism, for example, is an absent terminology that I only learned about in England during my MA study. If a student writes more, he will get more in terms of scores and teachers' applause.

Another disappointing aspect of Arabic writing classes is that sometimes the teachers are generally not specialized in teaching Arabic language whatsoever, let

alone being specialized in teaching Arabic composition. Al-Batal (1989, p. 137) asserted that most Arabic programmes neglected the teaching of writing, or at best treated it as a secondary skill. Al-Humidi (2003, p. 3) says, "Strategies for the teaching of Arabic writing [...] need more attention for a number of reasons. Firstly, there is a shortage of studies on approaches and strategies for teaching Arabic writing that deal with writing, as a main skill needed for communication in real life situations".

Given this state of affairs about our native language, my argument is that the state of English as a foreign language will not be much better. Also, the state of English writing will definitely be the worst.

In public schools of Saudi Arabia, English language is taught as one subject integrating all the four skills of writing, reading, listening and speaking. The English textbook is believed to be integrated and communicative. However, how communicative is it in classes of more than 35 students? Also, how productive skills, speaking and writing, can be managed and developed in 45-minute classes with such large number of students for only 4 times a week. In fact, there is a huge gap between theory and practice in English language classes in Saudi public schools. The English language course typically requires fewer cognitive skills and little exposure to the target language. Classes are getting more and more crowded every year. As a result, teachers find it very difficult to teach their students the needed skills and strategies. Students get bored and set passively in class and the teachers do all the talking. The audio-lingual method seems to be the dominant method.

This context of English language explains the Saudi students' problems with writing classes in the orientation years at colleges and universities. Due to the lack of language development, lack of writing experiences in both L1 and EFL writing, lack of practice and not being probably taught how to write at home, many Saudi college

students do not regard themselves as good writers, particularly in English. When they join college, they also do not seem to have a good level of awareness regarding their writing skills. As discussed above, this may be due to this skill being neglected in the intermediate and secondary classrooms.

English writing instruction as a separate subject begins at the college/university level without any nationwide curriculum for it. The policy of writing in almost all Saudi universities and colleges is that student writers should produce a clear, accurate massage for the academic readers to understand. Accordingly, the teaching of writing there has put emphasis on the written products, causing high apprehension on most student writers. Many Saudi researchers (Abdan, 1983; Al-Hozaimi, 1993; Al-Semari, 1993; Aljamhoor, 1996; Alnofal, 2003; Fageeh, 2003; Alharbi, 2008; Grami, 2010) reported serious problems with the teaching and learning of English writing. Students have difficulties in writing competence in product and process levels. Students are more product-oriented, caring so much about grammar and vocabulary. They rarely write inside and outside classrooms. Instruction is teacher-centred. The teacher is the only source of feedback, if there is any. He typically reads the final product without attending to the process of writing.

It seems that most of the research findings in L2/FL writing are not taken seriously in English education in Saudi Arabia. As synthesized by Leki *et al.* (2008), 25 years of research in L2 writing exposed and ridiculed most of the falseness and exaggerated claims in L2 writing such as:

- L2 writers need to speak the language first before they are taught to read and write.
- L2 writes have to read first before they are able to write.
- Children must learn correct spelling or they may develop bad spelling habits.

- Grammar-based classes help literacy development.
- Students' mother tongue is a source of confusion for learning L2 and needs to be discouraged.
- Writing is a self-skill, improved individually.

Finally, in the educational preparation program that I studied during my bachelor degree in English teaching, I could not remember that we had taken anything related to ESL/EFL writing theory and pedagogy. This might be related to the fact that our ESL/EFL curriculum is still affected by the theories and research of second language acquisition and applied linguistics that highlight and emphasize the spoken language. Grabe & Kaplan (1996) asserted that it is necessary and beneficial for teachers-in-training to take a course on theories of writing development and instructional techniques; such a course would improve their teaching and curriculum design while strengthening their own writing skills and awareness.

2.3. Location of the research

The research was carried out in the English Language Center (ELC), at Jubail Industrial College (JIC) in Jubail Industrial City in Saudi Arabia. The population of the research are the second-year students in the specialization programs who are taking a course named as English Composition I offered by the ELC. The focus of the research is the writing classes in the field of writing for specific purposes.

As mentioned earlier, Jubail Industrial College (JIC) is one of the six industrial and technical colleges and institutes under the auspices of the Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu. The main aim of those colleges and institutes is to contribute to the human resources development of Saudi Arabia as part of the industrialization plan of the country.

The Jubail-Industrial-College academic programs comprise: General Studies Department, Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering Technology Department, Electrical and Electronics Engineering Technology Department, Chemical and Process Engineering Technology Department, Management and Information Technology Department, Non-Destructive Testing Centre, and the English language Centre. JIC is a 'semi-autonomous' technical institute governed by the Board of Directors of the Royal Commission. At the college level, the activities concerning academic, administrative and student services are administered by the Managing Director along with his Deputies according to by-laws and College Council decisions. Newly enrolled students undertake a one-year preparatory program consisting of intensive courses in English language, Mathematics, Computer Studies, Study skills, and Physical Activity before they enter one of the specialization departments. These courses are designed to assist the students in developing the necessary competence, language skills and analytical and critical thinking for their personal subsequent years in the specialization majors. This program is mainly offered by the two support departments: English Language Centre and General Studies Department ([3]APR, 2008).

The English Language Centre (ELC) is the students' first contact with the academic life in the College. It introduces new students to the college life and prepares them for their specialized studies in the future. The ELC reflects the college's commitment to quality, based on a thoughtful, sensitive and efficient response to students' needs (ELC, Bulletin, 1999). The most important academic function of the ELC is to teach students the four skills of the language: listening, speaking, reading and writing, and to provide them with the study skills that will enable them to respond to the challenge of specialization. New students, in the Preparatory Year, and students

[3] Jubail Industrail College' Annual Progress Report (2008-2009).

in their specialization years are required to take English and other specific courses such as Islamic culture and physical education. Since English is the medium of instruction in the college, the centre aims to develop the communicative and study skills that students need to function effectively.

The English Language Centre has the following academic objectives (ibid.):

1- To establish a strong basis in English language whereby the students will be able to understand and respond to instruction in their classroom and work environment and develop the proficiency to pursue their academic study in the next two years, only through the medium of English;
2- To bridge the gap between the student's previous educational experience and knowledge, and the specialized program of the next two years;
3- To develop the students ability to work independently, as well as under academic supervision, while cultivating in him a disciplined approach to his work.

The JIC's specialization programs are based on the American models of post-secondary education that utilizes the credit hour system. All the technical majors, except Industrial Chemistry Technology (INCT), are based on the criteria of Accreditation Board of Engineering and Technology (ABET) system of the USA. INCT being non-engineering major is based on American Chemical Society (ACS). The business majors follow the Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP) guidelines and standards. JIC places great emphasis on developing a competent and professional Saudi workforce of field engineers, process operators, engineering technicians, maintenance technicians, lab/analyser technicians, office secretaries, marketing/sales representatives, accountants, shift supervisors and

assistant managers to work within the safe working environment of the Saudi's industry, commerce and other allied sectors (APR, 2008).

2.4. Statement of the problems and research gap

ESL/EFL writing teachers need to be informed of their students' dominant type of writing strategies and the probable influence of process-based strategy instruction on students' writing apprehension and writing competence. In addition, writing instruction seems to be one of the factors that influence ESL/EFL writing strategies. Not many studies investigated the nature of this influence. Regarding writing apprehension, it is considered to be a problem in writing classes for both students and teachers (Hettich, 1994). Apprehensive and low competent writers will find it difficult to enjoy writing and engage in productive writing practices. Teachers know that some students are apprehensive and low competent in their writing behaviours, but they might not know the causes of that problem and how to practically intervene to reduce the effects (ibid.).

A lot of research has been done in the field of L2 writing including L2 writing processes and writing strategies. However, and despite the dominance of research on writing processes and strategies, very little research has been done on the composing of non-native speakers who study English for specific purposes and/or as a foreign language (EFL) in their native country (El-Aswad, 2002). Such rareness of ESP/EFL research reflects the relatively new field of inquiry as many aspects of the ESP/EFL writing strategies are still understudied. Moreover, studies examining the issues of writing apprehension and writing competence, on one hand, and the preferred type of writing strategies, on the other hand, seem to be rare and almost not there. In the Saudi context, and to the best knowledge of the researcher, no research has been done in this

area and in the area of measuring strategy apprehension after a process-strategy instruction. The present researcher agrees with the argument of Pennington and So (1993: 45) that says "neither process nor product can stand alone as an independent measure of writing ability". However, the argument is that process-typed writing strategies or product-typed writing strategies might be an independent indication of high writing apprehension and low writing competence.

By and large, the present research seems significant for the following reasons:

1- By exploring the type of writing strategies, writing apprehension and writing competence of Saudi EFL undergraduate student writers, the study may help provide basic research information that could be used to improve the English writing instructional practices provided to those students.

2- This study may contribute to the call for the investigation of strategies that are closer to teacher's meta-pedagogical awareness and classroom instruction (Oxford, 2011) and for more context-based and task-specific strategy research (Rose, 2012b).

3- This study may contribute to the literature on the L2/FL writing apprehension and writing competence and the factors affecting them.

4- The study is one of the first attempts to explore how a wide range of EFL/ESL writing strategies interacts with EFL/ESL writing apprehension and writing competence.

5- Although this study might be similar to other design features, it adds to the data pool the element of strategy apprehension and strategy instruction for the sake of apprehension reduction and competence increase.

6- Due to the cross-sectional design, several findings of this study might be comparable and generalizable.

7- This study goes beyond previous L2/FL studies in that it integrates process-oriented strategies and product-oriented strategies, as well as quantitative and qualitative data, and explored the influence of strategy use on L2/FL apprehension and competence.

2.5. Objectives of the research

According to Dörnyei (2007:191), "action research is conducted by or in cooperation with teachers for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of their educational environment and improving the effectiveness of their teaching". The main purpose of the research is to provide data that would increase the understanding of the correlation between EFL writing apprehension and writing competence, on one hand, and the type of EFL writing strategies, on the other hand, for the sake of enhancing EFL writing teaching methodology in the context of process vs. product approaches. Consequently, teachers can limit the type of writing strategies that correlates with high apprehension and low competence and enhance the other type which correlates with less apprehension and high competence in writing classes. The hope is that the results of this study may lead to better understanding of the unique nature of EFL writing in Saudi Arabia. The researcher believes that process-based writing strategies are the better solution to students' lack of competence and enjoyment in writing classes. This would stimulate an educational inquiry in the field of teaching EFL writing in JIC and would consequently lead to the adoption of the process approach.

The effect of process and product writing strategies on writing competence and writing apprehension is based on whether a strategy is operating instructionally on writing affect and writing competence. The researcher believes that the development of effective writing strategies relies partly on the type of writing instruction

(approaches) used and emphasized in classrooms. Therefore, the intention is to use the measurements of writing competence and writing apprehension (as one of the writing affects) to get some insights about the effective writing strategies. The ultimate goal is to facilitate the students' learning to write in ESL/EFL writing classes by supporting the writing approach that enhances strategies responsible for reducing apprehension and increasing competence. Consequently, those strategies need to be developed and declared to students and students will have the choice whether to use them or not. This agrees with the idea of an autonomous and independent language learner called for by Grenfell and Harris in 1999. On the other hand, we should not neglect or ignore the other kind of strategies. They will be left for students' choice and need, but should not be explicitly taught in classrooms (ibid).

The study uses mixed methods combining writing tasks, questionnaires, interviews, think-aloud protocols, and strategy instruction sessions. The advantage of combining these methods is that it "can broaden the scope of the investigation, and enrich the researcher's ability to draw conclusions" (Dörnyei 2007:186).

By and large, the research aims to achieve the following objectives:

- To explore the literature in order to identify the process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies.
- To measure the levels of writing strategy-related apprehension in JIC student writers.
- To discover the dominant type of JIC students' writing strategies.
- To investigate the nature of relationship between JIC students' writing strategies and their writing apprehension and writing competence.
- To relate JIC students' writing competence to the dominant type of their writing strategies.

2.6. Terms and Definitions

The present research has seven basic definitions that seem essential for the understanding of the research focus. The reader might need to know in advance the meaning of the following terms: (1) product writing approaches, (2) process writing approaches, (3) product-oriented writing strategies, (4) process-oriented writing strategies, (5) writing strategies, (6) strategy-related writing apprehension, and (7) writing competence.

First, the product writing approaches refer to one of the dominant camps of writing instruction: product group. This camp adopts writing approaches which share the idea of accuracy, linearity, and prescriptivism in the way they deal with teaching writing. They deal with writing as a straightforward action, as marks on a page, as related words, as clauses, and as structured sentences (Hyland, 2003a). According to this perspective, "writing development is considered to be the result of [structurally or rhetorically] imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher" (Hyland, 2003a, p.3). Teaching product-based writing involves such aspects as guidance, control and assistance with questions to answer, a model to follow, an outline to expand, an incomplete piece of writing to complete, or an incorrect text to correct (see Brown, 2001, p. 335; Pincas, 1982; Pincas, 2001, p. 2). The aim here is to introduce students to structures accepted by the native speakers.

In the light of this teaching, writing might include such strategies as following teachers' rules and feedback, writing without collecting information, writing without planning, following outlines, focusing on organization, neatness and layout, constant editing of grammar, vocabulary use and punctuation, avoiding writing sentence fragments, etc. Those strategies are conceived in this study as product-oriented writing strategies.

On the other hand, the second camp of writing instruction is process orientated. The basic idea of writing here is explained briefly by Zamel (1983, p. 165) as a creative process by which writers "discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning". Writing, she argues, is "a nonlinear, exploratory, and generative process" (ibid). In the so-called process school, there are two groups: the expressivists and the cognitivists (Faigley, 1986). The expressivist movement (e.g. Donald Murray, Peter Elbow, and others, see Johns, 1990), encourages students to take power over their writing. The expressivists focus on the writer's voice, self-discovery and expression. They emphasize the importance of fluency over accuracy and argue that ideas emerge from learners rather than textbooks. Free-writing technique, for example, is a distinctive writing strategy that "leads quite naturally to a process classroom" (Reid, 1993b, p. 260). The cognitivists, on the other hand, see learning (and learning to write) as a mental process and learners as active recipients of that process (see O'Malley and Chamot, 1990a). They emphasize the role of internal mental processes rather than external behaviors (Ellis, 1990). For them, writing instruction should explicitly teach students to understand their own writing processes and to build up their own strategies for the over-lapping writing stages. From the cognitive perspective, writing is viewed as a complex cognitive skill, as a decision-making and a problem-solving activity (Flower & Hayes, 1981). In contrast to the product school, the two major process approaches share their dislike of emphasis on grammar correction. They do not look at writing as a simple activity with a model to follow or a product to shape. They encourage meaning over form and fluency over accuracy (Tribble, 1996).

In the light of these process perspectives, writing strategies might include strategies of free writing, planning, creating ideas, discovering meaning, group or pair

work, considering audience, purpose, and context of writing (Connor, 1987), revising, drafting, and proofreading. Those strategies are conceived as process-oriented writing strategies.

Regarding the definition of writing strategies, the current research considers writing strategies defined as 'the [conscious] behaviors and techniques that can be taught and instructed [in writing]" (Grenfell and Harris, 1999, p. 39). The word '*conscious*' excludes the controversial debates around the consciousness and unconsciousness of strategy use. However, the definition can account for the dual nature of strategies, which can be covert and overt or observable and non-observable (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990b, p. 1). '*That can be taught and instructed in writing*' refers to the focus of the research on the process-based and product-based writing strategies.

Regarding writing apprehension, the current study is more interested in measuring writing apprehension or the absence of it (that is more situation-specific and strategy-related) than the general-state phenomenon of a foreign language apprehension. Writing-strategy apprehension, therefore, is defined as 'the abnormally high level of an anxious, agitated or stressful feeling in ESL/EFL writing-strategy-related situations, regardless of blocking[4] and fear of evaluation'. The study's definition, therefore, will exclude negative attitudes, blocking and avoidance behaviours (fear of evaluation). It focuses mainly on feelings and emotions that are writing-specific and strategy-related. The presence of stressful, agitated feelings is believed to indicate apprehension, while the absence of such feelings seems to indicate the absence of apprehension.

[4] A writer's block is defined as "an inability to begin or continue writing for reasons other than a lack of basic skill or commitment" (Rose, 1984:4). Not all blockers are apprehensive and not all apprehensive writers are blocked.

Finally, this study defines writing competence as the ability, capability and skill of using the target language efficiently to compose both a meaningful and adequate piece of writing in terms of its content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics.

The next chapter is the literature review.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview of the literature relevant to the understanding approaches, and their theoretical frameworks, of L2/FL writing instruction, writing strategies, writing apprehension and writing competence. Particularly, because this chapter is quite long it is divided into three parts: (1) part A deals with the literature on L2 writing theories and approaches, (2) part B offers an overview of previous empirical studies on the explanatory variables that are believed to affect L2/FL writing strategies, and (3) part C provides an overview of writing apprehension and previous research on its relation to writing processes and writing competence. Part A serves as the theoretical framework for part B to contextualise the instructional writing behaviours or strategies in ESL writing. The present research aims to measure the correlation between the instructional types of writing strategies used, on one hand, and writing-strategy apprehension and writing competence, on the other hand. Here comes the significance of part C. Also of interest is the effectiveness of process-oriented writing strategies on apprehension and competence. Variables such as writing experience, L1 use, L1 writing practice and L2 writing practice will be in the scope of investigation.

Part A

3.1. Teaching Approaches in English Writing as a Second Language

This part of the literature review is divided into two main sections. The first discusses the theories and models associated with ESL/EFL writing instruction. The second discusses ESL/EFL writing approaches as well as their origins, critiques, features and effectiveness in writing classrooms. In addition, it highlights the writing strategies preferred and inspired by each kind of writing approach.

3.1.1. Theories and models associated with ESL writing instruction.

In this sub-section, four theories of language, learning and teaching are discussed to explore their influence on teaching writing approaches and writing models. These theories are as follows: (1) communication theory (a language theory), (2) cognitive theory (a learning theory), (3) contrastive rhetorical theory (a teaching theory) and (4) social constructionist theory (a learning theory). Although writing instruction has been directly and indirectly influential on the broader field of ESL teaching theories, these four theories are believed to be the most influential theories in ESL writing instruction.

Second-language writing is believed to be an interdisciplinary field of inquiry (Matsuda, 2003b; Silva & Leki, 2004) influenced by a number of theories from related fields, including linguistics, applied linguistics, composition studies, psychology and education (Zhu, 2010). Changes in teaching practices seem to depend on changes in theoretical insights and perspectives. For example, communicative language teaching has been partly influenced by the social view of language and language learning (Hymes; 1970). In addition, it has been inspired and developed by the psychological theories of learning and acquisition (Krashen, 1982). Similarly, second-language writing approaches are seen to be influenced, inspired and developed by different theories and views of language writing, texts, contexts and composing (Zhu, 2010). The present study aims to shed light on these theories, as they seem to have a direct impact on L2 writing approaches. However, as stated by Silva (1990), these theories represent different attempts to offer an understanding of different dimensions of writing with implications for instruction. None of them seems to be appropriately comprehensive.

The current subsection starts with a discussion on communication theory followed by a discussion on cognitive theory and its two developed models of L1/L2 writing and writing instruction. Then, the third theory, contrastive rhetorical theory, and its two developed models of L2 writing are discussed. Finally, social constructionist theory is examined.

3.1.1.1. Communication theory

According to Richard and Rodgers (2001), this theory views language as follows:

> [Language is] a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning [...] [It] emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language, and leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar. (p. 21)

In ESL/EFL writing instruction, this theory is more closely associated with communicative-writing teaching than the controlled approach, as wrongly assumed by Mu 2007. The basic notion of communication is the negotiation of meaning, which is totally absent in the controlled approach. Communication theory (Johns, 1990; Nunan, 2004) emphasises the importance of output through the process of social interaction. By interaction, learners can negotiate meaning and understand each other even if they are not linguistically competent. We learn how to write by writing, we learn how to speak by speaking and so on. This emphasises pair work and group work in ESL classes. This seems to be the basic notion of communicative competence developed by Merrill Swain in 1985. The old view of learning as a process of habit formation

(behaviourism) was challenged by the view of learning as a communication process (Nunan, 2004). The implication of this theory in ESL writing instruction seems to make teachers recognise the needs of ESL/EFL students in writing classes. In addition, it has implications through its focus on the functional use of the language rather than the structural use. This might be obvious with the introduction of purpose and audience as major elements in a piece of writing. However, students' writing traditionally addresses their teachers or their classmates as real readers. It is believed that writers do their best when they feel they are writing to real readers (Johnson & Morrow, 1981). Many authors (Brookes & Grundy, 1990; Krapels, 1990a; Raimes, 1983a; Widdowson, 1983) view writing as a communicative activity. Widdowson (1983, p. 39), an advocate of this theory, argues that the writer needs to play two roles: that of a writer and that of a reader. By doing so, the writer can see the effect of his writing on his intended audience and can rectify any possible misunderstanding arising from any lack of shared knowledge. The writer has to 'continually shift his function from initiator to recipient, from "speaker" as it were to "hearer", enacting the interaction by playing the role of each participant' (Widdowson, 1983, p. 39). Canale (1983) views writing as a process of swapping and negotiating meaning and information. Firbas (1986) emphasises the importance of purpose in written communication. Without determined purposes, goals cannot be achieved, and communication cannot be developed. It is also argued by So (1986) that students need the chance to explore writing for a variety of purposes and audiences and to be shown how to reformulate, revise and edit topics on their own. McKay (1979, 1984) is another communicative advocate who supports the importance of audience and purpose over grammatical accuracy in writing activities and designed textbooks with such an orientation. However, the focus on communication itself as an end of writing

instruction might build a sort of anxiety in the students learning to write. When students focus on purpose and audience while writing, this might impede their creativity and block their ability to generate new ideas. This is one of the claims that needs to be tested. Writing is a multi-process skill, and the communicative activity is just a part of that process. Thus, the process approach (see Section 3.1.2.2) differs from the communicative-writing teaching model.

From the perspective of this theory, learners learn to write to produce a meaningful piece of writing including a clear purpose and clear audience. The teacher is seen as a facilitator of the communication process. The student takes on the role of a negotiator who writes and responds. Writing courses are designed based on the idea that 'writing competence results somehow from exposure to reading, and that good readers make good writers' (Carson, 1993, p. 85).

3.1.1.2. Cognitive theory.

The second theory that influenced ESL/EFL writing instruction is cognitive theory. This theory aims to find out how knowledge about language is stored in memory and how learners process this knowledge to eventually comprehend and produce language (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990a). Generally, it attempts to explain human behaviours by understanding human thought processes. According to this theory, learning is a process of relating new information—declarative knowledge—to previously learned information—procedural knowledge (Grenfell & Harris, 1999; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990a). The two major principles underlying this theory are that '(a) behavior can best be explained by reference to how individuals perceive and interpret their experiences, and (b) the way in which individuals think and reason has parallels with the manner in which computers process information' (O'Malley &

Chamot, 1990a, p. 1). As a result, this theory encourages investigating the learner's mental processes and strategies using various instruments (discussed in detail in Chapter 3). The outcome of this investigation in cognitive studies was the classification of learning strategies into three types (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990a, p. 8): (1) cognitive strategies (the direct individual manipulation or transformation of the learning materials), (2) metacognitive strategies (the pre- and post-learning processes, including planning, evaluation and revision) and (3) social/affective strategies (such as cooperation and motivation).

Drawing extensively on research in information processing (see McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983), cognitive theory claims that the process of internalising knowledge differs from the process of achieving control over this knowledge (Ellis, 1990). This theory tries to explain three main aspects of learning (Ellis, 1990): '(1) how knowledge is established, (2) how knowledge becomes automatic, and (3) how new knowledge is integrated into the learner's existing cognitive system' (p. 7). The new knowledge involves 'knowing that', while the automated knowledge involves 'knowing how'. In the writing context, when learners develop control over L2 writing (the new knowledge), they progress and know how to write automatically. Many of the writing errors that students produce are not the result of a lack of writing experience but rather a lack of knowledge of how to write. Therefore, students need to know the strategies for writing effectively in authentic communicative situations (Ellis, 1990). The information-processing theme, on the other hand, claims that in human cognition, there is a sensing device gathering specific information based on a pre-arranged plan and conveying this information via a feedback loop to an active device to take action. An example of this is a thermostat controlling the central heating in a house (Peacock, 1986, p. 19). Therefore, it claims that learners process

information like computers, but with human limitations. Learners can store and organise the information they receive (the input) in the sensing device based on their needs. The argument is that learners of the same level pass through the same process. They use either the top-down approach or the bottom-up approach (McLaughlin et al., 1983). The former involves breaking down a system to comprehend its components, while the latter involves building up a system out of sub-systems. In the writing process, novice writers seem to follow the bottom-up approach, as they usually focus on the linguistic features of the text, while skilled writers seem to follow the top-down approach, as they usually concern themselves with the semantic features of the text.

This theory gives a base for constructivism, which emphasises the role of the learner in constructing his own view of the material to be taught and learned. It reflects on teaching writing by shifting the focus from the physically written text to the writer of the text and his cognitive as well as social composing processes. This might be manifested in both the process approach and the post-process approaches (see Section 3.1.2). However, the social factor in the process approach seems to be dealt with as an external experience or 'fixed environmental encounter', which is different from the social factor (an internal, negotiated, sensed and challenged experience) in the post-process approaches (Ortega & Carson, 2010, p. 51).

From the cognitive perspective, writing is viewed as a complex cognitive skill. Writing is seen as a decision-making and problem-solving activity (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Some theorists have tried to propose models for writing to be able to understand the nature of the composing processes and composing ability. The current study examines two of these models, as they seem to be directly influenced by cognitive theory and mostly related to ESL/EFL writing instruction. The first model, created by Hayes (1996), is based on data from L1 writing research, while the second

one, developed by Sasaki and Hirose (1996), is based on L2 writing research. Such models propose that 'teaching writing involves far more than just assigning tasks for students to practice and then providing feedback on them, as has long been the prevalent model of instruction'(Cumming, 1998, p. 68). The present study contributes to these two models, as stated below.

3.1.1.2.1. Hayes' (1996) model of L1 composing.

This developed model of writing is a revised version of the original one proposed by Flower and Hayes in 1980. Flower and Hayes were interested in investigating how writers approach tasks. They proposed a model explaining the process of writing by problem solving. Their old version emphasised only the cognitive processes and was influenced by cognitive theories of writing. The 1996 model, however, highlights the importance of cognitive, affective, social and physical factors in composing a piece of writing. Writing is viewed as 'a social artifact and carried out in a social setting' (Hayes, 1996, p. 5). This revised model seems to be influenced by both the cognitive and the social theories. The drawback of this model is its assumption that all kinds of writers go through the same composing process (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 92). This is reflected in the fact that this model is considered an individual-environment model rather than a socio-cognitive one. This model has two major components: the task environment, which includes the physical and social elements, and the individual component, which includes the motivation/affect element, cognitive processes, working memory and long-term memory. The proposed interaction between different elements within the individual is intriguing. The present study agrees with this model in terms of viewing writing as a social activity and in terms of the proposed interaction within the individual—particularly between the area

of cognitive processes (e.g. writing strategies) and the area of motivation and affect (e.g. writing apprehension).

3.1.1.2.2. Sasaki-Hirose's (1996) model of L2/FL composing ability.

This model is mentioned here, as it is one of the first attempts to build a comprehensive model of L2/FL writing instruction. It involves constructing and empirically testing a process-product explanatory model of student achievement that seems to be unique to second-language writing (Cumming, 1998). This model tries to explain the main factors influencing L2/FL writing ability: L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability and L2 writing meta-knowledge (i.e. knowledge about L2 writing requirements). One of the interesting points in the model is that the authors were not sure about composing competence as an influential factor on writing ability. In addition, the writing strategies seemed to be potential. Unlike the previous model, this model does not propose any direct interaction between strategies and writing confidence or writing affect. The authors found that the writing ability of their Japanese EFL writers interacted with their L2 proficiency. The significance of this model, however, seems to be its indication that L2 writing ability and proficiency might be influenced by previous writing experiences, including formal writing instruction (p. 157). In the present study, the key issue regarding the interaction between writing strategies and writing affect (apprehension) is not verified. However, it is verified that writing experience (previous instruction or instructional approaches) interacts with writing affect.

3.1.1.3. Contrastive rhetorical theory.

The third theory that has influenced ESL/EFL writing instruction is Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) theory. CR tries to examine 'the effects of NNSs' (non-native speakers)

L1 rhetorical construction of textual frameworks on the texts that NNSs produce in ESL' (Hinkel, 2002, p. 5). This theory started in 1966 with Robert Kaplan's article, 'Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education'. Kaplan (1966) claims that 'cultural differences in the nature of rhetoric supply the key to the differences in teaching approach' (p. 11). Rhetoric, according to Kaplan, is related to logic and mode of thinking, which are not universal but culturally determined. He further claims that rhetoric varies 'from time to time within a given culture' (Kaplan, 1966, p. 12). What makes his arguments revolutionary in CR is the descriptive approach that he takes in theorising a written language. He studied and analysed approximately 600 texts written by foreign students and concluded that differences in logic and patterns of thought between languages are what cause errors and difficulties in second-language writing. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) claim that 'those differences need to be brought to consciousness before a writer can begin to understand what he or she must do in order to write in a more native like manner' (p. 198). Connor (1996) supports Kaplan's claims, stating that 'contrastive rhetoric maintains that language and writing are cultural phenomena. As a result, each language has rhetorical conventions unique to it. Furthermore, the linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the first language interfere with writing in the second language' (p. 5). Hedgcock (2005) makes the following argument:

> CR research has not only expanded the knowledge base about the nature of text and written discourse but also informed L2 instruction by suggesting principles for guiding L2 writers toward structuring their texts to meet the expectations of L2 readers. (p. 599)

The implication of CR in writing instruction seems to be in the call for explicit instruction focusing on major contrastive features and modelling in the rhetorical

patterns of English (see Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). This has 'provided teachers with some insights that can guide their decisions in developing curriculum and in responding to ESL students' needs' (Matsuda, 2001, p. 243). CR views the problem of L2 writing essentially as the problem of negative transfer (Matsuda, 2001). In this view, the L2 writer is controlled by his cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds, while his writing context is formed by the L2 reader's backgrounds. He, therefore, 'does not have the autonomy to make decisions' (Matsuda, 2001, p. 145). In addition, the text is viewed as 'a schematic code' revealing both writing processes and L1 rhetorical patterns (see Matsuda, 2001).

However, this view of L2 writing assumes that all student writers from a particular linguistic or cultural background experience the same difficulties in English writing (see Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Research inspired by CR has therefore been criticised for being culturally deterministic (Leki, 2000; Raimes, 1998). CR might wrongly consider normal developmental problems, which inexperienced writers might face even in their L1, as rhetorical and cultural problems (Hinds, 1983; Mohan & Lo, 1985). Therefore, Hinds (1983) called for the deep investigation of the rhetoric of both L1 and L2 if we want to be fair and precise in understanding the culture of both languages and being able to make generalisations and philosophical theories. One of the valuable responses to Hinds' call was by Ryuko Kubota (1998), a Japanese native speaker and EFL-writing researcher. She studied the writing of 46 Japanese students in both English and Japanese and did not find any strong evidence for cultural transferences in students' writing. Typical Japanese patterns and structures were not found in the majority of the students' English writing. Why is CR, then, a controversial theory in ESL/EFL writing instruction? This question has been answered by Christine Casanave (2004) as follows: 'Simple treatments and interpretations of

complex issues always invite critique, particularly if they also contain elements of truth' (p. 37).

Matsuda (2001) attributed the previous implications of CR in L2 writing to a static view of writing instruction. Therefore, by looking at CR from a new perspective, he developed a model he called 'a dynamic model of L2 writing', which accounted for the complexity of L2 writing. His model seems to fit social constructionist theory and Vygotsky's view of learning (see the next section below) more than contrastive rhetoric theory. The key features of this model are (a) the writer's and the reader's backgrounds, (b) the shared discourse community and (c) a bidirectional interaction between elements of L2 writing within the dynamic context. This new model views the L2 writing context as formed by both the writer's and the reader's complex, but flexible, backgrounds. The shared discourse community of the writer and the reader is placed in the intersection of those backgrounds. This shared place is dynamic and influenced by both the reader's and writer's backgrounds. In contrast to social theory below, which emphasises the adherence of the writer to the conventions of the writing discourse community, this model emphasises that both the writer and the reader can negotiate their access to their shared discourse community. The next section further clarifies this feature. The third feature is the bidirectional interaction among the model's elements, which indicates that every element is subject to construction and transformation. The general implication of this model, therefore, is that L2 writing instruction should not impose prescribed patterns of organisation or genre conventions on L2 students. It should, however, raise 'ESL students' awareness of various factors that are involved in structuring the text' (Matsuda, 2001, p. 251).

3.1.1.4. Social constructionist theory.

Social constructionists (Bruffee, 1986; Coe, 1987; Prior, 2001) have been partly inspired by cognitive theory, which paved the way for constructivism, which emphasised the role of the learner in constructing his own view of the material to be taught and learned. Social constructionists view knowledge, language, facts and the nature of both spoken and written discourse as concepts determined for the learners by the audience or the 'discourse community' for whom the learner is writing or speaking (Johns, 1990), believed to be 'generated by communities of like-minded peers' (Bruffee, 1986, p. 774). This view of knowledge and language was inspired more than 40 years ago by Kuhn's *Structure of Scientific Revolution* (1970, as cited in Johns, 1990).

According to this theory, writing is a social activity that can be constructed only in a particular context for a particular audience (Johns, 1990). It views writing as a meaning-making activity through social interaction. Thus, a piece of writing should adhere to the writing conventions and writing discourse of the community for which it is written. ESL student writers, therefore, should adhere to the standard English language and culture and be academically competent in a particular English context. This is the basic insight of some of the post-process approaches, particularly the genre-based approach to L2 writing instruction (see Section 3.1.2.3). The problem with this view, however, is that it separates individuals' social interaction from their cognitive processes. To overcome this problem, some social constructionists (Johns, 1990) suggest that students should not be forced to acquire academic literacy and become part of the academic discourse community. Instead, it is the academy that must change to adapt to the cultures of its students. Others, however, choose a middle ground by

trying to understanding the nature of academic literacy and the best way to introduce it into English for academic purposes classes (Johns, 1990).

Vygotsky's theory of social interaction and the sociocultural context of learning (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Lantolf, 2000) considers the writing process more than the cognitive and individual levels. Sociocultural theory is 'grounded in a dialectic rather than a dualistic approach to the relationship between humans and the world' (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008, p. 3). Its basic notion is to grasp things and their relationships under the umbrella of their unity and totality (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Social interaction, cultural contexts and mental processes form a dialectical unity in which they are interactive and interrelated. According to Vygotsky, social interaction plays an essential role in the learning process, and social learning precedes development. In other words, the social interaction helps students to develop as they internalise their past and present experiences. This internalisation of experiences leads to learning as learners construct their own sense of meaning through their cognitive processes and develop that meaning through social interaction in a sociocultural context (Mahn, 2008). The implication of this in L2 writing is that one cannot develop one's writing without a social context. In addition, one's cognitive processes are responsible for constructing one's own meaning of experiences in one's sociocultural contexts (Mahn, 2008). Therefore, difficulties in L2 writing classes might emerge, as students might not be aware of their cognitive processes through which they create and develop meaning.

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) theme (a fundamental theme in Vygotskian theory) refers to the distance between the learner's ability to perform a task independently and his ability to perform it under a teacher's guidance or with peer collaboration. Independent performance shows the learner's actual zone of

development (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008), while cooperative performance shows the ZPD. According to Vygotsky, learning occurs in this zone. However, the nature of development is unpredictable, as interaction during cooperative performance might lead learners in a different direction (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008, p. 15).

The ZPD theory seems to be similar to Krashen's hypothesis of comprehensible input where he distinguishes between learning and acquisition based on information processing of 'idealised autonomous' learners (see Lantolf, 2005). This hypothesis, which can be applied to writing ability, attempts to explain how L2 learners can acquire a second language on the condition that the input is comprehensible, a step above their present level of linguistic competence, interesting, not grammatically sequenced, in sufficient quantity and in a low-affective situation. To help L2 learners learn to write in the target language, teachers have to provide them with comprehensible input, such as authentic materials and writing activities that allow them to practice and interact with their peers. Interaction provides the students with comprehensible input that is appropriate for their current stage of linguistic competence. Authentic materials expose students to language used in real situations, which helps students acquire the target language.

Vygotsky, however, was interested in studying how individuals' interaction with their environment affects their cognitive processes. The individual's cultural development occurs in social interaction; this interaction is internalised and leads later to the reconstruction of the learned knowledge. The implication of this in L2 writing is that L2 writing students construct their own sense of meaning through their first language, but they develop their L2 sense of meaning through their interaction in an L2 sociocultural context (Mahn, 2008, p. 120).

In fact, we have to be very careful to avoid misusing the ZPD theory and its emphasis on teacher guidance and cooperation. Then, the ZPD becomes an echo of habit-formation theory of audiolingualism. This seems to be the risk that the post-process approaches encounter when they insist on providing student writers with assistance in the form of academic models to follow, hints to respond to, leading questions etc. Instruction, as argued by Mahn (2008, p. 117), is very effective in facilitating the process of expanding or narrowing students' ZPDs. For students to expand their ZPDs, they need to be consciously aware of their thinking processes and their connection with the composing processes in writing activities. On the other hand, one also might argue that the ZPD theory seems to neglect that writing is not always cooperative. Some students might find it very difficult to practice writing cooperatively, since their performance is individually oriented. Therefore, two types of writing tasks are recommended: individual and cooperative. Consequently, in writing assessment, students need to be assessed in both areas. This does not contradict the interactionist dynamic assessment discussed by Poehner (2008, p. 33).

To sum up, the first sub-section of part one discussed theories and insights that seem to directly influence second-language writing approaches: (1) communication theory, (2) cognitive theory, (3) contrastive rhetorical theory and (4) social constructionist theory. The coming pages deal with the instructional effectiveness of various ESL/EFL writing approaches and the preferred writing strategies and techniques of each.

3.1.2. ESL/EFL writing approaches.

Here, the features, principles and strategies of three camps of writing approaches are discussed: (A) product-based approaches (the controlled approach and

the model-based approach), (B) process-based approaches (the freewriting approach and the process approach) and (C) a post-process approach (the genre-based approach). The discussion of these approaches is to contextualize the instructional types of writing strategies and techniques preferred by each writing approach.

ESL writing instruction was not recognised in applied linguistics as an independent discipline until almost 20 years ago (Matsuda, 2003b). As discussed earlier, teaching ESL writing was almost neglected in ESL institutions because of the natural methods, particularly the audio-lingual method, in the mid-twentieth century (Matsuda, 2003b) as a reaction against the translation method. However, in the 1960s, educators became concerned with ESL writing instruction in the United States, as the number of ESL students significantly increased after World War II. Those students were in need of composition courses to enhance their weak writing ability. Consequently, second-language writing instruction became a recognisable part of ESL programs (Matsuda, 2003b). However, according to Raimes (1983b), '[T]here [was] no one answer to the question of how to teach writing in ESL classes. There [were] as many answers as there [were] teachers and teaching styles or learners and learning styles' (p. 5). There have been many debates over the importance of the various aspects (content and form, fluency and accuracy, process and product) of writing approaches.

In his historical perspective on second-language writing in the twentieth century, Paul Matsuda (2003b, p. 19) assumed that the freewriting approach precedes the controlled approach in chronology. This was supported by the idea that the fluency factor in the freewriting approach seemed to be an extension of fluency in speech emphasised by the oral and audio-lingual methods at that time. However, one could argue that the controlled approach comes first, because before the audio-lingual

method, there was almost no obvious writing instruction because of the dominance of speech over writing. Then, when the audiolingual method emerged, it emphasised the use of drills in language teaching for the formation of good language habits. This is the basic notion of the controlled approach. Thus, it seems that the chronological order of the ESL writing approaches might take the following sequence:

1. In the 1950s, the controlled writing approach, influenced by the audiolingual method of teaching, started to emerge.
2. In the 1960s, there was an extreme reaction influenced by expressivism—a movement focused on expressing the writer's own voice (see Casanave, 2004)—against the controlled approach, which helped the freewriting approach to emerge.
3. In the mid-1960s, awareness, influenced by the rhetorical theories, increased to bridge the gap between the first two approaches (Silva, 1990), which helped the model-based approach to emerge.
4. In the 1970s, the communicative movement, inspired by Krashen's theories, assisted ESL writing teachers adopt communicative writing teaching.
5. In the 1980s, cognitive theories and research from L1 writing processes helped the emergence of what came to be known as the process approach to L2 writing instruction.
6. In the 1990s, social and sociocultural theories helped the post-process approaches stand against the process approach.

In the coming pages, these approaches are classified into three categories based on the literature rather than chronological order: product-oriented approaches, process-oriented approaches and post-process approaches.

3.1.2.1. The product-oriented approaches.

All product-based writing approaches share the idea of accuracy, linearity and prescriptivism in the way they approach teaching writing. They look at writing as a straightforward plan, as marks on a page, as related words, as clauses and as structured sentences (Hyland, 2003a). In product approaches, grammatical accuracy is the principle feature of writing development and the best measure of good writing (Hyland, 2002). In fact, product-oriented approaches seem to consider writing 'an extension of grammar' (Hyland, 2003a, p. 3). They emphasise the piece of writing and consider it the focus of instruction in writing classes. According to these approaches, 'writing development is considered to be the result of [structurally or rhetorically] imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher' (Hyland, 2003a, p. 3). A product-based approach involves teaching writing with some sort of assistance, such as a model to follow, a plan or outline to expand or an incomplete piece of writing to complete (Pincas, 1982). Brown (2001, p. 335) states that in this approach, a great deal of attention was placed on how well a student's final product measured up against a list of criteria that included content, organisation, vocabulary use, grammatical use, and mechanical considerations such as spelling and punctuation.

Advocates of such kinds of approaches (Pincas, 1982 & 2001) argue that with accuracy, writing develops, as writing activities create an error-free language with which one can distinguish good writing from bad. In addition, they look at the role of the teacher as a judge and a controller of the final product. When focusing on writing as a product, teachers look at textual features and evaluate improvement in writing by changes in those features (Casanave, 2004).

These approaches, especially the controlled and the rhetorical (model-based) ones, are still alive and very active in ESL classes despite the regular and vigorous

attacks made by advocates of the process approach. They are classified as 'traditional' because of their popularity. A study on the writing development of high school students carried out by Applebee and Langer (1984) revealed that the teacher's role was that of examiner looking for errors and correcting structures. This makes students develop writing strategies that suit the teacher's style and guarantee they avoid criticism. Another study in ESL classes by Hudelson (1988) revealed that writing is strictly controlled, leaving no space for creativity and no tolerance for errors. Moreover, in an investigation done by Zamel (1985), she stated the following:

> [I]t seems that ESL writing teachers view themselves primarily as language teachers, that they attend to surface-level features of writing, and that they seem to read and react to a text as a series of separate pieces at the sentence level or even clause level, rather than as a whole unit of discourse. (as cited in Zamel, 1987, p. 700)

Even though they come to look at writing as a whole unit of discourse (as the model-based approach does), they still seem to be preoccupied with correcting grammar, organisation and other textual features. A number of other studies (e.g. Applebee et al., 1981; Tighe & Koziol, 1982) also reveal that writing instruction in schools lacks the awareness and the application of the research and theory in writing and its instruction, implying the ignorance or the neglect of the findings of process-oriented writing research.

Below, two of the product-based writing approaches (the controlled and the model-based approaches) are discussed, as they seem to be the most used and the most important product approaches.

3.1.2.1.1. The controlled-writing approach.

Controlled composition seems to have its origins in the 1945 oral approach of Charles Fries, the pioneer of the audio-lingual method of second-language teaching in America (Silva, 1990, p. 12). This kind of approach guides and controls students' writing in classrooms by giving them models to manipulate structurally at the sentence, paragraph and essay levels. It emphasises accuracy rather than fluency to minimise the number of errors in students' writing.

In this kind of instruction, teachers might give students a passage or a sentence to change, usually grammatically or structurally, according to specific indications. In addition, it might include activities such as sentence combining in which students are asked to enlarge a simple sentence into a compound or a complex sentence. However, students are not expected or trained to focus on content or organisation.

This approach has advocates as well as critics. The advocates argue that the aim is to introduce students to different kinds of error-free sentences that are used and accepted by native speakers. L2 students need to be guided systematically to avoid any L1 interference. Pincas (2001), as one of the advocates, argues that this approach is seen as a 'scientific habit-forming teaching method' and believes the following:

> [T]he use of language is the manipulation of fixed [structural] patterns; [...] these patterns are learned by imitation; and [...] not until they have been learned can originality occur in the manipulation of patterns or in the choice of variables within the patterns. (pp. 1–2)

Critics, on the other hand, argue that this kind of approach does not provide students with chances to generate new ideas or communicate something meaningful to the reader. Focusing on structural manipulation often leads to the communicative purposes being ignored (Silva, 1990), and so, the learners produce unnatural discourse

that no native speaker would ever produce. Moreover, as suggested by Hyland (2003a), such a controlled approach 'hinders students from developing their writing beyond a few sentences [since students follow guided writing and imitate teachers' models]; also [it] misleads or confuses [students] when they have to write in other situations' (p. 5). Responding to critics, the proponents tried to improve this approach by suggesting the controlled-to-freewriting approach. However, it is still controlled and grammar-focused. Controlled writing became less popular when research showed that emphasising grammatical correction and sentence-level structure can block the composing process and reduce students' motivation to write (Silva, 1990).

3.1.2.1.2. The model-based approach.

The model-based approach, also called the patterned-based approach or current-traditional rhetoric (Silva, 1990), was inspired and influenced by Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric in 1966 (Casanave, 2004; Kaplan, 1966; Silva, 1990). In his theory, Kaplan (1967) defined rhetoric as the 'method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns' (p. 15). This approach was moved by the fact that writing is more than 'building grammatical sentences' (Silva, 1990, p. 13). In this approach, as stated by Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), students are expected to 'generate connected discourse by combining and arranging sentences into paragraphs based on prescribed formulas' (p. 11). It tries to teach L2 student writers that L1 discourse differs from L2 discourse and that what seems logical in the L1 might not be so in the L2 (Casanave, 2004; Kaplan, 1966; Silva, 1990). Therefore, L2 students need to be aware of these differences to avoid miscommunication. The only difference between this approach and the controlled approach seems to be the focal point, with the rhetorical level being more important than the syntactic level in this approach. Kaplan (1966) states, '[E]ach

language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, and that part of the learning of a particular language is the mastering of its logical system' (p. 14).

This approach asks students to work within provided models or patterns (Kaplan, 1966, p. 20). Students are simply asked to put sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns. They are asked to focus on form rather than content by analysing, classifying and practicing a variety of rhetorical and organisational patterns including words, usage, style, partition, comparison, contrast, cause, effect, description, narration, exposition and argumentation (Shih, 1986; Silva, 1990). In light of this approach, students can do the following (Silva, 1990, p. 14):

- Choose among alternative sentences within the context of a given paragraph.
- Read and analyse a model sentence, paragraph or essay to produce a parallel piece.
- Outline facts from a given topic and write their compositions from the outline.

Cohesion and coherence are also essential in model-based writing, and students' attention is drawn to these features from the very beginning. According to Silva (1990), learning to write with this approach 'involves becoming skilled in identifying, internalizing, and executing these [rhetorical] patterns' (p. 14).

Arapoff (1972) and Dehghanpisheh (1979) are advocates of this approach. Arapoff (1972, p. 200), points out that writing is more than the mere orthographic symbolisation of speech. It is the 'purposeful selection and organization of experience'. Proper organisation of ideas and experiences determines the effectiveness of a piece of writing. Therefore, teaching writing is primarily teaching learners how to select and organise their ideas and experiences by knowing how to think more clearly.

Arapoff believes that patterns of thought are culturally determined. Therefore, she does not want her students thinking in their own language, as this will lead to translating rather than writing. She suggests providing students with reading passages as models of how native speakers think and write.

This approach has been recommended in L1 writing instruction (Escholz, 1980; Watson, 1982), since models can show students how writers solve organisational problems. However, it has also been criticised in L1 writing instruction (Escholz, 1980; Flower & Hayes, 1977; Watson, 1982) for the length of its models, for its sophistication in dealing with simple writing problems that students face in writing classes and for ignoring the writing processes. In fact, the criticism of this approach seems to be as old as the approach itself. Escholz (1980), for example, argued that models and patterns restrict writers' freedom and creativity. Students mechanically copy a particular style or organisation and follow the form without much concern about content.

In L2 writing instruction, many teachers are still using the models to teach writing (Silva, 1990), as they present learners with the living language in a wide range of styles and formats. It seems to be another way to control students' writing and guarantee that students will not come up with unfamiliar texts for teachers to assess. Jordan (1997, p. 165) points out that because teachers provide their learners with models and various exercises and ask them to produce similar or parallel texts, attention is paid to the organisation, structure and cohesion of the writing. This approach is also criticised for its failure to understand and consider that students need the chance to 'talk about, to expand and even to relearn or re-examine their experiences' (Judy, 1980, p. 39).

From the previous discussion on product approaches (the controlled approach and model-based approach), the present study claims that students' writing strategies inspired by the principles of those approaches might cause undesirable writing-strategy apprehension among ESP/EFL Saudi students and contribute to the problem of dullness in writing classes. Product-oriented writing strategies might include strategies such as constantly checking grammatical errors and vocabulary during the writing process, following teachers' rules rigidly, writing without collecting information, writing without a plan, following outlines strictly, caring too much about organisation, avoiding writing sentence fragments etc. These approaches constitute the first half of the claim regarding their correlation with apprehension. The second half goes with the process-oriented writing approaches and argues that they might help with reducing apprehension.

3.1.2.2. The process-based approaches.

Two approaches are classified under the process approaches: the freewriting approach and the process approach. There are many reasons for classifying the freewriting approach with the process approach. First, the freewriting approach belongs to one of the two groups in the process camp: the expressivists (the other being the cognitivists, see Faigley, 1986). Second, it has been argued that the freewriting approach and its expressive principles 'leads quite naturally to a process classroom' (Reid, 1993b, p. 260). Third, fluency is a distinctive strategy in the freewriting approach and in the brainstorming stage of the process approach. Fluency is encouraged by the expressivist movement (e.g. Donald Murray, Peter Elbow and others; see Johns, 1990), which encourages students to take power over their writing. Furthermore, the above two approaches both avoid emphasising grammar correction in

writing classes. Moreover, they do not look at writing as a linear activity or a straightforward plan with a model to follow and a product to shape as soon as a pen is put on paper. They encourage meaning over form and fluency over accuracy. They also avoid emphasising error correction, as this might block students' creativity and enjoyment of the writing process.

3.1.2.2.1. The free-writing approach (the fluency/content scale).

This approach is supported by the expressivists such as Donald Murray, Peter Elbow, and others (see Johns, 1990) and influenced by the whole-language approach and journal writing (see Casanave, 2004). The expressive concepts of writing focus on the writer's voice, self-discovery and expression. It emphasises the importance of fluency over accuracy and argues that ideas emerge from learners rather than textbooks.

The advocates of this approach believe that students, especially intermediate and advanced students, need to be given a chance to express their feelings in an independent way without being concerned with error correction that might hinder their writing achievements (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). In 1966, Briere, an advocate of the freewriting approach, stated, '[A]n emphasis on quantity and fluency will produce far better results than any emphasis on quality' (p. 150). The main assumption of this approach, opposite to the controlled approach, is that by increasing students' sense of being 'fluent' as they become more confident in putting pen to paper, their writing apprehension decreases and their writing achievement increases. Casanave (2004) states the following in describing the notion of fluency in journal writing:

> The argument is both simple and powerful: [in] learning an L2, students are bound to make mistakes. Mistakes are normal, inevitable and indeed desirable when we consider that they help students experiment and test their own

interlanguage hypotheses about their evolving L2. Fear of making mistakes will hinder students' progress—they are less likely to experiment and more likely to be overly concerned with small language matters that prevent them from seeing the forest for the trees. (p. 72)

This approach seems to favour personal and expressive writing over academic writing. The individuality and the personality of the learner are highlighted to encourage the learner to draw upon his own experiences. Erazmus (1960), an advocate of this approach, argues, '[W]ith the de-emphasis on errors and stylistics, the student can write freely without the inhibitions often attending composition writing' (p. 30).

'Teachers advocating the expressivist view are nondirective; they facilitate classroom activities designed to promote writing fluency and power over the writing act. Their textbooks contain assignments designed to encourage self-discovery, such as journal writing and personal essays' (Johns, 1990, p. 25). Learning to write with this approach involves producing a personal piece of writing with a lot of information in a short period of time. The teacher is a reader looking for semantic errors rather than mechanical or grammatical errors.

3.1.2.2.2. The process-based approach.

The process approach differs from the previous approaches in the sense that it explicitly teaches students to understand their own writing processes and to build up their own strategies for the over-lapping writing stages: pre-writing, writing and re-writing. Dissatisfaction with the product-based approaches increased and caused a big shift in writing instruction. The shift in focus to writing stages and processes is considered a revolution in ESL writing instruction. Vivian Zamel, the one who introduced 'process writing to the ESL field in 1976' (Susser, 1994, p. 37), followed

research in L1 writing processes carried out by Janet Emig in 1971 to understand the nature of composing. Zamel (1976) argued that previous writing approaches lacked an empirical basis, and she called for L2 writing research that 'discover[s] what writing is, what it involves and what differentiates the good from the bad writers' (Zamel, 1976, p. 74). A number of theories, as discussed earlier, have contributed to the emergence of the process approach in ESL writing instruction. However, the most influential seems to be cognitive theory.

Tribble (1996) defines the process approach as 'an approach to the teaching of writing which stresses the creativity of the individual writer, and which pays attention to the development of good writing practices rather than the imitation of models' (p. 160). The basic idea of writing in the process approach is explained briefly by Zamel (1983) as a creative process by which writers 'discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning' (p. 165). Writing is 'a nonlinear, exploratory, and generative process' (Zamel, 1983, p. 165).

The process approach includes aspects of freewriting such as planning strategies (e.g. brainstorming), and both approaches' views are linked with the expressivist movement. The focus of instruction in writing classes is the process rather than the final product. The process-oriented approach focuses on writing processes and teaches strategies of creating ideas; discovering meaning; considering audience, purpose and context (Connor, 1987); revising; proofreading; and collaborating. Process-oriented writing focuses on accuracy, fluency, content and form, while product-oriented writing focuses on accuracy and form only. In other words, the former is concerned with the production as well as the comprehension of texts, while the latter is concerned only with the production of texts (Connor, 1987).

As noted by Matsuda (2003a, p. 67), the process pedagogy was in some way a reaction against the traditional pedagogy (product-oriented writing), in which students were expected to be controlled and guided by the teacher and corrected by the red pen with almost no discussion whatsoever on their feedback. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), the process approach, as a reaction to the earlier traditional approach, freed writing from the following:

> the three- or five-paragraph model; the simplistic assumptions about the organization and ordering of information; the typical one-draft writing assignment; the assumption that each student should be working alone, or only with the instructor on summative feedback; the reliance on grammar/usage handbooks and lectures; the linear composing model based on outlining, writing, and editing; and [...] the imposed, artificial topics for writing. (p. 86)

In a comparative study of students of product-oriented teachers and students of process-oriented teachers, Carroll (1984) found the latter achieved 'statistically significant and educationally important increases in their writing performance' more than the former (p. 325). Another investigation (Diaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986) of the writing of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students found that once teachers changed their instruction to more process-oriented method with more student-centred writing, those LEP students showed better writing and seemed to be more independent writers prepared for academic work. The claim is that if the LEP students benefited from this approach, then other students are likely to as well. In another investigation of ESL students' writing development in a process-oriented classroom, Diaz (1985) found that students both improved their writing and became more confident in both writing and

other second-language activities. The process approach lets students manage their own writing by giving them a chance to think as they write (Brown, 2001, p. 336).

Brown (2001, p. 335) claims that the process approach is useful to students in language learning, because students are the creators of language; their own intrinsic motives are valued, as they need to focus on content and message. The approach is also beneficial to students, because it focuses more on the various classroom activities. This is believed to promote the development of skilled language use. A number of interesting classroom techniques, including 'conferencing', have emerged from the process approach to writing (Nunan, 1991, pp. 86–87). Nunan (1991) also affirms that the process approach encourages collaborative group work between learners as a way of enhancing motivation and developing positive attitudes towards writing. When various group activities are utilised in writing classes, the learners exchange comments or responses or work together to write a paragraph or an essay. The focus of the process approach is 'on developing writers' intramental processes, particularly cognitive and metacognitive strategies for creating, revising, and correcting their texts independently' (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 6). Hyland (2003b) argues that writing in the process approach is 'essentially learnt, not taught, and the teacher's role is to be nondirective and facilitating, assisting writers to express their own meanings through an encouraging and cooperative environment with minimal interference' (p. 18).

On the other hand, believing that the process approach always involves personal and expressive writing, some (Horowitz, 1986; Hyland, 2003b; Polio, 2003; Reid, 1984) have criticised the approach. Reid (1984) and Horowitz (1986) argue that the process approach has neglected the students' need for academic writing and that it does not prepare them for a real academic life. It 'gives students a false impression of how university writing will be evaluated' (Horowitz, 1986, p. 143). It has a

'monolithic view of writing. The process of writing is seen as the same regardless of what is being written and who is writing' (Badger & White, 2000, p. 154). In addition, it is argued that 'the art and soul of writing have been lost in the process' (Baines, Baines, Stanley, & Kunkel, 1999, p. 72). Moreover, Reid (2001, p. 29) argued that this approach has made a false dichotomy between 'process' and 'product', that it neglects accuracy in favour of fluency and that it lacks input.

However, as argued by Casanave (2004), personal writing can feed into the improvement of academic writing, as it develops 'fluency and depth of thinking'—two characteristics of improved academic writing (p. 80). On the other hand, process writing is not necessarily always personal. Zamel (1983), the pioneer of process writing in ESL, noted that focusing on the process is not the ultimate goal of writing. The writing process does not necessarily neglect the final product (whether it is personal or academic). The stages of writing indicate that writing process is treating the product. Therefore, the argument that process writing disregards the fact that writing is a product (Horowitz, 1986) does not seem valid. On the other hand, Leki (1992) notes from research conducted with ESL students that even if students were able to produce grammar-based guided compositions, and even if students did have a fairly good grasp of grammar, they still produced peculiar, non-English-sounding texts when asked to write more creatively. Regarding the input problem, if it is a problem, it can be solved by providing students with reading materials or placing them in groups where input can be provided by others (White & Arndt, 1991).

According to Matsuda (2003a), '[T]here is no doubt that the process movement helped to call attention to aspects of writing that had been neglected in many writing classrooms; it also contributed to the professionalisation of composition studies' (p. 67). Moreover, according to Applebee (1986), 'There is no question that process

approaches now dominate the professional literature on the teaching of writing' (p. 97). Evidently, the process approach is valued by a great number of researchers. However, and despite the obvious shift from the product to the process approach, Hairston (1982) claims that teachers are still using the product-writing method and are 'frequently emphasizing techniques that the research has largely discredited', such as spelling and mechanics (p. 80).

Learning to write in this approach is to know *how* to write more than *what* to write. The teacher is a facilitator of the writing process and can intervene at any time. Learning effective writing strategies is essential. One of the educational features of the process approach is its ability to break down all the demanding elements of writing (rhetorical, cognitive and linguistic) into manageable stages where each element can be dealt with separately. This is believed to reduce the apprehension of L2 student writers by reducing the heavy burden of those demands.

Interventional studies in L2 writing instruction (Bloom, 1980; Dhanarattigannon, 2008; Fox, 1980; Stapa, 1994) have supported the effectiveness of the process-based writing approach over the product approach in reducing apprehension. For example, the major findings in Dhanarattigannon's study (2008) showed that after experiencing process-oriented writing instruction, students' feelings changed from anxiety to relief, as they were expressing themselves rather than correcting themselves. This writing class created a stress-free environment and helped students to improve their writing. The findings also showed that the students' attitudes and perceptions of writing changed positively. In almost the same vein, Akyel and Kamisli (1997) used think-aloud protocols, student compositions, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to investigate the relationship between L1 (Turkish) and L2 (English) writing strategies and attitudes of eight university students in an academic

context. The researchers found a significant correlation between the type of writing instruction received and the student writers' writing strategies.

The present study argues that writing strategies inspired by the process-based approach might also be helpful in reducing writing apprehension among ESL/EFL Saudi students. Despite the limitations of the process approach, the present research adopts its instructional principles to explore the effects of process-strategy instruction on students' application of strategies and the relationship between the application of process-based writing strategies and writing apprehension.

3.1.2.3. The post-process approaches.

These approaches—the social approach, the genre-based approach and the content-based approach/English for academic purposes approach—materialised as a result of the emergence of Writing for Academic Purposes (WAP) and its focus on situated writing in the 1990s. What makes these approaches post-process is their focus on the discourse or academic community (Horowitz, 1986; Johns, 1990) and the significance of social interaction over individual's cognitive processes. Post-process approaches are 'regarded as an extension of product approaches' (Badger & White, 2000, p. 155). They both view writing as an extension of grammar. The difference is that post-process approaches regard writing as grammar determined and shaped by a social context (Badger & White, 2000).

The central point of post-process approaches seems to be the word 'genre'. According to Bhatia (1993), '[A] genre is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs' (p. 3). As Eggins (2004) states, '[T]he concept of genre is used to describe the impact of

the context of culture on language' (p. 9). Therefore, in the genre-based approach, writing needs to be approached and regulated by the culture of an academic discipline.

