

**The Impact of Writing Strategies on the
Written Product of EFL Saudi Male
Students at King Abdul-Aziz University**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
Applied Linguistics**

Abstract

The present study investigates the composing processes and strategies in the written composition of final-year Saudi male students majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University. The aim of this investigation is to identify and analyse the writing processes of those students in order to understand some of the reasons behind their poor written output. It also aims to investigate the way skilled and less-skilled students compose their English writing, to classify the differences in the use of strategies between the two groups, and to study the impact of using strategies on the written product. Moreover, the thesis tries to gain a deeper understanding of the sub-processes of writing, such as planning, structuring, reviewing, and revising.

To this end, data was collected that included written samples, a writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ), and think-aloud protocols (TAP). The findings of the data analysis indicate first that the students have problems at the sentential and intersentential levels. Second, the findings show that the students are conscious of writing strategies, so they are expected to plan, translate and edit their writing. Third, the findings of the WSQ reveal that students do not report what they actually do. Fourth, the results of the analysis of the TAPs show that the students used mainly meta-cognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies. However, only skilled students planned their writing globally or locally, and both skilled and less-skilled students were involved in the cognitive process.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis has been written by me and all the work written in it is my own work and writing.

The thesis has not previously been submitted for any degree in Newcastle University or any other educational foundation in the world. It has not been published partially or completely anywhere.

December 2011

Khalid Alharthi

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Transliteration used in the thesis

English letters	Arabic letters
a	أ
b	ب
t	ت/ة
θ	ث
j	ج
ħ	ح
kh	خ
d	د
ð	ذ
r	ر
z	ز
s	س
sh	ش
ṣ	ص
dh	ط
ṭa	ظ
ōa	ع
ʒ	ج
gh	غ
f	ف
q	ق
k	ك
l	ل
m	م
n	ن
h	ه
w	و
y	ي

Taken from Johnstone (1991) and modified by the author

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Appendix 1: The Students' Written Essays for the Diagnostic Writing Test

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Appendix 4: Prompts of the Think-aloud Protocol

Appendix 5: The Codes Used in the Analysis of the TAPs

Appendix 6: The Think-aloud Protocols

Appendix 7: WSQs and Compositions of the Students Studied in Chapter Five

List of Abbreviations

Text = T

Sentence = S

Research question = RQ

Deleted pieces of information = (...)

Short Pause less than one minute= (.)

Medium Pause more than one minute= (..)

Long pause more than two minutes = (...)

Think-aloud Protocol = (TAP)

Writing Strategy Questionnaire = (WSQ)

Chapter One:

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In order to write, people must perform a number of mental operations: They must Plan, Generate knowledge, Translate it into speech, and Edit what they've written A writer caught in the act looks much more like a very busy switchboard operator to juggle a number of demands on her attention and constraints on what she can do.

Flower and Hayes (1980a, pp. 31–33)

For 30 years efforts have accumulated to investigate language learning strategies in more depth. Oxford (2011) summarised these efforts, and stated that these strategies “help learners regulate or control their own learning, thus making it easier and more effective” (2011, p. 12). Among these strategies, she mentioned metastrategies, which include “(...Planning, Organizing, Monitoring, and Evaluating), [which] help the learner control and manage the use of strategies in each dimension: cognitive, affective, and sociocultural-interactive” (2011, p. 15). Cognitive strategies help learners construct, transform, and apply L2 knowledge. This is how learners activate their knowledge to write a language task. Affective strategies help learners to “create positive emotions and attitudes and stay motivated” (2011, p. 14). An example of an affective strategy is generating and maintaining motivation. Sociocultural-interactive strategies (SI) “help the learners with communication, sociocultural contexts and identity” (2011, p. 14).

Oxford (2011) calls ‘metastrategies’ ‘metacognitive strategies’ and they help learners control cognitive strategies.

Furthermore, the results of research on L2 writing strategies, according to Manchón *et al.* (2007), indicate that there were three main directions during the previous 30 years. First, L2 writers employ a wide range of general and specific strategies in their efforts to learn to write. Second, “given the socio-cognitive dimensions of composing, the L2 writer’s strategic behaviour is dependent on both learner-internal and learner-external variables” (2007, p. 229). Third, the strategic behaviour of the writer is mediated “by the instruction received and can be modified through strategy instruction” (2007, p. 250).

It is noticeable that in both Oxford’s (2011), and Manchón *et al.*’s (2007) work, the sociocultural and socio-cognitive dimensions play an important role in demonstrating how learning strategies relate to communication. According to Oxford (2011), sociocultural context is the immediate context that includes all aspects of the culture where communication occurs. This means that the circumstances under which we live, and the signs or symbolic tools we use to regulate our relationships with others constitute the core of the sociocultural theory that has proved to be very important in understanding the issues of learning a foreign language. According to Scott and Palinscar (2009), “the work of *sociocultural theory* is to explain how individual mental functioning is related to cultural, institutional, and historical context; hence, the focus of the sociocultural perspective is on the roles that participation in social interactions and culturally organized activities play in influencing psychological development” (2009, p. 1). When interpreting a learning situation, the sociocultural

theory might attend to the broader social system where learning takes place, and draw interpretations about how the students' thinking and their progress is related to their participation in culturally organised activities.

The educational implications of sociocultural theory in assessment, curriculum, and instruction are wide. According to Scott and Palinscar (2009), sociocultural theory – in particular “the notion of zone of proximal development” (2009, p. 5) – proposes that the objectives of educational assessment can be summarised in the capability to identify the current developed aptitudes, and efforts to predict what the learner will be able to do independently in the future. A line of inquiry “consistent with these assessment goals is *dynamic assessment*” (2009, p. 5). Based on these educational implications, learning is thought to occur through negotiation, collaboration, and interaction. Accordingly, the goal of teaching instruction is to engage students in classroom activities and discussions, and to enable them to use the available teaching tools in a way that is consistent with the practices of the community to which the students are being introduced (e.g. mathematicians, historians, academics).

Hence, the educational process is a sociocultural event which requires multiple processes and mechanisms to achieve the learning goals. Writing remains one of the most challenging tasks and more than one process is required to trace students' writing practices. Therefore, we must rely on many research approaches and multiple indicators to provide possible answers to the way writers organise their information, choose their lexis, structure their options, and formulate their ideas.

Furthermore, research into second language (L2) and English as a foreign language (EFL) classes has for a long time focused on the written product as a means of studying the writing process (Kroll, 1990; Krapels,1990). However, the focus has recently changed, and both writers and teachers have started asking *how* we write instead of *what* we write. In fact, process studies provide insights into ways of teaching writing and dealing with its difficulties, and have consequently helped both teachers and researchers to develop new teaching methods and materials in a way that helps learners overcome their writing difficulties.

Among others, Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) are leaders in the field of investigating writing processes. They studied the actual process of writing in the native language (L1), and created a model to diagnose problems of composition by capturing the dynamic steps of the writing process. They stated that writers follow four focal phases to complete a written task: planning, generating ideas, translating, and editing of what has been written.

Despite the success of their model and other developments in the field, writing is still too complex a linguistic phenomenon to be measured structurally and meaningfully by a few controlled variables. It involves meta-cognitive, cognitive, affective, and social domains. Investigating writing problems is therefore challenging and laborious work that should be handled carefully. For this reason, efforts were combined to investigate the way students self-regulate their writing, monitor their performance, and use effective strategies to organise and code their writing.

This thesis deals with the problems of composition writing of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University by investigating the role of writing strategies in creating ideally, well-written, clear, and coherent texts in a new context. This chapter therefore provides an explanation of the main line of enquiry carried out in the present study, and presents the objectives of the thesis. It also addresses the reasons for examining writing strategies in the English composition of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University. Then the methods used to explore the aims of the research are described, and the research hypotheses and questions introduced. The chapter also indicates the potential contribution of the work, described here, to the field of teaching, and presents an outline of the thesis.

1.2 English Writing at the Saudi Tertiary Level

English is considered a foreign language in Saudi Arabia, but it is of vital importance for business, tourism, and trade, therefore learning English is very important for almost everyone. However, the educational system, broadly speaking, does not grant the process of English writing the attention it requires. For example, most state teaching curricula do not dedicate enough teaching hours to writing classes, therefore students do not receive enough training in the academic context, and this reflects negatively on their finished product (see 3.1.2). According to El-Sayed (1983), the skill of writing in Saudi Arabia is weak due to the way it is being taught: students are not given sufficient time to comprehend writing. Taher (1999) emphasises the value of allowing students time to implement what they study in their practices. She further adds that even at the pre-university stage, students study English only twice a week, in

45-minute sessions, for sixteen weeks a semester. The mountainous task here is to include the four language skills in two hours a week.

Even at the tertiary level, learning English writing required from students to build their vocabulary, usually through memorization and learning grammar rules. Knowledge of these elements of English is supposed to equip students to be proficient in their English performance. However, despite memorizing English words and grammar, students still fail to communicate proficiently in writing, or to produce a cohesive and coherent piece of writing (El-Daly, 1991).

Writing in English is not seen as a recursive effort, but a straightforward process of production. The outcome is that students find it very difficult to write, and the quality of their writing is poor and often not up to par in English. This is evident among many EFL students in the country, as is revealed in many studies (e.g. Al-Hozaimi, 1993; Al-Semari, 1993; Aljamhour, 1996).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Although there is a considerable body of research on the value of studying the process of writing for native speakers of English (see Flower and Hayes, 1980, 1981; Griffin, 1998), and in the second-language context (see Arndt, 1987; Zamel, 1982, 1983a,b; Raimes, 1983, 1985, 1987, 1991; Silva, 1993; Cumming, 1989; Campbell, 1998; Hedgcock, 2005; and Susser, 1994), much less work has investigated the writing process of EFL learners (see Wong, 2005; Wang, 2004; Hu and Chen, 2007), and studies on the composing process of EFL Arab learners are quite scarce. Most of the studies conducted to date have focused on sub-processes such as structuring,

reviewing, and revising, and these have become more sophisticated in recent years. They have extensively investigated many variables of the writing process such as motivation, attitude, proficiency, and learners' needs. However, research on L2 writing processes has been strongly affected and inspired by studies on L1 in terms of methods of analysis and research design (Cumming, 1998; Silva, 1993).

However, adopting and generalising the findings of L1 research in the L2 context is problematic as it cannot account for the facts behind many problems in the writing of L2 learners. Among these problems, Krapels (1990) talks about L1 transference into L2 discourse in his comprehensive study, which shows the contradictions in adapting results from L1 findings to solving problems in an L2 context. Among his findings, he states that

poor performance in L2 writing results from composing competence, and not from linguistic competence. Second, the composing processes of skilled and less-skilled L2 writers are similar to those of L1 writers. Third, learners transfer L1 writing strategies to their L2 writing process for 'facilitative functions'. (Krapels, 1990, p. 48)

Finally, Krapels (1990) finds that in culturally bound topics the usage of L1 is higher than that in other tasks. Friedlander (1990) adds that translation is considered an effective writing strategy.

These findings contradict what Zamel's (1983a) study revealed. She indicated that both skilled and less skilled L2 writers compose like their L1 counterparts, but what

differentiates them is composing competence rather than L2 language proficiency. This is similar to Silva's (1993) study, which indicates that the composing processes of L2 writers are different from the composing processes of L1 writers. Furthermore, Zamel confirms that "composing is a non-linear, exploratory and generative process" (1983a, p. 165), which is consistent with Flower and Hayes' (1981) assertion about the L1 writing process. On the other hand, Raimes's (1985, 1987) and Arndt's (1987) findings underscore the need to examine the strategies and writing processes used by L2 learners as there are a lot of differences. Therefore, they warned against using and generalising L1 findings in L2 research. Confirming Krapels (1990), Thornson (2000) highlights the need for more research to be conducted in L2 field to show the impact of L1 on L2 writing, because the recent "research findings in this area reveal major contradictions" (Thornson, 2000, p. 155). He further confirms that many questions about L2 writing processes remain largely unanswered. Scott (1996) adds that translation from L1 into L2 is considered to be counterproductive for a lot of students.

Likewise, research in EFL has generalised and applied the findings of L1 and L2 learning to the EFL context. But it was soon discovered that many existing problems could not be resolved because the findings concerning L1 and L2 were not based on the study and analysis of data taken from EFL learners, but on the analysis of data taken from EFL students, who deal with the foreign language differently and consequently encounter different problems. However, research has been conducted in many educational EFL milieus (see Wang, 2004; Wong, 2005; Hu and Chen, 2007; Weijen, Huub, Bergh, Rijlaarsdam, and Sanders, 2009) to solve some of the contradictions in the results, and to provide answers to the reasons for writing problems (see 2.4). However, many areas still need to be investigated, and further

research is invited to resolve contradictions, and provide the field with more accurate answers in problematic areas.

In the Arab EFL context, learners who only use English in classes and write for academic success and not for ‘survival’ in society (as English as a second language (ESL) learners tend to do) consider writing to be a constant struggle which requires thinking, planning, searching for ideas, developing, organising, reviewing, paying attention to grammar, vocabulary, structure, cohesion and coherence, and above all meeting the requirements of examinations and academic life (Braine, 2002). Writing is considered a laborious activity which requires a special investigation, taking into consideration all the problems that might be encountered in the activities involved in the process of writing. For example, most Arab students make language mistakes and adopt ineffective ways of expanding their ideas; thus they seldom produce well-written and coherent text, even after studying English throughout the period of their formal education. The questions that call for answers are: Why does this occur? Is it related to the limitations of their language proficiency or lack of English-language competence? Is it because EFL students think in their L1 rather than in L2 when they compose, therefore they produce inefficient texts? If this is true, how much does this affect the texture of their process and consequently their product? Could poor written product be related to inappropriate use of writing strategies? If so, in what ways do EFL learners develop their ideas?

Research that answers some of these concerns exists, to some extent, for EFL learners from different language backgrounds such as Chinese, Japanese, and Malaysians, but there is little for Arab EFL learners. Most of the studies conducted in this field are

product based (Kharma, 1985; Doushaq and Al-Makzoomy, 1989). Few studies tackle the particular aspects of the process and specific use of strategies such as the influence of L1 on L2 writing (Alam, 1993), and the impact of revision as a strategy (Al-Semari, 1993). More recent and comprehensive studies tackling the writing process of Arab EFL learners (El-Mortaji, 2002, El-Aswad, 2003; Alhaysony, 2008) have been conducted (2.5). However, the focus of these three works was on investigating the presence of writing strategies in the Arabic and English texts, therefore concentration on English writing processes was limited to a certain extent. None of these works has investigated the impact of writing strategies on the written product, therefore this area of research needs more exploration.

Taking these factors and research gaps into consideration, an empirical study is needed to enrich the research repertoire of EFL learners with more insights about the writing processes in a new context. Advancement in research which could offer more inclusive findings to solve unanswered questions, or fill a research gap concerning what constitutes coherent texts in the writing of Arab EFL learners, is greatly needed.

1.4 Objectives, Methods, and Research Questions

Considering what has been mentioned above (see 1.2), the present study tries to identify, investigate, and analyse the writing processes of Saudi male students majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University. Most importantly, it studies the role of writing strategies on the written product of those students. Focusing on the actual act of writing, this thesis tries to diagnose the problems the students suffer from (see the preliminary study section 4.2), examine the students' awareness and attitudes

towards writing strategies (see the writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ) section 4.3), and find answers to questions about how skilled and less-skilled students compose their English writings (see Chapter Five sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.2).

To explore the objectives of the research, the thesis will answer the following research hypotheses and questions:

H1: English academic writing of male students at King Abdul-Aziz University suffers from many problems.

RQ1: What are the general features that appear in the writing of the final-year Saudi students at the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University?

RQ2. What kind of writing strategies do Saudi male students (report that they) employ or really employ when they write in English?

RQ2.1: How frequently and effectively do the Saudi male students use them?

RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in the students' writing, what are the reasons behind this?

H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English.

RQ3: What is the role of writing strategies in creating clear and good written texts in the male Saudi context?

Table 1.1: Research questions and hypotheses

Research questions and hypotheses	The data that answer each research question or hypothesis	Chapters that answer research hypotheses and questions
H1: English academic writing of male students at King Abdul-Aziz University suffers from many problems.	Written samples analysis	Chapter Four – preliminary study section 4.2
RQ1: What are the general features that appear in the writing of the final-year Saudi students at the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University?	Written samples analysis	Chapter Four – preliminary study – writing diagnostic test section 4.2
RQ2: What kind of writing strategies do Saudi male students (report that they) employ or really employ when they write in English?	Writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ) analysis	Chapter Four – analysis of WSQ section 4.3
RQ2.1: How frequently and effectively do the Saudi male students use them?	WSQ and think-aloud protocol (TAP) analyses	Chapters Four and Five sections 4.3, 5.2.1
RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in the students' writing, what are the reasons behind this?	WSQ and TAP analyses	Chapter Five answers this question in section 5.3
H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English.	TAP analysis	Chapter Five sections 5.3.1. and 5.3.2
RQ3: What is the role of writing strategies in creating clear and good written texts in male Saudi context?	Results of the TAP analysis	Chapter Five section 5.3.3

Table 1.1 presents in the first column the research questions and hypotheses, in the second, the part of the data that explores them, and in the third, the chapters that provide answers for them.

The first research question aims to investigate the claim set forth by the hypothesis that the academic writing of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University does

not meet the academic requirements of clarity, good quality, and coherence for students purportedly working at this level. To this end, written essays for the initial study were collected from male students' writing, and checked against the frameworks of Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Sercombe (2002) to discover what kinds of problems there were in their writing. It was found that these frameworks were the most suitable for the data analysis (for the detailed analysis of the written samples see the preliminary study in Chapter Four 4.2).

The second research question with its sub-divisions investigates the presence of strategies in the students' writing; the frequency and efficiency of their use. Answers provided from the data analysis, namely a Likert-scale statement questionnaire and think-aloud protocols, show the influence of positive strategies on the written products. Chapters Four and Five present answers to these research questions (see 4.3, 4.4, 5.2.1).

The second research hypothesis specifies that there are differences in the use of writing strategies between skilled and less-skilled learners when they write their tasks, and studies the influence of these differences on the written product. Analysis of the think-aloud protocol in Chapter Five (see 5.3) validates the grounds of this research hypothesis and provides proof for it.

The results of the comparisons between skilled and less-skilled students provide answers to the third research question, which investigates the role of writing strategies in creating clear and well-written texts (see 5.3.1 and 5.3.2).

1.5 Significance of the Study

The present study is significant for EFL learners in general and the Saudi context in particular for several reasons: first, English is of vital importance in Saudi Arabia for vocational, business, and educational purposes. All academic institutions require English; therefore the number of people who would like to study and master the language is increasing. Similarly, the number of students majoring in English language is increasing, but their English level is questionable and does not improve, especially in writing. Therefore, this study investigates in depth some of the problems that the writing of Saudi males suffers from. It studies and analyses both the written product and writing processes of those students, and, to the best of my knowledge, this is the first thesis in the Saudi context to investigate both product and process. The findings of this investigation will be of vital importance for both EFL pedagogy in general, and the Saudi context in particular.

Second, to validate the ground of the research and build the thesis on solid evidence, the researcher collected written samples from the composition class of final-year students at King Abdul-Aziz University to investigate the kinds of problems their writing suffers from, and consequently to determine the most appropriate methods to use in the main study (see diagnostic test, Chapter Four). To the best of my knowledge, this is also the first empirical study in the Saudi context which analyses the written product, and then collects another set of data from the same students to study their think aloud processes in more depth. Hence, it is expected that the findings will be valuable for EFL learners and teachers in general, and the Saudi context in particular, since it is based on written evidence about problematic areas.

Third, considering the aforementioned gaps in the literature (see 1.3), it has been pointed out that more research is needed within new teaching contexts, and which concentrates on the processes and sub-processes of writing. The scarcity of research in writing strategies in the Arab context is quite notable. Research that investigates writing strategies is very limited, and has its own shortcomings. Almost all studies investigate the presence or lack of strategies in students' writing, but none of them investigates the impact of using writing strategies on the written product. This study is the first of its kind to investigate the impact of writing strategies on the written product of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University.

Fourth, most of the studies conducted in the Saudi context are based on samples collected from participants of both genders. Only one study (Alhaysony, 2008) investigates the presence of writing strategies in the writing of EFL Saudi female students in the northern region of Saudi Arabia. This study concentrates on the writing strategies of male students majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University, thus the findings may be of great importance for gender studies.

Fifth, most of the studies that use a think-aloud protocol (TAP) adopted the coding scheme of Flower and Hayes (1981) and Oxford (1990), but this study adapts and creates more codes that are particularly suitable for the writing processes of Arab EFL learners. Hence, it is hoped that the modified coding scheme used in this study will help Arab and EFL researchers in coding protocols in more comprehensive ways.

Sixth, for the analysis of the written samples, I combined Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) and Sercombe's (2002) frameworks to analyse the written samples I collected for the diagnostic test. This combination was effective, and covered almost all the sentential and intersentential aspects of the text. Therefore it is hoped that this new framework will contribute to the field of research and methodology by helping researchers who analyse data of a similar nature to mine.

Seventh, the knowledge and information gained from this study contributes to the field of theory and pedagogy by improving our understanding of the writing processes of Arab EFL students in terms of writing behaviours and strategies. It also paves the way for more research to be conducted in the future.

Eighth, the teaching milieu in Saudi Arabia is still product oriented, therefore the findings of this study attempt to draw the attention of teachers to the value of concentrating on the process of writing in general, and writing strategies in particular, for their importance in creating well-written and clear texts. The findings may also contribute to the field of pedagogy by raising students' awareness of the value of using writing strategies, so that they can be independent strategic learners.

1.6 Outline of the Thesis

The thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter One (this chapter) introduces the study, states the problems of the research, introduces the objectives and methods of the research, presents the significance of the study, and then offers a summary of the forthcoming chapters. Chapter Two presents a detailed account of the relevant

literature on the composing processes of L1, ESL, and EFL Arab learners. The aim of the literature review is to show the research gaps which indicate the significance and the purpose of this study.

Chapter Three describes the methodology of the research. At the beginning of the chapter, the researcher defines the data used in this research, the methods of data collection, and the research instruments, namely: the preliminary study (diagnostic test), written samples, writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ), and think-aloud protocols (TAP). Chapters Four and Five report the results of the data analyses. In Chapter Four, I present the results of the analysis of the written samples to validate the grounds of the research, and then I present the results of the analysis of the WSQ. Chapter Five presents the results of the think-aloud protocol and the WSQ for the eleven students who participated in the protocol. Chapter Six concludes the thesis and wraps up the results. The major findings of the research are restated, the contribution is revisited, and implications for Arab EFL teachers in general, and the Saudi context in particular, are presented. Suggestions for further research are also included.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents a summary of the thesis. It introduces first the main themes of the research, and the importance of studying English in Saudi Arabia. It then presents a statement of the problem, and the reasons to undertake the study. The objectives of the study are also provided, and the methods used to investigate the research hypotheses and questions are introduced. Finally, this chapter specifies the

significance of the research to the field of teaching and learning English, and presents a summary of the forthcoming chapters.

Chapter Two:

Literature Review: Writing Process and Writing Strategies

2.1 Introduction

The aim of the current chapter is to present the theoretical background of the relevant studies concerning writing strategies. In the first part, I review the paradigm shift from the traditional product to the process approach in writing. In the second, I highlight the major findings of research conducted to investigate writing processes and strategies in L1, ESL, and EFL contexts. This section will also demonstrate the studies that investigate the writing processes of Arab EFL learners in general, and Saudi learners in particular. In the third part, I present models used for the analysis of writing processes and writing strategies. The research gaps are also summarised to specify the significance of the study.

2.2 Writing from Product to Process

It has been argued that learning to read and write effectively is different from learning to speak or listen, largely because the latter two skills are acquired in an L1 environment. The former skills have to be learned rather than acquired, and not everyone becomes literate. Writing is considered as an interactive method of communication that takes place between the reader and the writer via a written text. Therefore, the writer has to anticipate the reader's reactions, and produce a text which adheres to what Grice (1975) calls the "cooperative principle". According to Nunan (2000), writing is considered the most difficult skill for all language learners, whether the language in question is a first, second or a foreign language. It is "not a natural

activity...all people have to be taught how to write” (p. 36). Therefore, the language learner writer is required, as Bell and Burnaby (1984) argue, “to demonstrate control of a number of variables...these include control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and letter formation...the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts” (cited in Nunan, 2000, p. 36).

On the other hand, the nature of writing has often been thought of as an abstract subject that cannot be taught because it is considered a creative activity (Jouhari, 1996). As such, competent writers already know what they want to write, and merely need to put down the written forms of their readily available knowledge and ideas. Therefore, in the 1950s and 1960s the emphasis of both researchers and teachers was on studying and assessing the final written product. It was believed that correct form, grammatical accuracy, and good structure were the keys of good writing, and composition teachers considered only the final products of the students. They believed that students know what they want to say before they start writing (Jones and Tetroe, 1987).

At the end of the 1970s and the beginning of the 1980s composition instructors started questioning the reasons behind learners’ writing problems, because it was clear that correct form and accurate grammar could not guarantee clear and coherent writing. Researchers (Emig, 1971; Murray, 1980; Perl, 1979, 1980; Krapels, 1990, among others) argued that if teachers want to improve the product, they must pay attention to the process and assess students during composition. Therefore, studies and models that concentrate on the process of writing started to emerge.

In the following sections, I shall review the most important studies and models of L1 writing processes, the ESL context, Arab EFL learners' writing processes, and the Saudi writing context. It is worth mentioning that the review attempts to follow a chronological order, where possible, in surveying the most important works in the writing processes. Although some of the works studied are old, they are considered the cornerstones which provide the field of writing process with useful frameworks and valuable findings. They form the bases from which further research developed (Perl 1979, 1980, and Rose, 1984).

2.3 Models of L1 Writing Processes

Dissatisfied with what had been achieved in the field of writing, and influenced by developments in the fields of psychology, cognitive psychology, social contexts, and cultural environment, linguists and researchers in the 1970s and 1980s challenged the product-oriented approach, and viewed writing as a practice of many processes (Britton, 1970; Halliday 1978, 1982). They started looking for models that covered the whole process of thinking involved in the act of writing. One of the leads in this field was Rohman (1965), who viewed writing as a linear activity involving three stages: pre-writing, writing and post-writing. This was known as the stage model, where the pre-writing stage involves thinking and planning, the writing stage involves translating the thoughts into writing, and the post-writing stage mainly concerns checking spelling and punctuation.

The weakness of this model is that writing is viewed as a linear or one-way process as opposed to the recursive process introduced by later models. It fails to address the finer processes of writing that involve cognitive processes, and mainly focuses on how the written product is produced (El-Mortaji 2001).

The defining research was conducted by Emig (1971), who considered writing as a recursive process. She used a new research tool called the think-aloud protocol and interview sessions to observe the writing processes and behaviours of writers. Her discovery of the planning stage, which occurs at the pre-writing and during the writing stage, rejected the old linear model of composing, and introduced writing as a recursive process. The outcome of the research revealed that students who planned or prepared an outline for their writing were better writers and spent less time in revision. Emig's (1971) research boosted the paradigm shift from product to process in the research of writing, and introduced the think-aloud protocol as a data-collection method (Faigley, 1986). She further encouraged more research to be conducted by posing three questions: Are there recurring characteristics of the composing process? Could a category system be devised to classify composing behaviours? Is it possible to formulate hypotheses which account for these behaviours? (Emig, 1971, pp. 40–41, cited in El-Mortaji, 2001, p. 25).

Perl (1978, 1979, 1980, and 1981) responded to Emig's (1971) questions and instigated studies based on a process-oriented approach. In her study, Perl (1979) confirmed that writing is not a linear process as originally thought, but a recursive one, where students go back and forth in their essay to produce a longer one. However, the strategies that are recursively used differ from one writer to another, and

from one topic to another, and are not easily spotted. To reach this conclusion, Perl (1979) used students' written products, think-aloud recordings and interviews to gather her data. She then analysed students' thoughts and perceptions of writing by creating a list of composing styles. From the list, she formulated the writing strategies she spotted within the students. In this, Perl (1979, 1980, 1981) classified three types of recursive constituents used by all writers: re-reading, focusing and 'felt sense'. Re-reading is a visible semantic recurring behaviour aimed at checking whether the words and discourse used correspond with the intended meaning. It occurs at the level of phrases, sentences, and chunks of discourse. Focusing involves the writer's attention moving to some keywords in the topic when they get stuck in order to help them continue, while 'felt sense' refers to "the internal criterion writers seem to use to guide them when they are planning, drafting, and revising" (Perl, 1980, p. 366).

Part of Perl's (1978, 1980) work also involved developing a coding system which was based on students' think-aloud protocols and the written product. The codes describe the process of writing that students go through and specifically "assist in answering the question 'How do writers compose?'" (Perl, 1978, p. 3). In addition, the coding system enables us to observe "the composing process as it unfolds. It allows to record exactly what is going on while it is occurring, and to return to the data for analysis. It also provides writers who think they don't know how to write with an opportunity to see that they do have a process of their own. Besides, it offers writers who think they know a lot about their own process an opportunity to check their perceptions about themselves. Often the results are surprising" (Perl, 1984, p. 4). Notice: "short form in the quote is in the original quote by Perl, 1978).

Perl's classification and coding scheme is of specific importance for this study. The present study adopts some of Perl's work as part of the theoretical framework, which includes a think-aloud protocol, a system of codes, and the students' written product. The coding system used in this study may not precisely replicate Perl's, but it did indeed originate from Perl. Many researchers have adopted Perl's coding system as a guide, and adapted the codes to their own requirements and students' background.

Confirming Emig's (1971) and Perl's (1979) views, Murray (1980) stated that it is hard to make meaning with written language "by looking backward from a finished page...It is possible however for us to follow the process forward from blank page to final draft and learn something of what happens" (p. 30). Hence he developed a model of components to investigate the recursive nature of the writing process. He recognised three stages during the writing process: rehearsing, drafting, and revising. He considered these three processes as overlapping cycles that continue during writing till the written task is completed. Murray described rehearsing as a process which involves mental and written preparation for writing. Drafting, on the other hand, occurs during the process of writing where the written task locates its meaning, and revising happens when the writer edits, develops, cuts and reorders the information in the written task (1980, p. 5).

Furthermore, Murray (1980) also described four processes that occur together during writing to complete the meaning. The first refers to collecting information, the second to connecting and organising what has been collected, the third relates to reading what has been organised, and the fourth to writing what has been read. He argued that these processes relate to each other, because collecting and connecting are countervailing

forces which bring about new meaning and experience (p. 8), while reading and writing operate together in the way that they interact during rehearsing, drafting, and revising (p. 11).

In the same year, Flower and Hayes (1980a, b) developed a model to investigate the writing process. Their model came as a refinement of Emig's (1971) and Perl's (1978, 1979, 1980) works, and marked a new shift in the way writing was studied. They accumulated evidence over three years (1980a,b, 1981a,b), and considered writing as a mental process during which writers experience various stages such as generating or planning, translating, and reviewing, as seen in Figure 2.1 below.

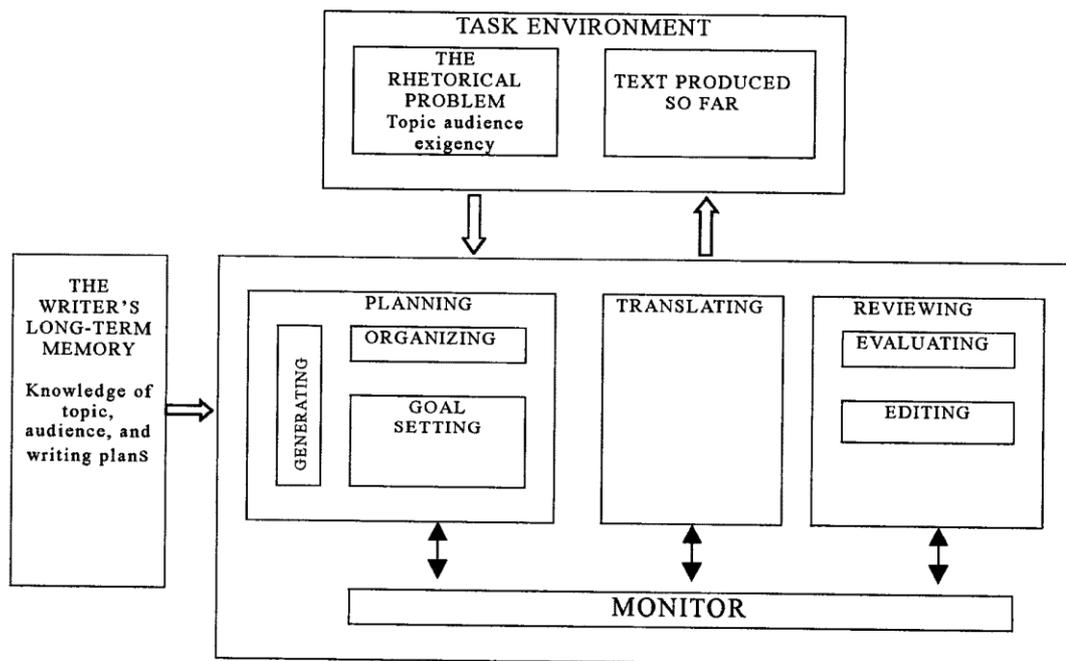


Figure 2.1: Flower and Hayes' model (1981a. p. 11)

The diagram shows that the model divides the writer's writing world into three main components: the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing

process. The first two sections refer to everything that goes on round the writer which affects the creation of the task.

In general, the three components attempt to elicit writing strategies. The task environment and the writer's long-term memory are considered the context in which the model operates. The task environment includes elements that are "outside the writer's skin, starting with the rhetorical problem or assignment and eventually including the growing text itself" (Flower and Hayes, 1981a, p. 369). They include a description of the topic, the intended audience, relevant information to the writer's motivations, and the text under process. The writer's long-term memory refers to where the writer stores knowledge of the topic, the audience, and a variety of writing plans. The third component includes the writing processes, namely: planning, translating the ideas into written pieces, and reviewing. The three are under the control of the function monitor. The monitor sets a limit to each stage, and triggers the next appropriate activity.

Thus, the planning process is the act of building an internal representation in the writer's mind. It determines the order of presentation of information, and involves three sub-processes: generating ideas, organising information, and setting goals. The purpose of planning is to collect information from the task environment and long-term memory, and utilise it in setting goals or establishing plans to guide the production of the written text. The ideas generated in the planning phase are translated into language on the page during the translation process. This is what Flower and Hayes call the process of "putting ideas into visible language" (1981a, p. 373). The function of this process is to take material from memory under the guidance of the writing plan, and

then to convert it “into acceptable written English sentences. We assume that material in memory is stored as propositions, but not necessarily as language” (Hayes and Flower, 1980b, p. 15).

Flower and Hayes (1981a) preferred to use the term “translate” over “transcribe” or “write” because they believed that the information generated during the planning stage “may be represented in a variety of symbol systems other than language, such as imagery.... Even when the planning process represents one’s thought in words, that representation is unlikely to be in the elaborate syntax of written English. So the writer’s task is to translate a meaning” (Flower and Hayes, 1981a, p. 373). They further added that when writers move from planning or producing notes to translating, which is an attempt to produce writing, it does not necessarily mean that they are forming a meaning that can be expressed in words. Rather, they are trying to develop a representation encoded in one form. The translation of this encoded representation into written English can add huge constraints, and often obliges the writer into writing suitable English sentences. It is assumed that materials in memory such as grammar and propositions are stored, but possibly not as language (Hayes and Flower, 1981a).

On the other hand, reviewing is a conscious process which depends on two “sub-processes: evaluating and revising” (p. 374). The writers choose to read what they have written to further evaluate or revise their writings. Finally, the monitor is used in moving from one component area to another. It functions “as a writing strategist which determines when the writer moves from one process to the next. For example, it determines how long a writer will continue generating ideas before attempting to write prose” (p. 374).

In order to monitor the writing process as they described it, Flower and Hayes (1981a) expanded their model to record the process of writing. They followed think-aloud protocols, where the subjects verbalised their thinking. This process is considered as a useful research tool because it is “extraordinarily rich in data” (Flower and Hayes, 1981a, p. 368).

Later in the same year (1981), and based on their cognitive theory, Flower and Hayes (1981b) investigated the link between the planning stage and pausing. The aim of the study was to discover what writers do during the longer pauses in their writing. To that end, the authors proposed two hypotheses. The first claimed that writers pause to plan or generate what they want to say next, and the second claimed that during longer pauses writers make “global rhetorical planning...not necessarily connected to any immediate utterance or piece of text” (p. 230). By rhetorical planning they meant the higher level of planning that guides local decisions (p. 232). The results of the data analysis showed that planning occurs at many levels, and the composing process follows its own intermittent pattern which is not decided by the patterns of the text. It was also found that goal-setting activities mark the primary boundaries of the composing process.

The findings of Flower and Hayes’ (1981b) study provided the field of writing-process investigation with the definition of the term ‘composing episode’. It also offered a description of the first language composing episode, which enables us to compare it with the composing episodes of the ESL writers. Expanding their investigation, Flower and Hayes (1981a) conducted a third study analysing the

location and duration of pauses in the protocols of one beginner writer and three expert ones. Their findings indicated that writers paused for a long time when they were engaged in goal-related activities. It was also reported that the length of time spent during the periods of translation (composing) was greater for the experienced writers than the novice one.

2.3.1 Criticism of Flower and Hayes' (1980) Model

Since its introduction, Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) model has been subjected to many important critiques, notably Bizzell (1982), Faigley (1985, 1986), North (1987), and Zimmerman (2000). Criticism launched against the theory questioned the assumptions underlying Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) model, assumptions that originated from a cognitive research tradition. It is believed that the cognitive view does not concentrate on the content of writing, nor does it account for the conflicts inherent in acts of writing. As a consequence, Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) model tends to overlook the differences in language use among students of different abilities, genders, and social backgrounds.

For North (1987), Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) model is "much too vague to satisfy criteria for formal model building" (1987, p. 92). For instance, it hardly explains how the translation process describes people's writing processes, and it barely mentions the way the text material might be created, and what linguistic restrictions might be imposed on this creation. It is similarly hard to understand the flow of information as indicated by the arrows, especially the double-headed ones (see Figure 2.1). For example, "editing" may lead either to the need for more "reading",

and efforts to “generate goals” or to the left-side box “stored writing plans” or “knowledge of audience”.

Similarly, Zimmerman (2000) presented the most important criticism against Flower and Hayes’ (1980,1981) model. He argued that the model is deductive and hypothetical because it is based on a somewhat small amount of empirical evidence from competent L1 writers, which should not be generalised. So it could be said that weak writers might not actually carry out all the steps described above, and consequently the results are not comprehensive. Zimmerman (2000) further argued that the model concentrates more on two components and overlooks the third. It concentrates on planning and revising while less attention is paid to the translating process.

In this research, Flower and Hayes’ (1980, 1981a) model is also criticised for several reasons: firstly, this study investigates the writing processes of EFL learners who are bilinguals, whereas Flower and Hayes’ (1980a,b, 1981a,b) model was designed for monolingual, namely British, experienced writers. The question that needs an answer is whether this model suits learners of two languages. Secondly, Flower and Hayes’ (1980a,b, 1981a,b) model does not include important strategies that could be used during the writing process, such as affective and social strategies.

2.3.1.1 Why use Flower and Hayes' model?

Despite the criticism launched against Flower and Hayes' (1980a,b, 1981a,b) model, it provides the field of writing with very important insights, especially into the way writing processes interact. The crucial insights of Flower and Hayes' model have been confirmed by numerous later studies. It has been found that the model maps the actual mental behaviours of writers at work. It represents in a "flow chart" of boxes the writing processes, and then the arrows refer to the information flow between the boxes. The model also identifies separate sub-skills of the composing process that writers might practise during the event of writing.

According to Faigley (1986), Flower and Hayes' model makes "strong theoretical claims in assuming relatively simple cognitive operations produce enormously complex actions" (1986, p. 534). Furthermore, the model helps promote awareness among writing teachers, and provides them with important deep-structure theory of how writing should be taught. Additionally, the order of the writing processes (planning followed by translating) is compatible with the popular conception that language writing comes after ideas are formed.

Therefore, it can be said that Flower and Hayes' (1980) model is detailed and explicit during application. It covers the three aspects of writing that the students of this study followed: pre-writing, writing, and post-writing. This research takes Flower and Hayes' (1980a,b, 1981a,b) model as an important part of the theoretical and analytical framework. However, I modify the model by adding to it the four clusters followed by

Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005) (see 2.6), because they reflect what is going on before, during and after the writing process (for more details about the reasons see 3.5.5).

2.3.2 Bereiter and Scardamalia

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) also proposed a model which provides reasons for the differences in writing ability between skilled and less-skilled writers. They noted that Flower and Hayes' model (1981a) is built mainly on inferred invariance in protocol data, and it "describes only one layer of the composing process, an extremely important layer to be sure, but one that still leaves much of what is most mysterious about composing untouched" (p. 43). They added that data from think-aloud protocols reveals only the product of cognitive activities and provides nothing about the cognitive process itself. To reveal such a process, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) stated that there is a need for a writing model based on the results of experimental research which attempts to tap the cognitive process in action. It is expected for such research to test "a theoretical construction by testing its empirical implications" (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987, p. 44).

Accordingly, they developed a two-model theory: a knowledge-telling process and a knowledge-transforming process (1987). They stated that their model generates "content by topical and structural prompts, without strategic formulation of goals, sub-goals, search criteria, and other components of problem-solving" (p. 348). It focuses on common features of all kinds of writers, and describes why skilled and less-skilled writers compose differently. In particular, the authors tried to discover

why less-skilled students try to start writing without planning, or attempt to make the task uncomplicated to show that they are competent learners.

Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) model of the knowledge-telling process (see Figure 2.2) depends on the retrieval of information from memory with regard to topical and genre cues. This model suggests that writers gather ideas and information from the prompts provided in the writing topic or genre. Subsequent ideas are generated via past experience or memory and used if relevant. This process is repeated for more ideas, which are then written as part of the essay. It also focuses on the different behaviours that outline the writing process of less-skilled writers where a shortcut route to writing is captured. Less-skilled writers appear to skip the more complicated activity in writing in order to focus on the more pertinent part of writing, that is, putting thoughts into words. Criticism of this model is based on the absence of language knowledge as a component for less-skilled writers as well as reviewing the elements which are expected to be carried out by them. Moreover, the model seems to suggest that less-skilled writers are equipped to distinguish various genres of writing.

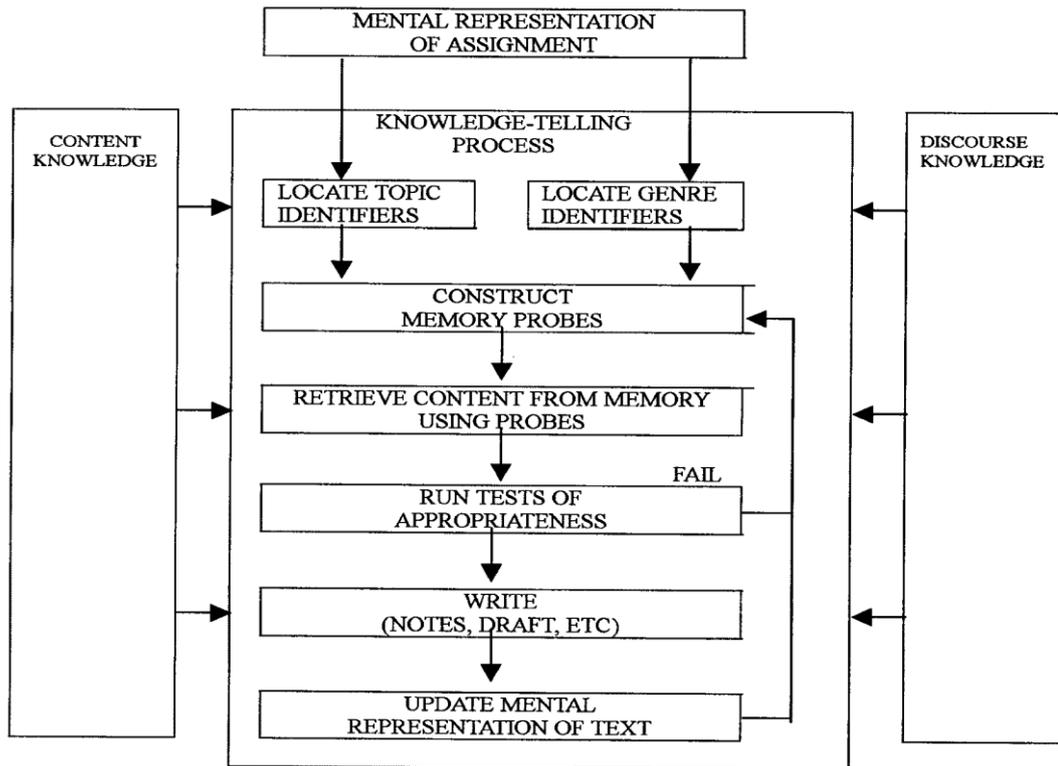


Figure 2.2: Knowledge-telling model (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987, p. 18)

In Figure 2.2 we can see that information is generated from the topic, the assignment, the genre, and the lexical terms and items in the assignment.

On the other hand, Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) model of the knowledge-transforming process involves more reflective problem-solving analysis and goal setting. It focuses on the more advanced writers who are able to absorb the complexities of the writing process and carry out appropriate actions to solve the difficulties. This model shows how the writer is able to tackle the writing task, perceived as a set of problems, by setting goals and executing them through planning.

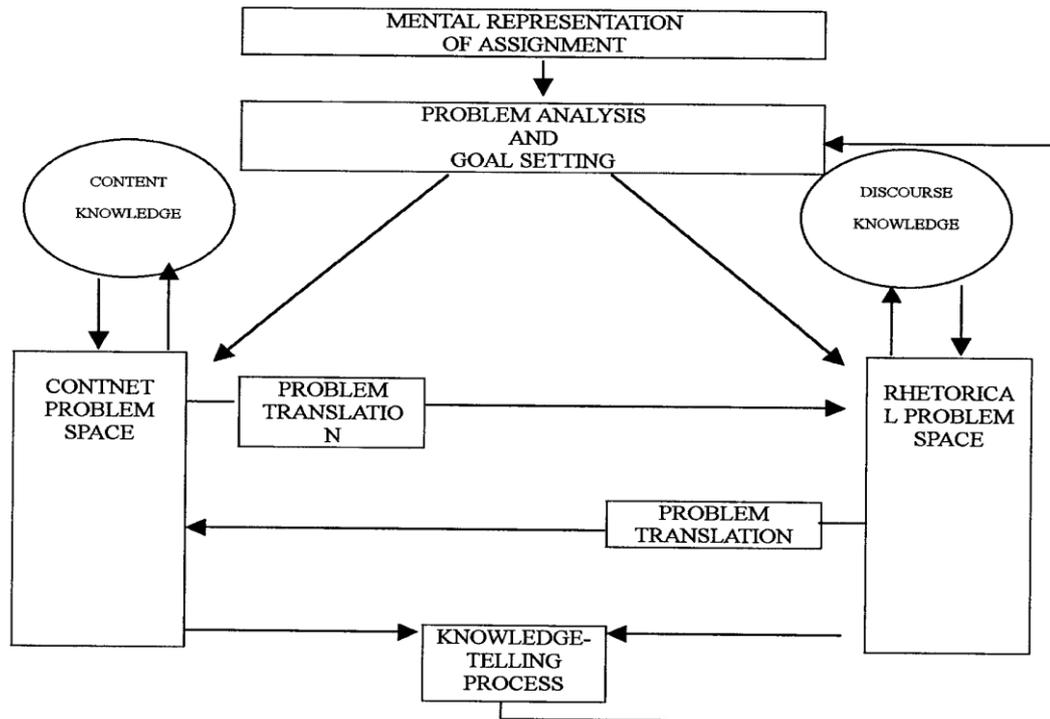


Figure 2.3: Knowledge-transforming model (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987, p. 12)

Figure 2.3 shows that “the writing task” leads directly to goal setting and problem analysis, and the result of these two leads to plans for the resolution of the apparent problems. The importance of the knowledge-transforming model comes from the fact that it shows the idea of multiple processing, which is disclosed through writing tasks that diverge in processing difficulty. The authors built their models on the results of their teaching to graduate students, who “generated goals for their compositions and engaged in problem solving involving structure and gist as well as verbatim representations” (p. 354).

Knowledge transforming is different from knowledge telling in that it includes the setting of goals that should be completed during the composing process, and the purposeful accomplishment of those aims. For the authors, the composing process

does not depend on memories or feelings, or on assistance from the teacher for its direction. In fact, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) criticise formal schools that tell students what to do instead of encouraging them to follow “their spontaneous interests and impulses...and assume responsibility for what becomes of their minds” (p. 361). They also state that the ability to fight with and resolve both content and rhetorical problems requires a dialectical process of reflection. Therefore, students should practise the kinds of writing tasks that develop knowledge-transforming skills in order to be able to perform those skills easily.

In fact, their model seems important because it accounts for some key points, such as: the differences between skilled and less-skilled writers, writing difficulties resulting from the differences in audience, or different genre demands, and non-transferability of the writing mechanism from one genre to another, and the different cognitive demands of different written tasks. Flower (1994) raised two issues pertaining to this model. The first was that the model omits the role of context in writing, focuses on cognitive elements, and neglects the social factors. The second issue raised against this model was that it is not clear how writers move from the knowledge-telling stage to the knowledge-transforming stage or what promotes such a transition. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) argued that a major obstacle in mastering writing is that students are given non-challenging tasks rather than problem-solving activities that do not let them activate their strategies. Finally, this model has been criticised as it does not mention language knowledge as a component for less-skilled students, and overlooks the reviewing stage that almost all less-skilled students would undertake, even if only minimally. It also suggests that less-skilled students are sophisticated enough to identify genre, which requires a sophisticated writing ability. Whatever the case, the

Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) model is divided into three main parts: internal goal setting, verbal processing, and internal processing output. The internal goal setting permits the language user to set goals, and aim for writing based on the contextual context, interest and performance. It also offers an initial task representation consistent with how the aims generated would operate in "verbal processing". The "verbal processing" consists of three main parts: language of the world, language competence, and on-line processing assembly. "Knowledge of the world" and "language competence" are parts of long-term memory and verbal working memory, and they both incorporate "on-line processing assembly". At the end, "the internal processing output" is the outcome of on-line processing congregation, and is used to compare the output with the internal goal-setting components in order to match goal-setting and processing output.

Other significant studies have been conducted to investigate the sub-processes of writing in an attempt to justify some of the students' unexplained behaviours during writing. One of these problems is called writer's block. This is a situation where the writing process is blocked by internal obstacles. Writer's block is usually accompanied by a very negative and self-critical attitude towards the whole writing process. Rose (1984) defined writer's block as "an inability to begin or continue writing for reasons other than a lack of basic skill or commitment" (Rose, 1984, p. 3). To support his views, he introduced a number of cases of writer's block that are clearly due to lack of mastery of the composing process, where the writer "stops the thinking process before it starts, and...ends up with a series of false starts and crumpled, rejected drafts" (Flower, 1989, p. 49).

In his study, Rose (1984) tried to explore the reasons behind writer's block. He found that writing about a difficult topic might be one of the reasons behind this mental block. Further, students who had unsuitable strategies for dealing with task complexity, and who tended to engage in premature editing faced huge mental blocks. Rose (1984) presented an example of a student who was so preoccupied with correctness and editing that she often forgot the ideas she was trying to write (Rose, 1980, p. 46). She also failed to engage in adequate planning before writing; instead she planned as she wrote, which affected the quality of her writing. Such studies are very relevant to the present study because both skilled and less-skilled students faced long silent periods, as we see in Chapter Five.

Another important study conducted by Börner (1987, cited in Zimmerman, 2000) who modified Hayes and Flower's (1981a) model by adding extra components taken from the L2 context. Among these components I can mention L2 teaching material, the learner's schemata in L1 and L2, and L2 interlanguage competence (Börner, 1987; Zimmerman, 2000, p. 76). Börner (1987) considered that it is essential for any model to consider the linguistic aspects that cause problems for L2 learners. Among these problems, he identified three sub-processes, namely: grammatical synthesis, expression, and graphic aspects. He added to these components two important aspects of the writing process, formulating and revision/editing.

Likewise, Zimmermann (2000) developed a 'partial model' which includes sub-processes of writing. He studied the English composition of German students writing short narrative films. His study showed that the 'formulating' stage, which is

equivalent to Flower and Hayes' (1980) 'translating component', is more important for L2 writers than the planning and revising stages. He placed it between planning and revising, and concentrated on the "tentative formulation" of the text production, which refers to the words used in the text exactly as uttered, and the language of reflection. His model focuses substantially on subcategories of tentative formulation such as: "repeated tentative formulation" and "simplified tentative formulation" (p. 89). He also described meta sub-processes that happen during the formulating stage, such as evaluating, rejecting, and accepting. Contrary to Flower and Hayes' (1980) model, which accounts for aspects such as topic, audience, and writer's knowledge, Zimmermann's (2000) model disregards these aspects and focuses on "the production of individual sentences. Thus his final model follows the sequence: tentative formulation---evaluation---acceptance---writing down with co-articulation---repair" (p. 89). Zimmermann's (2000) model accounts for important factors in the writing process, but overlooks other important processes such as planning, editing and revising, therefore it can be considered insufficient to cover all aspects in the analysis of students' writing.

2.3.3 Conclusion on L1 Models

The previous models provided the world of teaching with very important insights into the way writing occurs. However, the pure form of the process approach has not won widespread acceptance in the academic environment, although many instructors have adapted some of its features in their teaching methodology. In academic contexts, the concern of academic fields is on the ability of learners to produce written tasks that meet the expectations of their teachers and enable them pass their exams. Whatever

the case, it is impossible to deny the facilitative tools provided by the process approach to teaching writing.

One of the problematic areas of the process approach is the application of the findings of L1 processes to writing in the ESL or EFL context (see 1.3), therefore the need for studies that investigate writing as a process is huge. In the next section, I shall review important studies conducted in ESL/EFL writing processes in ESL or EFL contexts.

2.4 Studies of Writing Processes in the ESL Context

The case for a separate approach to studying writing processes in ESL contexts was made by many authors. One of these was Zamel (1983), who stressed the need for researchers to investigate the composition processes in the ESL context, because “ESL writing continues to be taught as if from preconceived content, as if composing were a matter of adopting preconceived rhetorical frameworks, as if correct language usage took priority over the purposes for which language is used” (p. 167).

A number of studies were conducted to investigate the use of L1 processes in L2 writing. Among these, Arndt (1987) studied the writing of six graduate Chinese students. The students were asked to write two essays, one in Chinese and the other in English. Like the current study, Arndt (1987) used a think-aloud protocol and Perl’s (1979) coding scheme.

The results of her data analysis showed that students used consistent composing strategies during the writing process. However, there were considerable variations

among the writers in their approach to producing the written task. Additionally, they all revised “for word choice more in the L2 task than in the L1 task. This suggests that they felt less able to try out alternatives” (p. 265), and less happy with the decisions they made in L2. She also reported that students showed a limited awareness of the nature of the task, and this was a point of difficulty for all the students; she therefore suggested that the writer’s proficiency and the language of the written task were less significant as “factors governing how the writing comes into being than is the individual cognitive capacity brought to bear upon the task by the writer” (p. 258).

Confirming the recursive nature of writing, White and Arndt (1991) developed a writing model to investigate the writing process. The authors stated that producing a text involves six recursive (nonlinear) procedures of generating ideas, focusing, structuring, drafting, reviewing, and evaluating (see Figure 2.5).

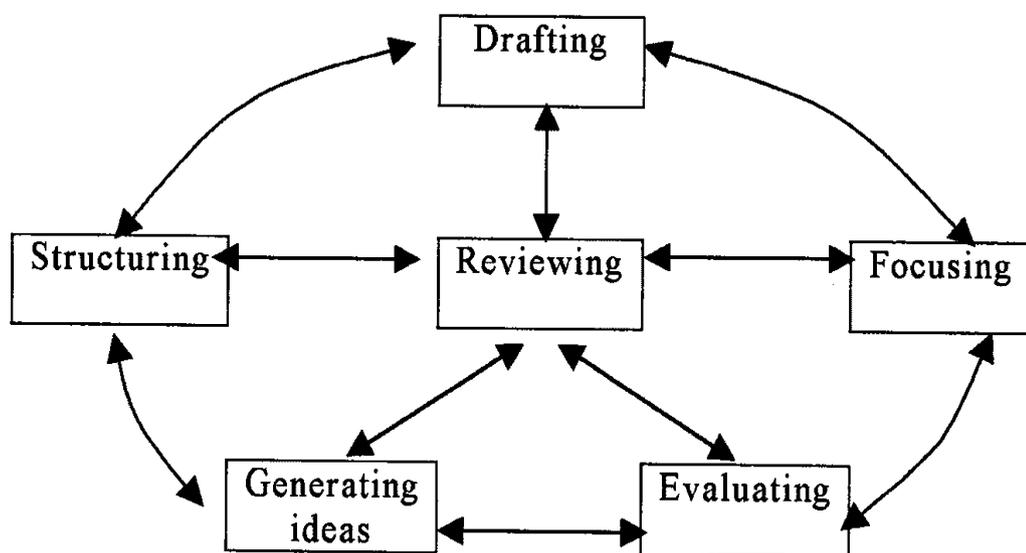


Figure 2.5: White and Arndt’s model (1991, p. 4)

The authors indicated that when generating ideas, writers brainstorm by relying on their schemata or long-term memory in order to come up with supporting details for the topic. When focusing, writers are actually stating the main ideas of the writing while structuring them in an organised manner so readers will be able to read it with ease. Drafting is the stage at which writers put thoughts into text and produce multiple drafts based on external input, mainly from peers and teachers. In the evaluating stage, writers check for any content or organisation that needs rephrasing or reformulating. Reviewing involves re-reading the written text and matching it against the overall aims of the writing and questioning whether it is on the right path.

Similarly, Khongpun (1992) conducted a case study using the think-aloud protocol to investigate the writing processes of five high-school Thai students who wrote in their L1 and in English. The results of his study revealed that all the students had a purpose in mind when writing. However, they did not pay much attention to their audience. In fact, every student used a different writing style across the languages with differences. As a group, the students wrote the essays in a similar manner, manifesting mental processes such as planning, and employing different resources such as repeating and rehearsing.

Akyle and Kamisli (1996) investigated the impact of writing instruction on the written product of eight Turkish students enrolled in the freshman English composition course. The methods of data collection were: think-aloud protocols, students' composition, questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. The writers found that L2 writing instructions positively affect the students' L1 writing strategies. However, some differences were recorded in revision strategies. Students revised more when

they were writing in L2 than when they were writing in L1. They also found that students edited their L2 writing more frequently than their L1.

Sercombe (2002) conducted a study investigating particular errors in the writing of learners from a predominantly Malay (or Malay-type) language background at the Universiti Brunei Darussalam. The aim of his study, besides producing a framework for the analysis of written samples of EFL learners, was to “promote language awareness [and] encourage overt awareness of forms being based in language production” (p. 3). The value of this overt awareness can be seen in the “shift from content to process in language teaching”, where one shifts from the situation of “user, to analyst to teacher” (Wright, 1991, p. 63, cited in Sercombe, 2002, p. 4).

To this end, Sercombe (2002) developed a framework based on error analysis (EA) using the sentence as a unit of analysis in his data. His study argues that “errors which can be positively traced to interference from the mother tongue can be dealt with contrastively in a far more effective way than errors that have their source in the system of the language being learned, in this case English” (p. 3). In a tabular form, Sercombe (2002) tried to bring together “a minimum set of variables for the classification and explanation of error” (p. 3). His tabular form includes the minimal set of variables and stages necessary for the data analysis such as: “identification of an error, description of an error, the explanation of an error, the evaluation of an error, the correction of an error” (p. 5).

In the first stage, the analyst tries to see if the utterance can be understood or whether it deviates from the accepted standard used by teachers. In the second stage, Sercombe

(2002) tried to draw a distinction between ‘overt’ and ‘covert’ errors. The first refers to grammatically incorrect forms such as addition, omission, word order, and substitution. The latter refers to syntactically well-formed patterns that are nevertheless wrong in some way. Covert errors “are either vocabulary-related or pragmatic, that is they are too formal or informal in term of register” (p. 6). The third stage includes interlingual transfer, intralingual or developmental factors, context of learning, and communication strategies. Interlingual transfer means L1 interference, or negative transfer of L1 features to the L2 context. The second occurs as a result of overgeneralisation of a rule. The third happens when learners use incorrect information about the target language from a reference. The fourth happens when learners fail to use the appropriate linguistic forms in L2, so they translate from their L1, or switch between languages to borrow vocabulary or patterns. These strategies are important in this research as they explain some of the students’ behaviours during writing. As the present study indicates, students switched between their languages and literally translated patterns from Arabic into English (see 4.2.2.2, 5.2.1.2, 5.3.2). However, I considered these strategies as affective strategies (see 5.3).

With respect to the fourth stage, the evaluation of errors, Sercombe (2002) distinguished between error and mistake and the frequency of occurrence. Finally, he suggested a way to correct the errors, because the purpose of EA is to guide students to effective correction. The framework is shown in Figure 2.6.

Despite the fact that Sercombe’s study does not relate directly to writing strategies, I find it significant for my research. Sercombe’s (2002) framework was used in

combination with Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) framework to analyse the preliminary data for the diagnostic study.

	[description]		[explanation]	[evaluation]
	<u>error types</u>		<u>sources</u>	<u>gravity</u>
covert/ overt	addition	appropriacy (register)	L1 interferenc (interlingual)	local/global
	omission	orthography (spelling)	L2 system (intralingual)	mistake /error
	substitution	vocabulary	context of learning	
	word order	morphology syntax	communication strategies (e.g. translation)	

Figure 2.6: Framework for the application of error analysis (Sercombe, 2002, p. 15)

2.5 Studies into the Writing Processes of Arab EFL Learners

Many studies have been conducted to tackle the writing problems of Arab learners. Some of these are concerned with error analysis and syntactic features of the text (e.g. Kharma, 1986, 1985; Al-Juboori, 1984; Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989; Doushaq and Al-Makhzoomy, 1989; Halimah, 1991; Alam, 1993), and others with semantic aspects of the text, especially coherence (e.g. Hasan, 1999; Ghazzoul, 2008). A third type of research that is relevant to this study has been conducted on different aspects of EFL Arab students' writing strategies. It is worth mentioning that Arab students study

English in all Arab countries as a foreign language. So English is not used among Arabic speakers, but more between Arabic speakers and expatriates. This implies that the curriculum does not devote much time to English classes, which does not enable students to master the language adequately.

Elkhatib (1984) conducted one of the earliest studies into the writing processes of Arab EFL learners. By observing students during writing, and asking them during interviews about their behaviour, he examined the writing problems of four less-skilled Egyptian students. During his study, Elkhatib (1984) described the rhetorical patterns the students used, concentrating on their visions about writing, their lexical problems, and their writing process. For planning strategies, he stated that the students did not complete any brainstorming or outlining, which indicates that “the students were unfamiliar with the technique” (p. 167). Furthermore, he observed that during the writing process some students would plan and review their writing, but less-skilled students stopped for long periods, and kept silent without doing anything. As for the post-writing activities, Elkhatib (1984) stated that only two students revised their writing, and that only minimally: one made some surface corrections, and the other made hardly any changes.

Although important, this study has its drawbacks as it employed only two instruments to gather the data, namely observations and interviews, whereas our study uses written samples, a WSQ, and TAPs. He also used a very small number of participants, all of whom were classified as less-skilled writers. This did not give him the opportunity to compare the findings with the writing of skilled students. Above all, long silent periods during the protocols were reported, but not justified. Rose (1984) considered

these silent periods as writer's block or mental blocks. However, Elkhatib's (1984) and Rose's (1984) studies demonstrated cases of who, where and when such things occurred.

Using observation, text analysis, and interviews, Abu Shihab (1986) studied the writing process and strategies of twenty high-school Jordanian students. The results of his study indicated that the students faced difficulty in developing their English sentences, therefore they translated from Arabic L1. Students claimed that their EFL teachers "did not teach them how to write a composition" (p. 22), but the researcher related this negligence to the fact that "students and teachers misunderstood the concept of writing. They consider writing as producing 'correct' grammatical sentences and they (teachers) try to teach grammar through writing" (p. 37).

Abu Shihab's study is different from the present study in that it investigated the writing processes of high-school students, while the present study is conducted with final-year university students. However, it is relevant to the present study in that it investigates the writing of Arab-speaking students in an Arabic context, and it also shares, in part, similar methodology with this study in the use of text analysis. However, it differs in that this research uses WSQ and TAPs, so results can be compared only to a limited extent.

In 1993, Alam investigated the reasons behind the tendencies of fifteen college students majoring in English at Kuwait University to translate or think in Arabic while writing in English. To explore the aims of his research, Alam (1993) used two

instruments: stimulated recall interviews and follow-up interviews. The results of his study revealed that the students depended on their L1 when facing difficulty during the pre-writing, writing, and revising stages. It was also found that most of the students thought in Arabic during the pre-writing stage, and only some used both Arabic and English. Additionally, Alam (1993) attributed the students' weak proficiency to the use of Arabic during all the writing stages. It was also found that most of the students wrote only one short paragraph although they were asked to write an essay. Alam (1993) concluded that the use of Arabic helped the students sustain their writing processes in English.

The importance of this study is that it provides the field of pedagogy with evidence about why Arab EFL students switch and think in Arabic while writing in English. Nonetheless, it does not seem appropriate to generalise the findings because of the small number of students who participated in this study, and their low level of proficiency in English.

In a more comprehensive study, Halimah (2001) investigated the English and the Arabic writing of 100 Kuwaiti students at the University of Kuwait. His aim was to examine the writing proficiency of those students in their Arabic and English writing. To inform his research, he collected expository writing tasks, and used a teachers' questionnaire and assessment tools. The assessment tool graded the students' writing using a 10-point scale that represented the range of writing proficiency, from being unable to write at all to being a highly skilled writer. His research focused on certain mechanics such as capitalisation, punctuation, spelling, grammar, organisation, and content development, and writing style such as content quality. The findings of his

research indicated that the students were not good writers in English or in Arabic. This was related not to the lack of linguistic skills “but rather [to] their inadequate grasp of rhetorical conventions” (p. 13). Halimah (2001) also stated that although the students’ English grammar proficiency was judged as fairly good, and they had studied EFL writing for eight years, they were facing significant difficulty in their English rhetorical style. This was related to the fact that “they transfer rhetorical irregularities of the Arabic discourse over into their ... writing” (p. 111). He further believed that teachers emphasise the linguistic aspects of the language and place very little emphasis on the rhetorical features.

Although Halimah’s (2001) study included a large number of participants (100 students), it still has its drawbacks. As a methodological procedure for data collection, he used expository writing tasks, assessment tools, and a teachers’ questionnaire. I believe that a questionnaire with the students might also be very useful to gain insight into their thoughts while writing. I also believe that questionnaires alone are not a reliable research method, as students and teachers do not always report their own actual practices (see 5.3.2).

El-Mortaji (2001) investigated the writing processes and strategies of eighteen multilingual Moroccan university students majoring in English. Using think-aloud protocols, interviews and questionnaires, she identified a number of strategies used in Arabic L1 and in English L3. She tried to study the impact of learners’ writing proficiency in Arabic and in English, their gender, and discourse type on frequency of occurrences of composing strategies. She analysed her data quantitatively and qualitatively. The results of her data analysis indicated that the most frequently used

strategies are re-reading, rehearsing, revising, and planning. She also found that there was a noticeable difference in the use of strategies between Arabic and English. Students rehearsed for word choice in English more frequently than in Arabic. In addition, she found significant differences between skilled and less-skilled writers. When considering the frequency of occurrence of strategies, El-Mortaji (2001) maintained that skilled writers used writing strategies more frequently than less-skilled ones. Her findings stimulated the present study to investigate whether skilled and less-skilled students use different strategies, so one of the research hypotheses is: H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English.

Furthermore, El-Mortaji (2001) also found that the students' understanding of the mechanisms of writing and strategy use were affected by their attitude and motivation towards the process of writing in general, or their perceptions of what constitutes a written text. It was also found that students switched into Arabic and French while writing in English. The degree of using this switch varied according to the nature of the assigned topic, the gender of the students, personal choices, and the student's linguistic proficiency in English. Interestingly, this switching between languages did not hinder the process of producing the English texts (L3); most of the students reported completing their tasks successfully and very few students reported having problems as a result of their dependence on Arabic or French thinking or translation while processing English texts. Also, differences in the use of strategies were reported between skilled and less-skilled students. However, there was consistency among the students in their approaches to writing across the languages. Similarities between L1 and EFL composing processes were noticed as students transferred most aspects of

the composing process in English L3 to L1. With respect to the Arabic texts, there were significant differences between the students in relation to the revision stage.

In fact, El-Mortaji's study is very important in its use of a comprehensive methodology, and it includes various variables, languages, gender, and discourse types. However, like any study, it has some drawbacks, such as the limited number of students (eighteen). Above all, the findings of the study cannot be applied to the Saudi context because the study and teaching of foreign languages receives greater attention in Morocco in comparison to how it is seen in Saudi Arabia, so the background of the students is completely different.

El-Aswad (2002) studied the Arabic and English writing processes of twelve third-year Libyan university students. The students were asked to verbalise their thinking while writing in both languages. Observation, TAPs, interviews, questionnaires, and written products were used as a method of data collection. The findings of his study revealed that most of the students had a purpose in mind while writing, but very little attention was paid to the audience. He mentioned that each student used an individual unitary writing style in both languages, with some differences in specific aspects. The differences among the students in the process of writing were related to planning the content and organising it. With respect to the reviewing stage, the process was different between the languages. Revision in Arabic (L1) focused on organisation and content, but in English (L2), the focus was on form, grammar, and vocabulary. However, the students used the editing strategy more frequently in L2 than in L1, although similarities were obvious in the mental planning between the two languages. The use of repetition and code switching was obvious in L2 essays. Students used L1

to facilitate their interaction in the written task in English.

The analysis of the data also revealed that students had limited linguistic knowledge and writing proficiency, and this affected their mastery of L2. Based on the protocols and interview analysis, El-Aswad concluded that L1 writing knowledge and strategies were transferred into L2 writing. He further claimed that less-skilled students tended to use L1 discourse and strategies more frequently when writing in L2 than skilled ones.

El-Aswad's study is very important in the field of EFL writing research because it is built on a comprehensive methodology that tried to capture the writing processes of the students from different angles. He also investigated the writing of students with different levels of writing proficiency in both languages: Arabic and English. However, this study has some drawbacks, such the small number of students who participated in it. The samples were collected from the writing of third-year students without justifying the reasons for this, whereas I believe that collecting samples from the writing of students in different years might be more representative. It might also be possible to collect the data from the writing of first-year students, so there would be time to implement the findings of the study in the process of teaching them, or to collect samples from final-year students to study the outcome of the learning and teaching process, so that findings can be implemented in the new curriculum.

2.5.1 Studies of the Writing Processes of Saudi Learners

While the body of literature on empirical research on the EFL writing process is growing, very little is being done in the Saudi context. Studies conducted so far tackled writing problems of a syntactic nature such as error analysis. However, to the best of my knowledge, there is no comprehensive study in the Saudi educational context that focuses exclusively on the writing strategies and processes of university students majoring in English. However, there are a few studies of the writing of Saudi learners in English-speaking countries that focus on the use of certain strategies such as revision (Al-Semari, 1993). Recently, two more studies on the writing processes of Saudi learners of English have been conducted (Alhaysony, 2008). In this section, I shall briefly review these studies because it is expected that there will be some similarities between them and my study in terms of the first language of the students, the context of the studies, and the focus of the research, which is on writing strategies.

Al-Semari (1993) conducted a study investigating the revision strategies of eight advanced Saudi students writing in L1 (Arabic) and in L2 (English) studying at Michigan State University. Using think-aloud methods to explore the aims of his research, he asked the students to write and think aloud during writing and revising two argumentative essays: one in Arabic and the other in English. Al-Semari (1993) used Faigley and Witte's (1981) revision framework to classify the type of revision in his study. The results of this study indicated that there were some differences in the students' revision strategies in both languages. For example, they made formal, grammatical and mechanical changes in English, but used strategies of reorganisation and deletion for the Arabic essays. On the other hand, great similarities were also

detected with respect to the kind of revision done on both Arabic and English drafts. Students revised while writing their drafts rather than while reading them. However, revision included surface changes which did not affect the meaning. Revision was aimed at improving the writing quality of the final draft in comparison to the first draft. So the study concluded that students used more revising strategies in L2 than in L1 writing.

Similarly, Alnofal (2003) investigated the Arabic and English writing processes of six Saudi male and female students attending American universities. Students were asked to write two separate descriptive compositions in English and in Arabic. Using stimulated recall interviews, the researcher asked the students about their writing processes in both languages. The results of the data analysis indicated that students received different training in the two languages. They were trained in writing in English more than in Arabic. This training did not seem to change a lot in the findings because they used similar planning, formulating, and reviewing strategies in both languages. However, the formulating strategies were used more frequently in L1 than in L2. In addition, students reported that their writing was affected by the training they received in L2, and that they applied this when writing in L1. This implies that students transferred L2 writing strategies into the L1 context for organisational and facilitative factors.

More recently, Alhaysony (2008) conducted a more comprehensive study tackling the writing processes and strategies of female college students in the north region of Saudi Arabia. Using questionnaires, think-aloud protocols, and semi-structured interviews as methods of data collection, the researcher investigated the writing

strategies of third-year female English students. The aims of her study were to investigate: “(1) writing similarities between L1 and L2; (2) the writing strategies that better and poorer writers reported and used” (p. i). The results of her study indicated that the writing processes of the students seemed recursive in nature. The students showed high similarities in the use of strategies between Arabic and English. However, some differences were also recorded, such as in creating a mental plan for ideas and for the content. In general, the students used more strategies in L2 writing than in L1. In my opinion, this might be related to the fact that they had to make an extra effort to organise their writing in order to overcome the difficulty of writing in a foreign language.

No significant differences between good and poor writers were found in the types of strategies used, but they differed in their frequency of the use. The results of the TAP also revealed that what students reported in the questionnaire was not accurate. Good students used fewer strategies than they reported, while poor students used more strategies in both languages than they said. Further, it was found that poor students thought, planned and translated from L1 when writing in L2 more than good students did. They also used Arabic when they faced a problem in finding a suitable vocabulary or spelling, and they sometimes tried to write the whole text in Arabic and translate it into English.

Alhaysony’s (2008) study is very important and supports the findings of other studies, besides reporting new ones. However, this study has its own limitations as it examined only female students, who might be interested in studying a foreign

language more than males. Despite this, it is rich in data, and the findings will be compared with the findings of the present study.

2.6 Writing Strategies

Studies into writing have been concerned with the identification of the strategies employed during the activity of writing. Many researchers have defined strategy in various ways, such as Cohen (1998), who states that strategy is a “process which [is] consciously selected by learners and which may result in actions taken to enhance the learning or the use of the second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall and application of information about the language”. In addition, Rubin (1981) defines strategy as “operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information” (Rubin, 1981, p. 5). Stern (1983) believes that strategy “is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving learning techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour, more or less consciously employed by the learner” (Stern, 1983, p. 405).

According to Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005), the term strategy refers to “actions and behaviours used by the writer to solve problems in the writing process. These actions and behaviours reflect four clusters: ‘meta-cognitive’, ‘cognitive’, ‘social’, and ‘affective’ processes”. In the present research, Shapira and Lazarowitz’s (2005) classification of the strategies is used as part of the theoretical and analytical framework (see 3.5, 5.2). With them, I refer to strategy as the actions that are adopted

by writers to help them plan, generate, process, and present information. It also refers to the strategies that enable students to overcome writing difficulties and anxiety.

2.6.1 Meta-cognitive Strategies

According to Cohen and Dornyei (2002), Chamot (1987), Oxford (1990) and Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005), there are a number of approaches to categorising strategies used in language production. Meta-cognitive strategies refer to the global skills of the students that reflect their self-awareness concerning their level of understanding and degree of motivation. Schmitt (2002) considers them conscious processes used by learners to manage their language learning. According to Wiles (1997) meta-cognition is defined in terms of “self-management ... the ability ... to plan, monitor and revise, or ... control ... learning” (p. 17). Such strategies are classified by Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003, p. 317) and they include planning on writing, goal setting, preparing for action, focusing, using schemata, activity monitoring, assessing its success, and looking for practice opportunities.

2.6.2 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, are considered personal strategies that enable students to process and transform information. They further imply a manipulation of the task through the effective use of the language to “actively engage in the knowledge acquisition process” (McCrindle and Christensen, 1995, p. 170). According to Oxford (1990), cognitive strategies can be recognised by the use of a dictionary (which can also appear as a social strategy), organising information, reading out loud, analysing, summarising and reasoning. Weinstein and Mayer (1986)

identify three types of cognitive strategy: organisation strategies, which reorganise information to be learned to make it more meaningful; rehearsal strategies, which include the repetition of the information to be learned; and elaboration strategies, which link new knowledge and previously acquired information (McCrinkle and Christensen, 1995, p. 170–1).

2.6.3 Social Strategies

Social strategies aim at developing awareness of and feeling for others. They include the actions learners choose in order to interact with their colleagues, or to help them overcome learning difficulties. Among these actions, Cohen and Dornyei (2002, p. 180) mention: asking questions, co-operating with others to complete a task, and peer revision. Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005) add to these the interaction between readers and writers that has a potential impact such as “promoting thinking, facilitating the writing process and thus improving writing as a whole” (p. 74).

Nystrand (1986) investigated the influence of peer response on writing among college students. He found that students’ performance improved a great deal when they responded to feedback from their peers. Some improved their thinking, while others performed only editing activities. Without peer feedback, students’ writing was stagnant and the ideas were usually not dynamic.

2.6.4 Affective Strategies

Affective strategies “serve to regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes (for example, strategies for reduction of anxiety and for self-encouragement)” Cohen and

Dornyei (2002, p. 181). These strategies may be negative or positive. The use of negative affective strategies includes “avoidance, passiveness, difficulty in concentrating, and showing lack of concern” (Shapira and Lazarowitz, 2005, p. 75), and may eventually lead the students to abandon the task. The aim of strategy-use training is thus to eliminate the use of negative strategies. Positive strategies, on the other hand, include “anxiety alleviation ... calming or self-relation techniques such as deep breathing, meditation, listening to music, laughing ... and self rewarding” (p. 75). For example, if the student is going to write about a job interview, he/she has to focus first on the information that should be included rather than on the grammatical errors that might emerge.

It is worth mentioning that both affective and social strategies are considered as compensation strategies which are used to describe what learners do to overcome the difficulties that they face, such as listening to music, eating, or taking a break.

2.7 Skilled and Less-skilled Language Learners

Research on proficient writers as opposed to non-proficient ones has been widely conducted to investigate why and where students face difficulty in writing. Different labels have been used interchangeably, such as skilful, or good as opposed to less skilled or basic, weak as opposed to strong, and poor as opposed to good learners. Generally speaking, in the literature, writers use the term “skilful learners” to refer to students whose skills in writing are developing, whereas “less-skilled writers” refers to those whose skills are behind their peers.

The assumption that most writing problems are related to methodological factors such as planning, translating, and editing led Perl (1979) to conduct a study on five L1 less-skilled learners from a community college. Believing that much of the difficulty in composing is methodological, she tried to establish the factors that prevented less-proficient learners from revising beyond the word level. She also tried to find out whether learners' writing could be processed and analysed in a replicable or systematic way. She used think-aloud protocols where students were asked to compose aloud, and then she conducted open-ended interviews to develop profiles of the students. The findings of the study showed that although writers went through recursive processes when composing, they revised to make changes to the surface-level errors such as syntax, vocabulary, or mechanics. By recursiveness Perl meant that there is a "forward-moving action that exists by virtue of a backward-moving action" (1980, p. 364). She found that students' writing demonstrated serious cohesive problems even after editing.

Perl (1979) concluded that weak students often look for surface errors and rules, but are unable to predict their readers' expectations and needs. This phenomenon is called "projective structuring". She also found that weak students lose the meaning while trying to edit their writing prematurely: "editing intrudes so often and to such a degree that it breaks down the rhythms... As soon as a few words are written on a paper, detection and correction of errors replaces writing and revising...truncate[s] the flow of composing" (pp. 322, 333). This finding was later discussed by Rose (1984), who showed that students who were preoccupied with correctness and editing often forgot what they were trying to write. This was called writer's block (see 2.3.2). Perl (1979) further argued that the reasons for such errors might be the selective perceptions of

students, demonstrated by the way they often read aloud what they imagined they had written, but which had in fact been deleted from the paper. It might also be caused by students' assumptions that their writing is understood by readers when in fact it is not.

In the same year, Sommers (1980) investigated revision strategies between two groups of English speakers: twenty experienced adult journalists, editors, and academics from Boston and Oklahoma and twenty freshmen students at Boston University and the University of Oklahoma. The essays were "analysed by counting and categorizing the changes made. Four revision operations were identified: deletion, substitution, addition, and reordering" (p. 380). She also identified four levels of change: word, phrase, sentence and theme (the extended statement of the idea). The study concluded that weak writers revised their writing in a very limited way. Their main focus was on lexicon and teacher-generated rules, but they scarcely amended their writing. By contrast, skilled writers revised their whole texts, and modified them in such a way as to create chunks, enhance the meaning, and develop the overall text.

Similarly, Flower and Hayes (1981a) confirmed that L1 skilled writers perceived the topic in more depth and developed a sense of audience which they brought to bear on the handling of the topic and on the way they arranged their writing. They brought more global understanding to the written task, and developed strategies to achieve their aims.

According to (Rose 1980), flexibility is a characteristic of skilled writers in that they assess the degree to which their texts meet their goals, and they amend their aims and strategies when necessary. According to Pianko (1979), skilled writers spend more

time planning before they start writing, and in the actual process of writing they read and pause and consider what they have written more frequently. Therefore, they might write more than one draft, and revise all aspects of their writing more often than less-skilled writers do. They can effectively make content and organisational changes that less-skilled writers are rarely able to do (Pianko, 1979; Sommers, 1980).

Based on a wide range of investigations, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) proposed models that differentiate between skilled and less-skilled writers, as mentioned in (2.3). They stated that skilled and less-skilled writers use different approaches to writing. While less-skilled writers follow what the authors call a knowledge-telling approach, skilled writers employ a knowledge-transforming approach. Accordingly, both groups are expected to exhibit different writing behaviour. Their findings have been supported by several other studies.

Similarly, Rashid (1996) conducted a study examining students' L1 and L2 writing processes and the strategies adopted to perform written tasks in Malaysian and in English. The results of his study indicated that advanced writers used more and a wider range of writing strategies compared with intermediate writers in both languages. For example, less-skilled students used abandoning strategies, which I call the strategy of avoidance (see 5.3.2). In addition, the type of strategy used was different between the two groups of students: students with high proficiency had a bigger repertoire of strategy types than students with low writing proficiency in both languages.

Likewise, Yang (2002) also reported that there were differences between skilled and less-skilled L2 writers. Skilled writers planned globally for their writing, generated ideas, and revised their compositions before they gave them to their tutors. Xiu and Xiao (2004), in a protocol-based analysis, investigated the relationship between the strategies used by Chinese EFL writers and their writing scores on an English proficiency test. They concluded that skilled and less-skilled writers used different strategies when organising their ideas and during writing. The researchers considered their findings consistent with Bereiter and Scardamalia's model.

In their study, Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) research on writing processes revealed that good writers plan longer and have more elaborated plans for their writing. They further reviewed and evaluated their plans on a regular basis, and also looked for solutions to their rhetorical problems. They integrated many perspectives in their writing, and considered the reader's point of view in relation to planning and writing. Revision with global goals rather than editing on the local level was one of the prominent features of the writing of good writers (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p. 240). In contrast, as several studies confirm, less-skilled writers failed to attend to the audience's concerns (Flower and Hayes 1980), planned less, wrote less, and revised less (Pianko, 1979). They had inflexible and limited ideas about the rules and the form their writing could take (Rose, 1980). Like less-skilled learners, children from both L1 and L2 backgrounds and of different ages were found to be less likely to revise their writing. Instead they moved on to the next idea and elaborated on what they had written by making minor changes to punctuation, spelling, and sometimes vocabulary. This could be attributed to lack of knowledge or, as Holt (1971, 1985) argues, to failure of the educational system, or to the writing behaviours of skilled and less-

skilled students, which varied considerably (Arndt, 1987). Contrary to the findings of these studies, Raimes (1985) reported that no clear evidence emerged from the study that less-skilled ESL writers behaved differently during the composing process.

These inconsistent findings could be related to the different criteria used in the studies to classify writers as skilled or less skilled. For example, some studies designated their subjects as skilled or less skilled based on a holistic assessment, or a test or two done in the class, or on their results on a national English proficiency test. Above all, a skilled writer who is a native speaker of English could have a very different level of language proficiency from a non-native speaker in an ESL or EFL class. The writing of ESL/EFL writers can be affected by many issues (Leki, 1996; Grabe, 2001). This raises a question of comparability of the findings in terms of what constitutes skilled or less-skilled writers. More than twenty-five years ago, Raimes (1985) mentioned that the validity of the criteria used to differentiate between skilled and less-skilled writers should be a main concern of research design. Therefore, it is advised that researchers should adopt multiple criteria to reach more precise assessment and to produce more valid results.

The main implication to be drawn from this review is that each learner employs different strategies that usually apply to learning situations. The results of such strategies are either texts that meet the reader's expectations, or an awkward product that violates the rules of writing, or something in between. Strategies used by skilled learners can be summarised in their ability to plan their writing, identify the purpose of their tasks, and revise and edit their texts focusing on organisation and meaning. However, less-skilled writers spend very little time planning before they start

composing and less time revising (Pianko, 1979; Perl, 1979; Sommers, 1980). Revision and editing focus on the surface-text level such as spelling, punctuation, and vocabulary, abandoning content and organisation (Perl, 1979; Sommers, 1980). The composing phase, however, is mostly similar between skilled and less-skilled writers. The differences are then related to different factors in addition to motivation and background knowledge, as we will see in the next section.

2.8 Think-Aloud Protocols: Theoretical Approaches

As the title suggests, a think-aloud protocol is a kind of verbal reporting technique to record everything that students say while writing a task. It is a procedure followed by linguists (Anderson *et al.*, 1991) to collect data on participants' cognitive processes in certain fields such as writing (Raimes, 1985), reading (Anderson *et al.*, 1991; Pressley and Afflerbach, 1995), testing (Green, 1998), and translation (Lorscher, 1991).

During the process of a think-aloud protocol, participants are asked to verbalise their thoughts while they are performing certain tasks and to say what they are thinking of, doing, or feeling (Patton, 2002). The aim of such a research method is to make the implicit procedures and mental activities of a certain task explicit. It also enables researchers to observe the process of how writers approach a writing task rather than the final product. Therefore participants are expected to verbalise their thinking while writing in a way that enables the researcher to monitor their behaviour. Meanwhile, researchers are expected to record what they observe without interfering or interpreting the participants' actions (Ericsson and Simon, 1980) through audio or video sessions.

As a research methodology the think-aloud protocol derived mainly from cognitive psychology, and it is used in Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) writing model (see section 2.3 for more detail). The model, as mentioned in section 2.3, consists of three main components: the task environment, the composing processor, and the writer's long-term memory. The first element is the task environment, which includes everything that is outside of the writer's control, such as the rhetorical problem and the text produced so far. The rhetorical problem includes a topic, audience, and exigency (actions that aim to solve an urgent problem). It also refers to a situation where the writer responds to a particular problem, writes about it and finds solutions to it. According to Flower and Hayes (1981a), the rhetorical problem is like a writing assignment task that includes the writer's goals. In other words, the rhetorical problem is an important part of the writing process, which presents several demands that the writer should be able to manage (Flower and Hayes, 1981a, p. 269).

Like the rhetorical problem, the text produced affects the writing process and creates new constraints for the writer. Every time the writer adds a new sentence or a section to the text, he limits his choices of what can come next. Flower and Hayes (1981a) argued that there are two typical drawbacks in relation to the constraints of the text produced so far. If the text affects the writing process only minimally, it appears incoherent, and gives the impression that the writer has failed to incorporate new ideas. On the other hand, if the text has a strong influence, the writer loses control and follows the direction of the sentences and sections blindly, in other words, he fails to see the overall structure of the text.

The second element is the writer's long-term memory, which refers to the writer's knowledge and awareness of the topic, audience, and writing plans. It includes considerable amounts of information, not all of which can be easily retrieved in the writing process. For example, we might know very well what we want to say, but we might fail to retrieve, or express this knowledge explicitly in writing. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the long-term memory represents other sources of information such as notes, books and libraries, because this type of information can be incorporated into the writer's long-term memory through learning. One problem related to long-term memory is the ability of the writer to retrieve knowledge from the cognitive structure, and this is not necessarily easy and may be hard to manage. Therefore, we may need certain words from memory to retrieve a broad range of facts and strategies from the long-term memory. The second problem relates to the ability of the writer to organise this knowledge in a coherent and logical structure.

The third element is the writing process, which describes the cognitive processes involved in dealing with the task environment and the writer's long-term memory. According to Flower and Hayes (1981a), it consists of three sub-processes: planning, translating, and reviewing (more details are given about these processes in 2.3). Finally, the function monitor allows the writer to monitor and control the writing process.

2.8.1 Advantages of the Think-aloud Protocol

Supporters of think-aloud protocols argue that this technique captures direct and valid evidence of natural cognitive data (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). They claim that it

provides researchers with the closest way to observe and record the cognitive activities involved in the composing process.

Raimes (1985) provided a comprehensive summary of the value of the protocol. After his observation, he found that the protocol is able to reveal more information “about the students as writers than mere analysis of the products or observations of the writing process, ...[she] decided that think-aloud composing was simply too good a tool not to be used” (Raimes, 1985, p. 234). This is largely due to the value presented by think-aloud activities, which is the ability to provide insights into writers’ cognitive processes and their responses and thinking at certain stages in the writing process.

Similarly, Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) mentioned three advantages of the think-aloud protocol. They stated that it allows direct investigation of data on cognitive processes and participants’ responses. Second, it can sometimes offer access to the decision-making and reasoning processes underlying sophisticated cognition. Third, verbal reports allow for cognitive processes as well as affective processes to be coded and analysed.