Focusing on the 'genre' takes L2 writing instruction back to the textual features (grammar, organisation, coherence, cohesion etc.) of a written product with the new element of the social context. 'Genres are produced for social purposes of communication within groups that share purposes, understanding, and ways of using language' (Casanave, 2004, p. 82).

The argument against this kind of approach (Bischof, 1997) is that writing for academic purposes requires both analysis and synthesis, as ideas are extracted from their original contexts and applied to new ones. In addition, when writing, students are required to use the ideas in arguments that are appropriately complex and to structure these arguments so that they are easy for a reader to follow. Such a way of writing is suitable for students of a high level of language proficiency. However, a low level of language proficiency may impede students' ability to deal effectively with such an approach. With these approaches, writing seems to be very demanding and definitely causes apprehension among low-level students. If writing instruction does not leave room for creativity and personal feelings, how can we expect students to overcome their apprehension in writing classes? Conventional life restricts freedom, and conventional writing restricts creativity.

Moreover, while the genre-based approach equips students with knowledge of the discourse behaviours and language features for generating an example of a genre, students also need instruction in the ways of thinking responsible for the realisation of those discourse behaviours. In other words, the post-process approaches focused on the sociocultural aspects of writing and overlooked the cognitive dimension. By doing this, they violated the principles of totality and unity in the sociocultural theory

introduced by Vygotsky. Badger and White (2000) argue that 'the negative side of genre approaches is that they undervalue the skills needed to produce a text and see learners as largely passive' (p. 157). In addition, Kamler (1995) criticises the genre approaches because of their 'narrow focus on language and text and [their] lack of attention to the instructional and disciplinary contexts in which texts are constructed' (p. 9).

Learning to write in these approaches is to 'control genres by actually participating in the writing [...] of different communities of writers' (Casanave, 2004, p. 83). It is to write an acceptable and appropriate academic piece of writing that is expected by an academic reader (Silva, 1990). Teachers are expected to help students to be socialised in the academic community and ensure that their writings fall within the boundaries of that community. 'By understanding their readers and anticipating reader expectations, [student] writers shape their texts so that they meet these expectations effectively' (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 8).

3.1.3. Conclusion of part A

The previous few pages discussed four theories of language, learning and teaching that have influenced writing approaches and writing models: communication theory, cognitive theory, contrastive rhetorical theory and social constructionist theory. In addition, they examined the features, principles and strategies of the three camps of writing approaches: product-based approaches, process-based approaches and post-process approaches.

For the sake of the present study's interest in writing strategies, the literature of the product-oriented writing instruction shows that writing can include strategies such as following teachers' rules and feedback, writing without collecting information,

writing without planning, following outline, focusing on organization, neatness and layout, constant editing of grammar, vocabulary use and punctuation, avoiding writing sentence fragment, etc. However, writing strategies in the literature of the process-oriented writing instruction include strategies of free-writing, planning, creating ideas, discovering meaning, group or pair work, considering audience, purpose and context of writing, revising, drafting and proofreading.

Piper (1989) emphasised that 'there is no doubt that instruction does have an effect on how the learners write both in terms of written output, writing behaviours and attitudes to writing' (p. 212). Several theorists (Daly, 1979; Holladay, 1981) have suggested that the sources of students' emotional/attitudinal obstacles can be traced to teachers' practices. In addition, Coyle (2007) offered a new perspective on learner strategies by "conceptualizing strategic behaviour as growing out of the learning context" (p. 76). Building on these statements, this study claims that the type of writing instruction used in classrooms is reflected in students' writing strategies. By understanding the process-product writing instruction beliefs, the present researcher aimed to investigate the dominant type of writing strategies (process or product) used by Saudi ESP/EFL students and to correlate this to strategy apprehension and writing competence. Investigating the writing strategies of a learning environment from the instructional philosophy of that environment is intended to enable "teachers and learners to be more aware of the context-embedded strategies that will inform and support individual learner strategies" (Coyle, 2007, p. 65). The researcher is interested to know if product-type strategies would decrease writing competence and increase writing apprehension, as product-oriented writing strategies are thought to provoke anxiety in writing students. Thus, an investigation is needed to reveal the relationship between the instructional type of writing strategies, writing competence and writing-

strategy apprehension. Studies of the process vs. product writing strategies are not prominent in L2/FL writing research, and they still need to be studied as variables influencing writing competence and writing apprehension. Thus, the following part of the literature review discusses ESL/EFL writing strategies.

Part B

3.2. Second/Foreign Language Writing Strategies

The previous part of the literature review provided a theoretical framework in which second-language writing instruction has been discussed in general to contextualise the instructional writing behaviours or strategies in ESL writing. This part, however, is based on the fact that 'students in general and independent learners in particular must be made aware of and armed with appropriate writing strategies specific to second language' (Bloom, 2008, p. 106). Therefore, it sheds light on the explanatory variables that are believed to affect writing strategies and compares the findings of the related research studies. Those variables are: proficiency, L1 use, strategy instruction and past writing experiences. The headings of this part, therefore, highlight the following areas: strategy definitions, strategy taxonomies, studies of the explanatory variables believed to influence L2/FL writing strategies, writing-strategy studies in the Arab world in general and Saudi studies in particular.

3.2.1. Strategy definitions

As noted earlier, the present study adopts the definition of writing strategies as 'the [conscious[5]] behaviors and techniques that can be taught and instructed' (Grenfell & Harris, 1999, p. 39). This definition excludes the controversial debates around the consciousness and unconsciousness of strategy use (see Section 4.3.2.1 for more details). Generally speaking, language-learning strategies are defined by Cohen (1990) as follows:

> [Language-learning strategies] are learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner. The element of choice is important here because this is

[5] The definition reflects the use of the word 'conscious' in ordinary language, not the more detailed discussions of strategy consciousness by researchers and philosophers.

what gives a strategy its special character. These are also moves which the learner is at least aware of, even if full attention is not being given to them. (p. 5).

In later years, Cohen (1998) defined them as 'the conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language' (p. 68). This involves cognitive, meta-cognitive and social strategies. Learning strategies are also defined by Oxford (1990) as 'steps taken by the learner to facilitate the acquisition, retrieval, or use of information' (p. 14). Chamot et al. (1988) defined 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', meta-cognitive strategies as 'thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned' and social strategies as 'interacting with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task' (pp. 17–19). McDonough (1995) indicates that the term 'strategy' has at least four meanings: (i) 'an articulated plan for meeting particular types of problems, not a piece of problem-solving in itself', (ii) 'ploys which appear to be used when alternative methods entail penalties of cognitive overload, memory or knowledge', (iii) 'compensation', and (iv) 'plans for action' (pp. 4–5). In addition, Bruton and Manchón (as cited in Manchón, 1997) define strategies as a 'set of optional potential means-oriented behaviours available for conscious identification or selection, and controlled application, in the real time achievement of language learning and/or communicative goals' (p. 96). Oxford and Schramm (2007, pp. 47–48) provide two definitions of learner strategies based on psychological and sociocultural perspectives. The former defines a learner strategy as 'a specific plan, action, behavior, step, or technique that individual learners use, with

some degree of consciousness, to improve their progress in developing skills in a second language'. The latter defines a learner strategy as 'being a learner's socially mediated plan or action to meet a goal, which is related directly or indirectly to L2 learning'. It seems clear from the previous definitions that strategies can be cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective. In fact, strategies can be overlapping and interrelated (Macaro, 2006, pp. 328–332; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990b, p. 137). Strategies are related to the complex nature of a person, and a person should be treated as a whole (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 1). In a study carried out by Hurd (2008) on 'affect and strategy use', the findings showed that certain cognitive and metacognitive strategies helped learners to manage their emotions, underlining the integral link between cognition and affect.

In the writing context, as reviewed by Manchón et al. (2007), writing strategies have been discussed in L2/FL writing research studies as 'writing behaviours', 'composing behaviours', 'composing operations', 'writing techniques and procedures', 'composing processes', and 'process-related skills' in contrast to 'language-related skills' (p. 230). Sasaki (2004) defined a writing strategy as 'a writer's mental behaviour employed to achieve a goal in the ill structured problem-solving [...] activity of writing' (p. 541). Whalen (1993) supports the idea of consciousness in strategy use by stating that, 'a writing strategy necessarily becomes more powerful and consequential when the writer becomes conscious of how he manipulates and applies the strategy to a specific writing task' (p. 607).

On the other hand, Manchóc et al. (2007, pp. 232–235) distinguished between broad and narrow conceptualisations of writing strategies. The broad conceptualisation has two definitions of a writing strategy based on two perspectives: (1) learner-internal and (2) socio-cognitive. The learner-internal perspective defines writing strategies as

'any action employed in the act of composing a text'. The socio-cognitive perspective views writing strategies as 'actions employed by L2 writers to respond to the demands encountered in the discourse community where they write and learn to write'. In contrast, the narrow conceptualisation is a purely cognitive perspective informed by both cognitive theories of L1 writing and the problem-solving paradigm in cognitive psychology. It defines writing strategies as 'control mechanisms used to regulate cognitive activity [...or] heuristics used when the L2 writer engages in problem-solving activity'.

In conclusion, the previous definitions indicate that strategies are specific behaviours or techniques students use, often consciously, to improve their language skills. Investigating the strategies second-language writers employ can provide an insight into what writers think they are doing or should be doing and thus increase our understanding of the 'specifics' of this process (Silva, 1993). Such investigation can also help develop a 'predictive model' of the constructs of writing that can be useful for instructional, research and educational practices and for curricular planning and assessment (Grabe, 2001).

3.2.2. Strategy classifications and taxonomies

As discussed by Grenfell and Macaro (2007, pp. 14–15), the early taxonomies of learner strategies were purely cognitive oriented. Those strategies were classified according to the learners' differences in cognitive styles, such as field-dependent and field-independent learners. Field-independent learners were considered analytical and object-oriented, while field-dependent learners were considered global and person-oriented. This had nothing to do with good or poor language learners. Later on, learner strategies were classified based on other variables linked to strategy use, such as

proficiency level, affect and motivation. In addition, strategy taxonomies developed to include variations in strategy type, such as 'easier' and 'harder' strategies, and the variations in strategy quantity and frequency between 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' language learners. This opened the door to comparing any learner variable with strategic behaviour.

One of the well-known strategy classifications is that of O'Malley and Chamot (1990a, p. 137), who categorised strategies into three types. The first, meta-cognitive strategies, are strategies that learners use to regulate their learning processes (e.g. planning, direct attention, selective attention, self-management, self-monitoring, problem identification and self-evaluation). The second, cognitive strategies, are those that learners apply directly to the task being performed (e.g. memorising, taking notes, grouping, repeating and resourcing). Finally, the third, social/affective strategies, are strategies that help learners regulate their emotions, motivation and attitudes (e.g. strategies for reducing anxiety and for self-encouragement). Another famous strategy categorisation is that developed by Rebeca Oxford (1990): the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). In her book, *Language learning strategies*, Oxford successfully divided learning strategies into two categories: direct and indirect strategies. The direct-strategy category is divided into three classes: memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. The indirect-strategy category is also divided into three classes: meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. The diagram of all these strategies in the book provides the reader with a comprehensive summary of the learning strategies. To sum up, the previous two categories of learning strategies were criticised for being too general. Teachers need more specific taxonomies for strategies used in each of the four language skills (McDonough, 1999).

In the L2 writing context, the general conceptualisation of writing strategies (see Section 3.2.1) entailed a broad taxonomy of writing strategies at different levels of generality (Manchóc et al., 2007). In the learner-internal perspective, the broad taxonomic list was based on identifying the strategies of planning, writing and revision. Another broad taxonomic list adopted the classification of Oxford (1990) and distinguished metacognitive, cognitive, compensatory, social and affective writing strategies. In the socio-cognitive perspective, however, the list of writing strategies identified included the following:

> (1) those used to conceptualize and fulfil writing tasks (clarifying and focusing strategies); (2) those that involve making use of previous knowledge and experience [...]; (3) strategies that make the most of the social context (using current experience or feedback, looking for models, using current ESL writing training); (4) taking a stance towards teachers' demands [...]; and, finally, (5) finding ways of managing and regulating the demands [...] of their courses and assignments. (Manchóc et al., 2007, p. 233)

An example of a broad taxonomy in writing strategies is that of Leki (1995). Leki identifies a number of writing strategies that she groups under ten broad headings: clarifying, focusing, relying on past writing experience, taking advantage of first language/culture, using current experience or feedback, looking for models, using current or past ESP training, accommodating teacher's demands and managing competing demands.

The narrow conceptualisation of writing strategies, on the other hand, entails identifying the problem-solving strategies that students use while composing, such as 'writing down the English word in question and circling it, leaving a blank space for a

word or a phrase, or using their own native language' (Zamel, 1983, p. 175), L1 use (Cumming, 1989; Friedlander, 1990; Wang & Wen, 2002), rehearsing (Raimes, 1987a; Yahya, 1994), focusing on content (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) and evaluating (Whalen, 1993).

Inspired by the claim of LoCastro (1994, as cited in Grenfell & Macaro, 2007, p. 19) that strategies developed by learners might be influenced by the teaching method, the present research also claims that writing strategies developed by student writers under a product-based writing approach might contribute to their fear and dislike of producing a piece of writing. By discovering those strategies, teachers can adjust their teaching approach to be in harmony with effective learner strategies (LoCastro, 1994, as cited in Grenfell & Macaro, 2007). McDonough (1995) suggests the following:

> If we can get learners to reveal their learning processes and strategies in language skill areas and tests, then we can also get them to reveal their reactions to the techniques which are used to teach them and perhaps glimpse their processing of these. A skilled language learner possesses skill in coping not only with problems of language but with the context of learning—and for large numbers of learners this context is the classroom. (p. 122)

The researcher fully understands that there are no clear-cut boundaries between what is 'process' and what is 'product' in writing behaviours. However, the researcher's argument is that this seems to be the nature of classifying learning strategies in general. For example, planning in Oxford's (1990) strategic self-regulation model of L2 learning was classified as a metacognitive strategy, while when planning refers to activating one's knowledge about the topic, it can be

cognitive. Therefore, even this famous cognitive/metacognitive dichotomy of strategies is controversial. However, there seem to be writing strategies that can be classified as either process or product. Such strategies, therefore, will be the focus of investigation.

3.2.3. Studies on ESL/EFL writing strategies

As said above, the early stage (as early as the 1960s) of language-learner strategies in general was involved in investigating differences in cognitive styles. Later on, a number of other variables, like motivation and affect, were included (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007, p. 15). Researchers in second-language learning were interested in listing strategies that successful learners use—such as planning strategies, direct and indirect strategies, monitoring strategies, etc.—and developed different taxonomies of strategies (Oxford, 1985; Rubin, 1987; Wenden, 1987), proving that strategies help learners to control their learning and become more proficient (Cohen, 1998). Similarly, research on cognitively-oriented writing strategies in particular started to emerge in the 1980s. Later on, in the mid-1990s, the social aspect of writing started to attract the attention of researchers (Manchón et al., 2007). On the other hand, a number of research studies have been carried out to investigate internal (e.g. the relationship between writers' goals and their use of strategies) as well as external (e.g. the type of writing task or topic) variables that influence writing-strategy use (Manchón et al., 2007).

In this subsection, the following explanatory variables are highlighted, as they seem to influence strategy use and be related to the research questions: (1) L1 and L2 writing strategies, (2) the influence of strategy instruction, (3) the differences between

skilled and unskilled writers' strategies and (4) the learner's previous writing experience.

3.2.3.1. L1 and L2 writing strategies

In the 1980s, researchers were dissatisfied with the limitations of contrastive rhetoric research with its focus on the final product and its neglect of the ways in which text is produced (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Thus, L2 writing researchers (Lay, 1982; Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1983), inspired and influenced by the L1 process-based writing studies (Emig, 1971), started to carry out similar research projects to examine the L2 writing processes and strategies and compare them to those of L1 composing processes and strategies. Lay (1982, p. 406), for example, studied the ESL writing of four native Chinese-speaking ESL writers to investigate 'the interplay of the native language in the writing process'. By collecting data from compositions, think-aloud protocol and interviews, Lay found that the subjects used their first language to 'get a strong impression and association of ideas for the essay' (p. 406). Their L1 (Chinese) was viewed as an aid for English writing rather than an obstacle. In addition, she found that her subjects tended to use their L1 when writing about topics they knew from their L1 background.

By using think-aloud protocols and Perl's (1979) coding scheme, Arndt (1987, pp. 257–265) investigated the writing processes of six EFL Chinese-speaking graduate students. The participants wrote one essay in English and another in Chinese. The composing processes were found to be consistent and similar in both languages. However, the differences were in the word choice and the way students approached the task in both languages. This indicates that writing proficiency is not a significant

factor in how to write. Arndt (1987) stated the following regarding the participants' performance:

> [They] revised for word choice more in the L2 task than in the L1 task, but rehearsed for word choice more in L1 task than in L2. This suggests that they felt less able to try out alternatives and less happy with decisions in L2 than in L1. (p. 265)

By using observations, questionnaires and thinking-aloud tapes, Cumming (1989) found that his Francophone writers differed in the use of their L1 while writing in English. The expert writers exhibited switching between English and French while they composed aloud. The novice writers, however, used their L1 consistently to generate ideas. Wang (2003) supported those findings by reporting that Chinese-speaking high-proficient writers switched to their L1 more frequently than low-proficient students did in their ESL writing.

Friedlander (1990, p. 123) investigated the planning strategies of 28 Chinese-speaking subjects in responding to two letters: one in Chinese and the other in English. The researcher found that students produce better texts when they plan in the language that matches the topic they are writing about (i.e. 'if writing in English about a Chinese topic, Chinese speakers would benefit if they produced a plan in Chinese and then used that plan to generate their English text' and vice versa).

Uzawa (1996) used think-aloud protocols, observations, interviews and written samples to compare the L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) writing processes of 22 students. The findings showed that the L1 and L2 writing processes were similar. Most participants used a 'what-next' strategy to writing both in L1 and in L2 tasks, and they

used a 'sentence-by-sentence' strategy in the translation tasks. Translation was viewed as helpful for learning and improving L2 writing.

However, some researchers argue that L1 writing strategies are not similar to L2 writing strategies. Silva (1993) examined 72 studies of L1 and L2 composing and found that L2 writing is different from and less effective than L1 writing. He found differences in composing processes, particularly planning, writing and revising. In addition, he found differences in accuracy, quality, structure and fluency. He concluded that L2 writing differs from L1 linguistically, rhetorically and strategically. He attributed the lack of a coherent, comprehensive theory of L2 writing to the predominant assumption that L1 and L2 are virtually the same.

Wang and Wen (2002) used only think-aloud protocols to investigate L1 (Chinese) use in the composing process of 16 intermediate and advanced EFL learners. The researchers attempted 'to quantify the amount of L1 involvement in the L2 composing process and explore the interaction between writing tasks and the writer's L2 proficiency and L1 use in the composing process' (pp. 227–228). The findings showed that L2 writing is a bilingual process: 'L2 writers have two languages [...] at their disposal when they are composing in L2' (p. 239). In addition, L1 use was found to occur more often in 'process-controlling', 'idea-generating' and 'idea-organising' activities than in 'text-generating' activities. Furthermore, in contrast to previous studies, it was found that intermediate writers depend on L1 use more than proficient writers. Intermediate writers use direct translation, while advanced writers write directly in the L2. However, Junju (2004), in her comprehensive study of 18 Chinese students' writing strategies, used multi-instruments and found that Chinese student writers tend to reduce their Chinese verbalisations while writing in English.

She indicated that the mother tongue is active and used as a medium of thought at different levels.

Using the L1 in L2 writing as a writing strategy was considered unsuccessful in Chelala's (1981) study. Jones and Tetroe (1987) also found that the use of L1 as a strategy in L2 writing reduces the level of L2 writing performance and reduces students' L2 vocabulary. In addition, Whalen and Ménard (1995) reported that using L1 as a strategy in the process of writing imposed an extra burden on writers, as language switching may add to linguistic problems and may slow down the writing process. In their study of 70 Japanese students, Sasaki and Hirose (1996) reported that the majority of the poor ESL writers used their L1 to generate ideas and then translated them into English. This might indicate that the use of L1 in L2 writing is a characteristic of poor writing. However, in Liao's (2005) study, using the L1 (Chinese) in English writing helped improve the text quality of advanced students but not low-level students. 'EFL students' spontaneous use of L1 was found to be associated with better writing quality when used in activities such as making logical transitions, posing questions about logic and content development, or summarizing long chunks of reasoning' (Liao, 2005, p. v). Similarly, Spanish students found using the L1 to generate coherent ideas useful in Jimenez-Lugo's (2007) study, and low-level students found using L1 at the lexical level helpful. These findings were also supported by the studies of Sun (1989) and Lay (1988) with Chinese students. In addition, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) used think-aloud protocols to compare translation to direct composition. The findings showed that L1 (Japanese) use in generating L2 (English) texts was effective in improving the text content, style and organisation of both proficient and less proficient writers. However, they used

retrospective self-reports to measure the amount of L1 use in EFL writing and found that less proficient writers use L1 more frequently than proficient writers.

Despite these differences and debates, Manchón et al. (2007, p. 241) stated that there is a consensus among researchers that only skilled writers use their L1 as a strategy to overcome lexical problems, and using the L1 in generating L2 texts is generally considered an asset in L2 writing. Krapels (1990a) also found that using L1 in the composing process could be considered a 'fairly common strategy among L2 writers' (p. 46). However, Abdel-Latif (2009) states the following:

> [T]he findings of [...] studies drawing on retrospective data seem to be congruent in indicating that writers with lower levels of L2/FL proficiency use their L1 more frequently than writers with higher levels, [but] the findings of the think-aloud protocol studies do not seem to point to this conclusion consistently. (p. 34)

In addition, topic familiarity and time constraints could be possible factors in the variations of using L1 as a strategy in L2 writing.

The above reviewed findings generally suggest the following:

- L1 use in L2 writing is effective.
- Skilled writers use their L1 as a strategy to sustain their composing processes.
- Novice writers use their L1 as a strategy to overcome the product demands.
- Novice writers use their L1 more often than skilled writers.

By investigating a wide range of Saudi college-student writers, the present research aims to measure the effectiveness of using L1 (Arabic) as a strategy on L2 (English) writing apprehension and the correlation between the frequency of writing in L1 (Arabic) and the type of writing strategies preferred by students in English writing

(product vs. process). Also of interest is which group—apprehensive or non-apprehensive writers—uses Arabic more often.

3.2.3.2. Strategy Instruction

The second explanatory variable affecting strategy use is strategy instruction. Cohen (1998) defined strategy instruction as 'explicitly teaching students how to apply language learning and language use strategies' (p. 67). It is believed that one of the significant roles of the teacher is to provide students with all possible strategies to succeed in language learning. This enables students to select the strategy that best matches their needs and makes them autonomous and self-directed (Cava, 1999). Grenfell and Harris (1999, p. 73) attributed the recent interest in strategy instruction to the following: (1) The close links between learner autonomy and learning strategies have provided learners with the opportunity to have control over their learning, and (2) investigating the strategies of successful learners requires instructors to intervene and provide less successful learners with those strategies.

There seems to be no agreement among researchers on the best way to teach strategies. However, a number of instructional models have been proposed to help students learn how to use strategies. Early frameworks involve a cycle of training that includes consciousness raising, modelling, general practice, action planning, focused practice and evaluation (Grenfell, 2007, p. 15). In general, there are two well-known models in L2/FL strategy instruction: the psychological model and the sociocultural model (Oxford & Schramm, 2007). The psychological model was developed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990b) from the theory of John Anderson's (1980) dichotomy between two kinds of cognitive information processing: declarative and procedural (see Section 3.1). In cognitive-oriented strategy instruction, training takes place at the

declarative stage, as proceduralised strategies cannot be taught (Oxford & Schramm, 2007, p. 50).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990a) asserted that knowledge of strategies, like L2 knowledge itself, moves from declarative to procedural through practice by the learner. 'Declarative knowledge' is defined more fully as conscious, fact-oriented effortful knowledge of static, discrete data points or facts, such as definitions of words, the conventions of punctuation or grammar rules. 'Procedural knowledge', on the other hand, is knowledge that is unconscious, automatic, habitual, effortless and implicit.

Teaching strategies were seen by O'Malley and Chamot (1990a, pp. 157–160) as a four-step process: (1) to help students identify their existing strategies, (2) to present and explain a new strategy, (3) to provide students with chances to practice the new strategies and (4) to help students evaluate their success. Explicit instruction is supported by Cohen (1998): '[L]earning 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' (p. 66).

The sociocultural model, on the other hand, inspired by Vygotsky's dialogic model, entails an internalisation of strategies through social interaction and communication. Group work and social and affective strategies are highlighted in this model of instruction (see Section 3.1). Oxford and Schramm (2007) describe the model as follows:

> In this model, structured strategy instruction generally occurs in a group, with the teacher explaining and modelling specific strategies and providing useful mnemonics, such as acronyms, for remembering the strategies. Slower students

receive individual strategy coaching, in which a more capable person models strategy use and provides help for internalising strategies. (p. 53)

The two models seem to have principles and elements that overlap. For example, the cognitive elements seem to be present in the internalisation stage of the second model. Similarly, the sociocultural principles can be seen in the social strategies of the psychological model. The teacher must be selective in his method of strategy instruction according to the teaching context and the students' needs. The previous two broad models, however, were not proposed for teaching L2 writing strategies. Therefore, Macaro's (2001, pp. 185–190) model of strategy instruction can be considered the first in L2 writing. His model proposes nine steps for strategy instruction: (1) raising students' awareness of the use of strategies and their needs using questionnaires, (2) exploring the range of possible strategies by comparing the results of the questionnaires, (3) having the teacher or other students model strategies, (4) combining strategies, (5) applying strategies, (6) having students perform a preliminary evaluation, (7) gradually removing the scaffolding, (8) having the teacher or students perform an evaluation and (9) monitoring strategy use and rewarding effort. This model was successfully applied in the Oxford Writing Strategies Project. Although Macaro (2001) claims that strategies are difficult to observe because mostly 'they are happening inside the learners' heads and are not the visible signs of achievement but the actions that lead to the achievement', he believes that 'learners will learn better if they are helped to identify the strategies they use' (p. 43).

In their review of L2/FL writing studies, Manchón et al. (2007) mentioned that the influence of instruction on strategy use 'is an under-researched area representing less than ten per cent of the studies in our corpus' (p. 246). They noted that in the

reviewed research studies, the success of strategy instruction was measured by the effect it had on the participants' (1) mental model of writing, (2) use of strategies, (3) learner-internal factors such as self-determination or attribution and (4) writing quality before and after the treatment.

A number of studies have found writing-strategy instruction useful and effective. For example, Akyel and Kamisli (1997) used think-aloud protocols, student compositions, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to investigate the relationship between L1 (Turkish) and L2 (English) writing strategies and the attitudes of eight university students in an academic context. The researchers found a significant correlation between the type of writing instruction received and the student writers' writing strategies. They also found that L2 writing instruction positively affected L1 (Turkish) writing strategies.

Sengupta (2000) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the effects of revision strategy instruction on two experimental classes of L2 secondary school learners of English in Hong Kong. The experimental classes were explicitly instructed to write multiple drafts of six compositions, while the control group was traditionally taught with no instruction on revision. The students were taught in their revision to focus on appropriateness, sufficiency and organisation of information. The feedback was gradually transferred from the teacher, to a peer and finally to the students themselves. The findings of the post-test composition and post-questionnaires and interviews showed that the experimental groups had made more progress than the traditionally taught group, particularly in the quality of the final draft.

Another study of writing strategy is that of Macaro (2001) in which six classes of secondary students studying French in England were randomly divided into control and experimental groups. The experimental groups received about five months of

explicit instruction on a variety of writing strategies, including meta-cognitive strategies of advance planning, monitoring and evaluating. The study also used case-study instruments, including two questionnaires, two writing tasks, two structures and morphemes tests and two think-aloud interviews during a French writing task. At the post-test, the experimental groups had made significant gains in the grammatical accuracy of their writing. In addition, they reported a change in their approach to writing, becoming less reliant on their teacher, more selective in their use of the dictionary and more careful about their written work.

In addition, Sasaki (2004) conducted a three and a half-year longitudinal study to investigate the effect of writing-process instruction on 11 Japanese students' English writing behaviours. The study used instruments such as written texts, videotaped writing behaviours and stimulated recall protocols. The findings showed that the participants improved their English writing proficiency, quality, fluency and confidence after they received instruction in planning and revision strategies.

Using a quasi-experimental study and a case study approach, Wang (2007) investigated whether a writing-strategy instruction course could help EFL learners in China become more aware of the ways in which they write most effectively and ways in which they could enhance their production of the target language. The nine-week study investigated the effects of strategy instruction on 88 Chinese student writers' perceptions and applications of strategies and on their performance in argumentative writing. The findings showed that explicit instruction can positively change students' perceptions of writing strategies and can significantly contribute to their writing performance.

He's (2009) case study involved conducting writing workshops to explore the possibility of applying certain aspects of process-based composition pedagogy in

university-level advanced EFL writing classes at a Chinese university. The researcher focused on students' attitudes towards this process-oriented experience using qualitative and quantitative methods. The findings showed that applying the process approach to the EFL writing workshop provided scaffolding for students as they went through writing processes and helped them develop appropriate social, cultural and contextual language awareness in English writing. This writing pedagogy encourages self-expression and emphasises writing for real purposes, audiences and contexts. The participants reported significant improvement in their confidence in writing and in the acquisition and use of process-based writing strategies.

In conclusion, the current research might be considered a supportive study of the previous research (He, 2009; Macaro, 2001; Sasaki, 2004; Sengupta, 2000; Wang, 2007) in the field that called for strategy instruction and supported the process approach over the product approach in the teaching of ESL/EFL writing. The findings of this research in terms of process-based strategy instruction will be compared with those studies focusing on the impact of process-based writing instruction on writing apprehension and writing quality (Stapa, 1994). On the other hand, Grenfell and Macaro (2007) argue that 'if the fundamental claim was that the good strategies used by good students could be adapted and taught to less successful students, then the effectiveness of that teaching would have to be put to the test' (p. 20). In the same teaching process-based writing strategies vein, the present research study aims to test the effect of process-based strategies on students' writing apprehension. According to Robinson (2002), '[M]otivation and anxiety can clearly often be changed and shaped through teacher intervention in learning' (p. 8).

3.2.3.3. Skilled and Unskilled Writers' Strategies

The third explanatory variable affecting strategy use is writing proficiency. 'Research in a number of domains suggests that experts use different information-processing strategies and techniques than do novice learners' (McLaughlin, 1990, p. 168). On the other hand, one can argue that the complex nature of L2 writing can provide various measures in assessing the quality and proficiency of one's writing. Those variations might be related to the nature of the writing task (Hall, 1991), to the teacher's preference for accuracy or fluency (Henry, 1996; Porte, 1996, 1997), to the teacher's previous writing experiences and cultural values (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2001, 2002) or to the purpose of the course they are teaching (Cumming, 2001). These variations and others need to be considered when researchers categorise student writers as skilled and unskilled. In other words, the skilled–unskilled dichotomy of writers seems to be situational rather than dispositional. Pennington and So (1993) went further to suggest that it might even be possible for a writer to be considered skilled in one study and unskilled in another. According to Roca de Larios and Murphy (2001), '[...] the term "skilled" and "unskilled" should be seen as relative to the domain they are applied to or the discourse community into which the individual writers become socialized' (p. 33).

One of the first empirical research studies in writing strategies was that of Vivian Zamel (1983). Her goal was to demonstrate that composing competence is more important than linguistic competence. In other words, she aimed to prove that understanding process-based writing strategies would improve written products. The participants were six of her university-level ESL students who were designated as skilled and unskilled writers based on evaluations by other instructors. The researcher used direct observation and interviewed the participants upon conclusion of the

writing. In addition, she collected and examined the written drafts of the final untimed version for each student. The findings showed that skilled writers spent more time writing and revised more than unskilled writers. In general, skilled writers were concerned with generating ideas, revised on the discourse level and showed recursiveness in the writing process. In other words, they employed process-based writing strategies, unlike the unskilled writers who showed less flexibility in strategy use, started editing from the beginning and focused on word and sentence levels.

Raimes (1985) also tried to investigate the writing strategies of eight unskilled ESL writers whose skill level was determined by their performance on the Michigan Proficiency Test and a holistically scored university-wide writing test. The writing task in this study was timed, unlike in Zamel's (1983) study. The researcher used think-aloud protocols and Perl's (1979) coding scheme to analyse the writing strategies and processes. The findings showed that most of the participants did very little planning before or during writing and paid less attention to revising and editing than the researcher had expected. Moreover, the researcher observed that the participants' writing competence did not correspond with their linguistic competence. She reported that L2 writers might not be 'as concerned with accuracy as we thought they were' (Raimes, 1985, p. 246). In another study, Raimes (1987a) confirmed the previous findings by reporting that skilled writers did more planning.

Victori (1999) used interviews and think-aloud protocols to investigate the writing strategies of two skilled and two less skilled Spanish student writers. The findings showed the two skilled participants focused more on global issues associated with their texts such as planning, organising and changing their ideas to improve meaning, while the less skilled writers never changed their initial ideas and were concerned with vocabulary and grammatical aspects. The skilled writers showed a

greater awareness of the audience than the less skilled. Similar findings were reported in Angelova's (1999) study of the writing products and processes of 120 Bulgarian college students. Using questionnaires and video-stimulated recall interviews, Angelova found that the good writers planned their writing globally and strategically and paid attention to ideas and organisation, while the poor writers planned locally during writing and faced difficulties in organising their ideas.

Cava (1999) used think-aloud protocols, interviews and questionnaires to investigate the L2 writing strategies of four unsuccessful college-student writers. The findings showed that the participants did very little planning, did not show recursiveness in their writing and performed revisions that focused more on grammar than meaning or ideas. In addition, strategy use was noted to be influenced by the writer's personal knowledge (self-concept, self-assessment, anxiety and self-confidence).

Sasaki (2000) used different instruments (students' writing essays, videotapes of writing behaviours and stimulated recall protocols) to gather information about the writing strategies of 12 Japanese EFL learners. The participants were divided into three groups: experts vs. novices, more experts vs. less experts and novices before and after six months of instruction. He compared the groups in terms of their writing fluency, the quality and complexity of their written texts, their behaviour while writing and their strategy use. The findings showed that the experts spent more time planning the organisation of their essays than the novices, and their writing was distinguished by its length and fluency. Moreover, novices stopped to translate and thought about their planning and organisation more frequently than the experts did. In addition, after six months of instruction, the novices started to use some of the strategies that the

experts employed. Finally, it was found that the more proficient writers used strategies more frequently.

Sang-Hee (2002) used questionnaires and interviews to investigate the type and number of writing strategies of 41 graduate ESL students from different language backgrounds. The participants' writing proficiency was measured by their instructors. Other variables such as L1 background, length of residence in the L2-speaking country and university major were also investigated to measure their influence on strategy use. The findings showed that less proficient writers focused more on translation, grammar and vocabulary problems than proficient writers who were concerned about the style and organisation of their writing. In addition, the researcher found no significant differences between proficient and less proficient writers regarding the number of strategies used.

It seems that unskilled writers tend to follow the product-type writing strategies. This has been found by a number of both L1 and L2 research studies. For example, Perl's (1980, p. 22) study found that unskilled L1 writers look for rules and mechanics. They are concerned with surface errors and fail to generate sufficient ideas for their writing. In addition, they lack awareness of their audience. Similarly, Pianko's (1979) remedial L1 subjects 'hesitated while writing', because 'they were worried about their spelling' (p. 13). In addition, Jones (1982), in his study of two subjects (a graduate Turkish and a freshman German), found that the poor writer (the Turkish) was text-focused at the expense of ideas, while the good writer (the German) allowed the ideas to generate the text. His findings indicated that the writing strategies affected writers' rhetorical structures. The poor writer's composing strategies seemed to be the cause of his difficulties in writing. In addition, Rashid (1996), while investigating writing strategies in L1 (Malaysian) and L2 (English), found that

advanced writers focused on organisation and content and did not translate, whereas intermediate writers depended on translation and were concerned with words, structures and mechanics in both languages.

The above reviewed findings generally suggest the following:

- Skilled writers plan more than less skilled ones (Raimes, 1987a; Sasaki, 2000).
- Skilled writers pay attention to global organisation (Victori, 1999).
- Good writers are more concerned with ideas than poor writers (Angelova, 1999).
- Unskilled writers are concerned with translation, grammar and textual features (Rashid, 1996; Sang-Hee, 2002).
- Skilled writers revise, while unskilled ones edit (Cava, 1999).
- Skilled writers are recursive in their writing (Cava, 1999; Zamel, 1983).
- When revising, skilled writers do not mind changing their initial ideas (Victori, 1999).
- Skilled writers are more aware of the audience than less skilled writers (Victori, 1999).

Zamel's study (1983) found that the least skilled of the six interviewed participants was anxious about writing in English, because she was more concerned about grammar and 'getting it correct because teachers care about that' (p. 178). Therefore, the findings of those research studies (skilled vs. unskilled, good vs. poor, expert vs. novice) will be compared to the findings of this research, since they claim that the more apprehensive and less competent writers use the same strategies as the unskilled writers.

3.2.3.4. Writing experience and writing strategies

The fourth explanatory variable affecting writing-strategy use is writing experience.[6] In the belief that L1 literacy facilitates the development and success of second-language literacy skills, researchers in the 1990s began to broaden the scope of their studies by investigating how learners' past writing experiences affect their second-language writing development. For example, Cumming (1989) found that ESL learners' writing expertise is more likely to affect the quality of writing than L2 proficiency. Friedlander (1990) noted that ESL writers write better in matched conditions (i.e. L1-related topics in L1 and L2-related topics in L2) than in mismatched conditions.

The notion of investigating the influence of writing experience in composition seems to be inspired by L1 writing theories like Dixon's (1969) personal growth model and Judy's (1980) experience-based approach. This model argues that the primary goal of language is to share experience and promote interaction with other people. From this, empirical writing research aims to determine the influence of writing experience on a writer's self-discovery and self-expression. The implications of this on the teaching of writing are that teachers should initiate writing activities that provide opportunities for learners to express their own feelings, ideas, opinions, experiences and values. Roca de Larios and Murphy (2001) hold the following view:

> In social terms this is the same as saying that the cognitive functioning of L2 writers is related to cultural, institutional and historical settings in which composing processes are mediated by the tools available to writers through participation in these societal contexts. (p. 34)

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[6] Experience here does not mean proficiency. It refers to familiarity with and knowledge about writing. It can be positive or negative. It also refers to the exposure to previous writing instruction.

Writers' educational experience has been found to influence both their writing proficiency and writing ability (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). The skilled Japanese university EFL students in Sasaki and Hirose (1996) were found to attend to overall organisation while planning and writing more than their less skilled counterparts. The authors claimed that these differences in planning procedures might have arisen from the subjects' previous writing experiences. Similarly, Leki (1995) stated that all her ESL participants reported some sort of dependence on previous writing experience during the study. In addition, Roca de Larios and Murphy (2001) argue that the writer's educational experience can affect the writing process, as different educational contexts can provide L2 writers with different learning opportunities and demands. The writer's educational background has also been found to influence the type of planning strategies used. Cumming (1989) reported that L2 writers with technical writing backgrounds tended to frame their compositions in advance (advanced planners), while writers with literary backgrounds tended to enhance their mental representations as the composing progressed (emergent planners).

Past writing experiences associated with certain types of instruction are also seen to affect writers' attitudes towards revision (Porte, 1996, 1997; Sengupta, 2000). The Spanish university students in Porte's study were very much concerned with grammatical and lexical features in the revision of their written products. This strategic behaviour, as indicated by the interviews, was for the sake of getting high marks, as they concluded from their past experiences with the teacher's feedback that content was not as important as form. Porte (1996, 1997) concluded that poor revision behaviours seemed to be related to past learning experiences. In 1996, 11 of his 15 poor Spanish undergraduate students reported that they cared so much about grammar and vocabulary, because they were the focus of the evaluating teachers. In 1997, the

findings were the same. Although the students seemed to consider revision of word choice and content important, they saw them as less important to the teachers. Therefore, they focused on what the teachers emphasised to get good grades and pass the exams. Porte suggested that strategy instruction needs to focus on promoting and cultivating existing strategies rather than imposing the strategies of the experts. In addition, Sengupta's (2000) study of Hong Kong high school students yielded similar findings, as their strategies in revision were based on their teacher's perspective of revision. Moreover, Sommers (1980) studied and compared the revision strategies of weak and experienced L1 writers. She found that for weak writers, revision was limited to rewording and following rules learned at school. In other words, their educational experience influenced their revision strategies. Experienced writers, on the other hand, were found to be more global and flexible in revising meaning and improving the text as a whole. The weak subjects did not concern themselves with their audience, while the experienced ones tried to imagine a reader.

Pennington and So (1993) investigated the writing processes and written products of six Singaporean students to determine if there was a relationship between process and product in both L1 (English/Chinese) and L2 (Japanese). No significant correlation was found between process and product in the L2, but there was a correlation between L2 proficiency and L2 writing quality. On the other hand, the participants' writing processes and proficiency were similar in L1 and L2, and L1 writing experience was found to help in L2 writing. This last finding was supported by Kobayashi and Rinnert (2002) who found that, by exploring the L1 literacy instruction of Japanese learners of English, teachers can draw on students' L1 literacy strengths to help them bridge the gap between their L1 and L2 literacy skills.

The previous examples are significant for the present research, as they demonstrate that the type of writing instruction (product vs. process) that students receive and their experience in writing classes can influence their perceptions. It also channels their thinking in a particular direction, contributes to the setting of particular affective attitudes and guides their utilisation of particular sets of strategies. The present study aims to investigate those strategies and their relations to apprehension as one of the affective constructs in writing.

The present sub-section discussed three of the four highlighted areas in the section of L2/FL writing strategies (i.e. strategy definitions, strategy taxonomies and studies in L2/FL writing strategies). In sub-section 2.2.4, the fourth area is discussed: writing-strategy studies in the Arab world.

3.2.4. Studies of ESL/EFL writing strategies in the Arab world

This sub-section sheds light on the existing body of empirical research on a) Saudi students' writing strategies in particular and b) Arab students' writing strategies in general. The relevance of these studies to the present one is obvious in the similarities of the subjects' native language and cultural background and in the common investigation of writing strategies.

3.2.4.1. Subjects from Saudi Arabia

In 1991, Alhaidari investigated the language changes that Saudi students at a major Midwestern university made when revising English summaries. The researcher used the think-aloud protocols to allow for a more in-depth investigation of students' summarising and revising strategies. The study found that students easily applied the rules of deletion of unimportant information, deletion of redundant information and

selection of available topic sentences. Students, on the other hand, faced some difficulty applying the rules of super-ordination of a term for a list of items and invention of a topic sentence when none is available. Similar to other studies (Al-semari, 1993), Alhaidari's study showed that when they revised their summaries, students added more than they deleted. The changes that they made in their revisions tended to be process-oriented to make the meaning of the revision clearer and more accurate. In addition, the study showed that the students made grammatical and informational changes more often than mechanical ones. The think-aloud protocols showed moderate awareness of summarisation rules, moderate language monitoring and little metacognitive planning. Moreover, students seemed to proceed paragraph by paragraph when they summarised. Although the author claimed that the participants applied a combination of process and product types of revising strategies, he suggested that Saudi students need more training in process-oriented revising strategies and summarisation skills. Therefore, one of the present study's research questions is, 'What is the dominant type of writing strategy of Saudi students: process, product or a combination of both?'

Using only think-aloud protocols, Al-Semari (1993) investigated the L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) revising strategies of eight advanced Saudi students studying at Michigan State University. The subjects were required to write and think aloud as they composed and revised two argumentative essays. The findings showed many similarities in revising strategies between Arabic and English. The subjects made the same revision types and revised for the same purposes. The majority of revisions occurred as the students were producing drafts rather than when they were reading them. The findings also showed that although the Saudi students' revising strategies were recursive in nature in both languages, the revision actions were more

product-oriented in English than in Arabic. In other words, Saudi students made more formal, grammatical, mechanical and surface changes in English than in Arabic. The study concluded that although the students showed improvements in L1 and L2 revising strategies, Arabic and ESL composition teachers should emphasise the importance of the writing process and the significance of revising for the organisation, expansion and coherence aspects of writing even when dealing with advanced writers.

Aljamhoor (1996) investigated the role of instruction and the way in which it affects the process of learning English writing. Using the case-study methodology and stimulated recall instrument, two Saudi graduate students studying in the USA were asked to write three English essays (E1, E2 and E1-R) and three Arabic essays (A1, A2 and A1-R). After fifteen weeks of instruction sessions, students were asked to rewrite their essays using the same A1 and E1 topics for their A1-R and E1-R essays to identify the areas affected by instruction and the areas not yet resolved during the training. While viewing their videos, the students were asked to explain the reasons for any writing behaviour that occurred during the writing process. The subjects and their ESL teachers were also interviewed to learn more about the writing difficulties the subjects encountered. The findings showed that before ESL instruction, the students could not produce well-organised essays and encountered problems during the stages of pre-writing, writing and revising, which may have been attributable to organisational, rhetorical and linguistic factors. In other words, the participants were generally product-oriented in their writing strategies. The participants did not show any planning strategies in L1 or in L2 before the ESL instruction. However, after the instruction, the subjects started to do some planning. In addition, during the draft stage (E1-R and A1-R), the subjects started writing without making drafts or pausing to think of ideas, to think of appropriate vocabulary or to read the entire essay.

Aljamhoor attributed the subjects' 'product-oriented' writing strategies to the traditional writing instruction they had received in Saudi Arabia. The present study, therefore, aims to investigate whether students receive any kind of strategy instruction and to conduct instruction sessions to measure the effects of process-oriented strategy instruction on students' strategy use and writing apprehension.

Fageeh (2003) investigated 37 male Saudi university students' beliefs regarding their writing difficulties. Using interviews, observations and document analysis, the researcher attempted to answer research questions related to the following areas: (1) the participants' experiences with writing in English and Arabic, (2) their attitudes towards EFL writing, (3) their perceived linguistic difficulties, (4) their awareness of rhetorical differences between English and Arabic, (5) their composing strategies and (6) the impact of the Saudi culture on their writing. The findings showed that the participants reported limited opportunities for writing in both English and Arabic and that the writing instruction they had received was focused mainly on form and memorisation. In addition, they reported writing difficulties in mechanics, grammar and vocabulary. In other words, the product-oriented writing strategies might have been the cause of their problems. The results also indicated that the participants needed to be exposed to different writing genres, skills and strategies and to be given effective feedback in order to improve their writing abilities.

Alnofal (2003) investigated the Arabic (L1) and English (L2) writing processes of 161 male and 42 female undergraduate Arab ESL students attending American universities. The researcher used an online questionnaire and Rose's Writer's Block Test. Based on the scores of the test, stimulated recall interviews were conducted with six participants: three blocked in L1 and three blocked in L2. The six participants were asked to write one descriptive essay in L1 and another in L2. The findings showed that

there were differences between L1 and L2 in the instruction received and in the pre-writing and post-writing processes. However, there were similarities in the while-writing processes in both languages. Alnofal's study is considered one of the comprehensive studies on Saudi students' writing strategies in terms of the number of participants and the variety of research instruments. However, the differences between his study and the present one are many, as summarised at the end of this section.

Recently, Alhaysony (2008) investigated the L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) composing processes and strategies of 194 Saudi third-year female college students studying English as a foreign language. The study aimed to discover the writing similarities between L1 and L2 and the writing strategies of better and poorer writers in both languages. The research instruments used were questionnaires, think-aloud protocols and semi-structured interviews. The findings showed that there were many similarities in writing strategies between Arabic and English. In addition, good and poor writers used the same types of writing strategies, but they differed in the frequency with which they used these strategies. Some differences were found between the questionnaire results and the think-aloud results. In the questionnaire, good writers claimed to use writing strategies more frequently than poor writers in both languages, while the results of the think-aloud protocols showed the opposite. This might be related to the procedural and declarative nature of strategies. In addition, the study showed that poor writers used their L1 more frequently than good writers to facilitate their L2 writing. They used L1 for planning, questioning for planning or vocabulary. Some of the poor writers wrote the whole text (or parts of it) in Arabic and then translated this into English. The overall findings showed that L1 was used extensively in L2 writing. Finally, the study showed the seven most-used and seven least-used English writing strategies. Four of the most-used strategies—in which

the subjects were concerned with complex grammatical structures, organisation, vocabulary and following outlines—can be classified as product-oriented writing strategies. This might indicate that the Saudi female student writers were product-oriented in their writing strategies. On the other hand, the seven least-used writing strategies showed that the Saudi female writers were unlikely to pay attention to how to plan their writings. In other words, they had a problem with one of the process-based writing strategies. This study is relevant to and significant for the present study for the following reasons. First, the context is almost the same (the main difference being the subjects' gender). Second, the strategy questionnaire is used as the main source of data in both studies. Third, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, Alhaysony's questionnaire is the most recently developed questionnaire on EFL writing strategies. Fourth, many of Alhaysony's findings, especially those related to L1 use in L2 writings and the strategies of weak and strong writers, are important and can be compared with those of the present study.

In conclusion, the differences between the present study and the previous reviewed Saudi studies are as follows:

- Some studies were conducted in an English-speaking country where the participants were familiar with the writing process approach.
- The participants of the present study are familiar with the traditional (product-oriented) writing approach.
- Although some studies investigated the relationship between instruction and writing strategies from the participants' perspectives, none of them investigated the effect of writing strategy instruction on strategy use and students' apprehension.

- The present research will be different, in that it will use multiple instruments: questionnaires, an apprehension test, think-aloud protocols, semi-structured interviews and strategy instruction sessions.
- The significance of using the Writer's Block Test in Alnofal's study (2003) is not clear.
- Although a wide range of writing strategies was investigated, none of the studies explicitly distinguished between the process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies.
- All of the previous studies were limited in terms of the number of participants, research instruments or explanatory variables investigated.

The above sub-section presented relevant studies on particularly Saudi students' writing strategies. The coming sub-section, however, will discuss other Arab students' writing strategies.

3.2.4.2. Mixed-Arab-nationality Subjects

In the process-oriented field, although the investigation of Arab students' writing strategies commenced as early as the 1980s, the studies were few in number, and the empirical research is still in its infancy. For example, Elkhatib (1984), one of the early Arab researchers on ESL writing strategies, investigated the apprehension levels and writing behaviours of four unskilled Egyptian college students using only observations and interviews. In the interviews, he asked students about some of their writing behaviours that he noticed while observing. He found writing apprehension to be related to (1) immaturity in syntactical and rhetorical patterns, as measured by 't-units'; (2) lexical problems; and (3) unfamiliarity with process-oriented strategies, as

students were found to be short on planning and reviewing strategies. Besides using only two research instruments, Elkhatib examined only four unskilled subjects and did not include other subjects with different levels of proficiency. On the other hand, although his study did not explicitly investigate the relationship between apprehension and product/process writing strategies, it inspired the present researcher to investigate the relationship between writing-strategy apprehension and the use of product-oriented writing strategies.

Krapels (1990b) explored the relationship between L1 and L2 composing among five ESL students, two of whom were Arabs. The researcher designed a special ten-week class and used a case-study approach with an ethnographic design, functioning as a participant-observer. All the participants were advanced-level ESL students. The researcher used questionnaires (on writing activities, L1 writing nature and attitudes), interviews, L1 and L2 writing compositions on cultural topics, group discussions, extemporaneous speeches, composing-aloud sessions, reading exercises and entry and exit writing samples. One of the relevant findings was that composing in the L2/FL lacks recursiveness and is more difficult and less fluent than in the L1, because in L2/FL, students are concerned with formality and grammar, while in L1, they compose naturally without worrying so much about the product demands. Although the subjects in this study were not mainly Arabs, the finding is very relevant, since it clearly shows that the product-oriented writing approach in ESL/EFL writing classes can complicate process-oriented composing strategies.

Alam (1993) investigated how fifteen Kuwait University students used Arabic language as a writing strategy while writing in English. Each subject wrote one essay and was asked about his behaviour pertaining to the use of Arabic during English writing through the stimulated recall method, which involved videotaping students as

they wrote and playing back the recording immediately afterwards to ask the writer to comment on what was happening during the writing. In a follow-up interview, each subject was also asked about his educational background and writing habits in both Arabic and English. The findings showed that the students used their native language during pre-writing, writing and revising. During pre-writing, most of the subjects thought in Arabic. However, some subjects used both Arabic and English as instruments of thinking. In the writing stage, the subjects used Arabic most extensively. They translated Arabic words, phrases and parts of sentences using different techniques. They can be grouped as over-users, optimal users and under-users of Arabic. Generally speaking, the study indicated that the use of Arabic helped the subjects to write in English and to sustain their composing processes. However, Alam claimed that using Arabic in English writing might be attributed to weak language proficiency. Such a claim requires a depth comparison between different levels of language proficiency—something Alam did not perform. Nevertheless, Alam's study is significant in sustaining one of the current research enquiries: Using Arabic language as a strategy in English writing can reduce Saudi students' ESL writing apprehension.

Khwaileh (1998) investigated the composing and revising behaviours and strategies of three Jordanian graduate students on the computer. The researcher found that the students had difficulties using those strategies and thus did not produce coherent and organised essays that met the academic standards of written English. In addition, they had difficulties generating ideas. Such findings are attributed by a Jordanian researcher (Abu Shihab, 1986, as cited in Alhaysony, 2008) to the fact that the teachers and students were not familiar with the concept and approach of the writing process. 'They consider writing as producing "correct" grammatical sentences'

(Abu Shihab, 1986, as cited in Alhaysony, 2008, p. 68). Therefore, the present research argues that the Saudi student writers' difficulties, represented by their writing apprehension, will be reduced once they experience the process-oriented writing strategies.

Noman-Yafai (2000) investigated the composing processes of six Yemeni tertiary-level students writing in English to reveal the link between writing and culture. The study used think-aloud protocols, along with simultaneously written drafts, to extract data on both products and processes. The findings highlighted the role of the L1 and language proficiency and showed that a whole individual comes to the writing classroom bringing, among other features, his or her cultural, political and religious beliefs, opinions, experiences and emotions. In addition, it showed that difficulties experienced by non-native writers writing in English are due to a complex combination of cultural, linguistic and experimental factors.

Al-Amer (2000) investigated the effects of the word processor on the revision processes and strategies of ESL students both in L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English). The data was collected through interviews, think-aloud protocols, observational notes and subjects' written essays (on videotape and paper). The findings showed that there were significant differences between word-processed and pen-and-paper essays in terms of the subject's surface and meaning revision across the two. The effects of writing method on surface/meaning revisions in both languages were stronger than on language effects. This might be attributed to the subjects' past experiences in word processing. In addition, it revealed that the subjects benefited from the word processing environment for revision strategies in the L2 more than in the L1. In addition, word processing was more useful for surface revisions than meaning revisions.

El-Mortaji (2001) used questionnaires, think-aloud protocols and interviews to investigate the writing process and strategy use of 18 Arabic-speaking university students learning English as a second language in Morocco. One of the research questions related to the present study addressed the effect of prior teaching methods on writers' strategy use, motivation and attitudes and perception of their writing. The researcher found that a prior teaching method influenced the participants' dependence on grammar rules that their teachers stressed, particularly in relation to the use of tenses. They also restricted themselves to writing short, simple sentences with a view to avoiding mistakes, as suggested by their teachers. Moreover, a prior teaching method that emphasised outlining had an effect on students' concern with planning before writing. The study showed that the participants heavily depended on 'retrieving their prior general knowledge about English essay writing conventions and their teachers' rules and expectations from their long-term memory' (p. 349). In addition, the study revealed that the students used unsuccessful EFL composing strategies (i.e. product-oriented writing strategies).

El-Aswad (2002) investigated the L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) writing processes of 12 third-year Libyan university students. The study investigated the process and product data separately to determine if any relationship existed between an individual subject's process skill and product quality in either language. El-Aswad used observation, think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires and written products to gather data. The composing sessions were audiotaped, and the tapes were then transcribed, translated and coded for analysis, along with the drafts and the final written compositions. One of the research questions that seems relevant to the present research is, 'How does instruction influence the writing processes and products of these students?' The findings showed that 'each subject used particular strategies

reflecting his/her own perception about writing, and the previous writing instruction each subject had received before and during college' (p. 243). The majority of the students were influenced by the product approach. Therefore, they did not make any final revisions. In addition, the researcher found that the students were product-oriented in L2 writing, as they had little concern for their audience, reviewed for grammar and vocabulary and applied strategies inaccurately. Further, the written texts showed that the L2 writing instruction that the participants received in college helped them improve their composing strategies and production. The researcher concluded that more process writing instruction would help improve students' writing. Such findings agree with Akyel and Kamisli (1997) who found that the type of writing instruction that student writers received determine whether they improved their EFL writing strategies. In addition, the subjects used L1 to facilitate their composing in L2. However, the researcher claimed that unskilled writers tended to use their L1 when writing in L2 more frequently than skilled writers did.

Abdel-Latif (2009) comprehensively investigated the factors that influence writing: its process and product. His study explored the relationship between two types of linguistic knowledge (grammar knowledge and vocabulary knowledge) and two affective traits (writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy) and Egyptian EFL student teachers' writing processes and products. The study used the following instruments and data sources: a) linguistic tests for grammar and vocabulary, b) writing affect instruments (the English Writing Apprehension Scale, the English Writing Self-Efficacy Scale and the writing background interview), c) writing process instruments (the think-aloud method and the retrospective interview) and d) argumentative writing tasks. The participants' scores on the linguistic and affective measures were related to their composing process aspects (writing behaviours,

switching to L1, time spent on the whole composing process and on its stages and writing fluency) and their written product aspects (text quality and text length characteristics). In addition, the influence exerted by linguistic knowledge and writing affect on students' composing was compared to that of their writing fluency and text quality.

Though the results (Abdel-Lafit, 2009) revealed that L2/FL writers' products and composing processes are shaped by a variety of factors, their linguistic knowledge seems to be the most important determinant. The results showed that students with limited English linguistic knowledge were found to have higher writing apprehension. The competent writers, at both the process and product levels, had higher levels of linguistic knowledge and positive affect (low writing apprehension). Generally, high-competence and low-apprehension writers were found to use more ideational planning, monitoring, reviewing, revising and affective behaviours; to make addition and substitution at the phrase level; and to carry out fewer retrieving and textual planning and editing behaviours than the ones with lower competence and higher apprehension levels. The former type of writers were found to be more process-oriented. They were rehearsing at the word level and using more word-spelling behaviours. Interestingly, participants with higher levels of writing apprehension used Arabic in their English composing less than the lower or non-apprehensive ones. Moreover, the results indicated that the participants who made extensive use of Arabic in English composing wrote better texts.

The study (AbdelLafit, 2009) revealed that writing apprehension is developed as a result of writing instruction practices. This study is very important for many reasons. First, it has strong methodological points, as it used multiple instruments and investigated different variables. Second, to the best of the present researcher's

knowledge, this is the only Arabic-context study that has investigated both process and product aspects of Arab writing. Third, it is also the first Arabic-context study to investigate the correlation between L2/FL writing apprehension and writing behaviours. However, Abdel-Latif did not use instructional sessions, and he investigated the participants' English language proficiency first rather than starting with investigating their writing competence. The total number of participants was 57, 40 of which were assigned to the think-aloud protocols and interviews. This large number of participants in the think-aloud sessions plus the large number of research instruments administered might have been confusing for the researcher. In addition, in the writing tasks, students were not allowed to work in groups or to use dictionaries. This is against the principles of the process approach, which calls for cooperation.

In a recent study, Chaaban (2010) investigated the composing processes and writing strategies of 11 Syrian students and examined the socio-cultural factors that influence their writing skills and its development. The researcher used think-aloud protocols, stimulated recall interviews and classroom observations to examine how the students' strategic behaviours changed based on the context, task types and writing proficiency levels. The analysis of data gathered from semi-structured general interviews with teachers and students and observations of writing classes revealed that the participants' writing skills development was influenced by a number of socio-cultural factors. These factors related to the participants' past learning experiences, such as their approach to learning in general and the lack of adequate writing instruction and feedback in the pre-tertiary educational stages. There was a lack of motivation among students to practise and master writing, which resulted from certain teaching practices, in addition to perceptions about the lack of importance of writing for the students' future careers. Moreover, the results revealed that the participants

used Arabic in English writing as a tool to help them find ideas and review the suitability of vocabulary. The results also confirmed the findings of other studies (Cumming, 1989; Friedlander, 1990; Lay, 1982) where L1 was found to be used more in familiar contexts than unfamiliar ones. Proficient writers were found to do more planning than less proficient writers. One of the results relevant to the present research was that most of the participants' writing behaviours were influenced by the teacher's method of instruction and their writing experiences before college. This finding showed that students were aware of the expectations of their audience (the teacher), but this awareness was to obtain a passing mark. In other words, their writing strategies were exam-oriented. To the present study, this awareness and that past experience are product-oriented. Therefore, the present researcher argues that such product-oriented strategies need to be documented, classified and examined to determine their relationship with students' writing apprehension as one of students' difficulties in ESL/EFL writing classes and also with writing competence.

In the product-oriented field, in a comparative study, Taher (1999) investigated the quality of the written text (the product features: cohesion, coherence and style) produced by Yemeni learners of English in higher education. In addition, he investigated the negative impact of L1 to L2 transfer on these three areas. The main findings of the analysis of students' writing in both languages were that students, particularly first-year students, suffered from lack of vocabulary, lack of knowledge about the language itself, lack of competence in using language according to situations, insufficient language practice and linguistic and cultural transfer. In other words, Yemeni students suffered from product-oriented writing strategies.