2.8.2 Disadvantages of the Think-aloud Protocol

Generally speaking, no method of data collection is entirely comprehensive and without drawbacks, but researchers have to choose a method that best fits the nature of their research questions and yields most information for the desired results. Despite its popularity, the think-aloud protocol has its handicaps, and has been a controversial

issue in terms of both its validity and its reliability. Like Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), Dobrin (1986) believed that think-aloud protocols do not provide us with authentic material because they are conducted under artificial conditions. Similarly, Bracewell and Breuleux (1994) raised questions of reliability, because protocols are considered a method of data collection rather than evidence about the cognitive processes of composing.

The method has been criticised because some processes are inaccessible to conscious observations, such as how one generates and relates ideas. For Faigley and Witte, spoken data is subject to a considerable validity problem because writing while speaking aloud “might, in fact, interfere with the subjects’ normal composing process interrupting their trains of thoughts” (Faigley and Witte, 1981, p. 412). It requires writers to do more than one thing at the same time which may affect their performance. Nunan (1993) added that spelling out thoughts might distort the processes themselves.

The think-aloud protocol method is seen as unnatural and distracting to some participants because it may be very different from their natural learning style. It requires participants, especially writers, to make unnatural efforts as they try to talk about what they are thinking. Confirming this, Perl, who collected data using think-aloud protocols, confirms that asking students “to compose aloud changes the process substantially, ...[it] is not the same as silent composing” (1980, p. 19). Such a perspective was echoed by Zamel (1983a), who raised the question of whether verbalisation “while writing stimulates the real composing situation” (p. 169). She

argued that this unnatural way of writing might prevent errors that would have naturally occurred in actual writing settings.

In more recent studies, the limitations of think-aloud protocols have been highlighted by researchers such as Stratman and Hamp-Lyons (1994) and Janssen *et al.* (1996). Stratman and Hamp-Lyons (1994) studied the revision process and found that this method affected only the quantity of certain kinds of verbal processing rather than the quality of writing. Janssen *et al.* (1996) mentioned limitations that others did not consider. They argued that the effect of the think-aloud protocol can be seen in a knowledge-transforming task but not in a knowledge-telling one. This is because the latter depicts the simpler and more straightforward writing process which omits complex composing activities; as such, the think-aloud protocol will not be able to extract in-depth information from students. The knowledge-transforming task, on the other hand, would be viable for the integration of think-aloud activities because the nature of the model includes multiple layers of the writing process (see 2.3).

The validity of the TAP was also questioned by Hertzum *et al.* (2009), who claimed that: “the validity of the think aloud is, however, debatable because it is generally used in a relaxed way that conflicts with the prescriptions of the classic model for obtaining valid verbalizations of thought processes”. The results of their analysis indicate that:

[W]hereas classic thinking aloud has little or no effect on behaviour apart from prolonging tasks, relaxed thinking aloud affects behaviour in multiple ways. During relaxed thinking aloud participants took longer to solve tasks,

spent a larger part of tasks on general distributed visual behaviour, issued more commands to navigate both within and between the pages... and experienced higher mental workload. (p. 165)

Despite the limitations mentioned in the previous section, the think-aloud protocol has advantages over simple observation and other methods of data collection because it allows researchers to gain valuable insights into the way participants think on the spot. It also provides the field of research with a better understanding of the participants' mental processes as they progress in their tasks. Such knowledge might provide sufficient information to diagnose their writing problems. This research uses a think-aloud protocol as a method of data collection in addition to written samples and questionnaires (see 3.5 and 5.2).

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has presented a review of the most relevant literature to this study. It showed how writing has moved from a product to process orientation, and how the former focused more on a linear process, while the latter considered writing as a recursive process. The results of such findings significantly changed the way people perceived writing as an activity. More recent researchers in the field, such as Emig (1971), Perl (1971, 1979), and Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981), to name a few, have studied writing as a process rather than a finished product, where the focus is on the writer as well as the processes involved in writing. Accordingly, teachers stopped evaluating the end product and started assisting students in the process of writing.

With these efforts in mind, new theories and models opened up ways to address writing development more directly.

The review showed that Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981a) model is a landmark that provoked new research in the field, and it is used with Shapira and Lazarowitz's (2005) four clusters to analyse the TAPs in this research. The studies reviewed showed that skilled writers used writing strategies more frequently, and both groups demonstrated different writing behaviour. With respect to studies conducted concerning ESL and EFL writers, it was found that learners of English encounter different problems from native English writers. They fight to understand the cognitive demands of the written task and then to write it. It was also reported that students used their L1 during their writing performance in L2. This strategy is used as an affective or communicative strategy (Sercombe, 2002).

In spite of the promising findings in the field of ESL studies, the review showed that there is a scarcity of research related to the writing strategies of Arab EFL learners in general, and to the Saudi context in particular. Most of the research conducted in this field is restricted to the role of L1 transference and translation in English writing. They almost all have their own drawbacks in terms of the context or the methodology used. Very few studies, if any, focused on the writing process in its entirety. Therefore, it can be said that such a research gap is worthy of more investigation, given the increased numbers of students studying English in the Saudi context and the Arab world.

To that end, the next chapter presents the methodology of the research.

Chapter Three: Methodology and Research Design

3.1 Introduction

This research springs from the fact that the English written product of Saudi males majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University suffers from many problems and its quality is lower than the expectations of their tutors. As a teacher of English as a foreign language at the Department of English Language and Literature at this university, I continually observed the poor written products of the students. My colleagues also reported to the department their concerns about the low performance of the students and their desire to understand the reasons behind it. The students were also frustrated because they spend a lot of time writing and editing their texts without success. Their failure might be caused by the implicit demands of academic written tasks, the use of inappropriate strategies, or the influence of L1 on the L2 product.

The strategies that the students use, no doubt, play an important role in the process of writing in English as a foreign language; therefore examination of the kind of writing strategies employed by the Saudi male students majoring in English will be undertaken. The investigation and examination are intended to enrich our knowledge of some of the reasons behind their poor written product.

To investigate this claim and find answers to the research questions (see 1.4), this chapter presents the research methodology and the methods of data collection. It provides a detailed account of the participants, the written samples, and the writing strategy questionnaires (WSQ). It also presents a description of the think-aloud

protocols (TAP), the context of the data, and field problems. The theoretical framework for the data analysis, the coding scheme and its piloting, and the holistic scoring of the written composition of the TAP are also described in this chapter. These research instruments have been constructed to facilitate the analysis of the writing strategies of the participants in the study.

3.1.1 Epistemological Orientations

The methodology of this research is largely inspired by the work of Cohen *et al.* (2007) because it combines quantitative and qualitative data analysis. The quantitative data analysis “emanating in part from the positivist tradition” (2007, p. 501), aims to isolate and discriminate the analytical categories as accurately as possible. The information gathered from the analysis will provide the researcher with solid and reliable information. Furthermore, the findings of the quantitative research “have certain ‘definiteness’ ... which make it possible for conclusions to be drawn to a specifiable level of probability” (Davies, 2007, p. 11). Analysis of quantitative data has much benefited from the advance of computer software programs; consequently the results can be obtained quickly and accurately.

Positivists consider that the world conforms to laws of causation, which can be objectively tested (Vries, 2004). Therefore, the aim of the positivist studies, generally speaking, is to test a theory, or to increase the predictive understanding of phenomena. For example, an information system research project is considered positivist if there is evidence of quantifiable measures of variables, or hypothesis testing. In this research, I employed quantitative data analysis and used software programs to get the

percentage of the strategies used by the students (see 4.3.1). However, this research does not employ positivism as a research method because it studies students' behaviour during writing. It mainly relies on interpretations and inferences which are based on the quantitative findings.

On the other hand, qualitative data analysis consists of “a set of interpretative, material practices that make the world visible ... They turn the world into a series of representations” (Davies, 2007, p. 10). Interpretative approaches “focus on action. This may be thought of as behaviour-with-meaning; it is intentional behaviour and as such, future oriented” (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p. 22). Therefore, the epistemological stance on interpretative approaches is that knowledge of reality is achieved only through social construction such as language, documents, or shared meanings (Walsham, 1995). The interpretative approach is inductive and concerned with interpreting social patterns (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991). Thus, the interpretative researcher begins with individuals and tries to understand their interpretations of the world around them.

Core to the interpretative approach, theory emerges and must arise from particular situations, or it should be generated by the research act (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Theory “should not precede research but follow it. Investigations work directly with experience and understanding to build their theory on them. The data thus yielded will include the meanings and proposes of those people who are their source” (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p. 22). Thus in an interpretative research project there are no predefined dependent and independent variables, but an attempt to understand the human

behaviour and build a conclusion or derive a theory from the findings. The generated theory “must make sense to those to whom it applies” (2007, p. 22). But what is the aim of the interpretative approach? According to Cohen *et al.* (2007), the interpretative perspective hopes to create a universal theory which exemplifies the normative outlook and represents the multi-faced images of human behaviour.

The discussion above indicates that the epistemological orientation of the study should be made explicit to guide the reader throughout the paper. My orientation in this research will be mostly interpretative, because at the beginning I derive the quantitative findings from the data analysis, and then I interpret the results in an attempt to understand the students’ behaviours and to stand for the reasons behind their writing problems. A WSQ and TAPs are used as a method of data collection.

3.1.2 Context of the Study

The present research was conducted in the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University where I am employed as a teaching assistant. Before I embarked on this research, I used to teach General English for first- and second-year students in the English Language Department. This made me aware of their writing problems and motivated me to conduct this research.

My teaching post gave me direct contact with the administrators and the teaching staff who helped my research to go smoothly since I had their support when needed. It was important that my colleagues in the English Language Department allowed me to

collect data from their writing classes as I stopped teaching after commencing my PhD project, and could not collect data from my own teaching classes. It was equally important that my colleagues helped me to contact some of their students directly for the WSQ and TAP data.

In the English Language Department, students study different courses every semester such as grammar, translation, composition, and phonetics, among others. As a cultural norm, the class is usually teacher-centred where teachers control the class and the learning process. Students in turn are negative listeners who do not communicate effectively, and do not learn much just by sitting in classes listening to their teachers, and memorising their lessons verbatim. It is worth mentioning that Arabic is sometimes used as a medium of instruction in the English language classes; therefore, it is likely that students themselves will use Arabic to discuss issues related to their study of English. Tutors use a Grammar-Translation method in many language classes and switch from English into Arabic when their students fail to understand what is being explained in English.

English writing classes do not get the time they deserve (see 1.2). Students also are not given enough time to write freely and receive feedback. Most writing instructors place emphasis on the final product of the essay (Al-Hozaimi, 1993), without giving much attention to the processes and strategies followed in teaching and learning writing. A typical writing class starts with a topic being introduced to the students, and then the instructor talks about the topic, providing the students with ready-made sentences and phrases to include in their writing (Al-Hozaimi, 1993). Immediately after that, students are required to write a full essay on the topic, and are expected to

complete the task by the end of the session. After this stage, the writing instructor reads the final product, makes corrections – mostly grammatical – and gives a grade to the essay (see 1.2).

Generally speaking, writing classes in the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University do not call attention to the main writing processes such as pre-writing: brainstorming, planning, outlining; and editing or post-writing strategies such as revising and reviewing, and this causes concern over teaching methods. The emphasis is on the structure of the essay, specifically on the vocabulary and grammar (Aljamhour, 1996).

3.2 Research Methods

3.2.1 Participants: Selection Process and Background

The process of data collection started in January 2007 and ran for eight weeks. During that time, I acquired permission from the Head of the Department to collect the data, and established contacts with the tutors and the lecturers in the department. A formal meeting was held with the lecturers to arrange for a suitable time for them and their students to start the actual data collection.

The first stage in the process of data collection was to get a Likert-scale statement questionnaire (WSQ) filled in to start the think-aloud protocol (TAP). In the course of two weeks, the WSQ and TAP were completed by the students. In each WSQ and TAP session, the students were given a short briefing on the aims of the study and what was required of them as participants. It should be noted that all the students

participated voluntarily, and that I did not know any of the students who participated in the data-collection tasks although I am a member of staff in the department. This is because I had been away for the previous two years continuing my postgraduate studies.

One hundred and fifty-six Saudi male students in their final year majoring in English were involved in the study. The rationale for choosing fourth-year undergraduate participants was the belief that their command of English should be satisfactory (for students at this level, with at least IELTS 6.5), though this was not proven. However, the students who participated in the think-aloud protocol were chosen systematically from the writing class as suggested by their tutors. The choice was also based on the students' grade-point average (GPA), and on their average mark in the writing exam, so that three different levels of student were chosen: high, medium and low. It was expected that such a choice would enable me to investigate the differences in the writing strategies between skilled and less-skilled students. All the participants were aged between 21 and 25.

To fulfil the aims of the study, mixed research methods have been used. The first research method was collection of written samples; the second, a writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ); and the third, think-aloud protocols (TAP).

In order to provide evidence and support for the first research hypothesis and research question, I collected eleven samples of students' assessed writing. The students were chosen based on the recommendation of their English writing lecturers. Out of the eleven students, four were considered grade 'A', two grade 'B and C', and the rest

‘D’, relative to departmental standards. The writing topic was provided by the teaching instructor. The aim of this research stage was to obtain an indication of the general writing level of those students, and to classify the types of problems their writing suffers from.

To obtain data for RQ2 and RQ3, 156 subjects agreed to participate in the questionnaire session (WSQ). They were randomly placed into six groups (except for Group 6) each of almost thirty students, due to the size of the classroom. The WSQ statements were filled in over five days, according to the students’ timetables. Only the participants in the last group – Group 6 – were chosen through purposeful sampling whose situation would be expected to provide “information-rich cases” to highlight the issues pertinent to the research (Patton, 1990, p. 169). The choice of this group of students was also based on their GPA (judged according to departmental standards; see below). This systematic sampling enabled me to find answers to RQ2 and RQ3. The participants in this group were twelve students, five of whom were chosen based on their GPA of 3.56 and above, and the rest 3.55 and below. Those participants were given the task of completing the TAP before completing the WSQ. In addition to that, their writing composition would also be investigated.

Establishing the students’ English standard based on the university’s GPA would be easy if a comparison could be made against the TOEFL or IELTS scores. Unfortunately, no such comparison is available at King Abdul-Aziz University. Instead, from personal communication with the director of the English Language Centre (ELC), it was established that a student with a GPA of 4.01–5.00 is expected

to score 183–240 on the computer-based TOEFL test. The rough equivalent of the scoring can be seen in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Range comparison between TOEFL scores and GPA (King Abdul-Aziz English Language Department)

TOEFL Internet-based Total	TOEFL Computer-based Total	TOEFL Paper-based Total	King Abdul-Aziz GPA
111–120	273–300	640–677	
96–110	243–270	590–637	
79–95	213–240	550–587	4.56–5.00
65–78	183–210	513–547	4.01–4.55
53–64	153–180	477–510	3.56–4.00
41–52	123–150	437–47	3.01–3.53
30–40	93–120	397–43	2.56–3.00
19–29	63–90	347–393	2.01–2.55
9–18	33–60	310–343	1.56–2.00
0–8	0–30	310	< 1.55

3.2.2 General Information on Students' Backgrounds

In the first part of the WSQ, the students were required to provide personal data and background information on their experience of English writing. Generally, the feedback showed that the students were equivalent in terms of their personal information and background experience with learning and writing English. It should be noted that the background information of the students in Group 6 is not included in this section as they will be considered separately. Some of the more general

information about the students is presented in the tables and graphs below. The table represent grade-point average.

Table 3.2: Grade-point average

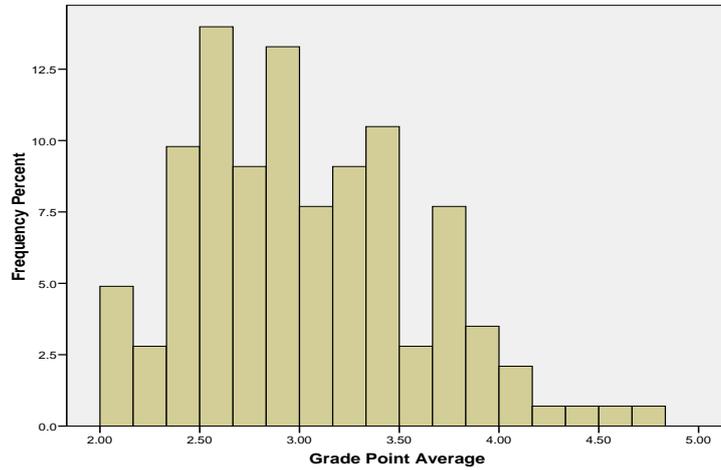


Table 3.3: Frequency distribution of GPA group

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
<=2.50	31	22.5	22.5	20.5
2.51–3.50	87	60.4	60.4	80.9
>=3.51	26	18.1	18.1	100.0
Total	134	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.2 represents the students' GPA. A high proportion of the students (60%) scored between 2.51 and 3.50, and 22% scored above 2.50, which is the minimum acceptable level, and 18% scored above 3.50. This indicates that, theoretically, the English writing level of the majority of the students is acceptable.

3.2.2.1 Number of years of studying English

The number of years of studying English has a bimodal distribution, indicating that there are two distinct groups of students: a first group with years of study normally distributed around 3–4 years and a second group around 9–10 years. However, the percentage of the subjects who spent 7–10 years studying English was the highest at 33.3%, closely followed by 29.9% with 4–6 years, 21.5% with more than 10 years, and finally 14.6% with 3–6 years. Furthermore, when asked if they had attended a government or private school, 87.5% of the students responded that they had attended the former. As such, they would have had at least six years of learning English in intermediate and high school and a further three years at the university. Perhaps it is appropriate at this juncture to explain what it means to study English in the KSA context.

The use of English is deemed very important in KSA, especially for educational and social purposes. However, the problem with learning the language lies in lack of practice, since the curricula and the educational system in general do not give the English language the priority it deserves. Moreover, although students start learning English at elementary school, this is limited to just two hours a week. This increases gradually as they move to the upper years. The method of teaching in the classroom is teacher-centred, where the teacher talks and the students listen.

3.2.2.2 Reasons for studying English

In KSA studying English is motivated by a number of goals. For most learners, the main motive is finding a better opportunity in the job market. There are, of course,

other reasons related to business and touristic needs, the chance to study abroad, or for social and prestigious purposes. There is also a group of learners who do it for entertainment reasons such as watching movies or chatting on the internet with friends from different cultures.

Generally speaking, the background information on the students is important because it indicates the standard of English they should possess parallel to the exposure that they have had.

3.2.3 Students' Writing Background

The nature of the writing class at King Abdul-Aziz University is very much the same as in other Saudi Arabian institutions because the teaching methodology and curriculum are standardised by the Ministry of Higher Education in KSA. The contact hours for writing skills are 4 hours per week, broken down into 2 one-hour-blocks per session. Typically, the writing class starts with the instructor providing all the input in relation to the methods and techniques of writing. For example, some instructors may discuss possible topics written within certain genres and generate some ideas that may be included in the content of the essay. In other words, they tell students about the way they should organise their writing. However, this process is not monitored while the students are writing. Students are given writing tasks to be done within the class and submitted to the writing teacher who, in return, marks them and provides the students with feedback.

The instructor's primary feedback usually focuses on grammatical and vocabulary errors. Other points of concern are punctuation marks and organisation. The students receive comments on their essays in the following writing class and they go through them with the instructor.

Students are expected to be able to write cohesive and coherent essays that meet the expectations of their tutors. However, this is not in fact the case. When writing their essays, students think in Arabic and sometimes translate from Arabic into English, as they report in the WSQ. The following tables (3.4 and 3.5) represent a sample of the students' responses.

Table 3.4: Do you think in Arabic or English?

When you write English essays, do you think in English or in Arabic?	Frequency	Percentage/%
English	49	34
Arabic	81	56.3
Both	14	9

Table 3.4 shows that students are slightly more likely to think in Arabic than in English and only a handful report thinking in both languages.

Table 3.5: Do you try to translate Arabic ideas into English?

When you write in English do you try to translate Arabic ideas?	Frequency	Percent
Yes	112	77.8
No	12	8.3
Sometimes	20	13.9

Echoing Table 3.4, Table 3.5 shows that most subjects admit to translating ideas from Arabic into English.

Tables 3.4 and 3.5 indicate that students prefer to use Arabic more than English, and they translate their ideas from Arabic to English, As a result, this affects their English performance and renders their outcome awkward (for more details see Chapters Four and Five).

3.3 Research Instruments

This section highlights the instruments used in the study to discover students' writing strategies. The method of eliciting writing strategies in this research is quite demanding for the students. This is because they are required to carry out a process that does not come naturally to them – to verbalise their thoughts while composing – a process that usually happens within their thoughts. Thus, to back up the think-aloud protocols (TAP) and to retrieve possible missing information, students filled in a questionnaire (WSQ). Therefore this research uses mixed research methods: writing

samples for the preliminary study, a questionnaire and think-aloud protocols for the main study.

3.3.1 The Preliminary Study: Diagnostic Test

To support my first hypothesis and address the first research question (see section 3.2), I asked eleven male students to write a composition. The goal of this task was to show evidence that the quality of students' writing in this institution does not meet the standards set forth by the Ministry of Higher Education in KSA, or the expectations of their tutors.

3.3.1.1 The choice of writing topic

The choice of the topic for the research was decided by the writing lecturer at the university because he was familiar with the students' levels and abilities (see Appendix 4). The students wrote an argumentative essay, and it was considered as part of their assessed course to make sure that they felt motivated to write. The rationale for the choice of this genre was based on two factors. First, the students have been taught and have practised writing argumentative essays. Secondly, this genre has been found suitable for providing vast differences in the quality of the written product as well as deeper involvement of cognitive skills (Freedman and Pringle, 1984; Andrews, 1995). Many writing teachers regard the argumentative genre as the more difficult task as it requires advanced writing skills. As such, the argumentative essay is the most challenging genre to test students' writing ability. The writing topic that was chosen for the students was:

“In many developing countries, children are sent to the workplace at an early age. In the developed countries many people think this is damaging and wrong, but others would argue that their work brings them a sense of contribution, belonging and responsibility. What is your opinion?”

The choice of the topic, as mentioned, reflected what was being taught in the writing class, and the kind of the subject the students usually wrote about.

3.3.1.2 Data-collection procedure

Eleven students were asked to attend a one-hour writing session where they were asked to write an essay based on the topic provided. The administration of the task mimicked an exam-like environment. Further, the students were discouraged from conferring with one another, as this is considered as part of the social strategy that this research studies in the think-aloud protocol.

3.3.1.3 Scoring the writing samples for the preliminary study

The written samples from the writing competency test (see Appendix 1) were analysed following the frameworks of Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Sercombe (2002). The aim of the analysis was to investigate the claims I made in hypotheses 1 and 2, and to provide a justification for the main study. In general, the framework for the analysis of the samples covers two main categories: sentential and intersentential errors. At the sentential level, the framework covers aspects such as the overt and covert grammar, register, vocabulary, orthography, and punctuation. At the

intersentential level, the framework covers the relationship between ideas in the sentences, and the general meaning of the text.

The analysis of the samples (section 4.2) reveals that, at the sentential level, instances of overt and covert problems, such as grammatical errors, use of the wrong vocabulary, orthography that shows spelling problems, and misuse of the punctuation system are found in the data. At the intersentential level, problems that relate to the structure and meaning of the topic are noticed, such as the students' inability to relate ideas to each other, or to have a clear meaning in general. Cases of interlingual or negative L1 transference are considered among the problems that cause lack of relatedness between the ideas (for more detailed analysis see Chapter Four section 4.2). These findings indicate that the initial claim of the study is valid, and they open the door to the main study.

3.4 Part I: Writing Strategy Questionnaire (WSQ)

The writing tasks in the preliminary study showed that students in this university have problems with writing, as shown in the analysis section (see 4.2). As such, further investigation is required to uncover the nature of the writing strategies employed by the students and discover whether these strategies are effective or otherwise and the extent to which they are used. The questionnaire provides information about how these students reported their use of writing strategies in their writing (see section 1.3).

3.4.1 Designing the Questionnaire

Broadly speaking, questions on a questionnaire may be either open or closed format. Open format means that there is a less-predetermined set of responses and the participants have more room to express their ideas than in a closed format. In the open-format questionnaire, the researcher determines “the amount of space or the number of lines provided for the answer” (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 112). The chief advantage of open questions is that they allow the participants to let their thoughts roam more freely, unconstrained by a fixed set of responses. Therefore, it is impossible to predict the full range of opinions. This also means that the researcher must spend more time on the analysis because tabulation of responses becomes more complex.

On the other hand, in a closed-format questionnaire the respondents’ task is to choose the suitable answer from a list of given choices (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 112). Researchers should provide sufficient choices that cover the range of possible answers. Closed-format questionnaires are reliable, and good for getting information from a huge population where many variables such as age, gender, and employment have to be considered in the questionnaire design. Above all, a closed questionnaire allows the researcher to compare the results.

In this research, I used an open-format questionnaire when collecting information about writing strategies (WSQ), and a closed-format questionnaire when eliciting background information.

For my data collection, the questionnaire was divided into two sections: (i) personal and background open-format questionnaire, and (ii) a closed-format writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ). Both parts were adapted and modified from the literature (see below). I found that this questionnaire best suited my data and the purposes of my research because it is based on common problems found in the written samples. The main objective of the WSQ was to elicit the types of strategies students use when writing, get some background information about the number of years of their exposure to English, the number of times they wrote in English every week, and their most frequent written genre.

Another format of questionnaire design was originally developed by Rensis Likert (1932), and is known as the Likert-scale, which measures attitudes. This method is used in the WSQ. The Likert-scale usually consists of declarative attitude statements “with which the respondent is asked to agree or disagree” (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 187). “The chief function of this attitude-scale is to divide people into a number of broad groups with respect to a particular attitude, and to allow us to study the ways in which such an attitude relates to other variables in our survey” (p. 187).

The reason for choosing a Likert-scale questionnaire as a method of data collection in my research was to provide varied data, and because it is relatively easy for students to answer as they are merely required to choose from several given choices instead of writing their own ideas down. It also provides me with a principled means of analysis. The information elicited from the responses provides answers to the second hypothesis and RQ2 in relation to the kind of strategies the students employ when they compose, or when they attempt to cope with writing difficulty. Further, the

questionnaire is related directly to the TAP in that I consider it as a source of back-up information. By this I mean that I can cross-check information between what was recorded on the tape and what was answered in the questionnaire. This decreases instances of contradictions in the information consequently biasing the results. To this end, I provided students with five attitude statements to choose from. These statements varied among: 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'not sure', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree'. The WSQ consisted of forty-three items prepared and planned by me with scores ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree).

The WSQ has been designed and guided by other questionnaires and think-aloud research, including that of El-Mortaji (2001) and El-Aswad (2003), because they all have similar aims, that is to discover the strategies students report using in their writing. However, I modified the items to suit the purposes of my research. The items in the WSQ have been carefully devised to mirror the framework of Hayes and Flower (1981, 1983), which states that the writing process includes planning, translating, and editing. More importantly, the items related to the four clusters outlined by Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005), namely meta-cognitive, cognitive, social, and affective (see Chapter Two, section 2.6).

The WSQ was translated into Arabic. The Arabic version of the WSQ was checked twice by an Arabic expert who teaches Arabic at King Abdul-Aziz University. This effort was to ensure that there were no instances of lexical ambiguity that might lead to misunderstanding or misinterpretation by the participants. Equally, an Arabic version of the questionnaire would prevent students from feeling embarrassed when asking about the meaning of a word in front of their colleagues. The English version

of the WSQ was discussed with my supervisor as well as with several other colleagues from the field of applied linguistics before the distribution.

The questionnaire was distributed in English and Arabic (see Appendix 3). Students were given the freedom to complete the questionnaire in the language they felt comfortable with. Providing students with both versions was useful for practical reasons that benefited the students as well as the research. This way, the responses to the questionnaire are more reliable and valid.

The total number of items in the personal background and writing strategy questionnaires is forty-eight. The former consists of five items that are open format, while the latter comprises forty-three items that are based on Likert-scale responses. The questionnaires were administered to 156 students.

3.4.2 Piloting the WSQ

In August 2007, the questionnaire was distributed to seven colleagues who are specialists in applied linguistics as a pilot test to make sure that all the questions were well constructed and explored the aims of my study effectively. This procedure was important because it helped “not only with the wording of questions, but also with procedural matter such as the design of the letter of the introduction ... the ordering of question sequences, and the reduction of the non-response rates” (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 47). They were asked if the questionnaire was easy to answer or needed amendments. The latter criteria generally highlighted five points to be looked into: (1) clarity, (2) redundancy, (3) relevance, (4) length of questionnaire and

(5) suitability based on students' proficiency. The criteria listed here were expressed in the form of eight questions on a covering letter prepared for the colleagues who participated in the piloting (see Appendix 2).

The responses to the questionnaire were consistent. All my colleagues' responses were positive and they managed to answer it in about the same amount of time (see Appendix 2). However, three suggestions were made: replace several difficult words with simpler ones, amend or combine some overlapping statements, and translate the questionnaire and make an Arabic copy available with the English one on distribution. Based on these suggestions, the WSQ was modified and translated. The translation process resulted in marginal changes in some statements to suit the meaning in Arabic and the context of teaching and learning at King Abdul-Aziz University.

3.4.3 Validity and Reliability Results of the WSQ

The colleagues who tried the WSQ no doubt have a higher level of proficiency in English than the Saudi students. This entails that students might encounter different kinds of problems while answering it. Therefore, to validate the questionnaire and get more reliable results, I asked a group of eleven male students in their final year at King Abdul-Aziz University to try it out before the actual study started. It was important to test the ability of students to understand the WSQ, to report whether the instructions were clear, and to make sure that they understood the wording. The responses received from the students were positive as they all felt that the questionnaire was clear and not difficult to answer. The average time it took them to

complete the questionnaire was 25–30 minutes (for validity of the questionnaire see Appendix 2).

3.4.4 Procedure

After completion of the pilot test, the distribution of the questionnaire took place. At the onset of the session, the students were briefed about the background of the researcher, and the intention of the data collection, which was for the purpose of PhD study. They were then reminded that the session was not a test, but they still should approach the task seriously. They were reminded to think and reflect on their own situations before answering the questionnaire.

A total of 144 out of 156 students filled the questionnaire in a session that took place during the writing class, which usually runs for 50 minutes. The students were informed by me and the instructors who were helping me that the questionnaire consisted of two parts, the personal/background questionnaire and the WSQ. They were told that they could respond in English or in Arabic based on their preference. Further, I answered their questions about any statement that seemed unclear or difficult. When I had made sure that everything was smooth, the questionnaire forms were distributed.

For the first part, the students were reminded to respond based on their writing experience in general, and in the second part the students were specifically required to respond based on what they do when they have a writing task at hand, which is usually in a writing class. Overall, the procedure took a total of 40–50 minutes. First,

the personal and background information questionnaire was distributed, followed by the Likert-type WSQ. The students took between 10–15 minutes to fill in the background information questionnaire and 20–30 minutes to fill in the Likert-scale section.

Since there was a large number of students involved, they were divided into five groups and the questionnaire was administered over three days. On the first day, Groups 1 and 2 succeeded in completing the questionnaire, on the second day, Groups 3 and 4 completed the task, and on the third day, Group 5 completed the questionnaire. This was done according to the students' timetables.

Another group, Group 6, consisted of twelve students who had been specifically chosen to take part in the think-aloud protocol. The choice of these students was based on their grade-point average (GPA). This systematic sample enabled me to find answers to RQ3. This group had an extra task on top of the questionnaire and they carried out their questionnaire in a different manner than the other five groups. They were given the background questionnaire followed by the think-aloud protocols and finally the WSQ questionnaire. The order of the task was such as to reduce the possibility of biasing the results of the think-aloud process. There was concern that the students might indirectly remember the steps they had read in the Likert-scale questionnaire and adopt it while they were verbalising their thinking during the protocols.

3.4.5 Data Analysis

In total, 144 students participated in the questionnaire. The data were processed for analysis using the SPSS statistics software program to measure the following: (1) the frequency and percentage of sample descriptions and estimates of the degree of similarity or overlap in the data, (2) the Cronbach's Alpha for the degree of correlation between the variables, to measure the reliability of the questionnaire, and to assess the degree of correlation between the variables, and (3) the mean based on the Likert-scale. The questions were presented using a five-point Likert scale, as shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Five-point Likert scale

Attitude	Weighted mean
Strongly disagree	From 1 to 1.79
Disagree	From 1.80 to 2.59
Not sure	From 2.60 to 3.39
Agree	From 3.40 to 4.19
Strongly agree	From 4.20 to 5

Histograms and Stem and Leaf plots were used to describe the distribution of continuous variables. While variables considered categorical and interval-level variables with few categories were explored using frequency tables and bar charts, I used means, medians, standard deviations and inter-quartile ranges to summarise the central tendency of continuous variables as well as their dispersion. These were tabulated or presented graphically using boxplots.

Association analyses involving Likert items used non-parametric statistical methods because the Likert item distributions were generally skewed. When Likert items were linked to the categorical variables of personal and background information in English writing a Wilcoxon or Kruskal-Wallis test was used as appropriate. When they were linked to continuous variables, Spearman's correlation was used.

In order to combine the information relating to a certain topic, a score based on the mean of the items associated with the topic was calculated. The score (or a suitable transformation to normalise it) was then used to relate the topic to data on personal or background information. This was achieved using linear regression models.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that Cronbach's Alpha of the questionnaire was found to be 0.737%, which is a high percentage that would yield reliable findings.

3.4.6 Limitations of the Questionnaire as a Research Method

A questionnaire is one of the most frequently used tools used to carry out a survey. It is a reliable method to gather data from a potentially large number of respondents. The responses provide the researcher with sufficient raw material for the statistical analysis of the results. According to Weir and Roberts (1994, p. 154) and Oppenheim (1992, p. 102), questionnaires have their advantages and disadvantages. For example, questionnaires are not high in cost in terms of distribution and processing. They allow sampling and ask all the sample participants the same questions. In addition, they can reach respondents at widely dispersed locations and, unlike interviews, there is no chance of interviewer bias.

An important matter that needs to be considered seriously is the confidentiality of the respondents. The researcher should replace the names of the participants with codes to maintain anonymity, and in so doing he guarantees that the participants will respond honestly to the questionnaire.

However, questionnaires are considered to have a number of disadvantages: the response rate may be low, the researcher has no control over unanswered questions or incomplete answers, there is no opportunity to correct “misunderstandings, or to probe, or to offer explanations or help” (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 102), and there is no control over the giving of questionnaires to others.

The design of the questionnaire, however, may be of open or closed format. In an open format, as has been explained before, there is no predetermined set of responses and the respondents are free to answer whatever they choose. Open-format questions are good for soliciting subjective data, as the responses may reflect the views of the respondents more accurately. Their very nature requires the researcher to treat the responses individually, however. Therefore, it is more difficult to tabulate responses and to perform statistical analyses of them. This means that processing open-format questionnaires is more costly in both time and money.

Oppenheim suggests that many weeks of “planning, reading, design and exploratory pilot work will be needed before any sort of specification for a questionnaire can be determined” (1992, p. 100). This was very true in my case. Designing and adjusting the questionnaire for this study required weeks of work before it was finally ready to

be administered. In addition, analysis of questionnaires with large amounts of data, as Denscombe (1998) argues, can be difficult. Respondents also might not co-operate and answer the questions, which in turn might bias the researcher's findings, as we will see in the following discussion.

For my research, the process of administering the questionnaire went relatively smoothly. However, it is very important to mention that students may report things they do not usually do when writing. Due to the large number of students, it was impossible to read the students' responses and compare them to their actual writing, and after that to interview them to cross-check the information with their responses in the questionnaire. However, in the TAPs, I tried to collect additional data that might provide more comprehensive answers.

3.5 Part II: Think-Aloud Protocol (TAP)

Like other studies (El-Mortaji, 2001; Wang, 2004; El-Aswad, 2002; Alhaysony, 2008), this study employs TAP to examine the role of strategies in the writing of undergraduate students majoring in English. This technique can be an effective means of retrieving information as to what students go through when they start writing a composition, the way they think when they write and, most importantly, the strategies they choose and use during the complicated process of writing. Furthermore, the use of TAP suits the aim of the research, which is to investigate the influence of writing strategies on the written product. Therefore, TAP was used as the main source of data collection to address the second and third research questions as well as providing evidence for the second hypothesis (see sections 1.3 and Chapter Five).

TAP, as discussed in Chapter Two, refers to a real-time data process where participants are given a task to write about, and are asked to verbalise “everything that goes through their minds as they write” (Flower and Hayes, 1981, p. 368). During these sessions, the researcher records the participants’ utterances onto audio or video tapes, and the tapes are transcribed into protocols. The protocols are expected to reflect a real cognitive process revealing the way strategies have been used by participants.

3.5.1 Piloting

The TAP process started with a practice session which acted as a pilot test. This was necessary because the students were not familiar with participating in this kind of research work, and even if they have had experience, it would commonly be in answering questionnaires. In addition to that, the practice session helped eliminate feelings of apprehension among the students and increased their confidence levels.

Fourteen students were chosen systematically and agreed to take part in this task. They received training on how the session would be undertaken before data collection took place. The students, as mentioned in section 3.2.1, were chosen based on the recommendations of their writing tutors, their GPAs, and their average mark in the writing exams. With the help of their teacher, I explained in both Arabic and English the requirements of the task. I switched into Arabic (when necessary) to make sure that the students understood the task. The explanation included the nature of the task they were going to undertake, the nature of their contribution, and the aim of this

study. More specifically, I explained the meaning of the TAP and provided them with examples. The whole process of explanation took 50 minutes. Giving an introduction about the TAP task has been widely practised by many EFL researchers in their studies (Raimes, 1985, 1987; Arndt, 1987).

To facilitate the process further and make sure that the students were able to think aloud while writing, I asked a colleague who teaches composition at the college to do a short role-play in front of students. The role-play involved the teacher acting like a student going through the process of writing a composition and at the same time verbalising his thoughts out loud. The colleague tried to be as transparent as possible when applying the procedure. He began by reading the topic title loudly then started planning how he was going to begin the task. He talked while writing, revising and editing the written composition before finalising it. The role-play was chosen as part of the training because it provided the students with a vivid description of what was required in the task. The emphasis of the role-play was on the act of verbalising thoughts as the writing task was going on.

Although, usually, a practice task is not identical to the real task for fear of imitation, in this case the students' limited research involvement meant that without a clear and vivid idea of the task, they would not be able to perform. Thus, the role-play was able to present a good example of what was required of them as well as boost their confidence in their own ability to carry out the task. Another training ground was provided when two students were called out to try the TAP task in front of their colleagues. This allowed a second chance for the students to see the process. Those two students were excluded from the actual study so as not to bias the results. In

general, the piloting was done to ensure that the students got a clear idea about what they had to do in the actual process of the TAP.

After the piloting, I had a short session of 15 minutes with each student. The aim of this session was to make sure that the student understood the procedure, and that his queries were answered. Most queries were related to their ability to perform the task. In response, I encouraged them to relax and do as they would do in any written assignment in class. I also informed them that they should try to keep verbalising what was going through their minds. I also double-checked that they understood the procedure.

3.5.2 The Choice of TAP Topics

The choice of topics for the writing composition for the TAP task was important, because familiarity with the genre and writing topic would motivate and enhance their performance. Furthermore, the students would be more involved and engaged in the build-up of ideas, which in turn would ease them with verbalising their train of thought. The following question titles were prepared:

Question one: "Write an essay about a dream you would like to come true."

Question two: "Write an essay about the best holiday you ever had."

In their college courses the students study how to write descriptive, narrative, and argumentative essays. Therefore the choice of the first question, a descriptive genre, and the second, a narrative genre, were suitable for the TAP task. Based on my

discussions with the course instructors, it was felt that such topics not only reflected the kinds of composition they typically tackled in their writing classes, but would also help them to write freely and generate more ideas, and consequently to verbalise their thinking. The exclusion of an argumentative topic in this task was for two reasons: according to the course instructors, the students struggled more in the argumentative genre than in descriptive and narrative ones (as had been shown in the initial essay task, reported in 4.2), and it is generally accepted that argumentative essays are more complicated and difficult than the other two, thus would be discouraging to the students.

Although the purpose of the writing and the type of reader were not mentioned to the students, they were provided with prompts to help ease the writing process (see Appendix 4). This was because prompts are occasionally furnished to the students in their writing class and are especially helpful with topics that the students are not familiar with. Although five of the students involved in this task had a better GPA than the other six, prompts were given to reduce the effect of “writer’s block” (see 2.3). This was a point of concern expressed by the fourteen students during the 15-minute query session. In addition to that, as TAP depends mainly on the positive and active participation of the students, stimulations such as pictures and questions were offered to enable students to write effectively.

3.5.3 Procedure

After the process of piloting the TAP, the actual procedure began with eleven students being chosen to complete the task. The choice was based on two criteria: the students’

desire to participate in the research, and the teachers' evaluation of their written performance. In that respect, the participants belonged to two groups: high-level students and low-level students. The reason for this selection was to investigate the difference in the use of writing strategies between skilled and less-skilled students and to provide answers to the second hypothesis and research question.

The TAP task was carried out over the course of two weeks. Two students underwent the task on the first day, followed by two in the next two days, and gradually the rest of the students completed the task. When I listened to the audio tapes, I found that two of the students hardly said anything. It might be that they felt shy, or did not understand the procedure. Alternatively, it might also be the case that they could not write the composition, as they submitted blank papers. I was therefore left with nine audio tapes that contained verbalised TAPs. However, this number was sufficient to provide me with rich data for my research.

After the think-aloud sessions, the eleven students were asked to complete the WSQ. This aimed to elicit some back-up information regarding the strategies and the steps they used while writing. It could be the case that similar information would be elicited from the verbal protocol, but the questionnaire gave the chance to compare the responses of each participant, and to back up missing information about writing strategies. However, because two students did not write the composition or verbalise their thinking, it was pointless to analyse their questionnaires.

3.5.4 TAP Transcription

The audio tapes for each student were transcribed word by word in order to analyse the writing strategies. They were transcribed according to the languages that the students used when they were verbalising their thoughts during the writing process, and in this case the students used both English and Arabic. They were also segmented and coded (see Appendix 6). The coding system used in the transcription was adapted from Wong (2005) and Wang (2004) for relevance to the study, with additional codes created by me (see Appendix 5). This was because the students produced utterances that were not recorded by Wong (2005) and Wang (2004), therefore I had to create codes to cover these instances. These additional codes were devised by me through a systematic process (see section 3.5.6 and Appendix 5). Most of the codes made use of letters and punctuation within brackets to represent the nature of the protocols.

3.5.5 TAP Analysis and the Theoretical Framework of the Study

The written texts were analysed qualitatively following a theoretical framework based on Flower and Hayes' cognitive process model (1980, 1981a). This framework (see 2.3 and 2.6) covers aspects of the writing process and focuses mainly on the three major writing processes: planning, translating, and reviewing. However, as mentioned in section 2.3, the framework covers aspects of the writing of monolingual competent writers, and does not account for the social and affective strategies, therefore I tried to modify it by adding Shapira and Lazarowitz's (2005) four clusters: meta-cognitive, cognitive, affective, and social strategies (for analysis see 5.3). This modified framework will be used to study the impact of using writing strategies on the written product of male Saudi students. The modified model is shown in Table 3.7.

The reason for using Shapira and Lazarowitz's (2005) model is that they analysed data based, in part, on the writing of Palestinian Arab students, and followed methodology similar to that used in the present study (for more details see 2.6, and for the data analysis see 5.3). Thus, during the analysis, meta-cognitive strategies will refer to planning as a pre-writing stage. Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, will refer to the stage of translating or generating ideas and to reviewing or editing as a post-writing stage. Social strategies will refer to the actions taken by students during writing to ease its difficulty, and affective strategies refer to what the students do to regulate their emotions and complete the written task (for more details see 5.3). These are the expected stages the participants of the study should be using, as they were taught this process as part of the way they organise their writing.

Table 3.7: Summary of the modified analytical framework of this study based on Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) and Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005)

Meta-cognitive strategies: Planning, globally and locally Rehearsing Repeating Reading	Cognitive strategies: Translating, Generating ideas Sentences, paragraphs and essays	Reviewing assessment strategies: Editing Revising Deleting Adding Correcting	Social strategies facilitate writing	Affective strategies regulate emotions
A plan of what the student will write, goal setting, focusing, using schemata, and monitoring activities.	Record the behaviour of the student during the writing process, including generating ideas, organising information, reading out loud, analysing, translating, summarising and reasoning.	The function of the reviewing process is reading and editing sub-processes to improve the quality of the text produced by the translating process. It depends on evaluating and revising the written product. It happens at the syntactic or discoursal level	Facilitating interaction with colleagues, to help them overcome difficulties. Among these actions: asking questions, co-operating with others to complete a task, and peer revision.	Regulating emotions, motivation and attitudes such as reducing anxiety, and self-encouragement. Negative and positive strategies will both be considered.

In addition to the application of the model, the analysis of the think-aloud protocols consists of the coding system, transcription of the raw materials, and segmentation of the protocols. The codes aim at showing the kinds of writing strategies used and the frequencies of certain elements including:

- (i) planning,
- (ii) translation,

- (iii) code switching,
- (iv) repetition,
- (v) reviewing, and
- (vi) evaluation.

The analysis also aims to shed light on the following processes: pre-writing, writing and editing. At the pre-writing stage, the focus will be on the time the students spend in the pre-writing stage, and on what they actually do before writing the first sentence, for example, whether the student plans his writing, or whether he writes a draft of the ideas he plans to include in his essay. The writing stage, on the other hand, refers to the amount of time spent writing each sentence, and the amount of time between sentences. It also refers to the students' behaviour/reaction between sentences, such as making sounds of frustration. This stage is very important in order to spot how students finalise their writing, and whether they use what they wrote at the pre-writing or brainstorming stage. At the editing stage, the focus is on the frequency of editing the writing, and the nature of this editing (i.e. at sentential or intersentential levels). The editing stage also includes the silent/pause periods during the whole process (Perl, 1979). Again, this observation is in tangent with Flower and Hayes' (1981) cognitive process model.

In summary, this analysis aims to elicit the following information: the amount of time spent by the student during the different stages of writing: the pre-writing (planning), writing (translating) and post-writing stage (reviewing), and the strategies used during these stages. It also focuses on the nature of the editing process, and the periods of silence during the protocols.

3.5.6 The Coding Scheme

There are various coding systems available in the literature, as highlighted in Chapter Two (Perl, 1979; Arndt, 1987; Rashid, 1996; El-Mortaji, 2001; Junju, 2004; Wang, 2004; Wong, 2005). The plethora of codes does not actually make it any easier to adopt a suitable one for this study because these codes are often not classified into the subcategories employed in Flower and Hayes (1981). Accordingly, this study made some modifications to the existing coding scheme chosen.

3.5.6.1 Developing and adapting the coding scheme for this research

The coding scheme used in this research was adopted in part from Wang (2004) and Wong (2005), and in part developed by the researcher. It was found that the coding schemes of other researchers did not always adequately cover the various aspects of the composing activities that the students in this study used, such as self-assessment and code switching, therefore extra codes were created to cover all relevant aspects that were absent from Wang's (2004) and Wong's (2005) system. The importance of the coding scheme, as Flower and Hayes (1981) mention, is to mark the points where there is a shift in the writer's focus, attention, goals, and plans. This shift might provide information about the strategies students are using during the process of writing and in turn, enable us to bridge the gaps in these strategies (see Appendix 5 for the coding scheme used in this study).

The process of developing additional codes was laborious because it included listening to the audio tapes time and time again to identify the strategies articulated by

students. It was then followed by several sessions of sifting through the transcriptions to highlight the “writing strategy-like” expression. It was observed during the protocols that Saudi students behaved in a way that is not commonly found in the composing process of EFL university writers (El-Mortaji, 2001). For example, the students used (self) questioning as a meta-cognitive strategy and positive and negative self-assessment as an affective strategy in order to facilitate their writing (for more details see 5.2.1). This was corroborated by the participants in the TAP.

As a result, I adopted seventeen strategy categories and supplemented these with a further twenty-three in order to produce a more detailed analysis. I introduced several new codes into the process that consists of the four strategy-clusters, i.e. meta-cognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies, to mirror the strategies the Saudi students employed in the process of writing. The next step was to validate this new adapted coding system.

3.5.6.2 Validation of the coding scheme

Having adopted and developed a coding scheme that seemed appropriate to my study, I had to make sure that it could be applied consistently to the data. I asked a fellow researcher who is an expert in teaching writing and working on qualitative research to help me. I first introduced the coding scheme, and we began to review it together to gain a common understanding of the categories. Following this session, we began to code some transcripts together. In our first session, we applied the scheme to a protocol and found that our coding was 82% in agreement. In the second session, we agreed more on the boundaries and categories, with an average of 93% agreement.

After that, I asked him to be the second coder of the protocols. During the process of coding and segmenting we achieved fairly strong inter-rater agreement.

After the coding and segmentation processes were identified, the number of times each strategy occurred in the TAP was counted. To assess the degree of correlation between the variables, I used Cronbach's Alpha to measure the internal consistency and reliability between my colleague's application of the coding schemes and my own.

3.5.7 The Holistic Scoring

The written composition produced during the TAP task was marked holistically by three independent raters. This is considered to be an impressionistic scoring, according to Hughes (1989). The aim of the holistic rating was to rank the performance of the students as skilled, less skilled, or weak, relative to the standard set by Johnson (1983). The aim was also to discover the impact of their errors on the overall structure and comprehensibility of the written samples. This type of scoring was employed because giving an overall impression of a piece of writing takes little time. However, there must be a set of established specified criteria as a guide for evaluation in order to decide "what impact the errors that are present have on the overall tone, structure, and comprehensibility of the writing sample" (Terry, 1989, p. 49).

Accordingly, the three raters practised on the samples they would be evaluating to establish common standards before scoring the nine papers. Table 3.8, which was adapted from Johnson (1983), was considered as guidance for this process.

Table 3.8: Johnson's (1983) scoring scale

Grade	Score	Description
Demonstrates superiority	10 9	<i>Strong</i> control of the language; proficiency and variety in grammatical usage with few significant errors; broad command of vocabulary and of idiomatic language.
Demonstrates competence	8 7	<i>Good</i> general control of grammatical structures despite some errors and/or some awkwardness of style. Good use of idioms and vocabulary. Reads smoothly overall.
Suggests competence	6 5	<i>Fair</i> ability to express ideas in target language; correct use of simple grammatical structures or use of more complex structures without numerous serious errors. Some apt vocabulary and idioms. Occasional signs of fluency and sense of style.
Suggests incompetence	4 3	<i>Weak</i> use of language with little control of grammatical structures. Limited vocabulary. Frequent use of ambiguous or culturally limited choices, which force interpretations on the part of the reader. Occasional positive features.
Demonstrates incompetence	2 1	<i>Clearly unacceptable</i> from most points of view. Almost total lack of vocabulary resources, little or no sense of idiom and/or style. Essentially translated from English.
Floating point		A one-point bonus should be awarded for a coherent and well-organised essay or for a particularly inventive one.

3.6 Field Problems and Limitations of the Methodology

Obviously, conducting interviews with the students who did the think-aloud protocol was an important stage in the process of data collection. However, this task was not completed for a number of reasons. After the think-aloud protocol had been completed, I read every protocol carefully and took notes of the points that needed more clarification. It was my intention to use stimulated recall during the interviews to remind the students of certain points that needed further illustration and discussion. However, this procedure was not completed as most of the students refused to be recorded; maybe they were tense and did not want to go through the whole procedure once more. One student showed up and reluctantly agreed to be recorded, but he was unable to give answers to most of the points I asked about. He justified this by saying “I do not know” or “I really forgot that”. Two days later he contacted me requesting me not to use the interview in my research as he felt that he was not smart enough in his answers. As a result, the TAPs were not backed up by interviews to get more reliable findings.

I also collected compositions written in Arabic from the same students who had undertaken the TAP. The students were asked to write an Arabic composition about the same topic they had written about in English. The samples were rated by two Arabic teachers for writing quality and coherence. It was also my intention to apply Grabe and Kaplan’s (1996) and Sercombe’s (2002) frameworks to these samples to spot the students’ writing problems. Such an analysis could possibly have generated more important comparable data that would perhaps have provided justifications for the writing problems related to negative interlingual transfer. However, this procedure has not been completed because I was advised by Newcastle University staff not to

extend my research by adding extra Arabic samples. Similarly, my supervisor thought that the research would be rather long and unmanageable if Arabic data were added, therefore only English data were obtained and analysed.

3.7 Summary of the Data

Table 3.9 summarises the sets of data, and shows which part of the data answers which research question and hypothesis. The left-hand column shows the stages of the study and the nature of the collected data, whereas the second column presents the number of samples, and the third the relevant research questions and hypotheses.

Table 3.9: Summary of data collected

Initial study	Procedures	Research purposes addressed
	11 written essays	RQ1 and Hypothesis one
Piloting stage of the WSQ	7 teachers and colleagues 11 students	
Main study Questionnaires Think-aloud protocols	144 students 11 students	RQ2 and RQ2.1
Data analysis	WSQ and TAPs	RQ 2.1, 2.2 and RQ3, and Hypothesis two

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the methods used to investigate the relationship between the writing strategies of the Saudi students and their written product. Mixed methods have been used to explore the aims of the research: written samples, a Likert-scale questionnaire, and think-aloud protocols. In addition, the chapter provided a detailed

account of the process of data collection, the nature of the data, the participants, the methods of data analysis, and the analytical framework of the study, and also discussed problems encountered in the field. The next chapter will include a detailed description of the data analysis.

Chapter Four:

Results and Discussion I: The Preliminary Study (Diagnostic Test) and Writing Strategy Questionnaire

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the results of the analysis of the written samples collected for the preliminary study (diagnostic test) of this research. The analysis and results appear to support the first hypothesis and research question (see section 1.4) which are: H1: English academic writing of male students at King Abdul-Aziz suffers from many problems, RQ1: What are the general features that appear in the academic writing of the final-year Saudi students at the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University?

Further, this chapter reports the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the writing strategy questionnaire (WSQ) administered to students of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University. The major purpose of the questionnaire and the analysis is to investigate the writing strategies used by the Saudi male students as reported by them; consequently, the present chapter provides answers to the second research question and its sub-divisions, which are: RQ2: What kind of writing strategies do Saudi male students (report that they) employ or do they really employ when they write in English? RQ2.1: How frequently and effectively do Saudi male students use them? RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in students' writing, what are the reasons behind this? (For more details of the RQs see 1.4.)

The main body of the chapter falls into three parts: the first part presents the results of the qualitative analysis of the preliminary study, the diagnostic test of this research. The second and third parts describe the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the WSQ in an attempt to shed light on the kinds of writing strategies the Saudi male English-major students report using in their academic writing.

4.2 Results of the Analysis of the Writing Diagnostic Test and Answering the First Hypothesis and the First RQ

To validate the ground of the rationale for this research, support the first hypothesis, and find answers to the first research question, as stated in (3.3), I collected eleven written samples from the composition class of final-year students of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University. The samples were analysed following the frameworks of Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Sercombe (2002) to check the overall writing quality (see 3.3.1.3, 2.3 and 2.4). The analysis covers two main categories: sentential and intersentential aspects of the text. The former covers writing mechanics such as punctuation and grammatical errors, while the latter includes language usage that contributes to coherence and cohesion. The analysis also includes an examination of the causes or sources of L1 interference at both levels, for their importance in explaining some of the students' rhetorical problems. The rationale behind considering only these aspects is that I was constrained by space, and these surface-type issues, rather than style, for example, are heavily emphasised in teaching writing in KSA.

Broadly speaking, most of the eleven students do not exhibit good and clear written texts. Only one student (S11, see Appendix 1) shows a clear writing style in terms of producing cohesive and coherent writing that is almost error free. Table 4.1 summarises the most frequent features and problems registered in the eleven essays.

Table 4.1: Students’ problems at the sentential and intersentential level

<u>Sentential problems</u>	<u>Intersentential problems</u>
Word order	Underdeveloped ideas
Articles	Lack of appropriate supporting details
Prepositions	Direct translation
Subject–verb agreement	Unrelated ideas
Spelling	Coherence of the sentences
Formality of style	
Capitalisation and punctuation	
Verb tense	
Vocabulary: word choice	
Conjunctions	
Incomplete sentences	
Cohesion	

The first column presents sentential problems, the second shows the intersentential breakdowns. Examples of these problems will be presented in the following section.

4.2.1 Results of the Qualitative Analysis at the Sentential Level

Before commencing detailed analysis, it is essential to discriminate between error and mistake. According to Corder (1967, 1971) and James (1998), a mistake can be self-corrected, but errors cannot. Errors tend to be “systematic”, which means they are likely to occur frequently and not be recognised as errors by the learner. Thus,

teachers identify them rather than learners (Gass and Selinker, 1994). When a student repeats the same writing problem without being able to correct it by himself, we consider this as an error that needs to be diagnosed and treated effectively.

It was found that the writing quality is generally poor (for university-level majors in English) and students seem not to be able to use complex grammatical structures due to their limited linguistic competence and insufficient vocabulary.

Note that in the analysis below I refer to the samples as (S), and all the data is quoted verbatim. Bold is used to highlight the issue under discussion.

4.2.1.1 Sequence of tenses

Some students fail to follow the right sequence of tenses in writing their paragraphs, which gets in the way of understanding the text. For example:

1- **“There **were also** students from the third world **do not** got the help eleemosynary corporation and state enterprise at the major powers coordination and couerence the united nations (un) manning school” (S8)*

2- **“I **think** in the developing countrise many families are poors or **didn’t** have money to let thier children complete thier Education, so they **send** thier Children to work to **broughte** money, so they **did** good thing, but if can let their Children study that **will be best**, becouse when the person get good education he will get good work , and bring more money them that” (S2)*

In the above examples, we can see that besides prolonged and unclear meaning, the students could not maintain the tense sequence that would facilitate reading the text.

4.2.1.2 Subject–verb agreement

Lack of subject–verb agreement can be seen in most of the samples. This indicates that the students lack the most essential basics of correct grammar:

3- **“the boys **changes** by the all around for him” (S4)*

4- **“**they needs** to eat, wear, drink” (S1)*

4.2.1.3 Word order

Although wrong word order relates to sentential problems, its presence greatly affects the unity of the text, as seen in the following examples:

5- **“In begging ((what **them** can do?))” (S3)*

6- **“The children **poors** working for other reasons” (S1)*

In example number (5), despite unclear meaning, the student adds an unnecessary pronoun before the auxiliary *can* instead of putting *they* after it. In example (6), the student puts the adjective after the noun instead of putting it before. This is transferred from the Arabic system of writing, where adjectives follow nouns.

4.2.1.4 Prepositions

Most of the samples suffer from the use of wrong prepositions, which can sometimes change or confuse the meaning completely. For example:

7- **“I do not agree because **on** children’s take tracheas **on** life study after that resertsh on job” (S5)*

8- * *“that I the order to goes **of** children **with**” (S2)*

The meaning is completely impenetrable (i.e. ‘global error’), and the student uses two unnecessary prepositions.

9- **“those who think they shouldn't because it's lead them to be dranked now I will start now will start tell you my opinion **for** lines” (S6).*

In example number (9) the student uses *for* instead of *about*.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1997) find two main reasons for the difficulty Arabic-speaking students find in using English prepositions: “complexity of the prepositional system itself in each language” and the fact that “each preposition can indicate several different relations” (p. 76). For example, the English preposition *at* can be used to refer to place, distance, order, frequency, period of time, etc. Conversely, the same relationship can be expressed by more than one preposition, as in this constructed example, where time is the reference expressed by three different prepositions:

At 6 o'clock; in June; on Monday.

In general, there is no one-to-one correspondence between prepositions in English and Arabic. For example, three prepositions in English stand for one equivalent meaning in Arabic: *in*, *at*, and sometimes *of* can all be translated into في/*fee* in Arabic. Scott

and Tucker (1974) confirm this by stating that “an Arabic preposition may be translated by several English prepositions” (p. 85). Therefore, confusion may occur when Arabic-speaking students try to equate the meaning of a preposition with one in Arabic and translate literally, as we have seen in most of the examples above (e.g. 7, 8, 9). The result of this is that the intended meaning is not sustained (for more examples see the section below).

4.2.1.5 Punctuation marks

The results of the data analysis show that a large number of students use incorrect punctuation marks, or frequently omit punctuation marks and replace them with conjunctions such as *and*, *but* or *so*. This creates run-on sentences. For example, some students do not use capital letters at the beginning of the sentence:

10-* “3-trying traveling for happy from life old. they are lifes sad and very bad. because don't enght mony and teach”(S1)

In this example, although the intended meaning is difficult to retrieve, the student separates what are supposed to be the subordinate and coordinate clauses with a full stop instead of a comma. Most likely, the student wants to say: “Trying to travel away from the old life to a happy one because they do not have enough money or education”.

Moreover, the student uses lower-case letters after the full stop. This indicates that he does not understand the sentence boundary, which starts with a capital letter and finishes with a full stop. It could be argued that this is not important to the meaning,

but in an educational context, especially where students are majoring in English and expected to become English teachers, such mechanical problems should not be present in their writing.

Other students fail to use correct punctuation marks; they replace them with *and* or omit them completely. In the following examples, in addition to omitting punctuation marks, the student capitalises some words in the middle of the sentence:

11- **“their Children complete thier Education, so they send thier Children to work to bringe money”*(S2)

12- * *“by good way and them help the children for complete and finished all school leeeval . the developing country build the children for future and them”* (S4)

13- * *I don't agree because on children's take tracheas on life study after that resertsh on job but this only retch children's* (S5)

In example 11, three words are capitalised without any justification, and in 12, the student replaces the comma by *and*; and in 13, the conjunction *but* is not preceded by a comma. These findings mirror those of Johnstone (1991), who reported that Arabic punctuation does not follow the same rules as English. Arabic punctuation marks are similar to English ones in their shape, except for the comma which is reversed (،) but they are of minimal use because the punctuation system in Arabic is much freer than that in English, as Smith (2003) states. Therefore, Arab students may have difficulty in using the proper punctuation system in English. The findings also echo of Charteris-Black (1997), who reports cases where students avoid using “punctuation ... altogether by substituting a coordinate conjunction, for example, ‘but’ ...[and] ‘and’” Charteris-Black (1997, p. 23).

4.2.1.6 Spelling mistakes/orthography

For the most part, the students' writing suffers from spelling mistakes that leave the reader constantly guessing at the meaning. Some of these errors are major orthography problems. For example:

14-* *"I don't agree because on children's take tracheas on life study after that resertsh on job but this only retch children's"* (S5)

15-* *"get to carier very good"* (S1)

16-* *"Work let any one know how to be responsible us obildern"* (S7)

The above sentences leave the reader struggling to infer the intended meaning. The underlined words make the task of reading the text difficult; therefore, we can consider them major writing errors. However, we also see some minor orthography problems that do not affect the meaning, such as:

17-* *"We must give them some necession with some help of us because the child need something good of him and make his family very happy of him"* (S9)

18-* *"My opinim am agree them if countries do't help them"* (S3)

These problems have been attributed by Kharma and Hajjaj (1997) to the "great irregularity of spelling [in English] compared to the way the letters and words are actually pronounced... Arabic spelling, by contrast, is quite regular. Arabic phonemes are usually written in one and the same form wherever they occur" (p. 56).

4.2.1.7 Underdeveloped paragraphs and short sentences

The paragraph is considered an important aspect of a mature essay. However, some students wrote short paragraphs that did not contain a complete meaning. In fact, some of them wrote sentences that showed their lack of essential essay-writing skills, as we see in the essay below taken from (S1):

*19- * "I thing it is don't work children work early, because don't healthy for lifes. But teach early very good from late, help to get good learning.*

But problem in poors children must go to work in small, get to many becouse life.

Teach learning in small children get to student

1- good learning.

2- get to carier very good

3- after school he's more teach and mony from work

4- he can learning children coming schools down becous better learning.

(deffrent children poors)

they are go to work becous get to many for eat, wear, family and others. They are lifes very bad and don't teach early. The children poors working for other resons.

1- get to many for easy life

2- they needs to eat, wear, drink.

3-trying traviling for happy from life old.

they are lifes sad and very bad.

becouse don't enght mony and teach.

Learning and don't go to school.

Always work" (S1)

Table 4.2 shows that some paragraphs consist of between two and five words (e.g. paragraph 4). The student wrote 155 words, distributed across 16 paragraphs. In (S1) the student fails to write a single complete and coherent paragraph. A second issue is that the introductory paragraph fails to build a set of hierarchal relations to develop the essay in a logical way. Third, it is really unclear where the body or the conclusion of the essay is. Fourth, some paragraphs are not good enough to even be called sentences. An essay is supposed to have a topic paragraph that includes a hook, and a controlling idea. The body paragraph should include discussion or examples to support the controlling ideas set forth in the introduction. The concluding paragraph should round off the essay and confirm the ideas introduced in the introduction.

Table 4.2: Analysis of an essay with underdeveloped paragraphs

The essay question	<i>“In many developing countries, children are sent to the workplace at an early age. In the developed countries many people think this is damaging and wrong, but others would argue that that their work brings them a sense of contribution, belonging and responsibility . What is your opinion?”</i>
Paragraph 1	I thing it is don't work children work early, because don't healthy for lifes. But teach early very good from late, help to get good learning.
Paragraph 2	But problem in poors children must go to work in small, get to many becouse life.
Paragraph 3	Teach learning in small children get to student
Paragraph 4	1- good learning.
Paragraph 5	2- get to carier very good
Paragraph 6	3- after school he's more teach and mony from work
Paragraph 7	4- he can learning children coming schools down becous better learning.
Paragraph 8	(deffrent children poors)
Paragraph 9	they are go to work becous get to many for eat, wear, family and others. They are lifes very bad and don't teach early. The children poors working for other resons.
Paragraph 10	1- get to many for easy life
Paragraph 11	2- they needs to eat, wear, drink.

Paragraph 12	3-trying traviling for happy from life old.
Paragraph 13	they are lifes sad and very bad.
Paragraph 14	becouse don't enght mony and teach.
Paragraph 15	Learning and don't go to school.
Paragraph 16	Always work" (S1).

This essay lacks the internal coherence that is created when each sentence in the paragraph supports a main thesis statement. The introductory paragraph is abrupt because it does not introduce a topic to be discussed and developed in the body of the essay. In fact, this essay is better considered as a group of separate sentences, each of which fails to discuss a single topic or focus on a main point that has already been mentioned in the thesis, and the student fails to relate the ideas in a logical and unified way to the help the reader build a plausible scenario of the discussion.

Underdeveloped paragraphs can also be seen in essays two, three, five and ten (for more details see Appendix 1).

4.2.2 Results of the Qualitative Analysis at the Intersentential Level

Structural organisation is one of the important factors that should be considered when studying the internal relations of a text. Hence, the qualitative analysis of the data indicates that students' writing suffers from underdeveloped ideas, i.e. students fail to develop a complete idea that makes sense. It also suffers from a lack of appropriate supporting details, and the presence of direct translation.

4.2.2.1 Underdeveloped ideas and lack of appropriate supporting details

Generally speaking, an English text is considered unified when ideas are related to each other by virtue of their meaning. An idea that wanders is considered to break unity and coherence. The samples under analysis suffer in most cases from many ideational problems. For example:

	Example (S5)	Problem	Comment
Sentence S1	<i>"I don't agree because on children's take tracheas on life study after that resertsh on job . but this only retch children's"</i>	Textual problem Incoherent meaning	The sentence fails to introduce a meaning that can be discussed in the following sentence(s).

In the sentence above, the student fails to convey a unified meaning that proposes or encapsulates the sentences. Throughout the essay, he does not succeed in presenting his opinion or showing whether he is for or against child labour:

	Example (S5)	Problem	Comment
Sentence S1	<i>I agree childern work because help family bring necessary in come form an early age .</i>	Textual problem Incoherent topic sentence	The sentence presents the student's opinion. The presentation indicates that the student is unaware of the structure of the argument
S2	<i>Get good responsibility</i>	Incomplete sentence	
S3	<i>I don't agree because on children's take tracheas on life study after that resertsh on job.</i>	Textual problem	Opposite opinion to what was mentioned in the first sentence
S4	<i>but this only retch children's"</i>	Textual problem	Unclear meaning

This kind of paragraph indicates that the student is unfamiliar with how to structure a coherent argument. Furthermore, most of the essays show similar textual problems, as seen in the following lines from (S4) essay:

	Example (S4)	Problem	Comment
Sentence S1	<i>I think all this thing help children in 3 world there are many different and change opinion for children form , in 3 world don't care ul learn and school some (country very poor and more people , to learn bad health ,bad economy the children in the 3 world work in the street , without any look for future</i>	Textual problem Incoherent topic sentence	The sentence presents the student's opinion. The presentation indicates that the student is unaware of the structure of the argument
S2	<i>the boys changes by the all around for him</i>	Incomplete sentence	
S3	<i>when the children life in good whether will develop for better</i>	Textual problem	Opposite opinion to what was mentioned in the first sentence
S4	<i>but this only retch children's"</i>	Textual problem	Unclear meaning

In this text, the student fails to present a topic sentence, including a controlling idea, and he also fails to provide examples that support his argument. In addition, he fails to orient the reader with respect to the context, so the reader has to infer the intended meaning by guessing, depending on vocabulary and phrases such as: '*change opinion*', '*in 3 world don't care*', '*learn*', '*bad economy*', '*work in the street*', '*without any look for future*', and not on a well-developed argument. In general, the paragraph does not develop further arguments, nor does it sustain coherence. The

student fails completely, in the second and the third sentences, to encapsulate his argument or propose new ideas for discussion, and hence to create a coherent and unified essay. He also repeats certain words to indicate that he is still discussing the same topic instead of presenting supporting details.

Generally speaking, such intersentential problems can block the reader's (global) understanding of the topic. The samples analysed above suffer from underdeveloped ideas as well as unrelated supporting details that obscure the meaning of the text to a great extent.

4.2.2.2 Direct translation

Among other problems encountered in the data is literal translation from L1 Arabic into English. Students often try to translate from Arabic into English, as we can see in the following examples. In the first part of these examples is the sentence in English, and in the second its equivalent in Arabic transliteration, and in the third the Arabic translation:

20-* "*but problem **in poors** children must go to work in small, get to many because*

*Laken almoshkilah fi alfoqara awlad yajeb azhaboo ela alamal fi saghera leana
life" (S1)*

hayat

و لكن المشكلة في الاولاد الفقراء الذين يجب ان يذهبوا للعمل صغار ليحصلوا على النقود لان الحياة

21-* "*I do not agree because **on** children's take tracheas **on** life study after that
resertsh on job" (S5)*

Ana la owafeq leana alawlad ae hozona –tacheas al3 alhayata alderasah b3da zalik yabhatho 3an shoqil

انا لاوافق لان الاولاد يأخذون ... في الحياة الدراسة بعد أن يبحثو عن شغل.

In (20), the student translates the preposition *in* from Arabic instead of using *of* in English. As mentioned above, English prepositions can be a source of difficulty for Arabic-speaking students because we seldom find a one-to-one correspondence between the two languages. Less-proficient students may be unaware of this lack of correspondence and consequently have problems in using these prepositions, which in turn affects the internal structure of the text and changes the intended meaning, as seen in the above samples.

Unlike English adjectives, Arabic adjectives accept plural forms. However, students may apply the grammatical rules of their mother tongue when writing in English and, for example, write '*poors*' instead of *poor* (20).

These findings reflect those reached in previous studies that investigate the interference of Arabic L1 with the target language L2. For example, Mohammed (2000) states "as far as the distance between the native and the target language is concerned, learners are often misled by the partial similarities between the two languages" (p. 129). Similarly, Al-Khresheh (2010) confirms that errors occur as a result of interference between the two languages and this is due to some "learners' inability to think in English. Spontaneously, they use their first language (L1) as a crutch to understand English" (p. 113). He also attributes the interlingual errors to the "transfer of L1 habits" (p. 113).

Inability to use capital letters correctly can also be attributed to literal translation, since Arabic does not demonstrate any differences between the upper and lower-case letters. The samples below demonstrate this case:

22-* *“I think all this thing help children. **in** 3 world there are many different and change opinion for children form , in 3 world don't care ul learn and school . some (country very poor and more people , to learn bad health ,bad economy . **the** children in the 3 world work in the street , without any look for future . the boys changes by the all around for him . when the children life in good whether will develop for better”*
(S4)

23-* *“In my opinion that aggod to let them responsible . that I the order to goes of children with . **the** disadvantages when they get a lot of many they start to play with it and buy a lot of unusable stuff . **the** farther should two teach them how to spent they many first then let them work with him or let them start small work idea”* (S6)

24-* *“Work let any one know how to be responsible us **obildern** . **there** fathers take them to work with him to teach them that some time it is work and some not . the reasons is he is stell as boy , hwwant to play a lot , go out with friends”* (S7)

These examples (for students' essays see Appendix 1) show that the majority of the students repeatedly fail to use capital letters after full stops, and seem to simply transfer the convention of their native language, where there is no such rule, to the target language.

Charteris-Black (1997) and Smith (2003) confirm these findings in their studies, where Smith (2003) highlights the absence of the distinction between the upper and lower-case letters in both Arabic and English in the writing of Arabic-speaking

students. They also report the presence of run-on sentences as a result of the absence of this mechanism.

However, the data above shows the presence of some punctuation marks, like the comma, despite the failure to capitalise the words after full stops.

4.2.3 Summary

The results of the analysis justify further investigation to be undertaken in an attempt to find solutions to the writing problems of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University. They also validate the first research hypothesis and provide answers to the first research question:

H1: English academic writing of male students at King Abdul-Aziz suffers from many problems.

RQ1: What are the general features that appear in the academic writing of the final-year Saudi students at the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University?

Generally speaking, as shown above, the students' writing suffers from many overt and covert problems, such as sequence of tenses, lack of subject-verb agreement, incorrect use of prepositions, spelling mistakes/orthography, short sentences, and underdeveloped paragraphs. It was also found that students' writing suffers from underdeveloped ideas, lack of appropriate supporting details, and direct translation.

The next section presents an analysis of the writing strategies questionnaire (WSQ) that sheds light on the writing strategies students reported using while writing their tasks.

4.3 The Results of the Analysis of the Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ)

This part presents the qualitative and quantitative analyses of the questionnaire that was administered to the students at King Abdul-Aziz University. The main objective of the questionnaire is to investigate the writing strategies employed by the students, as reported by them. This was carried out by providing statements for the students to report about the writing strategies they use (see Appendix 3). Further, the questionnaire provides answers to the second research question with its sub-divisions:

RQ2. What kind of writing strategies do Saudi male students (report that they) employ or do they really employ when they write in English?

RQ2.1: How frequently and effectively do Saudi male students use them?

RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in students' writing, what are the reasons behind this? (for more discussion about the RSQs see 1.3).

The results of the questionnaire will be divided into two parts: the first part, presented here, will present the results from the 144 students, and the second part (presented in Chapter Five section 5.2.1) will discuss the results from the eleven students involved in the TAP.

The rationale behind administering the questionnaire is to investigate what strategies the students say they use in the writing process. The questionnaire was given to 156 students in total and ran for 50 minutes. However, of these questionnaires, eleven were given to the students who undertook the TAP after finishing the written task to get more in-depth ideas about the kinds of writing strategies employed during writing, and to gather retrospective self-report on the way the essay was written during the TAP (for analysis of the eleven samples see 5.2.1). The rationale behind asking students to fill in the questionnaire after the written task was to reduce the possibility of them conforming to the strategies mentioned in the questionnaire during the TAP. For more consistent results, the questionnaire is adopted from El-Mortaji (2001), Alnofl (2003), and El-Aswad (2003) to mirror the framework of Hayes and Flowers (1981, 1983). The items represent four clusters: meta-cognitive, cognitive, social, and affective, as outlined by Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005) (for discussion see 2.6). The questionnaire contains Arabic translations for better understanding on the part of the students (for more details see 3.4 and Appendix 3).

4.3.1 Results and Discussions of the Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of the WSQ for the 144 Students

For this section, I will first present the quantitative analysis, and then the qualitative findings. The aim of the quantitative analysis is to provide more reliable and precise information by using the statistics presented by the qualitative analysis. The aim of the qualitative analysis, however, is to aggregate the words into groups of information and present the diversity of ideas gathered from the data collection.

Thus, the results are presented in tables and are based on the analysis of the four clusters, i.e. meta-cognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies, which are the focus of the questionnaire (for the questionnaire, see Appendix 3). Under each strategy, students' responses are recorded based on descriptive statistics, where the frequency, mean and standard deviation are reported and presented in a chart. The degree of agreement with different writing strategies is measured as in the following sections.

4.3.1.1 Quantitative analysis and discussion of meta-cognitive strategies

Table 4.3 shows that the “Agree” response was the most frequent feedback in response to questions probing the use of meta-cognitive strategies. This indicates that the students' reported engagement with meta-cognitive skills while they are writing is high, with an average of 3.54.

Table 4.3: Statistics of the responses to questions about meta-cognitive strategies

Strongly agree to use a strategy		Agree to use a strategy		Not sure		Disagree to use a strategy		Strongly disagree to use a strategy		Mean	Attitude
Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
3	2.1	76	52.8	61	42.4	4	2.8	0	0	3.54	Agree

The statistics of the statements under this cluster are as shown in Table 4.4. The table shows that the response “I try to check what I have written before handing it to my teacher” was the most frequent feedback, with a mean of 4.36. This suggests that the students are aware of the importance of the reviewing strategies, and that they are trying to apply what they have been taught to maintain their standard of writing.

Table 4.4: The statistics of the individual questions probing the use of meta-cognitive strategies

Strategies	Standard deviation	Mean
I try to check what I have written before handing it to my teacher	0.79	4.36
I plan my writing before I start	0.974	3.94
I think of the way I organise my writing	0.86	3.91
When I write, I stop quite often to read what I have written before continuing	1.191	3.59
I imagine things to be able to write	1.139	3.56
I always think of similar situations	1.003	3.46
I only plan the introduction	1.043	3.33
I always compare my writing with previous composition to see if I have improved my writing level	1.175	3.26
I like to write alone and not to see the writing of my friends (without comparing my writing with the writing of my classmates?)	1.352	3.16
I read and compare my writing with the writing of my friends	1.229	3.03
I do not plan my writing beforehand	1.141	2.22

Furthermore, a fair number of students mentioned that they plan their writing, and a similar number stated that they think about the way they organise their writing. However, 3.33 reported that they plan only their introductions, while the smallest number of students revealed that they do not plan their writing at all.

A number of the students (3.59) stated that they stop and revise their writing before they finish in order to be able to gather and relate their ideas. They also reported that they imagine things to be able to write, and a similar percentage of students (3.46) said that they always think of similar situations when they are trying to write. This

means that students stimulate their imagination in order to help them write. The table also shows that there is no significant difference between students who mention that they always compare their writing with previous writing, and those who say that they compare it with the writing of their friends. Finally, a fair number of students declared that they do not like to see the writing of their friends and they prefer to write alone. This indicates that students are aware of the importance of social strategies, but some of them prefer not to use them.

Generally speaking, at the meta-cognitive processing level, most of the subjects recorded higher means with the “Agree” response. Three subjects opted for the neutral “Not sure” response. Only one subject gave a negative response. However, it is worth mentioning that students may report something they do not actually do when writing. A close analysis of the TAPs reveals that the students hardly ever do what they claim they do.

4.3.1.2 Qualitative analysis of the meta-cognitive strategies

The above quantitative analysis in general shows positive behaviour on the part of the students. The main aim of investigating this behaviour is to discover the general strategies that students use during the planning, monitoring and reviewing stages. The meta-cognitive strategies are very important in writing because, as O’Malley and Chamot (1990) state, they are used to monitor the learning process as a whole, and they include self-monitoring, selective attention, direct attention, advanced and functional planning, self-management and self-evaluation strategies, and delayed production.

Out of the eleven items (see Table 4.4) that elicit students' attitudes towards meta-cognitive strategies, the majority of the responses were inclined above mid-scale frequency "Not sure". The mean results for all of the items range between 2.22 and 4.36, which means that the students' responses indicate that they are well aware of the desired actions involved in the writing process. However, students' writings as seen in the preliminary study and the TAPs showed that they do not act out this awareness.

Planning and reviewing seem to be the highest two strategies reported by the students, with means of 3.94 and 4.36, respectively. Regarding the former, the students reported that they plan in terms of how to organise their writing and create a mental picture. However, the majority report that they only plan their introductions. This finding is consistent with Armengol-Castells (2001) and El-Aswad (2002), who state that, given a topic, Arab students would immediately create a mental plan to generate ideas of what to write. In reviewing, the students report that they monitor what they have written while writing as well as when they have finished. Students also report that they compare and review their work with previous written pieces that they have completed, and also they compare their writing with their friends' work. These findings are in line with Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) and Al-Ghamdi (2009), who point out that participants in their studies used meta-cognitive strategies to regulate learning English, therefore they observed themselves while learning their target language, and set themselves goals.

From the aforementioned it can be concluded that male students at King Abdul-Aziz University are aware of the role of meta-cognitive strategies in writing to engage

mental planning, monitoring, and reviewing. The fact that they appear to be conscious that they are supposed to plan, revise, edit, and confer with teachers and friends proves that their knowledge of meta-cognitive strategies exists and is accurate. According to Schmitt (2002), this awareness is a signal that the students possess the understanding to manage their language learning, in this case their writing. However, to be objective, we can say that students do not necessarily do in practice what they write in theory.

4.3.1.3 Quantitative analysis and discussion of cognitive strategies

The analysis of the reported cognitive strategies shows that most of the students stated that they think before writing, with a mean average of 4.49.

Table 4.5: Statistics of the responses to questions about cognitive strategies

Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Mean	Attitude
Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	3.79	Agree
11	7.6	93	64.6	39	27.1	1	0.7	0	0		

Table 4.5 shows that the “Agree” response was the most frequent given answer, with the average mean of 3.79. This value indicates the students’ positive engagement with the cognitive skills. The means and standard deviations of responses to cognitive strategies statements are measured. A mean of 4.49 of the students declared that they always think of what they want to write before writing, and 4.36 declared that they try to make the question simple so that they can answer it more easily. A number (4.17) of the students mentioned that they always check for spelling and grammatical

mistakes, and 4.02 said that they use dictionaries to check for new vocabulary or correct spelling.

The quantitative analysis also shows that there is no significant difference between students who mentioned that they use ideas from textbooks when they write (mean = 3.53) and those who like to organise their writing according to ideas discussed previously (mean = 3.47), or those who do not use any memorised ideas while writing. A very similar percentage said that they like to write their own ideas (mean = 3.42), or make notes about certain points (mean = 3.32). The results also showed that 3.31 of the students always write a draft, and 3.14 always memorise things from textbooks and include them in their compositions. In addition, 3.08 said that they refer to similar topics discussed during the course, whereas 2.89 said that they always memorise things from lectures and use them in their writing. Although this is what the students report, these results do not reflect what they actually do, because neither the analysis of the written samples for this study nor the students' grade-point average (GPA) shows that this is the case.

4.3.1.4 Qualitative analysis and discussion of cognitive strategies

The main aim of this category is to find the strategies that the students use most frequently in processing and transforming information into a written product. Out of the twelve items that elicit students' attitude towards the cognitive strategies, the majority of the students again responded above mid-scale frequency "Not sure". This means that in theory the students are not fully aware of the way they can transform their information into writing.

Nonetheless, the mean results for all of the items also range from 2.89 to 4.49, thus showing that students report that they use the appropriate strategies in the writing process. The highest four strategies reported by the students are thinking before writing, simplifying questions, checking for grammar and spelling, and using the dictionary, with the means 4.49, 4.36, 4.17, and 4.02, respectively. These high mean scores show that male students in King Abdul-Aziz University would like perhaps to plan their writing first, if they knew how, before engaging in the writing activity. The planning stage includes writing a draft, thinking of ideas, making notes on certain ideas being presented, and organising the ideas appropriately.

This seems to agree with findings from Alam (1993) and Halimah (2001), who stated that Arabic students planned their writing first, but unlike Alam's (1993) and Halimah's (2001) subjects, male students at King Abdul-Aziz University stated that they always write a draft. Furthermore, students tend to use ideas that they come across in reading for their courses, but they do not memorise ideas for writing purposes or rely on the same topics discussed in class. In terms of reviewing and editing, the students mostly responded that they always review for spelling and grammar. These are effective strategies when writing, according to McCrindle and Christensen (1995). However, it is worth stressing that my observation of the students at King Abdul-Aziz University indicates that they do not always plan their writing, nor do they write drafts. The analysis of the think-aloud protocols (see Chapter Five) confirms to a large extent that only skilled students planned their writing (for more discussion see 5.3.2).

4.3.1.5 Quantitative analysis and discussion of the social strategies

The average of the social strategies reported by the students is shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Statistics of the responses to questions about social strategies

Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Mean	Attitude
Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
8	5.6	62	43.1	68	47.2	6	4.2	0	0	3.50	Agree

Table 4.6 shows that the “Agree” response was the most frequent one given to show the engagement of social strategies in writing (mean = 3.50). The means and standard deviations of responses to the questions designed to elicit the attitudes to social strategies show that 4.03 of the students reported that if they find the composition difficult, they like to discuss it with a friend, whereas 3.58 thought differently, saying that they like to write their ideas down and solve any problem alone. Although 3.35 wrote that they would ask for the help of their teacher if they were having difficulty conveying their meaning while writing, 2.85 replied negatively, saying that they preferred to discuss any writing problem with their friends instead of their teacher. However, my personal experience as a teacher indicates that students may feel nervous of saying what they actually do, or perhaps overestimate what they do. Finally, 3.34 indicated that they like to see the writing of others and find out how they compose their ideas, while 3.28 of the students felt negatively about discussing their writing in front of others.

4.3.1.6 Qualitative analysis and discussion of the social strategies

The main aim of this category of question was to find out if students feel they have developed awareness of their own writing, and whether they can ask for the help of others. In fact, the quantitative analysis above shows positive responses from the students. There are six items under this strategy and the students' responses ranged between high agreement and neutral degrees. Nevertheless, most of the students are aware that they are not alone when encountering writing problems, responding positively for item 24 ("If I find the composition difficult, I like to discuss it with a friend") with a mean value of 4.03. Although item 25 ("I like to write my ideas down and try to solve any problems alone") received a more variable response, essentially the majority of the students responded positively and said that they like to ask others for help. Similarly, students responded positively to items 26, 27, 28, and 29 (see Appendix 3), which indicates that they are aware that seeking help is an effective strategy while keeping problems to oneself is not.

These findings are in line with Cohen and Dornyei (2002), who stated that interaction with others aids learning, and Shapira and Lazarowits (2005), who believed that social strategies facilitate further improvement in the writing process. The students responded quite variably to the remaining items. Despite this, they are aware of the help that is around them, it is just a matter of preference whom they want to seek help from. In regard to the social strategies, although the subjects who responded to the questionnaire typically provided high-agreement or neutral responses, the students who undertook the TAP hardly ever used social strategies.

4.3.1.7 Quantitative analysis and discussion of affective strategies

The main idea behind the affective category is to gather information on how the students cope with their emotions and attitudes towards the task at hand, in this case the writing task. The quantitative analysis showed that the “Agree” response was the most frequent one given to questions about the use of affective strategies (mean = 3.56, see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Statistics of the responses to questions about affective strategies

Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Mean	Attitude
Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	3.56	Agree
5	3.5	76	52.8	57	39.6	6	4.2	0	0		

The detailed means and standard deviations of responses to affective strategies are summarised in Table 4.8. According to Table 4.8, the response “If the composition is difficult to write, I try to calm down” was the most frequent one (mean = 4.07). Other responses were found at lower degrees of agreement.

Table 4.8: Statistics of the affective strategies statements

Strategies	Standard deviation	Mean
If the composition is difficult to write, I try to calm down	0.781	4.07
If the composition is difficult to write, I try to put it into simple English	0.913	4.07
I like writing in English	0.924	3.83
If I do not know exactly the meaning of a word, I use another one	1.064	3.81
If I am unable to use the right grammatical tense in English, I always try to use a simple tense	1.022	3.77
If I am confused about an English structure, I try to translate from Arabic	1.083	3.63
If the composition is difficult to write, I write only few sentences	1.149	3.59

If I have difficulties while writing, I try to take a break and do a different activity	1.14	3.53
If I get nervous, I cannot write	1.293	3.25
If I do not know how to write, I get nervous	1.197	2.97
If I do not understand a word, I try to avoid using it	1.327	2.91
If I have difficulty in spelling a word, I try to avoid using it	1.326	2.90
If I do not know the past and past participle of a verb, I usually add, for example, 'ed' to the present form to change it into past	1.215	2.88
Writing is a difficult task that makes me nervous	1.165	2.51

Table 4.8 shows that the first two items: 30 (“Writing is a difficult task that makes me nervous”) and 31 (“I like writing in English”) show the students’ positive attitude towards writing specifically in English. The majority of students feel that writing does not make them nervous even if they are writing in English.

The responses of the students to items 32, 33, 34, 35, and 36 were quite scattered, which shows that they may not all have effective means of dealing with problems during writing, as reflected in TAP data. When asked how they deal with difficulties while writing in item 32 (“If I have difficulties while writing, I try to take a break and do a different activity”), the students’ responses were split, with more than half agreeing that they try to take a break and do a different activity, while the rest of the students disagreed with this. From this outcome, it can be observed that some of the students have the impression that writing is a one-sitting-effort. In other words, they think they must start and end the writing in one session. This is similar to items 33 (“If I have difficulty in spelling a word, I try to avoid using it”) and 34 (“If I do not understand a word, I try to avoid using it”), where almost half of the students feel that avoidance is the answer to complex spelling and word-meaning problems. This shows

that not all of the students practise positive affective strategies in reducing anxiety or promoting self-encouragement.

The majority of students responded that they agree with item 35 (“If I do not know exactly the meaning of a word, I use another one”). Such a response means that the students do not put their positive affective strategies to use to allow them to calm themselves down, even in times when they are unsure or have little knowledge. Positive strategies at this time would allow them to think and focus better, perhaps through contextual guessing in order to understand the word instead of avoiding it. Items 36, 38, 39, and 41 (for the questionnaire see Appendix 3) show that the majority of the students resort to simple solutions when faced with difficulties, such as using simple tenses, and limiting the number of words in difficult compositions. This avoidance strategy helps students to maintain the primary focus of writing, which is to deliver information to the reader, pursue writing, and not give up. This conclusion contradicts Shapira and Lazarowitz’s (2005) findings, which argue that avoidance leads students to give up on the task.