In the same vein, Ismail (2010) investigated L1 transfer from the contrastive rhetoric perspective. The study analysed and compared the ESL and Arabic L1 writing

of 30 native Arabic speakers and the English L1 writing of 30 native English speakers on the same persuasive writing task. One of the findings showed that native Arabic speakers exhibited similar rhetorical problems in their ESL and Arabic persuasive writing. However, the analysis could not predict the participants' language/cultural background based on their rhetorical performance. Generally speaking, the results of the study cast serious doubts on the validity of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis and suggested that other individual, contextual and/or situational variables play a more significant role in writers' rhetorical performance than native language background does. This study, however, contradicts the previous one by indicating that L1 use, as a strategy in L2 writing, cannot always be negative. In addition, it indicates that individual writing strategies as well as writing experience might play a role in their rhetoric.

3.2.5. Conclusion of part B

The previous pages discussed four highlighted areas in the section of L2/FL writing strategies: (1) strategy definitions, (2) strategy taxonomies, (3) empirical studies on four explanatory variables (L1 and L2 writing strategies, strategy instruction, writers' skill level and writers' previous writing experience) affecting the use of L2/FL writing strategies and (4) empirical writing-strategy studies in the Arab world.

The main conclusions that may be drawn from the previously reviewed studies can be summed up as follows:

- Skilled writers use their L1 as a strategy to sustain their composing processes (Krapels, 1990a; Manchón et al., 2007).

- Some studies have discouraged the use of L1 (Chelala, 1981; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Sasaki and Hirose, 1996; Whalen and Ménard, 1995) because L1 was used by novice writers more than skilled writers to overcome the product demands.
- Skilled writers plan more than less skilled ones (Raimes, 1987a; Sasaki, 2000).
- Skilled writers pay attention to global organisation (Victori, 1999).
- Good writers are more concerned with ideas than poor writers (Angelova, 1999; Sommers, 1980).
- Unskilled writers are concerned with translation, grammar and textual features (Rashid, 1996; Sang-Hee, 2002).
- Skilled writers revise, while unskilled ones edit (Cava, 1999; Sommers, 1980).
- Skilled writers are recursive in their writing (Cava, 1999; Zamel, 1983).
- When revising, skilled writers do not mind changing their initial ideas (Victori, 1999).
- The skilled are aware of audience more than the less skilled (Sommers, 1980; Victori, 1999).
- The writers' previous writing experience has been found to influence or associate with their writing proficiency, writing ability, writing process, and attitudes towards certain writing strategies (Cumming, 1989; Leki, 1995; Porte, 1996; 1997; Roca de Larios & Murphy, 2001; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Sengupta, 2000).

- Language proficiency plays a very significant role in controlling Arab ESL/EFL writing strategies (Abdel-Latif, 2009; El-Aswad, 2002; Noman-Yafai, 2000).
- Writing experience or previous writing instruction also controls students' writing strategies (Aljamhoor, 1996; Chaaban, 2010; El-Mortaji, 2001; Fageeh, 2003).
- The use of L1 in L2 writing was found useful in facilitating students' writing process (Alam, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; Fageeh, 2003).
- "Product-oriented" writing strategies were found dominant in Arab students' ESL/EFL writing (Al-Semari, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; El-Mortaji, 2001; Fageeh, 2003; Krapels, 1990b).
- None of the studies reviewed save that of Abdel-Latif (2009), whose subjects were Egyptians, dealt with the relationship between writing apprehension and the type of the writing strategies used.
- None of the reviewed studies investigated the effect of process-strategy instruction on reducing writing apprehension.
- None of the reviewed studies explicitly investigated the writing strategies under the direct process-product dichotomy.
- The learning context of the present study is different from all the previous studies in writing apprehension.

The next part of the literature review discusses writing-strategy apprehension as one of the affective attitudes that is believed to influence or be influenced by the use of writing strategies.

Part C

3.3. Writing Apprehension

This part of the literature review serves as the third pillar of the present research. Part B above talked about writing strategies and some of the variables that can affect their use. In this part, the researcher claims that the use of particular writing strategies can cause affective problems such as high apprehension. Therefore, we are going to highlight the following areas: (1) writing apprehension and other affective constructs; (2) motivation; and (3) studies in the relationship between writing apprehension, writing strategies and writing competence.

3.3.1. Writing apprehension and affective constructs

Put simply, an apprehensive writer is one who is worried or nervous about some element(s) of an approaching writing task.

McLeod[7] (1987) claimed that writing is as much an emotional as a cognitive activity. Its affective constituents strongly influence all stages of the writing process. She called on researchers to develop a 'theory of affect' to help students understand how their affective processes may inform their writing. Affect includes emotions, feelings, attitudes and motivation. Interest in writers' affect began in the mid-1970s when Daly and Miller (1975) developed their well-known Writing Apprehension Test (WAT). The term 'writing apprehension' is used 'to describe the dysfunctional anxiety that many individuals suffer when confronted with writing tasks' (Cheng, 2002, p. 647). Daly defines writing apprehension as manifested in 'the general avoidance of writing situations perceived by individuals to potentially require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation of that writing' (Daly, 1979, p.

[7] McLeod, S. (1987). Some thoughts about feeling: The affective domain and the writing process. *College Composition Communication*, 38: 426-435. (see Pajares & Johnson, 1994).

37). This definition entails a correlation and interaction between three constructs: 1) individual attitudes (e.g. positive or negative judgment), 2) emotions and feelings (e.g. fear or anxiety), and 3) avoidance behaviours (e.g., blocking or resistance). In the literature (Hettich, 1994, p. 1), these constructs are elusive and so closely related to the extent that it might be difficult or even impossible to precisely identify their relationship. Accordingly, investigating this intangible interaction will be out of the scope of the present study. Operationally, the present study defines writing apprehension as 'the abnormally high level of an anxious, agitated or stressful feeling in a writing-strategy-related situation, regardless of blocking[8] and evaluation'. In other words, the researcher took strategy-related apprehension as a focus for investigation. The current study's definition views apprehension as a situational, strategy-based affective construct.

Daly (1985, pp. 65–73) classifies writers' perceptions and feelings into two main categories: (1) dispositional, and (2) situational. They seem similar to Spielberger's (1983) trait-state dichotomy[9] of anxiety. The former refers to the somehow consistent feelings such as attitude to writing and writing outcome expectancy (perceived importance and value of writing). The latter refers to task-based feelings like writing anxiety (feelings of discomfort while writing) and writing self-efficacy (confidence in one's writing ability and skills). Daly distinguished between apprehension and anxiety. He viewed apprehension (avoidance of writing situations) as one of the dispositional feelings, while anxiety was seen as a situational feeling. Self-efficacy is viewed as task-specific by Klassen (2002, p. 174) and differing from one person to another. The theory and literature of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1991) will

[8] A writer's block is defined as "an inability to begin or continue writing for reasons other than a lack of basic skill or commitment" (Rose, 1984:4). Not all blockers are apprehensive and not all apprehensive writers are blocked.
[9] Trait anxiety refers to anxiety that is part of the character regardless of situation. State anxiety happens under certain conditions and situations.

be out of the scope of the present research for the following reasons: (1) the present research views self-efficacy as a dispositional feeling; (2) apprehension is viewed as a situational feeling; (3) more depth is needed regarding apprehension; (4) strategic writing difficulties might arise if writers have a high level of writing apprehension; (5) apprehension is a threat; self-efficacy is not.

The causes of apprehension can be conceptualised within two theoretical frameworks: (1) the deficit theory, and (2) the interference theory. The former (Sparks et al., 2000) claims that apprehension might be the cause of linguistic deficiency. It argues that only unskilled, poor writers can experience writing apprehension. On the other hand, the interference theory (Horwitz, 2000; Smith, 1984) says that apprehension interferes with skill development and, though it may interact with low skills, is not limited to any ability level.

Various causes and effects of writing apprehension have been reported in the literature (see Stapa, 1994). The causes can be summarised as follows: (1) lacking good models and examples; (2) poor skill training and poor teachers; (3) negative feedback from the teacher; (4) lack of self-esteem and confidence; (5) a lack of knowledge about the value of preparation; (6) a lack of methods to cope with writing demands; and (7) following product perfectionism and rigid rules.

The effects of writing apprehension (Daly and Wilson, 1983), on the other hand, can be outlined as follows: (1) lower motivation and proficiency; (2) reluctance to engage in group work; (3) writing is viewed as punishment; (4) writing situations are avoided; (5) lower scores in holistic scoring of their writing; (6) writing differently in terms of diversity, length, quality, and language intensity; (7) underestimation [of apprehensive students] by teachers; (8) writing less effectively; (9) problems with

grammar and textual features, such as punctuations, agreement and parallelism; (10) negative attitudes about writing.

3.3.2. Motivation and Apprehension

From the previous discussion, there is an indication that an "abnormally" high level of apprehension correlates with low motivation. This is also implied in Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis and Ehrman's quotation below. Motivation and apprehension have been seen negatively related in Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis. Krashen claims that to promote language acquisition, teachers have to create an environment that increases positive affects (such as motivation) and to lower the negative effects (such as apprehension). The reason why 'motivation' is discussed here is the view that apprehension can be an affective motivational state. Roseburg[10] (1998; see Graham et al., 2007, p. 518) identified three levels of affect: permanent, long-or mid-term transitory, and short-term situational, with writing-strategy apprehension clearly falling under the latter level.

Literature findings (Graham et al., 2007) were consistent in indicating that motivation is a critical catalyst in language learning in general and writing in particular. However, as argued by Keller (1983, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001) 'motivation is the 'neglected heart' of our understanding of how to design instruction' (p. 5). Dörnyei (2005) argues that high motivation can 'make up for deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions' (p. 65). Some studies report that L2 learners with a higher level of motivation are more successful language learners than those with lower motivation (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

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[10] Roseburg, E. (1998). Levels of analysis and the organization of affect. *Review of General Psychology*, 2: 247–270.

Despite the disagreement on the exact definition of motivation, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) defined motivation in a general sense as 'the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out' (p. 65). In fact, motivation is considered one of 'the most elusive concepts' in social sciences' (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 2). Cognition (e.g., strategies) and affect (e.g., apprehension or motivation) were seen as two independent perspectives in motivational psychology. However, recent attempts are made to comprehensively integrate emotional experiences in motivational research (Dörnyei, 2001). 'Affect and cognition are increasingly seen as multidimensional overlapping and interdependent constructs' (Hurd, 2008, p. 219). A good example of this integration is Schumann's neurobiological theory, where the author links emotion with cognition in second language acquisition. Schumann argues that 'affect may influence cognition through its role in framing a problem and in adopting processing strategies' (Schumann, 1998, p. 251). In addition, Williams and Burden (1997) mentioned affect states (e.g. fear) as one of the internal factors in their comprehensive framework of L2 motivation. Brand (1987) points out: 'It is in cognition that ideas make sense. However, it is in emotion that this sense finds value. Without such priorities we could not think' (p, 442). Moreover, Oxford (1990), in her classification of learning strategies, states that 'the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning success or failure' (p. 140).

Arnold and Brown (1999) say that 'neither the cognitive nor the affective has the last word, and, indeed, neither can be separated from the other' (p. 1). Ehrman (1996) points out that '[...] the affective dimension affects how efficiently students

can use what they have. For example, strong motivation tends to help students marshal their assets and skills, whereas low motivation or intense anxiety interferes with their ability to use their skills and abilities' (p. 138). It seems that affect and cognition are interrelated to the extent that affect-related strategies are 'as strongly implicated in successful language learning as cognitive and metacognitive strategies' (Hurd, 2008, p. 220). Ehrman et al. (2003) assert that 'it is at least as important to manage feelings as it is to use more cognitive strategies, since negative feelings reduce the effectiveness of most learning activities' (p. 319). However, 'there is still a huge gap in terms of our knowledge of the affect-related strategies that students use or could use to promote more effective language learning' (ibid.).

In-depth discussion of the important theories of motivation (Gardner's theory of L2 motivation, Deci & Ryan's self-determination theory and Dörnyei's framework of L2 motivation) is beyond the present scope. However, they are summarized below to conceptualise the negative relationship between apprehension and motivation.

Gardner is well known as the first researcher to explore motivation in detail as an achievement variable in L2. Gardener's theory distinguished between motivation and orientation. In his theory, orientations (goals) function as motivational antecedents (Dörnyei, 2001). In L2 motivation, there are two orientations: integrative and instrumental. Integrative orientation concerns 'a positive disposition towards the L2 group and the desire to interact with, and even become similar to, valued members of that community'. Instrumental orientation is concerned with 'the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary' (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998, p. 204). According to Gardner (1985; see Dörnyei, 2001, p. 49), motivation includes three components: motivational intensity (the amount of effort

invested in learning the language), desire to learn the language, and attitudes towards learning the language.

The second important theory is the self-determination theory. It is one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 2001). The theory distinguishes between three kinds of motivations: intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation. The first type deals with behaviour performed for its own sake to satisfy one's inner desires. The second refers to a behaviour performed as a means to an end. The third refers to the absence of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Vallerand (1997) attributed amotivation to four causes: (1) the lack of ability to do a task; (2) the belief that the strategies to follow are ineffective; (3) the belief that the efforts required to do an activity are unnecessary; and (4) the belief of hopelessness from the efforts required to do a task.

Deci and Ryan (1985, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001) reported that individuals can be more self-determined as long as they feel more autonomous, competent, and connected to other individuals. Motivation is placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) types of motivation. The more the extrinsic rewards become self-determined and transferred from outside to inside the individual, the more intrinsic the motivation is. Therefore, four types of extrinsic motivation have been distinguished: (1) external regulation, (2) introjected regulation, (3) identified regulation, and (4) integrated regulation. External regulation refers to the least self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, such as rewards or threats (Deci et al., 1991, p. 329). The second type refers to 'internalized rules or demands that pressure one to behave and are buttressed with threatened sanctions (e.g. guilt) or promised rewards (e.g. self-aggrandizement)' (Deci et al., 1991, p. 329). The third type seems to be a self-determined form of extrinsic motivation. It 'occurs when the

person has come to value the behaviour and has identified with and accepted the regulatory process' (Deci et al., 1991, p. 329). The individual engages in an activity because he/she sees its usefulness. The fourth type is the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, involving 'choiceful behaviour that is fully assimilated with the individual's other values, needs, and identity' (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28).

The third important theory in L2 motivation was Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation, which coincides with the components of the L2 learning process and consists of three levels: the language level, learner level and learning situation level. This model is distinguished by reflecting three different dimensions of language: the social, the personal and the educational subject matter. It is also distinguished by looking at the micro conditions of motivation in L2 learning situations. At the language level, the focus is on the 'orientations and motives related to various aspects of the L2' such as the culture, the community and the intellectual and pragmatic values (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 279). This level includes integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems. At the learner level, motivation is influenced by individual characteristics that the learner brings to the learning process, springing from the need for achievement and self-confidence. The learner level is concerned with internal, affective characteristics of the learner related to expectancy. The learning situation level encompasses classroom-specific motives that are course specific, teacher specific or group specific.

Dörnyei's framework of L2 motivation and its micro-motivational conditions inspired the researcher. Following a similar concept, the present study looks at L2/FL writing apprehension in writing-strategy conditions, believing that digging deeper into the micro conditions of writing apprehension will provide us, the L2/FL writing teachers, with more insights about our students' needs and tendencies.

On the other hand, motivation in the ESL/EFL writing context followed the principles of the previous literature. For example, Cumming et al. (2007) conducted one of the comprehensive studies in L2 writing motivation to conceptualise some of the previous L2 motivation theories in ESL writing. One of the striking findings showed that the majority of the participants' were mostly product-oriented in their motivation. In other words, they were more motivated to improve the textual features (grammar, vocabulary, rhetoric, and genres) of their writing than the composing processes or the affective states. However, that motivation might be extrinsic – that is, to meet the teacher's expectations. In other words, their motivation might be teacher-controlled. Therefore, Tran's (2007) research of motivation in EFL writing classroom suggested that decisions about appropriate methods and materials for teaching writing need to consider what is deep inside students' act of writing in a foreign language, involving their own cognitive and affective process embedded in their unrecognised needs.

The coming section will highlight some of the studies conducted to investigate the writing strategies of high-and low-apprehensive writers.

3.3.3. Studies in writing apprehension, strategies and competence

This sub-section will highlight empirical studies that investigated writing apprehension and its causes and effects in the light of writing strategies and writing competence in both L1 and L2 contexts.

Research on writing affect in general and writing apprehension in particular is quite recent. Boscolo and Hidi (2007, p. 2) classified writing affect/motivation research into three main, closely related, areas:

1. Investigating the writers' goals, needs, values and interests behind their orientation to write or not to write;
2. Investigating the writers perceptions and beliefs concerning their ability to write;
3. Investigating the writers' writing strategies as means to achieve and satisfy their pre-determined goals, needs, values and interests.

The present study agrees with this classification of writing affect research and agrees that writing strategies are associated with writing affect. The study seems to fit within the third areas of Boscolo and Hidi's classification. The third area implies that some writing strategies can influence and/or be influenced by affective factors. As stated by Lee and Krashen (2002), 'the relationship between writing apprehension and the composing process may be reciprocal' (p. 540). The researcher believes that there is a gap in terms of having a comprehensive catalogue of the negatively and positively affective writing strategies that students use or could use to either promote or demote ESL/EFL writing skills. The present research is an attempt to add something to the catalogue of the affect-related writing strategies. Ultimately, it aims to raise the apprehensive student writers' awareness of helpful strategies and techniques. Rubin (1987) argues that 'making strategies conscious may enable students to use their strategies more effectively and efficiently' (p. 16).

As pointed by Cheng (2002), a large number of L1 studies have revealed that writing apprehension was negatively associated with writing strategies. However, studies in L2/FL writing strategies and apprehension are too few. Previous studies conducted on the relationship between FL/L2 writers' writing apprehension, and their writing strategies (e.g. Abdel-Latif, 2009; Daud et al., 2005; Gungle & Taylor, 1989;

Hadaway, 1987; Hassan, 2001; Masny & Foxall, 1992) seem to be too few in number to be conclusive. In addition, most of these studies (save Abdel-Latif, 2009) depended on a limited number of subjects and one or two quantitative data sources to explore the factors accounting for the different levels in writing apprehension. This gap is addressed directly by the large cohort and mixed methods approach of the present study. Moreover, none of the reviewed studies was conducted in a Saudi context.

In the L2/FL writing context, Masny and Foxall (1992) investigated the correlation between writing apprehension, preferred writing processes and academic achievement in 28 adult ESL learners. Results indicated that high achievers had lower apprehension scores. It was also found that: (1) high and low achievers were more concerned about form than content; (2) low achievers were more concerned about form than were high achievers; (3) high and low apprehensive writers were more concerned about form than content; and (4) low apprehensive students were more concerned about form than were high apprehensive students. The study stated that individual differences (in terms of background, language proficiency, writing competence, levels of motivation, previous writing instruction) can play a role in changing levels of apprehension among ESL writer students. The study concluded that process-oriented classroom strategies might reduce apprehension since they concern about exploring ideas and content.

One of the drawbacks of Masny and Foxall's (1992) study was its definition of writing apprehension as writing block. It fails, like other studies, to have an operational definition of apprehension. Another drawback in their study is the difference they make between low and high apprehensive writers. The difference was only one score. They did not have a middle group to distinguish the low from the high.

The positive association between product-typed writing behaviours and apprehension was reported by a number of other studies. Hadaway (1987) revealed that writing apprehension might be developed due to writing instruction practices. A similar finding is reported by Abdel-Latif's study (2009). In addition, Hassan (2001) investigated the impact of writing apprehension on quantity and quality writing of 132 Egyptian university students and found a possible correlation between apprehension and poor skill, lack of proper writing processes, and teacher-centred writing instruction with product-oriented mode of writing.

In Daud et al.'s (2005) study, Malaysian EFL university students' writing apprehension was found to correlate positively with the language-related dimensions (namely, vocabulary and language use). The higher the concern about those dimensions due to their low proficiency the higher their apprehension. However, there is a non-significant correlation between level of writing apprehension and aspects related to content, organisation and mechanics. Daud et al.'s study supports the view that language-related product strategies are more related to writing apprehension than other process-related ones. This is also supported by Akpinar (2007), who investigated the effect of process-oriented writing instruction on 48-Turkish university students' writing apprehension and other variables.

Another study focusing on apprehension of L2 writers was that of Jones (1985, p. 96). In a case study, Jones used video-stimulated retrospective interview to find out the source of difficulty in the writing of two ESL students. He claimed that their writing difficulty 'can result either from the instructional setting or from the cognitive style of the writer, though the former is more frequently the source'. Jones was

interested in testing the implications of Krashen's Monitor hypothesis[11] on L2 writing. The study compared the two ESL writers as a monitor overuser (the ESL student with an L2 background based on grammar and translation) and monitor underuser (the ESL student with an L2 background based on communicative competence). The results correspond with the findings of other studies (Hassan, 2001) and revealed that the monitor overuser was an apprehensive writer and had a high focus on form and correctness. The monitor underuser showed less concerns with form and surface aspects and instead was able to turn the attention to the process of writing and discovering meaning.

In connection with L2/FL competence and apprehension, studies reported a negative correlation between the two. Khaldieh (2000) investigated the writing strategies of 43 American learners of Arabic as a foreign language. The participants were classified as 'proficient' and 'less proficient'. While composing, the students were asked to write down all techniques and procedures they used. The learners' strategies were tallied, classified and analysed. The findings showed that less-proficient writers tended to experience a high level of anxiety and frustration, adopted a negative attitude towards writing, and did not show complete control and mastery of the language structures of Arabic. In contrast, the proficient writers tended to have controlled their anxiety level, were sure of their linguistic ability and performed to their potential.

Similarly, Wu (1992) studied the relationship between L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English) writing proficiency of 30 College students and their attitudes towards writing. There was a significant correlation between the scores students got in Chinese essays and their attitudes about Chinese writing. A similar finding was observed in L2

[11] L2 learners use learned knowledge of language as a monitor only if they have the time, know the rule, and are focused on form.

writing. Despite the several linguistic differences and difficulties between the two languages, the conclusion drew a possible correlation between L1 and L2 in writing proficiency and a positive correlation between L1 and L2 writing apprehension.

As said above, Hassan (2001) investigated whether both writing apprehension and self-esteem of 132 Egyptian EFL college students were related to the quality and quantity of their writing. The researcher used an adapted WAT, an 'EFL Self-Esteem Scale' and a 40-minute writing task. Writing apprehension was found to correlate negatively with Egyptian EFL students' writing competence. The researcher concluded that the traditional way by which writing is taught should be changed and that teachers' evaluation should be reduced to lower students' levels of writing apprehension.

In contrast, Hadaway (1987) reported different results and found no significant differences between high and low apprehensive ESL writers in the analytical profile writing scores. The findings showed that L1 and L2 writing attitudes might be strongly related. In addition, the qualitative and quantitative of analysis of the written samples of low and high apprehensive writers did not show significant differences. The only statistically significant relationship was a negative correlation between writing apprehension scores and total number of t-units per essay.

In the L1 writing context, Holladay (1981), in her review of research on writing apprehension, attributed writing apprehension to various causes, varying from neurolinguistic realities to lack of process writing strategies. She claimed that the product approach to teaching writing might be one of the causes. Other studies (Powell, 1984; Richmond & Dickson, 1980) related writing apprehension to low writing competence. Less proficient writers were found to be more apprehensive than proficient writers. Such findings were reported by Faigley et al. (1981) who aimed to

explore the effects of writing apprehension on both writing performance and writing competency. The data of the study were gathered from essays written by the subjects. These were analysed by subjectively rating them for overall quality and by describing certain internal characteristics of the essays. The researchers found that high apprehensive participants scored lower on tests of writing. Apprehension had a significant effect on writing performance.

In addition, 496 secondary-school students participated in a study carried out by Petrosko et al. (1984) to investigate the relationship between writing ability, grade level, writing apprehension and knowledge of composing as a process. Data were collected by questionnaires and teachers' ratings of students' writing ability. The findings showed that low-ability writing students were less able to identify appropriate and inappropriate writing behaviours and were more apprehensive than high-ability writing students. Similarly, Walsh (1986) and Pajares (2003) reported that apprehension was linked to lower skill, lower grades and poor performance. In addition, Boeing et al. (1997) investigated the relationship between writing apprehension and academic achievement among 75 undergraduate honours students at the University of Alabama. The study found moderate negative correlation between writing apprehension and achievement; there was a meaningful relationship between apprehension and poor performance. Such findings show that there is a negative correlation between apprehension and competence.

Hayes (1981), in a case study, used a questionnaire and a video-stimulated recall to explore the composing processes of two female college freshmen writers: one high apprehensive and the other low apprehensive. The results found that the apprehensive writer disliked writing and took a great deal of time to complete an assignment, while the non-apprehensive writer enjoyed writing and wrote rapidly. The

non-apprehensive showed process-oriented writing strategies, such as writing more than one draft and re-readings before starting a new draft. The apprehensive, on the other hand, was less recursive in the composing process and more rigid. In a similar vein, Butler (1980) explored the similar and different characteristics of the composing processes used by two high apprehensive writers and those used by two low apprehensive writers on the secondary school level. The study categorised the subjects according to apprehension level (using the Miller-Daly WAT) and writing ability (using teacher ratings). Four subjects were selected based on their apprehension and ability levels. The study did not find a negative correlation between apprehension and writing ability. In addition, the study attributed apprehension to differences in aspects of composing processes more than writing ability. For example, the high apprehensive was different from the low apprehensive (both of them with high writing ability) in terms of pre-writing behaviours and in some revision behaviours. Differences between these two also existed in audience consideration, awareness of purposes for writing, and concerns about correctness when revising

Similar to Butler (1980), Whittier (2005) found in six case studies that there was no relationship between the level of apprehension and success in the course. The common cause of apprehension among 99 per cent of the participants was past educational experiences. In a similar vein, Lee (2005) investigated the relationship between writing apprehension and writing performance. The study did not report a correlation between students' performance and their apprehension. Free reading, viewed in the present study as process strategy, was found to be significantly and negatively associated with writing apprehension. However, freewriting was not found to be the same. Also, apprehension was claimed to be related to students' writing processes and attitudes. The researcher reported that most writing apprehension arises

as a result of students' previous negative writing experiences. Such findings agree that students' writing strategies inspired by a particular instructional context influence their apprehension levels.

Bloom (1980) noted high levels of apprehension among a number of very skilled writers. In addition, Pajares and Johnson (1994) found that writing apprehension was not predictive of writing performance. The lack of relationship between apprehension and performance contradicts earlier findings by Daly and Miller (1975) and others (Boening et al., 1997; Faigley et al., 1981; Pajares, 2003; Petrosko et al., 1984; Powell, 1984; Richmond & Dickson, 1980; Walsh, 1986). However, such inconsistent results might be related to individual differences among the participants of the studies, to methodological issues related to instruments used or to definitions of apprehension and skilfulness.

Going back to apprehension and strategies, Lee and Krashen (1997) found a negative relationship between writing apprehension and frequency of reading. Reading is viewed as one of the process-based writing strategies in the present research. Furthermore, Lee and Krashen (2002) found that high apprehensive writers tend to focus on grammar and ignore organisation in revision. Focusing on grammar is viewed as one of the product-oriented writing strategies in the present study.

Wachholz and Etheridge (1996) used the Daly-Miller WAT in their study to investigate the self-efficacy beliefs among high-and-low apprehension on writers. The findings showed that apprehension was partly attributed to insufficient writing preparation and limited opportunities to practise writing. In addition, apprehension was attributed to students' trying to follow teachers' product-oriented rules and emphasis on the fundamentals of composition. High-apprehensive writers defined 'good' writing in terms of surface elements such as grammar, spelling and neatness.

Such findings corresponded with Bloom (1980), who examined the composing processes of high-apprehensive writers and found that they tend to rely on rules too rigidly and too strictly. In a further call for a study such as the present, the authors commented that 'research dealing with writing apprehension is insufficient to answer all the questions that surround the effect of this construct on the composing processes of students' (p. 5).

In a similar context, Donna Buck (as cited in Donlan, 1986, p. 89), in an observation study of eight elementary-school children, found that high apprehensive writers have problems with fluency, awareness of audience, spelling, selecting a topic, and needing reassurance that they were on the right track. Low apprehension writers were less concerned with spelling or fluency but more about getting ideas, finding appropriate titles, and knowing when and how to conclude. However, low apprehensives were observed having problems with revision and syntactical variations. Both groups had problems with editing skills to similar extents. Regarding the writing strategies the participants like and dislike, high apprehension writers enjoyed planning and finishing pieces. Low apprehension writers liked planning too, but liked rereading more than high apprehension writers did. Neither group reported any dislikes.

Karen Daniel (as cited in Donlan, 1986, p. 87) reviewed 28 articles about writing apprehension. The articles showed that writers who are apprehensive avoid writing, use less intense language, write longer yet unclear sentences, resist revision and generally lack self-confidence. The articles also pointed out that teachers need to be concerned about (1) their own attitudes about writing as reflected in their interactions with students and in their classrooms' physical and emotional environments; (2) teaching writing more as an on-going process rather than as a series

of evaluated products; (3) focusing on students' knowledge of the world; and (4) stressing positive rather than negative aspects in evaluative comments.

From the previously reviewed studies on writing apprehension, it seems possible for the present study to come up to the following conclusions:

- Abdel-Latif (2009), Bloom, (1980), Daud et al. (2005), Hassan (2001) and Lee and Krashen (2002) reported that writing apprehension and low proficiency are associated with language-related writing aspects. In other words, apprehension is related to students' product-oriented writing strategies.
- The results reported by these studies need to be documented by further research that could include a wide range of participants, a wide range of process-product dichotomy of strategies, and could make use of both quantitative and qualitative data in explicitly identifying the correlation between ESL/EFL writing strategies and writing strategy apprehension. This entails a more specific definition of apprehension and a clear classification of process-and-product types of strategies. In addition, there is a need to investigate this correlation in a specific EFL context like the Saudi EFL context.
- Writing apprehension is viewed to be a non-linguistic problem that influences writing process and product.
- Results from L1 and L2 contexts were both equivocal and inconsistent in connection with writing apprehension and writing competence.
- Process-based writing instruction was proved helpful in reducing apprehension.

- None of the previous reviewed studies treated apprehension in a process-based-strategy instruction.
- None of them (save Abdel-Latif, 2009; Hayes, 1981) investigated the correlation between writing apprehension and writing strategies.
- It is obvious from the previous studies that no one dealt with the relationship of EFL writing strategies' type (process-product dichotomy) and writing strategy apprehension. This is why the present research is an original attempt in investigating EFL writing strategies from this perspective.

3.4. Chapter Conclusion

The present chapter reviewed the literature of ESL/EFL writing instruction, writing strategies, and writing apprehension. Section 3.1 discussed the theoretical background of ESL/EFL writing instruction and its various effects on writing models, followed by extended discussion of ESL/EFL writing approaches. The aim of that discussion was to present a theoretical ground for the claim that teachers' instructional approaches can be manifested in their students' preferred writing strategies. Accordingly, the researcher is interested to know if students' product-typed writing strategies inspired by the principles and ideologies of product writing approaches will contribute to less writing competence and high writing apprehension. Section 3.2, therefore, highlighted the areas of strategy definitions, strategy taxonomies, studies in L2/FL writing strategies and writing-strategy studies in the Arab world in general and Saudi context in particular to help frame the present study. Since the researcher claims that instructional approach affects students' strategy use and creates emotional constructs that can facilitate or complicate their writing, Section 3.3 reviewed writing apprehension and other affective constructs, motivation and studies in the relationship

between writing apprehension, writing strategies and writing competence. The conclusions from the reviewed studies are summarized at the end of each section.

The next chapter provides a detailed exposition of the study methodology and its theoretical underpinnings.

Chapter 4: Methodology

In this chapter, research methods and methodology will be discussed in detail. This chapter consists of four sections: (1) introduction to research questions, description of variables, research strategy and design, (2) research participants, (3) research instruments and data collection, and (4) data analysis.

4.1. Introduction

In this section, three issues will be examined: (1) research questions, (2) description of variables, (3) general design of the research, and (4) research strategy and justification of methods and methodology.

4.1.1. Research questions

The present researcher is attempting to investigate the instructional type of EFL writing strategies as characterised by the principles of two writing approaches: the process and the product. In addition, a correlational research is used to ascertain if there is a relationship between the type of EFL writing strategies (process vs. product), on one hand, and EFL writing competence and writing-strategy apprehension on the other. Moreover, the effect of process-strategy instruction on EFL writing competence and writing apprehension is investigated.

On the basis of what is known about the instructional types of writing strategies, writing apprehension and writing competence, the present research designed two main research questions to meet the research goals and objectives:

1. Based on the process-product types of writing instruction, what are the instructional types of writing strategies used by ESP/EFL college students in a

Saudi Arabian context, and do those types of writing strategies correlate with students' writing apprehension and writing competence?

2. Is there a significant change in strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence levels after process-based strategy instruction?

In order to answer Question One, three research sub-questions were designed to determine the following:

A. *What are the ESP/EFL writing strategies of Saudi undergraduate students?*

   1- What is the dominant type of writing strategy used?

   2- What are the most- and the least-used writing strategies?

   3- What strategies are the most used by high and low apprehensive strategy users, respectively?

   4- What are the strategies most used by high and low competent writers, respectively?

B. *What are the participants' writing-strategy-related apprehension levels?*

   1- What is the nature of the relationship between the participants' levels of apprehension and their dominant type of writing strategies?

   2- What are the most stressful strategies?

   3- What are the least stressful strategies?

   4- Is there any correlation between strategy apprehension levels and frequent use of L1 in L2 writing, L1 writing practice or L2 writing practice?

C. *What are the participants' levels of writing competence?*

1- Is there any relationship between the participants' levels of writing competence and their writing strategies?

2- Is there any correlation between writing competence levels and frequent use of L1 in L2 writing, L1 writing practice or L2 writing practice?

3- Is there any correlation between writing competence levels and writing strategy-related apprehension levels?

In order to answer Question Two, two research sub-questions were designed to determine the following:

A. Does process-based strategy instruction significantly reduce strategy-related apprehension?

B. Does process-based strategy instruction significantly increase writing competence?

Table 1 below identifies the instruments to be used for each research question. For example, the strategy questionnaires (SQ) will give answers to research question 1A1, while research question 1A3 is answered by the findings of three research instruments: strategy questionnaires, apprehension scale and think-aloud protocols (SQ, AS and TP). The table also illustrate the general design of the study. The study is following two types of design: cross-sectional design and pre-experimental design.

Table 1 Research Questions and Data Instruments

	Data instruments						Type of research design
Research Questions	SQ.	AS.	SI.	TP.	AWT.	KQ.	
Research question ONE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		Cross-sectional Design
1A1	✓						
1A2	✓						
1A3	✓	✓		✓			
1A4	✓			✓	✓		
1B1	✓	✓	✓				
1B2		✓	✓				
1B3		✓	✓				
1B4	✓	✓					
1C					✓		
1C1	✓				✓		
1C2		✓			✓		
1C3	✓				✓		
Research question TWO		✓			✓	✓	Pre-Experimental Design
2A		✓					
2B					✓		

- SQ= Strategy Questionnaire, AS= Apprehension Scale, SI= Semi-structured Interviews, TP= Think-aloud Protocols, AWT= Argumentative writing task, KQ= Pre-and-post Knowledge questionnaire of 7 Process-based strategies

With the cross-sectional design, the researcher will be able to examine relationships among variables and express the connections between process-based and product-based writing strategies, and between writing competence and writing apprehension. The main instruments in this design are strategy questionnaires, argumentative writing tasks and a writing apprehension scale. Think-aloud protocols and semi-structured interviews are supplementary instruments used for triangulation purposes. Data from those instruments are collected more or less simultaneously, and the researcher does not manipulate any of the variables. This creates the problem of ambiguity about the direction of causal influence. If the researcher discovers a relationship between two variables, it cannot be certain whether this denotes a causal

relationship, as reflected in the post-positivist paradigm. All that can be said is that the variables are related. As a result, cross-sectional research invariably lacks the internal validity that one finds in much experimental research (Bryman, 2004, p. 42).

However, with the experimental design, the researcher will be able to assess the claims in the cross-sectional design. By doing an experimental study, the researcher aims to prove or falsify the idea that process-based strategy instruction can reduce writing apprehension and increase writing competence. The study seeks to isolate two variables: (1) process-based strategies that are assumed to cause change in apprehension and competence levels, and (2) high writing apprehension and low writing competence that are assumed to have change affected on them. The initial plans were to do a comparative quasi-experiment with one control group and one experimental group. However, due to out-of-hand issues, the researcher was forced to do a pre-experimental design (see section 4.3.4. for more details).

In any case, an experiment in social science cannot claim beyond any doubt that process-based writing strategy instruction will always reduce writing apprehension and increase writing competence. The experiment will help gain insight into the probable effects of process-based writing strategy instruction. Another problem with a pre-experimental design is the researcher's bias. 'The researcher does bring bias to experimentation, but bias does not limit an ability to be reflective' (CSU, 2012).[12] The third problem is that the small size of the participants in an experimental study may not be a representative sample of a population. Results, therefore, cannot be generalised.

To minimise the effects of those problems, the researcher combines experimentation with cross-sectional design, where it serves as a precondition for the

[12] Writing@CSU is an open-access, educational Web site supported by Colorado State University. Retrieved January 8, 2012 from http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/research/experiment/pop5d.cfm

experiment. The selection of the participants in the experimental study is based on their results from two instruments in the cross-sectional study (the argumentative writing task and the apprehension scale). In addition, there was a pre- and post-strategy questionnaire to measure the participants' knowledge of seven process-based writing strategies that were the focus of the strategy instruction.

4.1.2. Description of variables

The research questions included four central concepts that require measurement: (1) students' level of writing competence, (2) students' type of writing strategies, (3) students' level of strategy apprehension, and (4) the role of process-strategy instruction in writing competence and writing apprehension.

Writing strategies and strategy instruction are viewed in the present research as independent variables, whereas writing competence and apprehension are conceived as dependent variables. Writing competence was measured by an argumentative writing task. Writing strategies and strategy apprehension were measured by self-report questionnaires. Data on writing strategies were collected on several indicators of conscious process-based and product-based writing strategies.

4.1.3. Research strategy and justification of methods and methodology

For the purposes of the present study, post-positivism is assumed as an epistemological position. Post-positivism 'represents the thinking after positivism, challenging the traditional notion of the absolute truth of knowledge and recognising that we cannot be ''positive'' about our claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of humans' (Creswell, 2009, p. 7). The heavy reliance on

quantitative data in the study warrants the use of this position, since the findings will be contingent on the interpretation of data and be probabilistic in nature.

A 'modified objectivist' ontological position is assumed. Despite the dominance of numerical data in deriving the findings of the study, (objectively) perfect connections between the research variables are not possible given that social research 'lacks absolute determinism' (Bryman, 2004, p. 438). Nevertheless, bias will be reduced where possible. Thus, qualitative and quantitative methods will be carefully combined for more validity and reliability.

Previous EFL writing-strategy studies rarely, if ever, provided interventional methods to reduce apprehension or detailed information on process-product writing strategies and their relationship with writing competence and writing apprehension. Thus, the present research adopts mixed methods to yield detailed information on EFL writing-strategy type, strategy-related apprehension and a process-strategy instruction to reduce apprehension and increase competence.

The quantitative strategy as a general methodology of the present research entails a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the accent is placed on the testing of theories, and it embodies a view of social reality as an external, objective reality (ibid, 2004). Furthermore, the results in quantitative research are less affected by the researcher's special characteristics or expectations. Therefore, the results and the procedures of the study in quantitative research can easily be replicated by others – something that will enhance its validity and reliability (ibid, 2004).

On the other hand, criticisms of quantitative research can be summarised in the following points:

- The researcher's assumptions may force limited responses to what can be quite complex questions (Yates, 2004).
- There is a failure in quantitative research to distinguish people and social institutions from the world of nature.
- Research questions may not be related to the respondents' interest or to their everyday life.
- We do not know how what appears to be a relationship between two or more variable has been produced by the people to whom it applies. (Bryman, 2004, p. 78–79)

Therefore, as mentioned above, the present researcher decided to use qualitative-quantitative methods to yield detailed information and overcome assumed drawbacks.

The following section concerns the research participants in terms of demographics and ethical considerations.

4.2. The Research Participants

This section discusses the sampling and offers information about the participants' backgrounds. In addition, ethical issues before and during the administration of the research instruments are discussed.

4.2.1. Selection of the subjects

The population of the research is the second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who are studying English as a foreign language in one of the Saudi industrial colleges: Jubail Industrial College (JIC). The population can be described as non-native intermediate speakers and writers of English who speak and write English for specific purposes: technical and business (see Section 2.5). The researcher selected this place and target of population because he is one of the JIC staff members and because his research project is sponsored by JIC to develop and improve the quality of the educational programmes offered by the college.

The target population is the students who are taking the course of English Composition I, a supporting course to second-year college students, offered by the English Language Centre. The reason the researcher selected this kind of course is that it is the first real composition course in which students are able to start composing in the real sense of the word and at the essay level. In the first semester of the first year, students write at the sentence level, then in the second semester they start writing at the paragraph level. Therefore, the students of the second-year composition course seem to be the best target population for research on EFL composing strategies, composing competence and composing apprehension. In addition, such students have developed and acquired a good portion of English language in the first year, so this can enable them to participate well in the research instruments.

The researcher used simple random sampling, which is the most commonly used method of selecting a probability sample in which each element in the target population is given an equal and independent chance of selection.

To select the sample, the researcher randomly selected four classes of the English Composition I (ECI). Written approval of the Managing Director (MD) of JIC, as well as the class teachers, was acquired in advance.

4.2.2. Ethics and administration procedures

As mentioned above, the researcher got written consent from the managing director of JIC to carry out his research and collect his research data in Jubail Industrial College. In addition, the researcher met with the director of the ELC in the college and got his permission to get access to the class timetables of English Composition I for sampling purposes. After selecting the sampling classes, the researcher sent an e-mail (with the MD's consent letter attached) to the teachers of those classes, asking their permission to hand over their classes to the researcher for three periods during the week, one separate and two successive. Each period was 50 minutes punctuated by a ten-minute break, with a further 10-minute break between the two successive periods.

The two successive periods were arranged such that all the four sampling classes could meet together in the Multi-Purpose Hall (MPH) to do the writing task and the self-report questionnaires. The college management was very helpful in arranging the MPH and sending a staff member for assistance purposes.

In the first period given to the researcher, the researcher met with each class to verbally and briefly introduce the research purposes and the overall design of his research. The three stages of the research were explained and a copy of the research

design was distributed. Students were assured of anonymity and the right to withdraw at any point. On the other hand, to motivate students to take part in the study devotedly and to obtain their best performance in the writing tasks, all the participants in the writing task were given financial rewards in return for their participation and as a compensation for their time. In addition, they were told that the best five scores on the writing task would be offered extra financial rewards. Moreover, they were instructed that those selected for the think-aloud, interview and strategy-instruction sessions would be granted double the financial rewards given to the participants of the first stage. However, they had been told that whoever wanted to respond to the questionnaire only and did not do the writing part, he would not be rewarded for that. Those wishing to participate were asked to come to the MPH at a particular time for participating in the writing task and the questionnaires.

In the second meeting (the two successive periods in the MPH), the researcher met the four classes[13] together and quickly reminded the participants of what they had discussed in the last meeting. Then, the writing task and the self-report questionnaires were distributed. The maximum time devoted for these instruments is 100 minutes: 50 minutes for the writing task and 50 minutes for the questionnaires. Again, the participants were informed of their anonymity and right to withdraw at any point. Subsequently, the researcher asked those who were willing and content to participate in the instruments of the second and third stages to write their names and mobile numbers in the box provided in the lift-top corner of the first page and to cover their names by folding up and stabilising that corner (to facilitate matching and analysing data obtained from those students by means of correlation).

[13] Of the 141 targeted participants in the four classes, 20 participants did not come; 68 agreed to do the writing part and the questionnaires; the rest (53) did only the questionnaire part and left.

Subsequently, the argumentative writing task and the questionnaires were marked and scored shortly after administering them. The scores will identify the participants who would be assigned for the think-aloud sessions, interviews, and strategy-instruction sessions. The participants are not necessarily the same for each instrument.

In the above sections, the methods and methodology of the research were presented, along with detailed information about their advantages and disadvantages. Then, the selection, location, background and ethical issues concerning participants were presented and discussed.

In the coming section, we are going to examine use of research instruments. A full description of the procedures followed in administering those instruments is discussed in the following sections.

4.3. The research instruments and data collection

This section provides a general description for the research instruments and discusses the steps and procedures of data collection and the instruments administered in measuring the following research areas: (1) writing competence; (2) writing strategies; (3) writing apprehension; and (4) the effects of process-based strategy instruction on competence and apprehension.

4.3.1. Measuring writing competence

The first instrument used in the present research was an argumentative writing task to measure writing competence. Various kinds of writing tasks (argumentative, descriptive, narrative, letter writing, freewriting, picture-based writing and journal writing) were used in ESL/EFL writing literature for different purposes. The argumentative writing tasks, as reviewed by Abdel-Latif (2009), were the most commonly used type of tasks in ESL/EFL writing literature. In addition, such tasks are preferred in think-aloud protocols and measuring writing competence. This may be attributed to the view that the argumentative tasks are more academic, more cognitively challenging than other writing tasks. Moreover, using an argumentative task aims to mitigate any disadvantages on the part of the subjects. Narrative or descriptive tasks, for example, might disadvantage subjects as some can be better in describing things and narrating stories depending on their previous knowledge, but this does not really reflect the real competence in writing. Argumentative writing tasks, however, are less reliant on creativity, simply involving considering the strengths and weaknesses of the two sides of an argument with examples, evidences, logic and coherence. In addition, the writer should provide a persuasive explanation for choosing one argument over another. By using such a task, the researcher will be able

to compare findings with other studies in the Arabic countries such as El-Mortaji (2001), Alhaysony (2008), Abdel-Latif (2009), and Chaaban (2010).

The argumentative writing task was administered along with the strategy questionnaire and the apprehension test to the entire sample. However, the participants were able to opt out of the writing task any time they want or to skip the task and do only the questionnaire and the apprehension test. They were given 50 minutes to finish the writing task, and then, they can proceed to do the strategy questionnaire and the apprehension test, successively. The reason for this order was to make the participants' self-report of strategy use and apprehension as close as possible to their actual writing to improve fidelity of their reports.

The argumentative writing task was as follows: 'Money is the key to happiness. Do you agree or disagree?' This topic was chosen for three reasons. First, the researcher would be able to compare findings with other Arab studies (Chaaban, 2010; El-Mortaji, 2001) that implemented the same topic. In addition, on the basis of the researcher himself having been a teacher in this educational context for more than eight years, this topic was deemed similar to the argumentative topics studied in class but not the same. Furthermore, the topic of money prompts typical argumentation and does not necessitate special background knowledge. The task, therefore, is believed not to disadvantage any participant.

On the other hand, to be consistent with previous studies (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Alhaysony, 2008; Chaaban, 2010; El-Mortaji, 2001) and to control variables, the task was administered in a conditioned, exam-like environment. The task, therefore, was for 50 minutes and involved no topic choices. In addition, the participants were not allowed to talk to each other, ask for the researcher's assistance or use dictionaries. By doing so, the task is believed to have been reliable, and scores can be compared since

all the participants performed the same task in the same condition (see Jacobs et al., 1981, p. 16).

The essays were scored and analysed according to a criterion-referenced rating instrument from the ESL Composition Profile developed by Jacobs et al. (1981). For more details on scoring and analysing the writing samples, refer to Section 4.4.

4.3.2. Measuring writing strategies

In investigating writing strategies and processes, previous ESL/EFL studies used either introspective data, i.e. think-aloud protocols (Arndt, 1987; Jones, 1982; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Raimes, 1985) or retrospective data, i.e. interviews (Silva, 1992; Zamel, 1983) and questionnaires (Angelova, 1999; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Other studies (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Alhaysony, 2008; Chaaban, 2010; El-Aswad, 2002; Raimes, 1987a; Wang & Wen, 2002) combined the two kinds of data sources. In this study, the main instrument for investigating the participants' writing strategies is a questionnaire because of the overall quantitative nature of the research methodology (See Section 4.1.3). In addition, think-aloud protocols are used for triangulation purposes.

4.3.2.1. Writing strategy questionnaire

The second research instrument employed was a strategy questionnaire. In the field of ESL/EFL writing strategies, questionnaires have been widely used as a research instrument in investigating writing processes and strategies (Akyel & Kamisli, 1997; Alhaysony, 2008; Alnofal, 2003; Angelova, 1999; Kim, 1996; Levine & Reves, 1998; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989). Using a questionnaire as a research instrument has numerous advantages (see Bryman, 2004; Oppenheim, 1992). They are cheap, convenient for participants and relatively easy to

conduct and administer; allow large cohorts; reduce researcher-introduced bias; and closely control variables affecting response. Moreover, in strategy studies in particular, questionnaires can reflect the typical strategies generally used or not used by a particular population.

On the other hand, questionnaires have a number of disadvantages (see Bryman, 2004; Kumar, 1999). They can be summarised in the following points:

- Questionnaires may not all come back immediately and they may take several weeks to be returned. This will cause poor and low response rates.
- If respondents are having difficulty answering a question, they may not have help to overcome the difficulty they have.
- There is no opportunity to probe respondents to elaborate an answer.
- Not everyone who receives a questionnaire returns it, so there is self-selecting bias.
- Spontaneous responses are not allowed for.
- The response to a question may be influenced by the response to other questions.
- In finding out only the sample's opinions, this method may not be appropriate since it is possible to consult others or let others answer the questionnaire.
- A questionnaire cannot ask many questions that are not salient to respondents.
- A questionnaire can be read as a whole, so the problem of question-order effects may arise.
- It is difficult to collect additional data or to ask many questions.

To enhance further improvement to response rates and to minimise some of the limitations of the questionnaire, the researcher:

- Wrote a good covering letter explaining the reasons for the research and why it is important; indicated that participation in the study is voluntary; assured respondents of the anonymity and confidentiality of the information provided by them; provided a contact number in case they have any questions; thanked them for their participation in the study.
- Administered the questionnaires himself.
- Ensured the questionnaires were user friendly, neither long nor short and had an attractive layout.
- Translated the questionnaire items.
- Made the questionnaire explicit and easy to answer and analyse.
- Selected lexical items that are appropriate, clear and expressive.
- Added a glossary at the end for the meaning of technical words.

Using a questionnaire enables the researcher to survey the self-reported writing strategies of a large number of non-native intermediate speakers of English who write in English for specific purposes. Surveying a large number of subjects allows the researcher to establish a process-product catalogue of writing strategies. Furthermore, 'such an instrument enables researchers to compare findings in different contexts. At the same time, it can also have pedagogical applications in two ways: as a needs analysis or diagnostic tool for teachers and as an awareness-raising tool for learners' (Petric & Czarl, 2003, p. 188). However, the current research is not interested in highlighting peculiarities by presenting individual writers' profiles of writing strategies.

In this study, writing strategies are defined as 'the [conscious][14] behaviors and techniques that can be taught and instructed [in writing]' (Grenfell & Harris, 1999, p. 39). The word 'conscious' excludes the controversial debates around the consciousness and unconsciousness of strategy use. This account of consciousness was behind using a strategy questionnaire as the main instrument. However, the definition can account for the dual nature of strategies, which can be covert and overt or observable and non-observable (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990b, p. 1). This acceptance forced the researcher to video-tape the participants' think-aloud protocols rather than audio-taping them. 'That can be taught and instructed in writing' refers to the focus of the research on the process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies (i.e. strategies that reflect the principles of the process approaches and product approaches to writing teaching). The idea came from the literature on writing approaches (see Section 3.1.3). Therefore, the strategy questionnaire items are divided into two categories or clusters: process-oriented items and product-oriented items.

This philosophical[15] dichotomy of those product-process strategy items is based on two things. First, if a strategy is related to the 'form' feature of writing, then it is a product-oriented strategy. If a strategy is related to the 'content' feature of writing, then it is a process-oriented feature. To be more specific, it provokes the process-oriented writing strategies focused on the strategies of flexibility, recursiveness, creating ideas; discovering meaning; considering audience, purpose and context of writing; revising; and collaborating. The product-oriented writing strategies, on the other hand, generally focus on the strategies of rigidness, accuracy, linearity,

[14] The definition reflects the use of the word 'conscious' in ordinary language, not the more detailed discussions of strategy consciousness by researchers and philosophers.

[15] The word 'philosophical' is intentionally used because this dichotomy is appealing to controversial grounds in writing instruction. There is no clear-cut answer or deterministic definition between what product or process is. However, the long debates and discussions between the advocates of process and product approaches incited the researcher to investigate the matter from another angle (i.e. the students' writing strategies).

prescriptivism, imitation and teacher's assistance. Second, if a strategy is not clearly related to one of those features, its classification as a product-or-process strategy is taken from the researcher's own understanding of literature on writing approaches (see Chapter 3). An example of a product-typed writing strategy can be Number 2 in Part B of the questionnaire (see Appendix 2), 'I start writing without having any general (written or mental) plan'. On the other hand, a process-typed writing strategy, for example, can be Number 4, 'Before I start writing about a topic, I do freewriting to get as many ideas as possible'. Freewriting is classified in the literature as one of the process writing strategies that can help in generating ideas.

The self-completion questionnaire (see Appendix 1) is divided into three parts: (A) general background, (B) strategy questionnaire and (C) apprehension scale. In this subsection, discussion will be limited to the first two parts, A and B. Part C is examined later in Subsection 4.3.3.

Part A was designed to investigate general writing background variables: years of L2 writing experience, L1 and L2 writing practices, general attitudes about L1 and L2 writing, and the type of previous strategy and writing instruction. Questions 1, 2 and 5 were borrowed from Petric's and Czarl's (2003) writing strategy questionnaire, and the researcher added the other questions. In fact, the questions of this part do not directly feed into the main research questions. However, they are believed to help the researcher get a broad picture about his research subjects and their writing background.

Regarding part B, some items were also borrowed and adapted from both Petric's and Czarl's (2003) writing strategy questionnaire and from a strategy questionnaire developed by Alhaysony (2008). Again, other items were added by the researcher himself. There were several reasons for drawing from Petric's and Czarl's

(2003) and Alhaysony's (2008) questionnaires. First, most of the writing strategies in the literature were included in those two questionnaires. Second, Petric's and Czarl's questionnaire was professionally validated in 2003 using a qualitative and a quantitative method. Third, Petric's and Czarl's questionnaire was constructed based on a process writing theory. Finally, to the best knowledge of the researcher, Alhaysony's questionnaire was the latest-developed questionnaire in EFL writing strategies. Those adapted and added items of the present writing-strategy questionnaire are illustrated in Table 2 (See Appendix 2 before reliability amendment):

Table 2 Writing Strategy Questionnaire Items Source

Petric's & Czarl's (2003)		Alhaysony's (2008)		The researcher's added items
Borrowed Items	Modified Items	Borrowed Items	Modified Items	1, 4, 5, 6, 10,
17, 18, 21, 45, 50	8, 2, 3, 14, 19, 20, 25, 47, 48, 49	9, 12, 13, 37, 40	7, 11, 15, 22, 29, 30, 31,36, 39, 46	16, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 32, 33, 34, 35, 38, 41, 42, 43, 44,

The borrowed items are the items that are selected and written as they are as long as they can be easily classified as process or product strategies (e.g., Item 17 (a process strategy) '*I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English*', and Item 45 (a product strategy) '*I only read what I have written when I have finished the whole paper*'). The modified items are the items that are writing strategies in origin despite not properly fitting into the process-product dichotomy of the writing strategies. The researcher, therefore, modified them to serve the purpose of his research. Item 2, for example, in Petric and Czarl's (2003) questionnaire, says '*I start writing without having a written or mental plan*'. This strategy might be confusing in classification, since a written plan might be understood as outlining. However, when we add the word 'general' to the statement, it becomes clear that we mean the process kind of planning not the product kind of outlining. Another example is Item11: '*I write*

everything in Arabic and then literally translate into English'. This item was modified to make it clearly a product-typed writing strategy by adding the words 'everything' and 'literally'. In Alhaysony's (2008) questionnaire, the item might be difficult to classify, since translation in itself can be both a process and product kind of strategy. If a student translates everything literally, then it is a product-based writing strategy. However, if he uses translation as an aid to generate ideas and not to stop writing (see Item 17 above), then he is process-oriented in his writing strategies.

Part B (see Part A in Appendix 2 before reliability amendment) serves as the main data source of strategy use in the research. As a result, it is very important to explicitly relate the variables to be measured to the items on Part B of the questionnaire. Table 3 demonstrates this relationship.

Table 3 Items on Part B of the questionnaire before reliability amendments

Variable Name	**Item on Part B**
Process-based Strategies	See items: 1,4,5,7,8,9,11,12,16,17, 18,19,24,25,31,32,33,37,39,40,41, 46,47,48,50.
Product-based Strategies	See items: 2,3,6,10,13,14,15,20,21, 22,23,26,27,28,29,30,34,35,36,38,42, 43,44,45,49.

The items of both types of writing strategies were randomly sequenced to avoid the bias of choice and to avoid being self-evident to the participants. In addition, the researcher decided to use an equal number of items for each strategy (25 each). This enables the researcher to use the strategy questionnaire as a scale for the type of strategies used. In other words, the strategy questionnaire can be scored to classify the participants into process-oriented strategy user or product-oriented strategy user. Scoring the instrument is both simple and fast. The formula for the 50-item instrument is as follows: (150 + the scores of the process strategies – the scores of the product strategies). Scores may range from a low of 50 to a high of 250. Scores from 50 to 130

reflect a more process-oriented strategy user; scores from 171 to 250 reflect a more product-oriented strategy user. Scores from 131 to 170 reflect users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies. However, this has been changed after reliability improvements, as will be seen in the next section.

The rating scale was a five-point Likert-type scale: always=1, often=2, sometimes=3, rarely=4 and almost never=5. The numerical scores (1–5) were not written for the participants to avoid confusion. Instead, the researcher decided to use the percentage so that the participants could clearly understand the differences between the five responses. Percentages were added in light of criticism (see Dörnyei, 2005; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006) and so that computing means scores would be more justifiable. In fact, the basic critique of computing means in learning strategies according to Dörnyei (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) is that "one can be a very competent strategy user by consistently employing one single strategy that particularly suits his/her abilities and learning style [...]. The quality rather than the quantity of the strategies a person utilizes that matters [...].Thus, in this case, the summation of different item scores is not related linearly to the underlying trait" (p. 29). In other words, this criticism is based on the element of strategic competence rather than strategic orientation. If the aim of the study is the instructional type of the participants' strategies rather than the strategic competence, it would be then justifiable to compute the means. In addition, writing the percentages of the scale descriptors rather than the successive numbers would help the participants see a quality relationship between the descriptors. This does not mean that the participants will not be able to identify the frequency as well because computing the frequency is also possible and deduced from the percentages. Both frequency and intensity (quantity and quality) of writing strategies under investigation are important and informative for the present study.

Moreover, and for more practical analysis, the items of the questionnaire are divided equally into process and product types of writing strategies. Then, the whole questionnaire is used as a scale where the standard average score of the whole 50 items (150) is added to the total (not the average) scores obtained from the process-based items minus the total scores obtained from the product-based items. The built-up scores, therefore, can help the researcher classify the participants' writing strategies into three kinds of instructionally strategic orientations (as stated above).

The above psychometric property of the questionnaire is one of the two major problems (Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006) related to strategy questionnaires. The other one is the lack of an operational definition of strategies. As stated earlier, this study operationally looks at the conscious writing behaviours and techniques that can be taught and instructed in the light of the process and product writing approaches.

4.3.2.1.1. Developing and validating a strategy questionnaire

In developing and building up the previous writing strategy questionnaire, the researcher spent a year in reviewing literature and noting down any writing strategy that he might come across. Eventually, a repertoire of more than 95 writing strategies was achieved. Some of them were redundant; others were not relevant to the research focus; others were not worded accurately. The latter two types were discarded of modified as appropriate. The outcome was a strategy questionnaire of 50 items, as discussed in the previous subsection.

In the validity context, the strategy questionnaire will be checked for its content or face validity, which is established when 'the measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question' (Bryman, 2004, p. 73). To do so, a draft of the strategy questionnaire was checked for face validity by the researcher's supervisor,

who is a well-known expert in language learners' strategies. In addition, a draft was given to two experts, who are researchers as well as teachers of EFL writing in Saudi Arabia, to obtain more opinions on the clarity of the instructions, the relevance of the items to the purpose of the questionnaire, and possible lexical and semantic problems.

In addition, draft versions of the questionnaire were piloted with five students of the target population. The piloted questionnaire was administered in the participants' educational setting; the pilots were a number of Saudi students in Jubail Industrial College. After extensive coaching from the present author, Mr AlBijadi, who had his MA in TEFL from an English university, administered the pilot study on 1st January, 2012. Mr AlBijadi and Mr Saad Al-Shomrani also volunteered to check the face validity by checking for the clarity of the instructions, the relevance of the items to the purpose of the questionnaire, and possible lexical and semantic problems.

In the pilot study, the questionnaire items were written in double spaces so that the participants would be able to add their notes and marks on the items that need more clarification. The participants were encouraged to write down their opinions about the questionnaire either in English or in Arabic. This was to enable the researcher to see what meaning they ascribe to each item, and to compare this with the intended meaning. The pilot also indicated to what extent participants were easily able to respond to each item (regardless of the actual responses). This step resulted in improvements, modifications and amendments to the questionnaire.