On the other hand, the tendency to translate from Arabic into English is great among the students, as more than half of them agreed with item 37 (“If I am confused about an English structure, I try to translate from Arabic”). This means that they use this strategy in order to be able to communicate effectively through the written text (see 5.3.2). The findings seem to agree with El-Aswad (2002), who found that students resorted to L1 translation when faced with difficulties. It also mirrors the findings of Al-Ghamdi (2009), who stated that students “seemed to translate more frequently when using CITs [computer and internet tools], especially those students with a low

level of proficiency who indicated they used on-line dictionary more often. This might indicate that students with a low level of proficiency recognise their need to increase their vocabulary so they can do well in their exams at school and to become competent users of English” (p. 159).

Nevertheless, students reported that they have a positive attitude towards the affective strategy of trying to calm themselves down when going through difficulties in writing. The majority responded positively. However, the responses do not mirror those for item 42 (“If I do not know how to write, I get nervous”), where half of the students responded that they get nervous when they do not know what to write. Despite this, the responses to item 43 (“If I get nervous, I cannot write”) are in tangent with item 42, in that those who feel nervous are unable to write.

4.4 Summary

The present study views writing strategies as a set of processes that aim to fulfil two valuable functions: in addition to stimulating new ideas, the strategies help writers to consciously regulate their learning and improve their writing (see 2.6). For this reason, I have embarked on an analysis of the essays, a WSQ, and TAP (see Chapter Five). The first part of this chapter reports the analysis of the written essays based on the first research hypothesis and research question, while the second part focuses on the results of the analysis of the WSQ based on the second research question and its sub-category (RQs 2, 2.1).

The results of the essay analysis show that students' writing suffers from many sentential and intersentential problems. In addition to validating the research ground and answering the first research question, these results have required further investigation in order to identify the reasons behind the problems. Therefore, the analysis of the WSQ was the first step in the process of this identification.

The second part of this chapter reports the results of the WSQ and provides answers for RQ2 and 2.1. By showing the kinds of writing strategies Saudi male students report that they employ when they write in English (RQ2), the data analysis reveals that students have a positive attitude towards using the four types of writing strategy, namely: cognitive, meta-cognitive, social, and affective. The results further show that using cognitive strategies is the most frequent approach, followed by meta-cognitive, then affective, and, finally, social strategies. In so doing, this chapter finds answers for RQ2.1.

A cross-analysis of the results of the essay analysis and the WSQ indicates that, while the students claim to be using these strategies, in fact they are not doing so effectively. Therefore, further investigation needs to be conducted to provide an answer to RQ2 and RQ2.2. This will be undertaken in the next chapter, which presents the results of the analysis of the TAP and the eleven questionnaires filled in by the students who undertook the TAP.

Chapter Five:

Results and Discussion (II): The Think-aloud Protocol and the WSQ of the Eleven Students

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter Four I reported the results of the data analysis of the diagnostic test and the WSQ. I also provided answers to RQ1, RQ2, RQ2.1, and the first research hypothesis. The results of the analysis indicate that the students' writing suffers from many sentential and intersentential problems among others that cannot be discussed here due to space constraints. It also showed that the students have a positive attitude towards using the four writing strategies, namely: cognitive, meta-cognitive, social and affective. However, answering RQ2.2 was postponed to this chapter, as analysis of the protocols provides more material to support the answers.

In this chapter, I present the results of the TAP analysis and the WSQ that was administered to those students who undertook the TAPs. In general, the aims of the analyses are: to investigate the choice of strategies in the composition of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University; to classify these strategies into categories; to identify their occurrences, and to investigate whether they are used effectively or otherwise. The analysis also tries to show the differences in the use of strategies between skilled and less-skilled students (for more details about skilled and less-skilled students see 2.7). The objective of differentiating the students in this manner in the TAP task is to capture the features each group uses during the pre-writing, writing and post-writing stages. After that, a comparison of the results of the protocol analysis with the responses of every student to the strategy questionnaire will be undertaken.

The main body of the chapter falls into three parts: the first part presents the results of the analysis of the TAPs in general; the second, the results of the analysis of a protocol of a skilled student in comparison with their WSQ, and the third, the results of the analysis of the protocol of less-skilled students in comparison with their WSQs. Finally, the chapter then specifically addresses the following hypothesis and research questions, to see to what extent they can be answered:

H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English.

RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in the students' writing, what are the reasons behind this?

RQ3: What is the role of writing strategies in creating clear and good written texts in male Saudi context?

5.2 Analysis and Discussion of the Think-Aloud Protocols (TAP)

In this section, I present the results of the descriptive statistics of the TAP analysis of the eleven students in relation to their behaviour during the protocols at the pre-writing, writing, and post-writing stages. After establishing inter-rater reliability (see 3.5.6), the protocols were coded. The results of the codifications are placed in Figure 5.1 below, which illustrates the writing behaviours in relation to their types and frequencies. This provides a basis for generalising about the behaviours of the subjects in the composing process. (For an explanation of the codes used, see Appendix 5.)

Writing strategies of eleven TAP students

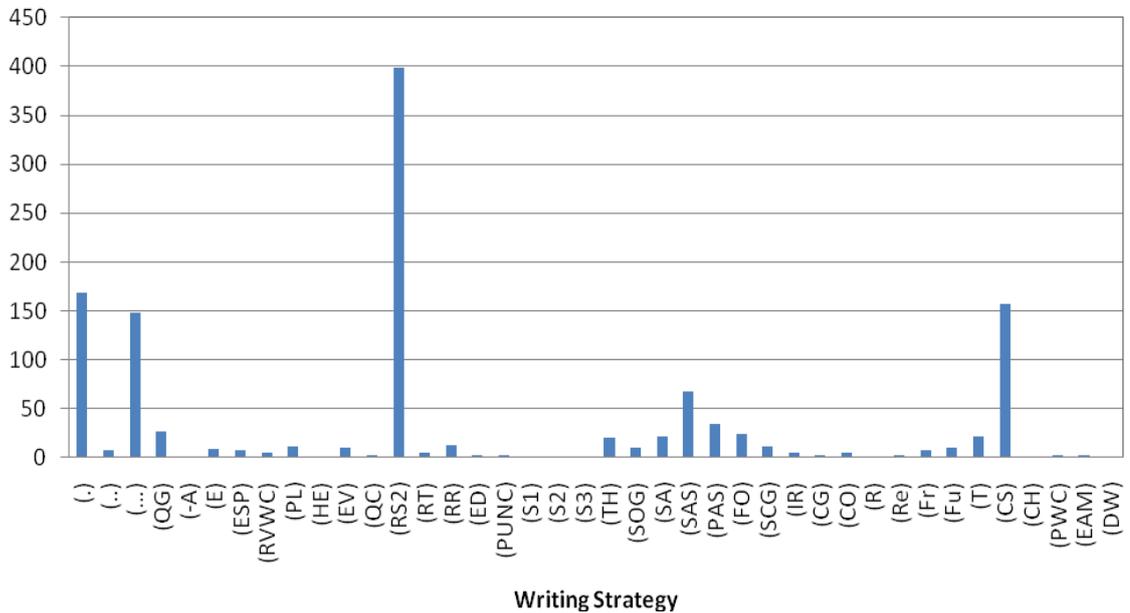


Figure 5.1: Writing strategies of the eleven TAP students

Figure 5.1 shows that pauses (./...), which range from short (less than one minute) to long (more than two minutes), are the most frequent features in the protocols (see Appendix 5), followed by re-reading two or more sentences (RS2) and code switching (CS). The high frequency of these strategies is expected, especially in a think-aloud protocol task, because students might feel uncomfortable verbalising their thoughts as their mental privacy will be interrupted by the researcher who is listening to the way they compose in English. This could be related to different factors such as the nature of the think-aloud protocol which interferes with their natural thinking processes.

The students tend to pause a lot; this could be attributed to the daunting nature of the task, or to the fact that they are juggling between continuously talking about what

they are thinking of while trying to complete their written task and the actual process of writing. It may also be related to the fact that this is the first time they have ever done such a task, so they may not be sure of what they are doing or trying to do, or perhaps they were scared of my presence there. It is worth remembering that KSA is a hierarchical society and these students may be scared of doing things wrong in front of superiors. It might also be related to the fact that they are thinking silently while they are generating ideas, as Flower and Hayes (1981b) and Rose (1984) showed in their studies (see 2.3). Another rationale for the high frequency of pauses might be the inability of the students to generate ideas, which could be attributed to the absence of a pre-planning stage, or to the difficult nature of the task.

It was noticeable that most of the students did not plan globally or locally (see section 2.3 for discussion of ‘global’ and ‘local’) for their topics (see 2.3, 2.7). This could be related to their underestimation of the role of *planning* as a meta-cognitive strategy in guiding them during the writing stage, or to the writing instruction they received which did not stress this value. This finding is consistent with El-Aswad (2002), who found that his students rarely made global plans for their topics. However, it differs from the findings of Sasaki’s (2000) study of Japanese students, who exhibited planning.

This finding is similar to the findings of Rose (1984) and Flower (1998, p. 49), who found that writer’s block occurs when the writing process is interrupted by internal obstacles where the student feels negative and unproductive, or when his self-critical attitude towards writing is not positive (see 2.3).

The next strategy that is frequently spotted among the students' protocols is re-reading (or rehearsing) sentences that have been written (RS2). By so doing, the students were actually fulfilling the requirement of the task, which is to continue verbalising their thoughts. They might also be trying to fill in the silent gaps between ideas and thus convince themselves that they are still doing the task correctly. It could also be that the students are recalling their thoughts or elaborating on the ideas they set forth in the planning stage. This strategy is very similar to what Weinstein and Mayer (1986) call the three rehearsal strategies that are part of the cognitive strategies, and include "the repetition of the information to be learned; and elaboration strategies, which link new knowledge and previously acquired information" (McCrinkle and Christensen, 1995, p. 170–71).

The next predominant strategy, with an average of 64%, is code switching (CS). Students resorted to their mother language – Arabic – when they were composing in English. This might happen because they were faced with some language difficulty that interrupted the flow of their ideas. We find that most of the students switched and mixed between languages in their protocols; this in turn raised problems of incompatibility. The most obvious ones include mismatches in grammatical categories, subcategories, and certain expressions.

Code switching is a strategy explored in other studies (see 2.4, 2.5, 2.6), such as that of Wang (2004), who reported the use of code switching as a predominant feature in some of his data. He related this to a low level of proficiency of the students. Similarly, Edelsky (1982) studied the writing of first-, second- and third-grade students in a bilingual study programme. Among the features Edelsky (1982)

considered was code switching. Her results indicate that the students used their first language strategy to aid their writing in the target language.

The next four strategies that occur frequently after the strategies mentioned above are self-assessment (SAS), positive assessment (PAS), using questions to generate text (QG), and stressing the format of writing (FO) (see Appendix 5). Only six of the eleven students used SAS while writing. It was noticeable that although this strategy, which can be considered an affective strategy, was used sixty-seven times during the protocols, thirty-three of those uses were by one skilled student (as discussed in more detail in 5.3.1), whereas others rarely used it. The same thing could be said about PAS, which was used thirty-four times by one student. The other ten students did not assess their work positively while carrying out the TAP task. This pattern also extended to the QG strategy, where students used questions to generate ideas. Out of the twenty-seven times this strategy was implemented, fourteen of them were by a skilled student, while the others used it sparingly. As for the format of writing (FO) strategy, only six students were found to use it in their writing, and out of them, three used it only once.

The next three most used strategies were translating from Arabic into English (T) phrases or complete sentences, showing signs of approval of what they had written (SA), and thinking to generate ideas (TH). The eleven students used these strategies evenly with almost the same frequencies. This seems to suggest that students do not think ahead much about what they want to write, and merely write what pops into their minds (as discussed in 5.3.2). The low frequency of thinking to generate ideas is explained in the knowledge-telling model, where students do not employ complex

problem-solving skills when writing, instead they engage in storytelling-like activity (as shown in the work of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987)). This rationale also explains the reasons for the low occurrences of setting content goals (SCG), and planning at sentence or paragraph level (PL).

As for the remaining strategies, they are used less than ten times cumulatively among the eleven students. Evaluating strategies such as revising and editing, either for specific information, meaning, spelling or grammar, were also minimally used. This could be related to the fact that the students have low levels of proficiency; they did not prepare for the task (although they were given some training, as described in 3.5.1), or they did not have any informed practice in the use of strategies, because although writing strategies are taught implicitly in the English classes, their application is not monitored.

Having identified the most prominent features of the TAP analysis, I shall now shed light on the responses of the eleven students to the statements of the WSQ.

5.2.1 Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ) of the Eleven Students

The eleven students who undertook the think-aloud protocol answered the questionnaire after it (see 3.2.1, 3.3.1.2, & 3.4.4). The WSQ provides supporting data for the TAPs about the students' strategies during the writing stage (for more details about the differences and functions of the TAPs and WSQ, see 3.3). It also allows me to compare the results of each TAP with those of the WSQ of the same student to

study whether he always does what he claims to be doing. In the next section, the significance of the WSQ and the responses of the students are presented.

5.2.1.1 Background questionnaire

In this section, an overall analysis of the WSQ is presented. This is included to show us the results of the background questionnaire and these confirm the following (for the questions see Appendix 3):

- Almost all the students had studied English for between eight and nine years at public/governmental schools.
- They mentioned that they wanted to study English for different purposes, such as to continue their postgraduate studies abroad, get better jobs, and occupy a better social status.
- With respect to Q3 about attending English courses outside the realm of their regular study, they almost all confirmed (apart from one student) that they did not receive any English support classes.
- Further, in answering Q4 about whether they had attended a public/governmental or private school, they almost all said that they had attended public schools. This indicates that their English proficiency is not expected to be high, because governmental schools do not pay much attention to the English syllabus or follow modern methods of teaching. This finding is

consistent with Alhaysony (2008), who found that her subjects went to governmental schools because education is free there. Those who are inclined and can afford it tend to send their children to private schools. She added that this could be the reason behind their low English proficiency. However, the findings of this study are inconsistent with El-Mortaji (2001), who found that her subjects were good English writers. She mentioned that her students succeeded in their English writing more than their Arabic composition because most of them went to private schools where special attention is given to the teaching of English.

- With respect to Q5, about the number of times a week they write in English, the answers varied tremendously. Two skilled students mentioned that they write at least twice a week, and two middle-level students said that they write if there is a need to. One less-skilled student reported that he writes if he has time, another declared that he would write some sentences about life, and the last one pointed out that he would write on the MSN chat rooms daily, but this was not academic writing.
- As for Q6, concerning the kinds of essays students write most frequently, the answers to this question also varied. Six students mentioned that they write narrative essays, and four pointed out that they would write descriptive, argumentative and example essays, whereas three students abstained from answering. This suggests either that the students are unaware of the kinds of literary genres they write about, or that they do not write at all [unless they have to, or perhaps they did not wish to answer or did not know how to].

- In answering Qs7 and 8 (see Appendix 3), three students mentioned that they think in English when they write their English essays, and they never or rarely translate from Arabic into English (although the TAPs showed otherwise). Three acknowledged that they would like to think and write in English, but they cannot because their English language and vocabulary are poor. Two students revealed that they switch between the two languages when they think or write. Further, three students stated that they think in Arabic and translate Arabic patterns or words when they write in English. In general, apart from M.A.K., all the students used Arabic in their protocols in the composing process, and switched between English and Arabic, or wrote and spoke in Arabic, and translated exactly from Arabic into English (for the TAPs see Appendix 6).

5.2.1.2 WSQ analysis

5.2.1.2.1 Meta-cognitive strategies

In responding to items 1, 2, and 9 (see Appendix 3), most of the students reported that they plan their work before writing. However, analysis of the think-aloud protocol reveals that they do not always say what they actually do. As the data analysis below shows, only one student planned his writing, while most of the others did not, not even their introductions. In responding to items 6 and 10 (see Appendix 3), the students stated, with a mean average of 2.55 for item 6 and 3.36 for item 10, that they often like to work independently without comparing their writing with previous work or with the writing of other colleagues. Analysis of the protocols shows that this really

is the case (see 5.3). With regard to item 11, most of the students reported that they like to write with others, or see their friends' writing. Meanwhile, answering item 8, students stated that they imagine things in order to be able to write, with a mean average of 3.27.

Concerning their regulating strategies, students responded that they always organise their writing (item 3), review it, and revise it (items 2, 4, and 5) before they hand it to their tutors, with a mean average of 4.45. In fact, cross-reference with the TAP analysis shows that more than half of the students (7) never organised their writing, reviewed or revised it, and if they did so it would be only minimally.

5.2.1.2.2 Cognitive strategies

Responses to the cognitive statements were not as uniform as those for the previous category. In item 12, students were divided almost equally on whether they think or do not think of what they want to write before they actually start writing. The majority responded that they draft their work (item 15) before they start the actual writing, and this parallels their responses to item 1. However, analysis of the protocols reveals that this is not the case. Only one student formulated his points as questions, wrote the main ideas, and a draft for some points. Therefore, it is fair to say that what students wrote in the questionnaire does not mirror what they do in the process of writing.

The same observation can be applied to items 13, 14, 22, and 23. The students reported that they make notes about certain points when writing, try to simplify the assigned question, organise their ideas chronologically, and refer to similar topics

discussed before, but in fact they did not apply any of these strategies in their protocols. Furthermore, to overcome writing difficulties, ten out of the eleven students mentioned that they use dictionaries (item 16), memorise things from lectures (item 18) and from textbooks (item 19) to use in their writing as an external help. However, a close investigation of the protocols shows that this is not the case.

When it comes to checking surface errors (item 18), the students were divided in their responses. Six of them stated that they check everything, and five mentioned that they check things in general. In fact, analysis of the protocols showed that not all the students tried to correct their spelling and grammatical mistakes. However, two students did try to go into a process of deeper editing.

5.2.1.2.3 Social strategies

Ten of the eleven students reported that they have positive attitudes towards the use of social strategies. Answers to the statements 24–29 reveal that the students prefer to solve their writing problems alone in the first place. Five students indicated that they prefer not to ask for the help of the teacher if they face difficulty in their writing, preferring instead to consult a colleague (items 24, 27–28). In contrast, the other five students showed that they would ask for the help of their teacher, and at the same time they might discuss it with their friends. Answers to item 29 showed that none of the students like their writing to be discussed in front of their friends. One student abstained from giving any answer.

In general, analysis of the protocols shows that the students never used a social writing strategy. They never asked for the help of the colleague who was around, or my help, when they faced difficulty, whether at the word or sentence level. This finding does not accord with what Al-Ghamdi (2009) found after his data analysis of learning strategies in general. Al-Ghamdi's informants reported using social strategies, and they did actually use them with high intensity. This indicates that those students hold positive feelings and attitudes towards these strategies. They understand that these can help them overcome their writing difficulties.

5.2.1.2.4 Affective strategies

In this category, students say that they are able to regulate their emotions and attitudes towards the writing task. Responses to item 30 show that students do not get nervous when writing because they like writing in English. Similarly, ten out of eleven students gave positive responses to item 32, in that they stated that they take a break to alleviate the writing tension. In fact, protocol analysis shows that this is not the case. When students were unable to write, or found it difficult to find the correct structures, none of them took a break to reduce anxiety. This indicates a contradiction between what students say and what they actually do.

5.2.1.2.5 Post-writing strategies: assessment stage

Concerning items 33–36 and 38–40, where students were asked about the strategies they would use to overcome difficulties in spelling, grammar, or choice of words, avoidance was the effective solution to their problems. Analysis of the protocols proved that this is the case. All the students changed the word when they failed to

remember the meaning (see Appendix 6), or to solve grammatically and structurally problematic sentences.

However, when it came to the use of tenses (item 36), the students' responses varied, with most of them indicating that they would use simple tenses if they failed to know the correct tense. Corresponding to this, responses to item 38 again suggest that students tended to simplify problematic elements such as tenses. A large majority of them resorted to translating from L1 to L2 when they faced difficulties in English structure.

Responses to item 37 about the possibility of translating from Arabic into English varied: one student abstained from answering the question; four students disagreed and stated that they never translated from Arabic into English, two mentioned that they were not sure, and four replied that they would translate to bridge a gap in their writing. Analysis of the protocols showed that almost all the students translated from Arabic into English when they were writing their compositions (more details in 5.3). As for items 41, 42, and 43 about being nervous if they did not know how to write, the students agreed that they get anxious if they cannot write, and almost all of them declared that they try to simplify the assigned topic if it is difficult. Cross-reference with the protocol analysis showed that the students did not mention that the assigned topic was difficult to write about, but some of them kept repeating the title many times. This was related (see 5.3) to their desire to confirm the information, and relate it to what they planned to write later.

The results of the analysis of the questionnaire show that students' responses varied for all the strategies. It was clear from the analysis of the actual protocols that the students' actions do not always reflect what they think they do in their writing. Therefore, and to get more reliable results, I am going to make a close analysis of two protocols, one for a skilled student, and the other for a less-skilled student, to shed more light on the roles of strategies in creating good written texts. This analysis also aims to find answers to the second research hypothesis and Q2.2 and Q3.

5.3 TAP Analysis and Discussion

Before starting the analysis and the discussion, it is worth mentioning that during the transcription of the TAPs everything said by the students was written verbatim (for more information 3.5.4).

In this section, I report the results of the analysis of skilled and less-skilled students' protocols to highlight the meta-cognitive, cognitive, affective, and social strategies they use. These two sets of students were chosen because it is expected that they will exhibit salient features that will help us study in depth the use of strategies in their writing. This will also validate the claims set forth in the second hypothesis and the RQs2.2 and 3:

H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English.

RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in the students' writing, what are the reasons behind this?

RQ3: What is the role of writing strategies in creating clear and good written texts in male Saudi context?

Before starting the analysis, it is worth stating again the points that I will be considering during the analysis of each strategy. In the analysis of the meta-cognitive stage, which is the stage of planning (Flower and Hayes 1980, 1981), discovery and thinking that precedes writing, I shall consider the activities used to develop ideas, plans, designs and organisational goals. I shall particularly analyse the organisation of the content, the use of schemata, retrieving ideas, ordering them, and consequently making connections between them to structure a text (see 3.5.5).

In order to analyse the cognitive strategies, that is, the translating stage (Flower and Hayes 1980, 1981a), I shall rest on three key points: first, the record of the thinking processes that students orchestrate during the act of composing; second, the development of the students' sense of purpose, including: generating ideas, organising information, reading the sentences or the text produced out loud, analysing, translating, and summarising; third, the reviewing and evaluating strategies, including the strategies undertaken to question, evaluate, and reconsider the goals of the writing. This category also includes the revising strategies such as checking to correct ideas, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, cohesion, and coherence of the text (see 3.5.5).

On the analysis of the affective and social strategies, I shall consider monitoring strategies, which include the tasks of self-monitoring and reduction (see 3.5.5). In

general, I shall analyse the strategies used to overcome the task difficulty and the way the students express their positive or negative feelings towards the task.

Finally, this analysis will consider the post-writing stage, which is considered to be the reviewing, evaluating, and monitoring stage (Flower and Hayes 1980,1981a) of the students' writing in order to improve it (see 2.3 and 3.5.5). These stages are summarised in Chapter Three (Table 3.8).

The following discussions will include the analysis of the eleven TAPs, and the responses of the same students to the WSQ (see 3.5.3). A comparison between the responses of the TAP with those of the WSQ will be made where possible to cross-reference the information. This will show to what extent students can apply in practice (during the TAP) what they claim to be doing in theory (during the WSQ).

5.3.1 TAP of a Skilled Student: Analysis and Discussions

The first protocol is for M.A.K., a final-year student who, as mentioned in his answers to the WSQ (see Appendix 7), studied English at King Abdul-Aziz University. He is 21 years old and had spent three-and-a-half years studying English at this university. Based on his GPA (4.85/5) (see 3.3.1), his grades in the writing class, and on the holistic scoring of the composition during his TAP (7–8/10), M.A.K. is considered to be one of the top students in the English department. He received his pre-university education at a government school and reported that he did not receive any supporting English courses outside the realm of his regular study at the university. His main motivation for learning English is that he “wants to understand the world well” (see

answers by M.A.K., item 4) and hopes “to explore the different facets of life of different countries and cultures” (see Appendix 7). He is required to write in English twice a week, focusing mainly on descriptive and argumentative genres. His competence in English can be shown by the fact that he thinks in the target language as he writes and does not resort to translating from Arabic.

In general, M.A.K. used a number of different strategies during the TAP, as the following table shows:

Table 5.1: M.A.K.’s writing strategies and their frequencies (see Appendix 5)

Writing strategy	Frequency
RS2	178
(...)	44
SAS	36
PAS	34
QG	14
PL	10
EV	10
RR	9
TH	6
CO	5
FR	5
QC	2
SOG	2
PUNC	2
CG	2
SA	1
E	1
RVWC	1
FO	1

Table 5.1 shows that M.A.K. used twenty-one strategies, most of them with a low frequency (such as using the strategy for only twice). Among these strategies, re-reading two or more sentences was the most frequently adopted strategy, with an average of 178 times.

5.3.1.1 Meta-cognitive strategies

M.A.K.'s protocol lasted for 74 minutes and 12 seconds, during which he wrote only 295 words. The time spent on the written task indicates that the student either finds difficulty in writing, or he may have found the TAP a strange experience, or he uses a lot of meta-cognitive strategies, i.e. global strategies which aim to develop his self-awareness and increase his understanding of the topic he is writing about. M.A.K. thinks aloud about the purpose of his writing as he is trying to present his first ideas:

“I am going to write an essay about holiday which I (...)”

“I am going to write an essay which I got one summer in my age” (Appendix 6, p. 286)

The meta-cognitive strategies are used with a high frequency, indicating that the student is aware of the role of the pre-writing stage in creating good texts. The planning of the topic at the pre-writing stage lasted for 17 minutes and 28 seconds, during which M.A.K. talks about what ideas will come in his essay, and explicitly states his objectives for the content organisation plans:

1. First of all well I used to write introduction (PL) . Then to introduction . To let me

2. (RS2) Get the all points of the essay. That's ok (SA).First of all I am going to write
 3. the points. First point is: where was (RS2) that holiday? number one (...) Number
 4. two (...) (..). How many months did it last (RS2)
 - 5.Third point (SG) Third point is (...)What was the most interesting things? (QG)
 9. Number four: So (...) where was that holiday? (QG) How many months did it last?
 - 10.(QG) What was the most interesting thing which made it unbelievable? (QG)
 11. What else? (TH) (...)Were you with your family or not? (...) Did you (RS2)
 12. spend it with family or not? (QG) Did you spend it with family? (QG). (..) Ok
- (Appendix 6, p. 286)

During the protocol, M.A.K. asked himself, with an average of fourteen times, questions to generate ideas (QG). This strategy is useful in the translating process (writing stage), since asking questions prompts him towards the production of related supporting details.

After that, M.A.K. announced the onset of his essay and started writing the introduction, which shows that he was aware of the importance of introductions in orienting the reader towards what comes next. The TAP at this stage reveals that he could not articulate all the ideas into his mind, so he started to overcome the difficulty by breaking the ideas into smaller ones by repeating some words to simplify the task:

13. Let's start
 14. First paragraph (RS2) Let's write the introduction then we will take points by
 15. points, step by step then during .. then during the .. well .. during (RS2) the
 16. writing process may be some points come to my mind, so let's start (ES)
- (Appendix 6, p. 287):

After this, he decided to write the first sentence which he believed should summarise the main ideas of the topic:

20. First sentence should be topic sentence should be should (RS2) give summary
21. (RS2) about the whole paragraph so first paragraph (RS2)
22. (..) First sentence should be the topic sentence of course (RS2)
25. in my life. The most beautiful holiday in my life (RS2) was last summer.
27. Ok (SAS) So the most beautiful holiday in my life was last summer (RS2) in Syria.
28. This is the topic sentence which gives where was
29. that holiday (RS2) and when it happened and when did it happened
30. the topic sentence and the first paragraph). So the most beautiful holiday in
31. my life was last summer in Syria, so yeah (SAS). It lasted for two months and half (Appendix 6, p. 287).

Later on, he moved to paragraph three, and showed awareness about the role of the topic sentence:

142. Topic sentence varies from rest of paragraph (FO). So what should I say here.

Thus, meta-cognitive strategies were used for monitoring the writing process as a whole. According to Oxford (1990), this includes centring one's learning, arranging and planning, and evaluating one's learning (see Table 3.7). M.A.K.'s arranging and

planning for his writing indicates that he is activating the relevant process to recall information pertaining to the task of writing as much as possible.

It is worth mentioning that M.A.K. never showed concerns about the purpose of the writing. He was asked to write a descriptive essay, which required describing in detail the best holiday he had ever had (see 3.5.2), and to some extent he succeeds in that. He plans globally and carefully for his writing, and tries, at the brainstorming stage (see the above examples lines 20–27), to look for suitable words and phrases to describe his ‘best holiday’.

This finding of my study parallels those of Alhaysony (2008), who reported that most of her informants always planned their writing and thought of relevant words and expressions to be used in their writing. Further, her students globally planned for their writing by dividing “their passage into three parts: introduction, body and conclusion...Then they created local plan for the content as they planned the content in each specific part ... again mentally” (p. 303). She added that none of the subjects wrote anything down as an outline. It seems that students felt comfortable to go for this strategy of writing. It helped them to gather their ideas and to prepare for writing their compositions. El-Aswad (2002) also found that most of his subjects adopted local planning of the words, either for each paragraph individually, or for a single sentence. He added that this would help students remember that they still had more paragraphs to write about. In fact, M.A.K planned globally for his writing and made that clear when he said:

“1. First of all well I used to write introduction (PL). 13. Lets start. 14.First paragraph. 20. First sentence should be topic sentence should be should (RS2) give summary. 48. Introduction.. first paragraph. Should be Introduction about the whole essay (GO). 109. Third paragraph now”.

However, he did not plan everything at the pre-writing stage. He just planned for his first paragraph, and then he was verbally saying that he would plan for the second and the third paragraphs:

“107. Let me start with second topic”.

108. ...Let me write the topic sentence”.

Further analysis of M.A.K.’s protocol reveals that he planned locally for his topic sentences at the beginning of every paragraph:

“142. Topic sentence varies from rest of paragraph (FO). So what should I say here”, and also see the examples above (see lines 28, 30, and 142).

The WSQ analysis reveals that he put his words into action, in that he mentioned all the steps that he actually followed during the TAP. For example, he stated that he thinks in English when he writes his compositions, and in fact, M.A.K. never used Arabic during the protocol. He also mentioned that he plans globally for his writing, as well as setting out a detailed plan of the introduction, and during the protocol he seems to plan the main ideas he will talk about, and then he plans his introduction and his topic sentence (see lines 13–31 above). He adds that he stops to read what he has

written before continuing, and analysis of the protocol shows that this really is the case (for questionnaire responses see Appendix 7). Therefore, it is fair to say that, at this stage, M.A.K.'s questionnaire responses are an accurate report of his writing strategies.

5.3.1.2 Cognitive strategies

M.A.K. used cognitive strategies with a high frequency. This reveals that he succeeded in presenting his knowledge in writing. He first wrote questions, as can be seen in the composition written during the TAP, to formulate his essay around them:

1. where was that holiday? (QG)
2. How many months did it last?(QG)
3. what was the most interesting thing which made it unbelievable?(QG)
4. did you spend it with family? (QG) (Appendix 6 M.A.K.'s questionnaire and composition)

After that, he started generating ideas, which included retrieving relevant information from long-term memory to translate into writing. This stage went smoothly for certain parts of the composition, as was revealed by the protocol, and was more difficult for others:

226. First of all Syria in my

227. point of view..in my point (RS1) should be between two commas (PUNC) is the

228. cheapest country in Arab world. Moreover its nicest country in fact there are 229.
many parts calm districts clean beach and very generous and friendly people in
230.addition customs of Syrian society is very close to ours. Finally my journey lasts
231.for two months and half and was the best short period in my life (Appendix 6, p.
302)

After writing the introduction, M.A.K. seems, sometimes, to find it difficult to generate or connect ideas, as we see below in lines (54–56). So he would pause and re-read his sentence in order to connect mentally what he had written with what he was going to write next (see line 55). He also tended to stress the format of the writing, for example, to announce that he was going to move from one paragraph to another (see below line 53), as in these examples:

53. Let's write second paragraph (FO) let's take step by step point by point (FO).
54. Well, (SAS) (.) Lets begin with (.) Come on (ES) (.. 69 Sec). Yeah let me say(..)
55. Yeah let 54. me say it (RS1) I
55. choose Syria I think its not good to start with this sentence (SAS). I think so it
56. should be (..) Cancel this one (SAS) Ok (SAS).Let me think .. The most the most
(Appendix 6, p. 289)

Re-reading the actual words and phrases that might be used when planning or writing the composition indicates that the student is moving from planning at the level of words to planning ideas. This finding is consistent with what Alhaysony (2008) found in her data analysis. She reported that her subjects re-read their writing with an average of 93.8%. It is also paralleled in the findings of El-Mortaji (2001) and El-

Aswad (2002) in the L1 Arabic context, which indicated that their subjects re-read a lot during the writing process.

The process of organising his writing appeared to be useful to help M.A.K. develop his current topic and his subordinating ideas. I recorded his behaviour when he was generating ideas, translating them into words and organising the information, then writing them and reading them out, as seen in the following example:

130. say they do not or they they don't obey they don't obey or they don't follow
131. much better they don't follow Islamic values and Islamic values culture they do not follow Islamic
132. values and cultures accurately or precisely(RS2).
133. Well (SAS) I went to that beach I changed my opinion toward Syrians. In facts most of
134. the Syrians are very free they do not follow Islamic values and culture Islamic values
135. and Islamic no (SAS). They don't follow Islamic values and cultures precisely. Well it's
136. ok no problem. So Islamic values and cultures preciously. On the other hand let me talk
137. about the other side. I think majority. The other side is majority. On the other hand
138. (RS2), on the other hand the majority the majority of Syrians the majority (RS2) of Syrians are

139. conservative ..Come on (ES). Being in Ladukyah [Lattakia] where the Syrian beach was splendid

140. time in my expedition. It was the most interesting thing which made it unbelievable

141. something terrible happened.

142. Topic sentence varies from rest of 145. paragraph (FO). So what should I say here (Appendix 6, p. 297).

After the writing stage, M.A.K. read what he had written to review it, edit it, and read it again:

218. Finished the all essay

219. Let me read it again (RR)

227. point of view..in my point (RS1) should be between two commas (PUNC) (Appendix 6, p. 302).

The long silent periods (around twenty minutes) that took place at this stage of the protocol are most noticeable. M.A.K. tended to pause while he wrote down what he said, or when he reflected upon the ideas and sentences that he had just written. At other times, he seemed to be trying to generate ideas, and this can be seen from the information he wrote down after the pause. Silent periods in this protocol parallel and validate what Flower and Hayes (1981b) claim in their first hypothesis: writers pause to plan or generate what they want to say next. The findings are also consistent with Flower and Hayes' (1981c) study, in which they found that skilled students had longer silent periods during the translating (composing) process than novice ones (see 2.3).

A cross-reference of the above analysis with M.A.K.'s written questionnaire reveals that he stated that he thinks before he writes, and he tries to simplify the question in order to be able to answer it (see Appendix 7, questions 12 and 13). In fact, the coding of M.A.K.'s protocol shows that he takes time to think and solve writing problems, as below, throughout the text:

185. Come on (ES) get out (TH) (.) To my opinion , I have to be more precise and

186. accurate changed my opinion about Syrian society (TH)

187. About Syrian society was that there is nothing since we mentioned this (SAS) the most

213. friends, some thing is totally different of course totally different, something 214. is totally different (50 Sec). We can go wherever we can go wherever wish we

215. can go wherever (RS2) we wish without any restriction without any restrictions (RS2). We can (56 Sec) (Appendix 6, p. 302)

Other points of similarity could be seen when M.A.K. mentioned in the WSQ (Appendix 7, Q18) that during writing he checks for spelling and grammatical mistakes, and added that he organises his writing according to ideas discussed previously (Appendix 7, Q23). In fact, during the TAP, the student was checking his writing, and did some editing at the spelling and grammatical levels. He also followed the order of the ideas he set forth at the beginning of his writing. Therefore, it can be said that his responses to the cognitive statements in the WSQ reflected what he usually did during the writing process. Editing and correcting language during writing can cause writer's block, as Rose (1980) showed at the end of his study when he

stated that students forget what they want to write next if they spend too much time correcting and editing what they have already written (see 2.3).

5.3.1.3 Social strategies

Analysis of M.A.K.'s TAP shows that he did not use any social strategy. This indicates that he was either unaware of the role of the social strategies in promoting thinking, facilitating the writing process, and thus improving writing, or that he was too shy to ask for help. Despite the fact that he had trouble with what to do next at the end of paragraph two and paragraph three, he did not ask for the help of the tutor who was present, or for my help. This could be attributed to the lack of opportunity to ask as he felt embarrassed about his lack of knowledge, or to the fact that he was intimidated by the researcher as he represented an authority. However, the student did not go outside to talk to his friends or ask for any textbook material. This contradicts what M.A.K. stated in the WSQ when he stated that he “agrees” and “strongly agrees” with discussing his composition with his friends, and that he would consult his teacher if he found difficulty in conveying the meaning. Therefore, it is fair to say that this skilled student did not use any social strategies.

This finding agrees in part with what Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005) found after the analysis of their data. They mentioned that some of the informants preferred to work alone without any help. However, some of them reported that they preferred to ask friends or their teachers when they had difficulty, but in fact during the task they preferred to continue writing alone. The reasons for this could be related to the fact the students feel shy at showing their lack of competence in language in front of their

peers or teachers, or they are afraid of the judgements of their teachers of their English level if they ask about points that seem difficult for them. Furthermore, all the students confirmed that they do not like their writing to be discussed in front of their peers. However, in contrast to the finding of this study, Al-Ghamdi (2009) mentioned that his subjects used social strategies by interacting with their colleagues to help them overcome learning difficulties.

5.3.1.4 Affective strategies

Affective strategies to regulate emotions, motivation, and attitudes were used positively, to some extent, during M.A.K.'s protocol. Answering Q31 in the WSQ, M.A.K. mentioned that he finds writing an easy task, and in fact during the process of verbalising his thinking, we can see that the protocol was conducted without a problem (insofar as the student completed the task and seemed to articulate strategies used), although, as mentioned above, he took 74 minutes and 12 seconds to write only 295 words. This indicates that the writing did not go as smoothly as he stated. Taking this length of time might be due to the nature of the task causing the student to take longer to put his sentences together and solve his writing problems. However, in replying to Q32, the student confirmed that he would take a break if he found difficulty in writing, but in fact during the protocol we do not see this happening. The student was struggling at certain stages to find the right vocabulary (see the example below, 213, 214, 216), sentence, or tense, and kept trying alone instead of taking a break, although he was told by me that he could ask for my help if he faced writing problems. He was also told that he could stop and take a break if he felt like doing so:

212. I am with my family I lose my freedom and I have to obey its rules. When I am
 213. with my friends, some thing is totally different of course totally different,
 214. something is totally different (50 Sec). We can go wherever we can go wherever
 215. wish we can go wherever (RS2) we wish without any restriction without any
 216. restrictions (RS2). We can (56 Sec). No (FU). We can go wherever we wish
 without any restrictions besides getting beside

In these examples, we see that despite repeating phrases as in lines 213–214 without apparently being able to develop the discourse, and making sounds of frustration, the student did not take a break or change the structure as he stated in answering Qs 33, 34, 35, and 36 as shown in Appendix 7.

At the same time, the student succeeded at certain stages in motivating himself as in lines 47. (so far it is good), 53. (well), and regulating his emotions during writing such as line 53. (Let's begin... come on..yeah), 56. (Let me think), and 57. (let's change words). This is evident in the words, phrases, and positive signs that M.A.K. used to confirm to himself, or maybe to the researcher, that he was on the right track:

47. with my friends and I got new experiences (RS2). So far it is good (SAS).Well I
 53. think this.Well, (SAS) (.) Lets begin with (.) Come on (ES) (.. 69 Sec). Yeah let
 54. me say(..) Yeah let me say it (RS1) I choose Syria I think its not good to start with
 55. this sentence (SAS). I think so it should be
 56. (..) Cancel this one (SAS) Ok (SAS).Let me think .. The most the most
 57. beautiful (RS1) Lets change words 'write' in other words (E) The (..) Yeah (SAS)

Although M.A.K. did not explicitly utter words indicating that he was doing the right things in completing the task, he muttered positive words (e.g. Yeah, good, see lines 198, 199 below), showing that he was satisfied with his efforts, and this positive assessment could be considered as a kind of morale-boosting element for him to continue writing:

198. Muslims. Even if they are not Muslims but they have their own traditions Yeah

199. good. They have their own traditions. Good (PAS)

201. Much better let me think. (PAS)

The final point that can be mentioned is that in answering Q37 of the WSQ the student stated that he never translated from Arabic into English if he failed to produce an English structure, and analysis of the protocol showed that this is genuinely the case (unlike all the other students who undertook the TAP).

In general, the student used positive affective strategies throughout the protocol, as shown above. During the protocol (see Appendix 6), he hardly used negative affective strategies, or showed signs of complaint that might indicate that the nature of the protocol was difficult.

This finding is consistent with what Liu (2004) found when analysing his data. He reported a high percentage of use of affective strategies by female students. It is also consistent with Al-Ghamdi (2009), who declared that his students tried to regulate their own writing alone to overcome writing difficulty despite their language proficiency. The interesting point of discussion here is that the differences between genders did not create differences in the use of strategies. This finding is also different

from Oxford's (1993) views, which confirm that females use more social and affective strategies than males. The possible explanation might be related to the fact that females have stronger verbal skills and tend to display greater conformity to linguistic norms (ibid.).

5.3.1.5 Post-writing stage: assessment stage

After finishing his composition, M.A.K. revised and edited his writing in less than 10 minutes. However, this process was concerned only with reading his composition and correcting one punctuation mark, as can be seen in the TAP below and is evident in his essay in Appendix 7:

227. point of view..in my point (RS1) should be between two commas (PUNC)

This could be related to the fact that the student had corrected his writing while he was re-reading aloud his sentences after writing them:

143. splendid... I should erase all these sentences? (GS). Or leave them for last. Well (SAS).

144. Let me being in ladukyah where the Syrian beach was splendid time in my

145. expedition. Let me write this paragraph. It's wrong (SAS). Well (SA) Being in

These lines show that the student was aware of the presence of some writing problems so he says loudly "I should erase all these sentences", and then he changes his mind and decides to leave them to the end: "leave them for last". After that, he tries to

encourage himself or to alleviate the stress by saying words such as “well ...well” and then continues writing. This shows how M.A.K tries to solve some of the problems immediately and postpone others (for more details see Appendix 6).

5.3.1.6 Summary

Analysis of the protocol shows that M.A.K. used two main types of strategy: meta-cognitive and cognitive, and failed to use social or affective strategies to any great extent. As argued above, this might be due to the nature of the TAP (see 5.3.1.4), or to the fact that the student is unaware of their value. It also shows that M.A.K. used a lot of strategies in terms of type and frequency in comparison to other university-level students, as described in Sasaki (2000), El-Mortaji (2001), Wang (2004), El-Aswad (2002), Alhaysony (2008), and Al-Ghamdi (2009). This is especially evident based on his significantly limited use of social or affective strategies despite the fact that before the task he was encouraged to use them (see 3.5.1, 5.3.1.3, and 5.3.1.4), and at the reviewing stage, which included checking grammar and editing operations that did not affect the meaning.

This analysis also reveals that M.A.K. had many silent periods (44), some of them of two minutes and others of more than three minutes. This frequency of being silent is very high in comparison to other studies, such as Al-Ghamdi (2009), Wang (2004), El-Aswad (2002), El-Mortaji (2001), and Sasaki (2000). The interpretation offered by this study is that M.A.K. was either thinking of what he was going to write, or engaged in goal-related activities, or even making local decisions such as changing a word or deciding to add a sentence, or delete one. Instances of hesitation, repetition, decision-making, and speaking-while-writing were also captured during the protocol analysis.

The results of the analysis also reveal that M.A.K. used questions to generate ideas (QG); this indicates some awareness of the style of English writing. Of course, this does not come as a surprise as this student is considered more fluent than his peers. He also commented and reflected critically on the quality of his writing in terms of content and structure (see lines 73–86 Appendix 6). As such, it can be said that M.A.K. used a reasonable variety of strategies, as the detailed analysis showed. The sketch of this protocol can be described as: planning—translating—reading—re-reading—translating/writing—editing—planning—writing—reading—editing—planning—re-reading—editing.