On Sunday 8th January 2012, the researcher received the outcome of the first pilot study and the validity checkers' comments. The pilot study showed that the participants had problems with some words in general and with technical words in particular. For example, three students wrote that they did not understand general words such as 'omit', ' irrelevant', 'perspective', 'deliberately attempt' and

'appropriate'. The problem with the meaning of the general words was solved by both changing that word into easier words (such as changing 'omit' into 'delete', and 'deliberately attempt' into 'try' – see Item 31 and 32 in the strategy questionnaire) and translating the questionnaire items. Regarding the technical words, the researcher added a glossary, as suggested by his supervisor, at the end of the questionnaire to explain the Arabic meaning of the technical words such as 'freewriting', 'brainstorming', 'purpose and reader of writing', etc. (see Items 4 and 5) . In addition, the presence of the researcher helps in explaining the meaning of the technical words as the questionnaire is read/explained by the researcher before the participants start to respond (see subsection 4.3.2.1.).

Moreover, face validity checkers agreed with students' misunderstanding of and problem with some vocabulary. In addition, one of the validity checkers reported that some items in the strategy questionnaire seemed to be opposite in meaning (e.g. Items 6 and 7, 16 and 17, 22 and 23, and 26 and 27. He claimed that students were either to choose this or that; therefore, the two items would be confusing and this may affect the construct validity of the items. However, it seems that strategies need not be "either/or" states. For example, a writer might rarely allow new ideas to come into his mind while writing about previously planned ideas (Item 27). However, this does not mean that he might not in some situations include new ideas when necessary (Item 26). In addition, one writer might always try to avoid using Arabic in his writing and never use it (Item 16 and 17), while another writer might always try to avoid using Arabic (Item 16), but sometimes writes bits of his text in Arabic (Item 17).

Opening the options for the participants through diverse strategies seems to be more informative because each participant has his own interpretation for each strategy based on his own situational experiences. Having contrasting strategies, in general, is

fostered by the fact that learning strategies are part of a human learner who has contrasting human behaviours. In addition, writing has been viewed as 'a multidimensional, situational construct that fluctuates in a wide variety of contexts' (Greenberg, 1992, p. 18, as cited in Hamp-Lyons & Kroll, 2001).[16] The construct of the current strategy questionnaire, therefore, was not based on a single theory or a model of second language writing, simply because there is no single, distinctive or acceptable theory of L2/FL writing. Second language writing is believed to be an interdisciplinary field of inquiry (Matsuda, 2003; Silva & Leki, 2004) influenced by a number of theories from related fields including linguistics, applied linguistics, composition studies, psychology and education (Zhu, 2010). Therefore, the current strategy questionnaire was constructed based on the principles and teachings of writing approaches originally based on different learning and teaching theories. Therefore, among both types of writing strategies (the process-oriented and the product-oriented), one can find cognitive, metacognitive, social, and other kinds of strategies. These common taxonomies of learning strategies are not within the scope of the research, which only concerns the writing strategies that share similar instructional principles and ideologies taken from those of writing approaches.

Nevertheless, one of the validity checkers suggested that the participants might be dishonest in their responses if they make identical responses to two different strategies. Nevertheless, equal responses would indicate that the participants are using a mixture of strategies and they are not oriented by a specific kind of strategies (i.e., they are neither process-oriented nor product-oriented).

After taking the previous points of wording problems, rather than the contrasting strategies, into consideration and ensuring that the face validity was

[16] Greenberg, K. (1992). Validity and reliability issues in direct assessment of writing. *WPA: Writing program administration*, 16 (1-2) 7-22.

suitably established, a second version of the questionnaire was sent as a second pilot study for reliability purposes. By reliability, we refer to 'the consistency of a measure of a concept' (Bryman, 2004, p. 71). Mr Al-Zahrani, one of the ELC writing lecturers, volunteered to administer the second version of the questionnaire on Saturday February 11th 2012, on another six of the target population. At this stage, the researcher is very much interested in the actual responses of the six participants and whether those contrasting strategies suggested in the first pilot study have any statistical problems.

The main aim of the second pilot study was to check for the reliability of the strategy questionnaire and the apprehension scale. Mr Al-Zahrani, also, commented on the validity of the second version. He suggested translating the whole questionnaire into Arabic. In addition, he said that some of the writing strategies mentioned in the questionnaire did not seem to take into account the fact that students write in different situations for different purposes (e.g., they sometimes write in the classroom or at home doing an exercise with no pressure upon them, while sometimes they write under pressure in exams). For example, writing strategies used during exams might not be used at home and vice versa. However, strategies are meant to include all situations and purposes that students might be exposed to.

In addition, Mr Al-Zahrani argued that some of the writing strategies mentioned might disappear in the future because of technology. For example, typing on computer now can solve many grammatical and spelling matters that contradict regular handwriting. In fact, this is the point that the researcher wants to make in convincing the educational authority in JIC to reconsider the way writing is traditionally taught and assessed. Furthermore, Mr Al-Zahrani found the questionnaire to be quite long. It took students almost 45 minutes to finish. Finally, he said, 'the

glossary is useful; however, students kept asking about some strategies that they didn't understand. Consequently, I would suggest Arabic translation for the whole questionnaire'.

On Sunday 19th February 2012, the researcher received the results of the second pilot study by e-mail. He typed the results in the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) to compute reliability. The Cronbach's alpha of the 50 items was .85, indicating high reliability.

However, the split-half method (to measure consistency of responses across two randomly divided sets of items) and the test-retest method (to measure consistency of the over-all scores of the participants from time to time) showed a very low reliability. The Spearman-Brown Coefficient was .41, and the test-retest reliability of the questionnaire as a product-process strategy scale was .350. These statistical results forced the researcher to reconsider his 50 items and to think about the first validity checkers' comments on the contrasting strategies. The researcher, therefore, deleted 10 items (equally divided between process and product strategies), including those items suggested to be deleted by the validity checkers in the first pilot study and other items that can be combined in one item instead of two. Those items are (see Appendix 2) 2, 7, 15, 16, 18, 22, 26, 33, 37 and 45. Consequently, the researcher noticed that both split-half and test-retest reliabilities of the remaining 40 items increased significantly. After this amendment, the split-half reliability became .80 and the test-retest reliability became .64. The Cronbach's alpha also increased to .857. The researcher, therefore, used the 40-item strategy questionnaire instead of the 50-item one. The scoring formula, thus, is changed to the following: 120 + the scores of the process strategies – the scores of the product strategies. Scores may range from a low of 40 to a high of 200. Scores from 40 to 93 reflect a more process-oriented strategy user; scores from

94 to 147 reflect users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies; and scores from 148 to 200 reflect a more product-oriented strategy user.

Finally, the researcher fully understands that using a questionnaire as a research instrument does not provide a thorough understanding of participants' strategy use. However, the aim was to get some insights into general tendencies of the Saudi undergraduates who are writing English for specific purposes. On the other hand, in taking this limitation of the questionnaires into account, the researcher decided to use another research instrument to get more details about his research population and to enhance the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire. This instrument is the think-aloud protocols, as discussed in the following subsection.

4.3.2.2. Think-aloud protocols

The second instrument used for investigating the participants' writing strategies was the think-aloud protocols. With think-aloud protocols, subjects are supposed to be able to verbalise their cognitive processes for more in-depth and detailed information. Think-aloud protocols, as stated by Green (1998), are considered a qualitative instrument since 'standard statistical procedures cannot be directly applied to the verbal report data' (p. 2). However, consistent with the general quantitative strategy of the research, data to be gathered from this technique will be coded for a quantitative analysis to triangulate the findings of the strategy questionnaire. This agrees with Cohen's (1998, p. 39) view of verbal report protocols as a complement to other means of research. In addition, as reviewed by Abdel-Latif (2009), the think-aloud protocol was the second most frequently used instrument in more than 90 ESL/EFL writing process studies. The first was text analysis. Think-aloud protocols include text analysis as writers were supposed to verbalise everything

in their minds including their texts. The texts and the concurrent verbalisations are transcribed and coded for analysis (Abdel-Latif, 2009).

Adoption of this technique as a research instrument to explore writing strategies has the following advantages:

- Think-aloud protocols can reveal unattainable writing strategies. They are considered 'a key to the mysteries residing within the black box of the writer's mind' (Smagorinsky, 1994, p. 15).
- They can capture more direct and detailed information about what is going on in the writers mind during the act of composition (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 368).
- In reviewing studies using think-aloud protocols, Ericsson and Simon (1993) did not find evidence to prove that think-aloud protocols change the course or the structure of the task being studied.
- They are seen as 'the richest data source based on which researchers can build cognitive models of composing process' (Abdel-Latif, 2009, p. 62).
- They can provide 'a more viable – perhaps the most viable – means of obtaining empirical evidence as to strategy use than do other means' (Cohen, 1998, p. 34).
- In writing strategy studies, the use of this method became so traditional and standardised that findings across studies can be compared (Krapels, 1990b, p. 12).

On the other hand, using think-aloud protocols as an instrument to explore learning strategies in general and writing strategies in particular has been criticised for the following disadvantages:

- Think-aloud protocols might force the writers to do more than one thing at a time; this might affect the performance, interfere with the normal composing processes and interrupt and distort the train of thoughts (Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 412; Janssen et al., 1996, p. 233).
- There is some doubt about the reality of composing situations when one is verbalising aloud his thought while writing (Zamel, 1983, p. 169).
- Individual differences might play a role in producing different levels of verbalisations on the same task—something that can negatively affect the reliability of the method (Green, 1998, p. 11).
- Composing aloud is claimed to change the process of composing substantially; composing aloud was found not to be the same as composing silently (Perl, 1980).
- In general, most unconscious strategies cannot be identified, and if they are conscious, they might not be reported correctly (Cohen, 1991, p. 136). Thus, think-aloud protocols 'do not elicit all cognitive activity, and therefore [they] are incomplete' (Smagorinsky, 1994, p. 4). For example, the reasoning strategies might not be reported because the participants are not recommended to justify or explain their thoughts and decisions while verbalising their strategies (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).
- This method may provide researchers with 'insight into what people perceive they are doing as they write, rather than what they are actually doing' (Krapels, 1990b, p. 12).
- Results of think-aloud protocols might be difficult to generalise due to the limited number of the participants involved (McDonough, 1995, p. 66; White, 1985).

- White (1985) stated that the problem with introspective instruments is in their 'selection decisions and process, which determine who will participate in a study' (p. 202).

The previous disadvantages of think-aloud protocols were related to the questionable validity and reliability of the technique. The validity refers to whether the technique is truly successful in matching the verbalised data with the actual cognitive processes used during the task (Green, 1998, p. 10). Some researchers argue that writing, thinking and talking aloud at the same time might distort the verbalised data in a way that what is verbalised does not match the reality (Janssen et al., 1996, p. 223). However, Ericsson and Simon (1993, p. 79) defended the technique by claiming that precise correspondence between the heeded information and the verbalised one cannot be realistic. Thus, validity can be established as long as a close correspondence is represented. The other related concept to validity is reliability, which refers to 'the likelihood that similar verbal reports might be produced by the same individual presented with the same or very similar tasks' (Green, 1998, p. 11). In other words, intra-individual variables lead to questionable reliability. In addition, inter-individual, contextual and task differences might threaten the reliability of the technique (Green, 1998, p. 12).

Reliability and validity, therefore, are so complicated in think-aloud protocols that the major recommended solution is only to reduce what is called the 'reactivity' of the technique. As mentioned earlier in the disadvantages, reactivity refers to 'the fact that having to write and verbalise thoughts at the same time may disrupt the writer's cognitive processes in comparison with what she or he would do when writing in a different condition' (Manchón et al., 2005, p. 194). Smagorinsky (1989) argued that the assumed reactivity of think-aloud protocols is less likely to happen in the field of

writing strategies because the nature of writing is a 'mere transmission of thoughts to paper, a formal expression of thoughts, than a manifestation of decision' (p. 467). Therefore, the act of thinking aloud does not disrupt the natural process of writing since writing is a manifestation of thinking. However, Janssen et al. (1996) distinguished between knowledge-transforming writing tasks and knowledge-telling writing tasks. Reactivity is claimed to be higher in the knowledge-transforming tasks because they require more problem-solving processes than the knowledge-telling tasks. Nevertheless, since think-aloud protocols reveal the conscious strategies more than the unconscious ones, it is claimed that the more problem-solving a writing task involves, the more likely it is for the participants to be conscious in revealing their cognitive processes (Manchón et al., 2005, p. 194).

Overall, researchers are recommended to reduce reactivity and enhance validity and reliability of think-aloud protocols by the following means:

- The participants should have clear instruction and sufficient training in how to verbalise as much as they can of their actual mental processes without changing their order (Ericsson & Simon, 1993, p. 79).
- The participants should not explain or justify their thoughts while they are in the process of verbalisation (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).
- If possible, the participants need to verbalise their thoughts without the presence of the researcher as this presence might negatively affect the accuracy of their verbalisations (Chamot, 2001, p. 28; Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

The think-aloud technique was used in the present study two weeks after measuring the participants' self-report of writing strategies, writing competence and strategy apprehension. Based on the findings from the measures of competence and

apprehension, four participants were randomly selected to participate in the think-aloud protocols: (1) a high-competent writer, (2) a low-competent writer, (3) a high-apprehensive strategy user and (4) a low-apprehensive strategy user. The selection was from among those who previously signed an agreement form stating their willingness to participate in this instrument and gave their permission to be videotaped while writing. The size of the participants was decided upon based on the fact that this technique, besides its supplementary nature, is demanding and time-consuming. Two hours of data collection from one participant was supposed to take about 10 to 15 hours to transcribe the verbal protocols (Sasaki, 2005). In the present research, 30 minutes of verbal protocols took about 6 hours to transcribe and 2 hours to analyse.

After reviewing related literature and previous studies that used think-aloud protocols, the researcher decided to go through the following steps and procedures in administering this instrument:-

1. The researcher met twice with the participants. The first meeting was with the group as a whole to explain and introduce think-aloud protocols. In this meeting, the participants were familiarised with the technique in general and how it is properly used to elicit information from verbalised behaviours during writing. During this meeting, the researcher demonstrated think aloud himself while trying to solve a mathematical equation. Choosing maths as a warm-up exercise is adequately explanatory without influencing the content of the participants own reporting. In addition, the researcher sought to explain the difference between thinking aloud and talking aloud (Green, 1998, p. 5). The participants were instructed to report both the information that they want to say and write and the thoughts that are going in their minds and have not been said or written. Furthermore, the participants were trained to verbalise their

thoughts without justifying or explaining them (Ericsson & Simon, 1993, p. 79). This was followed by asking the participants to practice thinking aloud themselves. After this introductory meeting, the researcher made appointments for think-aloud meetings at the convenience of each subject. Each think-aloud session took place in a classroom in the English Language Centre.

2. In addition, the participants were clearly instructed that anything they write would not be scored and would not affect their academic achievement. Their writings would not be looked at by anyone else other than the researcher. They were also exhorted to write in the normal way they got used to without changing their writing habits and behaviours. In addition, they may verbalise in English or Arabic, or both, depending on which language they usually use.
3. Before each informant started thinking aloud in the assigned session, they were reminded of the instructions mentioned in the introductory meeting. Each subject was instructed again to verbalise as much as possible while involved in the process of writing.
4. Before the participants started to write, a camera was set up with its focus on their hands and pen movements. In a contrast to a tape recorder, the camera provided the researcher with a full picture about the text and its changes and modifications over the writing process. Once the participant is ready to start reading the topic, the researcher began the recording and left the room so that the participants could think-aloud spontaneously without being negatively affected/constrained by the presence of the researcher.
5. The participants used a similar, but not identical, argumentative writing task to the one they used in the writing competence measure. The reason is to obtain more reliable data about the participants' writing strategies, since their

strategies might have been affected by their familiarity with the task. The task was timed within one hour and dictionaries were not allowed. The choice of the topic is based on the researcher's knowledge of the type of topics that students in JIC are asked to write about, given that the researcher taught in JIC for more than eight years.

One of the methodological problems faced in administering this instrument is that it was very difficult to control the topic of the writing task from being disclosed to other participants. The four informants were from the same level year and might have been in contact with one another, and could, therefore, have disclosed the topic.

The data to be obtained from the think-aloud protocols was transcribed and coded for analysis. For more details on this, refer to section 4.4.

4.3.3. Measuring writing-strategy apprehension

The fourth instrument used was the measurement of writing-strategy apprehension. In the majority of the ESL/EFL studies reviewed in section 3.3.3, the WAT and its L2 version the Second Language Writing Apprehension Test (SLWAT) have been the most used instruments for measuring writers' apprehension.

The Daly-Miller (1975) WAT is believed to be the first systematic instrument to measure writing apprehension and the most commonly used research tool in measuring L2/FL writing apprehension (e.g. Cheng et al., 1999; Elkhatib, 1984; Hadaway, 1987; Lee, 2005; Masny & Foxall, 1992; Wu, 1992). The WAT is a self-report tool of 26 items using five-point Likert-type scales. The standard method of evaluating the Daly-Miller Test for Writing Apprehension is to total the response scores of the twenty-six statements. Scores may range from a low of 26 to a high of

130. A higher score reflects a lower level of apprehension; a lower score reflects a higher level of apprehension. The scoring system is purposely convoluted so that it is not self-evident to the test-taker. Half of the items indicate the presence of apprehension and are assigned a positive point value. The other half of the items, however, indicates the absence of apprehension and is assigned a negative point value (Chip, 1992). The WAT 'has been shown to be an instrument of satisfactory internal consistency reliability as well as concurrent and predictive validity' (Cheng, 2004, p. 314). The authors reported that the reliability of the instrument obtained by a split half technique was 0.940. The test-retest reliability over a week was 0.923, and the reliability coefficient was 0.921. The instrument proved to be highly reliable.

However, many researchers (Cheng, 2004; Chip, 1992; Hettich, 1994; McKain, 1991; Poff, 2004) have criticised the WAT for numerous reasons. It was developed originally for L1 writers, and some essential aspects of second language might not be considered (Cheng, 2004). Moreover, there were some questions raised about its validity because it defines apprehension as a unidimensional construct but measures more than one construct without subscales.

In addition, the WAT was claimed to be an apprehension test; however, it mixed factors without classifications. These include positive feelings about writing and self-efficacy or outcome expectancies (McKain, 1991); low self-confidence, aversiveness of writing and evaluation of apprehension (Cheng et al., 1999); writing self-concept, affective performance reaction and reaction to evaluation (Shaver, 1990); showing to others (Chip, 1992); writer's block and composing process (Poff, 2004); and self-confidence in ability to write rather than anxiety about writing (Richmond & Dickson-Markman, 1985). The WAT did not make a clear distinction 'between anxious feelings and attitudes'; it is assumed that anxiety and negative attitudes

reinforce each other in some way, leading to avoidance of writing. Thus, it is not always clear whether negative attitudes toward writing go hand in hand with feelings of anxiety, although this is often the case; by distinguishing attitude and anxiety, we can get a clearer picture of the factors that contribute to and constitute writing apprehension (Hettich, 1994, p. 6).

The previous discussion shows that the WAT is not considered a pure measure of writing apprehension, especially in an L2 context (Cheng, 2004). If apprehension is viewed as a uni-dimensional construct, then the measurement tool should be consistent with this view. McKain (1991, p. 18), for example, defined writing apprehension as a uni-dimensional construct related to anxious feelings. Therefore, he developed a measure of writing apprehension that distinguished it from self-confidence, avoidance behaviours, enjoyment of writing and beliefs of writing ability. On the other hand, the previous analyses of the WAT also showed that apprehension can be multidimensional[17]. Thus, it needs to be measured by several subscales (Cheng, 2004). Researchers worked to develop a research instrument that can systematically address the multidimensionality of the apprehension and avoid the aforementioned problems.

Supporting the multidimensional perspective, Cheng (2004) developed what can be considered as the first devised, self-report measure of L2/FL writing anxiety. He called his measurement tool the 'Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory' (SLWAI). This scale consists of three subscales: Somatic Anxiety, Cognitive Anxiety and Avoidance Behaviour. Cognitive anxiety refers to the mental aspects and the worry factors, such as negative expectations, preoccupation with performance and

[17] As stated by Cheng (2004:315), 'A unidimensional conceptualization of anxiety treats anxiety as a unitary, global construct. A unidimensional measure of anxiety contains no subscales and produces only one single summed score. In contrast, a multidimensional conceptualization of anxiety defines anxiety as being composed of several different but intercorrelated facets or dimensions. Each facet or dimension of the anxiety construct can be seen as representing a separate construct. However, at a more abstract level, these facets or dimensions are all integral parts of the more global anxiety construct. Developed from this perspective, a multidimensional measure of anxiety comprises several subscales designed to measure the various facets/dimensions of anxiety. The items on each subscale can be summed to get a score representing the degree of reaction in each facet/dimension of anxiety'.

concern about others' perceptions. Somatic anxiety refers to the emotional factors and the physiological effects of anxiety, such as tension, pounding heart, upset and unpleasant feeling states. Avoidance behaviour refers to behaviours such as avoiding writing situations, procrastination and withdrawal (Cheng, 2004). The author reported that the reliability of the instrument obtained by a Cronbach's coefficient was 0.940. The test-retest reliability was 0.85. 'These results indicated that the SLWAI as a whole was a measure of high internal consistency and respectable temporal stability' (Cheng, 2004, p. 327).

Cheng's (2004) L2 writing anxiety scale, however, did not seem to be suitable for the present research. The reason is that Cheng (2004) defines L2 writing anxiety as 'a relatively stable anxiety disposition associated with L2 writing, which involves a variety of dysfunctional thoughts, increased physiological arousal, and maladaptive behaviours' (p. 319). The present research, however, defines writing apprehension as 'the abnormally high level of an anxious, agitated or stressful feeling in ESL/EFL writing-strategy related situations, regardless of blocking and evaluation'. Thus, these definitions differ in the dispositional-situational nature of apprehension. As a result, they differ in the dimensionality of the construct. In other words, the present research views strategy apprehension to be related to feelings of strategies. However, Cheng's definition views anxiety as a construct of three dimensions. In addition, Cheng (2004) believes that anxiety is a construct of three independent but associated and interactive constructs, as mentioned above. It is assumed they reinforce each other in some way, leading to writing anxiety.

Nevertheless, those constructs seem to be quite incomprehensible, to the extent that it might be difficult to precisely identify their relationship or investigate their intangible interaction. Thus, apprehension in this study is specifically and

operationally viewed as a situational feeling specific to a writing strategy. Accordingly, such a definition entails developing an instrument measuring writing apprehension as a situational feeling (strategy-related) rather than cognitive or avoidance behaviour.

4.3.3.1. Developing and validating a Writing-strategy Apprehension Scale

As noted in subsection 4.3.2.1, the writing apprehension scale was part C in the self-completion questionnaire (see Appendix 1). The main aim of this part is to correlate the participants' writing strategy apprehension to their dominant type of strategy use. This is believed to help writing teachers to 'design syllabi, plan lessons, construct assignments, lead activities that capitalise on students' strengths and overcome their weaknesses, and avoid student [troubles with particular writing strategies]' (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 87). This part of the questionnaire consisted originally of 22 items before reliability amendments (see Appendix 2). Those items were equally divided into positively loaded items with apprehension and negatively loaded items without apprehension. Both types of items were randomly sequenced to avoid the bias of choice and being evident to the participants. In addition, the researcher adapted the scoring system of Daly and Miller's WAT to reduce the bias of choice and social desirability. All items were worded to be directly or indirectly related to the micro level of writing strategies except items 13 and 20, which are related to the macro level of English writing in general. The scale used a five-point Likert-type model.

In the context of the measure's validity and reliability, the researcher followed three steps to adapt and validate an EFL writing-strategy apprehension scale:

1. Defining 'writing-strategy apprehension'

2. Writing, selecting and adapting the items of the scale
3. Checking the validity and reliability of the scale

The first step was to define 'Writing Apprehension'. The current study is more interested in measuring writing apprehension or the absence of it (that is more situation-specific and strategy-related) than the general-state phenomenon of a foreign language apprehension. Writing-strategy apprehension, therefore, is defined as 'the abnormally high level of an anxious, agitated or stressful feeling in ESL/EFL writing-strategy-related situations, regardless of blocking[18] and fear of evaluation'. Hettich (1994) noted that:

> It is not always clear whether negative attitudes toward writing go hand in hand with feelings of anxiety, although this is often the case; by distinguishing attitude and anxiety, we can get a clearer picture of the factors that contribute to and constitute writing apprehension. (p. 6)

The study's definition, therefore, will exclude negative attitudes, blocking and avoidance behaviours (fear of evaluation). It focuses mainly on feelings and emotions that are writing-specific and strategy-related. The presence of stressful, agitated feelings is believed to indicate apprehension, while the absence of such feelings seems to indicate the absence of apprehension. Based on this, the researcher moves on to step two.

The second step was to write, select and adapt the items of the test. The researcher had reviewed a number of scales (Cheng, 2004; Cornwell & McKay, 1999; Daly & Miller, 1975; Gungle &Taylor, 1989; Hadaway, 1987; Hassan, 2001; Masny & Foxall, 1992) measuring writing apprehension. The review showed that almost all

[18] A writer's block is defined as "an inability to begin or continue writing for reasons other than a lack of basic skill or commitment" (Rose, 1984:4). Not all blockers are apprehensive and not all apprehensive writers are blocked.

those scales and others were either a replication or a modification of Daly and Millers' seminal WAT (1975), except Cheng's SLWAI (2004), which is believed to be an original contribution to the measurement of L2 writing apprehension. The researcher, therefore, depended on those two measures and decided to either select or adapt items that are consistent with the definition of writing apprehension in the present study. In addition, more items needed to be added for the measure to be more situation-specific and strategy-related. The added items were devised by the researcher based on his readings on language anxiety (Cheng et al., 1999; Horwitz et al.,1986) in general, and writing anxiety in particular (Cheng, 2002, 2004). Those added, selected and adapted items of the first WSAS (See Appendix 3) are illustrated in Table 4:

Table 4 Writing-strategy Apprehension Scale Items Source

Daly's and Miller's (1975)		Cheng's (2004)		Added items
Selected Items	Modified Items	Selected Items	Modified Items	1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 21.
0	2, 22	20	15, 19	

From Daly and Miller's WAT, no item was selected and two items were modified. Item 2, for example (See Appendix 2), '*I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas*', was modified from '*I have a terrible time organising my ideas in a composition course*'. This item originally does not seem to be obviously related to feeling and is not worded in a way that makes it seem strategy-related. Writers might be either rigid or flexible in their strategies. Being nervous when changing ideas might indicate a rigid strategic action, and vice versa. Similarly, from Cheng's (2004) scale, Items 15 and 19 were modified to meet the existing study's definition. In Cheng's scale, Item 15 says '*I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint*'. Although it measures feeling, it is not directly or indirectly related to any writing strategy. It was, therefore, rewritten to relate it to the strategy of L1 use: '*I*

feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic'. Moreover, Item 19 was modified to start with '*I feel apprehensive*' instead of '*I worry*', because worrying seems to be related to cognition or mental anxiety more than feelings (Cheng, 2004).

The third step was to check the validity and the reliability of the WSAS. Since the WSAS was part C in the self-completion questionnaire, the procedures followed for validity and reliability were the same ones mentioned above in Subsection 4.3.2.1.1. However, due to problems in validity and reliability, the scale was piloted again separately. Unfortunately, the 22 items of the WSAS were statistically proven unreliable again. The Cronbach's Alpha was .242. This disappointing result might be due to the low number of the participants in the pilot studies (6 participants only). On the other hand, it was noticed from the statistics that the cause of this might be the 11 negatively-loaded items mentioned above. When they were isolated from the scale, the reliability increased to .652. Nevertheless, an alpha of .65 seems to indicate a low reliability.

In the final column of the Item-Total Statistics of the positively loaded items (see Table 5 below), the value that Cronbach's alpha is shown as it would be if a particular item were deleted from the scale. The table shows that if Item 10 (*I feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic*) is deleted, the reliability will increase dramatically. Removal of statement 10, therefore, would lead to a big improvement in Cronbach's alpha from .65 to .74. As noted by many SPSS analysts (DeVellis, 1991; George & Mallery, 2003; Pallant, 2005) Cronbach's alpha of .80 to .89 is very good, and .70 is the cut-off value for being acceptable. The value as low as .60 is questionable, but it is not uncommon in exploratory research. That statement, therefore, was removed.

Table 5 Item-Total Statistics for the Positively Loaded Items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1) I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas.	26.3333	27.467	.400	.609
2) I get nervous when editing my writing.	24.8333	30.567	.242	.642
3) It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written.	25.8333	34.967	-.052	.676
4) Grammatical mistakes make me feel apprehensive.	26.3333	27.067	.645	.569
5) Spellings and punctuations are stressful.	26.0000	27.600	.280	.644
6) I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.	26.3333	27.067	.518	.586
7) I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas.	26.6667	29.067	.821	.581
8) I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills.	26.5000	29.900	.297	.632
9) I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects.	26.8333	33.367	.130	.655
10) I feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic.	25.0000	37.600	-.263	.745
11) I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly.	26.0000	25.200	.849	.529

In addition, and in order to obtain further internal reliability, the split-half reliability (to measure consistency of responses across two randomly divided sets of items) of the remaining 10 items was checked and found .70 on the estimate of Spearman-Brown coefficient. Moreover, the correlation coefficient was .92 for the test-retest method of reliability (to measure consistency of the overall scores of the participants from time to time). However, this method has two problems. First, the participants' responses might change due to time span. Second, repeating the same test might influence how the respondents reply to the second test (Bryman, 2004, p. 71). To overcome these problems, it is supposed that one week between the two tests would not allow for significant changes in the participants' writing strategies or

apprehension and would reduce the effects of memory. After these acceptable values of reliability were achieved, the 10-item scale was used instead of the 22-item one[19].

The scoring system of the 10-item scale, therefore, changed after this amendment. It would not be possible to follow the scoring system of Daly and Miller's WAT, noted earlier. The new scoring system is much easier. It depends on adding the points without subtracting. The scores for the levels of apprehension were divided equally for high and low levels. However, it was necessary to distinguish between the two levels by adding a middle level where we can acknowledge the grey area. For this area, nine scores were given. Adding a middle level is a novel contribution of the present study, since the majority of previous studies in writing apprehension and anxiety used only a cutting score for two levels, which does not seem to be representative of the nature of apprehension per se.

Table 6 Scores Distribution of Apprehension Levels

10 – 25	26-34	35-50
High apprehensive 16 scores	Average 9 scores	Low apprehensive 16 scores

To further enhance the validity and reliability of the WSAS, the researcher decided to use another research instrument, semi-structured interviews, for triangulation purposes.

4.3.3.2. Semi-structured interviews

The fifth research tool was a semi-structured interview. Interviews in this study are employed in conjunction with the apprehension scale to elicit data on students' apprehensive feelings in a strategy-related situation. In semi-structured interviews, the

[19] It was not the main purpose of this study to construct a highly valid and reliable measure of writing-strategy apprehension scale; otherwise, it would be informative to check for construct and convergent validities and do factor analysis.

interviewer has a list of questions within an interview guide for the course and close of the interview; however, the informants have a great deal of flexibility in how to reply. The semi-structured format is preferred in the present research due to the following benefits:

- This format will satisfy the interest in combining the participants' point of view with the researcher's list of issues.
- This format is preferred since the researcher has specific issues to address and a fairly clear focus on the subject of investigation (Bryman, 2004).
- This qualitative method is used to complement the quantitative apprehension scale. By doing so, the participants' perceptions of writing apprehension might not be distorted by an instrument that might not provide in-depth details.
- This method might provide findings that are closer to the participants' real feelings, and results could not be manipulated.
- In a qualitative interview, in general, data is rich and spontaneous; the method is more flexible in terms of wording and ordering the questions; and the interviewer can encourage the respondents and provide them with more clarification. Such advantages will build confidence and motivation in the part of the informants (Bryman, 2004).

Interviews have been criticised (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2000; Nunan, 1992; Rose, 1984) for a number of methodological and ethical issues. First, they are time-consuming in terms of recording, transcribing and coding (the average transcribing time is 5 to 6 hours per hour of speech). Second, interviewers' characteristics might have an impact on respondents' replies. Moreover, interviews cannot be carried out on a large scale, and the participants cannot be anonymous. In

addition, informants might provide data that is perceived to be more socially desirable than data that is not. Furthermore, the informants' mode and memory might negatively affect the amount and accuracy of data needed. Finally, the verbal behaviours of the informants might be taken for granted, and some implicit features might not be reported.

The semi-structured interviews were used to explore in greater depth issues relating to the participants' feelings and emotions while writing in English for specific purposes and/or as a foreign language. This qualitative-research instrument, as noted above, is to be used to avoid any assumed lack of data obtained from the ready-revealed apprehension questionnaire (WSAS).

This instrument was used two weeks after the administration of the argumentative writing task and the self-report questionnaires measuring the participants' writing strategies and writing-strategy apprehension. Based on the findings from the measures of competence and apprehension, eight participants were randomly selected for the interviews: (1) two high-competent writers, (2) two low-competent writers, (3) two high-apprehensive writers and (4) two low-apprehensive writers. The selection was from those who previously wrote their names stating their willingness to participate in this instrument and obtaining their permission to be tape-recorded while interviewed. The number of participants was decided upon because this tool, besides its supplementary purpose, is demanding and time-consuming.

The questions of the semi-structured interview (see Appendix 3) focused on the participants' feelings and emotions towards writing strategies and their perceptions of their English writing in general. In addition, there were questions on students' perceptions concerning writing instructions they received in JIC. All the questions were open-ended questions to get more reliable data that were closer to the

participants' real feelings. Data from such types of questions could not be manipulated/influenced as could be the case with close-ended questions.

The interviewees were given the choice to use either Arabic or English (or both when necessary) to express themselves more clearly and credibly. Translations were made with care to ensure accuracy.

Due to time factor, it was not possible for the researcher to train the informants on interviews. Interview training would have been very helpful for both the researcher and the participants. If training had been done, the researcher would not have needed to repeat the interview twice with two of the interviewees because of their nervousness and hesitation to reply. In addition, if training had been done, subjects would have responded more quickly and may not have needed a couple of minutes to relax. Not having interview training was certainly one of the drawbacks of this study.

The data obtained from the semi-structured interviews were transcribed and coded for analysis. For more details on this, refer to section 4.4.

4.3.4. Measuring the effect of the process-based-writing strategy instruction

This section aims to give answers to the second main research question and its two sub-questions (see Section 4.1.1). The second research question was: *Is there a significant change in strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence levels after process-based strategy instruction?*

Giving an answer to that question above entails a pedagogical intervention. The researcher manipulated an independent variable (7 process-oriented writing strategies, see Table 7 below) and measured dependent variables (writing apprehension levels and writing competence levels) in order to establish a correlation

between them. This intervention was planned to be quasi-experimental[20] with one experimental group and one control group. However, due to the conditions set up for selecting the participants in the intervention, the researcher was ethically and methodologically forced to do a pre-experimental treatment instead. It is 'pre' because it lacks both randomisation and control group. It is, however, an 'experiment' because it has a prescribed set of conditions that can allow measurement to take place.

As noted above, the initial design of the experiment was planned to include a control group; however, the conditions, which the researcher set for the experiment group, were partially applicable to few participants. Therefore, it was impossible to have two groups with the same conditions, where one could have served as a control group and the other as an experimental group. The planned conditions were: (1) each participant must agree voluntarily to participate, (2) each participant must be scaled as either an apprehensive or low competent writer; the most difficult condition was that (3) that each participant should be a more product-oriented strategy user. The first and second conditions were met by a number of participants; however, there were only two participants who were product-oriented strategy users; one refused to participate and the other was neither apprehensive nor low-competent. The researcher, therefore, was forced to change the conditions to: 'any volunteer participant who was scaled as either high apprehensive writer or scored as low competent writer, but reported almost never using at least five of the seven process-oriented writing strategies that are the focus of the intervention'. Out of the 121participants, there were only eleven participants who were eligible to take part in the strategy instruction sessions. Five of them did not volunteer to participate and only six participants did. However, one of the six dropped out after the first introductory meeting. As a result, only five participants were

[20] It was the present author's fault not to take this into account during the first and second pilot study. I was totally pre-occupied by the reliability and validity of the questionnaire and apprehension scale. I wrongly thought that I would find many participants who could be product-oriented.

available for the experiment (four high apprehensive writers, 3 of them were average competent writers and 1 was a low-competent writer, and one low competent writer who was also average apprehensive writer). The researcher, therefore, followed a one-group pre-test/post-test design of a pre-experimental study.

As thoroughly discussed by Donald Campbell and Julian Stanley (1966) in their classic book *Experimental and Quasi-experimental Designs for Research,* pre-experimental designs (despite the weaknesses in their scientific approach, lack of control and many threats to validity) are widely used in educational research. They are usually undertaken for exploratory and descriptive purposes when resources do not permit the development of other more authentic experiments. However, researchers need to be very cautious with the outcomes, and the results need to be treated as suggestions rather than facts. In addition, a pre-experimental design might be better used to describe relations rather than causations. This entails many rival and alternative explanations for the effect of the treatment on the dependent variables. Data analysis, therefore, needs to be descriptive, and paired samples t-test methods of analysis were applied for the pre-tests and post-tests.

The experimental group were pre-tested and post-tested on their knowledge of the seven process-based writing strategies (see Appendix 4). In addition, the four apprehensive writers were post-tested to measure their apprehension levels after the experiment and the two low competent writers were also post-tested to measure their competence levels after the intervention.

Although this design suffers from a low degree of control and weaknesses in internal and external validity, the intervention helped the researcher, as a critically reflective teacher, to get deep insights into methods of writing strategy instruction.

Regardless of scores and results, the participants' feedback about the experiment was very useful and insightful (see p. 247).

After three weeks of administering, scoring and analysing the writing argumentative task, the strategy questionnaire and the strategy apprehension scale, the strategy instruction sessions started on April 28th 2012 for 5 weeks and finished on May 30th (see Table 8 below). A five-week treatment of purposefully selected group is intended to control probable operating threats to internal validity in terms of history[21] and maturation.[22] However, the treatment might be vulnerable to other threats and effects (mortality threat,[23] testing threat,[24] regression threat,[25] Hawthorne effect,[26] and Novelty effect[27]), which were very difficult for the researcher to reduce or control (see Ekmekci, 1999). Nevertheless, having three pre-tests and post-tests (of process-strategy knowledge, of apprehension levels, and of competence levels) is argued to reduce the likelihood of maturation and regression threats. In addition, one can also argue that almost all research designs in social science are vulnerable to bias and design threats, which can affect the internal as well as external validity of study results. In other words, validity threats are there with varying ratios and cannot be completely avoided, though they may be reduced. 'The experiment is a profoundly human endeavour, affected by all the same human foibles as any other human endeavour' (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002, p. 30).

The seven process-based writing strategies that were instructed in the intervention are: (1) consulting resources, (2) freewriting, (3) brainstorming, (4) mind

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[21] The occurrence of any event which is not part of the treatment (see Ekmekci, 1999).
[22] The mental and physical changes that occur within subjects (ibid.).
[23] The loss of subjects for some reason during the study (ibid.).
[24] Subjects getting familiarized with test items after having taken the pre-test (ibid.).
[25] Selection of subjects based on their extreme scores (ibid).
[26] Students may be negatively or positively involved, thinking that they are involved in an experiment or getting special attention (ibid).
[27] Students are interested and motivated due to getting involved in a different activity, which indirectly affects their performance positively (ibid).

mapping, (5) using Arabic, (6) editing and (7) drafting (6 and 7 were combined and taught together in a lesson because they are very much related). In order to teach those strategies, the researcher adopted a model that combines a general agreement between the model of Grenfell and Harris (1999, p. 73) and Macaro's (2001, pp. 185–190) model of L2 writing strategy instruction. The agreement between the two models suggested strategy instruction follow five steps: (1) raising learners' strategy awareness by activities such as definitions, discussions, etc.; (2) modelling the strategies by the teacher and by other students; (3) supplying materials to apply and generally practice the selected strategies; (4) focused practice and gradual removal of scaffolding; and (5) evaluating the usefulness of the instructed strategy.

The impetus behind choosing those process-based strategies is related to the difficulties of having ideas. The researcher agrees with Raimes' (1983b) observation that 'when students complain, as they often do, about how difficult it is to write in a second language, they are talking not only about the difficulty of 'finding' the right words and using the correct grammar but about the difficulty of finding and expressing *ideas* in a new language' (p. 13). By the process of applying those writing strategies (authentic reading, freewriting, brainstorming, mind mapping, using Arabic and drafting) 'writers can be shown how to exclude extraneous or unrelated ideas, to narrow elements that cohere and can be explicitly linked, and to arrange them in ways that exhibit some sort of logic' (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 157). What all these strategies have in common is their concern with ideas. In other words, they all concern generating ideas, keeping ideas flowing when being stuck with lexical or syntactical problems or generating more ideas by revising already-generated ideas. By instructing and practicing those strategies in class, the researcher asserts that students would eventually incorporate them into their own repertoire of writing strategies.

In addition, the idea of selecting only process-oriented writing strategies for instruction came from the literature on strategy clustering or grouping (Cohen, 1998; Griffiths, 2008). It has been argued that clustering strategies would be more effective for enhancing learning and performance than isolating them. This study, therefore, might offer a minor contribution to the emergent field of strategy clusters investigation.

Students have the choice to use the strategy that best suits their needs in generating ideas. The researcher believes that those strategies can 'become gateways to open competencies and do better writing' (Tarvers, 1993, p. 78, as cited in Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005).[28] In addition, they might put students in a more relaxed and comfortable mood while involved in writing. The researcher understands that such a limited number of strategies might not have a strong impact on students' apprehension and competence. However, the ultimate aim is not to claim a strong effect. On the contrary, it is a simple intervention designed to have a 'simple pedagogical change' for the sake of observing and understanding its potential consequences (Newman et al., 1989, as cited in Wang, 2007).[29]

There were 18 training sessions with three sessions each (on three successive days) covering each of the six process-based writing strategy lessons. In addition, there was one more session as an introduction at the beginning and one session as a revision at the end. Each session lasted for 50 minutes. The total amount of time invested in all the training sessions was approximately 15 hours. Before starting the strategy instruction, the researcher introduced the process approach and its principles and preferred writing strategies in general. Subsequently, the first session for each

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[28] Travers, J.K. (1993). *Teaching writing: Theories and practice*. New York: HarperCollins.
[29] Newman, D., P. Griffin, and M. Cole. (1989).*The construction zone: Working for cognitive change in schools*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

strategy instruction started with introducing the strategy and discussing its possible meanings and functions with the students. Before the teacher gave an explanation, students were given time to think and talk about the strategy, its meaning, its function and its relation to their class or personal writings. Following this, a practical definition of the strategy under discussion was provided with examples. Then, the researcher modelled the strategy himself on the spot or by using supporting materials, and then he asked students to model it in pairs. The second session started with a general review, and then students were given hand-outs to practice using that strategy by writing about a particular topic. After that, there was a pair activity or a general discussion about the use of that strategy. Finally, the second session ended with the researcher assigning an optional topic for homework and asking students to reinforce the use of that strategy at home and to come back to class with more opinions and noted difficulties regarding that strategy. In the third session, the researcher started again with a quick review of what has been done in the last session. Then, students discuss their homework in pairs; they were then asked to, individually, tell the class about their opinions and difficulties in the use of that strategy.

See Appendix 6 for a typical lesson plan for the training of the first strategy. This demonstrates how instruction sessions had run in practice. This lesson would stand typically for the rest of the five lessons. The rest of the lessons followed almost the same steps and procedures.

Table 7 shows generally how each of the seven process-based writing strategies, their definitions and their instruction materials were presented in six lessons. In addition, the table includes general examples and procedures followed in teaching that particular strategy.

Table 7 Strategy instruction of six process-based-writing-strategy lessons

Process-based Writing Strategy	Definition and General Procedures	Materials
Lesson 1: Consulting Resources	This is one of the planning strategies intended to generate general ideas for the proposed topic by reading relevant authentic resources, processing their ideas and rewriting them in one's own words. Writers can generate ideas by summarizing, speculating upon and reacting to the reading passages (Raimes, 1983b).	-Authentic materials such as newspapers, magazines, internet etc. - Copies from *Teaching ESL Compositions*.
Lesson 2: Free-writing	This is the strategy of releasing writers from accuracy and writing quickly on a topic to stimulate ideas and help identify things to include in the essay (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005:241). A student wrote for 10 minutes without stopping on a specific topic. If he got stuck, he could write, 'I am thinking, I am thinking' or repeat the last word over and over again.	- Teacher's free writing on the spot. - Students' journal and dairy writings.
Lesson 3: Brainstorming	It is a technique that "aims to allow writers to explore different facets of a topic, issue or text –privately or collectively" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005:148). It is "producing words, phrases, ideas as rapidly as possible, just as they occur to us, without concern for appropriateness, order, or accuracy" (Raimes, 1983b:10).	A prompt consisting of a picture or a photo followed by a series of questions.
Lesson 4: Mind maps	It is a visual technique for generating and classifying ideas for the proposed text by creating mind maps. Students write or draw a picture about the topic in the middle of the page and create a web of ideas related to that in a systematic way.	Hand-outs on steps and instructions to create a mind map from *Mind maps for Business* (Buzan, 2010).
Lesson 5: Using Arabic	It is the strategy of using one's native language to generate ideas or overcome lexical or syntactical problems while writing. This strategy has two applications: (A) writing bits of the text in Arabic and then translating the ideas into English. (B) If stuck with an English word in a sentence, write that word in Arabic then consult the dictionary at the end to write it in English.	A sample of draft essay that is randomly translated and contains some words and expressions in Arabic.
Lesson 6: Drafting: Leaving editing till the end and leaving the text aside for a while, then rereading it after writing another draft to compare and contrast the two drafts.	Drafting is a strategy of generating more ideas and organising previous ideas. While drafting, students leave editing till the end. Students can learn more about writing through [critical] reading (Keh, 1990:296). The teacher read a story and asked students to recreate their own version of the story. The idea was to see the difference between two versions. Writing is not editing. Writing is drafting. Students were supposed to write two drafts. The first draft was like an organized freewriting. The second draft focused on style, expressions and editing.	- Hand-outs from *Reason to Write* (Miller & Cohen, 2001). - Story-telling: the story of *Leaving Her Mark*. - A sample draft.

The previous six process-based writing strategy lessons were instructed in accordance with the timetable shown in Table 8. The timetable shows the date of instruction for each strategy and the topic of the writing task that students did for the sake of incorporating and employing that particular writing strategy in their writing.

Table 8 Writing Strategy Instruction Timetable

Week	Day	Strategy Lesson	Theme & Task
Week 1 (28-4-2012)	Saturday	Introduction	
	Sunday Monday Tuesday	Consulting Resources	Luther King
Week 2 (5-5-2012)	Wednesday Saturday Sunday	Freewriting	Life without a car is terrible, agree or disagree.
	Monday Tuesday Wednesday	Brainstorming	What does the picture say?
Week 3 (12-5-2012)	Saturday Sunday Monday	Mind-mapping	Money is the key to happiness, agree or disagree.
	Tuesday Wednesday Saturday	Using Arabic	Home vacation or broad vacation
Week 4 (19-5-2012)	Sunday Monday Tuesday	Drafting	Advantages and disadvantages of studying abroad.
	Wednesday	Final revision	
Week 5 (26-5-2012)	Saturday Sunday Monday Tuesday Wednesday	Post-tests & finalising data collection	

The next section concludes the chapter of methodology by guiding the reader through the process and procedures of data analysis.

4.4. Data Analysis

In this section, the procedures and methods of data analysis are presented and explained. In the present study, data analysis is based on the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the argumentative writing task, strategy questionnaire, think-aloud protocols, apprehension scale, writing-strategy apprehension interview and process-oriented strategy instruction. Before starting to talk about the way the researcher has analysed his data, it seems useful to provide the reader with the data bank of the research, as presented in table 9.

Table 9 Data Bank

	Data Sources	Objectives	Participants
1	Questionnaires	To identify writing strategies.	121
2	Apprehension Test	To measure levels of strategy apprehension.	121
3	An Argumentative Writing Task	To measure writing competence.	68
4	Semester Writing Achievement scores	To compare semester scores with scores in the argumentative task.	121
5	Interviews	To investigate in-depth the sources of writing strategy apprehension	8 participants: - 2 high apprehensive (12:26 & 13:29). - 2 low apprehensive (13:39 & 7:41). - 2 high competent (15:00 & 10:00). - 2 low competent (14:20 & 12:59).
6	Think-aloud sessions	To deeply investigate the participants' writing strategies.	4 participants: - 1 high apprehensive (15:30). - 1 low apprehensive (40:20) - 1 high competent (40:32). - 1 low competent (14:45).
7	Strategy instruction	To measure the effect of the seven process-oriented writing strategies on apprehensive and low competent writers.	6 participants: - 4 high apprehensive - 2 low competent

The following subsection starts describing the analysis of data obtained from the first research instrument: the argumentative writing task, to measure writing competence.

4.4.1. Analyzing data obtained from the argumentative writing task

As discussed in subsection 4.3.1, the 68 participants' essays were scored and rated according to a criterion-referenced rating instrument from the ESL Composition Profile developed by Jacobs et al. (1981). The 'profile' is a 100-point analytic rating scale of five components of writing (content, 30 points; organisation, 20 points; vocabulary, 20 points; language use, 25 points; and mechanics, 5 points). Each component, as well as the overall rating scale of the five components, is broken down into four scored mastery levels (excellent to very good (83–100 points); good to average (63–83 points): fair to poor (52–63 points); and very poor (34–52 points). However, for the purpose of the research, the researcher classified the participants' scores into three writing competence levels (high competence, average competence, and low competence) instead of the above four mastery levels. The researcher considered the level of fair to poor as the level of low competence in the broken-down scores of the scale and the total score of 51 as the minimum score. If we divide 51 by 3 (the three levels of competence), the average numerical range for the three categories will be about 17 points. The participants' scores, therefore, were classified as follows:

- More competent writers are those who scored between 84 and 100 (a range of 17 points).
- Average competence writers scored between 68 and 83 (a range of 16 points).
- Less competent writers scored between 51 and 67 (a range of 17 points).

This profile enables the researcher to compare the participants' overall levels of writing competence, as well as their levels of competence in the five components of the scale with their strategy types and their apprehension levels. In other words, we had three categories of strategy types and three levels of strategy apprehension. Therefore, it seems logical and practical for comparison and correlation purposes to also have three levels of writing competence.

On the other hand, the Profile's scoring guide has proved to be very popular and reliable for evaluating the complexity and unevenness of L2 students' writing proficiency (Haswell, 2005, pp. 107–108). However, it has been criticised for its limited number of main traits and sub traits, which make the scoring method more of a categorisation than a profile (Haswell, 2005, pp. 107–108). Although it is claimed to be an analytic rating, the 'Profile' is the same as holistic rating. It 'just asks the rater to perform the holistic five times' (Haswell, 2005, pp. 107–108). Haswell (2005) argued that this kind of scaling would 'produce high inter-rater reliability coefficients needed to defend commercial testing or research studies' but that it does not actually reflect what teachers are usually do in evaluating ESL essays (p. 108). This implies a criticism for the summative nature of the Profile. However, one can reply by saying that when teachers usually give formative and summative feedback at the same time, they are performing acts that 'may operate at cross-purposes' (Hedgcock & Lefkowits, 1996, p. 288). In addition, writing evaluation would not be pedagogically informative about students' proficiency if it is not valid and reliable (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Furthermore, the summative feedback of the Profile could also be used formatively (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).

Another criticism for this kind of a formal tool for writing evaluation is that it is 'associated with product-centred scoring that fails to assess or value student writing

processes' (Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Kroll, 1998, as cited in Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 301). Nevertheless, process-centred scoring that is as valid and reliable as the Profile is not yet available. Moreover, since the writing context of the research is assumed to be product-oriented, using the Profile (as a product-centred scoring) is more practical. On the other hand, the researcher did not use a holistic scoring method for the following reasons. As summarised by Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) and Casanave (2004), a holistic scoring is criticised for being difficult to interpret, complicating the training of raters, conflating two or more important text-based categories, being less reliable and being influenced by culture and discipline. Furthermore, the researcher could not see any methodological problem in using the Profile or any other analytic scaling tools for research purposes; nevertheless, they should not be used without precautions when deciding students' academic fate (Haswell, 2005).

For more reliability, each essay was marked and rated by the researcher and two other raters who are English-native speakers, with more than 5 years' experience in JIC teaching ESL/EFL writing. The researcher held a meeting with each rater individually to explain the marking criteria of the Profile and to agree on marking assumptions due to the intermediate level of the participants (see appendix 14). In addition, the raters were told about the necessity for getting the marks very quickly so that the scores could be analysed promptly and the relevant participants contacted for think-aloud protocols, interviews, and strategy instruction sessions. Subsequently, the raters got anonymous copies of the essays and the researcher received the results a week later. The raters' scores were averaged out by adding up the score that each participant got from each rater and dividing the total by three. The Cronbach's Alpha for inter-rater reliability of the participants' scores in the argumentative writing task showed a high reliability at .877. After having the participants' scores in this writing

task, the researcher was able to classify them into the three groups mentioned above: (1) high competent writers, (2) average competent writers, and (3) low competent writers.

While this reliable scale might indicate the participants' writing competence levels, the researcher decided to compare their scores in the task with their writing scores that they have achieved throughout the semester in their normal writing classes for convergent validity. The researcher got consent from the ELC managing director to have access to students' scores in writing quizzes and exams. At the time of the research, the participants had done two quizzes and one mid-term exam. The participants' total scores were averaged out to compare their average writing scores throughout the semester with their average writing scores in the research argumentative writing task (see Table 10 below). The Cronbach's Alpha for the two measures was .789, which shows an acceptable reliability coefficient. In addition, as shown in the table below, the Pearson's *r* for the correlation coefficient between the two writing measures (the research task and the semester writing scores) shows that there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between the two measures of the participants' writing competence ($r = .653$, $n = 68$, $p = .000$). The statistically significant correlation means that increases or decreases in one variable do significantly relate to increases or decreases in the second variable[30]. Moreover, the means and the standard deviations for the two measures of writing competence were analysed to understand the central tendency and variability of scores in both measures. The results shown in table 11 revealed the mean and the standard deviation for the participants' scores in the argumentative task ($M = 72.3676$, $SD = 10.75$). Almost similar results were revealed for the participants' semester writing test scores ($M=$

[30] Refer to http://statistics-help-for-students.com/

77.86, *SD*= 11.62). The mean in both measures revealed that the central tendency for the participants' scores was between 72 and 77 scores. This will further support the reliability and validity of the research argumentative writing task as a measurement of the participants' writing competence.

Table 10 Correlations between Writing Task & Semester Writing Achievement

		Argumentative Task Average Scores	Semester Achievement Average Scores
Argumentative Task Average Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	.653**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	68	68
Semester Achievement Average Scores	Pearson Correlation	.653**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	68	68

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

Table 11 Writing Scores Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Argumentative Task Average Scores	72.3676	10.75494	68
Semester Achievement Average Scores	77.8676	11.62204	68

After finding out the participants' levels of total writing competence as well as their competence in the five components of the scale, their levels were coded and entered in the SPSS program for descriptive and correlational analyses. The analysis methods used were the same as the methods used for quantitative data in the next section.

4.4.2. Analysing data obtained from the self-report questionnaires

As noted earlier, the self-report questionnaire is the main data instrument for both writing strategies and writing-strategy apprehension. Due to the quantitative

nature of the questionnaire, data obtained were analysed using the SPSS program for descriptive statistics and correlational statistics.

Regarding descriptive statistics, two methods of descriptive analysis were used: frequency tables and measures of central tendency and dispersion. The researcher used them to be able to summarise the frequency and mean (or average) of responses for both writing strategies used and apprehension levels obtained by the participants as well as understand the variability of their scores through the standard deviation. Counts, percentages, means and standard deviations of the participants' responses and scores offered some indications about the trends of Saudi EFL students' writing in terms of frequently or less frequently used types of strategies and high or low levels of strategy apprehension.

Regarding correlational statistics, two methods of analysis were used. The researcher used t-test statistical analysis for a comparison of means. T-tests are of two kinds: independent samples t-tests and paired samples t-tests. The former are used to compare groups of participants who are independent or different from one another. The latter are used to compare groups of participants who are related to one another. The one used in this research is the paired samples t-test. If the result is significant at $p < 0.05$, then the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted, and vice versa. The purpose of this comparison is to uncover relationships, not causality. The researcher was concerned to analyse the participants' average scores and responses in writing strategies, strategy apprehension levels and writing competence levels in order to uncover whether those variables are related to one another. In addition, Pearson's r was used to compute for a coefficient of correlation.

The previous parametric statistical approaches are selected because they are more powerful than non-parametric statistics, on the assumption that the participants'

scores and responses are normally distributed. Nevertheless, 'some statistics writers argue that most of the approaches are fairly "robust"; that is, they will tolerate minor violations of assumptions, particularly if you have a good size sample' (Pallant, 2005, p. 98). Furthermore, 'the power of a test is very dependent on the size of the sample used in the study' (Pallant, 2005, p. 98). According to Stevens (1996), when the sample size is large (e.g., 100 or more subjects), then 'power is not an issue' (as cited in Pallant, 2005, p. 173).

The next section explains how data obtained from the third research instrument (the interviews) were transcribed and analysed.

4.4.3. Analysing data obtained from the interviews.

It was difficult to analyse qualitative data because of the amount of data obtained and 'the lack of adequate discussion of data analysis procedures in the existing literature' (Brice, 2005, p. 159). As noted earlier, the objective of conducting the interviews was to investigate in-depth the participants' sources of writing strategy apprehension. There were eight interviewees, who can be categorised as follows: two high apprehensive writers, two low apprehensive writers, two high competent writers, and two low competent writers.

Writing strategy apprehension interviews of the eight participants were transcribed and analysed to identify the strategies and behaviours accounting for the participants' writing apprehension. The interviews were analysed into categories derived from the interview questions, which were originally derived from the apprehension scale. The items of the apprehension scale had been already tested for reliability and validity (see Subsection 4.3.3.1). Table 12 presents the categories in

which the interviews were analysed along with the interview questions from which those categories were taken.

Table 12 The Interview Categories of Analysis and their Corresponding Questions

	Category Title	Question Number
1	Opinions about English writing instruction received in JIC	1
2	General feelings about writing and writing classes	2
3	Views about apprehensive behaviours in English writing	3
4	Views about motivating behaviours in English writing	4
5	Views about planning	5,6
6	Views about revising and editing	7,8,9,12
7	Feelings when blocked	10
8	Feelings about collaboration	11
9	Views on drafting	13
10	Feelings about neatness and layout	14
11	Feelings about teacher's expectancy of text quantity	15

A sample of coded interviews is provided in Appendix 10. The next section will discuss how qualitative data obtained from think-aloud protocols were transcribed and analysed.

4.4.4. Analysing data obtained from think-aloud protocols.

In analysing think-aloud protocols and describing composing processes, previous studies used either qualitative analysis (McDonough & McDonough, 2001; Wolfersberger, 2003) or quantitative analysis (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Alhaysony, 2008; Arndt, 1987; Jones, 1982; Mahfoudhi, 2003; Perl, 1979; and many others). The quantitative analysis of think-aloud protocols depends on 'devising a [specific] system for the assignments of numbers [codes] to observations' (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992, p. 321). This system of analysis is called coding schemes. 'The

coding scheme is the filter through which one looks at one's data to report, in a valid and reliable way, the story told in the protocols' (Manchón et al., 2005, p. 201).

There are two coding approaches used in the literature: deductive coding and inductive coding (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992). The former classifies responses in pre-established categories drawn from theory [or definition], while the inductive coding establishes and constructs the categories of analysis from within the data collected. In other words, it uses a representative sample of responses to identify the coding scheme and applies it to the remainder of the data (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992). Although inductive coding might be more flexible and rich, deductive coding seems to be more precise and, consequently, more reliable. Thus, in the present study, a deductive coding scheme is adopted because of the quantitative nature of the current research and its deductive method of investigation, in alignment with the post-positivist paradigm. In addition, the aim of this deductively quantitative analysis was to compare and contrast the findings of the think-aloud protocols with those of the strategy questionnaire and the apprehension scale. This comparison entails using the same method of analysis. Finally, the researcher aimed to do his best in meeting the rules of constructing the coding categories: (1) mutual exclusivity[31] and (2) exhaustiveness[32] (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992).

The categories of the coding scheme devised, adapted and set up for protocol analysis in this study were informed by what were to be considered process/product types of writing strategies. As a result, the main units of analysis or categories of coding were two: the process-oriented category of behaviours and the product-oriented category of behaviours. The researcher, therefore, reviewed previous coding schemes (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Akyel & Kamisli, 1997; Alhaysony, 2008; Cumming, 1989; El-

[31] Categories should be constructed in a way that each writing strategy can be placed in one and only one category.
[32] Categories should include all writing strategies.

Mortaji, 2001; Mahfoudhi, 2003; Perl, 1979; Raimes, 1985; Roca de Larios et al., 2001; Uzawa, 1996; Wang, 2003; Wang & Wen, 2002; Wenden, 1991; Wong, 2005) so as to develop a coding scheme and draw up a preliminary list of strategies and behaviours that could analyse the participants' protocols on the basis of their process and product orientations. The designed coding scheme is believed to be relevant to the nature of writing skill. Writing is seen as a skill of 'form and content'. By 'content', we refer to the process. By 'form', we refer to the product. Therefore, the present researcher argues that any classification of writing strategies needs to address these two categories quite explicitly. If we classify them into cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, problem-solving, etc., then we do not adequately address the unique nature of writing skill.

Therefore, the decision was made to consider as 'process' operations those segments that, at least explicitly, show the writer's *purposeful* [33] concerns about operations that are encouraged or preferred in the literature of the process-based writing approaches. On the other hand, 'product' operations are those segments that, at least explicitly, show that the writer is *purposefully* concerned about operations that are encouraged or preferred in the literature of the process-based writing approaches.

The previous definition of writing strategies (see Section 4.3.2.1) guided the researcher in constructing and selecting the categories and sub-categories of the current coding scheme. The researcher fully understands that there are no clear-cut boundaries between what 'process' is and what 'product' is in writing behaviours. However, the argument is that there seem to be writing behaviours that can be classified as either or. Such strategies, therefore, will be the focus of investigation and analysis.

[33] The term was borrowed from the study of Manchón *et al.* (2005:200). It refers to my concerns about conscious strategies. Also, please refer to the discussion about cognitive theory in section 3.1.1.2.

On reviewing some coding schemes originated, developed or adapted in some previous studies, mentioned above, the researcher found that the main concern of process-product dichotomy of writing strategies was not explicitly addressed, even in the coding schemes most relevant to the present one (Cumming, 1989; Lo, 1998; Uzawa, 1996). In addition, some coding schemes included strategies that might not be relevant to the present study. Thus, they could not be classified as process-based or product-based. For example, in Raimes' (1985) coding scheme, 'commenting', and 'silence' do not fit into the present research classification. However, her coding scheme of 'surface-level editing changes' can be interpreted by the present research as 'product-based writing strategies'. Another example is Wenden's (1991) coding scheme. In that coding scheme, writing strategies were classified under three general categories of planning, evaluation and monitoring. It investigated the metacognitive-cognitive dimensions of those categories. Thus, it mixed up a number of what we can call 'process-based writing strategies' (such as 'rereading' and 'writing till the idea would come up') with some 'product-based writing strategies', such as 'verification'. In addition, in Akyel and Kamisli's (1997) adapted coding scheme, there was no clarity between what is a process-related strategy and a product-related one. For example, 'deletion' and 'substitution' can be process-and-product types of strategies if they are not clearly defined. The same thing applies with 'pause' and 'translation' codings. If a writer pauses to check grammar, then it is a product-based strategy. However, if he pauses to check the meaning, it is the process. Similarly, if he translates from the very beginning word by word, phrase by phrase and sentence by sentence, then he is product-oriented in his translation strategy. However, if he uses translation as an aid when he is stuck in the process of writing, then he is process-oriented in his translation strategy. The same criticism is applicable to other labels in a

number of coding schemes, such as 'resourcing' (Wenden, 1991), 'questioning' (Raimes, 1985; Wong, 2005), and 'evaluation/assessing' (Mahfoudhi, 2003; Raimes, 1985; Wenden, 1991). Such cases of using strategy labels without differentiating between their instructional principles (i.e. the process-and-product orientations) might be the cause behind the difficulty achieving consensus among writing researchers to compare their findings. This idea owes much to the study of Abdel-Latif (2009).

On the other hand, in light of criticism (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Roca de Larios et al., 2001), the current protocols were analysed in terms of both the percentages and frequencies of composing behaviours so that computing means would be more justifiable. In the developed coding scheme below, there were 36 writing strategies divided equally into process-oriented and product-oriented types of strategies. As there are two types of strategies (product vs. process) in the present study, the frequency of occurrences, including repetitions, of each strategy type was counted. For example, we counted the frequency of using process-based strategies in the whole protocol of an individual participant. Then, the use of each individual strategy of the 36 strategies was counted as one (repetitions here are excluded), while the strategy that had not been used was given a zero. Subsequently, the most and least used (by all the participants) strategies were calculated.

Each of the four participants' videotaped protocols were transcribed for coding and analysis. The transcription was in the same language used by the participants (English or Arabic). The researcher developed a list of transcription conventions similar to the one developed by Abdel-Latif (2009) – see the appendix –, where every written, spoken and pausing features were transcribed. After transcribing the protocols, the second stage, as suggested by Manchón et al. (2005, p. 199), was to decide what part of the protocol is to be analysed. Because of the process-product

philosophical framework of the research, the researcher was only interested in those cases in which writers use or operationalise process-oriented or product-oriented strategies and behaviours. Thus, the segmentation stage was done to divide the protocols into units for analysis based on that interest. Due to the deductive approach of the analysis adopted by the researcher, the participants' think-aloud protocols were segmented or parsed based on episodic units so that the segmented units would be in line with the developed coding scheme. The strategy of segmenting data into episodic[34] units was used by other researchers (Breetvelt et al., 1994; Brice, 2005; Manchón et al., 2005). On the other hand, parsing data into 'T-units'[35], for example, does not seem to be helpful for the purpose of the research. T-units do not 'retain enough of the context, in many instances, to allow for meaningful interpretation' (Brice, 2005, p. 163). The episodic units, therefore, would be helpful for the purpose of the research, because they are based on the categories in a coding scheme (Brice, 2005).

Table 13 is the codebook format for each writing strategy category, type, name, and the coding scheme employed. For reliability purposes, the researcher kept the scheme as simple as possible and trained another coder thoroughly to increase validity and resolve differences by letting the other coder decide on problematic items (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992). Furthermore, almost all of the strategies in this coding scheme were adapted from other schemes (see studies above), which proved to be valid and reliable. In addition, they were adapted from the present study's strategy questionnaire, which has been tested for validity and reliability (see subsection 4.3.2.1.1).

[34] An episodic unit is based on the categories in a coding scheme, and it lasts for as long as a participant continues to make the same kind of comment (Brice, 2005:162.).
[35] A t-unit is an independent clause and all of its non-clausal elements, excluding subordinators (ibid.).

Table 13 Coding Scheme of Think-aloud Protocols

Type **Product-oriented**	Code T	Type **Process-oriented**	Code P
(A) Planning	**TA**	**(A) Planning**	**PA**
1- Writing an outline (Detailed planning from the beginning for introduction, body, and conclusion).	**TA1**	1- General planning in L1 or L2 (general verbal or written thoughts about what and how to write).	**PA1**
2- Start writing sentences in L1.	**TA2**	2- Brainstorming (L1 or L2 speaking of less general ideas before or while writing).	**PA2**
3- Self-questioning for the criteria used for assessing text.	**TA3**	3- Mind-mapping (clustering words and written notes of related ideas).	**PA3**
(B) Writing & Editing	**TB**	4- Resourcing (reading about the topic, using dictionary, or asking the researcher).	**PA4**
1- Checking, changing or verbalizing spelling.	**TB1**	5- Paraphrasing or simplifying the assigned topic.	**PA5**
2- Checking, changing or verbalizing grammatical aspects.	**TB2**	6- Translating the assigned topic or part of it.	**PA6**
3- Checking, changing or verbalizing punctuation or orthographic conventions.	**TB3**	7- Verbalizing concern about the purpose of writing.	**PA7**
4- Complicating simple sentences.	**TB4**	8- Verbalizing concern about the reader.	**PA8**
5- Rejecting a word for lack of spelling.	**TB5**	**(B) Writing and Revising**	**PB**
6- Rejecting a sentence for lack of a word.	**TB6**	1- Checking or verbalizing concern about the L1 meaning.	**PB1**
7- Rejecting new ideas.	**TB7**	2- Checking or verbalizing concern about the L2 meaning.	**PB2**
8- Holding writing for lack of ideas by pausing or repeating the last word.	**TB8**	3- Writing the L1 word, phrase, or sentence equivalent to the missing L2 one.	**PB3**
9- Holding writing for lack of spelling.	**TB9**	4- Simplifying an idea.	**PB4**
10- Holding writing for lack of grammatical forms.	**TB10**	5- Changing ideas	**PB5**
11- Holding writing for lack of vocabulary.	**TB11**	6- Rearranging, changing, adding or deleting words, phrases, or sentences to clarify the meaning.	**PB6**
12- Following the previously written outline.	**TB12**	7- Summarizing what has been written.	**PB7**
13- Checking or verbalizing concern about text quantity.	**TB13**	8- Reading the text written so far or part of it to correct, create or consider meaning and ideas.	**PB8**
14- Checking or verbalizing concern about layout and neatness.	**TB14**	9- Drafting (writing another version of the previously written text).	**PB9**
15- Checking or verbalizing concern about textual organization.	**TB15**	10- Scanning and making a final amendment.	**PB10**

After transcribing, categorising and coding the protocols, the next step for quality insurance was to test for reliability of coding. The second coder had experience in education and in the analysis of qualitative research.

At the coding session, the researcher explained to the second coder his research questions and purposes, showed him the developed coding scheme and gave him two pages from the protocols of two different informants. Both coders read through the coding scheme and discussed the purpose and meaning of every category and sub-category to get a common understanding of the categories. Then, both did some coding together to get a full picture about what was required in practise. After this introduction, two complete protocols were selected, and the second coder was asked to do the coding on his own time. Then, the two met again for two hours to discuss and compare findings, as suggested by Smagorinsky (1989), for think-aloud coding reliability. The following table shows the inter-coding agreement and reliability of the think-aloud protocols.

Table 14 The inter-coding agreement and reliability of the think-aloud protocols

Participants	Time of the protocol	Number of behaviours coded by the researcher	Number of behaviours agreed upon by the second coder	Inter-coding agreement[36]
High apprehensive	15.30	27	25	92.5
Low competent	14.45	28	27	96.4
Total	29.75	55	52	94.5

It is worth mentioning that the present study followed other researchers' method (Abdel-Latif, 2009) of establishing the inter-rater reliability of the think-aloud

[36] For the agreement reliability the researcher followed the formula suggested by Alhaysony (2008): (number of strategies agreed upon by both coders × 100 ÷ number of strategies coded by the researcher).

protocols. The protocols were given coded to the inter-rater and he was to agree or disagree on each coded behaviour by ticking or crossing the code based on his understanding of the behaviour definition and examples he was provided with. This was to save the inter-rater's time and effort.

4.5. Chapter conclusion

In the previous pages, we discussed the chapter of methodology. The chapter consisted of four sections: (1) introduction to research questions and design, (2) research participants, (3) research instruments and data collection, and (4) data analysis. In the first section, three issues were presented: (1) research questions and research design, (2) research variables, and (3) research strategy and justification of methods and methodology. In the second section, we talked about the research sampling and offered information about the participants' backgrounds. In addition, ethical issues before and during the administration of the research instruments were presented. Then, data instruments (an argumentative writing task, a strategy questionnaire, an apprehension scale, interviews, think-aloud protocols, and strategy instruction) were discussed in terms of their advantages and disadvantages, their reliability and validity, and the process and procedures followed for conducting them and analyzing data obtained from them.

The next is the chapter of results and discussions.

Chapter 5: Results and Discussions

This chapter provides the quantitative and qualitative results of the present study and discusses them in the light of the stated research questions (RQs). Accordingly, the results and their discussions are organized by research question, with the findings of each basic question followed by a dedicated discussion section. Finally, an overall conclusion and discussion is presented at the end of the chapter. As noted earlier, the research questions are:

RQ1. Based on the process-product dichotomy of writing instruction, what is the instructional type of writing strategy predominantly used by EFL college students in a Saudi Arabian context, and does that predominance correlate with students' writing-strategy apprehension and writing competence?

RQ2. Is there a significant change in strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence levels after process-based strategy instruction?

To answer RQ1, three research sub-questions (A, B, C), each with its own sub-questions, are used:

RQ1A. What are the EFL writing strategies of Saudi undergraduate students?

1- What is the dominant type of writing strategy used?
2- What are the most- and the least-used writing strategies?
3- What strategies are the most used by high and low apprehensive strategy users, respectively?
4- What are the strategies most used by high and low competent writers, respectively?

RQ1B. What are the participants' writing-strategy-related apprehension levels?

1- What is the nature of the relationship between the participants' levels of apprehension and their types of writing strategies?
2- What are the most stressful strategies?
3- What are the least stressful strategies?
4- Is there any correlation between apprehension levels and frequent use of L1 in L2 writing, L1 writing practice, and L2 writing practice?

RQ1C. What are the participants' levels of writing competence?

1) Is there any relationship between the participants' levels of writing competence and the types of their writing strategies?
2) Is there any correlation between writing competence levels and writing strategy-related apprehension levels?
3) Is there any correlation between writing competence levels and frequent use of L1 in L2 writing, L1 writing practice, and L2 writing practice?

To answer RQ2, two research sub-questions (A and B) are used:

RQ2A. Does process-based strategy instruction significantly reduce strategy-related apprehension?

RQ2B. Does process-based strategy instruction significantly increase writing competence?

The remainder of this chapter is divided into four sections (followed by a general summary and conclusion). Section 5.1 presents and discusses findings related to RQ1A. Section 5.2 presents and discusses findings related to RQ1B. Section 5.3

presents and discusses findings related to RQ1C. Section 5.4 presents and discusses findings related to RQ2A and RQ2B.The quantitative results presented in sections 5.1 and 5.2 are triangulated by the qualitative data obtained from think-aloud protocols and interviews, respectively. However, the results of Sections 5.3 and 5.4 are only quantitative due to the nature of the questions. The discussions involve an evaluation of the findings as evidence for the corresponding research questions and with respect to the findings of previous studies and the theoretical framework(s) presented in Chapter Two.

5.1. Research Question One: Findings for RQ1A (and its four sub-questions)

This section presents the quantitative findings obtained from the strategy questionnaires to answer RQ1 and its sub questions, as stated above. Subsequently, those quantitative findings are triangulated by the findings of think-aloud protocols.

As far as RQ1A1 is concerned, the participants were classified (based on their scores in the strategy questionnaire[37]) into three groups: (1) more process-oriented strategy users, (2) equally mixed process-and-product oriented strategy users, and (3) product-oriented strategy users. Table 15 shows that almost all of the participants (95.9%) were in group 2.

Table 15 the Instructional Type of EFL Writing Strategies

	Frequency	Per cent	Mean	Std. Deviation
1) Process-oriented strategy users	3	2.5		
2) Users of more equally mixed strategies	116	95.9	1.991	.2039
3) Product-oriented strategy users	2	1.7		
Total	121	100.0		

In addition, Table 15 shows the measures of central tendency (mean) and dispersion (standard deviation) to summarize the data and understand the variability of scores for the instructional type of writing strategies used by the participants. The results show very clearly ($N = 121$, M=1.99, SD=.20) that the participants' writing strategies tended to be in the middle and not to be oriented toward a particular type of instructional principles. This was supported by the low variation in the scores, as the standard deviation indicates.

[37] To understand the table please refer to p.148-149 and p. 155.

Similarly, as shown in table 16, the results of the analysis for the five Likert-scale responses of the over-all writing strategies across the questionnaire show the following:

Table 16 Descriptive Statistics of Responses in the Strategy Questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
All strategies	121	1.80	4.08	2.9826	.43843

When we look at the mean above, it also points to the general tendency for a middle position. The participants tended to use all kinds of strategies sometimes (50% to 79%). This tendency did not vary significantly across responses.

The results concerning RQ1A2 seem to contradict the self-reported predominance of mixed-strategy-orientation. The results (see Table 1 in Appendix 5) show that the majority of the participants tended to use the five process-oriented writing strategies more than the rest of the strategies. Those strategies indicate flexibility in changing words, simplifying ideas, and thinking about the reader and purpose of writing. This finding is unexpected, as the JIC writing classes are assumed to be product-oriented for two reasons. First, the teaching materials are designed to be taught according to the principles of the product approaches. Second, after coding and analysing the participants' answers to an open-ended question asking them to explain *how they are taught English writing in the college*, the majority of the valid[38] answers (71%) reported receiving product-oriented writing instruction. In addition, 70.2 % of the respondents reported that they had not attended a course dedicated to English writing before coming to college, and 66.4% of them said that they had not received any sort of training on writing strategies.

[38] There were 38 valid responses; 33 were irrelevant, and 50 did not respond.

Regarding the least used writing strategies, the findings (see Table 2 in Appendix 5) reveal that the five least used writing strategies were a mixture of product-oriented and process-oriented writing strategies. Those strategies refer to L1 use, drafting, and revising. The majority of the participants who almost never used those strategies reported that they had received product-oriented writing instruction and that they had not received any sort of instruction on writing strategies.

As for RQ1A3, the findings[39] show that the five most used writing strategies by high apprehensive strategy users are process-oriented writing strategies. They tended to use such strategies more frequently[40] than other strategies. The predominance of these five strategies among high apprehensive writers implies that the apprehensive writers are concerned about ideas and how to generate, develop and maintain them. This might indicate that caring so much about the content raises the normal levels of tension and stress. However, it is also possible that they have used more process strategies because the product ones are more stressful for them. This was the finding of the strategy-related apprehension scale (see Section 5.2).

Regarding the five most used writing strategies by the low apprehensive strategy users, the quantitative findings revealed that they used a mixture of both process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies. In other words, they seem to have a balance in their writing strategies between content and form. This result is supported by the results of the apprehension scale, to be discussed later (see section 5.2).

[39] For detailed illustration, please refer to Table 3 and 4 in Appendix 5.
[40] Frequency here denotes selection of the values of 'always' and 'often' in the questionnaire.

The findings relating to RQ1A4 show that there were 14 high competence writers among the 68 participants (see results of question 1.C in Section 5.3). The finding shows that the majority of the high competence writers are similar to the majority of the low apprehensive strategy users in using a mixture of both process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies. In other words, they also seem to have a balance in their writing strategies between content and form.

The low competence writers, however, are similar to the high apprehensive strategy users noted earlier. The majority of the low competence writers (*N= 28*) tended to use process-oriented writing strategies more frequently[41] than other strategies. These findings imply that, like the high apprehensive writers, the low competence writers seem to be concerned about meaning and how to generate, develop and maintain ideas. This suggests that caring so much about the content might both be apprehension- (as noted earlier) and low-competence-related.

The findings concerning RQ1 and its four sub-questions are now going to be cross-referenced with the think-aloud protocol findings. This will allow for a more in-depth discussion in the subsection that follows.

5.1.1. Findings of think-aloud protocols for RQ1A.

The qualitative findings presented in this sub-section are intended to enrich the quantitative results of the strategy questionnaires stated above.

First, the general results of the think-aloud protocols support the findings of some previous studies regarding recursivness (i.e., process-orientation) in writing (Zamel, 1983; Cava, 1999). However, this recursivness was not limited to high

[41] Again, frequency here refers to the values of 'always' and 'often' in the questionnaire.

competent writers and low apprehensive strategy users. It seemed to be a feature of EFL writing that each of the four participants demonstrated.

Second, there were 244 manifestations of writing strategies in the four think-aloud protocol data sets. Appendix 11 gives a summary of the frequencies and percentages of product-oriented and process-oriented writing strategies used or not used by the four participants in the protocols. Overall, the participants tended to use process-oriented writing strategies (N=134 out of 224) more frequently than product-oriented writing strategies (N= 90 out of 224). At face value, this does not seem to be consistent with the findings of the questionnaire (that the vast majority of the participants were mixing the two types of strategies). Nevertheless, if we look at strategy use per se without the frequency of occurrences, we can see that no participant favoured either strategy type strongly. Out of the total 36 writing strategies in the coding scheme (equally divided into process and product types) the participants used 10 product-oriented strategies and 11 process-oriented ones. Thus, the finding of the questionnaire for RQ1A1 is supported (see Appendix 11).

Third, only four of the 36 strategies in the coding scheme were used by all the participants. Three of those four strategies are product-oriented. The most used strategy by all the participants in the protocols was brainstorming (15.5%; interestingly, the one process-oriented strategy), followed by the product-oriented strategy of checking, changing or verbalizing spellings (11.8%). The third used writing strategy was checking, changing and verbalizing grammatical aspects (6.9%) followed by the behaviour of holding writing for lack of ideas by pausing or repeating the last word (5.7%). This is different from the quantitative finding for question 1.A.2 obtained from the questionnaire; the top five used strategies in the questionnaire were process-oriented.

In addition, 14 (38.8%) of the 36 strategies in the coding scheme were not used by any participant in the protocols. Those never used strategies were a mixture of product-oriented strategies (*N*= 8, 22.2%) and process-oriented strategies (*N*= 6, 16.6%). This seems in line with the quantitative finding of RQ1A2, that the least used writing strategies were a mixture of product-oriented and process-oriented strategies.

Fourth, the high apprehensive and low competence writers frequently used more product-oriented writing strategies (total *N*= 27) than process-oriented ones (total *N*= 24). Conversely, the low apprehensive and high competent writers frequently used more process-oriented strategies (total *N*= 110) than product-oriented ones (total *N*= 63). These findings are not consistent with those of the questionnaire. However, they are consistent with the findings of previous research (Abdel-Latif , 2009; Bloom, 1980; Daud et al., 2005; Hassan, 2001; Lee & Krashen; 2002) with regard to the relationship of language-related writing aspects and product-oriented writing strategies to high apprehension and low competence. This implies that the think-aloud coding scheme employed in the present study was valid. Thus, the inconsistency between the finding of the protocols and that of the questionnaires for RQs 1A3 and 1A4 might be interpreted as being due to the small number of the participants in the think-aloud protocols and to the procedural and declarative nature of the strategies.

Furthermore, the results from the protocols of the low apprehensive participant and the high competence participant show that they are similar in terms of a relatively balanced mixture of process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies. The former used 10 product strategies and 12 process strategies, while the latter used 6 product strategies and 5 process strategies. This seems to be consistent with the results obtained from the questionnaire. However, process strategies occurred more than the product strategies in both protocols.

Similarly, we found that the low competent participant and the high apprehensive participant used a relatively balanced mixture of both process and product strategies. The high apprehensive participant used 5 product and 5 process strategies, while the low competent writer used 5 product strategies and only 3 process strategies. However, the occurrences of the product strategies were more than those of the process strategies in both protocols. This was different from the quantitative finding that the high apprehensive and low competence participants used more process-oriented writing strategies.

Nevertheless, it is interesting to find that both quantitative and qualitative instruments indicated similarity between low apprehensive and high competence writers as well as a similarity between high apprehensive and low competence writers in terms of strategy types used. The following table summarises the quantitative and qualitative findings of research question one.

Table 17 Summary of Quantitative & Qualitative Findings for RQ1

Questionnaires' Findings		**Think-aloud protocols' Findings**	
• The majority are users of more equally mixed strategies. • The 5 most used strategies are process-oriented. • The 5 least used strategies are a mixture of product and process strategies.		• The participants were more or less mixing the two types of strategies. • The participants were repeating the use of the process strategies more frequently than the use of the product strategies. • The most used strategies are more product-oriented. • The least used strategies are a mixture of the two types.	
Users	**The 5 most used strategies per user**	**Type of strategy use per user**	**Frequency of the type of strategy use per user**
High Apprehensive	Process-oriented	A mixture of both types	Product-oriented
Low Competent	Process-oriented	A mixture of both types	Product-oriented
High Competent	A mixture of both	A mixture of both types	Process-oriented
Low Apprehensive	A mixture of both	A mixture of both types	Process-oriented

Finally, it seems worth noting that the high competence writer spent more time composing than the low competence one did. This finding is consistent with that of previous research (Abdel-Latif, Sasaki 2000; Zamil 1983). However, unlike the finding of Hayes (1981), this study found that the high apprehensive writer spent less time composing than the low apprehensive one did.

All in all, the frequencies of strategy occurrence in think-aloud protocols indicate inconsistency with the findings of the questionnaires. However, the findings from the two instruments are much more consistent in terms of strategy use per se regardless of frequencies.

The next section will discuss the previous quantitative and qualitative findings obtained from the strategy questionnaires and think-aloud protocols for answering RQ1A's sub-questions.

5.1.2. Discussion of RQ1A.

The quantitative and qualitative findings obtained from the strategy questionnaires and think-aloud protocols indicate that Saudi JIC male students' dominant type of writing strategies is more or less an equal combination of process and product writing strategies. This is inconsistent with the findings of some previous research (Alhaysony, 2008; Aljamhoor, 1996; Fageeh, 2003; Al-Semari, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; El-Mortaji, 2001; Krapels, 1990b), which indicate that product-oriented writing strategies are dominant among Saudi and Arab students. However, Alhaidari's (1991) findings that Saudi students applied a combination of process and product types of revising strategies (making meaning, grammatical and mechanical changes) are in line with this study. In addition, the present findings are compatible with Nayel's

(1997) findings that bottom-up linguistic aspects such as words and grammar, and top-down rhetorical aspects, such as the organisation and structure of text, content and purpose are inseparable factors in the writing process. This also supports the findings of Al-Semari (1993), who emphasized the importance of both process- and product-oriented revising strategies. In addition, while the Saudi participants in Fageeh's study (2003) received writing instruction that focused mainly on form and memorisation, they reported writing difficulties in mechanics, grammar and vocabulary. Consequently, the recommendation prompted by the present findings is to have a balance between product- and process-oriented writing approaches in teaching ESP/EFL students because this is actually what our students strategically do in their learning to write.

The findings of both instruments also showed that high apprehensive strategy users use similar strategies to those of low competence writers and low apprehensive strategy users use similar strategies to those of high competence writers. The results support the previous findings reached by (Abdel-Latif's study, 2009; Hadaway, 1987; Hassan, 2001; Khaldieh, 2000) regarding the similarity between high apprehensive and low competence writers, and low apprehensive and high competence writers. Nevertheless, this study is not in line with those previous studies in terms of the areas of similarities. This disparity might be due to the sample size, the context of the study, the instruments used, and the approach of data analysis (deductive vs. inductive) employed.

In addition, if writing instruction in a classroom is product-oriented, students could be expected to be product-oriented in their writing strategies. This was the case in Aljamhoor's study (1996), which attributed the subjects' 'product-oriented' writing strategies to the traditional writing instruction they had received in Saudi Arabia. In

contrast, it was found in this study that the majority of the participants used five process-oriented writing strategies more than the rest of the strategies.

JIC writing classes were assumed to be product-oriented for two reasons. First, the teaching materials are designed to be taught according to the principles of the product approaches; the researcher has been a teacher there for more than eight years and knows this fact very well. Second, after coding and analysing the participants' answers to the open-ended question asking them to explain *how they are taught English writing in the college*, the majority of the valid[42] answers (71%) reported receiving product-oriented writing instruction. The top five used writing strategies, therefore, were expected to be product-oriented.

One of the possible explanations for this might be writing experience and previous writing instructions. As confirmed by other studies (Aljamhoor, 1996; Chaaban, 2010; El-Mortaji, 2001; Fageeh, 2003), writing strategies are largely controlled and directed by writing experience and/or previous writing instruction (Cumming, 1989; Roca de Larios & Murphy, 2001; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). However, the current results cannot accurately relate those five process-oriented writing strategies to previous writing instruction since 70.2 % of the respondents reported that they did not attend a course in English writing before coming to college, 66.4% of them said that they had not received any sort of training on writing strategies, and, as mentioned above, 71% of the valid answers explained that they had received product-oriented writing instruction. Although the majority of the participants (66.9%) had studied English for 7 years or more, there was insufficient data to either confirm or refute the above studies' findings regarding writing experience. However, there might be an indication as to learners' writing schemata. This would take us to another

[42] There were 38 valid responses; 33 were irrelevant, and 50 did not respond.

explanation related to the participants' writing competence. It is possible that they developed their own process-oriented writing strategies as a result of being more competent. Alternatively, they might have transferred them from their Arabic writing strategic practices. This taxonomy of writing strategies according to instructional philosophies has left the door wide open for further inquiries.

Moreover, as students' least used writing strategies are an equal mixture of process and product strategies in product-based writing classes in the findings, we can assume that students develop their own sense of proper strategies to use or not to use in writing English. When we look at the first and the fifth least used writing strategies, for example (see Table 1 in Appendix 5), although one is process-oriented and the other product-oriented, they both refer to the use of the mother tongue in EFL writing. The results for the two show that the vast majority of the participants tended not to use Arabic, their native language, either as a process (writing bits of the text in Arabic) or as a product (literal translation) strategy of writing. In fact, "the idea of abandoning the native tongue is too stressful to many learners, who need a sense of security in the experience of learning a foreign language" (Galina, 2009, p.1). Learners, therefore, are supposed to develop their own learning strategies to establish that sense of security; however, sometimes they do not. It is likely that students are not fully aware of the benefits of using their native language as a strategy of learning to write, as supported by a number of studies (Alam, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; Fageeh, 2003).

Another possibility is that students are influenced by the social, cultural and occupational preferences for native-like language norms; therefore, constant use of the target writing language is a benchmark of good writing for Saudi EFL/ESP learners. In addition, students might have responded to the instruction of their teachers, as using the mother tongue is highly prohibited in JIC writing classes. Students, therefore, are

discouraged from using or expressing their actual use of their native language in writing. Whatever the explanation is, it is clear that students are developing their own sense of strategy preferences in writing English. This can be based on personal, cultural, social or instructional purposes.

Another example of self-determined strategies is the planning strategies in a product-oriented classroom. One of the instructional writing elements in JIC writing textbooks is to teach students how to write an outline for their essays before starting to write. However, none of the participants in the think-aloud protocols used this strategy. This further confirms the interpretation that students develop their own sense of proper strategies to use or not to use, despite the assumed influence of instruction in classrooms.

Due to the inconsistencies between the questionnaire and think-aloud findings, as presented above, the present study does not confidently support the previous findings (Angelova, 1999; Cava, 1999; Victori, 1999; Zamil, 1983) that high competence writers are more concerned with generating ideas and the discourse level and they are keener about process-based writing strategies than product-based ones. Nevertheless, the findings loosely support the same conclusion as Raimes (1985, p. 246), that ESL/EFL writers are not 'as concerned with accuracy as we thought they were'. It should be noted again in this context that the small differences between the questionnaire and the think-aloud protocol findings might be related to the small sample size in the think-aloud protocols and to the procedural and declarative nature of strategies.

All in all, the findings of the participants' writing strategies confirm the belief (Reid, 2001, p. 29) that writing should not be isolated as either a process- or product-oriented activity. Writing "fundamentally depends on writers' purposeful interactions

with print, with fellow readers and writers, and with literate communities of practice" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 31). The present study confirms Reid's (2001) assertion that the product-process dichotomy is false in terms of learners' writing strategies. However, 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 (Petric & Czarl, 2003). Given that EFL writers tend to diversify the type of writing strategies they use, it is argued that EFL writing is complex and sophisticated by nature. As a result, the perspective taken from this study so far is that teachers should try and adopt a diverse view of EFL writing instruction and allow for free access to different types of writing strategies. A number of studies have previously reported both reciprocal and diverse relations between teachers' teaching approaches and student learning approaches (Martin & Ramsden, 1998; Marton & Booth, 1997; Patrick, 1992; Trigwell, Prosser & Waterhouse, 1999).

However, a question that is not addressed in this study is: What is the correlation between the instructional type of students' writing strategies and the type of writing instruction adopted by their teachers? In other words, to what extent do students' writing strategies reflect the knowledge accessed and learned during writing classes? Thus, researchers are recommended in future to investigate whether EFL writing strategies can or cannot be self-instructed, particularly in the Saudi context.

In the coming section, the quantitative and qualitative findings relating to RQ1B and its sub-questions, as obtained from the strategy-related apprehension scale and the semi-structured interviews, are presented and discussed.

5.2. Findings of RQ1B (and its four sub-questions)

This section tries to give answers to research question 1B (*what are the participants' writing-strategy-related apprehension levels?*) and its four sub-questions (see p. 202). The section first presents quantitative findings obtained from the WSAS. The quantitative findings are then cross-referenced with qualitative findings from the interviews.

As far as RQ1B is concerned, the participants were tested to identify their writing apprehension levels in terms of their writing strategies. As shown in Table 18, the participants are classified (based on their scores in the apprehension scale) into three groups: (1) high apprehensive writers, (2) average apprehensive writers, and (3) low apprehensive writers. The results show that the majority of the participants (57.9%) are average in their writing strategy-related apprehension. However, almost a third of them (31.4%) have reported that they had the abnormally high level of anxious, nervous, agitated or stressful feelings in writing-strategy-related situations. Conversely, only 10% of the informants (*N*= 13) did not generally have apprehensive feelings towards the statements in this part of the questionnaire.

Table 18 Writing Strategy-related Apprehension Levels

	Frequency	Per cent	Mean	Std. Deviation
High Apprehensive	38	31.4		
Average Apprehensive	70	57.9	1.7934	.61803
Low Apprehensive	13	10.7		
Total	121	100.0		

Table 19 Descriptive Statistics of Responses in the Apprehension Scale

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Apprehension Scores	121	10.00	50.00	27.0000	7.07931
Scale Responses	121	1.00	5.00	2.7099	.70586
Levels of Apprehension	121	1.00	3.00	1.7934	.61803

As shown in Table 19, the mean and the standard deviation were computed to summarize the data and understand the variability of the participants' scores in the apprehension scale (N=121, M=27, SD=7.1), their overall responses across the scale (N=121, M=2.7, SD=0.7) and their levels of apprehension after scoring (N= 121, M= 1.7, SD=0.6). The statistics of the three means indicate that the participants' apprehension scores, responses and apprehension levels tended to be almost in the middle position. This was supported by a low variation in the standard deviation. The participants tended to be 'uncertain' about their agreement or disagreement with the scale items. This tendency does not seem to vary a lot across responses (SD=0.7).

Regarding RQ1B1 (*what is the nature of the relationship between the participants' levels of apprehension and their dominant type of writing strategies?*), the results in Table 20 show that there is a significant correlation between the participants' three levels of writing-strategy apprehension (N= 121, M= 1.7, SD=0.6) and their three types of writing strategies (N = 121, M=1.99, SD=.20). The p-value is .043, which indicates a good level of statistical significance. This significant correlation might indicate that when students are users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies, they are more average in their writing apprehension.

Table 20 Correlation Significance between apprehension levels and strategy types

		Levels of EFL Writing Apprehension	EFL writers' strategy types
Levels of EFL Writing Apprehension	Pearson Correlation	1	.185*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.043
	N	121	121
EFL writers' strategy types	Pearson Correlation	.185*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	
	N	121	121

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficient, Pearson's *R,* is .185, demonstrating a positive relationship between the two variables. However, this positive relationship is not strongly meaningful: changes in students' levels of writing-strategy apprehension are not strongly correlated with changes in their types of writing strategies.

The above significant correlation between apprehension levels and strategy types was boosted in another statistical analysis, the paired-samples t-test (see Table 21 below). The T-test was conducted to compare the participants' mean scores in the writing strategies questionnaire and in the strategy apprehension scale. The aim is to see whether or not there was a significant difference between the means.

Table 21 Paired Samples Test of Writing Strategies and Strategy Apprehension

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Writing strategies – Strategy Apprehension	.272	.787	.071	.130	.41450	3.80	120	.000

The results in the table show that there is a statistically significant difference in the writing strategy (M=2.98, SD= .43) and writing-strategy apprehension (M=2.70, SD= .70) variables: t (120) =3.80, p= .000 (two-tailed). The mean differences suggest that when the participants' general tendency was closer to the value of 'sometimes' in using the writing strategies, they tended to be more 'uncertain' (i.e., average) about their writing-strategy apprehension.

Concerning RQs 1B2 and 1B3 (*what are the most stressful strategies?* and *what are the least stressful strategies?, respectively*), Table 22 below ranks the apprehension scale items according to the participants' frequency of agreement. The

table also describes how anxious, nervous and stressful feelings are described in the scale statements.

Table 22 The Apprehension Order of the Apprehension Scale Items

Scale Items	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total agreement
1- I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.	Apprehension is related to the absence of a strategic behavior to generate ideas.	60	38	98
2- I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects.	Pressure is related to the strategy of meeting expectations.	23	57	80
3- I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas.	Apprehension is related to the absence of a strategic behavior to overcome the problem of vocabulary.	32	43	75
4- I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly.	Apprehension is related to the strategy of accuracy which might be caused by language shock.	23	42	65
5- Grammatical mistakes make me feel apprehensive.	Apprehension is related to the absence of a strategic behavior to overcome grammatical issues.	19	39	58
6- I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas.	Nervousness is related to the strategy of changing ideas.	14	44	58
7- I feel nervous when editing my writing.	Nervousness is related to the strategy of editing.	11	35	46
8- Spellings and punctuations are stressful.	Stress is related to the strategy of checking mechanics.	16	26	42
9- It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written.	Bother is related to the strategy of revising.	18	21	39
10- I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills.	Tension/nervousness is related to the macro level of writing skill rather than the micro levels of strategies.	14	20	34

Table 22 ranks the scale items from the most stressful statement to the least. For example, most participants (*N*= 98 out of 121) agreed or strongly agreed with Item 1 (*I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.*). It is argued that when a writer is inhibited by understanding of a topic and starts to be abnormally anxious, it might indicate that he lacks pre-writing strategic competence to generate ideas and overcome the lack of knowledge on a topic.

Item 10 is the least stressful item in the scale. It is the only item that was meant to measure stress in terms of the macro level of writing skill. This finding is interesting. Despite the general indications of stress caused by the micro-elements of writing (strategies), the majority of participants did not consider a writing skill more stressful than other language skills.

The analysis of data obtained from the strategy apprehension scale revealed that the majority of the 38 apprehensive writers (36, 33, 32 and 32, respectively) agreed with the following statements: (1) *I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about*, (2) *I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas*, (3) *I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly*, and (4) *I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects*. These findings indicate that the most stressful strategies for the high apprehensive participants might have something to do with the lack of content-related strategies (idea-generating strategies), caring excessively about accuracy and meeting teachers' expectations.

Furthermore, 12 of the 13 low apprehensive writers disagreed with the following statements: (1) *It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written*, (2) *I feel nervous when editing my writing*, (3) *Spellings and punctuations are stressful*, and (4) *I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills*. these

findings indicate that the least stressful strategies for the low apprehensive participants were related to both content (revising and rereading) and form (mechanics), as well as to the macro level of writing skill. In other words, the low apprehensive participants reported that they did not feel apprehensive or stressed at both the micro levels of strategies (content and form) and the macro level of writing skill in general.

Concerning RQ1B4, statistics[43] revealed that a significant proportion of the participants (49 participants, representing 40.5%) reported that they sometimes practice writing English at home. More than half of them (*N*= 27) were ranked as average apprehensive, while more than a quarter of them (*N*= 17) were high apprehensive. Only five of this group were low apprehensive. Thus, the higher apprehension was correlated with the tendency to practice writing at home.

Regarding L1 writing practice, the majority of the participants (69 participants representing 57%) reported that they either seldom or never practiced Arabic writing. More than half of these (*N*= 37) were scaled as average apprehensive. In addition, more than half of the high apprehensive strategy users (*N*= 21 out of 38) and more than half of the low apprehensive ones (*N*= 10 out of 13) reported that they either seldom or never practiced Arabic writing.

For correlational analysis, statistics shows that the correlation coefficient between the participants' strategy-related apprehension levels and their English writing practice at home is .038. Although this correlation is positive, it is still very weak to be meaningful. The *p* value of .67 indicates that there is no statistically significant (at the 0.1 level) correlation between the two variables. Therefore, increases or decreases, in English writing practice at home do not significantly relate

[43] If you need to see the statistical tables please refer to table 7, 8, 9 and 10 in appendix 5.

to increases or decreases in strategy-related apprehension levels. Similarly, the correlation coefficient between the participants' strategy-related apprehension levels and their Arabic writing practice is not statistically significant (r= .08, p=.36).

In terms of the frequent use of L1 in L2 writing, the results show that the vast majority of the participants tended not to use Arabic, their native language, as a strategy of writing: 70.3% (N= 85) reported that they rarely or almost never use the product strategy of translating literally into English (M= 4.0, SD= 1.3). More than half of these respondents (N= 55) were average apprehensive strategy users. In addition, 61.1% reported that they also rarely and almost never use the process strategy of writing bits of the text in Arabic and then translating it into English (M= 3.69, SD= 1.3).

The correlation coefficient between the participants' writing-strategy apprehension levels and their L1 use as both product-oriented strategy (r= .20, p= .02) and process-oriented strategy (r= .28, p= .002) is positive and statistically significant, though too weak to be meaningful.

The key issue obtained from the above quantitative findings of the apprehension scale is that the most stressful strategies for the high apprehensive participants are related to the lack of idea-generating strategies, caring much about accuracy, and meeting teacher's expectations. In addition, writing-strategy apprehension levels do not have a significant relationship with L1 writing practice, L2 writing practice and L1 use in L2 writing.

The next sub-section presents the qualitative findings of writing-strategy apprehension interviews for comparison with the quantitative findings obtained above and also to investigate other issues related to the type of writing instruction received, general feelings about EFL writing, and the motivating writing strategies.

5.2.1. Findings of writing-strategy apprehension interviews

This sub-section presents the findings of the interviews to triangulate the quantitative results of section 5.2. The narrative structure of the results is based on the 11 categories of the coding scheme discussed earlier in sub-section 4.4.3.

Type of writing instruction received

After transcribing the participants' interviews, the first category of the coding scheme was related to opinions about the English writing instruction received in the college. In the analysis (see Appendix 9, p. 330), the majority of the interviews supported the majority of the participants' responses in the questionnaire about the product-oriented atmosphere in their writing classes. However, some interviews revealed that some teachers might have introduced process-oriented ideas in their classes, albeit in a limited way. Such interpretations seem clear from the following excerpts:

> **S1:** Writing was not clear for me in the first semester of the first year. In the second semester, I found [I developed] a very high level of writing because we started to **write a lot of paragraphs**. Now, in the second year, when we come to the writing class, it is as if we are not in classroom: we think we are in **a powerful room [in which] we have entertainment**.
>
> **S2:** The teacher explains writing **step by step**. I mean he **outlines everything** that we should do in writing. He gives us the **headlines** and also he gives **details**.
>
> **S3:** The teacher focuses on **grammar** and talks about **spelling**. His approach is that he sometimes gives us a limited time to write in, but he does not allow us to write much in class. He sometimes put us in **groups** to write about a topic

only to reduce the number of papers that he should correct. We feel that the teacher is not happy to correct a lot of papers.

S4: Some teachers **give us topics,** like 'football', and provide us with the **headings** and **sub-headings** of the topic. Then, we write about them **individually**. The other teacher gives us the **grammar** of the lesson first, then he provides us with the information about what to write in the **introduction, the body, and the conclusion paragraphs** of our essays.

From these extracts, it seems obvious that the principles of the product approaches are more dominant in JIC writing classes. This appears to be the case with different teachers, despite differences between their instructional approaches in writing classes.

General Feelings about writing

The findings of the second category in the coding scheme of the interviews (see p. 330) revealed that three of the participants (two high apprehensive strategy users and one low competence writer) experienced negative feelings about writing. This is illustrated by the following examples:

S1: It depends on my mood. Sometimes I want to write and sometimes I do not. I feel sluggish and I write without heartiness.

S2: I do not have a specific feeling, not happy not upset, [just] normal. Sometimes I feel nervous.

S3: I feel normal. Sometime I like to write and sometimes I hate writing.

In contrast, the high competence writers and low apprehensive strategy users (n= 4) were similar in having positive feelings about writing:

S1: I feel myself have fun. I look forward to writing class.

S2: I do not experience any problems in writing or having writing homework.

S3: It is better to write, and useful [too].

S4: I feel neutral. I just want to write.

The above examples show that the high competence writers are similar to the low apprehensive strategy users in their positive feelings about English writing. Conversely, the low competence writers and high apprehensive strategy users are sharing similar negative feelings towards writing.

Apprehensive writing behaviours

The third category is about apprehensive behaviours in English writing. Almost all of the participants (see p. 331) reported that grammar, spelling and lack of vocabulary were the most stressful elements in writing. In addition, lack of ideas, perfectionism and time were viewed as sources of tension and nervousness. These findings are illustrated in the following excerpts:

S1: It makes me a little bit nervous if the teacher is concerned with the details and completion. Also, [I feel nervous] when I wrongly wrote something I studied – for example [when I fail] to get good arrangement of sentences or grammar or word or spelling.

S2: Time makes me stressful if it is too short. Also, if I do not know anything about the topic or the spelling, I get nervous.

S3: …sometimes it is grammar [that makes me nervous].

S4: Time causes me stress. Things that also cause me stress include when I do not know the topic and I don't have information. Also, grammar is a problem for me sometimes, and spelling, too.

S5: Also, spellings make me nervous, and also I got upset when I do not have information.

S6: Lack of vocabulary and grammar [make me nervous].

The qualitative findings stated above regarding the participants' views of grammar, spelling, lack of vocabulary, lack of ideas, perfectionism and time as sources of tension and stress in writing are in line with the quantitative findings stated earlier.

Motivating writing behaviours

The interviews were analysed to identify the writing behaviours that help motivate participants as the fourth category of the analysis (see p. 331). Based on the analysis, two main behaviours were identified (planning and varying structures and vocabulary use). Some extracts from the participants' views illustrate this:

S1: Planning: I do planning and brainstorming, then writing becomes easy.

S2: A thing that reduces my stress [i.e., motivates] is that in writing there are many structures and styles to express yourself. Also, vocabulary is diverse and you can use more than one word, so I do not feel constrained.

S3: I pass the ideas in my mind before I write them down. It might take two or five minutes, I try to prepare the topic in sequence before I write. Then I write according to my plan.

S4: collecting information for the introduction before writing relaxes [i.e., motivates] me because I put the foundation then I write.

The above finding concerning the two main motivating behaviours seems to support the usefulness of process-oriented writing strategies, as reported in some previous studies (Al-Semari, 1993; Elkhatib, 1984). Elkhatib (1984), for example, related writing apprehension (and thus motivation reduction) to product-related aspects of writing and unfamiliarity with process-oriented strategies.

Views about planning

The interviews also showed that of the eight participants, seven liked general planning, preferring it to outlining specifically. They saw general planning as a useful and helpful strategy in writing. However, they considered themselves limited in using planning by time (especially S4 below) and topic familiarity (especially S6). The following excerpts may help illustrate this:

S1: Brainstorming is supposed to be general. Of course, I like planning.

S2: I prefer general planning. If I do planning, writing becomes easy and fast.

S3: planning does not bother me. I think if I plan it will be better.

S4: I prefer general planning to outlining because you will have more information. In an outline you are limited, and this might cause me stress and waste time. It depends on the situation. In exams, planning is stressful because it will take from the time of writing. But in other situation no problem; planning is good and organizes ideas.

S5: I plan globally. No, planning does not bother me.

S6: It depends on the topic. If it isn't familiar to me I do general planning. But, if it is very familiar to me, I do outlining. Planning is good and it only bothers me when it takes a long time.

S7: I prefer general planning.

Views about revising, editing, drafting and paper neatness

The analysis of the interviewees' views (categories: 6, 9 and 10) about revising, editing, drafting and checking the neatness of writing revealed that time plays a central role in the use of those strategies. The findings showed that five of the participants considered the use of revising and editing strategies limited by time. If there is time, they would use them; otherwise, they might dislike using them if time is short. The analysis also revealed that the participants did not make a distinction between editing and revising. For them, both strategies refer to editing. However, almost all of them viewed spelling difficulties and changing ideas as stressful and depressing. Similarly, while all the interviewees mentioned that they write only one draft, half of them said that they would write more only if there was time. Nevertheless, the participants reported that they like to hand in their papers after checking the neatness and the layout; otherwise, they might feel uncomfortable, embarrassed and worried about their marks. This is also consistent with the apprehension scale's findings stated earlier.

Feelings when experiencing writers' block and feelings about collaboration

The analysis of this category revealed that almost all of the participants reported that having no ideas about the topic is certain to cause them stress, tension, depression and nervousness. In addition, the findings regarding feelings about collaboration (the eighth category) showed that five of the eight participants prefer writing alone to writing in groups. Writing in groups, although it seems helpful in generating ideas, was seen to increase dependence on others and decrease the chance of self-learning. Some of the interviewees said:

S1: I like to work alone, because if I make mistakes I learn from them.

S2: I like to work alone. It is better to depend on myself because in the group the good student will write the ideas and I will depend on him and never learn.

Teacher's expectancy of text quantity

Finally, the analysis of the interviews related to participants' feelings when they do not meet their teacher's expectancy of text quantity (the last category) revealed that all of them would feel tension, depression and pressure. The following examples illustrate this:

S1: I feel I am stupid and I did not studied very hard.

S2: I feel uncomfortable and pressure. I have to complete.

S3: Surely, I will feel uncomfortable.

S4: Yes, of course I will feel pressure.

S5: If it happens, I feel depressed.

All in all, the qualitative findings obtained from the interviews generally support the quantitative findings of the apprehension scale regarding the correlation between product-oriented writing strategies and writing apprehension.

The next section discusses the quantitative and qualitative findings of research question 1.B and its four sub-questions as revealed by the apprehension scale and the interview findings presented above.

5.2.2. Discussion of RQ1B and its sub-questions

The overall quantitative and qualitative results from the strategy-related apprehension scale and the interviews stated above seem to corroborate the findings of

a great deal of the previous work in this field (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Daud *et al.*, 2005; Hassan, 2001; Jones, 1985; Lee & Krashen, 2002) that writing apprehension is correlated with product-oriented writing strategies and language-related aspects of writing. The quantitative results showed that the most stressful strategies were those that involve a lack of generating ideas, ensuring accuracy, and meeting the teacher's expectations. Similarly, the qualitative findings from the interviews revealed that the most stressful things in writing are perfectionism; lack of grammar, spelling and vocabulary skill; lack of ideas; and meeting teacher's expectations. This apparent agreement between the two types of findings indicates the validity of the two instruments.

Despite these findings, when students are users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies, they are closer to average in their writing apprehension, as found in the results of the strategy questionnaire. Thus, the current study could not permit us to draw firm conclusions as to the extents to which process-related strategies or product-related strategies are directly related to writing apprehension. This hesitation to draw a strong correlation between product-oriented writing strategies and apprehension also follows from the findings obtained from the strategy questionnaire. As noted earlier, the highly apprehensive strategy users were found to be more process-oriented strategy users. This seems to indicate that caring so much about content and ideas is also stressful. Consequently, the caution to accept a strong correlation between writing apprehension and a particular type of writing strategies is justifiable. However, what is clear is that certain writing strategies (regardless of their instructional philosophies) seem to be more apprehension-related than others. EFL teachers, therefore, need to be careful in encouraging use of those strategies; they might impede the quality, quantity and time of students' writing. Nevertheless, more research on this topic needs to be

undertaken before the association between strategy and apprehension is better understood.

In addition, the caution to accept a strong relation of apprehension to product-oriented strategies only, due to the incompatible results of the apprehension scale and the strategy questionnaire, would not allow the researcher to accept other researchers' (e.g., Hassan, 2001) call for teaching writing in non-traditional ways. This is not intended to encourage JIC writing teachers to continue teaching using the product approach; clearly, this approach of instruction should by no means be discarded all together. Product-oriented writing strategies might not be stressful because they emphasize the product and linguistic aspects of writing; however, they might be stressful in the present findings because they have not been given much attention in instruction at JIC.

This might be supported by the findings of Cumming et al. (2007). Their findings showed that the majority of the participants' were mostly product-oriented in their motivation. In other words, they were more motivated to improve the textual features (grammar, vocabulary, rhetoric and genres) of their writing than the composing processes or the affective states. However, that motivation may be extrinsic – that is, to meet the teacher's expectations. In other words, their motivation might be teacher-controlled. In fact, drawing a firm conclusion about these elusive and fuzzy areas in ESL/EFL writing (feelings and strategies) seems to be impossible due to the complexity of writing, cognition, behaviours and human affective states along with their interaction.

The argument of this study is that teachers' writing approaches would be less effective than expected in mitigating anxious, stressful feelings towards the absence or presence of particular strategic behaviours. EFL writing teachers, therefore, need to be

more aware of the presence of stress in their students' writing strategies, and they need to be flexible in their ways of instruction to account for the complexity of those issues noted above. When teachers understand the stressful and agitating aspects of their learners' strategies, they can help them overcome problems created by those strategies and suggest facilitative strategies instead. For example, if 'outlining' is stressful because it wastes time and gives unnecessary details, teachers can either increase the time devoted for a writing task or suggest other pre-writing strategies to overcome stress and apprehension.

The present research and some other previous research (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Hadaway, 1987; Hassan, 2001; Khaldieh, 2000) found that low apprehensive and high competence writers, on one hand, and high apprehensive and low competence writers, on the other hand, share many similar features in writing behaviours. In addition, this study has found that they also share similar feelings about English writing. This would support the expectation of a correlation between high apprehension and low writing competence.

Last but not least, the question of whether stressful strategies are so stressful because of being highly challenging or because of insufficient instruction remains more or less intractable. For example, if the strategy of checking grammar is stressful for a student, it cannot be generalized that this is due to either the strategy per se or inadequate teaching thereof. It seems to be the case that this question is determined on a case-by-case basis, dependent on the qualities of both the teacher and student in any given case.

So far, the quantitative and qualitative findings obtained from the strategy-related apprehension scale and interviews can provide the following implications, which echo some of Oxford's (1999, p. 67) suggestions for diminishing language

anxiety as well as some of the recommendations of other researchers (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Hassan, 2001; Reeves, 1997). Since stress is found to be present in students' writing strategies, teachers are recommended to:

- Encourage reasonable acceptance and use of stressful writing strategies so that students can avoid 'learning helplessness' (see Minton, 2012, p. 137) in the use of such strategies. Students who perceive stress in the use of particular strategies would develop poor motivation.
- Allow students to write less-than-perfect sentences and paragraphs.
- Motivate students through relaxing games and music.
- Use familiar topics in writing tests and quizzes.
- Allow students to use dictionaries and topic-related sources during writing exams.
- Provide diverse writing tasks and activities that require diverse writing strategies both in class and in exams.
- Help students to identify and handle stress and apprehension signs in their writing strategies.
- Increase the time devoted for writing classes and writing exams.
- Reduce the number of students in writing classes or provide writing teachers with assistant teachers at least once a week for helping in the feedback process.
- Listen to students and share their ideas in class and in the social web-pages.
- Vary writing modes and monitor attitudes.
- Reduce dependence on handwriting and encourage students to bring and use their laptops and other digital tablets in class; this would specially de-stress the drafting and editing processes.

- Encourage students to share their writing in the social webpages such as Facebook and Twitter.
- In contrast to other studies (Hassan, 2001), this study never calls for abandoning grammar or language correction, and leaves this for the teachers' intuition and evaluation of students' individual needs.

In the next section, the findings relating to RQ1C and its sub-questions as obtained from the self-report questionnaires and the writing argumentative task are presented then discussed.

5.3. Findings of RQ1C (and its three sub-questions)

This section presents and compares the quantitative findings obtained from both the argumentative writing task and the self-report questionnaires to answer RQ1C and its sub questions.

As far as RQ1C (*what are the participants' levels of writing competence*) is concerned, the participants were tested by an argumentative writing task to identify their writing competence levels. The participants were classified (based on their total scores in the argumentative writing task as well as their sub-scores in the five components of the scale) into three groups: (1) low competence writers, (2) average competence writers, and (3) high competence writers. The results revealed that the largest proportion of the participants (N= 28, representing 41.2%) in the writing task were scaled as low competence writers; 38.2% were average competence writers (N= 26); while the high competence writers were found to be only 20.6% of the 68 participants (N= 14). Regarding the levels of competence in the scale components, the findings show that large proportions of the participants were more low competence in their content (50%) and language use (54.4%), while they were more average competence in their mechanics (63.2%) and organization (57.4%). The high competence writers, however, were more competent in content (N= 8) and less in language use (N= 1) and mechanics (N= 4).

In addition, as presented in Table 23, means and standard deviations were computed to summarize the data and understand the variability of the scores for the participants' total writing competence levels (N= 68, M= 1.79, SD= 0.76). When you look at the statistics, they show that the participants' levels tended to be almost in the middle. This was supported by a low variation in the standard deviation. This tendency does not seem to vary a lot across scores.

Table 23 Descriptive statistics of argumentative writing task and its components

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Competence	68	1.00	3.00	1.7941	.76410
Content Competence	68	1.00	3.00	2.3824	.69173
Organization Competence	68	1.00	3.00	2.2794	.59464
Vocabulary Competence	68	1.00	3.00	2.3382	.61354
Language Use Competence	68	1.00	3.00	2.5294	.53170
Mechanics Competence	68	1.00	3.00	2.2500	.55651

Similarly, as shown above, the descriptive statistics of competence in the five components of the writing scale showed a middle-position tendency in competence levels, with low variation across scores.

Regarding RQs 1C1 and 1C2 (see p. 131), the results in Table 24 show that there are positively significant correlations between writing competence levels (M= 1.79, SD= 0.76), the types of writing strategies (M= 1.99, SD= 0.20) and the levels of strategy-related apprehension (M= 1.79, SD= 0.61).

Table 24 Correlations between competence levels, strategy types and apprehension levels

		Levels of strategy apprehension	Writing strategy types	Argumentative writing competence
Levels of strategy apprehension	Pearson Correlation	1	.183*	.310*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.045	.010
	N	121	121	68
Writing strategy types	Pearson Correlation	.183*	1	.272*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045		.025
	N	121	121	68
Argumentative writing competence	Pearson Correlation	.310*	.272*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.025	
	N	68	68	68

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation between competence levels and writing strategies above shows the following: r= .27 and p= 0.02. Similarly, the correlation between competence levels and apprehension levels shows the following: r= .31 and p= 0.01. Although both findings indicate a significant relationship, this relationship is not strong enough

to be meaningful; changes in students' levels of writing competence are not strongly correlated with either changes in their types of writing strategies or changes in their levels in strategy-related apprehension. However, we can conclude from the variables' means and the positively significant correlations that when students are users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies, they are more average in their writing competence and more average in their strategy apprehension levels.

To answer RQ1C3, statistics[44] (after adding the total responses of never and seldom) revealed that the majority of the participants (low, average and high competence writers) reported that they seldom or never practiced both English and Arabic writing (N= 46 and 44 out of 68, respectively). As a result, general practice of English writing and Arabic writing do not seem to be related to writing competence.

However, the correlational analysis,[45] shows that the correlation coefficient (Pearson' r) between the participants' writing competence levels (M= 1.8, SD= 0.7) and their Arabic writing practice (M= 3.5, SD= 1.3) is positively significant (r= .26, p= .02). This significant correlation would indicate that when the participants are more average in their L2 writing competence, they are less likely to practice their L1. However, the correlation is too weak to be meaningful. In contrast, the correlation coefficient between the participants' writing competence levels and their English writing practice at home (M= 3.52, SD= 1.00) is r= -.016 (p=0.89). Although this correlation is negative, it is still too weak to be meaningful, and the p value indicates that there is no statistically significant correlation between the two variables. As a result, we can conclude that L1 and L2 general writing practices are not strongly related to L2 writing competence.

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[44] Please refer to Tables 12 and 13.
[45] Please refer to Table 14 in Appendix 5 for further illustration.

Concerning L1 use in L2 writing and whether it correlates with competence levels, the results (as noted earlier in RQ1B4) show that the vast majority of the participants tended not to use Arabic, either as a product- or a process-oriented strategy. Of the participants in the argumentative writing task, 63.2% reported that they almost never use the product strategy of translating literally into English (M= 4.02, SD= 1.35), and 51.5% reported that they also never use the process strategy of writing bits of the text in Arabic and then translating them into English (M= 3.69, SD= 1.39). This might suggest that EFL writing competence has something to do with the absence of L1 use in L2 writing. The correlation coefficient shown in Table 25 supports this finding.

Table 25 Correlations between L1 Use and Writing Competence

		Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)	Argumentative writing competence
Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Pearson Correlation	1	.698**	.324**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.007
	N	121	121	68
Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)	Pearson Correlation	.698**	1	.244*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.045
	N	121	121	68
Argumentative writing competence	Pearson Correlation	.324**	.244*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.045	
	N	68	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

It shows that correlation between L1 use, both as a product-oriented strategy (r= .324, p= .007) and a process-oriented strategy (r= .244, p= .045), is proved to be

both positive and statistically significant. By considering the mean, it is apparent that when participants are closer to 'rarely' in their use of L1, they are closer to average competence. When this rareness increases, their competence increases and vice versa. However, these positively significant correlations are too weak to be meaningful.

The next sub-section discusses the above findings concerning RQ1C and its sub-questions.

5.3.1. Discussion of RQ1C and sub-questions

The findings concerning RQ1C and its sub-questions generally suggest that: (1) when students are users of more equally-mixed kinds of writing strategies, they are more average in their writing competence; (2) when students are more average in their competence, they are more average in their apprehension levels; (3) writing competence does not seem to be strongly related to L1 and L2 writing practices; and (4) Less L1 use in EFL writing seems to be correlated with more competence.

The results noted above are in line with those of previous research (Abdel-Latif, 2009; El-Aswad, 2002; Noman-Yafai, 2000) regarding the significant positive correlation between writing competence and writing strategies or composing behaviours. Abdel-Latif (2009) found a positive correlation between writing competence and the variety of composing behaviours. Similarly, El-Aswad (2002) and Noman-Yafai (2000) found that language proficiency plays a significant role in writing strategies and composing processes.

Consequently, the significant correlation between use of a mixture of strategy types and average competence can suggest that writing instruction by EFL teachers should address students' accuracy and fluency, form and content, meaning and

conventions, editing and revising, etc. This does not seem to be consistent with the findings of other studies (Angelova, 1999; Cava, 1999; Perl, 1980; Rashid, 1996; Rao, 2007; Sang-Hee, 2002; Sommers, 1980) that related proficiency and competence in writing to process-based writing strategies only. Rao (2007), for example, attributed the change in the learners' writing performance to the explicit instruction of brainstorming strategy. As a result, he suggested that EFL teachers in universities or colleges should adopt a process-focused approach. Moreover, the results here are not in line with those of other studies (Pennington & So, 1993) that did not find a correlation between writing strategies and writing quality.

Previous research findings on the relationship between writing apprehension and writing competence are inconsistent. Some studies found no significant correlation between the two (Butler, 1980; Hadaway, 1987; Lee, 2005; McCarthy, 1985; Pajares & Johnson 1994; Whittier, 2005), while a larger number of studies has found it significant (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Boening et al., 1997; Daly & Miller, 1975; Faigley et al., 1981; Khaldieh, 2000; Masny and Foxall, 1992; Pajares, 2003; Petrosko et al., 1984; Powell, 1984; Richmond & Dickson, 1980; Walsh, 1986). As discussed earlier in the literature review, such inconsistent results might be related to individual differences among the participants of the studies, to methodological issues related to instruments used or to the definitions of apprehension and competence conceived in those studies.