In the following table I try to show samples of the sketches of the skilled students' protocol:

Table 5.2: Sketches of a skilled student's protocol

M.A.K.'s Protocol	The sketch of the protocol: planning—translating—reading—re-reading—translating/writing—editing—planning—writing—reading—editing—planning—re-reading—editing
<p>1. First of all well I used to write introduction (PL) .</p> <p>5.Third point (SCG) Third point is (...)What was the most interesting things? (QG)</p> <p>8. unbelievable. Let's say unbelievable (PL)</p> <p>9. Number four: So (...) where was that holiday? (QG) How many months did it last?</p> <p>10.(QG) What was the most interesting thing which made it unbelievable? (QG)</p> <p>14.First paragraph (RS2) Lets write the introduction then we will take points by</p> <p>15. points, step by step then during then during the well during (RS2) the writing</p> <p>16. process may be some points come to my mind, so lets start (ES)</p> <p>17. (..)</p> <p>18. Ok (SAS)</p> <p>19. First paragraph (SCG/PL)</p>	<p>Planning</p> <p>Translating</p>

<p>20. First sentence should be topic sentence should be should (RS2) give</p> <p>21. summary 21. (RS2) about the whole paragraph so first paragraph (RS2)</p> <p>22. (..) First sentence should be the topic sentence of course (RS2)</p> <p>23. The most interesting (RS2) or the most interesting or (RS2) the most</p> <p>24. beautiful, we will say the most beautiful (RS2).The most beautiful (RS2). 25.The most beautiful holiday (RS3) in my life. The most beautiful holiday 26. in my life (RS2) was last</p> <p>53. Lets write second paragraph (FO) lets take step by step point by</p> <p>63. summer in Syria for several reasons (RS1). 64.Do you think it's acceptable? (QG).</p> <p>65. will revise it (SAS). So for several reasons. 66.First of all, lets say that, first of all</p> <p>70. Syria in my point of months did it last (PL).</p> <p>86. joint to second paragraph (GO). I think so because does not deserve one paragraph for</p> <p>87. period of time so (PL) Very friendly people.</p> <p>91.Should I write no 'its' enough? (QC). In addition customs of Syrian Society there is no need for 'is' very close to ours. In addition</p> <p>92. customs of Syrian society is very close to</p> <p>98. and half (RS1) and was was (RS1) the best the 99.best (RS1) short period in my life. That's 100.enough, well (CO).</p> <p>102. should erase comma and write instead of</p> <p>103. comma and because yeah it's the last</p> <p>103. one (PUNC)And oh (FR) Come on (ES)</p> <p>107. Let me start with Second topic (PL).What was the most interesting thing which made it</p> <p>108. unbelievable? (QG) Deserves more (PL) So (...) Let me write the topic sentence (PL).</p>	<p>Reading—Re-reading</p> <p>Translating/Writing</p> <p>Editing</p> <p>Planning</p> <p>Writing</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Editing</p>
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- 44.(Instructor) Describe your thought
- 45.ok
46.
- 47.Please don't stop talking whatever you are thinking of just say it
- 48.Ok
- 49....
- 50.(Instructor) write what are you thinking of
- 51.What so ever come to your mind
- 52.I mean say loud what are you thinking of
- 53.(Instructor) say anything in your mind
- 54.(Instructor) what is in your mind now
- 55.I am thinking to change a word from Arabic
56. (Instructor) okay say it , say the word
57. they settle , agree
58. they back
59. Back

Later on, 46:40 minutes after the beginning of the protocol, I checked on the progress of the TAP to initiate help or prompt him, but I found that very little had been written, and the student was repeating certain words or phrases without advancing any discourse:

218. (Instructor) what are you doing now?
219. I am rewriting the word
220. (Instructor) so say that please because I need to know what are you doing,
221. please speak in a loud voice.

This reticence might be attributed to the fact the student did not want the instructor to know that he was facing difficulties during writing. Such difficulties might be related to his weak language proficiency, limited vocabulary, and poor grammar. His reluctance to admit that he was having difficulty might also be related to the fact that as a final-year student he was afraid to be judged by his instructor and classified as a weak student, because it is very strange that at this stage of study he was incapable of producing an essay. He therefore preferred to decline any offer of help when I tried to check upon his progress. In my opinion, this case stands as evidence that the student does not value the social factor in overcoming writing difficulties.

This back-and-forth attempt resulted in one strategy, the writing stage. At this stage, the student attempted to check his grammar and spelling mistakes. It was therefore felt that analysis of this protocol would not provide sufficient data for comparison with the results of the analysis of the skilled student's strategies. Apart from this, another reason for excluding this protocol from the detailed analysis was that at the end of his protocol the student mentioned a fact about the nature of the task that might, in my opinion, bias the results. The student stated that he was not used to such tasks, and this might have hindered his performance:

301. Like this

302. The problem

303. I hope there will be no problems, **I am not used to such kind of tests.**

What the student meant by “**I am not used to such kind of tests**” was that he was not used to writing while verbalising his thinking. In fact, in this process students might feel embarrassed because they believe that their English performance will be evaluated and judged by their tutors, and this no doubt creates a source of difficulty during verbalising their thoughts. The students might also have felt uncomfortable because there was another person present, or because students in general are not used to such tasks.

Therefore, another protocol was chosen for the analysis. This protocol is for M.ALM, who is also a final-year student. He is classified as less skilled based on his GPA (2.3/5), the results of his writing exams, and the results of scoring his composition by two raters (4–5/10), which are below average.

M.ALM, as mentioned in his WSQ, is 21 years old, and had spent eight years studying English at school and university. He attended a public school and reported that he had attended other English courses outside the realm of his regular study within Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. His interest in learning English was related to getting a better job and his passion for the language. He reported that he did not often write in English, but he sometimes wrote some sentences about life in English, and the genre with which he was most familiar is narrative.

M.ALM’s TAP ran for 31 minutes and 16 seconds, during which he wrote 191 words. His TAP is considered to be a reflection of one dominant strategy, namely writing, as the student spent 30 seconds at the pre-writing stage, 30 minutes 47 seconds at the

writing stage, and no time at the post-writing stage. Table 5.3 summarises the strategies used during the protocol and their frequencies.

Table 5.3: M.ALM's writing strategies and their frequencies

Writing strategy	Frequency
RS2	37
SOG	1
PL	1
TH	5
T	8
CS	21

The table shows that M.ALM did not use many strategies. In total, he used only six, most of them with low frequencies. Among these, repetition and rehearsing were the most frequently used, followed by code switching, translation, planning, and setting organisational goals. As in M.A.K.'s TAP, M.ALM. has many silent periods and hesitations, explanations for which are offered below.

5.3.2.1 Meta-cognitive strategies

The stage of discovery, thinking and planning before actually commencing writing the protocol lasted for 30 seconds, and he used meta-cognitive strategies with a frequency of 1.3%. During this stage, the student just repeated some words (see below lines 5,8,9), and mentioned that he was thinking of the first idea, as in the following example (lines 8 and 11), which first presents the words of the student in Arabic followed by his translation of them:

في تلك الفترة 5

5. In that period

8. في هاديك الفترة كان عندي تفكير

8. In that period I have many ideas.

9. كان أنا فكرت في البداية

9. it was I thought at the beginning.

11. First idea

12. الفكرة الأولى

13. R2

After he announced his first idea, the student repeated the same words, and started his writing immediately. Unlike M.A.K., this student did not plan locally or globally for his writing, nor did he write a general outline. Therefore, it can be said that he did not take time to organise his content, use schemata, retrieve ideas, or order them at the pre-writing stage. Despite this, we can see that the student is aware of the role of the topic sentence (see 2 below) in creating a good impression in the reader, who is the researcher in this case. This is stated explicitly when he indicates that he will use ‘powerful sentences’:

2. I need to talking about this subject, you will use powerful sentences.

3. Started with my best holiday R2

5. My best holiday is in last summer R2.

The lack of a planning stage indicates that M.ALM. might be unaware of the role of meta-cognitive strategies in organising and facilitating his writing. This conclusion mirrors that reached by Perl (1980), who stated that less-skilled writers discover their

ideas in the composing process and they are more interested in surface-level concerns. Furthermore, they take less time to plan (Pianko, 1979), and their plans are less flexible than those of skilled writers (Rose, 1980). The findings are similar to those reached by Raimes (1985), who reported that less-skilled students did not plan their writing and, like Perl's basic writers they, too, frequently "began writing without any secure sense of where they were heading" (1979, p. 330). Raimes added that her less-skilled students did not make lists or outlines of what they were writing. They "all decided quite early on what event to describe and then put their energies into how best to describe it in L2" (p. 242). Blaya (1997) reported similar results. She mentioned that two poor writers among her informants did not seem "to write according to any pre-determined or emergent plan. Instead, expanding their general opinion seemed to be the only plan that led to their subsequent writing" (p. 169). What those writers suggest, and what my data analysis shows, is that less-skilled students tend to do similar things when it comes to planning, brainstorming, and organising their writing.

A cross-reference with M.ALM's WSQ answers reveals that he claimed to plan his writing both globally and locally. This indicates that the student does not provide us with a true account of his writing strategies. This could be related to the lack of practice which makes the process of planning for writing a hard task. It might also be related to a lack of linguistic competence, leading to insufficient application of the writing strategies.

5.3.2.2 Cognitive strategies

The cognitive stage represents the writing stage. It lasted for 30 minutes and 47 seconds, during which the student tried to bring forth his ideas and write them. The total number of strategies used during the protocol was 73, 72 of which M.ALM. used at the writing stage, with a frequency of 98.6%. The student frequently read back over phrases and sentences he had just written:

21. I want to take
22. I think
23. I am not
24. Serious
25. Because
26. The main reason
27. (... ..)
28. If I think, if I decide
29. (...)
30. I am talk, I will talk
31. So then R2
32. Talking

Therefore, we can say that M.ALM. rehearsed not to generate ideas, but rather to concentrate on form, and the difference between the two protocols (M.A.K and M.ALM) lends support for this, as discussed below.

Unlike M.A.K., who translated his thinking into ideas, organised his information and read it out, M.ALM.'s protocol lacked these strategies. He used what Cumming (1989, p. 113) calls a "what-next-strategy", that is questioning what else to write, or making comments such as "I think...what else". The most dominant strategies during this stage were re-reading, repetition, and rehearsing words or phrases, but not complete sentences, with an average of 37/73, and a frequency of 50.6%. This strategy serves two purposes, as indicated by Raimes (1985): the first is an attempt to search for grammatically acceptable forms (as shown in 89 and 90), and the second is a rehearsal of what is in his mind:

88. Like

89. covered

90. Cover

107. There are

108. There was

109. Meeting

110. Meeting with

111. We meet with them (R2)

112. Public , people (R2).

It is noticeable that M.ALM. neither raised questions to generate ideas, nor did he try to retrieve information, as we saw in M.A.K.'s protocol. These findings contradict what M.H.Sh. stated in answering the questionnaire. There he mentioned that he strongly agrees that he thinks of what to write and writes a draft or notes before

submitting his writing. The previous analysis showed that he never wrote notes or drafts, nor did he give himself time to think before writing.

There were thirteen silent periods during the protocol. Their length varied between 15 and 35 seconds. An interpretation of this could be that the student was trying to generate ideas, thinking of the coming words, or was finding it difficult to proceed to the next sentence. In fact, the protocol exhibited more of a knowledge-telling approach than a knowledge-transforming one (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987) (see 2.3.2), because M.H.Sh. demonstrated only a “task execution model without complex problem-solving activities”, and revised only at a local level, while M.A.K. revised and edited his topic globally, which involved transformation of information.

Furthermore, M.H.Sh. used a high frequency of code switching and translation during his protocol. He code switched 21/73 instances with a frequency of 28.7%. This indicates that M.H.Sh. has problems either in finding the correct grammatical structures or in generating ideas and thinking and writing in English, therefore he resorts to his Arabic repertoire to structure his sentences before translating them, or he tries to facilitate the act of English writing by opting to translate (the Arabic sentences are translated literally by the student in the line that follows each Arabic sentence):

19. السبب الرئيسي

20. main reason

21. (...)(...)(...)

22. إذا فكرت - إذا قررت

23. if I think-if I decide

26. So then talking (TH)

27. تحدثت مع والدي عنها.

28. Talking to my father about (CS)(T)

These lines show identical translation from Arabic into English for some sentences that seem difficult for M.H.Sh. to formulate directly in English. Most parts of the protocol show similar cases. This finding is consistent with Abdulla (2009), who conducted a study that analysed the English written product as well as the writing strategies of four ESL Malay undergraduate engineering students while completing a writing task. He mentioned that “students used the translating strategy for various purposes such as checking accuracy of written expressions, generating ideas, or in their attempt to recall suitable words and phrases” (2009, p. 9). He added that this “strategy was more employed by the less-skilled students to complement their lack of competence in their L2” (p. 9). This corresponds with M.H.Sh.’s protocol analysis in which he translates from L1 Arabic into L2 English. The student may have felt incapable of conveying his ideas in English directly, so he wrote them in Arabic and then translated them into English. In doing so he might have felt that he had secured a correct English text.

It also agrees with the findings of El-Aswad (2002), who reported that some students switched between Arabic and English. Alhaysony (2008) also found that some of her subjects wrote their drafts in Arabic and translated them literally into English. The findings in this TAP are consistent with M.H.Sh.’s responses to the questionnaire, in which he states that he translates and code switches into Arabic to be able to write in English. This could be related to the fact that he does not have sufficient linguistic

repertoire to be able to express his ideas in English, or he does not have sufficient vocabulary to write exactly what he wants to convey in English, therefore, he resorts to translation to bridge a gap in his written task. Thus, it can be said that in this respect at least the answers mirror what the student actually does when he writes in English.

5.3.2.3 Social and affective strategies

Despite the fact that M.ALM. was told in advance that he could consult me to solve any writing difficulty that might arise during the protocol, he never used any social strategy. This means that he was either unaware of their value in helping him to create a well-constructed text, or he did not feel that they were necessary. Other possible reasons could be related to the fact that the student felt embarrassed to ask for help in case he was considered incompetent, or perhaps he felt uncomfortable verbalising his thoughts. Whatever the reason, it contradicts his responses in the questionnaire, where he mentioned that he would discuss any writing difficulty with his friends and his teacher.

Concerning affective strategies, the student partly used them during the writing process. He formulated his sentences in Arabic and translated them into English in an attempt to bridge a gap in his English repertoire (see cognitive strategies above, for example), and to overcome writing difficulties. He also avoided using certain words when he failed to find the right English equivalent. This is consistent with his responses in the WSQ, where he mentioned that he would avoid using difficult words

(e.g. words that the student does not know the meaning of) and preferred to look for another one, even if it made him write another sentence with a new meaning.

5.3.2.4 Post-writing stage

The aim of this stage is to edit and revise the written composition in order to improve the writing quality. However, we find that M.ALM. did not spend time on this stage. He did not edit or revise his writing at the post-writing stage or during the writing stage. Therefore, it can be said that the protocol demonstrates his use of only one strategy, the writing stage.

Cross-reference with M.ALM's WSQ reveals that in replying to questions 4 and 5 the student stated that he stops to read and revise his writing before he submits it to his tutor, whereas analysis of the protocol shows that this is not the case. As a result, it can be said that the student does not report his writing behaviour accurately, or say what he actually does when writing.

5.2.3.5 Summary

Analyses of the protocol and the WSQ reveal that the less-skilled student used only cognitive and affective strategies, and did not use meta-cognitive or social strategies. The long silent periods during the protocol provide a good reason to believe that some of his cognitive abilities were not reported because he was experiencing a mental block (see 2.3).

The student did not plan his writing, and did not produce a good written composition at the end of his protocol. This might not come as a surprise because he stated frankly in answering Q7 in the WSQ that he thought in Arabic when he wrote in English because he lacked English vocabulary and he was unable to express himself in English. He also mentioned that when writing, he translated from Arabic into English because it was not easy for him to write in English.

Therefore, the pattern of his writing is as follows: Translating—reading—re-reading—translating/writing—pausing in total for more than 9 minutes—writing—pausing—reading—pausing. In Table 5.4 I try to show samples of the sketches of the less-skilled student’s protocol:

Table: 5.4 Sample of the sketches of a less-skilled student protocol

M.ALM.’s Protocol	The sketch of the protocol: translating—reading—re-reading— translating/writing—pausing in total for more than 9 minutes—writing—pausing—reading—pausing
<p>1. I am going to talking about best holiday I had 2. I need to talking about this subject, you will use powerful</p> <p>3.sentences.Started with my best holiday (RS2). 4. My best holiday is in last summer (RS2). 9. In that period (...) I thought I have many ideas (RS2)</p> <p>10. الفكرة الأولى 11.First idea (RS2) 12. I want to take 13. ولكن فكرت 14. But I thought 15. I am not (CS) (TH) 16. جاد (CS) 17. serious</p>	<p>Translating</p> <p>Reading—Re-reading</p> <p>Translating/Writing stage</p>

18. Because (CS) 19. السبب الرئيسي 20. main reason	
21. (...)(...)(...) 22. إذا فكرت - إذا قررت 23. if I think-if I decide 24. (...) 25. I am talk, I am talking (RS2) (TH)	Pausing in total for more than 9 minutes Writing
26. The main reason 27. (... ..) 57. In my home (RS2)	Pausing
61. I was I was every day from early (RS2) 62. لا منذ الصباح 63. No, from early morning (RS2) (CS). 64. (...) (...) 65. (...)(...)(...) (...)	Reading Pausing
113. (...) (...)(...) (...)	

5.3.3 Summary of the TAP Analysis and Answers to H2, RQ2.2, and R.Q3

In validating the claims set forth in the second hypothesis (H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English), analysis of the data shows that there are differences in the use of strategy between skilled and less-skilled students when they write in English. Analysis of the TAPs showed that the behaviour of the two groups of students varied considerably (5.3.1, 5.3.2). In particular, these differences relate to planning globally and locally for their writing. Skilled students planned their writing, generated ideas, revised and edited them, whereas less-skilled students failed to put in place any kind of plan to finish their protocols, therefore they struggled to write consistent, fluent, and coherent compositions. Furthermore, the skilled student used only English to complete his TAP, whereas the less-skilled student translated from Arabic into English. However, both groups did not show any interest in using social and affective strategies, though

the less-skilled student used them minimally. Therefore, it can be said that the data provides limited evidence about the influence of using these strategies on the written product of male students at King Abdul-Aziz University.

The previous analysis and discussion provide answers to RQ2.2 (If few or ineffective strategies are used in the students' writing, what are the reasons behind this?), in that failure to use a broad range of effective strategies to facilitate the process of writing led to unclear and incoherent texts. Such writing difficulties might arise from the need for "self-expression and the need to comply with a set of external constraints, the writer loses sight of what they want to say" Galbraith and Rijlaarsdam (1999, p. 97).

In answering RQ3 (What is the role of writing strategies in creating clear and good written texts in male Saudi context?), it can be said that the data analysis reveals that the use of writing strategies by a skilled student prompted him to generate ideas and to write a clear and good English text, whereas failure to do so rendered the less-skilled student's written composition unclear.

5.4 Conclusion

In summation, this chapter has reported the analysis and discussion of the TAPs, and the eleven WSQs answered by the same students who undertook the TAPs (see 5.2, and 5.2.1.1, 5.2.1.2). In the analysis of the WSQ, it is revealed that the students do not always report what they actually do. They almost all stated that they plan their writing, and that they revise and edit it before submitting it to their tutor. A cross-reference with the analysis of the protocols reveals that this is typically not the case.

Only skilled students planned their writing, revised and edited it, and then read it before submitting it to their tutor.

In terms of the social and affective strategies, the results of the WSQ analysis reveal that students showed a positive attitude towards using them. They further mentioned that they use these strategies to control their emotions, regulate their writing, and self-assess it. However, analysis of the TAPs shows that neither skilled nor less-skilled students used social strategies, while less-skilled students used more affective strategies than skilled ones did. They translated from Arabic into English to ease writing difficulty and complete their writing task. Their protocols reveal that they also used the strategy of avoidance when they were faced with a difficulty in relation to the use of vocabulary or tenses. However, most of them reported in the WSQ that they do not translate from Arabic into English, and they do not avoid using difficult words. Therefore, it can be said that the WSQ responses are not an accurate report of the students' writing behaviour.

Analysis of the TAPs showed that the students used different strategies, mainly meta-cognitive, cognitive, and affective. However, very little attention, if any, was paid to the social strategies. In general, not all the students planned their writing, either globally or locally, but they were all involved in the cognitive processes. They almost all re-read, rehearsed, and repeated certain words, phrases, and clauses to generate ideas, think, control the coming discourse, edit, or evaluate the structure of what they had written. However, some of them repeated because they could not advance any further in their writing.

The analysis also revealed that code switching was another dominant strategy used in the protocols. Less-skilled students switched and translated literally from Arabic into English, and this was related to their lack of vocabulary or grammatical structures, and to their inability to think and write directly in English. This strategy was also considered as a kind of affective or communicative behaviour used by the students to regulate their emotions and make the writing task manageable.

The analysis also showed that there were long silent periods in the protocols for both skilled and less-skilled students. This was attributed to the fact that the students were thinking of new ideas, or having a mental block so they were unable to generate ideas, or to the nature of the TAP task. One possible justification for this is that the lack of pre-planning of their writing and over-correction during writing meant that students had to stop a lot to think and take decisions about the content and structure of the coming text.

In the next chapter, I shall conclude the research, highlight the contributions of this study to the field of education, mention the recommendations, and suggest ideas for further research.

Chapter Six:

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter One, the primary aim of this thesis was identified, and in Chapter Two this was justified by reference to the relevant literature. Chapter Three investigated the relevant methodology, and Chapters Four and Five explored the data analysis of the writing processes of the Saudi male students majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University. In this chapter, I revisit the initial premises stated in Chapter One, and present a summary of the findings of the data analysis. I also identify ways in which this study has contributed to the field of writing strategies at tertiary level in the EFL context in general, and the Saudi Arabian context in particular. I also present the limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research.

Before starting, it is worth remembering that this study considers writing strategies to be a group of processes that enable writers to consciously regulate their learning and improve their writing, in addition to stimulating new ideas.

6.2 Summary of the Data that Answers Research Hypotheses and Research Questions

It was mentioned in Chapter One that this study investigates the impact of writing strategies on the written product of Saudi male university students at King Abdul-Aziz University. The work reported here tries to diagnose the problems the students' English writing suffers from, explores the students' attitudes towards writing

strategies, and investigates how skilled and less-skilled students compose their English writings. To that end, this study tries to find answers to the following research hypotheses and questions. A short summary of the results to every research question and hypothesis is presented in the following table.

Table 6.1: Summary of the answers to the research questions and hypotheses

Research questions and hypotheses	The data that answer each research question or hypothesis	Chapters that answer research hypotheses and questions
H1: English academic writing of male students at King Abdul-Aziz suffers from many problems.	Written samples analysis	The preliminary study answers this part of the data. Chapter Four section 4.2 provides the answers.
RQ1: What are the general features that appear in the writing of the final-year Saudi students at the Department of English Language and Literature at King Abdul-Aziz University?	Written samples analysis	Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Sercombe's (2002) framework have been used for the analysis of the written samples. The results are presented in Chapter Four section 4.2.
RQ2: What kind of writing strategies do Saudi male students employ when they write in English?	Writing strategy questionnaire WSQ analysis	Background and Likert-scale questionnaires were administered to 155 students. Answers are analysed and presented in Chapter Four section 4.3.
RQ2.1: How frequently and effectively do Saudi male students use them?	WSQ and think-aloud protocol TAP analyses	Findings are analysed as reported by the students in the WSQ, and as inferred during the TAPs. Chapters Four and Five sections 4.3 and 5.2.1 demonstrate and discuss the findings.
RQ2.2: If few or ineffective strategies are used in the	TAP analyses	Analysis of TAPs provides answers to the kind of strategies used and

students' writing, what are the reasons behind this?		their effectiveness. Chapter Five answers this question in section 5.3.
H2: Skilled and less-skilled Saudi male students employ different strategies when they write in English.	TAP analysis	Analysis of TAPs shows the differences between skilled and less-skilled students. Chapter Five sections 5.3.1. & 5.3.2 present the results of the analysis.
RQ3: What is the role of writing strategies in creating clear and good written texts in male Saudi context?	Results of the TAP analysis	The results of the TAP analysis reveal the role of writing strategies in creating good written texts. Section 5.3.3 in Chapter Five summarises the answer.

Table 6.1 presents in the first column the research questions and hypotheses, in the second, the part of the data which explores them, and in the third, the chapters and sections that provide answers for them.

6.3 Summary of the Overall Findings

6.3.1 Results of the Analysis of the Written Samples for the Preliminary Study

The results of the analysis of the written samples for the preliminary study indicate that the students' writing suffers from many overt problems, such as sequence of tenses, lack of subject–verb agreement, incorrect use of prepositions, spelling mistakes/orthography, and short sentences (see 4.2.1). The results also showed that covert problems appeared in the writing of the students, among which the analysis identified underdeveloped paragraphs, underdeveloped ideas, lack of appropriate supporting details, and direct translation (see 4.2.2). The results of the analysis of the essays validated the ground of the research and answered the first research question.

The findings of the analysis of the written samples called for further investigation in

order to identify the reasons behind the writing problems of the undergraduate Saudi male students majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University.

6.3.2 Results of the Analysis of the WSQ

The results of the analysis of the WSQ were the first step in the process of identifying the reasons behind the writing problems of fourth-year undergraduate students majoring in English. It is expected that the students' English proficiency will be good enough to enable them to write error-free, coherent and cohesive texts (see 1.2 and 3.2.3).

Analysis of the WSQ indicates that in general the students are aware of the importance of writing strategies, although they do not apply them in practice, as the analysis of the TAPs shows. Nonetheless, there are differences in the number of strategies reported to be used, their kinds, and the frequency of their use between skilled and less-skilled students. For example, students in general reported using meta-cognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies. The major findings can be summarised as follows:

Firstly, regarding the meta-cognitive strategies, it was found that students reported planning and reviewing their writing. However, some of them reported that they only plan their introductions. Others wrote that they think and draw a mental map of how to organise their writing more frequently than written planning. This is in line with Alhaysony's (2008) and El-Aswad's (2002) findings, who stated that their subjects used mental planning.

Secondly, most of the students reported using a wide range of cognitive strategies, such as thinking before writing, simplifying questions, checking for grammar and spelling, and using the dictionary during writing. They also reported writing a draft, thinking of ideas, and organising the ideas appropriately. This echoes the findings of Alam (1993) and Halimah (2001), who mentioned that the students in their studies reported checking their writing and writing a draft and organising their ideas.

Thirdly, more than half of the students reported that they would use social strategies and discuss their writing problems with friends or teachers, but others preferred to discuss them with friends and not teachers. However, a third group showed a negative attitude towards asking for help from anyone when facing problems. They reported that they would prefer to solve any problem alone.

Fourthly, as for the affective strategies, students in general reported that they try to control their emotions and regulate their writing. Half of the students mentioned that they take a break if they feel tired, while the other half disagreed. They almost all reported that they try to avoid using a difficult word, and if they do not know the meaning of a word or the structure of a sentence, they try to avoid using it and look for a simpler alternative. This strategy of avoidance indicates that not all the students are able to respond positively to the affective strategy. The findings parallel those of Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005), who argue that avoidance sometimes leads students to give up on the task. Further, the students reported that they translate from their Arabic L1 if they fail to communicate effectively in English. Some of them reported that they think all the time in Arabic, and they might write their English composition in Arabic,

partially or completely. Others reported that they use only English in their writing, and think in English. These findings agree with El-Aswad (2002) and Al-Gamdi (2009), whose students used the strategy of avoidance when facing language difficulty (see 5.3.2).

Fifthly, a cross-reference of the TAP analysis with the WSQ indicates that students often claim to use the strategies, but in fact they do not always do so. Therefore, the WSQ alone cannot be considered a reliable research method and has to be supported by the TAPs to give a more accurate account of the use of strategies.

6.3.3 Results of the Analysis of the TAPs

The most important findings that can be drawn out of the analysis of the TAPs can be summarised in the following:

First, it was revealed that the students used different kinds of strategies. However, strategies varied in frequency and kind between skilled and less-skilled students. Second, instances of re-reading and rehearsing strategies were dominant during the protocols of both skilled and less-skilled students. Third, long silent periods were captured in the protocols of skilled and less-skilled students. This could be related either to the students experiencing a mental block (see 2.3) and inability to generate ideas, or to the nature of the TAP task. Other possible explanations provided were the lack of pre-planning in the writing of less-skilled students, and over-correction during the writing process, as students tended to stop to think before taking decisions about the content and organisation of the coming text.

Fourth, meta-cognitive knowledge about English writing contributed a great deal to the quality of writing. Findings indicate that students who planned their writing were successful writers, whereas students who did not plan faced difficulty in processing their composition task. In general, skilled students' writing was characterised by the use of explicit meta-cognitive knowledge, so at the pre-writing stage they planned globally, and to some extent locally for their topics. This planning enabled them to keep track of the main ideas of the topic, and know the direction of their writing. So the writing process of the skilled students in this research is of a recursive nature, which confirms Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) knowledge-transforming model (see 2.3).

Fifth, analysis of the protocols of skilled students showed that they used two main strategies: meta-cognitive and cognitive. It also showed that less attention was paid to the social and affective strategies (see 5.3.1). These findings are different from those reached by El-Mortaji (2001), El-Aswad (2002), Alhaysony (2008) and Ghamdi (2009), whose informants used a high level of strategies in terms of type and frequency.

Unlike the findings of other studies (Sasaki, 2000; El-Mortaji, 2001; El-Aswad, 2002; Wang, 2004), the TAP analysis revealed that skilled students had many silent periods. The offered interpretation is related to the fact that students were engaged in goal-related activities, making local decisions, or thinking of what to write next. Other possible interpretations are related to the students themselves, for instance, they are not used to performing such tasks and having their thinking monitored, or they were having difficulty in expressing their ideas in writing so that they had what Rose (1984) calls mental blocks.

Instances of hesitation, repetition, decision making, and speaking-while-writing were also captured during the protocol analysis.

Furthermore, the findings of the analysis of the less-skilled students' protocols revealed that they did not write according to any predetermined plan. Further, they followed what is called the "what-next-strategy" and "I think...what else" (Cumming, 1989, p. 113), where they paused a lot in an attempt to think of what to write next. They re-read, repeated and rehearsed words and phrases in order to complete their sentences. The analysis also revealed that less-skilled students found difficulty in choosing the appropriate words for their topics, and instead of solving this problem they tried to avoid using the words. This strategy of avoidance was dominant among less-skilled students. Therefore, it can be said that the behaviour of less-skilled students is similar to the description provided by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) in the knowledge-telling model (see 2.3).

Code switching and literal translation from Arabic into English were the most significant findings of the analysis of the TAPs from less-skilled students. This was attributed to the inability of the students to think and write in English, and to their poor English repertoire. This finding is in accordance with those of El-Aswad (2002) and Alhaysony (2008), who reported a great deal of translation from Arabic into English in the data provided by their subjects. However, in this study, translation and code switching were considered as a kind of affective and communicative strategy used by the students to regulate their emotions and control their writing task.

To sum up, less-skilled writers in this study seemed unable to produce good written

text because they stumbled over lexis, grammar, punctuation, and capitalisation. They did not know how to solve these writing problems and lacked the use of strategies. Generally, they were unaware of the role of meta-cognitive strategies in regulating the written task, organising ideas, and easing the difficulties (see Chapter Five and 2.2, 2.5, and 2.6). However, even the skilled writers failed to use social and affective strategies, which clearly indicates their inability to use well-defined strategies during the composition process.

Neither skilled nor less-skilled students produced a complete draft of the compositions they wrote. Similarly, both groups revised and edited during the writing stage. However, the nature and the frequency of this editing and revision were different between skilled and less-skilled students. It was also noticeable that skilled students read and edited their writing only marginally at the post-writing stage before finishing their protocols. This conclusion indicates that the students are unaware of the role of post-writing strategies in creating clear and more coherent texts.

6.4 Contribution of the Research

This study was prompted by the paucity of research on the writing strategies of Arab EFL learners. Although it does not claim to be comprehensive, the present study attempts, by integrating multiple methods, to study the written products of final-year undergraduate students and investigate the writing processes and strategies of Saudi males in order to gain a deeper understanding of both the product and the process. Therefore, this study contributes to the field of theory and pedagogy in many ways.

First, as mentioned in the literature review in Chapter Two, there is a gap in the literature in relation to studies on the English writing processes of Arab EFL learners in general, and the Saudi context in particular (see 1.5, 2.5, 2.5.1). Most of the studies in the field concentrate on some sub-process or have their own limitations (see, 2.5, 2.5.1). This study contributes theoretically to the field by exposing areas that need further investigation, and providing more insights into the constituents of the writing processes of Saudi male learners, thereby filling some of the gaps in that field.

Second, this study attempts to investigate in depth some of the writing problems in a Saudi context, so the findings of the data analyses can be used for teaching writing and can consequently contribute to improving the English writing quality of EFL Saudi learners.

Third, to determine the kinds of problems in the writing of the participants of this study, the written samples were analysed following Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) and Sercombe's (2002) frameworks. Combining the two analytical models proved to be successful because they cover different aspects of the text, namely, sentential and intersentential. Therefore, this analytical tool contributes to the field of methodology and provides researchers who have data similar to mine with easy-to-apply analytical tools.

Fourth, all the previous studies investigated writing problems as either a process or a product. However, to the best of my knowledge, this is the first empirical study in the Saudi context which investigates both the written product and the writing process. Therefore, it is expected that the findings of this study will be of vital importance for

EFL learners and teachers in general, and the Saudi context in particular, since they are based on written evidence and TAPs about problematic areas.

Fifth, this study investigates the English writing of male students, thus it is expected for the results to be of interest for gender studies.

Sixth, to code the think-aloud protocols I adapted a coding scheme from Wong (2005) and Wang (2004), and also created more codes that were suitable for the writing processes of Arab EFL learners. Therefore, it is expected that the modified coding scheme in this study will help Arab and EFL researchers to code protocols in more inclusive ways.

Seventh, teaching of English in Saudi Arabia is still product oriented, therefore the findings of this study try to draw the attention of teachers to concentrate on the processes of writing in general, and writing strategies in particular, to help their students create clear and well-written texts. The findings also attempt to raise students' awareness about the value of using writing strategies to facilitate the process of writing their tasks.

6.5 Recommendation for Teaching Writing Strategies

The findings of the research provide insights into the complexity of writing as a process, and highlight the composing problems of Arab EFL learners in general, and Saudi learners in particular. Hence, they might have strong implications for the field of pedagogy and writing instruction:

First, the differences in composing styles and the use of different writing strategies suggest that students were concerned about form and accuracy, rather than having a clear sense of the strategies. Therefore, teachers should take these problems into account, and design appropriate writing activities to promote the use of strategies, and should explicitly teach writing strategies and monitor their application in writing classes.

Second, it was found that nearly all of the less-skilled students did not plan their compositions, and this, in my opinion, affected their writing a great deal. Thus, it is very important to teach and monitor the application of meta-cognitive strategies in writing classes. Teachers and instructors should increase learners' engagement with pre-task activities by enabling them to plan their writing, because this would enhance the quality of the language used during the task by reducing the overall mental burden during writing. This is very important if the task is complex, as it directs learners' attention and efforts to the composing process.

Third, students should be encouraged to produce different drafts, one without planning, and the other with global and local planning. After that, teachers can help students compare the two drafts to notice the differences in the quality of writing. Teachers' and instructors' feedback on the drafts can serve as an effective instructional method to help students improve their writing.

Fourth, results of the data analysis showed that less-skilled students paid very little attention to revision strategies, therefore teachers should be aware of the role revision

plays in the development of good writing. Samples of revised works should be displayed to the students to show them how they can revise and edit their work. This step should furnish ample opportunity for students to practise writing of different types.

Fifth, it was found that students occasionally felt anxious about the writing task, but they neglected the use of affective and social strategies. However, less-skilled students used more affective strategies than skilled ones, though neither group used social strategies. Teachers should be aware of the role of affective and social strategies in regulating students' emotions. Students may get worried and anxious because they are afraid of receiving bad marks, or they may not be able to express in writing what is in their minds. According to Larson (1988), task difficulties can be the result of negative emotional patterns described as "anxiety" and "boredom", which arise when students are unable to adapt to the challenges of the writing assignments. Therefore, tutors are invited to explain explicitly to their students how affective and social strategies can help them cope with their writing problems and consequently make the writing process more productive and enjoyable. Teachers are also invited to work on reducing the gap between them and their students so that students can overcome their fears and request help from their tutors.

Sixth, analysis of the written samples of the preliminary study indicates that students' writing is a linear process. Teachers and instructors should be aware that writing is no longer perceived as a passive task of just filling up the paper with words; instead it is considered a problem-solving task with goals to be attained. Therefore, writing classes should foster the growth of problem-solving and goal-oriented activities to

promote the recursive nature of writing. This could be done by showing students pre-prepared samples of such activities, then they can practise on similar activities, and apply them in their writing.

Seventh, the TAP analysis revealed that students had long silent periods and pauses that were attributed to writer's block (see 2.3), setting organisational goals, or the inability of students to complete their tasks. Hence, teachers and language instructors should contribute to the design of writing courses based on analysis of learners' needs and the findings of this study and relevant similar studies at the tertiary level in the Saudi context. Such courses should find a balance between the level of the students, the genre of study (such as starting with paragraph writing and then essay writing, report writing, etc.), and the writing process. They should help students develop the strategies needed to proceed in their writing without much difficulty.

Eighth, although the focus of this study is not on the syntactic features of the text, it was found, however, that grammatical and spelling problems hindered understanding. Therefore, tutors and language instructors should teach students these aspects of the text, not in isolation but in communicative classes, and they should monitor application of the rules in the students' writing. They should also teach students through the knowledge-telling model as a precursor to the kind of knowledge-transforming writing required by academic exams. Students have the need, the aptitude, and the right to be more than simply consumers of other people's words.

Ninth, finally, instances of code switching and literal translation from Arabic into English were captured during the TAP analysis. Tutors and language instructors

should make their students aware of the role of negative L1 transference. This might best be taught by exhibiting samples of negative L1 transference, and then by collaborative class work and peer revision students can be taught to correct their mistakes.

As a landmark, the protocol analysis used in this study and in many other studies (e.g. Raimes, 1985; Flower and Hayes, 1980b) can be adopted as a valuable teaching tool. Tutors can easily use this technique with their students in the classroom to find out how students are enacting the writing process, and thus help them produce successful texts.

6.6 Limitations of the Study

This study has some limitations, but none of them jeopardises the validity of the research. Firstly, this study investigated the English writing process of male students at King Abdul-Aziz University. Arabic data was collected from the same students to study cases of L1 transference. However, this data was not analysed because of space and time limitations (see 3.6). It might be possible to reduce the number of analysed samples in English in order to analyse the Arabic texts for the same students.

Secondly, data was collected only from male students because of cultural restrictions. Female students study in different campuses where men are not allowed. Therefore, collecting data from that milieu was not permissible for me. It is true that I could have asked for the help of a female tutor there, but then I would have to train that tutor to be able to duplicate all the processes of data collection. For social, cultural and

religious reasons it was very hard to achieve this goal. Even if I could have overcome this difficulty, I was not sure that this tutor could handle the challenges that might arise during data collection without me being there, therefore I abandoned the idea.

Thirdly, after listening to the recordings of the TAPs and analysing the written product, the author originally intended to conduct interviews with the participants to elicit some back-up information about any unclear parts of the tapes. However, the students were reluctant to be interviewed, possibly because they felt that they did not want to go through the process again. Conducting these interviews would have provided the research with rich insights about the students' behaviour during the writing process (for more details see 3.6).

Fourthly, despite the rich data that can be gained from studying the nature of the writing process in depth, TAP is a limited research method. Analysis of the TAP showed that some students, such as M.Kh., found the task difficult, and reported this by saying “**I am not used to such kind of tests**” (see Appendix 6). He added that he was not used to writing while verbalising his thinking. He felt uncomfortable because there was another person present. This point raises questions concerning the validity of the TAP, which was questioned by Hertzum *et al.* (2009) (see 2.8.2).

6.7 Suggestions for Further Research

The thesis work could be continued in several directions, addressing various issues that still need to be tackled in the field of English writing in the Arab milieu, as shown in the literature review (see 2.5, 2.51). Other empirical studies like this serve as a

springboard for a number of studies in the writing field. Since this study is the first of its kind in the Saudi male educational context, so its results need to be confirmed and complemented by further studies in order to gain better understanding of the nature of the English writing of Saudi learners. Possible recommended research topics might include:

First, this study investigated the English writing processes of male students majoring in English at King Abdul-Aziz University, and for practical reasons it was impossible to analyse their Arabic texts. Another study might consider using TAPs to collect data from Arabic and English writing classes to study the writing processes in both languages. This would allow instances of L1 negative transference, such as code switching and literal translation, to be interpreted based on empirical evidence.

Second, it was impossible to conduct interviews to back up the findings of the TAPs. Another study could use classroom observation, video recording, writing strategy questionnaires and TAPs to get deeper insights into the students' behaviours during the writing process.

Third, the results of the data analysis showed the value of each writing strategy in facilitating the written task. Other studies might like to investigate each writing strategy separately in order to make a more exact assessment of what happens during each stage. The findings of such studies would provide the field of education with valuable results.

Fourth, this study investigated the writing processes without considering the role of motivation and attitude as important factors in fostering the writing process. Further work could study the impact of motivation, attitude and the use of writing strategies on the written product of Arab EFL students. The findings of such studies would provide the field with interesting results and a better understanding of what drives the writing task.

Finally, this study was conducted using data from writing classes at King Abdul-Aziz University (see 3.2.1). Another researcher might prefer to teach writing strategies explicitly and monitor their application. After that, she/he could collect sets of samples, one from those who had studied and applied strategies in their routine writing, and the other from those who did not apply them. Comparison of the results would provide empirical evidence about the impact of using writing strategies on the written product.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter has summarised the findings of the research, encapsulated the contribution of the study, presented recommendations for teaching writing strategies, highlighted the limitations of the study, and suggested areas for further research.

After the long journey of this PhD project, which took me a lot of effort and stress, I have to confess that reading in the literature enhanced my thoughts and broadened my teaching approaches. The results of the data analysis, on the other hand, changed my teaching techniques, and enhanced my teaching approaches. However, the long

journey towards understanding the complex nature of the writing process remains incomplete, and highlights the need for more research in this field. Despite their significance, the findings of this study need to be replicated by other studies taking into consideration some of the suggestions proposed for further research. The results then might add more efforts to the field of writing processes.

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Appendix 1

The Students' Written Essays for the Diagnostic Writing Test

Student (1)

I think it is don't work children work early, because don't healthy for lifes. But teach early very good from late, help to get good learning.

But problem in poors children must go to work in small, get to many because life.

Teach learning in small children get to student

1- good learning.

2- get to carier very good

3- after school he's more teach and mony from work

4- he can learning children coming schools down becous better learning.

(deffrent children poors)

they are go to work becous get to many for eat, wear, family and others. They are lifes very bad and don't teach early. The children poors working for other resons.

1- get to many for easy life

2- they needs to eat, wear, drink.

3-trying traviling for happy from life old.

They are lifes sad and very bad

Becouse don't enght mony and teach

Learning and don't go to school

Always work

Student (2)

I think in the developing countrise many families are poors or don't have money to let thier

Children complete their

Education, so they send their

Children to work to bring money, so they did good thing, but if can let their

Children study that will be best, because when the person get good education he will get good work , and bring more money than that.

I agree with the Families when they send their children to work, but. If they can complete their education that will be best because they will live happy life.

Student (3)

In begging ((what they can do?)) in these countries all the children work to get a food, If they don't work you will find them in the wars or maybe do something not good like thief, drugs, killing

My opinion I agree that if countries don't help them.

Student (4)

In many developing countries , children work in some form to be in necessary income from an early age . in the first world many people think this is damaging and wrong but others would argue that their work brings them a sense of contributing belonging and responsibility .

What is your opinion ?

Children around world

I think there are many opinions some time the opinions be agree and disagree . on the world there are many life styles , life ways , more culture all these things effect in opinion when you see for any place and you deep at life way you will can understand

why this opinion . the life around the world not sometime for any country change setting .

When I like to talk about children and responsibility I will display what's change between country and another . there are big different between any person life in America or any country in Europe and any person life in Africa or Asian .

The Amaki people of Europe people look for children by good way and them help the children for complete and finished all school leveal . the developing country build the children for future and them give the children chance for doing any thing and say any thing without minotaur or stress. In the developing country the children mean any one under then 17 year . there are good sentences (good children mean better future). I think all this thing help children . in 3 world there are many different and change opinion for children form , in 3 world don't care ul learn and school . some (country very poor and more people , to learn bad health ,bad economy . the children in the 3 world work in the street , without any look for future . the boys changes by the all around for him . when the children life in good whether will develop for better .

Student (5)

In many developing countries , children work in some from to bring in necessary in come from an early age . in the first world , many people thin this is damaging and wrong but others would agree that their work brings them a sense of contributing , belonging and responsibility .

What is your opinion ? I agree childern work because help family bring necessary in come form an early age .

Get good responsibility .

I don't agree because on children's take tracheas on life study after that reserptsh on job . but this only retch children's .

Student (6)

Children works :

Many people think that children can work , but some think the other se the other side of the subject . those who think they should work say " children can learn responsibility , by longing and contributing . those who think they shouldn't because it's lead them to be dranked now I will start " now will start tell you my opinion for lines .

Every one know the work make you responsible for your on live.

Thus , some let children work with them in order to teach them that . In my opinion that aggod to let them responsible . that I the order to goes of children with . the disadvantages when they get a lot of many they start to play with it and buy a lot of unusable stuff . the farther should two teach them how to spent they many first then let them work with him or let them start small work idea.

Student (7)

Many people think that children could work , but some think they shouldn't . I will tell you my opinion of these two ideas in short lines . I will tell you the advantages and disadvantages.

Work let any one know how to be responsible us obildern . there fathers take them to work with him to teach them that some time it is work and some not . the reasons is he is stell as boy , hwwant to play a lot , go out with friends.

Student (8)

Wleed

It's quite common that most of the developing countries children work during their free time. Especially in the afternoon many children in developing as well as themselves most children in Africa work because the poor countries like Africa are working part time. Because they can not pay the school fees or tuition. So it is a thing to work.