However, the overall findings of the present research support the findings of the latter group of studies noted above. Results indicate that strategy apprehension correlates significantly with writing competence. We might argue that the feelings students hold about certain writing behaviours and strategies might influence or be influenced by their ability and capability in composition. Thus, a bi-directional

influence might be assumed between feelings and competence, which might make students prefer and execute certain types of behaviours. This could explain why EFL student writers' behaviours in writing classes differ markedly, even in homogenous classes where students share a similar background. This might also explain why particular students avoid writing or avoid certain university majors as they require an entry- exam in writing. Writing is crucial to students' academic and professional careers. ESP students do not need to be creative in their writing; therefore, high attention to ideational features should be reduced. In addition, they should not be bothered all the time with attention to their textual and structural problems, neither in class nor in their exams. Nevertheless, more investigation is needed to find out the real nature of the relationship between high and low competence levels, on one hand, and apprehension levels on the other.

In light of the theoretical frameworks of apprehension (the deficit theory and the interference theory, see p. 110), the findings of this study might be better understood by means of the interference theory. Interference theory (see Horwitz, 2000; M. Smith, 1984) argues that apprehension interferes with skill development and, though it may interact with low skills, is not limited to any ability level. Deficit theory, on the other hand, (see Sparks et al., 2000) claims that apprehension can be a cause of linguistic deficiency. It argues that only unskilled, poor writers can experience writing apprehension.

Moreover, the findings regarding L1 use in L2 writing contradict those of other research (Abdel-Latif, 2009; Alam, 1993; Wang and Wen, 2002) regarding the extensive use of L1 by intermediate students in L2 writing. The quantitative findings from the questionnaire in this study showed that intermediate student writers (both high competence and low competence) rarely used their L1, Arabic, in their English

writing. However, two of the four participants in the think-aloud protocols, were verbally using their L1 in brainstorming only, though none of them was writing anything in Arabic. All in all, the findings from this study, though contributing to the body of evidence available, would not allow us to have a strong conclusion as other studies did regarding the usefulness (Alam, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; Fageeh, 2003; Jimenez-Lugo's, 2007; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 1992; Lay, 1988; Liao, 2005; Sun, 1989) or the uselessness (Chelala, 1981; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Whalen and Ménard, 1995) of L1 use in L2 writing and composition. Given the controversy in this matter, this might be said to be in line with existing findings per se.

So far, an important pedagogical implication to emerge from these findings is that the more diverse kinds of writing strategies used are the more competent and less apprehensive student writers will be. However, this is not to argue that competence is only or primarily influenced by feelings or vice versa. Feelings are developed by different sources, including competence, and high competence is created by various improvements, including but not restricted to positive feelings. This seems to be in line with the recommendation of other researchers that 'teachers may help students build competence not only through formal instruction but through appropriate [and diverse writing] strategies' (Pajares & Johnson 1994, p. 327).

The next section presents and discusses the findings of RQ2 (the treatment) and its sub-questions.

5.4. Research Question Two

As far as RQ2 is concerned, this section presents the findings of the pre-experiment, which aimed to answer the following sub-questions: (1) Does process-based strategy instruction significantly reduce strategy-related apprehension? and (2) Does process-based strategy instruction significantly increase writing competence?

Due to the small sample in the experiment,[46] which is not assumed to be normally distributed, the researcher used a non-parametric technique, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, to analyse data obtained from the experiment. Its parametric alternative is the paired-samples t-test discussed earlier.

Five students were taught seven process-based writing strategies over a period of 5 weeks. Pre-and-post measurements of knowledge about those strategies, strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence levels of each student were taken.

The participants were asked to report their knowledge percentage about the seven strategies on a five-point Likert-scale: 0% - 29% =1, 30% - 49%=2, 50% - 69%=3, 70% - 89%=4 and 90% - 100%=5. In addition, they were tested on their writing competence by asking them to write an argumentative essay about 'the importance of mobile phones'. Their essays were marked by two raters, and their classification into the three levels of competence is the same one noted earlier in section 3.4.1 (low competence =1, average competence =2, high competence =3). Furthermore, the WSAS was used to measure apprehension levels in the same way discussed in section 3.3.3.1 (high apprehensive =1, average apprehensive =2, low apprehensive =3).

The results, as presented in Table 26, seem to indicate that three of the five participants showed a beneficial change in their apprehension levels (two changed

[46] for detailed justification and explanation please refer to section 4.3.4

from a high level to a low level of strategy-related apprehension and one from a high level to an average level).

Table 26 The Preliminary Findings of the Experiment

No.	Apprehension Level		Competence Level		The percentage Knowledge of the 7 process-based strategies		Number of the 7 process-based strategies used before the treatment
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	
1	High	Average	Low	Average	50-69%	50-69%	0
2	High	High	Average	Average	50-69%	70-89%	1
3	Average	Average	Low	Average	50-69%	50-69%	2
4	High	Low	Average	High	50-69%	70-89%	1
5	High	Low	Average	Average	30-49%	90-100%	2

Three participants also showed a beneficial change in their writing competence levels (two changed from a low level of competence to an average level and one from an average level to a high level of competence). Similarly, as illustrated in the table above, three participants reported a change in their knowledge about the 7 process-oriented writing strategies after the intervention.

The descriptive statistics (Table 27) of the three measurements before and after the treatment support the individual changes reported above.

Table 27 The Mean Values of the Measures Before and After the Experiment

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strategy Knowledge Before	5	2.29	3.43	3.0286	.44493
Strategy Knowledge After	5	3.14	5.00	3.8857	.79796
Apprehension Levels Before	5	1.00	2.00	1.2000	.44721
Apprehension Levels After	5	1.00	3.00	2.2000	.83666
Competence levels Before	5	1.00	2.00	1.6000	.54772
Competence levels After	5	2.00	3.00	2.2000	.44721

When we look at the mean values in Table 27, we can see that there is a slight change between all the measurements' means before and after the treatment.

Moreover, the preceding findings are supported by the findings of the mean ranks in the Wilcoxon signed rank test. Table 28 shows that the positive ranks in the three measures are more than the negative ranks, which means that the participants have achieved higher scores in the three measures after the treatment. Four participants reported having more knowledge about the strategies of the intervention, with a mean rank of 3.50, which indicates a percentage closer to 70%. However, one student scored lower after the treatment, with a mean rank of 1.00, which indicates the percentage of 0%–29%.

Table 28 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (mean ranks)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Strategy Knowledge After - Strategy Knowledge Before	Negative Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Positive Ranks	4	3.50	14.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Apprehension Levels After - Apprehension Levels Before	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	3	2.00	6.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	5		
Writing Competence levels After - Writing Competence levels Before	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	3	2.00	6.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	5		

In addition, in the apprehension levels, three students were ranked positively after the experiment, with a mean rank of 2.00, indicating an average apprehension level. However, two students retained their initial positions and have not reported a change in their apprehension levels after the treatment. Similarly, three students scored higher in their writing competence levels after the treatment, with a mean rank of 2.00, indicating an average competence level, while two students retained their competence levels after the intervention.

Nevertheless, all the changes illustrated above are not proven to be statistically significant. The Wilcoxon signed rank test (see table 29) shows that the observed difference between all pre-and-post measurements is not significant, $p >$ 0.05(computed p= .080, .102, and .083).

Table 29 Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test of the Experiment Measures

	Strategy Knowledge After – Strategy Knowledge Before	Apprehension Levels After - Apprehension Levels Before	Writing Competence levels After - Writing Competence levels Before
Z	-1.753[a]	-1.633[b]	-1.732[b]
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	.102	.083

a. Based on positive ranks.
b. Based on negative ranks.

Thus, the null hypothesis, that both samples are from the same population, is accepted, and no significant difference has been found. Therefore, it might be assumed that the instruction of process-based writing strategies does not seem to have a significant effect on the increase or decrease in students' apprehension levels or writing competence levels.

The next section will discuss the findings relating to RQ2 and its sub-questions.

5.4.1. Discussion of RQ2.

Although three of the five participants in the experiment have reported a change in their apprehension levels and competence levels after the treatment, this change was not strong enough. In addition, causation could not be inferred here due to the controversial nature of the pre-experiment and to the small number of the participants. In addition, the absence of a statistically significant difference between

the sample's apprehension levels and competence levels before and after the intervention contributes to the rejection of causation.

Rejecting causation in this study is not in line with findings of previous studies, which have indicated that process-oriented strategy instruction is supposed to have a measurable 'effect on the students' ability to reflect on their writing and to produce more effective and appropriate texts in the target language' (Archibald, 2001, p. 155). This is found to be true in a number of studies. For example, Sasaki's findings (2004) indicate that the participants improved their English writing proficiency, quality, fluency, and confidence after receiving instruction in process-oriented planning and revision strategies. In addition, Sengupta (2000) found that revision strategy instruction had a measurable positive effect on students' final draft quality. Rao (2007) also found a measurable positive influence on the participants' writing performance after an explicit instruction in brainstorming strategies. Despite the present study falling short of these certainty levels, the findings regarding the slight changes, though insignificant, seem to be compatible with the slight changes that occurred with the six participants in Wang's (2007) case study.

The reflection on the strategy instruction in the present study revealed a number of things. First, a five-week treatment was insufficient to satisfy both the researcher's interest and the participants' curiosity about this new way of teaching. It was the first experience of strategy instruction for both the researcher and the participants. However, that experience had adjusted the researcher's beliefs about how to improve EFL students' writing by considering the vital element of strategy instruction and not being restricted by pre-set teaching methodologies.

Second, although the participants reported some knowledge about the strategies before the treatment, none of them in reality had access to or knew about

process-based writing strategies in general and the seven targeted ones in particular. This seems to be congruent with Wang's findings about his subjects' perceived and actual knowledge of writing strategies (Wang, 2007, p. 124).

Third, when the participants were given opportunities to judge the goodness and the badness of the newly instructed strategies, all of them judged the strategies to be good after the instruction that explicitly raised their awareness of the process-based writing strategies. However, all of them questioned the usefulness and practicality of such strategies in ESP writing classes, where the topic is already assigned and the steps of writing (for example, a lab report) are already determined by the teacher or the textbook. In other ways, they saw no need for learning idea-generating strategies for the purposes of the short-term goal of their academic study or in the long-term goal of their careers. Nevertheless, they found those strategies helpful for their personal writing. In an industrial college like JIC, students are not supposed to write about subtle subjective or creative ideas. They need only learn how to write reports, describe mechanical tools and explain chemical procedures. All these types of writing would be better learned in a model-based writing approach. However, the participants' eagerness to learn those strategies to satisfy their personal interests would suggest that our teaching approaches need to consider this vital element of enthusiasm in our students, even if such instruction would not feed directly into their academic needs.

Fourth, I have found that the basic concept of strategy is not well understood by our college student writers. Therefore, providing EFL student writers with explicit strategy instruction can prove helpful in allowing them to foster and develop their writing skills. Moreover, providing students with only one type of writing strategies (process-based) is limiting the power of strategy instruction. Instructing different types of strategies is assumed to provide a detailed understanding of the differences and

similarities that exist across writing strategies. Instructing students to use and understand different types of strategies will help them work more strategically and overcome many obstacles. This is not to say that the participants were strategically paralyzed; they in fact used a good number of strategies but they need access to more strategies, even if this access is not needed with respect to their short-term writing goals. However, the overall approach in class needs to be ESP-related but injected with process-oriented strategy instruction. This seems to be congruent with Al-Semari's conclusion (1993), which emphasized the importance of both process- and product-oriented revising strategies. In reality, difficulties in writing (low competence and high stress) will manifest in spite of strategy instruction if a balance between process and product is not ensured.

Fifth, lack of authentic materials on writing strategy instruction limits both the teacher's role and the students' willingness to participate more actively. Helpful strategy instruction entails providing learners with detailed and organized materials, including definitions, examples, pictures, functions and tasks on strategy use. However, such materials should be supplementary to textbooks and never be a substitute.

In conclusion, although I aimed to raise my students' awareness of some process-oriented writing strategies and managed to elicit some improvement in implementing them in their writing, not all the participants were convinced about the practicality of such strategies in their ESP classes. Nevertheless, they were very eager to use those strategies for their personal writing. Therefore, it can be concluded that process-oriented writing strategy training is beneficial for the sake of our students' individual interests, though students still need substantial instruction in product-related

features and strategies to cope with the language demands of their college writing courses.

The conclusion of the pre-experimental part of the study seems to echo the conclusion of the cross-sectional part regarding the importance of diversity in writing instruction and strategy instruction. This seems to be in connection with Wang's (2007, p. 92) recommendation that:

As learners differ in their knowledge, their application of strategies, their attitudes [or feelings] towards the strategies, their learning styles, their motivation and even their language proficiency [or writing competence], the trainer should take different approaches or change his or her teaching approaches now and then so as to cater for various learners.

5.5. Chapter conclusion

This mixed methods study set out to answer questions concerning 121 Saudi students' EFL writing strategies, strategy-related apprehension levels, writing competence levels, the nature of correlation among these elements, and the role of process-based strategy instruction in reducing apprehension and increasing competence. Investigating strategies is inherently complex and sometimes misleading, since different research methods provide diverse, equivocal and apparently contradictory results, causing difficulty in comparison.

In the context of the present study, these difficulties appear to have been exacerbated by the relatively small cohorts used in the qualitative methods; however, it could be also related to the different approaches used to analyse data obtained from different instruments (deductive vs. inductive). The inconclusive nature of some of the findings taken as a whole is probably partly due to inter-individual and intra-individual

differences in EFL writing skill (again, these differences are magnified in a smaller cohort). In addition, there is little or no consensus in the literature on strategy definition and/or theoretical frameworks for writing strategy taxonomies or the strategy items to be used in the questionnaires and categories of the coding schemes.

Despite being in product-oriented writing settings, the participants seemed not to be product-oriented in their writing strategies. This contradicts the findings of some previous work in this field in which the writers' previous writing experience and/or previous writing instruction have been found to influence, or be associated, with their writing strategies (Aljamhoor, 1996; Fageeh, 2003; El-Mortaji, 2001; Chaaban, 2010; Cumming, 1989; Leki, 1995; Roca de Larios & Murphy, 2001; Porte, 1996; 1997; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Sengupta, 2000). Furthermore, the previous research findings that product-oriented writing strategies were found dominant in Arab students' ESL/EFL writing (Fageeh, 2003; Al-Semari, 1993; Krapels, 1990b; El-Mortaji, 2001; El-Aswad, 2002) were not supported in this study, where the majority of the participants used process and product strategies more-or-less equally. As a result, the researcher is not convinced that only process-oriented writing strategies should be recommended for Arab student writers to overcome their writing difficulties. Rather, a balance between process and product types of writing strategies is recommended by the findings of the present study. This recommendation is in line with the findings of Cumming et al. (2007), that ESL students have distinct aims to improve their 'fluency, accuracy, and complexity that theorists such as Skehan (1998) have proposed to be benchmarks for task design for second-language curricula' (p. 109).

Furthermore, the results of this study found that L1 (Arabic) use was not used by the majority of the participants. The wide majority of the participants (regardless of competence and apprehension levels) reported that they did not use Arabic in their

English writing. This can be interpreted as supporting the studies that discouraged the use of L1 (Chelala, 1981; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Sasaki and Hirose, 1996; Whalen and Ménard, 1995) in L2 writing. However, this is against the findings of Manchón *et al.* (2007) that there is a consensus view among researchers that only skilled writers use their L1 as a strategy to overcome lexical problems, and using the L1 in generating L2 texts is generally considered an asset in L2 writing. Krapels (1990a, p.46) also found that using L1 in the composing process can be considered as a 'fairly common strategy among L2 writers'. Nevertheless, as asserted by Abdel-Latif (2009, p. 34),

> ...the findings of [...] studies drawing on retrospective data seem to be congruent in indicating that writers with lower levels of L2/FL proficiency use their L1 more frequently than writers with higher levels, [but] the findings of the think-aloud protocol studies do not seem to point to this conclusion consistently.

In fact, there seem to be different definitions of L1 use in L2 writing among the researchers. Results might be consistent if researchers mean L1 speaking or thinking in L2 writing, but their findings might differ if they mean L1 writing in L2 writing. All in all, the findings from this study would not allow us to have a strong conclusion regarding the usefulness or otherwise of L1 use in L2 writing.

Although the present results of L1 use in L2 writing indicated a positive correlation between the less use of L1 and average apprehension and competence levels in L2 writing, the present researcher is not convinced to discourage the use of L1 in L2 writing for two reasons. First, the correlation was too weak to be meaningful. Second, the participants were asked about only one aspect of L1 use (written translation), and while they tended not to use that strategy, this does not mean that L1

use and its other aspects (speaking and thinking) are useless. This is supported by the findings of the think-aloud protocols, discussed above, where some students verbalized using L1 during planning. Therefore, the researcher calls for more investigation of how different aspects of L1 use in L2 writing can affect writing competence and apprehension. This would inform the discussion of whether such practices should be encouraged or discouraged in ESL teaching generally and ESL writing specifically.

In conclusion, the present study seems to make six contributions to the existing knowledge. First, the classification of writing strategies based on the instructional philosophies of process and product is a contribution in the field to the best of the author's knowledge. The different classifications and conceptualizations of writing strategies seemed to be informed by the taxonomic approaches used in different fields to investigate different skills (see, e.g., Oxford, 1985, 2011; Oxford & Schramm, 2007). The previous classifications of writing strategies were either broad, at different levels of generality, or narrow (see Manchóc et al., 2007). The broad taxonomic list was based on identifying the strategies of planning, writing and revision, regardless of their instructional principles. Another broad taxonomic list adopted the classification of Oxford (1990) and distinguished metacognitive, cognitive, compensatory, social and affective writing strategies. The narrow conceptualisation of writing strategies, on the other hand, entails identifying the problem-solving strategies that students use while composing.

Inspired by the claim of LoCastro (1994, as cited in Grenfell & Macaro, 2007, p. 19) that strategies developed by learners might be influenced by the teaching method, the classification and conceptualization of writing strategies in this study is informed by the principles of writing instruction approaches, particularly process

approaches and product approaches. Thus, the researcher aimed to make his new classification operationally defined and directly related to writing instruction, as called for by many experts in the field (e.g., Manchón, 2001; Rose, 2012a). This definition strictly guided the methodological decisions, the selection of questionnaire items, the drawing up of the coding scheme, and the data analysis.

As contended by Rose (2012a), "in recent years scholars have argued that language learning strategies are too general, undefined, and incoherent, and the questionnaires designed to measure language learning strategies are inaccurate and unreliable" (p. 92). As a result, the researcher aimed to provide an operational definition to writing strategies and their classification in the light of the existing literature of writing approaches and also aimed to make the questionnaire and the think-aloud coding scheme reliable. To get as many consistent findings as possible between the questionnaire and the think-aloud protocols, the researcher followed a deductive approach of analysis in both instruments. Nevertheless, he cannot claim that his new taxonomy of writing strategies is not problematic, as this seems to be the nature of strategy taxonomies and classifications in many fields.

Second, the overall findings of the research questions would answer the question asked by Manchón (2001, p. 61) over whether 'strategies seem to be an aid to learning and performing writing [rather than] the result of such learning and practice'. This question has not been addressed empirically in writing context, to the best of the present author's knowledge. Since the participants showed the use of both process-based and product-based writing strategies in product-oriented writing classrooms, we can say that strategies can be both an aid and a result.

Third, as the analysis throughout this chapter shows, data indicate that not only the nature of EFL writing in general (as proved by other previous studies) but also

EFL writing strategies specifically can be apprehension-related. However, the cause or the direction of this relationship remains unclear.

Fourth, theoretical beliefs have been asserted in previous studies (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Horowitz, 1986; Reid, 2001) that writing cannot and should not be isolated as either a process or product activity. Previous empirical research (Alhaidari, 1991; Nayel, 1997; Polio, 2003; Stapa, 1994) has supported those assertions. The present empirical research adds to the data pool the elements of a process-product strategy taxonomy, a strategy-related apprehension scale and strategy instruction. Therefore, other researchers who are still preferring one writing approach to another need to reconsider their positions. For example, Abdel-Latif (2009) asserted on the importance of teaching language-related aspects of writing to EFL learners. Such assertion would lead teachers to believe that product-oriented instruction is more recommended than the process-oriented one. It is a fact that our ESP/EFL learners need to learn those aspects of writing and they do have deficiencies in those areas, but it does not mean that we, as teachers, just focus on teaching the product-related aspects of writing and neglect the process-oriented features. On the contrary, if we care about our students' personal writing and improve their strategies in creativity and generating ideas, it would be helpful to develop their writing abilities and skills. Meeting our students' personal needs can be a catalyst in a learning environment for better writing, more competence and less apprehension. In addition, the results showed that the participants tended to use an equal mixture of process and product writing strategies although the product-oriented ones were more stressful. They did not isolate strategies as process or product. The lesson we take as teachers is that we need to realize that our students' needs in EFL writing are far more than just language-related features.

Fifth, to the best of the present author's knowledge, no prior research has addressed Saudi students' writing strategies in terms of underlying instructional principles or in terms of their apprehension in English writing.

Finally, this topic contributes to the very little research done on the ESP/EFL writing strategies, particularly in the Saudi context, as many aspects of the ESP writing strategies are still understudied. In addition, empirical research in Arab ESP/EFL writing strategies is still in its infancy.

The next is the final chapter of the research. It will present the conclusion, implications and recommendations of the study.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1. Summary and Conclusion

This study explored the writing strategies of 121 second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who are studying English as a foreign language and for specific purposes in one of the Saudi industrial colleges: Jubail Industrial College (JIC). The main inquiry of the research is whether writing strategies inspired by the principles and ideologies of particular teaching approaches have an impact on or connection to students' levels of apprehension and competence. The writing strategies under investigation had been classified into two categories (process-oriented writing strategies and product-oriented writing strategies) based on their instructional philosophies. A strategy questionnaire was designed for data collection, and think-aloud protocols of 4 participants were used for triangulation purposes. In addition, a Writing Strategy Apprehension Scale (WSAS) was developed to collect data on apprehension levels and semi-structured interviews with 8 participants were conducted for deep investigation. The participants' writing competence levels were measured by an argumentative writing task. Based on the scores of the strategy questionnaire, the apprehension scale and the writing task, the participants were classified into three levels of strategy users, three levels of strategy apprehension and three levels of writing competence.

The results show that although JIC writing classes were assumed to be product-oriented as reported by the majority of the participants' description of their teachers' writing approach (in the questionnaires and interviews) and as experienced by the researcher himself for 8 years of teaching, almost all of the participants (95.9%) were mixing the two kinds of strategies. More surprisingly, the top five writing strategies

used were process-oriented. While the majority of the participants (57.9%) were average in their stress and apprehension towards writing strategies, almost a third of them (31.4%) were highly apprehensive. The most stressful strategies were those that involve a lack of generating ideas, ensuring accuracy, and meeting the teacher's expectations.

The results, also, show that the low competent writers were similar to the high apprehensive strategy users in their kinds of strategy use. Both of them tended to use more process-oriented writing strategies than product-oriented ones. On the other hand, the high competent writers and the low apprehensive strategy users tended to use a mixture of both process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies.

The correlational analysis has found that there is a significantly positive correlation between writing-strategy apprehension levels, on one hand, and the types of writing strategies and competence levels on the other hand, indicating that when students are users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies, they are more average in their writing apprehension and writing competence. Moreover, when students are average competent writers, they are more average in their apprehension levels. The statistically documented interrelations between writing apprehension and writing competence, on one hand, and writing strategies on the other hand, should not be construed as 'influencing' the writing ability at the different levels. It may be the writing ability that may influence students' levels of apprehension and choices of writing strategies. This study shows that an interaction effect exists but it does not indicate what causes what.

Correlational studies like this cannot establish cause-effect relationship, but can show that events happen together at a rate which cannot be explained by chance. Also, this study can only hope to contribute to our growing understanding

of the relationship between writing instructional practices, writing strategies and writing apprehension. This information might be a provocative step in establishing a connection between teachers' practices and their students' writing strategies and writing feelings.

In addition, three other variables in the research (L1 use in L2 writing, L1 general writing practice, and L2 general writing practice) were not found to be strongly related to both strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence levels.

Finally, in the pre-experimental treatment, five students have been taught 7 process-based writing strategies over a period of 5 weeks for the sake of finding the effect of such type of strategies on students' competence and apprehension levels. The results of the pre-experiment revealed that three of the participants had reported a positive change in their apprehension and competence levels. However, all the changes were not statistically significant.

6.2. Limitations of the study

There are several obvious limitations in the present study, reflected in the relative ambiguity of some of the findings. First, the study setting within a single educational institution may have skewed the results due to prevalence among different strategies espoused by the curriculum and instructors. In addition, the reader needs to take the EFL/ESP writing context in a Saudi Arabian industrial college into consideration when generalizing the results of this study. Therefore, surveying students from other colleges in different places may be helpful in understanding the instructional type of their writing strategies and the correlation of that with their strategy-related apprehension levels and writing competence. Second, the small cohort

used in the think-aloud protocols (N=4) and interviews (N= 8) may have significantly skewed the findings, despite the wealth of data gathered.

The third limitation of the study is related to writing competence and apprehension. Writing competence is measured in accordance with the intermediate level of the participants. For example, those who are ranked as high competence writers are conceived high competent in accordance with their intermediate level of English language. They are not as high competent as a native speaker might expect. Furthermore, writing apprehension in this study has been measured in relation to writing strategy conditions, not to the general nature of EFL writing. Moreover, strategy use, strategy apprehension, and writing competence were all measured in an exam-like situation. This needs to be taken into account when interpreting the results of this study.

The fourth limitation is related to the absent of class observation and teachers' interviews (due to time constraints), which might be more informative regarding the orientation of writing instruction in JIC. Moreover, the strengths and weaknesses (and preferences) of the instructors with regards to the product-process dichotomy are unknown, and may have influenced the findings.The researcher, therefore, suggests that the results of this study may be used as testable hypotheses for additional studies.

Teachers and researchers need to be careful in generalizing the findings of the present research. Although the data is statistical, we need not to forget that 'subjects' are individual people with individual characteristics, problems and potentialities.

In addition, the results of the intervention should be dealt with as initial suggestions for further investigations due to its pre-experimental nature and very small number of the participants. Finally, the ambitious nature of the research questions (and sub-questions) rendered a complex set of data that sometimes appeared contradictory.

6.3. Implications for ESL/EFL writing approaches

This section presents an evaluation for ESL writing approaches in the light of the existing literature discussed earlier in chapter three. In addition, it provides implications for L2 writing instruction and suggests a flexible teaching approach in the light of the data obtained from this study.

While ESL writing approaches have different features in terms of goals, principles and assumptions about how ESL writing should be taught, they all have in common the belief that changes and improvements in teaching approaches will improve second language writing. However, after a critical reading of the literature one can notice that ESL writing approaches seem to emphasize important issues and ignore the significance of other important issues. It is what Silva (1990, p. 18-19) described as a "merry-go-round" of "unproductive cycle". Figure one tries to show in a continuum how far or close an approach is to the controversial issues (form, content, reader, writer, accuracy and fluency) in L2 writing instruction. The controlled approach and the free writing approach are the two extremes. The communicative approach seems to take a middle position in terms of reader-writer issue, but it is closer to content than form. The genre approach is also trying to take a middle position between content and form, but very closer to content and reader.

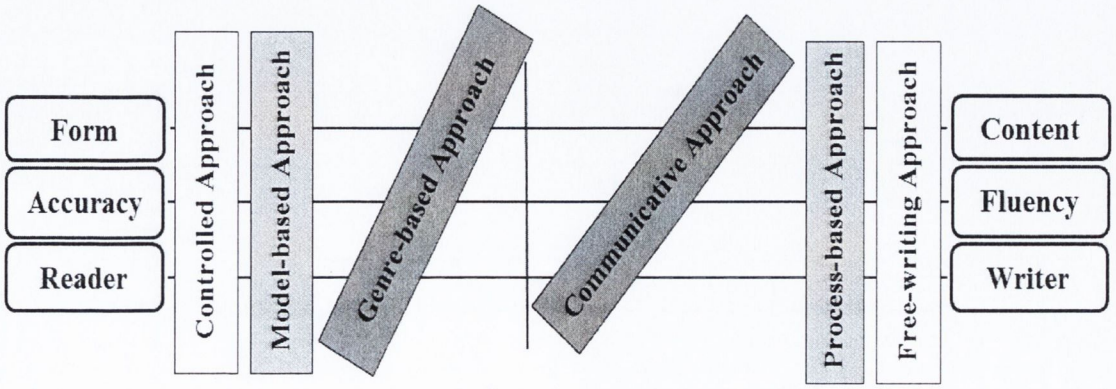


Figure 1 Writing Approaches Continuum

Although a number of previous theorists and researchers had pointed that dividing writing into process and product is wrong, some ESL/EFL teachers and researchers (Abel-Latif, 2009) are still emphasising and supporting the instruction of product-related writing aspects over the process-related ones. This was one of the reasons behind carrying out this investigation of process-product writing strategies. I agree that our EFL student writers need to be taught the product aspects of writing, but this does not mean to ignore the process aspects of writing even if these aspects do not feed directly into their academic needs. The participants in the experiment liked the process strategies of writing and found them useful for their personal writings. Meeting our students personal needs is as important as meeting their academic needs.

The overall findings of this study agree with Archibald's conclusion (2001, p. 167) that "writing is too complex an activity to be effectively and comprehensively taught using a single approach". The present researcher, therefore, encourages his fellow teachers in JIC to adopt a flexible (not fixable) approach to ESL/EFL writing instruction, where all theories of learning and teaching interact cognitively, communicatively, rhetorically, socially, and culturally within the normal process of writing. Hyland (2003b) indicates that the conflict between process and product can only be damaging to classroom practice, and the two are more usefully used to supplement and round each other out. In addition, John Schumann[47] (1999, p. 38) in his neurobiological perspective in L2 learning confirmed that there can be no best method for teaching a second language because brains respond to instruction differently.

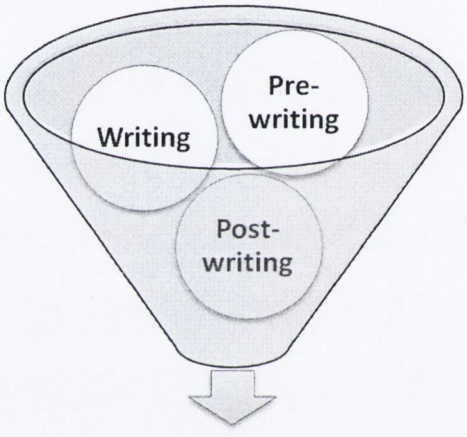
The suggestion of a socio-cognitive approach to writing instruction (Larios & Murphy, 2001) is just one of the solutions. "The study of cognitive processes in

[47] Schumann, J. H. (1999). A neurobiological perspective on affect and methodology in second language learning. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning*, pp 28-42.Cambridge, Cambridge, UK: CUP

isolation from the contexts in which they occur may turn these processes into meaningless patterns of behavior since the writing task and the writer's response to it are framed by social relationships and purposes operating in specific writing situations" (ibid:27). However, we have to be careful not to exclude personal contexts at the expense of the academic contexts. Moreover, the study of genres and discourse communities should not neglect the mental processes by which writers create and decide on meanings (ibid).

The principles of the process approach are wonderful and fascinating. Before I began to conduct this research, I was totally fascinated by the principles of the process writing approaches to the extent that I had been fighting to replace our traditional way of teaching English writing in the college. Now, I am still fascinated by the process approach but no more to fight to put it in the place of the product approach. The assumption that poor writing and high apprehension results from attention to form and lack of ideas has been found to be highly questionable. When we, as ESP/EFL teachers, insist on creative content and techniques of creating and organizing ideas, we should not forget that we are dealing with ESP student writers who have not yet mastered most of the product features and who do not need to be creative in their ESP writing ideas. This study, therefore, could not support other researchers (He, 2009; Macaro, 2001; Sasaki, 2004; Sengupta, 2000; Wang, 2007) who called for process-based instruction over the product-based one in the teaching of ESL/EFL writing. The overall conclusion of this study, therefore, insists on a flexible balance between raising EFL students' linguistic knowledge (Abdel-Latif, 2009) and product-related features of their writing, on one hand, and the need for the element of diverse strategy training in the light of the process approaches, on the other hand.

Figure 2 below is developed to show how to reconsider the process approach from a cognitive approach to a flexible approach. We, as writing teachers, can approach writing as a filtering funnel of interrelated and overlapping stations of writing processes and strategies. It shows how the three stations of writing (pre-writing, writing and post-writing) merge into a whole final product. It emphasizes the final outcome but through the inevitable, unavoidable process of filtering. What happens inside this funnel is explained in figure 3.



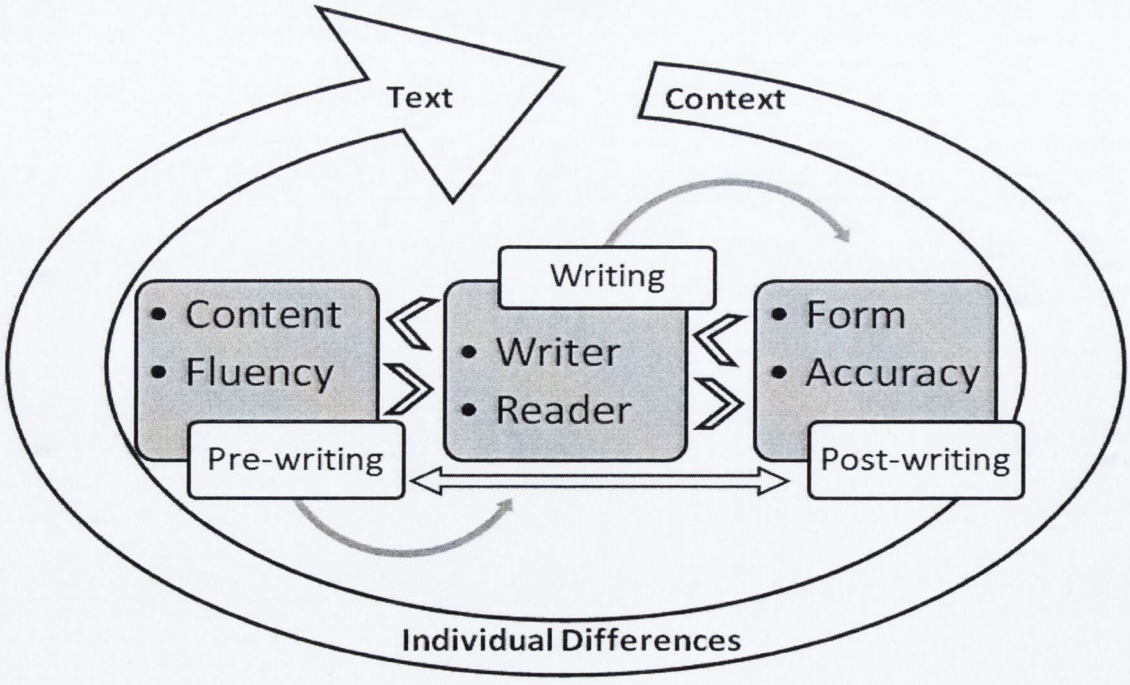


Figure 3 Inside the Flexible Approach

Figure 3 above shows that writing stations in this flexible approach are conceived as both sequentially and recursively overlapping stations in the process or flow of a writing task. Writing starts as a linear and sequential process, then, in an undetermined station, it turns out to be recursive. For example, in the pre-writing station, the content of writing and the level of fluency might be the starting point of a writing task. However, the writer can get back to and check this starting point at any time during his writing process. Checking content and being fluent is based on the writer's goals and competence and also on the reader's expectations. The form and accuracy of a written product is stereotypically perceived in, but virtually not limited to, the post-writing station. Moreover, this figure emphasizes the interaction or relationships among the stations of writing process within the text and the context framework. In addition, the results of this study have shown that the majority of the participants' types of writing strategies tended not to be oriented by any particular instructional principles despite the strong assumption that they had been instructed according to the principles of product approaches. As a result, we might assume that learning to write in EFL context is pointing toward the social constructivist view of learning in which "learners are all individuals who will bring a different set of knowledge and experiences to the learning process and will make sense of the world and the situations they are faced with in ways that are personal to them" (Williams, 1999, p. 12). Thus, any writing instruction should take into account the individual differences and never be prejudiced by any particular beliefs or ideas. Consequently, having clear-cut answers to our students' problems would be impossible. Teachers, therefore, need to bear in mind that the most flexible aspect of the teaching process is the students themselves. Making students autonomous writers enhances the writing instruction and necessitates enhancing diverse writing strategies and addressing

individual needs. The overall suggestion of this flexible approach is that we need to be ready for teaching everything and anything related to human writing.

Another suggestion for improving EFL writing instruction is concerned with the teacher-student role in learning to write. It is relatively derived from the experiential learning theory (Kohonen, 1992, p. 37) that views learning as part of personal growth and "encourages the transformation of knowledge within the learner rather than the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the learner" (as cited in Nunan, 200, p. 12). The proposed idea below, yet, encourages both the transformation and transmission of knowledge in writing classes. In addition, it owes too much to the idea of facilitation and its three modes[48] explained by John Heron (1989, p. 16-17). However, Heron argued that the teacher as a facilitator is not supposed to do things for the students. He is facilitating self-directed learning. Nevertheless, the argument here is that in EFL writing skills, the teacher should be like a cube with multi-dimensions and diverse approaches. He sometimes needs to do things for an EFL student writer based on the individual needs. Student writers need to know the how and the what, the form and the content, the product and the process, etc. Figure 4 below shows the overlapping or interconnected teacher-student and student-student relationships in writing classes. This relationship should be activated and deactivated depending on the nature of the writing tasks. However, each learner is 70% himself and 30% other selves. The teacher should be always available in any interaction as a 'super learner', rather than a teacher or a facilitator. The present research agrees with the notion of communicative competence (Swain, 1985, p. 247) in the sense that a student and a teacher are equal negotiator of meaning in the classroom. However, the argument is that the teacher is a 'super learner' who can learn from the negotiation of meaning and

[48] The three modes are the hierarchical mode (the teacher is a general planner and a decision maker), the cooperative mode (he is coordinating and negotiating the learning processes), and autonomous mode (the teacher is leaving learners to be autonomous; he is empowering them).

at the same time he is super in his knowledge of the language. Therefore, when there is a student-student negotiation of form and meaning, the teacher needs to be available for better learning. Everyone has his/her own unique zone of competence. This unique competence includes the linguistic, discourse, strategic, sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence. Through interaction in writing classes, different competences will interact leading to better learning to write in classrooms.

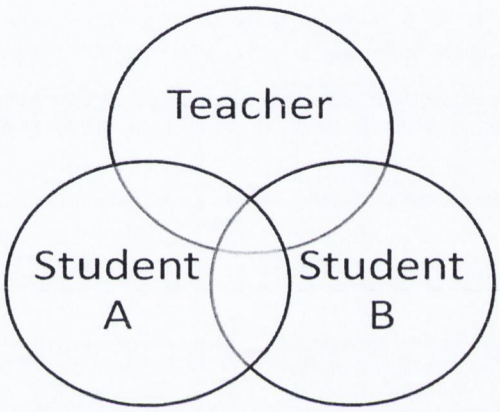


Figure 4 Teacher's and students' Interactions in writing tasks

Furthermore, the present researcher suggests that having a general-flexible approach (GFA) and an academic-flexible approach (AFA) will give a sort of a solution for the JIC academic community. The former is for beginners; the latter is for advanced students. In the GFA, students might write on free topic with free time to establish competence and confidence and reduce stress and apprehension. They might write from personal experience and beliefs on the condition that they are provided with sources and references such as reading materials or pictures to foster and support their ideas. Teacher's intervention in all stages is vital. This approach is suggested to be for JIC students in the first two years of their academic life. With the GFA, learning to write in JIC classrooms will be a long-term process with no specific time (writing is

included in all subjects), no specific topic and no writing tests, quizzes or examinations, but homework and classwork activities. In addition, as suggested by Ferris and Hedgcock (2005, p. 34), such low-proficiency students "with limited ESL academic literacy skills may benefit from extensive and intensive reading coupled with abundant practice in writing for fluency".

The AFA, on the other hand, can be on a specific topic and restricted time (specific writing classes). Students can go through the process of writing to write about an academic topic from given academic sources and supplementary materials. This approach can be used for advanced JIC students in the last two years of their college study. As Scarcella and Oxford (1992, p. 122) wrote, "the more experience students have writing about specific topics in particular genres and contexts, the more confidence they gain and the more fluent their writing becomes". Learning to write academically is seen as a short-term process with an examination to pass at the end. As suggested by Ferris and Hedgcock (2005, p. 34), such advanced college students "may gain more substantially from intensive, discipline-specific reading, guided practice in reproducing key genres, and accuracy-oriented instruction".

The GFA and AFA seem to be related to Jim Cummins' ideas of the two types of English language proficiency: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (see Cummins, 1980 and 2000). Cummins found that there was a difference between the time needed for acquiring English for social interaction and the time students usually need to acquire the academic language skills. The former usually took less time than the latter. BICS are usually context embedded. They occur in a meaningful social context. They are not very demanding cognitively. The language required is not specialized. CALP, on the other hand, refers to formal academic learning. Students need time and support to

become proficient in academic areas. The implication of this is that teachers should learn the difference between BICS and CALP proficiency so that they can assess their students in two distinct areas and provide appropriate education. However, the ideas of the terms BICS and CALP are criticized for being unfocused, value-loaded, simplified, and misrepresented to stereotype English language learners (Baker, 1993).

6.4. Suggestions for further research

The present study is, to the best of the author's knowledge, the first to take place in a strictly Saudi Arabian context to investigate the instructional type of the writing strategies of ESP learners, the connection of that to competence and apprehension, and the role of process-based strategy instruction. Thus, there is extensive scope for further work in this particular niche. Such work should include a much larger cohort across diverse educational settings. Moreover, longitudinal studies that trace teaching and writing strategies through time and gauge their impact on product/process orientation, competence and apprehension would shed a great deal more light on the issues addressed in the present study. Such work could contribute significantly to EFL language curricula and policy making within Saudi Arabia.

This study focused on second year college students. Other research can investigate the instructional type of writing strategies used by other EFL student writers. This can provide us with clearer and truer picture about the correlation of strategy type with writing problems.

Moreover, this study did not use class observations and teachers' interviews. Further research, therefore, could include those instruments to get more information so that the reality of writing instruction in Saudi Industrial colleges is clearly diagnosed.

Investigating ESL students' apprehension in L1 as well as L2 writing would be insightful to see whether emotions are transferred among languages, and whether people behave in a consistent feeling when it comes to writing.

Also, further research needs to be carried out to investigate whether particular strategies are more advantageous to students with a particular writing feeling in a given writing context than others. One question of particular interest would be to explore why a specific strategy is preferred by writers with particular writing feeling in a differing writing task or context or rather, to investigate the meaning of a strategy for particular students in a particular writing context (e.g. what does L1 use mean to a tense writer in learning to write in the post-process approach). These will further develop knowledge of the role that writing feelings and writing strategies play in EFL writing and teaching – knowledge which will in turn enhance practices in curriculum development, pedagogic appropriations and teacher training.

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Appendix1:
Argumentative writing task + Writing Strategy Questionnaire + Writing-strategy Apprehension Scale (After reliability)

Name: Class: Mobile number:	**Dear student,** Thank you very much for participating in this study. All information you will provide will be treated as strict confidential and no name will be mentioned in the study. This study consists of three stages. The current stage is of two parts: An argumentative writing task and a self-completion questionnaire. Your writing will be assessed by me and two other evaluators. If you agree to write your name, the two other evaluators will have anonymous copies of your writing, and no one will know the name of the writers except me, the researcher.

Your cooperation in doing both parts is highly appreciated and your information will be invaluable to my study. Stage 2 will include think-aloud sessions and interviews. Stage 3 will be strategy-instruction sessions for 5 weeks. Participating in stage2 and stage3 is based on the information you provide at this stage. If you surely agree to participate in the next two stages, please write your name, class number, and mobile number to be able to get back to you easily. Please, make sure again that your name and your information will be treated as strict confidential and no name will be mentioned in the study and no one will have access to that other than me.

1) AN ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING TASK

Please, Read the writing task below and answer the question in no more than 50 minutes.

"Money is regarded as the key to happiness and essential to success in the modern life".

To what extent do you agree or disagree with this opinion? Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your own knowledge or experience.

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2) WRITING STRATEGIES AND WRITING APPREHENSION

This second part of the study consists of three sections: A) General background information; B) writing strategies questionnaire; and C) scale of writing apprehension.

A) General Information

1) How many years have you been studying English? Years..... Months.....

2) Did you attend a course in English writing before coming to this college? ❒ Yes. ❒ No.

3) Do you practice English writing at home?

❒ Always ❒ Usually ❒ Sometimes ❒ Rarely ❒ Never

4) Do you practice Arabic writing?

❒ Always ❒ Usually ❒ Sometimes ❒ Rarely ❒ Never

5) Do you like writing in English?

❒ I like it a lot. ❒ I like it. ❒ I have no feelings about it.

❒ I do not like it. ❒ I do not like it at all.

6) Do you like writing in Arabic?

❒ I like it a lot. ❒ I like it. ❒ I have no feelings about it.

❒ I do not like it. ❒ I do not like it at all.

7) Have you received any sort of training on writing strategies? ❒ Yes ❒ No

If YES, please explain how you are trained.

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8) Could you please explain how you are taught English writing here in the college?

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B) Writing Strategies in English

In this part, you will find statements about the different strategies of writing in English. Please read each statement carefully and tick the box indicating how true of you the statement is. There are no right or wrong answers. Sometimes it might be difficult to answer because you have to analyze what you actually do by habit, not what you wish you could do. It would probably be best to recall exactly what you did when you wrote a recent paper. If you do not know the meaning of the underlined words, you can refer to the glossary at the end of the questionnaire.		Always 90% - 100%	Often 70% - 89%	Sometimes 50% - 79%	Rarely 30% - 49%	Almost Never 0% - 29%
1	Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources. قبل الكتابة أقرأ عن الموضوع وأجمع معلومات من مصادر مختلفة					
2	**Before writing, I create an <u>outline</u> for the whole content and organization.** قبل الكتابة أعمل مسودة بالخطوط العريضة لكامل محتوى المقال وتنظيمه					
3	Before I start writing about a topic, I do <u>freewriting</u> to get as many ideas as possible. قبل البدء في الكتابة عن موضوع أقوم بالكتابة الحرة دون توقف لجمع أكبر عدد من الأفكار					
4	Before I start, I do <u>brainstorming</u> to generate ideas. قبل الكتابة أستخدم طريقة العصف الذهني للحصول على الأفكار					
5	**If the topic is not known to me, I stop writing.** إذا كان الموضوع غير معروف لدي أتوقف عن الكتابة					
6	Before writing, I list down words, phrases and short notes related to the topic. قبل الكتابة أضع قائمة بكلمات وفقرات وملاحظات قصيرة لها علاقة بالموضوع					
7	Before writing, I discuss the topic with others (e.g. my teacher, classmate, etc.). قبل الكتابة أناقش الموضوع مع آخرين كالمعلم وزميلي في الفصل أو غيرهم					
8	Before writing, I do <u>mind mapping</u> to generate and cluster my ideas. قبل الكتابة أستخدم طريقة الخارطة الذهنية للحصول على الأفكار وتصنيفها					
9	**I write sentences in Arabic and then <u>literally translate</u> into English.** أكتب الجمل بالعربي ثم أترجم حرفيا إلى الإنجليزية					
10	When I write, I think about the <u>purpose of my writing</u>. عندما أكتب آخذ في الحسبان الغرض والهدف من المقال الذي أكتبه					
11	When I write, I think about the <u>reader of my writing</u>. عندما أكتب آخذ في الحسبان القارئ الذي سيقرأ ما أكتبه					
12	**If the topic is not known to me, I look at a model written by a native speaker or more proficient writer and try to imitate it.** إذا كان الموضوع غير معروف لدي أقرأ مقال نموذجي كتبه متحدث من أهل اللغة أو كاتب متمكن وأحاول أن أقلد المقال					
13	I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English. أكتب مقتطفات من النص بالعربي ثم أترجمها إلى الإنجليزية					
14	When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write. عندما لا أعرف كيف أعبر عن أفكاري بالإنجليزية؛ أبسط الفكره التي أريد أن أكتبها					

15	If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know. إذا لم أعرف الكلمة الإنجليزية المطلوبة بالتحديد؛ أستخدم كلمة أخرى مشابهه أعرفها					
16	**If I do not know a word in English, I stop writing and look up the word in a dictionary.** إذا لم أعرف كلمة إنجليزية؛ أتوقف عن الكتابة وأبحث عن الكلمة في القاموس					
17	**If I do not know a word in a sentence, I do not write that sentence.** إذا لم أعرف كلمة في الجملة التي سأكتبها؛ لا أكتب تلك الجملة					
18	**I try not to change what I have written whether a sentence or a paragraph.** أحاول أن لا أغير ماكتبته سواء جملة أو فقرة نصية					
19	I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas. أتوقف بعد كل جملة أو فقرة نصية لأربط الأفكار بعضها ببعض وأستنتج أفكار جديدة					
20	**While writing, I constantly check grammar.** عندما أكتب أتأكد من القواعد بشكل مستمر					
21	**If new ideas emerge, I try to ignore them and focus on the ones I have at the beginning.** إذا طرأت لي أفكار جديدة أثناء الكتابة؛ أحاول أن أتجاهلها وأركز في الأفكار التي وضعتها في البداية					
22	I delete or change a word, a phrase or a sentence when the meaning is not clear. أحذف أوأغير الكلمة أو الفقرة أو الجملة عندما يكون المعنى غير واضح					
23	**I try to use a lot of vocabulary.** أحاول أن أستخدم الكثير من المفردات					
24	**I try to make use of complex grammatical structures.** أحاول أن أستخدم تراكيب قواعدية صعبة					
25	**I try to connect shorter sentences into longer sentences to become longer.** أحاول أن أربط الجمل القصيرة بجمل أطول لتصبح أطول					
26	**I delete or change a word, a phrase or a sentence when I am not sure about spelling or grammar.** أحذف أو أغيّر كلمة أو فقرة أو جملة عندما لا أكون متأكد من الإملاء أو القواعد					
27	**I memorize proverbs and beautiful expressions to enhance and improve my writing.** أحفظ الأمثال والتعابير الجميلة لتعزيز وتحسين كتابتي					
28	**Each sentence I write has to be accurate and perfect before I'll write another sentence.** كل جملة أكتبها يجب أن تكون صحيحة وتامة قبل أن أكتب الجملة التي تليها					
29	**When revising, I focus on grammar rather than ideas.** عند المراجعة؛ أركز على القواعد أكثر من الأفكار					
30	When I revise, I rearrange sentences and paragraphs to make ideas clear. عند المراجعة؛ أعيد ترتيب الجمل والفقرات النصية لجعل الأفكار واضحة					
31	When I revise, I add new words, sentences or paragraphs if the meaning needs that. عند المراجعة؛ أضيف كلمات وجمل وفقرات جديدة عندما يتطلب المعنى ذلك					
32	When revising, I change my initial ideas and write new ideas. عند المراجعة؛ أغير أفكاري الأولى وأكتب أفكار جديدة					
33	**When I revise I focus on the layout of the content.**					

	عند المراجعة؛ أهتم بتنسيق المحتوى والإخراج العام					
34	**I add more words, phrases or sentences when the paragraph or the essay seems short.** أضيف كلمات أو فقرات أو جمل أكثر عندما أرى أن المقال قصير					
35	**When writing or revising, I take account for my <u>teacher's expectations</u>.** عند الكتابة أو المراجعة آخذ في الحسبان توقعات المعلم					
36	I keep <u>editing</u> until I finish writing the whole passage. أوأخرالتدقيق الإملائي والقواعدي حتى أنتهي من كتابة كامل القطعة					
37	When I finish, I leave my text aside for a while and then I reread it. عندما أنتهي من الكتابة؛ أضع النص جانباً لوقت قصير ثم أعيد قرائته مرة أخرى					
38	I write more than one <u>draft</u> before handing in the final draft of the essay. أكتب أكثر من مسودّة قبل أن أسلم المسودّة النهائية للمقال					
39	**When I finish writing my paper, I hand it in without rereading it.** عندما أنتهي من الكتابة؛ أسلم الورقة دون إعادة قرائتها					
40	When I finish writing my essay, I show it to somebody and ask for his/her opinion. عندما أنتهي من كتابة المقال؛ أعرضه على شخص ما وأسأله عن رأيه					

C) Writing strategy-related apprehension scale

Below are a series of statements about writing in English. There are no right or wrong answers. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you as honestly as possible. They require that you reflect on your writing. Sometimes it might be difficult to answer because you have to analyze what you actually feel, not what you wish you could feel. It would probably be best to recall exactly what you felt when you wrote a recent paper.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly DisAgree
		1	2	3	4	5
1	I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas. أشعر بالتوتر عندما يتوجب عليّ أن أغيّر أفكاري					
2	I get nervous when editing my writing. أتوتّر عند التدقيق الإملائي والقواعدي لما أكتبه					
3	Grammatical mistakes make me feel apprehensive. الأخطاء القواعدية تجعلني أشعر بالقلق					
4	Spellings and punctuations are stressful. الإملاء وعلامات الترقيم موتره					
5	It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written. تزعجني مراجعة وإعادة قراءة ما كتبته					
6	I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about. أشعر بالقلق عندما لا أفهم عن ماذا يتحدث الموضوع					
7	I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas. أشعر بالقلق عندما لا أعرف الكلمة الصحيحة التي تعبر عن أفكاري					
8	I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills. أشعر بالقلق والتوتر في مهارة الكتابة أكثر من مهارات اللغة الأخرى					
9	I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects. أشعر بالضغط عندما لا أكتب العدد الذي يصل إلى مايتوقعه المعلم من المفردات					
10	I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly. أخشى أن أستخدم التعابير وصياغات الجمل بشكل غير صحيح					

THE END

THANK YOU VERY MUCH

GLOSSARY

EXPRESSIONS	ARABIC MEANING
Outline	مسودة للمقال وفقراته على شكل جمل عامة وعناوين عريضة؛ قد يتخللها أمثلة وعناوين فرعية لكل فقرة من فقرات المقال قبل البدء بالكتابة.
Freewriting	طريقة الكتابة الحرة عن الموضوع بدون توقف لجمع أكبر عدد من الأفكار بغض النظر عن صحة الكتابة لغوياً وقواعدياً.
Brainstorming	طريقة العصف الذهني للأفكار المتعلقة بالموضوع بشكل عام
Mind mapping	الخارطة الذهنية وهي كتابة العنوان في وسط الصفحة وعمل شبكة للأفكار المترابطة كشبكة العنكبوت أفكار عامة مرتبطة بأفكار أخرى.
purpose of my writing	الغرض والمقصد من المقال؛ بمعنى وأنا أكتب آخذ في الاعتبار الغرض من هذا المقال بحيث تكون جميع الأفكار والجمل تخدم هذا الغرض.
reader of my writing	قارئ المقال؛ بمعنى وأنا أكتب أفكر بمن سيقرأ مقالي فأراعي في أفكاري وكتابتي مستوى القارئ.
Punctuations	علامات الترقيم كالنقطة والفاصلة والأحرف الكبيرة والصغيرة وغيرها.
Revise	إعادة قراءة ماكتبته لمراجعة وتنقيح الأفكار والمعنى
Editing	تنقيح وتصحيح الكلمات والإملاء والقواعد وتحريرها
layout	التنسيق والإخراج العام للمقال وترتيبه وأناقته
teacher's expectations	توقعات المعلم وتعليماته
Apprehension	القلق والتوتر

Appendix 2:
Strategy Questionnaire and Apprehension Scale (Before Reliability)

A) Writing Strategies

In this part, you will find statements about the different strategies of writing in English. Please read each statement carefully and tick the box indicating how true of you the statement is. There are no right or wrong answers. Sometimes it might be difficult to answer because you have to analyze what you actually do by habit, not what you wish you could do. It would probably be best to recall exactly what you did when you wrote a recent paper. If you do not know the meaning of the underlined words, you can refer to the glossary at the end of the questionnaire.		Always 90% - 100%	Often 70% - 89%	Sometimes 50% - 79%	Rarely 30% - 49%	Almost Never 0% - 29%
1	Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.					
2	**I start writing without having any general (written or mental) plan.**					
3	**Before writing, I create an outline for the whole content and organization.**					
4	Before I start writing about a topic, I do freewriting to get as many ideas as possible.					
5	Before I start, I do brainstorming to generate ideas.					
6	**If the topic is not known to me, I stop writing.**					
7	If the topic is not known to me, I do my best to write about ideas that are close to the topic.					
8	Before writing, I list down words, phrases and short notes related to the topic.					
9	Before writing, I discuss the topic with others (e.g. my teacher, classmate, etc.).					
10	Before writing, I do mind mapping to generate and cluster my ideas.					
11	**I write everything in Arabic and then literally translate into English.**					
12	When I write, I think about the purpose of my writing.					
13	When I write, I think about the reader of my writing.					
14	**If the topic is not known to me, I look at a model written by a native speaker or more proficient writer and try to imitate it.**					
15	**When writing I strictly follow the plan or outlines I previously put down or got in mind.**					
16	**I try not to write anything in Arabic.**					
17	I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.					
18	If I do not know a word in English, I write it in Arabic and later try to find an appropriate English word.					
19	When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.					
20	If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.					
21	**If I do not know a word in English, I stop writing and look up the word in a dictionary.**					
22	**When I have a problem finding the right word or**					

	structure, I simply delete it.					
23	**If I do not know a word in a sentence, I do not write that sentence.**					
24	**I try not to change what I have written whether a sentence or a paragraph.**					
25	I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas.					
26	While writing, new ideas emerge and are included.					
27	**I try to ignore the new ideas and focus on the ones I have put down at the beginning.**					
28	**While writing, I constantly check grammar.**					
29	**I try to use a lot of vocabularies.**					
30	**I try to make use of complex grammatical structures.**					
31	**I try to connect shorter sentences into longer, complex sentences.**					
32	I delete a word, a phrase or a sentence when the meaning is not clear.					
33	I change words, phrases or sentences when the meaning is not clear.					
34	**I delete a word, a phrase or a sentence when I am not sure about spelling or grammar.**					
35	**I memorize proverbs and expressions to enhance my writing.**					
36	**Each sentence I write has to be accurate and perfect before I'll write another sentence.**					
37	When revising, I delete whole or partial sentences or paragraphs that seem irrelevant to the topic.					
38	**When revising, I focus on grammar rather than the development of ideas.**					
39	When I revise, I rearrange sentences and paragraphs to make ideas more clear.					
40	When I revise, I add some words, sentences or paragraphs when the meaning needs that.					
41	When revising, I change my initial ideas.					
42	**When I revise I focus on the layout of the content.**					
43	**I add more words, phrases or sentences when the paragraph or the essay seems short.**					
44	**When writing or revising, I take account for my teacher's expectations.**					
45	**I only read what I have written when I have finished the whole paper.**					
46	I keep editing until I finish writing the whole passage.					
47	When I finish, I leave my text aside for a while and then I reread it.					
48	I write more than one draft before handing in the final draft of the essay.					
49	**When I finish writing my paper, I hand it in without reading it.**					
50	When I finish writing my essay, I show it to somebody and ask for his/her opinion.					

B) Apprehension Scale

Below are a series of statements about writing in English. There are no right or wrong answers. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you as honestly as possible. They require that you reflect on your writing. Sometimes it might be difficult to answer because you have to analyze what you actually feel, not what you wish you could feel. It would probably be best to recall exactly what you felt when you wrote a recent paper.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		1	2	3	4	5
1	**I feel that I like to plan my ideas before I write.**					
2	I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas.					
3	I feel nervous when editing my writing.					
4	**I feel that I like to write a lot.**					
5	It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written.					
6	**I feel that I like narrative and descriptive topics**					
7	**I feel that I like argumentative topics.**					
8	I feel apprehensive if I make grammatical mistakes in writing.					
9	Spellings and punctuations make me feel nervous in my writing.					
10	**It does not bother me at all to revise and reread my writing.**					
11	I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.					
12	I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas.					
13	I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills.					
14	I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects.					
15	I feel tense when I write English without using Arabic.					
16	**It does not bother me to write more than one draft before handing in the final one.**					
17	**It does not bother me to write words that I do not know their spellings.**					
18	**I don't feel apprehensive when my writing does not follow the model of English writing.**					
19	I feel apprehensive when using expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly.					
20	**I usually feel comfortable and at ease when writing in English.**					
21	**It does not bother me to hand in my essay without checking the neatness and the layout of the content.**					
22	**Practicing writing with others is an enjoyable experience.**					

Appendix 3: Questions of the Writing-strategy Apprehension Interview

1. Can you tell me about the way you are taught English writing in JIC?
2. Can you please explain in details what you actually feel when you have to do English writing both in class and at home?
3. What are the things or the behaviours that really make you feel upset in writing?
4. What are the behaviours that you do or that the teacher asks you to do in writing and you feel that those behaviours are helpful and make you feel relaxed and comfortable when you write?
5. Which one is better and why: planning your ideas globally or outlining them in details before you start writing?
6. Does planning before writing bother you?
7. Do you like to revise and reread what you have written? Why?
8. Which one is better: to edit every word and sentence as soon as you write them or to keep editing till the end? Why?
9. How do you feel when you do not know the spelling of a word?
10. How do you feel when you do not have ideas or you do not know what the topic is talking about?
11. How do you feel when you have to write in pairs or in groups?
12. How do you feel when you write something and then you find that you have to change it because of meaning?
13. Do you like to write one draft or more than one? Why?
14. How do you feel when you hand in your writing without checking the neatness and the layout of the content?
15. How do you feel when you do not write as many words as the teacher expects?