Some others do not have parents help them to pay their expenses, in that case go to school.

There are also students from the third world do not get the help from eleemosynary corporations and state enterprises at the major powers coordination and cooperation the United Nations (UN) managing schools, buses and food most of the war-torn countries in the world need the synergism to save children in Africa and go to school just.

Student (9)

The people who agree with this point why do they agree with the point? Let's look at the advantages:

1- they think the child will not need any help in the future when he will be a man

2- they give him some explanation.

3- he knows what he will do in the future.

The people who don't agree with this point why? Let's look at their points:

1- the child must study in the school because of his job now.

2- the child will not save his money and his time.

So my opinion is:

We must give them some neccession with some help of ous because the child need something good of him and make his family very happy of him.

Student (10)

I think some of countries have problem with children in an early age. In fact that age should be learn age and anjoy in theirtime with their friend because the child between 7–18 he doesn't know what is the necessary with him?

If the children are using their think that not enogh the countries should be care with them because these are beginning nations.

I think we have a problem with our children if don't give theirtime

The children work in some form to bring in necessary in come from an early age that poor nation or not a good country. I think so.

Student (11)

It's quite common that most of the developing countries children work during their free time. Especially in the afternoon, to earn income or to help their parents as well as themselves. Many children in developing countries like Africa are working part time. Because, they can not afford to pay the school fee or tution. So, its normal thing to work.

Some others don't have parents help them to pay their expenses, in that case they should work.

There are also student from the third world those are studying in the west or let me say in Europe or America they must work in order to help themselves and also their parents in Africa.

So, in my opinion its very good to study and work at the same time even if you are from a rich family because that will help you to be a self sponsored person or to depend on yourself.

Appendix 2

Covering Letter

Dear Colleagues,

Please find enclosed/attached a copy of the questionnaire I intend to distribute to Saudi male-students at King Abdul-Aziz University to collect data for my PhD project. The aim of my PhD project is to investigate the writing strategies and their impact on the written product of those students. Therefore, I would really appreciate it if you could read carefully the questionnaire, fill it in, and then answer the following questions. Please feel free to add any suggestions that might improve the work.

Lay out

1. Do you think the lay out of the questionnaire is user- friendly?

Yes

Needs amendment

2. If you think that it needs amendments, do you have any suggestions?

.....
.....

Content

1. Do you have any reservations about any of the statements? If yes, please state your reasons?

.....
.....

2. Do you think the statements mentioned are:

Enough

Too much

Not enough

.....
3. Do you find any redundant statements?

.....
.....
4. Do you find any irrelevant items?

.....
6. How long did it take you to answer the questionnaire?

Less than 20 minutes

20-30 minutes

More than 30 minutes

.....
7. Do you find overlapping items? If yes, please specify.

.....
8. Do you find the language of the questionnaire clear and suitable for the level of final year Saudi students majoring in English?

.....
.....

Thanks for your help

Khalid Alharthi

Appendix 3

Personal Background Questionnaire and Likert-scale WSQ

1. PERSONAL BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the writing strategies of Saudi Arab males at King Abdul-Aziz University majoring English. I would be grateful if you could answer the following questions. The information provided will be of great help in my study and will be treated anonymously.

استبيان

لقد تم تصميم هذا الاستبيان للحصول على معلومات حول الأساليب التي يتبعها الطلبة الذكور في كتاباتهم باللغة الانكليزية في قسم اللغة الانكليزية بجامعة الملك عبد العزيز في المملكة العربية السعودية.

أشكر تفضلكم بالاجابة على الأسئلة التالية. سوف تستخدم المعلومات التي سيتم الحصول عليها من هذا الاستبيان لأغراض البحث فقط دون ذكر الأسماء ولا يمكن ان تعطى لطرف ثالث. z.

PERSONAL AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Name: _____

Age: _____

Field of study: _____

Year of English study: _____

First language: _____

معلومات شخصية

..... الاسم:

..... العمر:

..... الدراسة:

..... السنة الدراسية:

..... اللغة الأم:

BACKGROUND INFORMATION IN ENGLISH WRITING

- خبرة الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية

1. How many years have you spent studying English?

- كم سنة أمضيت في تعلم اللغة الانكليزية؟

.....
.....

2. How many times a week do you write in English?

كم مرة تكتب باللغة الانكليزية في الأسبوع؟

.....
.....

3. What kind of essays do you write most (argumentative, narrative, descriptive, expository)?

Argumentative = When you write an argumentative essay, you mention different points of view and try to convince the reader with one of them.

Narrative = When you write a narrative essay, you tell a story or something that happened in the past.

Descriptive = When you write a descriptive essay, you describe a person, a place, a thing, an experience.

Expository = When you write an expository essay, you give information, explain the topic or define something.

3- أي نوع من المقالات تكتب دائما (الحوارية/ التي تعتمد على مختلف وجهات

النظر، السردية ، الوصفية ، التفسيرية)؟

الحوارية= عندما يطلب منك ان تكتب مقالة تذكر فيها مختلف وجهات النظر و بعد ذلك تتبنى احداها في محاولة لاقتناع القارئ برأيك.

السردية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تروي فيها قصة حدثت في الماضي أو حياة كاتب أو سرد روائي.

الوصفية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تصف فيها أحد الأشخاص أو الأماكن أو الأشياء أو تجربة ما.

التفسيرية = و ذلك عن تكتب مقالة تعطي فيها معلومات تشرح عن شئ ما أو تعرف بشئ ما.

.....
.....

4. When you write English essays, do you think in English or in Arabic?

4- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية ، هل تفكر باللغة الانكليزية أم باللغة العربية؟

.....
.....

5. When you write in English do you try to translate Arabic ideas?

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية، هل تلجأ الى أسلوب ترجمة أفكارك من اللغة العربية؟

.....
.....

2. THE LIKERT-TYPE WSQ

Please make a tick under the choice that best describes what you do or how you behave when you are writing.

2- الاستبيان:

رجاء ضع اشارة صحيح (✓) تحت الاختيار الذي يصف ما تعمله أو يبين ما تقوم به

عندما تكتب

Meta-cognitive Strategies Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
استراتيجيات تحفيز الذاكرة	أوافق بشكل مطلق	أوافق	غير متأكد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق أبداً
1. I plan my writing before I start. أضع خطة للموضوع قبل البدء بالكتابة					
2. I only plan the introduction. أضع العناصر والنقاط الرئيسية للمقدمة فقط					
3. I think of the way I organise my writing. أضع تصورا شاملا لكتابة الموضوع					
4. I try to check what I have written before passing it to my teacher. اراجع ماكتبته قبل تسليمه الى المدرس					
5. When I write, I stop quite often to read what I have written before continuing. أتوقف أثناء الكتابة لمراجعة ما كتبته ثم اتابع					
6. I always compare my writing with previous composition to see if I have improved my writing level. أحاول دائما مقارنة كتابتي بكتابات انشائية سابقة لنا لمعرفة مدى تطور كتابتي					
7. I always think of similar situations. أنا مهتم بمتابعة هذا الموضوع					
8. I imagine things to be able to write. ألجأ الى الخيال أثناء الكتابة					
9. I do not plan my writing beforehand. لا أضع خطة مسبقة للكتابة مسبقا					
10. I read and compare my writing with the writing of my friends. أقرأ ما كتبت وأقارنه مع كتابة زملائي					
11. I like to write alone and not to see the writing of my friends. أفضل أن أكتب لوحدي و لا أطلع على كتابات زملائي					

Cognitive Strategies Statement					
استراتيجيات تتعلق بالذاكرة					
12. Before writing, I always think of what I want to write. قبل البدء احاول التفكير بما اريد ان اكتب					
13. I try to make the question simple so I can it more easily. أحاول أن أبسط السؤال لأتمكن من الجواب عليه					
14. When writing, I make notes about certain points. أحاول تسجيل بعض الملاحظات أثناء الكتابة.					
15. I always write a draft. اقوم بكتابة المسودة أولاً					
16. I use dictionaries. أستخدم القاموس أثناء الكتابة					
17. I use ideas from textbooks when I write. استعمل كتب النصوص أثناء الكتابة					
18. I always check spelling and grammatical mistakes. أتأكد دائماً من كتابة المفردات بشكل صحيح ومن عدم وجود أخطاء قواعدية					
19. I always memorise things from lectures. أنا دائماً أحفظ غيباً ما يعطى من خلال الدروس					
20. I always memorise things from textbooks and include them in my composition. أنا دائماً أحفظ غيباً معلومات من الكتب و أستعملها أثناء كتابتي.					
21. I do not use any memorised ideas. I like to write my own ideas. لا أستخدم أفكاراً أحفظها عن غيب في كتاباتي بل أفضل أن أعبر عن افكاري الخاصة.					
22. When I write, I like to refer to similar topics discussed during the course. مناقشتها / عندما أكتب أفضل الإشارة الى مواضيع مشابهة تمت دراستها في هذه المادة					

23. I like to organise my writing according to the ideas discussed previously. أفضل أن أنظم كتابتي حسب الأفكار التي تتم مناقشتها مسبقا					
Social Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالجانب الاجتماعي					
24. If I find the composition difficult, I like to discuss it with a friend. إذا كان موضوع الانشاء صعب أفضل أن أناقشه مع أحد الزملاء					
25. I like to write my ideas down and try to solve any problems alone. أفضل أن أقوم بكتابة الأفكار التي تخطر لي و أحاول التغلب بمفردي على الصعاب التي تعترضني.					
26. Sometimes, I like to see the writings of others to know how they compose their ideas. يكتبون أحيانا أرغب بمشاهدة كتابات الطلبة الآخرين كي أعرف كيف هم أفكارهم.					
27. When I am composing and I cannot convey the meaning, I ask for the help of my teacher. إذا لم أتمكن التعبير عن المعنى الذي أريده أثناء الكتابة أطلب مساعدة المدرس					
28. I do not ask for the help of my teacher if I have difficulty. I prefer to discuss it with a friend. لا أطلب مساعدة المدرس إذا واجهتني صعوبة بل أفضل أن أناقشها مع أحد زملائي					
29. I do not like my writing to be discussed in front of others. لا أحب أن أناقش كتابتي أمام الآخرين.					
Affective Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالدوافع والانفعالات					
30. Writing is a difficult task that makes me nervous. الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية صعبة وتجعلني عصبي المزاج					
31. I like writing in English.					

أحب الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية					
32. If I have difficulties while writing, I try to take a break and do a different activity. إذا واجهت صعوبة أثناء الكتابة فأنني أستريح وأعمل شيئاً آخرأ					
33. If I have difficulty in spelling a word, I try to avoid using it. إذا واجهت صعوبة في تهجئة كلمة فأنني أتجنب استعمالها					
34. If I do not understand a word, I try to avoid using it. ان لم أتمكن من فهم معنى مفردة فأنني أتجنب استعمالها					
35. If I do not know exactly the meaning of a word, I use another one. ان لم أتمكن من فهم المعنى الدقيق لمفردة فأنني أستعمل مفردة اخرى					
36. If I am unable to use the right grammatical tense in English, I try always to use simple tense. ان لم أتمكن من استخدام التركيب القواعدي الصحيح فأنني أُلجأ الى استعمال الزمن البسيط					
37. If I am confused about an English structure, I try to translate from Arabic. إذا لم أتمكن من استعمال تركيب لغوي فأنني أترجم من اللغة العربية تراكيب مشابهة.					
38. If I do not know the past and past participle of a verb, I usually add, for example, 'ed' to the present form to change it into past. إذا لم أتمكن من معرفة الزمن الماضي للفعل أو اسم المفعول الى صيغة الزمن الحاضر. (ED) فأنني عادة اضيف					
39. If the composition is difficult to write, I write only few sentences. إذا كان الموضوع صعب فأنني أكتب بضع جمل فقط.					
40. If the composition is difficult to write, I try to calm down. إذا كان الموضوع صعب فأنني أحاول أن أستجمع هدوني.					
41. If the composition is difficult to write, I try to put it					

into simple English. إذا كان الموضوع صعب فأنني أعيد صياغة السؤال بأسلوب مبسط.					
42. If I do not know how to write, I get nervous. أذا لم أعرف كيف أكتب فأنني أصبح عصبي المزاج.					
43. If I get nervous, I cannot write. عندما أصبح عصبي المزاج لا أستطيع الكتابة.					

Appendix 4

Prompts of the Think-aloud Protocol

The following questions are used to prompt writing the topics:

Topic one: write a descriptive topic about a dream you would like to come true.

1. What is your dream in life?
2. Which idea do you like most studying, getting married, travelling abroad or starting a business?
3. What do you want to do in life?

Topic two: write a narrative topic about the best holiday you ever had.

1. Do you like to travel abroad?
2. Who did you spend your holiday with?
3. How did you prepare for the holiday?
4. How many days did you spend in that holiday?
5. What do you like about it?
6. Why you can not forget this holiday?

The following pictures are used to prompt writing the topics:

Topic one: *write a descriptive topic about a dream you would like to come true.*

Think of these pictures. Do any of them represent your dream?

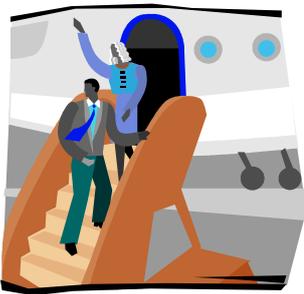




Topic two: write a narrative topic about the best holiday you ever had.







Appendix 5

The Codes Used in the Analysis of the TAPs

The codes that have been adopted from Wong (2005) and Wang (2004)

(.)	Short Pause less than a minute
(..)	Pause less than two minutes
(...)	Long Pause more than two minutes
(QG)	Question to generate text
(-A)	Negative self-assessment
(E)	Editing operations (making changes to text that do not affect meaning)
(ESP)	Editing Spelling error
(RVWC)	Revising operation- word choice
(PL)	Planning at sentence, or paragraph level
(HE)	Hesitation
(EV)	Evaluation of progress
(QC)	Question to check text
(RS2)	Rereading two or more sentences
(RT)	Reading the topic assignment
(RR)	Reading what has been written
(ED)	Editing-deletion
(PUNC)	Punctuation

Codes I created and used in the transcripts

(S1)	Stage one: pre writing stage
(S2)	Stage two: writing stage
(S3)	Stage three: post writing stage
(TH)	Thinking aloud to generate ideas
(SOG)	Setting organizational goal
(SA)	Sign of approval; usually 'OK', 'WELL'.
(SAS)	Self-assessment strategies. For example the student might say

“should erase comma, to replace it with another punctuation, or to change a word for another, or delete and replace a phrase or sentence to improve the writing quality.

(PAS)	Positive assessment strategy such as to say, I think this paragraph is well written, good!!!
(FO)	Stressing the format of writing such as to say: I will write a topic sentence, or to say let’s move to the second paragraph.
(SCG)	Setting content goal
(IR)	Irrelevant to the text
(CG)	Checking grammar
(CO)	Confirmation strategy
(R)	Repetition
(Re)	Revision
(Fr)	Sound of frustration (aufff...)(ahh...)
(Fu)	Utterance of frustration (I don’t know....oh God)
(T)	Translation
(CS)	Code Switching
(CH)	Checking information such as returning back to a previous paragraph to check a name.
(PWC)	Problems in the word choice
(EAM)	Editing that affects meaning
(DW)	Deciding what to write

Appendix 6

The Think-aloud Protocols

First Protocol of a skilled student

M.Al.Kha's TAP

Total time: 1:14:12.

(Instructor) State your Name

My Name is M.A.K.

I am going to write an essay about holiday which I (...)

I am going to write an essay which I got one summer in my age

So

ممکن تتکلم بالعربي بالإنجليزي أي شيء

(Instructor) Speak it in Arabic in English or what so ever.

1. First of all well I used to write introduction (PL) . Then to introduction . To let me
2. (RS2) Get the all points of the essay . That's ok (SA).First of all I am going to write
3. the points. First point is: where was (RS2) that holiday? number one (...)
4. Number two (...). How many months did it last (RS2)
5. Third point (SCG) Third point is (...).What was the most interesting things? (QG)
6. Which made it (RS2) Third point which was the (SG) most interesting (RS2) thing
7. which made it .What was the most interesting thing which made it (RS2)
8. unbelievable. Let's say unbelievable (PL)
9. Number four: So (...) where was that holiday? (QG) How many months did it last?
- 10.(QG) What was the most interesting thing which made it unbelievable? (QG)
11. What else? (TH) (...)Were you with your family or not? (...) Did you (RS2)

12. spend it with family or not? (QG) Did you spend it with family? (QG). (..) Ok
13. Lets start
14. First paragraph (RS2) Lets write the introduction then we will take points by
15. points, step by step then during then during the well during (RS2) the writing
16. process may be some points come to my mind, so lets start (ES)
17. (..)
18. Ok (SAS)
19. First paragraph (SCG/PL)
20. First sentence should be topic sentence should be should (RS2) give summary
21. (RS2) about the whole paragraph so first paragraph (RS2)
22. (..) First sentence should be the topic sentence of course (RS2)
23. The most interesting (RS2) or the most interesting or (RS2) the most beautiful,
24. we will say the most beautiful (RS2). The most beautiful (RS2). The most beautiful holiday (RS3)
25. in my life. The most beautiful holiday in my life (RS2) was last summer.
26. We should leave indentation (FO) so was last summer in Syria.
27. Ok (SAS) So the most beautiful holiday in 28. my life was last summer (RS2) in Syria.
28. This is the topic sentence which gives where was
29. that holiday (RS2) and when it happened and when did it happened
30. the topic sentence and the first paragraph). So the most beautiful holiday in
31. my life was last summer in Syria, so yeah (SAS). It lasted for two months and half lasted
32. for two months and half (RS3). There are many exciting things (RS3) there are many

33. exciting and funny things (RS3).Ok, (SAS) this is sentence no 3 (SAS). The most beautiful

34. holiday in my life was last summer in Syria it last for two months and a half (QG).

There

35. are many exciting and funny things (RS2).What else should be written (RS2) in the first

36. paragraph. Well (SAS), lets say in fact (RS2). The most (RS2) lets say in fact, I have to in

37. fact the most wonderful (RS2) event was in the most wonderful event (RS2) was in

38. Damascus. Well so (SAS). The most beautiful holiday in my life was last semester in Syria

39. was last summer sorry was last summer in Syria (RS2) it lasted for 2 months and half

40. there are many exciting and funny things in fact the most wonderful event was in

41. Damascus. Of course, (..) I spend it (RS3) well (SAS) I spend it with my friends ...Of

42. course I spend it with my friends (RS3). (RS2)The most beautiful holiday in my life was

43. last semester in Syria sorry was last summer in Syria it lasted for 2 and a half there are

44. many exciting and funny things. In fact, the most wonderful event was in Damascus of

45. course, I spent it with my friends, and I got new experience new experiences (RS2) yeah

46. of course.. since it is (..) we do not have to put in article (CG). Well so of course I spent

47. with my friends and I got new experiences (RS2). So far it is good (SAS). Well I think this

48. introduction first paragraph. Should be Introduction about the whole essay (GO) .

Well 49 Lets take one by one and explain everything so (PL/SOG). May be

51. should I describe should I mentioned the reason why I choose Syria in particular? (QG)

52. so let me say this was the introduction first paragraph (RS1).

53. Lets write second paragraph (FO) lets take step by step point by point (FO). Well, (SAS) (.) Lets

54. begin with (.) Come on (ES) (.. 69 Sec). Yeah let me say(..) Yeah let me say it (RS1) I

55. choose Syria I think its not good to start with this sentence (SAS). I think so it should be

56. (..) Cancel this one (SAS) Ok (SAS). Let me think .. The most the most

57. beautiful (RS1) Lets change words 'write' in other words (E) The (..) Yeah (SAS) My

58. splendid my traffic let me write it then we can revise it so my terrific I am not sure about

59. this spelling any how is it off the terrific (ESP). Well any how(SAS). My terrific Vacation

60. (..) my terrific vacation (RS2) was last summer (..) last summer (RS2) in Syria (..) My

61. terrific vacation was in Syria (..) My terrific vacation was last summer in Syria (RS2). For

62. several reasons let's say that for several reasons, ok (SAS). My terrific vacation was last

63. summer in Syria for several reasons (RS1). Do you think it's acceptable? (QG). Well we

64. will revise it (SAS). So for several reasons. First of all, let's say that, first of all

65. (RS2) Syria is (RS2) of course my opinion to say Syria let me say the most specific Syria

66. is Syria first of all Syria in my point of view, Syria in my point of view has the cheapest

67. (RS2) country in Arab first of all Syria in my point of view is the cheapest country (RS2)

68. in Syria in my point of view has the cheapest (RS2) country in Arab (..) first of all Syria

69. in my point of view is the cheapest country (RS2) in Arab world. Here moreover, it is

70. well I liked it much. Moreover it is, it is the most (RS2). Moreover well my terrific

71. vacation was last summer in Syria for several reasons First of all Syria in my point of

72. view is the cheapest country (RS1) in Arab world as well. In this paragraph I should write

73. why I choose Syria in particular. Well much better. So moreover it is the most (..)

74. well, (SAS) What is the suitable word here (CCW) Come on (ES). Moreover it's the 75. most the most (RS2) splendid the most. Moreover it's the nicest (RS2) it's the nicest country.

76. Moreover it's the nicest country (RS3). In fact, there are many parts (RS2) there are

77. many parts (RS2) there are many parts home districts, well there are many ponds,

78. districts, clean beach or shore what so ever clean beach, (RS2) what else very generous

79. people (RS2) well very generous and friendly (RS2) people. They are very very nice (..)

80. ok so (SAS). My terrific vacation was last summer in Syria for several reasons. First of all

81. Syria in my point of view is the cheapest country in Arab world, moreover its nicest

82. country in fact there are many parts calm districts clean beach plus very generous and

83. friendly people. Well (SAS) I think this one is sufficient (CO) so, this is why I choose Syria

84. in particular well should I take the second point that is how many months did it last (PL).

85. Well (SAS) I think should be joint to first paragraph sorry second paragraph it should be

86. joint to second paragraph (GO). I think so because does not deserve one paragraph for

87. period of time so (PL) Very friendly people. Let me write something. Well (SAS)
it
88. deserves more and more and more. Alright (SA) (..)
89. Well (SAS) in addition (RS2) In addition. Oh (FR) come on (FU). Addition
customs
90. (RS2) of Syrians society (RS2) is very close . Should I write no 'its' enough?
(QC). In
91. addition customs of Syrian Society there is no need for 'is' very close to ours. In
addition
92. customs of Syrian society is very close to ours
93. Good (SAS) and Let me say, yeah. Let me say finally finally, my journey after, I
should
94. write in small letters (CO) my journey so finally my journey or trip or expedition
my
95. journey lasted for my journey lasted for, well, from two months and half, two
months
96. and half (RS1) and was was (RS1) the best the best (RS1) short period in my life.
That's
97. enough, well (CO).
98. My terrific vacation (RS2). My terrific vacation was last summer in Syria for
several
99. reasons. First of all Syria in my point of view is the cheapest country in Arab
world.
100. Moreover its nicest country in fact there are many parts, calm districts, clean
beach, and

101. after calm beach clean beach
102. should erase comma and write instead of comma and because yeah it's the last
103. one (PUNC)And oh (FR) Come on (ES)
104. And very generous (RS2) and friendly people. In addition customs of Syrian
105. society is very close to ours. Finally my journey lasted for 2 months and half
106. and was the best short period in my life.
107. Let me start with Second topic (PL).What was the most interesting thing which made it
108. unbelievable? (QG) Deserves more (PL) So (...) Let me write the topic sentence (PL).
109. Third paragraph now. Third paragraph (SOG). What was the most interesting thing
110. which made it unbelievable which was in ladukyah? (QG). So let me write being in yeah
111. (PL).Being in lagu ... I do not know the real word (QS) may be its written in English I
112. don't know so let me write it but explanation between let me write an opposite after it
113. (QS).So being in al ladukyah which is positive Syrian beach yeah (..). Much better to
114. word Syrian beach (Editing), word Syrian beach word Syrian beach ok (PAS) So being
115. in ladukyah where the Syrian beach was (.). The being in ladukyah where the Syrian

116. beach was the. Let me think about it (Cognitive strategy). Being in latukiyah where the

117. Syrian beach there is not need for article (CG).

118. Something confusing (SAS) Being in ladukyah where Syrian beach was the splendid

119. was the splendid time in my in my expedition. Being in ladukyah where Syrian beach

120. was a splendid time splendid time in my expedition in my expedition (RS2). So being in

121. ladukyah where Syrian beach was a splendid time in my expedition (..) After, well (SAS).

122. Should I mentioned yeah exactly what happened? (QG). So After I went to that beach I

123. changed. After I went to that beach I changed my opinion (RS1) my opinion toward

124. Syrians. In fact (..) Some of them (.). Or Some of Syrians . Some of Syrians are very free

125. (RS2). They have lost values no they have values but you know because of time I think

126. they missed them or they disobey them much better of course they have value they are

127. Arabs, they are Muslims. So being in ladukyah where Syrian beach was a splendid time

128. in my expedition. After I went to that (RS1). After I went to that beach I changed my

129. opinion my opinion (RS1) toward Syrians. In facts most of Syrians are very free
let me

130. say they do not or they they don't obey they don't obey or they don't follow
much better

131. they don't follow Islamic values and Islamic values culture they do not follow
Islamic

132. values and cultures accurately or precisely(RS2).

133. Well (SAS) I went to that beach I changed my opinion toward Syrians. In facts
most of

134. the Syrians are very free they do not follow Islamic values and culture Islamic
values

135. and Islamic no (SAS). They don't follow Islamic values and cultures precisely.
Well it's

136. ok no problem. So Islamic values and cultures preciously. On the other hand let
me talk

137. about the other side. I think majority. The other side is majority. On the other
hand

138. (RS2), on the other hand the majority the majority of Syrians the majority (RS2)
of Syrians are

139. conservative ..Come on (ES). Being in ladukyah where the Syrian beach was
splendid

140. time in my expedition. It was the most interesting thing which made it
unbelievable

141. something terrible happened

142. Topic sentence varies from rest of paragraph (FO). So what should I say here.

Being of

143. splendid I should erase all these sentences? (GS). Or leave them for last. Well (SAS).

144. Let me being in ladukyah where the Syrian beach was splendid time in my expedition.

145. Let me write this paragraph. It's wrong (SAS). Well (SA) Being in ladukyah where Syrian

146. beach, was splendid..was the most splendid time in my expedition. Yeah (SAS).In my

147. expedition in fact, in fact well being in ladukyah where Syrian beach is positive was the

148. most splendid time in my expedition in fact there are there is a well organized (RS3)

149. there is a well organized beach (RS2) in fact there is a well organized beach, there is a

150. well organized beach and, and very superb, very superb apartments (RS3) which belong

151. or which have, which have (...) well Being in ladukyah where Syrian beach was the most

152. splendid time in my expedition in fact there is a well organized beach and very superb

153. apartments which have unique unique design so well so in addition what's more to

154. change.. what's more (TH), there are very pretty and attractive ladies so what's more

155. (TH) there are very pretty and attractive ladies (RS2). (.) Most or (.) The most or the

156. most (RS3) strange foreign the most strange or (.) The most wierd. The most wierd

157. thing which I the most wierd thing which I figured out the most wierd (RS2) thing

158. which I figured out which I figured out and so the most real thing which I figured out

159. (RS2) and had a big affect a great affect which had a great effect on my life

160. (RS2). So the most bear thing which I figured it out which I figured it out (RS2) and had

161. a great effect on my on my life and simultaneously and simultaneously changed (RS1).

162. The most wearied thing which I figured it out and had a great effect on my life and

163. simultaneously changed my opinion changed my (RS2)(..). My.. the most wearied thing which

164. I figured it out and had a great effect on my life has simultaneously changed my opinion.

165. Is that is well? (QC). The most wierd thing which I figured it out and had a great

166. effect on my life and simultaneously changed my opinion is that is (..). Well the most

167. weird thing which I figured it out and had a great effect on my life and simultaneously

168. changed my opinion (RS2) is that is, Changed my opinion, (TH) is something on the beach

169. (RS2) Well being in Ladukyah where Syrian beach was the most spe...

170. I have to re-read this paragraph (RR) Well being in Ladukyah where Syrian beach was

171. the most splendid time in my expedition in fact there is a well organized beach and very

172. superb apartments which have a unique design we should put 'an article' what's more?

173. there are very pretty and attractive ladies. The most weird thing which I figured it out

174. and had a great effect on my life and simultaneously changed my opinion is something

175. on the beach. Is it convenient? (EV) Doesn't sound English this sentence although it is

176. long one? (PAS) but the most weird thing (RS1) which I figured it out and had a great

177. effect on my life and simultaneously my opinion is that something is that (RS2) is that

178. something on almost because all where in the sentence with the past so we must put all

179. in the past so we must put it in the past to changed my opinion is something on the

180. beach Syrian Society (RS3) is divided into two parts into, let me say in this sentence you

181. are talking about before we are not describing Syrian society (SOG) how should I write

182. the statement about that one? (QG). Well I have seen conservative people and free

183. people so they are well the most wierd thing which I figured it out and had a great

184. effect on my life and simultaneously my opinion was that something on the beach (.)

185. Come on (ES) get out (TH) (.) To my opinion , I have to be more precise and accurate

186. changed my opinion about Syrian society (TH)

187. About Syrian society was that there is nothing since we mentioned this (SAS) the most

188. Weird thing which I figured it out and had a great effect on my life and simultaneously

189. changed my opinion about Syrian society was on the beach how should I state this

190. correctly(...) Come on (ES) (.) No (FU). Some (...) On the other hand (...)

191. Conservative even if they are not Muslims, (RS3) So being in latukiyah where Syrian

192. beach was the most splendid time in my expedition in fact there is a well organized

193. beach and very superb apartments which have a unique design (RS2) So what's more

194. there are very pretty and attractive ladies. The most weird thing which I figured it out

195. and had a great effect on my life and simultaneously changed my opinion about Syrian

196. society was that on the beach. Some Syrians are very free and they do not follow Islamic

197. values and culture on the other hand majority are conservative even if they are not

198. muslims. Even if they are not muslims but they have their own traditions Yeah good (PAS)

199. They have their own traditions. Good (EV)

200. Let me take the last point (RR) which is the .. did I spend it with my family? (QG).

201. Much better (PAS) let me think (FO), I feel happy when I , I feel happy I feel happy, when I

202. feel happy (RS2) when I am with my friends when I am with my friends specially

203. specially during specially during specially during (RS2) I feel happy when me with my

204. friends specially during travelling (..) travelling or lets say picnics or what so ever I feel

205. happy when I am with my friends specially when travelling or in picnics. Although I

206. enjoyed my time I enjoyed my time for being (RS2) with my friends and apart (RS2)

207. from my family in fact if you are(..) in fact(..) no (RCI) in fact when I am with my

208. family I lose my freedom in fact when I am with my family I lose my freedom (CO). (...)

209. Something, well let me read the paragraph (RR)

210. I feel happy when I am with my friends specially during travelling or picnics or what so

211. ever. I enjoyed my time being with my friends and apart from my family. In fact when I

212. am with my family I lose my freedom and I have to obey its rules. When I am with my

213. friends, some thing is totally different of course totally different, something is totally

214. different (50 Sec). We can go wherever we can go wherever wish we can go wherever

215. (RS2) we wish without any restriction without any restrictions (RS2). We can (56 Sec).

216. No (FU). We can go wherever we wish without any restrictions besides getting beside

217. getting (RS1) various beside getting various experiences experiences that's it.

218. Finished the all essay

219. Let me read it again (RR)

220. The most beautiful holiday in my life was last summer in Syria. It lasted for two

221. months and half. There are many exciting funny things .The most wonderful event was

222. is there is something wrong the most wonderful event was in al ladukyah because here

223. I wrote Damascus you know all Syria is wonderful (...) I have to rewrite it in al

224. ladukyah, good (EV) of course I spend it with my friends (R4) away with my friends

225. away from my family so this is just introduction.. My second paragraph (RR):

226. My terrific vacation was last summer in Syria for several reason. First of all Syria in my

227. point of view..in my point (RS1) should be between two commas (PUNC) is the

228. cheapest country in Arab world. Moreover its nicest country in fact there are many parts

229. calm districts clean beach and very generous and friendly people in addition customs of

230. Syrian society is very close to ours. Finally my journey lasts for two months and half

231. and was the best short period in my life.

232.Third one (RR)

233.Being in al ladukyah where Syrian beach was the most splendid time in my expedition.

234. In fact there is a well organized beach and very superb apartments which have a unique

235. Designn. What's more? (Ch) there are very pretty and attractive ladies. The most wierd (...)

236. thing which I figured it out and had a great effect on my life and simultaneously changed

237. my opinion about Syrian society was that on the beach. Some Syrians are very free and

238. they do not follow Islamic values and culture on the other hand majority are

239. conservative even if they are not muslims. Even they are not muslims but they have their

240. own traditions. This is the third paragraph (RR).

241. The last one is (..) I feel happy which is fourth point (RR) Ok (SAS). Forth point I feel

242. happy when I am with my friends specially during travelling or picnics. I enjoyed my

243. time being with my friends and apart from my family. In fact when I am with my family

244. I lose my freedom and I have to obey its rules. Unlike with friends something is totally

245. different. We can go wherever we wish without any restrictions beside getting various

246. experiences (..) that's it (CO).

Second Protocol of a less-skilled student

M.H.Sha's TAP

Total time: 31:16

(Instructor) go ahead, state your name please.

I am going to talk about the best

(Instructor) your name first

My name is M.H.S.

1. I am going to talking about best holiday I had (SOG).
2. I need to talking about this subject, you will use powerful sentences (SOG).
3. Started with my best holiday (RS2).
4. My best holiday is in last summer (RS2).
5. في تلك الفترة (CS)
6. In that period I was, I would like (HE)
7. في هاديك الفترة كان عندي تفكير (CS)
8. كان أنا فكرت في البداية
9. In that period (...) I thought I have many ideas (RS2)
10. الفكرة الأولى
11. First idea (RS2) (CS/PL)
12. I want to take
13. ولكن فكرت
14. But I thought
15. I am not (CS) (TH)
16. جاد (CS)
17. serious
18. Because (CS)
19. السبب الرئيسي
20. main reason
21. (...)(...)(...)
22. إذا فكرت - إذا قررت
23. if I think-if I decide

24. (...)
25. I am talk, I am talking (RS2) (TH)
26. The main reason
27. (... ..)
28. If I think, if I decide
29. (...)
30. I am talk, I will talk
31. So then. R2
32. Talking
33. تحدثت مع والدي
34. Talking to my father
35. في هذا الامر .
36. in this matter
37. He told me if you don't
38. إذا كنت خائف R2
39. If I am afraid
40. خائف (CS)
41. Afraid (T)
42. If you afraid (RS2) do not take this semester (CS)(T)
43. قررت بناء على ذلك
44. Decided based on this
45. After that I am studying in my home.
46. I don't came
47. لم أكن
48. I was not
49. (..)

50. (CS) في تلك الإجازة أنا كنت سعيد.
51. In that vacation I was very happy (CS)(T)
52. Because because (RS2) I am with my family and my friends.
53. (..)
54. In my home
55. طيب
56. Every day
57. In my home (RS2)
58. كنت
59. I was
60. (...)
61. I was I was every day from early (RS2)
62. لا منذ الصباح
63. No, from early morning (RS2) (CS).
64. (...) (...)
65. (...)(...)(...) (...)
66. My family
67. Then or the (TH)
68. They have breakfast
69. My family (RS2) and father
70. أو كل يوم.
65. Or every day (CS) (T)
66. من الممكن
67. it is possible
68. (...)

69. بعد صلاة العصر.
70. After Aser
71. My friend
72. I am and my friends going playing football.
73. (...)
74. وكان
75. وكان في أجواء (CS)
76. It was in atmosphere
77. In a nice atmosphere
78. في جو جميل (CS)
79. In a nice atmosphere
80. Not very cold not very hot.
81. And you can see the, the mountains.
82. Like
83. مغطاة بالعشب الاخضر (CS)
84. Cover (CS) With green grass
85. I am staying
86. I am staying in my home (RS2)
87. Or the house
88. Then Then (RS2) go to my friends (...)
89. لتناول طعام العشاء.
90. To eat dinner
91. وبعدها تبقى.
92. Stay for talking (...)(...)
93. Together stay for long time (RS2)

94. معهم (CS)
95. Together to talking together and to have a nice talking.
96. هناك
97. There are (T) (CS)
98. نتقابل معهم
99. Meeting (..) Meeting with (RS2) (TH)
100. Public, people (RS2)
101. And
102. ونبقى معهم
103. And talk with them (RS2)
104. Have (..) We have (RS3)
105. With them ... Good time (..)
106. لقد كان
107. It was
108. That (CS) (T)
109. جزء صغير
110. Small part (CS) (T) (..)
112. That my best holiday
113. (...)(...)(...)(...)

Translation of the protocol

1. I am going to talk about the best
2. (Instructor) your name first
3. My name is M. H. Al Sh.
4. I am going to talk about the best holiday I ever had.
5. (Instructor) No problem, you can speak English, Arabic anything ,

6. as you like , no problem , be relax and think in loud voice
7. I need to talk about this subject, I need to use meaningful sentences.
8. Started with my best holiday
9. R2
10. My best holiday was in last summer.
11. R2
12. In that period
13. In that period
14. I was, I would like
15. During that period, I was having a problem
16. At the beginning I think
17. In that period I have many ideas.
18. First idea
19. First idea
20. R2
21. I want to take
22. I think
23. I am not
24. Serious
25. Because
26. The main reason
27. (... ..)
28. If I think, if I decide
29. (...)
30. I am talk, I will talk

31. So then
32. R2
33. Talking
34. To talk to my father
35. Talked to my father about
36. In this regard
37. He told me
38. If you don't
39. If you are afraid
40. Afraid
41. Afraid
42. If you afraid do not take this semester
43. I decided upon that
44. After that I started to study at home.
45. I don't came
46. I was not
47. (..)
48. In that vacation
49. In that vacation
50. I was very happy
51. I was very happy
52. Because
53. Because I am with my family and my friend.
54. (..)
55. In my home

56. ok
57. Every day
58. In my home
59. was
60. (..)
61. I was
62. I was every day from early
63. No
64. From early morning.
65. R2
66. From early morning
67. R2
68. (... ..)
69. My family
70. then or the
71. they have break fast
72. My family and Father or
73. or
74. Everyday
75. possible
76. (..)
77. After Aser Prayers
78. After Aser
79. My friend
80. I and my friends go to play football.

81. (..)
82. It was
83. Good weather
84. In a nice atmosphere
85. In a nice weather
86. Not very cold not very hot.
87. And you can see the, the mountains.
88. Like
89. covered
90. Cover
91. With green grass
92. I am staying
93. I am staying in my home
94. Or the house
95. Then
96. Then go to my friends
97. (..)
98. To take our dinner
99. To eat
100. And then we stay
101. Stay for talking
102. Spelling
103. (..)
104. Together
105. Stay for long time to talk together.

106. With them
107. There are
108. There was
109. Meeting
110. Meeting with
111. We meet with them
112. R2
113. Public , people
114. R2
115. And
116. Stay with them
117. And take with them
118. R2
119. Have
120. We have
121. R2
122. With them
123. Good time
124. (...)
125. It was
126. That
127. Small part
128. Small part
129. (..)
130. That my best holiday

131. (... ..)

Third Protocol of a less-skilled student

A.M's TAP

Total time: 29:10

الان افكر كيف ابدأ الموضوع

Now I am thinking in the text how can I start (CS) (T)2

1. ماهي افضل عطلة قضيتها؟ كانت من ثلاث سنوات
2. The best holiday that I ever made (SOG)4
3. أحاول اتذكر كيف كانت و متى..في ذلك اليوم
4. (CS)That night...كانت
5. It was (T) (RS2)
6. كانت من ثلاث سنوات
7. It was three years ago (RS2)
8. أنا الان افكر كيف اربط الجملة
9. Now I am thinking how to link the sentence (T).
10. (CS)هي كانت أفضل رحلة في حياتي..ساكتب
11. It was my best day, my best holiday (CS) (T).
12. (CS)الان أفكر كيف أربط الجملة.
13. Now I am thinking in the reason which makes it the best (T)
14. Best holiday in my life الان افكر شو هي كانت افضل رحلة
15. in that year (RS2) I met my
16. (CS) افكر كيف ساكتب هذه الكلمة اخواني كيف ساربط الجملة باللي بعدها
17. Now I am thinking in the sentence and the next sentence (T)
18. (CS) انا قابلت..... لا هو انا ما تذكرت معنى كلمة اخ بس تذكرت اقارب
19. cousins (TH)
20. I met my cousins ...

21. It was in Al-Madinah افكر الان بالمكان الذي كنا فيه (RS3)
22. الان افكر بمعنى كلمة مسيح... مسيح (TH)
23. Swimming
24. Now I am trying to find the suitable word for pool swimming pool or the country in English
25. language which is the garden (TH)
26. (..)
27. In a pool swimming
28. (..)
29. الان ساكتب الى الجملة التالية (CS)
30. Now I am trying to form the next sentence (T) (TH)
31. (..)
32. I met
33. ماذا ساكتب... ساغير الجملة... لا غير ممكن (HE)
34. To change the sentence it is not ok (HE)
35. I was very happy because (RS2) it was...(T)
36. الان ساحاول ربط الجملة (CS)
37. Now I am thinking how to link the sentence(T)
38. It gave me (RS2) the chance (RS2) to be close (RS2) to my family.
39. (..)
40. تعني أقارب (cousin) أظن
41. I think cousin means relatives (T)(..) so my cousin was (RS2) it was there too (RS2)
42. انهيت المقطع الاول ساحاول ان اربطه بالثاني

43. Now I am trying to link the paragraph which I finish, the first paragraph to the following one.
44. ارید ان اغير الجملة. ساحاول ان أمحيها و أكتب غيره.
45. I am trying to change the previous sentence and I think to erase it (ED) (T).
46. أحاول تذكر معنى كلمة أخ.
47. I am trying to remember the meaning of the word (أخ)/brother, or relatives (CS).
48. لا اتذكره و لكن ابن خالة تعني قريب.
49. I forget the word brother (PWC), but I find the word cousin, relatives (...) (T)
50. My cousins (RS3)
51. My cousin was there too.
52. I never (RS2) feel happy (RS2) or comfortable like that night (RS2)
53. لا ساغيرها I will change it (T) (RVWC)
54. الآن ساتحدث كيف تفرقت خالاتي بعد الزواج.
55. I will explain how my aunts separated after marriage (PL)(T)
56. My cousins came from the other cities.
57. جاؤوا من انحاء المملكة.
58. They came from different parts of the kingdom.
59. I am thinking in it (TH)
60. Came from whole kingdom (T)(R).
61. I think it is not suitable and I change it in other sentence (RVWC).
62. From cities (RS2) from the other cities it is the first time (RS2) that the
63. family have, first time the whole family, it is the first time my family.
64. is together
65. (..)
66. الان سأعيد الجملة حتى اتمكن من ربطها.

67. I will repeat the sentence, so as to be able to link it with
68. the following sentence (FO)(T).
69. It is the first time for them to visit us (RS2)
70. (..)
71. It is the first time they visit us (RS2).
72. I change the sentence (...) (ED)
73. Change the spelling mistakes (ESP).
74. They visit us from long time, after long time (E).
75. سأغير الجملة حتى تناسب النص
76. To change the sentence to suit the text (CS) (T).
77. After long time (RS2) everybody knows (RS2).
78. حاول اربط الجملة حتى تتناسب مع التي تليها
79. I am trying to link the sentence with the next sentence.
80. Everybody knows my family had divided after their marriage (...).
81. After they married
82. My aunt
83. (..)
84. لان أحاول أن اتكلم عن عائلتي و اقاربي كيف تفرقوا
85. I am trying now to state my 80 relatives and family who separated after their marriage
(CS)(T).
86. My aunt went to al Jubail my uncle live in Riyadh.
87. سامحوا هذه الجملة و اكمل الثانية
88. I erase the sentence and completing the other (CS) (T).
89. And my
90. And my family live in Al Madinah so we are far away from each other (RS2)

91. After many years my mother invited them to be together again.
92. Now I am thinking in the next sentence (TH).
93. To be together again and let us know about them.
94. To know more
95. I change the sentence (ED).
96. To know more about them (RS2)
97. Now I am trying to link my ideas in an easy way, and to arrange my 91.thoughts (FO).
98. After my grandfather died, my grandmother died (RS2), it was 10 years ago.
99. الان أحاول ان اشرح لماذا كانت الفرقة العائلية؟
100. Now I am trying to explain why (CS) (TH)
101. as the family disconnection (CS) (T) (TH).
102. All this time. All this time (RS2) we never be (..)
103. الان أحاول ان اجد كلمة اربط بها الجملة I am looking for linked word.
104. All this time we never call each other.
105. This time they meet each other (TH)
106. (..)
107. My relatives which were children
108. I change the spelling (ESP).
109. They became older (RS2), and I never recognize them because of the long time.
110. (...)
111. So (...) ah (FR)
112. كل الافكار نفسها و تعود لنفس النقطة لازم أعيد قراءة المقطع الذي كتبتنه و أضع أفكار جديدة

113. All my ideas return to the same point I have to read the paragraph I wrote
and bring
114. others ideas and
115. review the paragraph I wrote (RR).
116. In that time which be (RS2)
117. I am trying to link the sentence with the following sentence, but I cannot
OOF (FU)
118. In that time I am in the party or other place or swimming pool.
119. ساغير الكلمة change the spelling (CS) (T) (ESP)
120. They all were very happy (RS2) we decided (RS2) to do it again and again and never1
121. stop to repeat it.
122. ساغير الجملة حتى تنسجم مع النص
123. I will change the sentence so as to be organized with the text (EAM).
124. I change the spelling mistakes (ESP).Party again and never stopped (RS2).
125. And do not stop (E).