Appendix 4: The 7 Process-based Writing Strategies instructed

Dear student,

Thank you very much for participating in this process-based writing strategies questionnaire. All information you will provide will be treated as strict confidential and no name will be mentioned in the study. Your cooperation is highly appreciated and your information will be invaluable to my study.

In this questionnaire, you will find statements about 7 process-typed strategies of writing in English. Please read each statement carefully and tick the box indicating your knowledge percentage about the statement.		90% -100%	70% - 89%	50% - 69%	30% - 49%	0% - 29%
1	Before I start writing, I know how to read about the topic and collect information from different sources. قبل أن أبدأ الكتابة: أعرف كيف أقرأ عن الموضوع وأجمع عنه معلومات من مصادر مختلفه					
2	Before I start writing, I know how to use freewriting to get as many ideas as possible. قبل أن أبدأ الكتابة: أعرف كيف أستخدم الكتابة الحرة للحصول على أكثر عدد ممكن من الأفكار					
3	Before I start writing, I know how to create a mind map to plan for the ideas. قبل أن أبدأ الكتابة: أعرف كيف أصنع خارطة ذهنية للتخطيط للأفكار					
4	Before I start writing, I know how to do brainstorming to generate ideas. قبل أن أبدأ الكتابة: أعرف كيفية العصف الذهني للحصول على الأفكار					
5	In English writing, I know how to use Arabic as a writing strategy. في الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية أعرف كيف أستخدم اللغة العربية كاستراتيجية للكتابة					
6	I know about the ways of editing as a process-based writing strategy. أعرف طرق تحرير الكتابة كاستراتيجية مبنية على المعالجة الكتابية					
7	I know about drafting as a process-based writing strategy. أعرف كيفية صياغة المسودة كاستراتيجية مبنية على المعالجة الكتابية					

Appendix 5: Statistical Tables

Table1 The Five Most Used Writing Strategies					
	Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the purpose of my writing.)	Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)	Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the reader of my writing.)	Process Strategy (I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas.)
Mean	1.5620	1.9917	1.9669	2.3471	2.1736
SD	.82556	1.00412	.99108	1.26300	1.10059
Frequency	72	47	46	41	40
%	59.5%	38.8%	38%	33.9%	33.1%

Table 2 The Five Least Used Writing Strategies					
	Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Product Strategy (When I finish writing my paper, I hand it in without rereading it.)	Process Strategy (When revising, I change my initial ideas and write new ideas.)	Process Strategy (I write more than one draft before handing in the final draft of the essay.)	Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)
Mean	4.0248	3.9917	4.1157	3.9669	3.6942
SD	1.35070	1.13648	1.00158	1.11006	1.39549
Frequency	70	55	53	51	50
%	57.9%	45.5%	43.8%	42.1%	41.3%

Table 3 The most used strategies by high apprehensive writers					
	Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)	Process Strategy (I delete or change a word, a phrase or a sentence when the meaning is not clear.)	Process Strategy (I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas.)	Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the purpose of my writing.)
Mean	1.5620	1.9669	2.4050	2.1736	1.9917
SD	.82556	.99108	1.09984	1.10059	1.00412
Frequency	33	28	27	27	26
%	27.3%	23.1%	22.3%	22.3%	21.5%

Table 4 The most used strategies my low apprehensive writers

	Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)	Product Strategy (When writing or revising, I take account for my teacher's expectations.)	Product Strategy (I add more words, phrases or sentences when the paragraph or the essay seems short.)	Product Strategy (While writing, I constantly check grammar.)
Mean	1.5620	1.9669	2.4793	2.5041	2.3967
SD	.82556	.99108	1.24565	1.11896	1.19359
Frequency	11	10	10	9	9
%	9.1%	8.3%	8.3%	7.5%	7.5%

Table 5 The 5 most used strategies by high competent writers

	Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)	Process Strategy (I delete or change a word, a phrase or a sentence when the meaning is not clear.)	Product Strategy (I try to use a lot of vocabularies.)	Product Strategy (I add more words, phrases or sentences when the paragraph or the essay seems short.)
Mean	1.5620	1.9669	2.4050	2.4545	2.5041
SD	.82556	.99108	1.09984	1.04881	1.11896
Frequency	13	11	10	10	10
%	19%	16.2%	14.8%	14.8%	14.8%

Table 6 The most used strategies by low competent writers

	Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	Process Strategy (I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas.)	Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the purpose of my writing.)	Process Strategy (When I revise, I add new words, sentences or paragraphs when the meaning needs that.)	Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)
Mean	1.5620	2.1736	1.9917	2.4132	1.9669
SD	.82556	1.10059	1.00412	1.15952	.99108
Frequency	25	20	20	19	18
%	36.8%	29.4%	29.4%	27.9%	26.5%

Table 7 Correlation between Strategy Apprehension and L1/L2 Writing Practice				
		Do you practice English writing at home?)	Do you practice Arabic writing?)	Strategy Apprehension Scale
Do you practice English writing at home?)	Pearson Correlation	1	.259**	.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004	.677
	N	121	121	121
Do you practice Arabic writing?)	Pearson Correlation	.259**	1	.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004		.365
	N	121	121	121
Strategy Apprehension Scale	Pearson Correlation	.038	.083	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.677	.365	
	N	121	121	121
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

*Table 8 Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.) * Levels of EFL Writing Apprehension*						
			Levels of EFL Writing Apprehension			Total
			More Apprehensive	Average Apprehensive	Low Apprehensive	
Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Always	Count	5	4	1	10
		% of Total	4.1%	3.3%	.8%	8.3%
	Often	Count	7	4	0	11
		% of Total	5.8%	3.3%	.0%	9.1%
	Sometimes	Count	7	7	1	15
		% of Total	5.8%	5.8%	.8%	12.4%
	Rarely	Count	4	9	2	15
		% of Total	3.3%	7.4%	1.7%	12.4%
	Almost never	Count	15	46	9	70
		% of Total	12.4%	38.0%	7.4%	57.9%
Total		Count	38	70	13	121
		% of Total	31.4%	57.9%	10.7%	100.0%

*Table 9 Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.) * Levels of EFL Writing Apprehension*

			Levels of EFL Writing Apprehension			Total
			More Apprehensive	Average Apprehensive	Low Apprehensive	
Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)	Always	Count	8	5	1	14
		% of Total	6.6%	4.1%	.8%	11.6%
	Often	Count	6	6	0	12
		% of Total	5.0%	5.0%	.0%	9.9%
	Sometimes	Count	8	12	1	21
		% of Total	6.6%	9.9%	.8%	17.4%
	Rarely	Count	6	14	4	24
		% of Total	5.0%	11.6%	3.3%	19.8%
	Almost never	Count	10	33	7	50
		% of Total	8.3%	27.3%	5.8%	41.3%
Total		Count	38	70	13	121
		% of Total	31.4%	57.9%	10.7%	100.0%

Table 10 Correlation between Strategy Apprehension and L1 use

		Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)	Strategy Apprehension Scale
Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Pearson Correlation	1	.698**	.202*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.027
	N	121	121	121
Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)	Pearson Correlation	.698**	1	.281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.002
	N	121	121	121
Strategy Apprehension Scale	Pearson Correlation	.202*	.281**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.002	
	N	121	121	121

Table 11 Writing competence levels

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low competent writers	28	23.1	41.2	41.2
	Average competent writers	26	21.5	38.2	79.4
	High competent writers	14	11.6	20.6	100.0
	Total	68	56.2	100.0	

*Table 12 (Do you practice English writing at home?) * Writing competence levels*

			Argumentative writing competence			Total
			Low competent writers	Average competent writers	More competent writers	
Background (Do you practice English writing at home?)	Always	Count	2	1	1	4
		% of Total	2.9%	1.5%	1.5%	5.9%
	Usually	Count	1	1	1	3
		% of Total	1.5%	1.5%	1.5%	4.4%
	Sometimes	Count	6	7	2	15
		% of Total	8.8%	10.3%	2.9%	22.1%
	Seldom	Count	12	9	7	28
		% of Total	17.6%	13.2%	10.3%	41.2%
	Never	Count	7	8	3	18
		% of Total	10.3%	11.8%	4.4%	26.5%
Total		Count	28	26	14	68
		% of Total	41.2%	38.2%	20.6%	100.0%

*Table 13 (Do you practice Arabic writing?) * Writing competence levels*

			Argumentative writing competence			Total
			Low competent writers	Average competent writers	More competent writers	
Background (Do you practice Arabic writing?)	Always	Count	4	0	0	4
		% of Total	5.9%	.0%	.0%	5.9%
	Usually	Count	3	6	0	9
		% of Total	4.4%	8.8%	.0%	13.2%
	Sometimes	Count	6	3	2	11
		% of Total	8.8%	4.4%	2.9%	16.2%
	Seldom	Count	5	6	4	15
		% of Total	7.4%	8.8%	5.9%	22.1%
	Never	Count	10	11	8	29
		% of Total	14.7%	16.2%	11.8%	42.6%
Total		Count	28	26	14	68
		% of Total	41.2%	38.2%	20.6%	100.0%

Table 14 Correlations between writing competence levels and general writing practices in L1/L2

		Background (Do you practice Arabic writing?)	Background (Do you practice English writing at home?)	Argumentative writing competence
Background (Do you practice Arabic writing?)	Pearson Correlation	1	.259**	.267*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004	.028
	N	121	121	68
Background (Do you practice English writing at home?)	Pearson Correlation	.259**	1	-.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004		.990
	N	121	121	68
Argumentative writing competence	Pearson Correlation	.267*	-.002	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	.990	
	N	68	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 6: A Lesson Plan for Strategy Instruction

LESSON ONE

Strategy Title: Consulting Authentic Resources for Generating Ideas.
Aim: Students will plan their ideas by searching and reading authentic sources.
Proposed materials: Authentic materials such as newspapers, magazines, internet etc.

Procedures:

First session

1- The teacher warmed the class up by asking this question: What is the difference between reading and writing? Open discussion will take place for 10 minutes.
2- For 10 minutes, the teacher introduced the strategy of 'Consulting Authentic Resources for Generating Ideas'. The teacher gave examples of writing topics and wrote them on the board. Students were asked to think about what the possible authentic sources for each topic, e.g. websites, magazines, newspapers, journals, books, encyclopaedias, etc. The teacher, then, explained how to consult those resources and advised students not to imitate what they read or take them as models; otherwise, they will be inhibited and prevented from developing their own voices.
3- For 10 minutes, the teacher read the following paragraph from *Saudi Gazette* : *Wednesday, 28 December 2011*
JEDDAH — The Ministry of Interior's decision making it mandatory for expatriate engineers to pass an accreditation examination of the Saudi Council of Engineers (SCE) before renewal of their Iqamas has evoked a mixed reaction from engineers here. The decision also introduces a number of other measures to verify qualifications and determine levels of expertise and experience. Ra'afat Mohammad, an Egyptian civil engineer at a construction company in Jeddah, said the decision would ensure that only qualified engineers work in Saudi Arabia.
4- The teacher, then, summarized the above newspaper paragraph in his own words and drew students' attention to the ideas of the text rather than grammar, words, or style. The teacher, then, wrote his sentence on the board as follows:
The SCE exams for non-Saudi engineers will clear the career paths and enhance the quality control.
5- For 10 minutes, the teacher asked students to speculate and think beyond the previous paragraph by discussing the possible consequences of applying the SCED exams.
6- The session ends with homework. Students were asked to do two things: first, to summarize the main ideas of an optional text in their own words; second, to state what they think about the ideas they have summarized and how they did the summary.

Second session:

1- The teacher started with a quick review of what has been done in the last session.
2- For 10 minutes, students were asked to discuss and share their homework for comparison and contrast. Then, each pair of students was asked to report to the whole class their opinions about reading sources before writing.
3- For 15 minutes, the teacher handed out copies from Ferris and Hedgcock's (2005) *Teaching ESL Composition* about instructions and principles on summarizing, paraphrasing and quoting. Students were asked to read their copies and get ready for the task.
4- For 20 minutes, the teacher handed out two texts about "Luther King", and students were asked to write at least three sentences in their own words summarizing each text ideas and main argument. Students need to know how to capture ideas and that what they say is more important than grammar and syntax. Students were advised not to imitate what they read or take them as models.
5- The second session ended with an assignment. Students are asked to reinforce the use of that strategy at home and to come back to class with more opinions and difficulties regarding that strategy.

Third session:

1- The teacher starts with a quick review of what has been done in the last two sessions.
2- For 20 minutes, students worked in pairs and exchanged their summaries about "Luther King" to compare them to the original passages. Then, the teacher encouraged students to talk in their groups about the benefits and drawbacks of this strategy.
3- For 20 minutes, students, then, were invited individually to come on board to tell about their opinions and difficulties in planning their ideas based on consulting authentic resources.
4- The session ended with homework for the second lesson. The teacher asked students to write their diaries for the rest of the day. Their writings were used as a teaching material for lesson two, i.e. as an example of freewriting strategy.

Appendix 7: Transcription Conventions.[49]

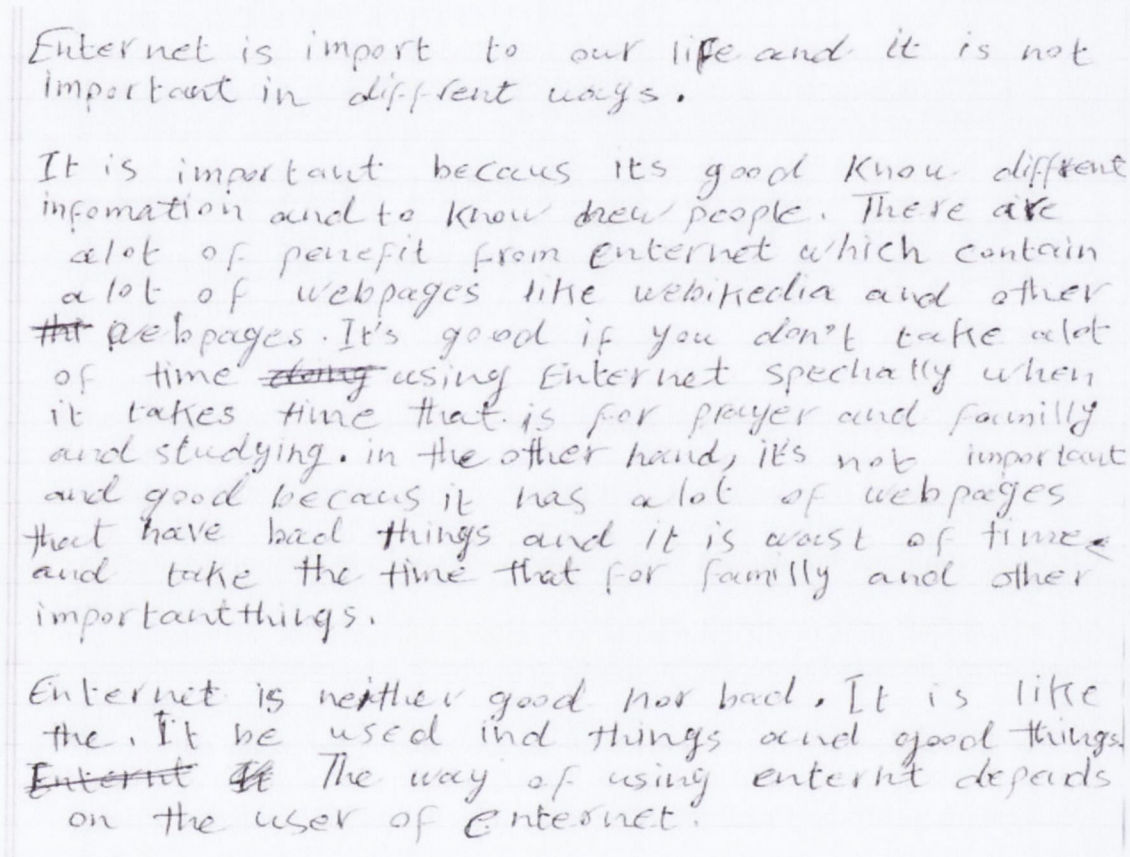
Transcription convention	Meaning
xxx	Writing in Arabic with or without verbalizing.
xxx	Speaking in Arabic without writing
xxx	Reading written Arabic text
xxx	Writing in English with or without verbalizing.
XXX	Speaking in English without writing
xxx	Reading written English text
~~xxx~~	Deleted or crossed out text
<*xxx*>	Added text
(xxx)	Transcriber's comment
(...)	Five-or-more-than-Five second pause
xxx	Pausing utterances
x-x-x	Spelling out the word

[49] Adapted from AbdelLatif's study (2009).

Appendix 8: Transcribed and Analyzed Think-aloud Protocols

Task Question: "Internet is regarded as very important to modern life". *To what extent do you agree or disagree with this opinion? Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your own knowledge or experience.*

1- A High Apprehensive Writer
The text produced


Enternet is import to our life and it is not important in diffrent ways.

It is important because its good Know diffrent infomation and to know new people. There are alot of penefit from enternet which contain a lot of webpages like webikedia and other ~~the~~ webpages. It's good if you don't take alot of time ~~doing~~ using Enternet specially when it takes time that is for prayer and familly and studying. in the other hand, it's not important and good because it has a lot of webpages that have bad things and it is waist of time and take the time that for family and other importantthings.

Enternet is neither good nor bad. It is like the. It be used ind things and good things ~~Enternt~~ ~~It~~ The way of using enterht depends on the user of Enternet.

The transcribed and analysed protocol (translated)

Enternet is import for our li~~v~~fe with f not v **//TB1//** (coughing) **and it is not important in diffrent ways In different ways in different ways** //**TB8**// now I have to write a word what is it //**TB11**// I have to mention these points exactly **different ways** this is the introduction I'll start with the body now and complete the body then the conclusion and that's it ok in the body I talk about the points I mentioned in the introduction //**TB15**// **IT IS IMPORTANT** I'll say why it's **IMPORTANT** and why it's not important **//PA1//**
It is important because its good TO KNOW DIFFERENT to know different things and new different people and know people **//PA2// TO know diffrent information and to know DIFFERENT PEOPLE new people** better **//PB5//**

THERE IS A LOT OF BENEFITS there ~~is~~ THERE are //TB2// a lot of penefit from enternet let me now detail why it's important or having a lot of benefits let me give examples **//PA2//**

from internet which CONTAINS which contains specific web pages that are useful **//PA2// which contain a lot of webpages like webikidia** I don't know how to write it even in Arabic let me say another example but I only know webikidia which is useful **//TB8//**

and let me say that there are other things without specifying them **//PA2// other** ~~the~~ **//TB2// webpages.** (…) *aah* **IT'S GOOD its good** it's useful if you don't let it waste your time although there are things there are people while they use the internet (…) **if you do not take a lot of time doing if you do not take a lot of time //PB8//** ~~doing~~ *aaah* no not **DOING USING USING //PB6// using enternet**

especially when it takes you away from intimate things like family and prayer **//PA2// specially when it takes time takes time takes time //TB8// that** the time specified for prayer **that is for prayer and family and STUDY STUDYING //TB2//** takes you away from study **stud** there is **STUDY** and **STUDYING** if we add the ing I don't know we delete the y or not I think we add the ing and keep the y **//TB2// and studying.**

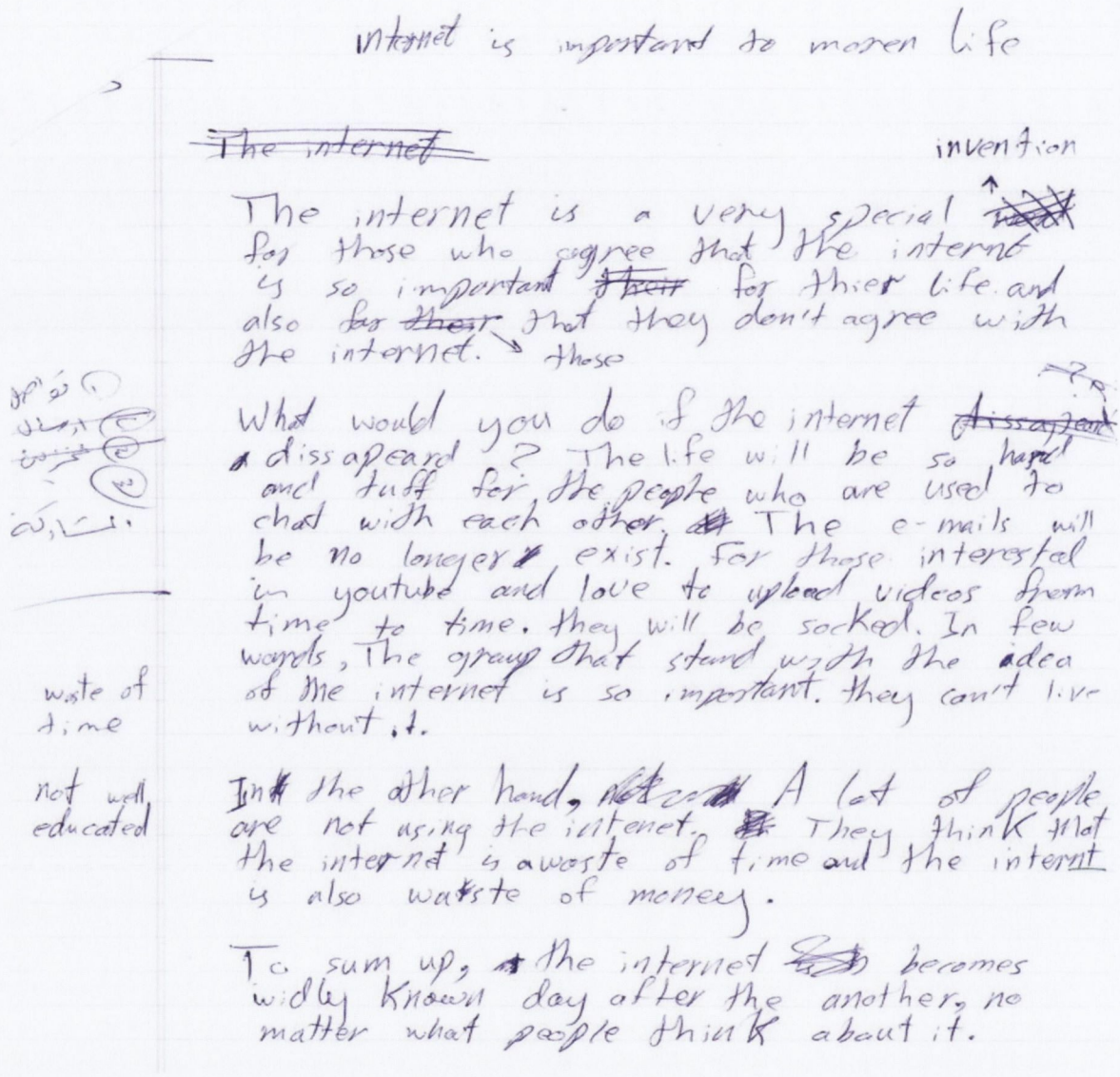
I'll start with the second idea the second part that the internet isn't useful or not important **//PA1// in the OTHER HAND** we say **IN THE OTHER HAND** because we want to move to another topic **//TB15// in the OTHER OTHER OTHER SPELLING** for **OTHER //TB1// other hand, IT IS** it isn't useful because pla pla pla **it's not important and it's not important and good becaus it has a lot of webages** because it has a lot of webpages that are not useful for society and for the person himself **that IS THAT IS** or **THAT ITS THAT IS** or **THAT ITS //TB2//** let me check the camera to see that the paper isn't far (…) let's start again THAT IS NOT IMPORTANT **that HAS have bad things** bad things **//PB1// and** waste of time **//PA2// it is waste of time** *ah ah* what else what else I have to say something more to make a balance **//TB8//**

you have **WASTE OF TIME** and there are bad things for the society and takes you away from the time of prayer and time of family and the time of **//PA2//**
and take the time that for family and other important things (mobile is ringing, the participants asked the caller to call back later) *aaah* **ENTERNET** let me now write the conclusion

Enternet is ne~~i~~ither //TB1// good nor bad. *aaah* **it is like the KNIFE. it CAN be USED** like the knife a double-edged weapon

it CAN be used IN BAD ind things and good things. it depends the internet depends on the user not on the internet itself because any parson I think cannot see *aaah* let me write **IT enternet DID NOT** no not internet (…) no the idea isn't like this ~~enternet~~ **//PB5// it CAN (…) THE WAY OF USING THE INTERNET IS DEPEND** yes correct ~~it~~ **the way of using enternet** *aah* **the way of using enternet //PB8// depends IN on the user of enternet. FULL STOP.**

2- A Low Apprehensive Writer
The text produced


internet is important to moren life

~~The internet~~ invention

The internet is a very special ~~word~~ for those who agree that the internet is so important ~~that~~ for thier life and also for ~~their~~ that they don't agree with the internet. those

What would you do if the internet ~~dissapear~~ dissapeard ? The life will be so hard and tuff for the people who are used to chat with each other. The e-mails will be no longer exist. For those interested in youtube and love to upload videos from time to time. they will be sacked. In few words, The group that stand with the idea of the internet is so important. they can't live without it.

waste of time

not well educated

In the other hand, A lot of people are not using the internet. They think that the internet is a waste of time and the internet is also waste of money.

To sum up, the internet becomes widly known day after the another, no matter what people think about it.

The transcribed and analysed protocol (translated)

internet is important to modren life //**PA5**// I'm preparing my ideas I have to write an introduction then after the introduction I see what what the opinion of the proponents then their arguments for example then I write the opinion of the advocates that the internet **is important to modern life** what is their argument in their agreement //**PA1**// then the conclusion //**TB15**//. The introduction maybe about the internet as general information and we write definitions of internet //**PA1**// maybe I do not know the definition of the internet it is like networks or network connecting a net of computers //**PA2**// *emm* **THE SERVER THE ENDUSER** *emmm* **OK INTERNET** it appears in the last days on the hands of inventors maybe it appears meaning they invented it for a need I do not think they invented something without being in need for it //**PA2**// **OK** in the name of Allah the most gracious the most merciful *emmm* what is the first sentence? //**TB8**// they invented the internet because they need the internet the internet is a group of networks, time is passing and until now I have not written anything the internet the internet //**TB8**// **OK** in the name of Allah the most gracious the most merciful *emmm* **the internet the internet is very WIDE INTERNET IS SO BIG**

WORD what is the meaning of internet //**PB2**// **ENTER NET** enter the web //**PB1**// **internet** no I'll not write internet at the beginning //**PB5**// ~~**the internet**~~ emmm *aah* **JAREER BOOKSTORE** (he is reading a commercial name on the pens' holder) *emmmm aaaaah* (…) **THE INTERNET** no **THE INTERNET the internet is a very special word for those who agree that the internet is so important IN THEIR LIFE IN THEIR SOCIAL LIFE IN THEIR SPELLING THEIR IE EI their** //**TB1**//**that the internet is so important** ~~**their**~~ **TO THEIR for their life. the internet is a very special word for those who agree that the internet is so important for their life** //**PB8**//**. and also for their that they do not agree with the internet.** it might be meaningless but it is an introduction //**TB15**// *aaah* **CLASSIC IMAGE** (he is also reading a label on something on the desk) ok **the internet is a very special word** not word it might be **very special** invention invention //**PB6**// **very special very special** //**TB11**// (banging his pen on the desk) *emmm* **INVENTION** damn to invention **very special** how invention (he is scanning the written text silently//**PB8**//) ok **SPECIAL INVENTION FOR THOSE WHO AGREE AND FOR THOSE DO NOT AGREE** ultimately it is an invention having its volume and value in life and all people use it even those who do not agree //**PB2**// ~~**word**~~ ok **INVENTION SPELLING I-N-V-EN-TION** //**TB1**// write it as you pronounce it **invention** ok *aaah* in the internet we will start with those who love it who agree with its goals the internet was put for communication //**PA2**// (he is writing the goals of internet on the margin //**PA3**//) 1- communication it was put *aaah* the goals of the internet communication the goals of the internet *aah* 2- sending information to other specialized entities a physician can send to another physician talking with each other also the internet //**PA2**// 3- storing the information or we might not say storing let's delete it //**PB5**// ~~storing~~ we say **X-RAY** 3- sharing **ON YOUTUBE** sharing I upload something upload such as a video clip share it with people //**PA2**// there is nothing more than those three points that I will talk about (inaudible) ok **FOR THOSE WHO AGREE THAT THE INTERNET IS SO IMPORTANT IN MODERN LIFE** let's start **WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF THE INTERNET DISAPPEARED //PA2// ?** it's a new beautiful sentence it gives the reader an eagerness to know what is next it attracts the ears //**PA8**//*emmm* this should be at the introduction //**TB15**// but no problem **IT'S OK what would you do if the internet CONNECTION internet DISAPPEARED? internet what would you do if the internet** I am thinking of another sentence //**TB6**// **INTERNET DOWN INTERNET UP what would you do if the internet CONNECTION GOES DOWN // TB11//** is the sentence right or not //**PB2**// ok leave it **the internet dissapeard** ok the letter d is gone (he is referring to writing the d on the edge of the paper //TB14//) a lot of people no let's write a better answer **//PB5// what would you do if the internet dissapeard.** I forgot the question mark <?> **//TB3//** (he put the question mark above the word) let me delete the word ~~dissapeard~~ <dissapeard?> I hope the spelling is correct //**TB1**//is there another word with the same meaning of **disappeared disappeared** *aaah* **GONE** the spelling is simple //**TB9**// **what would you do if the internet GONE** no no (he banged the pen on the paper) **what OK dissapeard** I hope the spelling is correct now //**TB1**// I am not responsible for it now the communication will disappear sending will disappear we said sending what? an engineer sending to another engineer a physician to another physician sharing will disappear also **BUT** let's simplify the information //**PB4**// so nothing will be more and no word will be extra I am not supposed to write more than a page //**TB13**// let me write my name **what would you do THERE WILL BE NO** smoking is a harm to society (he is reading a poster on the wall) **FLOWERS** smell good (he is referring to the flowers in the room) *emmm* (he is moving the pen between his fingers) //**TB8**// **internet CONNECTION disappeared** we will not find twitter youtube facebook and newspapers //**PA2**// **what would you do if the internet disappeard? JIC** (he is reading the college logo on the desk) *emmmm* there is no God but Allah *emmmm* no communication no information enough finish make everything simple //**PB4**// **THERE the life will be so hard and tuff for the people who are used to chat with each other. OK** we finish this first point sometimes some physicians send or inquire or who wants to make an operation for a patient he should have internet for consultation //**PA2**// (inaudible) but leave it as it is //**TB7**// **the** no **ŧ T CAPITAL** <*T*>**he e-mails will be the e-mail will be** //**PB8**// **no longer exist exist** right or wrong **EXIT exist exist** right //**TB1**// (…) **what would you do**

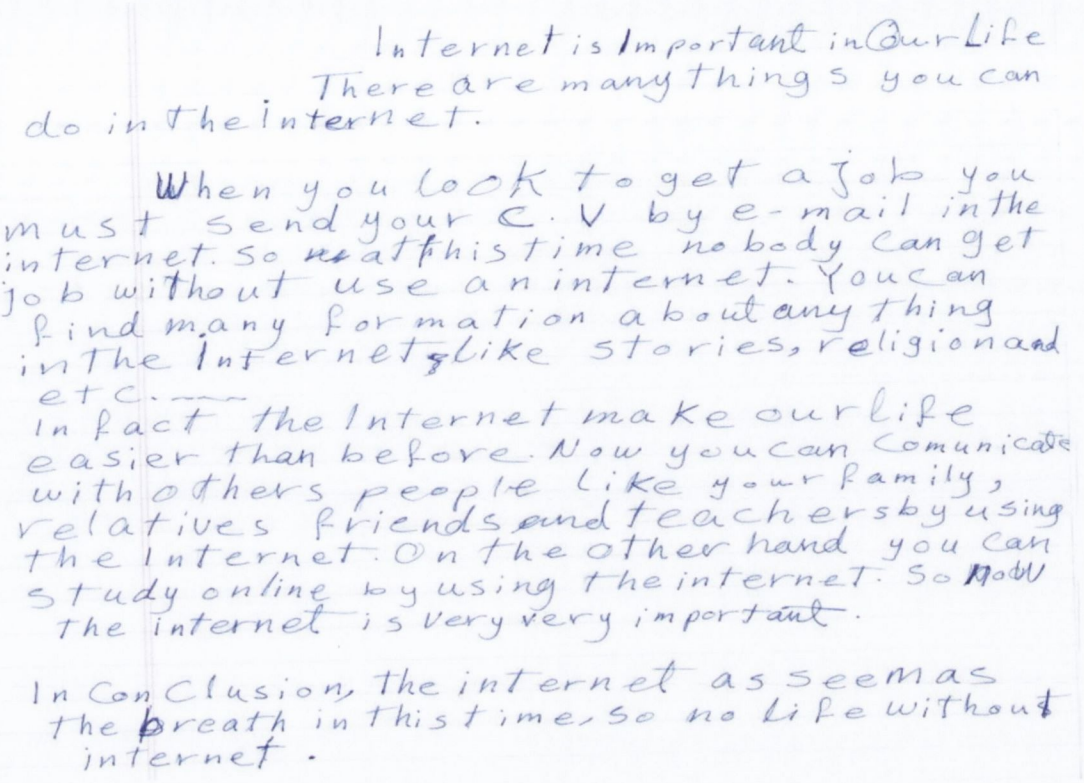
THE TV WILL BE NO LONGER THERE //PA2// let's delete one point ~~sending~~ **//TB7//** (he is crossing a word from the list in the margin) the next point **for those interested** *in-te-re-sted* **//TB1// in youtube and love to upload videos V-I-D-E-O-S //TB1// from time to time. youtube THEY WILL SHOCKED AS THERE IS NO INTERNET ANY MORE //PA2//** OK **love to upload love NO NOT love LIKE //PB6// love to upload love to upload LIKE LIKE** is a better word **//PB2// LIKE AND DIFFERENT FROM LOVE I WOULD LIKE TO** *emm* **I STRONGLY LIKE //PB2//** let it be **love love to upload videos from time time. they will be socked.** in brief the internet is important **//PA2// in few words, the group that stand with the adea A I ADEA ~~a~~ idea //TB1// of the internet is so important. in few words, the group that stand** I feel the text is like words put together **//TB15//** no problem as long as it is writing **in few words, the group that stand with the idea of the interne t is so important //PB8//. they can't live without.** ok **FOR THOSE WHO DISAGREE WITH THE IDEA WHAT WOULD THEY SAY //PA2//?** (he is writing a list of ideas in the edge of the paper //PA3) internet is wasting time **waste of time** also **MAYBE THEY ARE not well educated** a third and last point that I will say quickly there is no time I have taken almost 30 minutes or more **OK**

in the other hand BIG I ~~i~~ //TB1// <*I*> coma **//TB3//, in the other hand,** *aaah aaah* **waste of time //PB8// THERE IS ANOTHER GROUP THAT STAND WITH THE IDEA** *emmm* **in the other hand, not ALL PEOPLE** wrong ~~not~~ **in the other hand**, **RELAX** no hurry (he is taking a deep breath) **//TB11// waste of time THEY ARE not well educated //PB8// a lot of people are not using the internet. they think ~~t~~ THEY CAPITAL T //TB1// that the internet is waste of time** life is easier without internet ok **not well educated educated** *emmmm* **waste of time //PB8//** (he is looking at a green pen on the desk) if they really know the internet they would not say this so they are **NOT WELL EDUCATED THE INTERNET IS NOT WELL KNOWN FOR THEM SO STICK WITH THE IDEA //TB7//** but I cannot accuse them of not being **WELL-EDUCATED** who hates the internet old people and radical people **//PA2// well-educated** radical people are not open-minded (inaudible) **OK they think that the internet is a waste of time //PB8// AND ALSO THEY THINK THAT THE INTERNET IS SO BAD** the inventor is a disbeliever (he is laughing) *aaah* **waste of time //PB8//** the internet costs a high bill **//PA2// and the internet is also waste of money**. is there any third argument ok enough **//TB7//** I gave them their right respect of others' opinion

TO SUM UP TO CONCLUDE IN CONCLUSION to sum up it is a nice word **//PB2//** coma, is there any need for the coma **//TB3// the internet is so important in modern life** (…) OK **to sum up, the internet** *aaah* **the internet is so important the idea if the internet in the other hand, a lot of people are not using the internet. to sum up, //PB8// INTERNET IS IMPORTANT FOR THOSE I DO NOT KNOW WHO IS NOT IMPORTANT FOR THOSE** is it necessary to **SUM UP** no it is not necessary **//TB15//** there should be four **PARAGRAPHS //TB13//** quickly **to sum up, the internet ~~is becoming~~ BECOMES becomes //TB2// widly known day after the another, no matter what people think about it.** I have finished there is no time to review in the name of Allah the most gracious the most merciful

the internet is a very special word for those who agree that the internet is so important for their life. and also for ~~their~~ those //PB8// that they do not agree with the internet. what would you do if the internet dissapeard? the life will be so hard and tuff for the people who are used to chat with each other. the e-mails will be no longer exist. for those interested in youtube and love to upload videos from time to time. they will be socked. in few words, the group that stand with the idea of the interne t is so important. they can't live without <it>. **VERY WEAK GRAMMAR AND VERY WEAK WRITING //TB2// in the other hand, a lot of people are not using the internet. they think that the internet is** <a> **waste of time and the internet is also waste of money. to sum up, the internet becomes widly known day after the another, no matter what people think about it //PB10//.**

3- A Low Competent Writer
The text produced



Internet is Important in Our Life
There are many things you can do in the Internet.

When you look to get a job you must send your C.V by e-mail in the internet. So at this time nobody can get job without use an internet. You can find many formation about any thing in the Internet, like stories, religion and etc.
In fact the Internet make our life easier than before. Now you can comunicate with others people like your family, relatives friends and teachers by using the Internet. On the other hand you can study online by using the internet. So now the internet is very very important.

In Conclusion, the internet as seemas the breath in this time, so no life without internet.

The transcribed and analysed protocol (original)

THE TOPIC IS internet is important in our life //PA5// *aah* **THE INTRODUCTION IS** *aah* **THERE IS OR there are //TB2// many things you can do in the internet** *aaah* **THE BODY IS //TB15//** *aah* **I'M COLLECT THE IDEAS NOW //PA2//** *aaah* **IN FACT THERE IS MANY IMPORTNT IDEAS WHEN YOU //PA2//** *aah* (…) **//TB8// THE BODY //TB15//**
when you look to get a job THERE IS A MUST TO SEND YOUR CV //PA2// <u>**when you look to get a job**</u> <u>**when you look to get a job**</u> **//PB8// you must send your cv OR RESUME** (inaudible) **IN THERE BY E-MAIL //PA2// by e-mail in the internet. so at this time nobody can get A job without using an internet.**

MANY IDEAS YOU CAN SEARCH ABOUT IT IN THE INTERNET //PA2// you can find many information about anything in the internet, like stories *emmm* **reliegionS RELIGIONS //TB1//** <u>**stories**</u> **//PB8//** *aaah* (…) **//TB8// ABOUT YOUR CITY ABOUT** *aah* **ANY WORK YOU CAN DO IT ANY WORK ANY WORK //PA2//** *aah* **YOU MUST DO IT YOU CAN COLLECT THE ENOUGH ENOUGH INFORMATION OR IDEAS FROM THE INTERNET //PA2// and etc.**

aaaah **in fact the internet make our life EASIER easier than before NOW now you can communicate with OTHER others people LIKE YOUR FRIENDS YOUR RELATIVES ANY PEOPLE ANY PEOPLE YOU CAN COMMUNICATE WITH THIS WITH THEIR IN THE INTERNET BY USING**

THE INTERNET //PA2// like your family, relatives friends, TEACHERS TEACHERS //PA2// and teachers by *emmm*

in fact the internet make our life easier than before now you can communicate with others people like //PB8// by using INTERNET the internet. *aaaah* **YOU CAN YOU CAN AT ON THE OTHER HAND //PA2// on the other hand you can study on line by using the internet**
YOU CAN DO HOMEWORK YOU CAN MAKE MEETINGS YOU CAN MAKE *aaaah* **I THINK I THINK I THINK ALL OF THE COMPANIES MUST** *aah* **OR OR OR ALL THE COMPANIES MUST HAVE AN INTERNET TO DO THE WORK VERY WELL I THINK NOW NO WORK WILL DONE WITHOUT INTERNET SO THE INTERNET IS VERY VERY VERY VERY IMPORTANT IN OUR LIFE I THINK NOW** *aah* **NO LIFE WITHOUT INTERNET MAY BE THE INTERNET COMPARSON COMPARISON WITH WITH THE THE THE BREATH FOR THE HUMAN LIKE THE BREATH NOW //PA2//**

the internet NOW SO *aaah* **so now the internet is very very important.** *emmmm* **I THINK IT IS ENOUGH ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE TEN ELEVEN TWELVE THIRTEEN FOURTEEN FIFTEEN** (he is counting the lines written so far) //**TB13**// *aaah*

in conclusion, the internet as same as the breath IN *aaaaah* **in this time, so no life without internet. LET ME MAKE REVIEW** (he put the pen) **AND CHANGE MY MISTAKES //TB// internet is important in our life there are many things you can do in the internet** *aaah* **THERE IS MISTAKES** <*i*> (he added a dot to the i) //**TB3**// *aaah* **ANOTHER MISTAKES HERE** ~~w~~ <*W*> (he change small letter into a capital letter) //**TB1**//

when you look to get a job you must send your cv by e-mail in the internet. so at this time nobody can get job without use an internet. you can find many formation about any thingS in the internet , //TB3// like stories, religion and etc. in fact the internet make our life easier than before. now you can comunicate with OTHER people others OTHER //TB2// others people like your family, relatives friends and teachers by using the internet. on the other hand you can study online by using the internet. so now the internet is very very important. in conclusion, the internet as same as the breath in this time, so no life without internet. //PB10// *aaah* **THE END**

Page 1

Internet Nowadays

Internet is very important nowadays because it is the most modern way of communication, it is the best, easiest and the widest network today.

I agree that the internet is important because it makes distances so short for those who are so far away. It is great for meetings on it. It is like a really wide room that fits almost everybody in the world. It has many services already implanted to it. You can also be productive on the internet as much as you can be in real life. Almost half of the world uses the internet today and one of the main ways of using it is chatting and Emailing other people out there. Some companies use E-mails as notifications to their employees to remind them of whats next or what are the events to come. Sometimes, they just want to send E-mails for fun and invitations to parties and such.

I don't agree that the internet is that important because communicating in real life with real physical bodies of humans is way better. It has been proven in studies that people who usually depend on communicating through the internet are usually or more often to be depressed or "running away from reality" as they say. Running from reality and making your own reality on the internet is not any different from making your real life's reality. It is also not as hard as it is on the internet. Most people wouldn't trust other people online so they would tend to lie a lot which makes their reality false. Also, makes it harder to know whos wrong and whos right.

Page 2

In real life, that would be much easier to accomplish. You can notice in real life on humans whenever they decide to lie to you. Trust can be built up on true facts and probably assumings, but it's always more comfortable.

Friendship online are easy to make. Have you ever wondered why? Now, this is from personal experience, not from studies. I can tell you that youd only make a friendship with someone online that has something in common with yourself. Like favorite colors, food, drink, place, singer, youtube celebrity or even favorite animal. Now, that doesn't conclude all the reasons You'd become friend with that someone. Sometimes it's just one of your characteristics or maybe your looks.

On the other hand, freinds in real life are more complicated to accomplish. Some times it's just the same as it is on the internet, same reason, but not as easy. People in real life tend to judge other people easily and make it harder for the idea of approaching that someone to be true. First thing a person may judge on others would most likely to be their looks. Other things are less appealing in people.

At the end, I just want to say that you should make a difference between real life and internet. It might be an easy way to make your reality, but it's not reality. Make use of this inventions Do not abuse.

The transcribed and analysed protocol (original)

internet nowadays //PA5// internet nowadays //PB8// internet is very important nowadays because it is the most modern way of communication, it is the best, easiest and the widest network today.

I agree that the internet is I agree that the internet is //PB8// important because it makes *dis-te-nces* **~~distance~~ //TB1// distances so short for those who are far away. it is great for ANIMATION //PA2// it is great for //PB8// talking and** *aah* **I agree that the internet is important because it makes distances so short for those who are //PA8//** *<so>* **//TB2// far away. it is great for talking and it is great for talking and //PA8// meeting meetings** *<s>* **on it. it is like a real wide room that it is like a real wide room that a real***<ly>* **//TB2// wide room that //PB8// fits almost everybody in the world. it is like a really wide room that fits almost everybody in the world. //PB8// it has many services already implanted to it.**

I agree that the internet is I agree that the internet is important because it makes distances so short for those who are so far away. it is great for talking and meetings on it. //PB8// JUST GREAT FOR MEETINGS ~~talking and~~ //PB6// I TAKE ONE POINT AT THE TIME //PB4// it is great for meetings on it. it is like a really wide room that fits almost everybody in the world. it has many services already implanted to it. //PB8// you can in the wolrd it has many services already implanted to it. you can //PB8// also be productive *pro-duc-tive* **//TB1// on the internet on the internet as much as you can also be productive in the internet as much as //PB8// you can be in real life. almost half of the world uses the internet**

almost half of the world uses the internet //PB8// today and one of the ways they use it in is one of the <main> //PB6// ways WAIT you can also be productive in the internet as much as you can be in real life. almost half of the world uses the internet today and one of the main ways //PB8// ~~they use~~ //PB6// of using it is chatting and emailing other people out there. fixing THE ~~fixing~~ //PB6// emailing other people out there //PB8// some companies use emails as notifications to their employees to remind to remind //PB8// them of what's next or what are the events to come. Sometimes, they just want to send emails they just want to send emails //PB8// for fun ~~fun~~ or for for for //TB8// fun and invitation to parties and such. Sometimes, they just want to send emails for fun and invitation to parties and such. //PB8//

I don't agree that the internet is that important because COMMUNICATING IN REAL LIFE IS MORE IMPORTANT //PA2// because *comm-u-ni-ca-ting* **//TB1// communicating in real life with real PHYSICAL PHYSICAL PHYSICAL //PA2// YES** *phy-si-cal* **//TB1// physical bodies of humans is way better. it has been proven in studies that people who usually depend on communicating throogh the internet are usually or more oftenly TO BE I don't agree that the internet is that important because communicating in real life with real physical bodies of humans is way better. it has been proven in studies that people who usually depend on communicating ~~throogh~~ <through> //TB1// the internet are usually or more oftenly //PB8// to be depressed or or** *ooor* **more oftenly to be depressed or //PB8// "running away from reality" as they say.**

running from reality and making your own reality and making your own reality //PB8// ONLINE on the internet ~~interne~~ //PB6// on the internet is not any different from making A REAL making YOUR OWN making your REALITY //TB11// running from reality and making your own reality on the internet is not any different from //PB8// making your your real life real life's reality. it is also not THAT not as hard as it is on the internet. most people *pe-op-le* //TB1// would not trust other PERSONALITIES other people online most people would not trust other people online //PB8// so they would tend to lie a lot which makes their reality false.

VERY MUCH I ONLY DO NOT KNOW WHAT TO SAY AFTER THIS //TB8// I don't agree that the internet is that important because communicating in real life with real physical bodies of humans is way better. it has been proven in studies that people who usually depend on communicating through the internet are usually or more oftenly to be depressed or "running away from reality" as they say. running from reality and making your own reality on the internet is not any different from making your real life's reality. it is also not as hard as it is on the internet. most people would not trust other people online so they would tend to lie a lot which makes their reality false. //PB8// also makes it harder to know who's wrong and who's right.

~~it~~ in real life, that would be much easier ALSO OK NOW in real life that would be much easier //PB8// to accomplish. you can NO IDENTIFY you can NO no //TB11// notice in real life you can notice in the real life //PB8// on human human <*s*> //TB2// whenever they decide to lie to you. WHENEVER THEY TELL YOU A LIE whenever they decide to TELL YOU A LIE to lie to you OK whenever they decide to lie to you. //PB8//

trust can be built up trust can be built up //PB8// on true IDEAS true FACTS facts and probably in real life that would be much easier to accomplish. you can notice in the real life on humans whenever they decide to lie to you. trust can be built up on true facts and probably //PB8// assumings, BUT OK but it's always more comfortable.

FRIENDSHIPS FRIENDSHIPS ONLINE //PA2// friendship online are easy to make. have you ever wondered why? (...) //TB8// now, this is from personal experience this is from personal experience //PB8//, not from studies. friendship online are easy to make. ~~have~~ //TB3// have you ever wondered why? now, this is from personal experience, not from studies. //PB8// I can tell you that you'd only make friendship <*a*> //TB2// friendship with someone online friendship online are easy to make. have you ever wondered why? now, this is from personal experience, not from studies. I can tell you that you'd only make a friendship with someone online //PB8// that has something in ~~comn~~ in *co-mm-on* //TB1// common with YOU with yourself.

lik ~~lik~~ //TB1// like colors OK LET'S CHANGE THAT ~~colors~~ <*favorite*> //PB6// colors, and LET'S SCRATCH AGAIN ~~and~~ //PB6// like favorite colors, //PB8// food, drink, place, singer, *aaaah* OR youtube CELEBRITY *ce-le-bri-ty* //TB1// celebrity celebrity celebrity celebrity OK youtube celebrity //TB8// or even favorite animal. now that's that ~~'s~~ //TB2// doesn't CONCLUDE *con-c-lude* ~~cond~~ //TB1// conclude all the reasons you'd be a friend with with that someone now that doesn't conclude all the reasons you'd be you MIGHT be a friend with you'd be OK that doesn't

conclude all the reasons you'd *<become>* **//PB6// a friend with that someone. sometimes it's just one of your CHARACTERISTICS** *cha-rac-ta-ris-tics* **//TB1// characteristics characteristics OR MAYBE sometimes it's just one of your characteristics or maybe one of or maybe ~~one of~~ //PB6// your looks.**

all I can WAIT ~~all I can~~ //PB6// on the other hand, friend *<s>* **//TB2// in real life are more frinds** *<hips>* **friendships in real life are more //PB8// complicated to accomplish. sometimes it's JUST THE SAME AS THE INTERNET BUT NOT AS EASY//PA2// sometimes it's just //PB8// the same as it is on the internet, same reason, but not as easy. not as easy //PB8// people ~~o~~in //TB2// real life tend to judge people** *<other>* **//PB6// people easily people in real life tend to judge people other people easily //PB8// and make it harder for the idea of approaching approaching that someone approaching that someone //PB8// and make it harder harder harder //TB8// OK for the idea of approaching that someone //PB8// to be true.** (…) **//TB8// FIRST THING MAY BE FIRST //PA2// first thing a person** (he squeezed the letters of 'person' on the edge of the paper) **may judge first thing a person may judge //PB8// on OK ~~person~~** *per-son* **//TB1// THIS DOES NOT LOOK ANY GOOD OK //TB14// <***person***> OK first thing a person may judge on //PB8// others would most likely to be their looks. other things are more ~~more~~ //PB6// are less appealing in people.**

At the end, I just want to say that you should make diff ~~diff~~ you should make *<a>* **//TB2// difference you should make a difference //PB8// between real life and internet. it might be EASY it might be an easy way TO LIVE** *aaaah* **TO //PA2// it might be an easy //PB8// REALITY it might be an easy way //PB8// to make your reality, but it's not reality. make use of this invention. do not abuse. STOP**

Appendix 9: Sample Coded Interviews[50] of Strategy-related Writing Apprehension

1	**Opinions about English writing instruction received in JIC**
	High Competent Writers
S1	Writing was not clear for me in the first semester of the first year. In the second semester, I found very high level of writing because we start to write a lot of paragraphs. Now, in the second year, when we come to the writing class, we find that we are not in classroom we think we are in a powerful room that we have entertainment, maybe because of the teacher, I do not know, but writing was great.
S2	I did not learn writing here. This is my first year. The teacher that we have now is great. He explains well and makes us understand, but students have very bad basics in English. So, it was difficult for the teacher to teach. The teacher explains writing step by step. I mean he outlines everything that we should do in writing. He gives us the headlines and also he gives details.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	When I came here I knew only Yes and No. Now, thank God, I took the writing course here. It was relatively good. Now I can write about any topic. I do not take full mark, but I take most of it. At the beginning, we write small sentences and there were scrambled sentences that we had to order them by number. Now, we writer long essays. Some teachers ask us to write every day, others every two or three days, and some teachers put us in groups.
S4	The way of teaching writing is nice. But I notice that when the teacher asks us to write about something, only 2 or 3 students write and the rest do nothing. The teacher draws our attention to our mistakes especially after the quiz and the mid-term exam so that we avoid them next time. He calls us one by one to show us our mistakes.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	The teacher focuses on grammar and talks about spellings. His approach is that he sometimes gives us a limited time to write in but he did not allow us to write much in class. For example, today we had a quiz about the map that we never write about before in class. He gave us exercises about it but he did not give us time to write before the quiz. We rarely practice writing before the quiz. Also, he put us sometimes in groups to write about a topic only to reduce the number of papers that he should correct. We feel that the teacher is sluggish to correct a lot of papers.
S6	I was taught to write as many words as possible.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	It is helpful that teaching here is mainly in English. We learned lot and we learned how to speak. Regarding writing, it is different from teacher to teacher. Some teachers force us writer a lot and this is good. Other teachers focus on grammar and ask us to write from time to time. Our teacher now is giving us our common mistakes in writing so that we avoid them in the future. Also, he teaches us the spellings. He usually starts the lessons by explaining the grammar of the lesson. Then, he put us in groups to write but we do not write in every class.
S8	Here they teach us the basics and this is better. As for writing, it depends on the teacher. Some teachers give us topics like football and provide us with the headings and sub-headings of the topic. Then, we to write about them individually. The other teacher gives us the grammar of the lesson first then he provides us with the information about what to write in the introduction, the body, and the conclusion paragraphs of our essays. Then, he put us in groups.
2	**General feelings about writing and writing classes**
	High Competent Writers
S1	When I start writing I feel myself go to another world. I feel myself have some fun. I just wait for writing class.
S2	I feel good. It is better. For example, if I have numbers of homework and writing is one of them I feel comfortable like a hoppy.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I see writing easier than grammar class and other classes. You can write in different ways. So, I do not feel any problem to write or have writing homework.
S4	I feel normal. Sometime I like to write and sometimes I hate writing.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	I have normal feeling about it because it is a writing class and I expect to write. It is better to write and useful.
S6	I feel neutral. I just want to write. I do not like homework but I like to write in class.
	High Apprehensive writers

[50] Some of these interviews have been translated and edited.

S7	It depends on my mood. Sometimes I want to write and sometimes I do not. I feel sluggish and I write without heartiness.
S8	I do not have a specific feeling, not happy not upset, normal. Sometimes I feel nervous, but if I use the dictionary I feel better and stress is reduced. In the exam, I feel nervous because the dictionary is not allowed.
3	**Views about apprehensive behaviors in English writing**
	High Competent Writers
S1	It makes me a little bit nervous if the teacher concerns about the details and completion, because of that you'll lose a lot of marks. Also, when I wrongly wrote something I studied, for example to get good arrangement of sentences or grammar or word or spelling
S2	Time makes me stressful if it is not enough. Also, if I do not know anything about the topic or the spelling I get nervous.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I did not notice anything that makes me nervous. But sometimes it is grammar.
S4	Time causes me stress. Sometimes ideas come late and when I write they disappear. Things that cause me stress are when I do not know the topic and I don't have information. Also, grammar is a problem for me sometimes and spellings too.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	If I do not have the suitable vocabulary for my composition. It is difficult when I do not have the vocab that helps me.
S6	When the question is about history more than grammar. I have problems with ideas, but I can make sentences. When I don't have ideas I feel upset. But, if it's about grammar, I like grammar.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	Nothing in particular. But, writing a lot bothers me and I got bored if I have to write a lot. But, if it is simple paragraph it is OK. Also, spellings make me nervous and also I got upset when I do not have information.
S8	Lack of vocabulary and grammar.
4	**Views about motivating behaviors in English writing**
	High Competent Writers
S1	When the teacher laughs. Also, before the exam I ask God to help me and to make it easy. This makes human being relaxed.
S2	Planning, I do planning and brainstorming then writing becomes easy.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	A thing that reduces my stress is that in writing there are many structures and styles to express yourself. Also, vocabulary is many and you can use more than one word. So I do not feel fixed.
S4	Teacher's encouragement for the student. This makes me comfortable and calm.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	As I said, I pass the ideas in my mind before I write them down. It might take 2 or 5 minutes, I try to prepare the topic in sequence before I write. Then I write according to my plan.
S6	When the question is about grammar not ideas.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	The simple and easy topic. Also, when writing is not much. And if it is about a topic I like. And collecting information for the introduction before writing relaxes me because I put the foundation then I write. Also, I feel comfortable when I do not have many spelling mistakes.
S8	Nothing. I do not see anything in particular.
5	**Views about planning (5-6)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	Actually what I am going to do is just stop, just brainstorm for 10 minutes. Yes, do not write directly. This make you interruption. Brainstorming is supposed to be general. of course I like planning.
S2	I prefer general planning. I organize my ideas for every paragraph first before writing. This does not waste your time. in fact, I like to write immediately, but if I do planning, writing becomes easy and fast.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I write immediately. I got used to that. But planning does not bother me. I think if I plan it will be better, but this is my style.
S4	I prefer general planning to outlining because you will have more information. In an outline you are limited and this might cause me stress and waste time. it depends on the situation. In exam, planning is stressful because it will take from the time of writing. But in other situation no problem planning is good and organizes ideas.

	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	I plan globally. No, planning does not bother me.
S6	I rarely do planning before writing and my feeling is neutral to it. it is not a matter of like or dislike, I like just to start immediately. To me, this is better.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	It depends on the topic. If it isn't familiar to me I do general planning. But, if it is very familiar to me I do outlining. Planning is good and it only bothers me when it takes a long time.
S8	I prefer general planning. But for me, I hold the pen and write immediately then ideas will come while writing.
6	**Views about revising and editing (7,8,9, 12)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	If there is time. Review is going to be good because you'll observe your mistakes. [What you look for?] Everything for example, spelling and arrangement of the sentence. [Do you change the idea?] Actually, this is going to be a lot of problem because there is no time to do that. But if there is time I'll do it. But if it's difficult I can't do it. If I do it I'll lose more marks. [feeling about lack of spelling] Disappointed.
S2	If I finish, I do not like to revise and reread because I do that while writing. [what about editing] I do editing also while writing. [feeling about lack of spelling] I got confused because I have to change the word without affecting the meaning and if I could find the right word I got more confused and nervous. [feeling about changing meaning] I feel under pressure because time is running and I have to start again.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I do editing while writing, then I reread. If there are mistakes, I'll correct them. [feeling about lack of spelling] I feel a little bit nervous but not much because there are many other words. [feeling about changing meaning] I do not have problems with that.
S4	If there is time, I'll revise and reread. In class, I do that but in exam no because there is not time. Sometime I review some points related to spellings, grammar and vocabulary. But I do not change the ideas that I wrote. Changing my ideas is confusing and causes stress.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	Sometimes I reread and revise what I have written, but sometimes I do not because time does not allow me. I do editing while writing and sometimes if I notice spelling or grammar mistakes I correct them after writing but usually I do that while writing. [feeling about lack of spelling] I'll try to find another word or to write the spelling I know. [feeling about changing meaning] I feel depressed, but I'll change the meaning.
S6	Yes, I learned this at this course, to reread what I have written. I do it [editing] a lot from the very beginning. [feeling about lack of spelling] I feel like worried sometimes. I feel depressed when I have to change the whole sentence because of meaning.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	Sometimes I hand in my paper without revising, and sometimes I revise to correct spellings and some unknown words or grammar. If there are not such mistakes I do not like to revise. [Regarding editing] it depends on time. If editing while writing will waste my time I'll keep it to the end. But if it is easy and quick I do it while writing. [feeling about lack of spelling] I try to find another word. If the words are many I feel tense but if it's only one or two words it's OK. [feeling about changing meaning] I don't like to change what I have written.
S8	In exam, I rarely revise. I feel pressure when revising because I have finished and I like to hand in my paper at once. [regarding editing] I edit while writing for spellings and punctuations, but for grammar I do it at the end. [feeling about lack of spelling] if there is no similar word, I change the whole sentence. And surely I feel very tense. [feeling about changing meaning] of course if I write something and then change it because the meaning is not suitable, I'll feel tense.
7	**Feelings when blocked (10)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	In this case, I am going to cry. In this case, I'll talk general.
S2	Surely, I'll get tense because I do not know anything. However, I'll not hand in my paper empty.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I don't have a feeling about this because it never happened to me. Before I write about anything, the teacher explains the topic and gives us ideas about it.
S4	I'll feel strongly tense.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	I feel depressed.

S6	A little bit depressed.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	Nervous of course.
S8	I feel strongly tense.
8	**Feelings on collaboration (11)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	I like it to be in groups but for getting ideas. But for details it is supposed to be with yourself not with your friends.
S2	No I do not like to work with others; it bothers me.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I like to work alone because if I make mistakes I learn from them.
S4	I like to work alone it is better to depend on myself because in the group the good student will write the ideas and I will depend on him and never learn.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	Usually alone.
S6	It's OK. I try to be the best in the group. Writing alone is nice. But in the group I don't stop; someone will help me to go on.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	I like to write alone. But writing with the group depends on the group. Some people are annoying; others are OK.
S8	Each one has its own benefits, but I like group writing because everyone has an idea. Also, you can learn from others.
9	**Views on Drafting (13)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	I do not do more than one draft, of course not because you are going to be confused.
S2	I like to write one draft.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	I like to write once.
S4	In the exam, I write one draft. If there is time I write longer but not another draft. In class, I write another draft if I have time.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	At home, I like to write more than one draft. But, it is not practical to do so in class or in the exam because there is no time.
S6	I write only one draft. I do not like to do it [two] but if the teacher asks me to do it I'll do it. Sometimes I think it is a waste of time.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	I think it is better to write more than one draft. But, I only write one draft. In the exam, because of time, I see it a waste of time.
S8	It depends on the writing. If it is clear and understandable, I write only one draft. If there are no scratches, I don't write again.
10	**Feelings about neatness and layout (14)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	No, of course not. I do not like to hand in without checking that.
S2	I feel uncomfortable if my paper is not neat. I feel to be unfair with myself if my ideas are good but my paper is not good.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	If I have time, I will check the neatness and the layout because some marks are given to that.
S4	If I have time, I will rewrite it to make it clean and neat. I like to hand it in neat and beautiful.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	I feel a little bit embarrassed.
S6	I feel a little bit worried.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	If it is understandable, it is OK. But I will feel afraid that the teacher might get upset and he might not correct my paper.
S8	I'll feel embarrassed and I have to organize it before handing in.
11	**Feelings about teacher's expectancy of text quantity (15)**
	High Competent Writers
S1	I feel I am stupid and I did not studied very hard.

S2	I feel uncomfortable and pressure. I have to complete.
	Low Competent Writers
S3	Surely, I will feel uncomfortable. But I will try by all means to write the expected number of words.
S4	Yes, of course I will feel pressure. I'll try to write as many words as possible.
	Low Apprehensive writers
S5	I feel that I am doing an imperfect job.
S6	I wouldn't do that. If it happens, I feel depressed.
	High Apprehensive writers
S7	It often happens to me and I honestly feel tense.
S8	I'll feel tense and pressure, of course. But, in fact, I always try not to write much to save marks. Because if I write more I make more mistakes and lose more marks.

Appendix 10: Samples of materials[51] used in the strategy instruction sessions

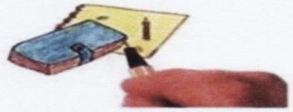
- A sample of Mind mapping materials

Step by step to creating a Mind Map

Here is a simple exercise taken from a Japanese beginners' mind-mapping exercise class, where those attending were asked to draw a full Mind Map to develop a new stationary product. You can see the structure of ideas, imagination and creativity evolving and expanding step by step.

Step 1

Draw an image in the centre of the blank sheet of paper to represent your goal. Don't worry if you feel that you can't draw well; that doesn't matter. It is very important to use an image as the starting point for your Mind Map because it is an image that will jump-start your thinking by activating your imagination.



Step 2

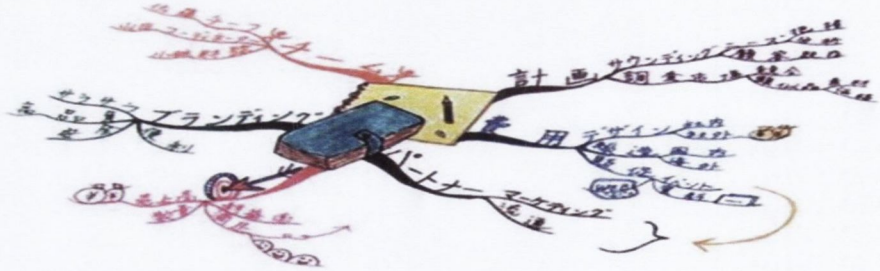
Draw the first of your thick lines radiating from the centre of the image. One way to draw a main branch is to create two lines from the central image and then connect them at the tip, ready to colour in. Curve your lines rather than drawing straight ones, because drawn that way they are more interesting to your eye and therefore more memorable to your brain.

Step 3

Now colour in the main branch.

Steps 11–13

Continue the process until you have completed your hand-drawn Mind Map. In this example, the Basic Ordering Ideas are Planning, Costs, Partners, Target, Branding, Team (clockwise).



[51] Resources: *Mind maps for Business* (Tony Buzan, 2010), *Teaching ESL Composition* (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005) and *Reason to Write* (Miller and Cohen, 2001).

- A sample material of resourcing strategies

2. A summary should characterize the original material neutrally (i.e., without critique or evaluation).
3. A summary should condense the original information and be cast in the summary writer's own words. Summaries that consist partly or largely of quotations rarely succeed.
4. A summary must acknowledge its original source.

Steps Toward Composing a Successful Summary

1. Read *Keys for Writers,* Section 7d (pp. 59–60).
2. Skim the original text. Make a note of headings and subheadings, if any. If there are no headings, divide the text into thematic sections. Examine the text and identify its purpose and audience. These techniques will help you focus on the most essential information.
3. As you reread the text more carefully, highlight important passages or take notes.
4. Paraphrase the main point of each of the sections you identified in step 1 (above). Draft a one-sentence summary of each section.
5. Write out the supporting points for the main topic or argument, but avoid including minor details.
6. Check that you have not copied more than three or four words from the original text.
7. Go through this process again to make appropriate changes.

Summary Language

Summaries may open with a sentence in the present tense that contains two elements: the source and the main idea. Here are some examples of how first sentences may begin:

a. In Anthony Tyson's article, "Mapping Dark Matter with Gravitational Lenses," . . .
b. According to Yvonne Boskin's article, "Blue Whale Population May be Increasing off California," . . .
c. In his book *Capital Idea,* Bernstein asserts that . . .

Here are some introductory statements that students have written for a summary of a research article:

TEXT SELECTION AND MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

PARAPHRASE

Directions: *Please review the following information individually or with a partner; then complete the exercise at the end of the section.*

A **paraphrase** "accurately states all the relevant information from a passage *in your own words and phrasing,* without any additional comments or elaborations" (Lunsford, A., & Connors, R. [1992]. *The St. Martin's handbook* [2nd ed.]. New York: St. Martin's Press, p. 570).

Principal Features of a Paraphrase

1. A paraphrase is most useful when the main points of the original passage (and their order of presentation) are important but are not worth quoting (see below).
2. Unlike a summary, a paraphrase restates all the main points of the original passage in the same order.
3. A paraphrase is often the same length as the original passage.
4. A successful paraphrase does not simply substitute synonyms from the original, nor does it imitate the author's writing style.
5. Paraphrases must acknowledge their original sources.

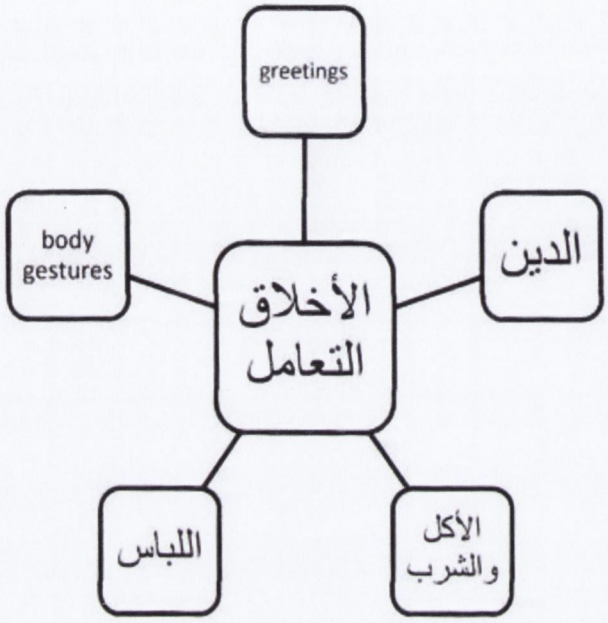
Steps Toward Composing a Successful Paraphrase

1. Read *Keys for Writers,* Section 7d–8c (pp. 59–64).
2. Skim the original text. Make a note of headings and subheadings, if any. Highlight main ideas, supporting evidence, and conclusions.
3. As you compose your paraphrase, try to capture the meaning of the entire passage. Avoid paraphrasing a word or a phrase at a time.
4. If you wish to include some of the author's words within the paraphrase, enclose them in quotation marks (see the final section on using quotations).
5. To ensure your originality, try to paraphrase without looking at the original.
6. Check to see that your paraphrase accurately presents the author's meaning *in your own words.*

- A sample material of using Arabic as a strategy

The good manners abroad

الأخلاق خارج البلد



Behaving yourself is important. The first impression is the last impression. التعامل مع من تعرف يختلف عن من لاتعرف.

تحية الناس تختلف في داخل البلد فما بالك في دول مختلفة وثقافة مختلفة

مثال بعض المناطق تحيي بالمصافحة وحب الخشم وأخرى بالمصافحة فقط وثالثة بحب الحشم فقط دون مصافحة

In Saudi, kissing on both cheeks in the west province, while in the east they only kiss one side.

المعانقة(embrace or hug)

Example, Japan no physical contact

Canadian shakes hands firmly

* Many countries have rules about what you should and shouldn't wear. In Muslim countries you should not reveal the body. In Ireland, Japan, South Africa, China, Iran you should take off your shoes when entering a house.

* الغداء هو الوجبة الأساسية في أسبانيا وإيطاليا وأمريكا اللاتينية ويستمر ل 3 ساعات والفطور والعشاء خفيف

In Britain, people can eat and discuss business at the same time. (a business lunch or dinner). No business breakfast. In Saudi, different cities have different food and drink habits. In industrial cities, people eat lunch at work. In other cities, it is very unusual to eat lunch outside the house.

الصين لا يناقشون أعمالهم على الأكل.. المكسيك فترة الغداء للراحة..

- A sample material of drafting strategies

Revising the First Draft

Read your letter to a partner.

Revising means focusing on ideas and organization, not on grammar. When you listen to your partner's letter and discuss your own, keep these questions in mind:

1. **Does the letter express a clear opinion?**
2. **Are several reasons given?**
3. **Are the reasons carefully explained?**
4. **How does the writer organize the reasons?**

Commenting on Other Students' Writing

Read the three excerpts from letters to the editor on the next page, and discuss them with a partner.*

- Which letter do you like best?
- Which letter do you agree with?
- Are the ideas presented logically and clearly?
- Would you suggest any changes in the letters?

Appendix 11: Frequency and percentage of occurrences of writing Strategies in the participants' think-aloud protocols

	High Apprehensive		Low Apprehensive		High Competent		Low Competent		Total		
Strategy Code	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency/ No. of participants		
TA1	0	TOTAL = 5 strategies occurred 13 times	0	TOTAL =10 strategies occurred 33 times	0	TOTAL = 6 strategies occurred 30 times	0	TOTAL = 5 strategies occurred 14 times	0		TOTAL = 10 Strategies occurred 90 times
TA2	0		0		0		0		0		
TA3	0		0		0		0		0		
TB1	2		10		12		5		29/4	11.8%	
TB2	5		2		8		2		17/4	6.9%	
TB3	0		3		1		2		6/3		
TB4	0		0		0		0				
TB5	0		0		0		0				
TB6	0		0		0		0				
TB7	0		4		0		0		4/2		
TB8	3		3		6		2		14/4	5.7%	
TB9	0		1		0		0		1/1		
TB10	0		0		0		0				
TB11	1		3		2		0		6/3		
TB12	0		0		0		0				
TB13	0		1		0		1		2/2		
TB14	0		1		1		0		2/2		
TB15	2		5		0		2		9/3		
PA1	2	TOTAL = 5 strategies occurred 11 times	2	TOTAL = 12 strategies occurred 46 times	0	TOTAL = 5 strategies occurred 64 times	0	TOTAL = 3 strategies occurred 13 times	4/2		TOTAL = 11 Strategies occurred 134 times
PA2	6		14		7		11		38/4	15.5%	
PA3	0		2		0		0		2/1		
PA4	0		0		0		0				
PA5	0		1		1		1		3/3		
PA6	0		0		0		0				
PA7	0		0		0		0				
PA8	0		1		0		0		1/1		
PB1	1		1		0		0		2/1		
PB2	0		6		0		0		6/1		
PB3	0		0		0		0				
PB4	0		2		1		0		3/2		
PB5	1		3		0		0		4/2		
PB6	1		2		12		0		15/3		
PB7	0		0		0		0				
PB8	0		11		43		0		54/2		
PB9	0		0		0		0				
PB10	0		1		0		1		2/2		
Total	24	10.7%	79	35%	94	41.9%	27	12%	224	100%	

Appendix 12: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Background (How many years have you been studying English?)	121	1.00	4.00	3.2645	1.14578
Background (Did you attend a course in English writing before coming to this college?)	121	1.00	2.00	1.7025	.45907
Background (Do you practice English writing at home?)	121	1.00	5.00	3.5289	1.00891
Background (Do you practice Arabic writing?)	121	1.00	5.00	3.5868	1.32079
Background (Have you received any sort of training on writing strategies?)	121	1.00	2.00	1.3554	.48062
Process Strategy (Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.8843	1.21922
Product Strategy (Before writing, I create an outline for the whole content and organization.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.4545	1.29099
Process Strategy (Before I start writing about a topic, I do freewriting to get as many ideas as possible.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.0909	1.37235
Process Strategy (Before I start, I do brainstorming to generate ideas.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.7190	1.24648
Product Strategy (If the topic is not known to me, I stop writing.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.5041	1.31735
Process Strategy (Before writing, I list down words, phrases and short notes related to the topic.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.4628	1.32942
Process Strategy (Before writing, I discuss the topic with others (e.g. my teacher, classmate, etc.).	121	1.00	5.00	2.9174	1.34528
Process Strategy (Before writing, I do mind mapping to generate and cluster my ideas.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.1736	1.43572
Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	121	1.00	5.00	4.0248	1.35070
Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the purpose of my writing.)	121	1.00	5.00	1.9917	1.00412
Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the reader of my writing.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.3471	1.26300
Product Strategy (If the topic is not known to me, I look at a model written by a native speaker or more proficient writer and try to imitate it.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.1818	1.39044
Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.6942	1.39549
Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)	121	1.00	5.00	1.9669	.99108
Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	121	1.00	5.00	1.5620	.82556
Product Strategy (If I do not know a word in English, I stop writing and look up the word in the dictionary.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.8926	1.31531
Product Strategy (If I do not know a word in a sentence, I do not write that sentence.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.3554	1.27710
Product Strategy (I try not to change what I have written whether a sentence or a paragraph.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.9008	1.05991
Process Strategy (I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.1736	1.10059
Product Strategy (While writing, I constantly check grammar.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.3967	1.19359
Product Strategy (If new ideas emerge, I try to ignore them and focus on the ones I have put down at the beginning.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.4050	1.16604
Process Strategy (I delete or change a word, a phrase or a sentence when the meaning is not clear.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.4050	1.09984
Product Strategy (I try to use a lot of vocabularies.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.4545	1.04881
Product Strategy (I try to make use of complex grammatical structures.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.7190	1.29887
Product Strategy (I try to connect shorter sentences into longer sentences to become longer.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.8843	1.09689
Product Strategy (I delete or change a word, a phrase or a sentence when I am not sure about spelling or grammar.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.0909	1.11056
Product Strategy (I memorize proverbs and beautiful expressions to enhance and improve my writing.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.0000	1.39044
Product Strategy (Each sentence I write has to be accurate and perfect before I'll write another sentence.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.6446	1.23058
Product Strategy (When revising, I focus on grammar rather than ideas.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.8843	1.23282

Process Strategy (When I revise, I rearrange sentences and paragraphs to make ideas clear.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.8843	1.25293
Process Strategy (When I revise, I add new words, sentences or paragraphs when the meaning needs that.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.4132	1.15952
Process Strategy (When revising, I change my initial ideas and write new ideas.)	121	1.00	5.00	4.1157	1.00158
Product Strategy (When I revise I focus on the layout of the content.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.1240	1.21498
Product Strategy (I add more words, phrases or sentences when the paragraph or the essay seems short.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.5041	1.11896
Product Strategy (When writing or revising, I take account for my teacher's expectations.)	121	1.00	5.00	2.4793	1.24565
Process Strategy (I keep editing until I finish writing the whole passage.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.1901	1.26038
Process Strategy (When I finish, I leave my text aside for a while and then I reread it.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.0496	1.30927
Process Strategy (I write more than one draft before handing in the final draft of the essay.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.9669	1.11006
Product Strategy (When I finish writing my paper, I hand it in without rereading it.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.9917	1.13648
Process Strategy (When I finish writing my essay, I show it to somebody and ask for his/her opinion.)	121	1.00	5.00	3.4050	1.35756
I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas.	121	1.00	5.00	2.7025	1.10034
I feel nervous when editing my writing.	121	1.00	5.00	3.0992	1.23427
Grammatical mistakes make me feel apprehensive.	121	1.00	5.00	2.7521	1.23343
Spellings and punctuations are stressful.	121	1.00	5.00	3.1157	1.30505
It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written.	121	1.00	5.00	3.2066	1.37184
I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.	121	1.00	5.00	1.7769	.96166
I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas.	121	1.00	5.00	2.3388	1.12215
I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills.	121	1.00	5.00	3.3223	1.28592
I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects.	121	1.00	5.00	2.3058	.98186
I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly.	121	1.00	5.00	2.4793	1.06536
Writers' strategy types	121	1.00	3.00	1.9917	.20396
Levels of Writing Apprehension	121	1.00	3.00	1.7934	.61803
Levels of writing competence	68	1.00	3.00	1.7941	.76410
Strategy Scores	121	90.00	148.00	115.2645	9.48575
Apprehension Scores	121	10.00	50.00	27.0000	7.07931

Appendix 13: The consent form to carry out a field work in Jubail Industrial College

تاريخ: ١٨-١-٢٠١٢ بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

سعادة مدير كلية الجبيل الصناعية المحترم

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد

حيث أنني أحد منسوبي الكلية والمبتعث حالياً لجمهورية إيرلندا لدراسة درجة الدكتوراة في مجال تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية؛ أود إفادة سعادتكم بأنني سوف أقوم بتطبيق البحث على مجموعة من طلاب الكلية وذلك لجمع البيانات المتطلبة لإكمال بحثي الدراسي وهي عبارة عن استبيانات علمية واختبارات وتدريس لبعض إستراتيجيات مهارة الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية. وسيكون ذلك بإذن الله خلال الفترة من ١٠ جماد الأولى إلى ٣٠ رجب ١٤٣٣هـ.

آمل تكرمكم بالموافقة، كما آمل من سعادتكم تزويدي بصورة من الموافقة لإشعار الملحقية الثقافية بذلك.

هذا ولكم مني جزيل الشكر والتقدير،،،

مع الموافقة

٢٢/٢/١

المبتعث/ محمد بن رجب النفيعي
جامعة دبلن
ت: ٠٠٣٥٣٨٧٠٩٦٧٣٥١
البريد الإلكتروني: Mr.nufaie@gmail.com

Appendix 14: Marking assumptions for the participants' argumentative writing task

Due to the intermediate level of the participants, the raters (guided by the components of the ESL Composition Profile developed by Jacobs et al., 1981) agreed on the following marking assumptions:

Content: the participants will be given some leeway if they only talk about happiness rather than happiness and success as different topics. For students at this level, they are usually one and the same.

Organization: rather than a clear introduction where the body is used to back up ideas, EFL students at this level might give their opinions in the middle or the end of the essay. So, their organization might be a bit "upside down" at times, but there is some organization.

Vocabulary: if meaning "is or is not obscured" is the primary guidance in this area. It might be difficult to ascertain if the problem is spelling or usage.

Language use: once again, the obscureness of the meaning is the primary guidance in this area.

Mechanics: following the same criteria suggested in the profile.

Appendix 15: Published Work 1

Journal of Arts and Humanities (JAH), Volume -2, No.-3, April, 2013

EFL Writing Apprehension: The Macro or the Micro?

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ABSTRACT

This study was part of a doctoral project to explore the writing apprehension levels of 121 second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who were studying English as a foreign language and for specific purposes in a Saudi industrial college. The study draws on Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation levels and their micro-motivational conditions in L2 learning situations, and addresses EFL writing apprehension in strategy-related conditions. For data collection, a Writing Strategy Apprehension Scale (WSAS) was developed and adapted from a test designed by John Daly and Michael Miller (1975) and from the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) designed by Cheng (2004).The participants were classified into three levels of apprehension (apprehensive strategy users, average apprehensive strategy users, and low apprehensive strategy users). The results show while the majority of the participants (57.9%) were average in their stress and apprehension levels towards writing strategies, almost a third of them (31.4%) were highly apprehensive. In addition, the most stressful strategies were those that indicate the lack of generating ideas, the care about accuracy, and the follow of teacher's expectations.

Keywords: EFL writing apprehension, EFL writing strategies, undergraduate writing strategies, ESP writing in Saudi Arabia.

1. Introduction

Writing is claimed to be an emotional as much a cognitive activity (see McLeod, 1987). Its affective constituents strongly influence all stages of the writing process. Affect includes emotions, feelings, attitudes, and motivation. Interest in writers' affect began in the mid-1970s when Dalyand Miller (1975) developed their well-known Writing Apprehension Test (WAT). Daly defines writing apprehension as "the general avoidance of writing situations perceived by individuals to potentially require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation of that writing" (Daly, 1979, p. 37). This definition draws a correlation and interaction between three constructs: 1) individual attitudes (e.g., positive or negative judgment); 2) emotions and feelings (e.g., fear or anxiety); and 3) avoidance behaviors (e.g., blocking or resistance). In literature (Hettich, 1994, p.1), these constructs are elusive and so closely related to the extent that it might be difficult or even impossible to precisely identify the relationship between them. Accordingly, investigating this intangible interaction will be out as part of the present study. Operationally, the study defines writing apprehension as 'the abnormally high level of an anxious, nervous, agitated or stressful feeling in a writing-strategy-related situation, regardless of blocking[52] and evaluation'. In other words, the researchers took a strategy-related apprehension as a point of concern for investigation. The current study's definition, therefore, views apprehension as a situational, strategy-based affective construct. Daly (1985, p. 65-73) classifies writers' perceptions and feelings into two main categories: (1) dispositional, and (2) situational. They seem similar to Spielberger's (1983) trait-state dichotomy of anxiety. The former refers to the somehow consistent feelings such as attitude to writing and writing

[52] A writer's block is defined as "an inability to begin or continue writing for reasons other than a lack of basic skill or commitment" (Rose, 1984, p. 4). Not all blockers are apprehensive and not all apprehensive writers are blocked.

outcome expectancy (perceived importance and value of writing). The latter refers to task-based feelings like writing anxiety (feelings of discomfort while writing) and writing self-efficacy (confidence in one's writing ability and skills).Daly distinguished between apprehension and anxiety. He viewed apprehension (avoidance of writing situations) as one of the dispositional feelings, while anxiety was seen as a situational feeling.

The causes of apprehension can be conceptualized within two theoretical frameworks: (1) the deficit theory, and (2) the interference theory. The deficit theory (see Sparks, Ganschow&Javorsky, 2000) claims that apprehension might be the cause of linguistic deficiency. It argues that only unskilled, poor writers can experience writing apprehension. On the other hand, the interference theory (see Smith, 1984; Horwitz, 2000)says that apprehension interferes with skill development and may interact with low skills, but it is not limited to any ability level.

2. Prior Research

Many studies have been conducted on the macro level of writing apprehension and its causes and effects in learning to write (see the reviews of Daly & Wilson, 1983, p. 327-29; Smith, 1984, p. 1-5; Stapa; 1994, p. 52-56). Nevertheless, very little research has investigated writing strategy-related apprehension. A number of studies (AbdeLatif , 2009; Daud, Daud, & Abu Kassim, 2005; Hassan, 2001; Jones, 1985; Lee &Krashen, 2002) reported that general writing apprehension is caused by or at least associated with language-related writing aspects. For example, Hassan (2001) investigated the impact of writing apprehension on quantity and quality writing of 132 Egyptian university students and found a possible correlation between apprehension and poor skill, lack of proper writing processes, and teacher-centred writing instruction with product-oriented mode of writing. In Daud*et al.*'s (2005) study, Malaysian EFL university students' writing apprehension was also found to correlate positively with the language-related dimensions (namely, vocabulary and language use). The higher they were concerned about those dimensions due to their low proficiency, the higher apprehensive they become. However, there was a non-significant correlation between level of writing apprehension and aspects related to content, organization and mechanics. Furthermore, in a case study to test the implications of Krashen's Monitor hypothesis on L2 writing, Jones (1985) compared two ESL writers: one as a monitor over-user and the other as a monitor under-user. The results revealed that the monitor over-user (the ESL student with an L2 background based on grammar and translation) was an apprehensive writer and had a high focus on form and correctness. The monitor under-user (the ESL student with an L2 background based on communicative competence), on the other hand, showed less concerns with form and surface aspects and instead was able to turn the attention to the process of writing, and discovering meaning. Conversely, Gungle & Taylor (1989) did not find that high apprehension correlates with attention to form or low apprehension correlates with attention to content. In addition, Masny&Foxall(1992)found that low apprehensive students were more concerned about form than were high apprehensive students. However, the study concluded that process-oriented classroom writing may reduce apprehension since itdeals with exploring ideas and content. Such a view is also supported by Akpinar (2007) who investigated the effect of process-oriented writing instruction on 48-Turkish university students' writing apprehension and other variables. The findings showed that the students who had process-oriented writing instruction experienced less writing apprehension than the participants who had product-oriented writing instruction. However, it is argued that researchers need to be very careful when claiming that certain type of instruction would result in certain type of proposed outcome (Alnufaie & Grenfell, 2012). Although, apprehensive writers might show some concerns about product-related aspects of writing, it would be mistaken to conclude that process-oriented classrooms can alone reduce apprehension. It might be argued that if writing apprehension is associated with language forms and product aspects of writing, this might be due to the lack of adequate product-related rather than process-related writing instruction.

Anyhow, the previous contradictory studies took us to the dictionary definition of apprehension. Apprehension is the "uneasy anticipation of the future[53]" or the "anxiety about the future, especially about dealing with something unpleasant or difficult[54]". Thus, is an apprehensive writer worried or nervous about writing per se or about something that he is going to do in writing? This paper is concerned with this question and its potential answer.

3. Research Questions

It is argued that there is a gap in terms of having a comprehensive catalogue of the negatively and positively affective writing strategies that students use or could use to either promote or demote ESL/EFL writing skills. This study is an attempt to add something to the catalogue of research on writing strategies. The research questions of this study are:

- Based on writing strategy-related apprehension, what are the apprehension levels of EFL college students in a Saudi Arabian context?
- What are the most stressful strategies?
- What are the least stressful strategies?

4. Subjects and Research Setting

The population for the research were second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who are studying English as a foreign language in one of the Saudi industrial colleges: Jubail Industrial College (JIC). The total number of the research population was approximately 400 students, and the total number of the participants who took part in the survey was 121 participants. The population can be described as intermediate[55] non-native speakers and writers of English who speak and write English for specific purposes: technical and business. The selection was on a voluntary basis from 4 writing classes taught by 4 different teachers: two natives and two non-native speakers.

5. Writing Apprehension Scales

The majority of the ESL/EFL studies have used the Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) and its L2 version (SLWAT) as a research instruments for measuring writers' apprehension. The Daly-Miller's (1975) Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) is believed to be the first systematic instrument to measure writing apprehension and the most commonly used research tool in measuring ESL/EFL writing apprehension (e.g., Elkhatib, 1984; Hadaway, 1987, Masny & Foxall, 1992; Wu, 1992; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Lee, 2005).However, many researchers (McKain, 1991; Chip, 1992; Hettich, 1994; Cheng, 2004; Poff, 2004) have criticized the WAT for the following reasons. First, it was developed originally for L1 writers, and some essential aspects of second language might not be considered (Cheng, 2004). Second, there were some questions raised about its validity because it defines apprehension as a uni-dimensional construct but measures more than one construct without subscales (McKain, 1991). Furthermore, the WAT does not make clear distinction "between anxious feelings and attitudes; [...] by distinguishing attitude and anxiety, we can get a clearer picture of the factors that contribute to and constitute writing apprehension (Hettich, 1994, p. 6).Supporting the multidimensional perspective, Cheng (2004) developed what can be considered as the first devised, self-report measure of ESL writing anxiety. She called her measurement tool the 'Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory' (SLWAI). This scale consists of three subscales: Somatic Anxiety, Cognitive Anxiety and Avoidance Behaviour. Cheng's (2004) ESL writing anxiety scale did not seem completely suitable for the present research. The reason for this is that Cheng (2004, p. 319) defines L2 writing anxiety "as a relatively stable anxiety disposition associated with L2 writing, which involves a variety of dysfunctional thoughts, increased physiological arousal, and maladaptive behaviours". The present research, however, defines writing apprehension as 'the abnormally high level of anxious, nervous, agitated or stressful feelings in ESL/EFL writing-strategy

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[53] *The American Heritage College Dictionary*

[54] *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*

[55] In the intermediate level, students can generally meet the specifications of B1+ level in the Common European Framework.

related situations, regardless of blocking and evaluation'. They, therefore, differ in the dispositional-situational nature of apprehension. In addition, Cheng (2004) believes that anxiety is a construct of three independent but associated and interactive constructs, as mentioned above. It is assumed they reinforce each other in some way, leading to writing anxiety. Nevertheless, those constructs seem to be quite incomprehensible to the extent that it might be difficult to precisely identify their relationship or investigate their intangible interaction. Thus, apprehension in this study is specifically and operationally viewed as a situational feeling specific to a writing strategy. Accordingly, such a definition entails to develop an instrument measuring writing apprehension as a situational feeling (strategy-related) rather than cognitive or avoidance behaviour.

6. Developing and validating a Writing Strategy Apprehension Scale (WSAS)

As noted earlier, WSAS was developed and adapted from Daly and Miller's WAT and Cheng's SLWAI. The WSAS consisted originally of 22 items before reliability amendments (see the appendix). Those items were equally divided into positively loaded items with apprehension and negatively loaded items without apprehension. Both types of items were randomly sequenced to avoid the bias of choice and being evident to the participants. In addition, the scoring system of Daly and Miller's WAT was used to reduce the bias of choice and social desirability. All items were worded to be directly or indirectly related to the micro level of writing strategies except items 13 and 20, which are related to the macro level of English writing in general. The rating scale followed the normally used Likert-scale of five responses: strongly agree=1, agree=2, uncertain=3, disagree=4 and strongly disagree=5. In the context of developing and validating the scale, three steps were followed: (1) defining writing-strategy apprehension; (2) writing, selecting and adapting the items of the scale; and (3) checking the validity and reliability of the scale.

The first step was to define writing apprehension that is more situation-specific and strategy-related than the general-state phenomenon of a foreign language writing apprehension. Writing-strategy apprehension, therefore, is defined as 'the abnormally high level of an anxious, nervous, agitated or stressful feeling in ESL/EFL writing-strategy-related situations, regardless of blocking and fear of evaluation'. This definition, therefore, excludes negative attitudes, blocking and avoidance behaviors (fear of evaluation). It focuses mainly on feelings that are writing-specific and strategy-related.

The second step was to select, adapt, and write the items of the test. A number of scales measuring writing apprehension (Daly & Miller, 1975; Hadaway, 1987; Gungle & Taylor, 1989; Masny & Foxall, 1992; Cornwell& McKay, 1999; Hassan, 2001; Cheng, 2004) were reviewed. The review showed that almost all of those scales and others were either a replication or a modification of Daly and Millers' seminal WAT (1975), except Cheng' SLWAI (2004) which is believed to be an original contribution to the measurement of L2 writing apprehension. The researchers, therefore, depended on those two measures for adapting items that are consistent with their definition of writing strategy apprehension. In addition, more items were devised based on readings on language anxiety (Cheng *et al.*, 1999; Horwitz, Horwitz&Cope, 1986) in general, and writing anxiety in particular (Cheng, 2002; 2004). The added and adapted items of the first WSAS (see Appendix) can be illustrated in the following table:

Table1 Writing-strategy Apprehension Scale Items Source

Daly's and Miller's (1975)		Cheng's (2004)		Added items
Selected Items	Modified Items	Selected Items	Modified Items	1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 21.
0	2, 22	20	15, 19	

From Daly and Miller's WAT, no item was selected and 2items were modified. Item 2, for example (See the appendix), '*I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas*', is modified from '*I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in a composition course*'. This item originally does not seem to be obviously related to feeling and not worded in a way that makes it seem strategy-related. Writers

might be either rigid or flexible in their strategies. Being nervous when changing ideas might indicate a rigid strategic action, and vice versa. Similarly, from Cheng's scale (2004), item 15and 19 were modified to meet the existing study's definition. In Cheng's scale item 15 says '*I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint*'. Although it measures feeling, it is not directly or indirectly related to any writing strategy. It was, therefore, rewritten to relate it to the strategy of L1 use: '*I feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic*'. Moreover, item19was modified to start with '*I feel apprehensive*' instead of '*I worry*' because worrying seems to be related to cognition or mental anxiety more than feelings (Cheng, 2004).

The third step was to check the validity and the reliability of the WSAS. The scale was piloted twice, for face validity and reliability. Unfortunately, the 22 items of the WSAS were statistically proved to be unreliable. The Cronbach's Alpha was .242. This disappointing result might be due to the low number of the participants in the pilot studies (6 participants only). On the other hand, it was noticed from the statistics that the cause of this might be the 11 negatively loaded items mentioned above. When they were isolated from the scale, the reliability increased to .652. Still, an alpha of .65 seems to indicate a low reliability.

In the final column of the Item-Total Statistics of the positively loaded items(see table 2 below), you can notice the value that Cronbach's alpha would be if a particular item is deleted from the scale. The table shows that if item 10 (*I feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic*) is deleted, the reliability will increase dramatically. Removal of statement 10, therefore, would lead to a big improvement in Cronbach's alpha from .65 to .74. As noted by many SPSS analysts (DeVellis, 1991; George & Mallery, 2003; Pallant, 2005) the Cronbach's alpha of .80 to .89 is very good and .70 is the cut-off value for being acceptable. The value as low as .60 is questionable but it is not uncommon in exploratory research.

Table2 Item-Total Statistics for the Positively Loaded Items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1) I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas.	26.3333	27.467	.400	.609
2) I get nervous when editing my writing.	24.8333	30.567	.242	.642
3) It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written.	25.8333	34.967	-.052	.676
4) Grammatical mistakes make me feel apprehensive.	26.3333	27.067	.645	.569
5) Spellings and punctuations are stressful.	26.0000	27.600	.280	.644
6) I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.	26.3333	27.067	.518	.586
7) I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas.	26.6667	29.067	.821	.581
8) I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills.	26.5000	29.900	.297	.632
9) I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects.	26.8333	33.367	.130	.655
10) I feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic.	25.0000	37.600	-.263	.745

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10) I feel tense when I write English compositions without using Arabic.	25.0000	37.600	-.263	.745
11) I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly.	26.0000	25.200	.849	.529

In addition, and in order to obtain further internal reliability, the split-half reliability (to measure consistency of responses across two randomly divided sets of items) of the 10 items was checked and found.70 on the estimate of Spearman-Brown coefficient. Moreover, the correlation coefficient was .92 for the test-retest method of reliability(to measure consistency of the over-all scores of the participants from time to time). After these acceptable values of reliability, the 10-item scale was used instead of the 22-item one[56].

The scoring system of the 10-item scale, therefore, has changed after this amendment. It would not be possible to follow the scoring system of Daly and Miller's WAT, noted earlier. The new scoring system is much easier. It depends on adding the points without subtracting. The scores for the levels of apprehension were divided equally for high and low levels. However, we needed to distinguish between the two levels by adding a middle level where we can acknowledge the grey area. For this area 9scores were given. Adding a middle level is a new contribution in this study since the majority of previous studies in writing apprehension and anxiety used only a cutting score for two levels, which does not seem to be fair.

Table3 Scores Distribution of Apprehension Levels

10 – 25	26-34	35-50
High apprehensive 16 scores	Average 9 scores	Low apprehensive 16 scores

[56] It was not the main purpose of this study to construct a highly valid and reliable measure of writing-strategy apprehension scale; otherwise, it would be informative to check for construct and convergent validities and do factor analysis.

Data analysis

Due to the quantitative nature of the research questions, data was analyzed using the SPSS program for descriptive statistics. Two methods of descriptive analysis, therefore, were used (frequency tables and measures of central tendency and dispersion) to be able to summarize the frequency and mean of data for writing strategy-related apprehension levels of the participants and understand the variability of their scores through the standard deviation.

7. Results & Discussion

As far as research question 1 is concerned (**Based on writing strategy-related apprehension, what are the apprehension levels of EFL college students in a Saudi Arabian context?**), the participants were tested to know their writing apprehension levels in terms of their writing strategies. In table 3 below, we can see that the participants were classified (based on their scores) into three groups: (1) high apprehensive writers, (2) average apprehensive writers, and (3) low apprehensive writers. The results show that the majority of the participants (57.9%) were normal in their writing strategy-related apprehension. However, almost a third of them (31.4%) reported that they had the abnormally high level of anxious, nervous, agitated or stressful feelings in their writing-strategy related situations. On the other hand, only 10% of the informants (*N*= 13) did not generally have apprehensive feelings towards the statements of the scale.

Table4 Levels of Writing Strategy-related Apprehension

		Frequency	Valid Per cent	Mean	Std. Deviation
Valid	More Apprehensive	38	31.4	1.7934	.61803
	Average Apprehensive	70	57.9		
	Low Apprehensive	13	10.7		
	Total	121	100.0		

In addition, as shown in table 4 below, measures of central tendency and dispersion were computed to summarize the data and understand the variability of scores and responses for the participants' strategy-related writing apprehension (*N*=121, *M*=27, *SD*=7), their over-all responses across the scale (*N*=121, *M*=2.7, *SD*=0.7), and their levels of apprehension after scoring (*N*= 121, *M*= 1.7, *SD*=0.6). When you look at the statistics of the 3 means, they show that the participants' scores, responses, and apprehension levels tended to be almost in the middle. This was supported by a low variation in the standard deviation. For example, when we look at the mean of the scale responses, it points to the general tendency for a middle position. The participants were tending to be 'uncertain' about their agreement or disagreement with the scale items. This tendency does not seem to vary a lot across responses (*SD*=0.7).

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics

		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Apprehension Scores	21	10.00	50.00	27.0000	7.07931
Scale Responses	21	1.00	5.00	2.7099	.70586
Levels of Apprehension	21	1.00	3.00	1.7934	.61803

Regarding research questions two and three (**2- what are the most stressful strategies? 3- what are the least stressful strategies?**), table 5 below ranks the scale items in terms of their stress and apprehension based on the participants' frequency of agreement. It also describes how anxious, nervous, agitated and stressful feelings are conceived in the scale statements. For example, item 1 (*I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.*) is agreed upon my almost all of the participants (*N*= 98 out of 121). It is argued that when a writer is inhibited by a topic and

starts to be abnormally anxious, it might indicate that he lacks a pre-writing strategic competence to generate ideas and overcome the unfairly imposed topics.

Furthermore, item 10 below, which indicates the least stressful item in the scale, is a surprising result. It is the only item in the scale that was meant to measure stress in terms of the macro level of writing skill. The analysis of the agreements on the scale items ranks the items as if they say (hypothetically) that stress in strategies can lead to stress in writing skill as a whole. The micro might lead to the macro.

Table 5. The Apprehension Order of the Scale Items

Scale Items	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total of agreements
1- I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about.	Apprehension here is related to the absence of a strategic behavior to generate ideas.	60	38	98
2- I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects.	Pressure is related to the strategy of following rules.	23	57	80
3- I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas.	Apprehension is related to the absence of a strategic behavior to overcome the problem of vocabulary.	32	43	75
4- I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly.	Apprehension is related to the strategy of accuracy which might be caused by language shock.	23	42	65
5- Grammatical mistakes make me feel apprehensive.	Apprehension is related to the absence of a strategic behavior to overcome grammatical issues.	19	39	58
6- I feel nervous when I have to change my ideas.	Nervousness is related to the strategy of changing ideas.	14	44	58
7- I feel nervous when editing my writing.	Nervousness is related to the strategy of editing.	11	35	46
8- Spellings and punctuations are stressful.	Stress is related to the strategy of checking mechanics.	16	26	42
9- It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written.	Bother is related to the strategy of revising.	18	21	39
10- I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills.	This item is related to the macro level of writing skill rather than the micro levels of strategies.	14	20	34

On the other hand, results analysis showed that the majority of the 38 apprehensive writers (36, 33, and 32, respectively) agreed with the following statements: (1) *I get apprehensive when I don't understand what the topic is talking about*, (2) *I get apprehensive when I don't know the right word to express my ideas*, (3) *I feel apprehensive to use expressions and sentence patterns incorrectly*, and (4) *I feel pressure when I do not write as many words as the teacher expects*. The previous 4

statements indicate directly and indirectly that the most stressful strategies for the high apprehensive participants might have something to do with the lack of content-related strategies (ideas generating strategies), caring much about accuracy, and following teacher's expectations. These results seem to corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work in this field (Daud *et al.*, 2005; Hassan, 2001; Jones, 1985).

Furthermore, 12 of the 13 low apprehensive writers disagreed with the following statements: (1) *It bothers me to revise and reread what I have written*, (2) *I feel nervous when editing my writing*, (3) *Spellings and punctuations are stressful*, and (4) *I feel more tense and nervous in writing skill than in other language skills*. The previous 4 statements indicate that the least stressful strategies for the low apprehensive participants were related to both content (revising and rereading) and form (mechanics), as well as to the macro level of writing skill. In other words, the low apprehensive participants reported that they did not feel apprehensive or stressful at both the micro levels of strategies (both content and form) and the macro level of writing skill in general.

8. Conclusion

This quantitative study set out to answer questions concerning 121 Saudi students' EFL writing strategy-related apprehension. The results showed that while the majority of the participants were average in their stress and apprehension towards their writing strategies, almost a third of them were highly apprehensive. In addition, the top stressful strategies were those that indicate the lack of generating ideas, the care about accuracy, and the follow of teacher's expectations.

It is argued that in the existence of anxious, stressful feelings towards the absence or presence of particular strategic behaviors "the most innovative techniques and the most attractive materials [might be] inadequate, if not useless" (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p.2). EFL writing teachers, therefore, need to be more aware of the presence of stress and apprehension in their students' writing strategies and they need to be innovative in the ways to handle them (ibid.). When teachers understand the stressful and agitating side of their learners' strategies, they can help them overcome problems created by those strategies and suggest facilitative strategies instead.

The current study, however, does not permit us to draw firm conclusions as to whether either content-related strategies or form-related strategies are directly related to writing apprehension. However, what is clear is that certain writing strategies seem to be more apprehension-related than others. EFL teachers, therefore, need to be sensitive to those strategies; they might impede the quality, quantity and time of students' writing. Nevertheless, more research on this topic needs to be undertaken before the association between strategy and apprehension is more clearly understood.

Last but not least, the question that seems very complicated to answer is that: Are stressful strategies so stressful because of being highly challenging, or because of receiving insufficient instruction on them? For example, if the strategy of checking grammar is stressful for a student, then, can we attribute this stress to the strategy per se, or to the insufficient grammar lessons received by students?

All in all, the findings, while preliminary, can provide the following implications that echo most of Oxford's (1999, p. 67) suggestions for diminishing language anxiety. Since stress is found to be present in students' writing strategies, teachers are recommended to:

- Encourage reasonable acceptance of stressful writing strategies.
- Allow students to write less than perfect sentences and paragraphs.
- Motivate students through relaxing games and music.
- Use familiar topics in writing tests and quizzes.
- Allow students to use dictionaries and topic-related sources during writing exams.
- Provide diverse writing tasks and activities that require diverse writing strategies.
- Help students to identify and handle stress and apprehension signs in their writing strategies.

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Appendix 16: Published Work 2

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EFL Students' Writing Strategies in Saudi Arabian ESP Writing Classes: Perspectives on Learning Strategies in Self-access Language Learning

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Abstract

This study was part of a PhD research to explore the writing strategies of 121 second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who are studying English as a foreign language and for specific purposes in one of the Saudi industrial colleges: Jubail Industrial College (JIC). The writing strategies under investigation had been classified into two categories (process-oriented writing strategies and product-oriented writing strategies) based on their instructional philosophies. A strategy questionnaire was designed to collect data. Although JIC writing classes were assumed to be product-oriented as reported by the majority of the participants' description of their teachers' writing approach, the results showed that almost all of the participants (95.9%) were mixing the two kinds of strategies. More surprisingly, the top five writing strategies used by the participants were process-oriented.

Keywords: EFL writing strategies, process writing approaches, product writing approaches, ESP writing in Saudi Arabia.

One might argue that writing should be always instructed simply because the ability to write a text that is error free is not a naturally acquired skill but is formally learned in formal instructional settings (Banda, 2003). However, this argument seems to limit the dimensions of writing skill, in particular, and language in general because it only values the linguistic side of the skill and overlooks the strategic side. In fact, learning to write seems to be a typical example where the components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) can meet, interact, and develop.

In this introduction, we will consider two of the dominant camps of writing instruction: the process group and product group, and their associated writing strategies. Next we will investigate through a strategy questionnaire the type of writing strategies used in an EFL writing context, where the assumed writing approach is product-based.

The first school of writing instruction adopts product approaches, which share the idea of accuracy, linearity, and prescriptivism in the way they deal with teaching writing. They deal with writing as a straightforward plan, as marks on a page, as related words, as clauses, and as structured sentences (Hyland, 2003). According to these perspectives, "writing development is considered to be the result of [structurally or rhetorically] imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher" (Hyland, 2003, p.3). Teaching product-based writing involves such aspects as guidance, control and assistance with questions to answer, a model to follow, an outline to expand, an incomplete piece of writing to complete, or an incorrect text to correct (see Brown, 2001, p. 335; Pincas, 1982; Pincas, 2001, p. 2). The aim here is to introduce students to structures accepted by the native speakers. L2 students need to be guided systematically to avoid any L1 interference (ibid.). In the light of this teaching, writing might include such strategies as following teachers' rules and feedback, writing without collecting information, writing without a plan, following outlines, focusing on organization, neatness and layout, constant editing of grammar, vocabulary use and punctuation, avoiding writing sentence fragments, etc.

The second camp of writing instruction is process orientated. The basic idea of writing here is explained briefly by Zamel (1983, p. 165) as a creative process by which writers "discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning". Writing, she argues, is "a nonlinear, exploratory, and generative process" (ibid). In the so-called process school, there are two groups: the expressivists and the cognitivists (Faigley, 1986). The expressivist movement (e.g. Donald Murray, Peter Elbow, and others (see Johns, 1990), encourages students to take power over their writing. The expressivists focus on the writer's voice, self-discovery and expression. They emphasize the importance of fluency over accuracy and argue that ideas emerge from learners rather than textbooks. Free-writing technique, for example, is a distinctive writing strategy that "leads quite naturally to a process classroom" (Reid, 1993, p. 260). The cognitivists, on the other hand, see learning (and learning to write) as a mental process and learners as active recipients (see O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). They emphasize the role of internal mental processes rather than external behaviors (Ellis, 1990). For them, writing instruction should explicitly teach students to understand their own writing processes and to build up their own strategies for the over-lapping writing stages. From the cognitive perspective, writing is viewed as a complex cognitive skill, as a decision-making and a problem-solving activity (Flower & Hayes, 1981). In contrast to the product school, the two major process approaches share their dislike of emphasis on grammar correction. They do not look at writing as a straightforward plan with a model to follow or a product to shape. They encourage meaning over form and fluency over accuracy (Tribble, 1996, p. 160). In the light of these perspectives, writing strategies might include strategies of free writing, planning, creating ideas, discovering meaning, group or pair work, considering audience, purpose, and context of writing (Connor, 1987), revising, drafting, and proofreading.

According to Piper (1989, p. 212), "there is no doubt that instruction does have an effect on how the learners write both in terms of written output, writing behaviours and attitudes to writing". This study, therefore, attempted to investigate the instructional type of writing strategies used by EFL college students in Saudi Arabia.

Research Questions

There is little research investigating writing strategies according to instructional philosophies. Thus, the research questions of this study are:

1- Based on the process-product types of writing instruction,what is the instructional type of *writing strategies* used by EFL college students in a Saudi Arabian context?
2- What are the five most used writing strategies?
3- What are the five least used writing strategies?

Subjects and Research Setting

The population for the research were second-year undergraduate Saudi student writers who are studying English as a foreign language in one of the Saudi industrial colleges: Jubail Industrial College (JIC). The total number of the research population was approximately 400 students, and the total number of the participants who took part in the survey was 121 participants.The population can be described as non-native intermediate speakers and writers of English who speak and write English for specific purposes: technical and business. The selection was on a voluntary basis from 4 writing classes taught by 4 different teachers: two natives and two non-native speakers. In JIC writing classes, teaching materials are designed according to the principles of the product approaches.

Developing a strategy questionnaire

In investigating writing strategies and processes, previous ESL/EFL studies used either introspective data, i.e. think-aloud protocols (Arndt, 1987; Jones, 1982; Jones & Tetroe, 1987;

Raimes, 1985) or retrospective data, i.e. interviews (Silva, 1992; Zamil, 1983) and questionnaires (Angelova, 1999; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Other studies (Abdel Latif, 2009; Alhaysony, 2008; Chaaban, 2010; El-Aswad, 2002; Raimes, 1987; Wang and Wen, 2002) combined the two kinds of data sources. The current study investigated the participants' writing strategies through a questionnaire Surveying a large number of subjects, a benefit of adopting quantitative questionnaire as a research approach, would allow us to establish a process-product catalogue of writing strategies. Furthermore, "such an instrument would enable researchers to compare findings in different contexts. At the same time, it could also have pedagogical applications in two ways: as a needs analysis or diagnostic tool for teachers and an awareness-raising tool for learners" (Petric & Czarl, 2003, p. 188). This research therefore, does not deal with highlighting peculiarities by presenting individual writers' profiles of writing strategies. Instead, the current research considers writing strategies defined as 'the [conscious] behaviors and techniques that can be taught and instructed [in writing]" (Grenfell and Harris, 1999, p. 39). The word '*conscious*' excludes the controversial debates around the consciousness and unconsciousness of strategy use. '*That can be taught and instructed in writing*' refers to the focus of the research on the process-type and product-type writing strategies, i.e. strategies that reflect the principles of process and product approaches to writing teaching. Therefore, the strategy questionnaire items are divided into two categories or 'clusters': process-oriented items and product-oriented items.

The product-process philosophical dichotomy of those strategy items is based on two things. First, if a strategy is related to the 'form' feature of writing, then we consider it a product-oriented strategy. If a strategy is related to the 'content' feature of writing, then we call it a process-oriented strategy. The process-oriented writing strategies, therefore, focused on the strategies of flexibility, recursiveness, creating ideas, discovering meaning, considering audience, purpose, and context of writing, revising, and collaborating. The product-oriented writing strategies, on the other hand, would generally focus on the strategies of accuracy, linearity, prescriptivism, imitation and dependence on teacher's assistance. Second, if a strategy is not evidently related to one of those features, its classification as a product-or-process strategy is taken from our own understanding of literature on writing approaches. The product-typed writing strategies are the items written in bold in part B of the questionnaire; the others are the process-typed strategies (see Appendix A).

The items of both types of writing strategies were randomly sequenced to avoid the bias of choice and being evident to the participants. The total number of strategy items before amendment was 50 items: 25 process strategies and 25 product strategies. After reliability amendment, 5 items were deleted from both groups of strategies. Having equal items in both groups would help in classifying the participants into process-oriented strategy users or product-oriented strategy users. The scoring formula (adapted from Daly and Miller's formula for Writing Apprehension Test (1975), thus, is: (120 + the scores of the process strategies – the scores of the product strategies). Scores may range from a low of 40 to a high of 200, with a range of 160 scores total. Scores were, therefore, divided equally: 53 scores were given for each main category (process and product) and 54 scores for the category of the equally mixed kinds of writing strategies. Classifying strategies rigidly with a cutting edge is impossible, so having a zone where mixed strategies can be classified is sensible. Scores from 40 to 93 reflect a more process-oriented strategy user; scores from 148 to 200 reflect a more product-oriented strategy user. Scores from 94 to 147 reflect users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies.

The rating scale of the self-report writing strategy questionnaire followed the Likert-scale of five responses: always=1, often=2, sometimes=3, rarely=4 and never=5. The scores were not written for the participants to avoid confusion. Instead, it had been decided to use the percentage so that the participants can clearly understand the differences between the five responses. Percentages were added in light of criticism (see Dörnyei, 2005; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006) and so that computing means scores would be more justifiable.

Validity and reliability

The first version of the questionnaire contained 50 strategy items. Those items were either written by the researcher or borrowed and modified from two other writing-strategy questionnaires:

(1) Petric's & Czarl's (2003); and (2) Alhaysony's (2008). After piloting the first version of the questionnaire, the Cronbach's alpha of the 50 items was .85. This means reliability is high. However, the split-half method (to measure consistency of responses across two randomly divided sets of items) and the test-retest method (to measure consistency of the over-all scores of the participants from time to time) showed a very low reliability. The Spearman-Brown Coefficient was .41, and the test-retest reliability was .350. These statistical results forced us to reconsider the 50 items and to think about the validity checkers' comments on the contrasting strategies. 10 items (equally divided into process and product strategies), therefore, were deleted including those items suggested to be deleted by the validity checkers in the pilot study and other items that can be combined in one item instead of two. Consequently, both split-half and test-retest reliabilities of the remaining 40 items increased significantly. After this amendment, the split-half reliability became .80 and the test-retest reliability became .64. The Cronbach's alpha also increased to .857. The 40-item strategy questionnaire (see the Appendix), therefore, was used instead of the 50-item one.

Data analysis

Due to the quantitative nature of the research questions, data was analyzed using the SPSS program for descriptive statistics. Two methods of descriptive analysis, therefore, were used (frequency tables and measures of central tendency and dispersion) to be able to summarize the frequency and mean of data for writing strategies used by the participants and understand the variability of their scores through the standard deviation.

Results and Discussion

As far as question one is concerned (**What is the instructional type of *writing strategies* used by EFL college students in Saudi Arabia?**), the participants were classified (based on their scores) into three groups: (1) more process-strategy users, (2) users of more equally mixed process-and-product strategies, and (3) more product-strategy users. Table 1 below shows that almost all of the participants (95.9%) were mixing the two types of strategies. This seems to be different from other studies that indicated the dominance of product-oriented writing strategies in Arab students' ESL/EFL writing (Al-Semari, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; El-Mortaji, 2001; Fageeh, 2003; Krapels, 1990). In addition, measures of central tendency and dispersion were computed to summarize the data and understand the variability of scores for both *the instructional type* of writing strategies used by the participants and *the over-all writing strategies used.* The following are the results of the analysis for the instructional types: (N = 121, M=1.99, SD=.20). When you look at the mean, it shows that the participants' writing strategies tended to be in the middle and not to be oriented by a particular type of instructional principles. This was supported by a low variation in the scores as the standard deviation indicates.

Table 1. The Instructional Type of EFL Writing Strategies

		Frequency	Valid Per cent	Mean	Std. Deviation
Valid	1) More process-oriented strategy users	3	2.5		
	2) Users of more equally mixed strategies	116	95.9	1.991	.2039
	3) More product-oriented strategy users	2	1.7		
	Total	121	100.0		

Similarly, as shown in table 2 below, the results of the analysis for the five Likert-scale responses of the over-all writing strategies across the questionnaire show the following: (N= 121, M= 2.98, SD= .43). When we look at the mean, it also points to the general tendency for a middle

position. The participants were tending to use all kinds of strategies sometimes (50% to 79%). This tendency does not seem to vary a lot across responses.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
All strategies	121	1.80	4.08	2.9826	.43843

On the other hand, the results of the second question (**What are the five most used writing strategies by EFL Saudi students?**) seem to contradict the previous interpretation of the participants being more users of more equally mixed kinds of writing strategies. As shown in table 3, the majority of the participants tended to use five process-oriented writing strategies more than the rest of the strategies. This was unexpected. The JIC writing classes are assumed to be product-oriented for two reasons. First, the teaching materials are designed to be taught according to the principles of the product approaches. Second, after coding and analyzing the participants' answers to an open-ended question asking them to explain *how they are taught English writing in the college*, the majority of the valid[57] answers (71%) reported receiving product-oriented writing instruction. The top five used writing strategies, therefore, were expected to be product-typed. One of the numerous explanations for this might be writing experience and previous writing instructions. As confirmed by other studies (Aljamhoor, 1996; Chaaban, 2010; El-Mortaji, 2001; Fageeh, 2003), writing strategies are controlled and directed by writing experience and/or previous writing instruction. The current results, however, cannot accurately relate those 5 process-oriented writing strategies to a previous writing instruction simply because 70.2 % of the respondents reported that they did not attend a course in English writing before coming to college, 66.4% of them said that they had not received any sort of training on writing strategies, and, as said above, 70.5% of the valid answers explained that they had received product-oriented writing instruction. On the other hand, the majority of the participants (66.9%) were studying English for 7 years or more. Still, this could not confirm the above studies' findings regarding writing experience or previous instruction, but there might be an indication to learners' writing schemata. This might take us to another explanation that could be related to the participants' writing competence. They might have received and developed their own process-typed writing strategies as a result of being more competent. They could also inherit those kinds of strategies as part of their normal way of learning to write or they might have transferred them from their Arabic writing strategic competence. This taxonomy of writing strategies according to their instructional philosophies has left the door widely open for more inquiries and more explanations.

Table 3. The Five Most Used Writing Strategies

	Process Strategy (If I do not know the exact word in English, I use a similar English word that I know.)	Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the purpose of my writing.)	Process Strategy (When I do not know how to express my thoughts in English, I simplify what I want to write.)	Process Strategy (When I write, I think about the reader of my writing.)	Process Strategy (I stop after each sentence or paragraph to relate ideas together and get more new ideas.)
Mean	1.5620	1.9917	1.9669	2.3471	2.1736
Std. Deviation	.82556	1.00412	.99108	1.26300	1.10059
Frequency	72	47	46	41	40
%	59.5%	38.8%	38%	33.9%	33.1%

[57] There were 38 valid responses; 33 were irrelevant, and 50 did not respond.

Regarding the last question (**What are the five least used writing strategies by EFL Saudi students?**), table 4 below reveals that the least used writing strategies were a mixture of product-oriented and process-oriented strategies. Similar to the results of the previous question, the majority of the participants who almost never used those five strategies reported that they had received product-oriented writing instruction. However, they had not received any sort of instruction on writing strategies. This would indicate that students might develop their own sense of proper strategies to use or not to use in writing English. When we look at the first and the fifth least used writing strategies below, we can get a good example of this. Although the two strategies are of two kinds (one process-oriented and one product-oriented), they both refer to the use of the mother tongue in EFL writing. The results for the two show that the vast majority of the participants tended not to use Arabic, their native language, neither as a process nor as a product strategy of writing. 57.9% of them informed that they almost never use the product strategy of translating literally into English. In addition, 41.3% reported that they also never use the process strategy of writing bits of the text in Arabic and then translate into English. In fact, "the idea of abandoning the native tongue is too stressful to many learners, who need a sense of security in the experience of learning a foreign language" (Galina, 2009, p.1). Learners, therefore, are supposed to develop their own learning strategies to establish that sense of security, but sometimes they do not. Perhaps students are not fully aware of the usefulness of using their native language as a strategy of learning to write, which has been supported by a number of studies (Alam, 1993; El-Aswad, 2002; Fageeh, 2003). Or perhaps, students might be so obsessed with the nationally and culturally widespread preference for a native-like speaker, so that they do not want to show any use of their native language whatsoever. In addition, it could be that students have responded to the instruction of their teachers who did not allow using Arabic in class as directed by the strategy of the school[58]. Using the mother tongue is highly prohibited in JIC writing classes. Students, therefore, are discouraged about using or expressing their actual use of their native language in writing. Whatever the explanation is, it seems quite indicative that students would develop their own sense of strategies to use or not to use in writing English. This might be based on personal, cultural, or instructional purposes.

Table 4. The five Least Used Writing Strategies

	Product Strategy (I write sentences in Arabic and then literally translate into English.)	Product Strategy (When I finish writing my paper, I hand it in without rereading it.)	Process Strategy (When revising, I change my initial ideas and write new ideas.)	Process Strategy (I write more than one draft before handing in the final draft of the essay.)	Process Strategy (I write bits of the text in Arabic and then translate them into English.)
Mean	4.0248	3.9917	4.1157	3.9669	3.6942
Std. Deviation	1.35070	1.13648	1.00158	1.11006	1.39549
Frequency	70	55	53	51	50
%	57.9%	45.5%	43.8%	42.1%	41.3%

Conclusion

In conclusion, this quantitative study set out to answer questions concerning Saudi students' EFL writing strategies in Juabil Industrail College. The above findings of the participants' writing strategies confirm the belief (Reid, 2001, p. 29) that writing cannot and should not be isolated as either process or product activity. Writing "fundamentally depends on writers' purposeful interactions with print, with fellow readers and writers, and with literate communities of practice" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 31). Reid (2001) said that the dichotomy between 'process' and

[58] Mr. Alnufaie is a teacher there for more than 8 years and knows this fact very well.

'product' in terms of instruction is false. Similarly, this article confirms that this dichotomy is false in terms of learners' writing strategies. However, 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 (Petric & Czarl, 2003). When EFL college writers tend to diversify the type of writing strategies they use, we could argue that the nature of EFL writing might be dynamic and unpredictable. As a result, the perspective taken from this study is that teachers should try and adopt a diverse view of EFL writing instruction. A number of studies had previously reported both reciprocal and diverse relations between teacher teaching approaches and student learning approaches (Martin & Ramsden, 1998; Marton & Booth, 1997; Patrick, 1992; Trigwell, Prosser & Waterhouse, 1999). However, the question that is yet untouched in this study is: What is the nature of correlation between the instructional type of students' writing strategies and the instructional principles of their teachers' writing approaches? For future research, therefore, researchers are also recommended to investigate whether writing strategies can or cannot be self-instructed.