Fourth Protocol of a less-skilled student

M.Bas's TAP

Total time: 15:53

You are Ok

Go ahead

And please raise your voice

1. My name is M. Bas.
2. And I am 25 years old
3. My best
4. The best holiday I ever had was about 10 years ago when I first travelled
5. to al Madinah al Munawarah
6. It was a remarkable because I never been to Al Madinah.
7. This is the first time I have ever been to al Madinah
8. So I was very much excited I always wanted to go there
9. We went
10. we went by the plane me and my family,
11. it
12. I went to many time aboard to plane to Riyadh
13. to
14. to Abha
15. to many places I went by the plane
16. Remarkable this was the last time I ever rode the plane as well
17. So it is very much another turn in my life
18. When we arrived to al Madinah

19. We spend
20. We settled
21. We went to a hotel,
22. A Hilton hotel
23. We stayed near the holy mosque, near the prophet Mohammeds mosque
24. We went to pray all the five prayers right there, right in the mosque,
25. we never missed a prayer thank God.
26. (.)
27. Later on after we spend 5 days in al Madinah we went to every site seeing the
place in al
28. Madinah we went to Ohad we went to Badar, we went to best remarkable
mosques in Al
29. Madinah, we enjoyed our time there and I intend to go back there again but not
by plane.
30. For when we came back to Jeddah by a plane
31. We were stuck in a
32. Thunder storm it was a very frighten experience for me
33. It give me a plane fobia if I can call it that.
34. (.)
35. My Forward I will never be able to ride ride (R2) a plane never again never
36. I forgot to write
37. (Instructor, forgot to write what)
38. I stopped speaking and start to write, and I can't write.
39. (Instructor) it does not matter, just go ahead keep talking keep thinking it is ok.

40. (Instructor) as you are writing there is something in your mind, say anything you think
41. in, in Arabic or English, such as, how to start, is the word correct or not, what shall I write.
42. It was remarkable for me
43. because it was
44. the first
45. (.)
46. Time
47. (.)
48. I ever been
49. (.)
50. To al Madinah al Munawarh
51. (.)
52. I went there with my (...)
53. We stayed at
54. (.)
55. A Hilton hotel
56. (...)
57. Right next to the mosque
58. (...)
59. We prayed
60. (.)
61. At the holly mosque
62. (...)

63. Every
64. (.)
65. Prayer
66. (...)
67. We return to Jeddah
68. (...)
69. After 5 days
70. (...)
71. We returned
72. (...)
73. By plane
74. (...)
75. And it was
76. (.)
77. The last time
78. (...)
79. I
80. (.)
81. Ever
82. (.)
83. Travelled
84. (.)
85. By plane
86. (...)
87. For

88. (.)
89. Near
90. (.)
91. Been
92. (.)
93. In the middle of a thunder strom
94. (...)
95. In that time
96. (.)
97. It was a real
98. (...)
99. Frightening experience for me
100. (...)
101. (Instructor) is that all
102. Is this an Essay?

Fifth Protocol of a skilled student

B.B's TAP

Total time: 50:03

(Instructor) This is the subject you choose

1. Well I have to choose a topic that, you know I got and it was a dream you would like to
2. accomplish.
3. First of all I think I should write you know
4. The title,
5. Writing the title first
6. (.)
7. I will change the topic or the title in here to
8. A dream to Accomplish
9. (.)
10. A dream to Accomplish
11. Ok
12. Well
13. As you know the idea about the dream I which to accomplish is trying to perfect the
14. language and looking for perfection. I know It's hard because no one is perfect but to reach
15. where you can be almost close perfection in speaking language , not just speaking the

16. language but to the degree that I could fool anyone and he will think I am a native speaker
17. so the dream would be, how I will start.
18. I think I would start writing on how I get this dream.
19. And how did it start with me and what make this as a dream.
20. I would start with when
21. When I was young.
22. Ok I think I should not write young
23. When I was a kid, so when I was a kid about 6 years old. So when I was a kid 6 years old
24. (.)
25. The idea of speaking English was we learn another foreign language was because of child hood
26. To see people who got a different eye colour
27. Or To see people who got a different hair colour , for example their blond and red head
28. and people having different eye colour and I do not like it was interesting because
29. In our environment it is not like you have only brown and black hair so these people looked
30. kind like , you know, I should know about those people who are they ? what is this
31. language ? I, know it was't fine for a kid to think , but it was interesting
32. I will say , when I was a kid about 6 years old
33. (.)

34. I encountered
35. (.)
36. I encountered English
37. (.)
38. Encountered English
39. By seeing it (R2) by seeing it spoken
40. (.)
41. In Channel 2 and between brackets (Saudi (R2) TV)
42. (.)
43. Seems like , you know my font and my handwriting is not organized but I will
try to go
44. again and make this my first draft and write it again
45. So in Channel 2 seeing people
46. (.)
47. With different
48. (.)
49. Different look
50. Made me question
51. (.)
52. Made me question (R2) why these people were those people
53. (.)
54. Are different
55. (.)
56. Ok
57. So why those people are different?

58. This was a major question and I had one who was working in the electrical you know
59. company the Saudi electrical company
60. I questioned him about those people and where they live and how can they be found.
61. Because I was a kid with, you know a lot of questions as a kid you know in his age would
62. be eager to know things and ask a lot of questions, he would be hungry to know and I was
63. that kid.
64. so he started with explaining, even though I could understand all most every things what
65. he said, but I was able to get some answers for my questions, later on he saw that my
66. hunger can be feeded with of course giving , you know having the motive which is you
67. know want to learn want to know, so he gave me this thing, were if I could memorize 10
68. words in English it could be any word like banana or any word and , if I could say it to
69. him with acceptable pronunciation, he will give me some money, so it was fun it was like a
70. job and if I had to earn more , I should not just come back again and just say 10 words to

71. get more money, no if I want to get more money I have to say the 10 words that
I have said
72. already and then to say a new 10 words. He will be teaching me the 10 words
and then I
73. have not to write it more like I have to say it ,so this is what I am gona write as
my second
74. you know thought in this paragraph.
75. (...)
76. I am not sure that I should use the word hunger or thirst but I guessed they are
both equal
77. (.)
78. Because I think both you got feeling you want to, grasp something.
79. But I guess I should go with hunger.
80. I think hunger is more powerful. Hunger
81. (...)
82. So my brother saw my hunger is getting bigger and
83. He thought (R2) of a way
84. (.) to feed
85. (.)
86. That to feed that hunger
87. Even thought it feels like,
88. Right now that dream is just to know English , yes simply started like that
89. I am only talking about the beginning of a dream
90. I am still learning and still trying to achieve this dream
91. I do not call myself a dreamer , but this dream could come true one day.

92. (.)

93. So my brother thought a way to feed that hunger with giving me words to
memorize

94. (.)

95. Actually 10 to be exact

96. Should I write 10 as a number or should I write

97. I guess it is ok to write 10 so I should go with number

98. As this is my first draft actually 10 words so 10 words

99. And if I could

100. Say these words

101. He would give me money.

102. (.)

103. Which

104. (.)

105. he would give me a money, I think which was a lot for a kid under age,
actually I

106. do not it is important but its like you know 10 riyals Saudi riyals plus
something

107. they could buy toys or even go and buy for something for myself, the idea is

108. something to

109. get for free, and thank God I used to be I am still guy who can memorize
fast so

110. Thank God for that gift

111. So he give me money which was a lot for a kid

112. (.)

113. I like that in the beginning
114. Ok
115. The next state would be
116. What I do after that
117. Yes I have been learning 10 words
118. Not daily but when ever if you like I need money, it was some thing you know, like
119. how to earn money not how to feed your hunger any more. The money became
120. My mind was not like money minded at that age the hunger, started to be feeded
121. and I wasn't you know more thirsty and hungry for the knowledge any more but
122. simply the
123. money
124. So how come I still want to learn English this is gona be every thing
125. After that my brother would brag , about me speak in English
126. Like in words
127. Hay brother come
128. This is Badar my brother and he speak English
129. So the other person will say no way
130. He is still young
131. You know he did not go to school yet
132. How can I speak English
133. And even if our neighbor was some thing like Rich people that it will be

134. understandable if I was speak in English even if in rich neighbor hood
135. Yet I still did not go to school
136. My mother is not American or even English native speaker
137. So like there was like no way
138. And the environment in which I was living it wasn't English environment so
later
139. on the IF bragging was fun. I liked the look that people give me being
impressed
140. and this is like actually lasted for two years, may be, so later on I just liked
English
141. So that would be wise thought that I should note down
142. So here we go again
143. (.)
144. Later on
145. My brother
146. Started to brag about me in front of his friends.
147. (.)
148. I have a home call and I will try to off
149. I am sorry seems like an important call
150. Ok sorry for this interruption
151. And I am going back
152. I think I should switch my phone off
153. Ok
154. Done
155. In front of his friends

156. I like that
157. I liked it very much
158. (.)
159. Very much
160. I loved
161. (.)
162. The look
163. (.)
164. That people give me
165. Or that people gifts or should I write the people look very much
166. I loved that look
167. That people (R2) look towards
168. Which again
169. (.)
170. Did, it last for long
171. Now again
172. what happened after that .
173. I no longer want money, I no longer want people to brag, or I do not care
people
174. bragging or looking me in a way that they admire
175. I encountered a conversation with an Indian guy.
176. Actually I am not sure if he is Indian
177. But he does look to be Indian
178. and then I had my first conversation in English with him , it was in front of
my

179. father, actually my father did not know that I speak English , he thought I am
180. speaking Indian, for some reason like because sometime people speak
Indian
181. because of some reason like sometimes people watch Indian movies. So
later
182. father said oh , he speak Indian, my father was could not know English
from
183. Indian, I said no, English , then he was amazed
184. The look in to his eyes yes I did like it, but no I had so much fun it was my
first
185. conversation in English.
186. And It made me feel better myself, it made me feel that there is no barrier
between
187. me and other people, because most people now a days speak English in some
188. countries almost where ever you go you can find some one you can speak
with . So
189. I was on the way and starting , start , to achieve and accomplish this dream
to
190. speak the language fluently, to be almost like a native speaker
191. So yes. This would be my idea for the next thing I am going to write.
192. (.)
193. My first
194. Conversation
195. My first conversation was with some one from India
196. (.)

197. From my father look
198. My father look did encouraged me
199. (.)
200. But no
201. That wasn't
202. That wasn't the thing that in my mind
203. (.)
204. My mind
205. It was completely (R2) the thought being able to hold the conversation with
some
206. one who is not related to my own language.
207. (.)
208. Conversation
209. Not related
210. To my, I think writing mother tongue will be more acceptable
211. (.)
212. It was a moment that wouldn't be raised
213. (.)
214. And
215. A wonderful
216. (.)
217. Feeling
218. (.)
219. Of pure joy
220. (.)

221. Now I think
222. That with both this is where we all think should
223. I mean we all (R2)
224. I should write how this dream just speak in English, in to becoming fluent
and into
225. becoming more knowledge to speak different accent, its not hard, people
not
226. speak I am not looking for the degree where I can speak the whole new
accent,
227. which is impossible, I have been in a conversation between me and a Scottish
man
228. and also a guy from United States, he could not understand, but the Scottish
person
229. did say I was able, not because I am good in English , but no I was exposed
to the
230. Scottish accent for a while
231. And he was amazed when I could know some words, he told me later on and I
was
232. really impressed of knowing as much, as I can and much as much I can but
for
233. soon go for it
234. so he gave me this advice, he told me, you can not actually speak all the
accent,
235. you may be able to speak two or three accents , but even though if you speak
the

236. accent, it will be the same , you will be the same in all the accent you might,
fool
237. someone who does speak the accent you might fool some one from England
may be
238. that you are American or Australian because you do not have a full command
of
239. different accent, but he would may be guess, but if you could reach that , may
will
240. say, you have lived for some time Scot or England or even Australia. I felt
good
241. because I felt easily because I was too hard with my self trying to perfect
things,
242. still I am looking to perfect things but now its not with the same degree
243. But in mind I want to go for it I want to try my life may be I be the person
who
244. could fool people that where I come from
245. And I see as
246. you know my language will be very powerful my English will be very
powerful, to
247. a degree that I could fool people so this would be what I am going to write on the
second
248. page like to be completed a whole page so here we go again for the second
page I
249. am just going to look for it again.
250. Ok

251. Last thing was wonderful feeling of the pure joy
252. I should start about my
253. The process of flowing English later on how it start and did what I still to come let it go
254. So
255. Later (R2) on I looked for tools
256. That could help me help me (R2)
257. To practice (R2) and learn
258. And I think I would on the other side increase my knowledge about English Increase
259. (.)
260. So what are these you know tools that I think it did helped me
261. First I am going to write them down or just say it
262. I will just say it
263. Then write it down
264. Which going to make me may be silent for a second
265. Ok the tools are plane games
266. Consul games like the play station saga and Matendo
267. There was like a play station one the first play station
268. The games that been played in that computer
269. for game counsel was a game that we have to increase your language try
even to
270. have dictionary next to
271. you to solve the puzzle or a there were some instructions that if you count not
272. follow you won't be
273. solving the game Your won't be solving the crime in such games, so I looked
for

274. dictionary that time
275. and I was translating almost every word that I do not know, which was many
at that
276. time , getting
277. exposed and sometimes I do not have dictionary so I have to guess like I was very sad
and
278. It was very dark
279. you know my way through home and everything make me look frightened
and
280. there was nothing there it
281. was all the caves it was glooming, so I think glooming would mean you know
282. something that make you
283. feel you know more normal optimistic about it you won't think feel or bad
feel
284. good you won't have this
285. ease in your heart that you know that there might be something good coming
out
286. you just sadness will
287. be the word you know to be fit I could know somehow that gloom, is what we
say
288. كتيب in Arabic so
289. this was a tool English learn English
290. So Consul Game (R2) games were the way to go
291. Try to read
292. What they want

293. (.)
294. Want me
295. What they want me to do in that game
296. (.)
297. And follow their instructions
298. (.)
299. Now I am going to talk about the second tool
300. I was introduced to another way of communicating even though I would not ,
call
301. play station self
302. communicating because
303. You are not communicating with the some one who is intelligent just artificial
intelligent
304. So I was introduced to play games where real people interact and talk to you
so yes
305. I was just a receiver
306. in the first tool
307. And in the second tool I was more like a
308. A receiver also I was playing a role of giving information, sending
information
309. I wont say transmitting because transmitting is for thing radio and things like
that
310. so I was I was
311. communicating with them talking and telling them how I feel expressing
myself

312. and expressing myself
313. through words that I have learned
314. So
315. Then this is what I am going to write then I was introduced
316. To online gaming (R2) where I just don't read
317. (.)
318. But also but also (R2) write
319. (.)
320. I felt happy (R2) being able to communicate
321. and I am going to stop here for a second, to think about some thing, I was not
just
322. able to communicate
323. with un English native speakers. I was able to communicate with Spanish
guy,
324. Chinese guy , Japanese
325. people, German and people from Netherlands so from all over the world , I
could
326. communicate I felt
327. there were no barriers, which again was the thing that made me loving and
made it
328. my dream but not
329. just to know English I guess many times to check fluency so being able to
330. communicate
331. (.)
332. I felt happy being able to communicate

333. With different people (R2)
334. (.)
335. From all over the world (R2)
336. Ok
337. So now this is my second tool
338. The third tool, what can I say about third tool
339. Ok
340. The third tool is basically a voice chatting program, where I communicate
with
341. people who play the games usually was because of the games
342. We thought it could be faster
343. if you could play and also communicate because some time when we write
the,
344. the games requires
345. that you talk fast and act fast at the same time so, if I stop for a minute to
write
346. something I could be
347. like losing the game or dying in the game because in some times like
fighting
348. games , so they told me
349. hay would you like to play with us and you know have a chat because it
would be
350. faster I would say that
351. time my heart reach almost my feet
352. And this is what we say in Arabic

353. I felt scared
354. even though I speak daily with Indian guys but was afraid , they would
laugh
355. about my accent or I
356. would be nerves because hay I am going to be talking voice chat to English
native
357. speaker, the one
358. actually who invited me so I went and down load the program and start using the
program
359. and at the beginning I could not talked, so they had to force me like hay, later
on
360. after we finish the
361. game because, they felt that I was nerves like, hay how was your day for
example
362. let's say how was
363. your day, I will say It was fine , what you had for breakfast ,I would say
eggs, and
364. they won't just get
365. enough for the eggs, they will say what kind of eggs ? was it good ? how did
you
366. cook it ? they just
367. wanted to extract information from me not just to you know , they were not
368. extracting information but
369. to make me talk and, I like that and so , this is what I am going to write now
the

370. third tool which I am
371. still using
372. I would write in online gaming
373. They wanted me
374. (.)
375. To speak with them
376. (.)
377. To speak with them and I was
378. afraid
379. And shy at the same time
380. (.)
381. I did not type voice chat so I just put in brackets
382. The voice program
383. (.)
384. Was O
385. So which I think should right is voice Skype
386. Because I am still using Skype
387. (.)
388. Actually there is e in the end of Skype but it pronounce Skype we used to say
389. Skype e so it's Skype so what's next
390. (.)
391. They make me feel good
392. To get rid of my shies
393. (.)
394. To get

395. Rid of my shies
396. (.)
397. And I think I should write
398. What, it should be about why I wanted to be fluent
399. It's just English at the end
400. I think because when I was speaking to
401. And here to just try to grape my thoughts before I should write them , because
- I
402. was speaking to
403. different people from different native countries where English is spoken?
404. So to speak with a person and to speak with other one to understand both
405. I was the person who try to listen to both and try to understand what they are saying
406. So here the dream start to approach and start to raise, rise so this guess here I
407. should be writing about
408. the dream that would accomplishing
409. So finally
410. (.)
411. Being able
412. Or being exposed yes
413. (.)
414. To different accent
415. Which I did like which I did
416. Made me feel like practicing them
417. And to at least understand them
418. (.)

419. Now (R3) on the way to achieve this dream
420. Oh God
421. Help me
422. Ok I think I have finished I should be handing these paper soon I will be asking , if
423. I should write them
424. in a new paper if the hand writing is not appropriate. Because I was just writing the first
425. draft any way, I
426. do not know this I will just see.
427. (Instructor) finished
428. Yeah

Sixth Protocol of a skilled student

B.S.A.'s TAP

Total time: 35:41

Grade four – English Language, King Abdul-Aziz University

1. I will write now about a dream I would like to accomplish.
2. We can say
3. We will start from the beginning, a dream I want to achieve.
4. Get a master degree and have a good job.
5. Ok, from where we will start.
6. If God help me and I get a master degree.
7. If I find a good job I may think about it.
8. Ok we start.
9. The dream I would like to accomplish (R2).
10. We can say
11. First of all
12. Mean
13. How can I start, I am now a university student, this is the first thing.
14. First of all now I am studying English (R2).
15. No, this is mistake, I will write first the dream, and I will speak about my dream
and
16. then the steps to achieve the dream.
17. My dream is to get
18. Something better than get, more format.
19. Let it be, my dream is to find a good job.

20. This is the first thing.
21. And get a master degree (R2).
22. First thing.
23. This is not correct, let me arrange my thoughts.
24. Dream which is not a good job.
25. First the master degree and then good job.
26. My dream is get, getting a master degree from Canada or Australia in field of Human Resources (R2).
27. Then I say
28. My dream will be completed.
29. The dream shall come true, shall come true (R2)
30. When I finish
31. When I finish my bachelor degree and get a master degree.
32. No
33. When I finish my master degree and find and find which I have
34. Then coma
35. Get a master degree and find good job.
36. Which I agree about it, this is my dream.
37. After that get master degree to find good job and I am agree about it.
38. Then what I can say about the dream, we have to come to the process of the dream, for example,
39. I can say the process is to finalize the university.
40. How can I write this?
41. Every action has difficult process (R2)
42. Everything have difficult process, now I have finished my bachelor (R2)

43. How
44. Bachelor – education with a good.
45. I will not say good
46. If MBA
47. With a good MBA which is above thirty.
48. How to write thirty.
49. Which is above thirty
50. Which is above three from five to be able to get scholarship from the Ministry of
51. Higher Education, mean the Government.
52. From the government.
53. If God wish.
54. Then I apply for human resources, which is the nearest branch to English, finally come
back home.
55. But there is
56. What can we say?
57. There is a bad matter
58. Mean difficult matter
59. The bad matter is that my family wants me to marry before travelling.
60. They want me to marry before studying abroad, I do not want that, I want to live
outside,
61. I want to live abroad.
62. But I want to be single at that time (R20
63. I want to have friends and to live in a new culture.
64. If I marry everything will mix up.
65. I want to study hard, this cannot be happen if I marry.

66. Finally
67. The last step in the dream shall be
68. Finally coming back home and find a good job with my MBA.
69. This is the first draft, let us write the topic.
70. A dream you would like to accomplish.
71. My dream is studying Master degree in human resources.
72. Then coma
73. From Canada or Australia.
74. You say dream will be completed.
75. (.)
76. My dream will not complete without my Bachelors degree (R2).
77. You are planning here to say.
78. After finishing high education (R2) the next step in my dream (R2) will come to
find a good job.
79. Then I want to write why human resources? I did not write that in this dilemma.
80. Because I want to work in the management.
81. I like management work
82. (.)
83. Then what you will write, something which fit, it is all for the government this
days.
84. I have to get score 3 from 5 (R2) because government scholar, scholarship will
not be given to me if my degree is less than 3 from 5.
85. Ok
86. In other hand there is something bad (R2) which I hope it will not happen.
87. My family wants me to marry before going to study abroad.

88. Then before studying abroad.
89. And this is what I do not want to do (R2).
90. (.)
91. Because I want to live some part of my life as single.
92. Because I want to live part of my life as bachelor (R2).
93. I do not know bachelor adjective or not.
94. To live some of my bachelor life (R2).
95. Can we say living bachelor outside.
96. To live some of my bachelor life abroad (R2).
97. Ok I hope it is right.
98. And actually I want to be bachelor at that time.
99. It is the same, nothing new.
100. We come to complete to abroad.
101. To has
102. We can say.
103. I think if I am bachelor during my study abroad I will meet a lot of friends
(R2).
104. I will say also nothing will disturb me, I will not care, and nothing will be in
my mind.
105. Without something in my mind (R2).
106. Then I will say the last step that my dream will come true when I come back to
107. this country, Saudia
108. and to find a good job with a MBA certificate, that is my dream.
109. Finally come back home.
110. Finally I will come back home and find a job.

111. With my MBA certificate.
112. Ok then I can come to conclusion, we can say that this is the target which I
want to
113. achieve, to study
114. and give effort.
115. This is my dream which I want to approach (R3).
116. (.)
117. Also I will work hard to convince my family (R2) to change their point of
view.
118. I hope they will change is, we can say it is ok, no mistakes.
119. Thank you Dr. khalid
120. This is a draft.

Seventh Protocol (translated into English) of a less-skilled student

M.Bkh Alm's TAP

Total time: 1:1:48

Please go ahead

State your name

The best holiday you ever had

1. My name is M. Bkh's
2. The best holiday (R2)
3. I think my best holiday
4. (.)
5. My best holiday
6. (.)
7. I ever had a
8. No
9. (...)
10. I think
11. Its not a holiday
12. (...)
13. Alfeter Eaid Holyday
14. I
15. (...)
16. I
17. (...)
18. My best holiday in

19. (...)
20. My best holiday
21. Eid al Fitar holiday
22. (...)
23. We Had
24. (...)
25.
26. And my
27. Had
28. (...)
29.
30. And
31. My Grand Father was still
32. (...)
33. Telephone call ringing : hello
34. We have to
35.
36.
37.
38. (Instructor) so what are you thinking now?
39. I think it was happen the best
40. (Instructor) what are you writing
41.
42. spelling yes
43.

44. (Instructor) Describe your thought
45. ok
46.
47. Please don't stop talking whatever you are thinking of just say it
48. Ok
49. ...
50. (Instructor) write what are you thinking of
51. What so ever come to your mind
52. I mean say loud what are you thinking of
53. (Instructor) say anything in your mind
54. (Instructor) what is in your mind now
55. I am thinking to change a word from Arabic
56. (Instructor) okay say it , say the word
57. they settle , agree
58. They back
59. Back
60.
61. like
62. when they back
63. my uncle and they
64.
65.
66. They back back
67. What they like before
68. I meet

69.
70.
71. They back like all
72. Like (R2)
73. Like what when
74. like what
75. like
76. brother (R2)
77. Me
78. Go far
79. Far
80. And explain to
81. back (R4)
82. my grand father
83. ever
84. like this
85. this
86.
87.
88. Happy there happy
89.
90. Like this
91. Happy (R3)
92. ok
93.

- 94.
- 95.
- 96.
- 97. I think
- 98. I felt that his
- 99.
- 100.
- 101.
- 102. Like like
- 103. ...
- 104. This
- 105.
- 106.
- 107. Family
- 108. Spelling
- 109. Family (R5)
- 110.
- 111. Ok
- 112. My
- 113. That
- 114. About my friend
- 115.
- 116.
- 117. Like
- 118. Stay (R4)

- 119. They sit (R4)
- 120. And
- 121. They go
- 122. If they
- 123. They place
- 124. They watch was
- 125. He has a
- 126. He was
- 127. His have a family
- 128. Had
- 129. There
- 130.
- 131.
- 132.
- 133.
- 134. now , we shall revise the paragraph , I know that will not be selected
- 135. Spelling
- 136. I think he think I think was I think I it was Eid al Fitar before two years
- 137. before two years ago because in this age I made many of my friends
- 138. and my grand father
- 139. Was still alive, still alive, before his dead
- 140. Did I
- 141. Did
- 142.
- 143.

144.
145. Died
146. (...)
147.
148. Before he
149. Before him i go
150. Before he died
151. Die
152. Before his died
153. Died
154.
155. My father he had some touch with him
156. my uncle uncle helped him
157. and they back
158. they back
159. they was back
160. they was back like before
161. like before
162. when they was
163. like when they
164. like (R6)
165. they when they was
166. like before
167. back and like before
168. before I mean his age

169. like
170. ...
171. Good for a while
172. Is love expensive is back
173.
174. My grand father I have for seeing him and this happened happy this happy
175. His so happy
176. His happy too much
177.
178.
179. Who have like who had like
180. Who had
181. This about my family
182. About my
183. They was so happy
184. This day
185.
186. That day about my friends
187. I had
188. I know him my life and
189. We went
190. To the place we have had time there
191. And this day I never ever forget
192. Forget , forget it
193.

194.
195. I yesterday (R2)
196. Holiday (R2)
197. I think (R3)
198. Before
199. two girls
200. this holiday
201. ...
202. Meet many
203. Meet many friends
204. That
205. The first, first trip was to
206. Was too happy
207. Was too happy with my family
208. Was too happy because
209. My grandfather
210. Grandfather
211. Father
212. Still alive
213. Before
214.
215. My father (R2) had some Turkish
216. My uncle
217. And
218. (Researcher) what are you doing now ?

219. I am rewriting the word
220. (Researcher) so say that please because I need to know what are you doing ,
please speak in a loud voice
221. as I said , I am making a revision
222. Last and my uncle
223.
224. And
225. They (R5)
226. They was (R3)
227. Back (R3)
228. There is a problem with the expressions , I can not catch them
229. May be I can change more
230. But I will try
231. They was (R2)
232. Like before
233. Ok
234. I mean
235. Qan/Qoun
236. Far away
237. And the
238. Back
239. My father
240. My grandfather
241.
242.

- 243.
- 244.
- 245. I never ever see him and happy
- 246. This happy
- 247. I felt him and
- 248. Like
- 249. Who
- 250. Old
- 251. Ok
- 252. About my family
- 253.
- 254. Ok
- 255. About him (R2)
- 256. About my friend
- 257. Friend that day
- 258. Ok
- 259. And (R2)
- 260. Don't had
- 261. seem
- 262. My best friend
- 263. Friend
- 264. My friend
- 265. And
- 266. Days was
- 267. He was fun time

- 268. There
- 269. And
- 270.
- 271.
- 272. This day
- 273.
- 274.
- 275. This day I make
- 276. I make it
- 277. This day (R3)
- 278. This day I never
- 279. Then
- 280.
- 281.
- 282.
- 283.
- 284.
- 285. Then this
- 286. Best
- 287. Day
- 288. I never (R2)
- 289.
- 290.
- 291. I have
- 292.

- 293.
- 294.
- 295.
- 296. Ok
- 297. That's it
- 298. And thank you Dr. Khalid
- 299.
- 300.
- 301. Like this
- 302. The problem
- 303. I hope there will be no problems , I am not used to such kind of tests

Eighth Protocol of a skilled student

Mo.Om.Al-mah's TAP

Total time: 30:44

Ok

Write accomplish

Frankly

1. I am M O Al-M.
2. Student in English language department
3. (.)
4. Accomplish
5. Frankly we studied with Abdullah Al Barge, how to write an essay.
6. But I think that, I do not love writing too much.
7. To write a dream I want to accomplish, I at least have to write an essay.
8. You have to write a three paragraph and the fourth should be conclusion.
9. Write a accomplish dream (R2).
10. In the First paragraph I will speak about myself (R2).
11. Ok what I will do in the second paragraph.R2
12. I don't know.
13. (.)
14. Ok
15. My name is Mohammed Omar Al Mashat 20 years old (R2)
16. I study (R2) in English language department (R2).
17. (..)

18. Revision
19. I study just because I like English.
20. Ok, we said to him
21. I study English just because I like English.
22. Ok
23. I loved English language since I was in the intermediate school.
24. We write that we loved the English language.
25. What I want to say in this paragraph, (R2) I will introduce myself, oh my God.
26. Excuse me I want to organize my ideas, I want just one minute.
27. (.)
28. Ok
29. I am back
30. I love English since I was in
31. (.)
32. School
33. Ok I loved English language since I was in the Secondary school (R2).
34. (.)
35. Ok, I want to start it in the following paragraph, or what, I want to finish.
36. I do not like writing.
37. Oh, I want to finish
38. Ok why do not I concentrate on the topic
39. (.)
40. Is he going to help me or
41. Ok let us finish
42. (.)

43. Ok we can start the second paragraph and enter by saying.
44. I want to accomplish
45. When I was in (R2) the Secondary School.
46. (.)
47. I dreamed (R2) to be a lecturer in the University.
48. (.)
49. In a University.
50. (.)
51. Ok
52. When I was in a secondary school I dream to be a lecturer in the University.
53. Ok complete to him
54. I want
55. I did not know (R2)
56. (.)
57. Exactly what field I want to be specialized.
58. (.)
59. Specialized in
60. (.)
61. Ok and then
62. What we will write, what we will write (R2)
63. Ok let us read second time.
64. I don't know the field I want to be specialized in.
65. Let us complete.
66. After I have graduated
67. (.)

68. I went to the university in English Language department (R2)
69. Revision
70. I found out what field of studying that I want to be specialized in.
71. Ok what shall we say to him.
72. Ok how can we write that
73. Shall we say it directly or
74. (..)
75. Shall we write directly or
76. How I don't know.
77. Is in a
78. It is not sound good
79. (R2)
80. We shall erase it, it is not good.
81. I found out what field of studying that I want, want to be specialized in (R2).
82. Ok put it like that
83. Oh no
84. You did not see
85. There is
86. (.)
87. I wish to complete study abroad to do my MBA and PHD and work as lecturer
88. in the University.
89. Ok there is only one paragraph left as conclusion.
90. (..)
91. Oh my God
92. What is the time now

93. I want to drink water.
94. We write conclusion and that is all.
95. (.)
96. Finally (R2)
97. I cannot write more than that, oh really I can't write.
98. My dream, my dream what I need to write more, I don't think it is applicable.
99. To be honest it is funny
100. Let me try more, it is funny.
101. It is funny.
102. (..)
103. Ok I don't know what I shall write more.
104. (...)
105. Stop it
106. (.)
107. I write something, I don't know if we can consider it as a research, but I don't know how to
108. finish, ok that is enough.
109. Only the conclusion is left
110. Conclusion means the end
111. So we have to read the text which I wrote with a better expression.
112. Conclusion (R3)
113. Ok we will speak about
114. What I said to him
115. I think it is not
116. (.)

117. Ok right, I remember in the conclusion the writer must.
118. I think it is not difficult.
119. No
120. Impossible dream to accomplish (R2)
121. (.)
122. Ok after that
123. And my MBA is very good and going to help me to get scholarship.
124. Ok dream out or dream of
125. Ok to finish this hard time
126. Dream of
127. Dream about
128. To get rid of this hard time
129. Dream out
130. Ok
131. I think I finished.

Ninth Protocol of a skilled student

Mo. Ab. Ga's TAP

Total time: 45:40

Ok (instructor)

Now (instructor)

Do you understand? (instructor)

(Instructor) Do you know what is required?

Yes, I understand.

State your name (instructor)

Ok

Thank you so much

Go ahead

1. My name is M. A. Al Ga
2. I am a graduation student in this semester
3. There is subject
4. (.)
5. Question, tell us about the best holiday you ever had?
6. Actually there is nothing in my mind
7. but the best holiday I ever had
8. Was when I was a child
9. I went to Egypt
10. Yeah that was a fantastic holiday
11. (.)
12. Ok (R4)

13. What should I write
14. The best holiday I ever had
15. (.)
16. Ok
17. I am just writing
18. what comes to my mind
19. (.)
20. The best holiday
21. (.)
22. I ever had
23. was (R2)
24. I cannot say that
25. The best holiday I ever had was
26. (.)
27. Is it travelling to Egypt
28. Was when I went
29. (.)
30. I went to
31. I know the spelling is correct
32. When I was
33. When I went to Egypt
34. (.)
35. I don't know why it is the best holiday I ever had
36. (.)
37. It is because there is so much fun in it

38. Or
39. (.)
40. Yeah
41. (.)
42. It was a joyful travelling
43. Ok
44. The best holiday I ever had was when I went to Egypt
45. And I was about
46. Ten (R2) years
47. (.)
48. 10 years
49. I Was
50. I was almost not about
51. I was almost (R2)
52. almost 10 years.
53. (.)
54. And I still remember a lot of things in that trip
55. (...)
56. I am going to tell you about
57. the trip since we took the passports
58. (.)
59. I am remembering
60. Want to remember (R4)
61. (.)
62. I want to remember

63. (.)
64. I remember while we are going to the ship
65. I , by the way we traveled by a big ship a big ship
66. Yeah
67. (.)
68. my uncle was kidding with me
69. and (R2) he almost dropped me in the water.
70. And I was so scared
71. Ok
72. (.)
73. Revision (R3)
74. Was when I went to Egypt
75. and I was almost 10 years
76. old (R2)
77. and i have a lot of things in that trip
78. (.)
79. i don't know what is happening to me
80. (.)
81. ok
82. I am writing about that
83. (.)
84. Also I remember (R2)
85. that we
86. travelled (R3) by a ship (R2)
87. Not sure about the spelling

88. Because the last time I wrote a passage
89. (.)
90. Was 2 years ago I think
91. Ship
92. Travelled by a ship
93. (.)
94. Ok
95. I remember that we traveled by a ship with our family
96. (.)
97. Masha Allah my grandfather , grandmother , aunts, father and mother were with
me
98. what else (R3)
99. ok
100. with our family
101. I remember that we travelled by a ship with our family
102. And
103. (.)
104. We took three days
105. (.)
106. On the sea
107. On the sea (R2)
108. Is it s e a or s e e
109. I wana hurry I don't know
110. On the sea port (R2)
111. Yeah we took 3 days on the sea port

112. Because
113. (.)
114. When we were leaving (R2)
115. We were leaving
116. Some thing happened
117. (.)
118. Which was the death of an old women
119. Something happened
120. While we are going toward the ship they were distributing head ace tablets.
121. The old women swallow all tablets
122. She died already
123. Something happened
124. which was
125. which was the death of the old woman
126. the death of the old woman
127. as I said when we are leaving
128. how do they say it
129. swallow
130. is it swallow
131. I am not sure (R2)
132. Which was the death of the old woman
133. The old woman
134. We took as a stay 3 days on the sea port
135. To
136. (.)

137. And
138. And on
139. And on that
140. And on that three waiting
141. On that three waiting days
142. (.)
143. They
144. who are they, who are they
145. (.)
146. I do not know what they were doing
147. Three days
148. They
149. I mean the police or some thing
150. They then they (R2)
151. they have been looking for the woman
152. For the woman
153. family
154. Of course to inform them
155. Family
156. As I say to inform them
157. And the trip starts
158. It was a nice journey
159. The most thing they were providing in that ship
160. Was nastlee milk, the heavy milk
161. I used to take that every now and then

162. We were looking for our rooms in the ship
163. And then
164. (.)
165. I am writing right now
166. than the trip started
167. Started
168. Start
169. Then the trips
170. The trip start
171. Start yeah
172. Start to move
173. Start to move to Egypt to our destination Egypt
174. Egypt
175. Also (R3)
176. We took another 3
177. Another 3 days to reach
178. To reach Egypt
179. Oh my God ..
180. When we arrived
181. Oh my God
182. Laughing
183. God save you Bandar
184. Bandar, my uncle was with us
185. We found an apartment in Cairo
186. There was a shop down

187. We were at the third or fourth floor.
188. There was a basket
189. You know the Egyptians, they hang the baskets and lift it low to be shopped
190. We ordered three pepsi
191. Me, Bandar and my Uncle
192. We lift down the basket without putting the money, the guy put the pepsi and
193. there was no money in the basket
194. He was shouting and asking for the money
195. He complained my uncle the eldest one, not the one who was participating in
this trick
196. And as I said it was one of the best trips I ever had
197. (.)
198. Ok
199. And by the way it is one of the best holidays I ever had
200. And almost the bad let us say bad holidays or scary holidays I ever had
201. Because when we were there
202. (.)
203. TheI am gona write that down
204. also it took 3 days to reach Egypt
205. And
206. (.)
207. We I mean my family
208. We
209. We visit many things
210. One of them is the paramets

211. Oh my God, they are huge
212. and so good
213. so big, I do not know how they build it
214. and after (R2)
215. a few days
216. I am sorry to say that
217. the gulf (R2)
218. war sorry start between
219. You know that of course
220. Between Iraq and Kuwait
221. I am not gona write
222. Between who start
223. And believe me
224. Oh my God, pray upon Prophet Mohammed
225. The Egyption army late night
226. Our trip was 10 or 15 days
227. In the first 5 days
228. The Egyption army was exercising in the big yards adjacent to our hotel
229. I was scared, the situation was nice suddenly it changed
230. And I saw one thing I can ever forget it
231. Which is
232. I saw a missile flying
233. I do not know from where it comes and to where its gona go
234. I think it was one of the Iraqi's missile heading to our capital which is Riyadh
235. I do not know about these things

236. these are terrible things actually
237. Oh my God
238. Ok
239. The war start
240. the gulf war start
241. and to be honest now
242. No I do not want to write this, I forget
243. and to be sure
244. there was (R2)
245. there was what
246. there was military movement
247. how to write the spelling
248. how to write the military spelling
249. And to be sure there was
250. There was what
251. There was so much
252. Yeah so much fear between our family
253. there was so much fear between our family
254. (.)
255. I want to be sure there was so much fear between our family
256. or between us (R2)
257. because we know that our country is getting involved in that war
258. (.)
259. and it did
260. ok

261. between our family or between us
262. (.)
263. Also (R2)
264. We don't know how to get back to our country.
265. To our country
266. Thank God we return safely
267. There were missiles I saw them with my eyes
268. My God
269. I am not gona beleive that
270. I remember the nearest missile in our district
271. (.)
272. It was about 1000 meter or less near to my balcony
273. I went to my father shouting missiles
274. (.)
275. And he said I know I know son
276. We are leaving
277. We are leaving now
278. Come on guys
279. I hope God will not bring this again
280. (.)
281. Ok what shall I write
282. I do not know how to get back to our county.
283. (.)
284. And by the way I am not preparin for that subject or for this subject
285. I am just trying to do my best

286. (.)
287. Thanks to
288. I am finishing it off
289. Thaks to God
290. we got back (R2)
291. no
292. Sorry
293. We got back in one piece
294. Thanks to God we got back in one piece (R2)
295. (.)
296. So this is , was
297. (.)
298. This is was one of my best holiday
299. Holidays not holiday I ever, I ever had.
300. (.)
301. This was a nice and frightened journey
302. (...)
303. This was one of
304. I am doing revision now
305. I hope there is no mistake
306. RV
307. This was one of my best trip I ever had was when I went to Egypt and
308. I was almost 10 years old and I still remember a lot of things in that trip
309. also I remember that we travelled by a ship
310. I am not sure about the spelling of the word ship

311. ok just keep it.
312. With our family and we took 3 days on the seaport
313. because
314. when we were leaving something happen which was the death of the old woman and on
315. and on that 3 waiting days they have been looking for the woman family
316. then the trip start to move to Egypt
317. also we took 3 days to reach Egypt.
318. We visit when we get
319. We shall write
320. We visit many things
321. we visit, visit, (R2)
322. we visit many things
323. (.)
324. and after a few days the gulf war started
325. to be sure there was so much fear between our family or between us also
326. we do not know how to get back to our country thanks to God we got back
327. in one piece so this is was one of my best holidays I ever had because
328. (.)
329. keep writing
330. Because (R2)
331. There was (R2)
332. so much fun and so much fear.
333. That's it
334. I got rid of them

335. Do not know (R3)
336. There are many things I want to remember
337. If I write this at home I should have write it batter
338. Whats the time now, its one thirty
339. I have to leave to Makkah
340. (...)
341. I hope this will please you Mr. Khalid, my story
342. I don't know if the spelling correct or not
343. The last time I wrote a text was before one year without exaggeration
344. This is not our fault
345. (.)
346. This is the mistake of the University
347. (.)
348. I believe this is the only journey I went to during the last 10 years.
349. It was the last one
350. I got involved in this life
351. I remember my grandfather became sick he got diabetes, I do not know why
352. was he already sick? Or this was because he was afraid that we may be hurted.
353. (...)
354. Ok (R4)
355. (...)
356. I forgot to close the sentence
357. (.)
358. Written by:
359. (.)

- 360. By: Mo.Ab. Ga.
- 361. Ok
- 362. That's it
- 363. (.)
- 364. That's it
- 365. I am leaving
- 366. God for give me
- 367. (Instructor) your finish, over

Tenth Protocol of a less-skilled student

Y.H.H

Total Time: 36:18

1. (..)
2. أنا أحب دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية لأنها لغة العالم ولغتي المفضلة
3. (...)
- 4.
5. Short Pause
international
6. Medium Pause
7. (لغة العالم R2 اكتب عن أهمية اللغة)
8. Short Pause
9. أساسا انا يعني
10. Short Pause
11. لغة سهلة
12. Short Pause
13. (ومهمة R2 لغة سهلة)
14. Short Pause
15. أحبها عشانها مادتي المفضلة أتمني ان اخرج بره البلدة
16. Short Pause
17. عشان احصل علي درجة عالية في المادة في اللغة
18. Medium Pause
19. لكن عشان احصل علي درجة عالية لازم أجيب معدل درجات قوية
20. Short Pause
21. انا أتمني احصل علي شهادات عالية في الشهادة ولكن درجات في البكالوريوس ما هي عالية
22. Short Pause
23. (لدعم لشرح اكثر , مفهومه اكثر R2 عشان أطور لغتي في الكلام أطور اللغة عندي احتاج إلي)
24. Medium Pause
25. (تمام واعرف ثقافتهم , تفكيرهم , R2 أتمني أن ادرس خارج البلد عشان اقوي اللغة افهم اللغة)
ونهجهم في الحياة
26. Long Pause
27. أي شخص يبقي يدرس أي لغة يعرف الخصائصها
28. Short Pause
29. واجتهاد الاحتكاك بهم , الاحتكاك بأهل اللغة
30. Long Pause
31. (أعيش في أمريكا وبريطانيا فترة سنة أو سنتين عشان اقدر أتكلم لغة أفضل , أهل اللغة R2 أمنيتي)
احصل علي درجة عالية .
32. Medium Pause
33. أتمني إن ادرس في بريطانيا أو أمريكا حتى استطيع . أو اعرف التكلم اللغة الانجليزية
34. Short Pause
35. (بس تحتاج إلي تقوية R2) لغتي جيدة ولكن تحتاج إلي تطوير لا بأس بها (R2 حاليا)
36. Medium Pause

37. تحتاج إلي تطوير مهارة
38. Medium Pause
39. مشكلتي في الإملاء تعبير ضعيف وكتابة
40. Short Pause
41. (and R2) spelling مشكلتي . مشكلاتي ' .
42. Short Pause
43. Spelling , writing , R2
44. Short Pause
45. ما أحفظ كلمات كثيرة بس هو في الحد
46. Short Pause
47. (عشان أحفظها R2 محتاج الي تطبيق اللغة هذه مع أصحاب اللغة)
48. Practice تطبيق
49. تمارين
50. exercise
51. Short Pause
52. تمرين
53. Short Pause
54. حتي اتكلم
55. P2
56. اعبير عن كلام في مختلف المجالات يعني مثلا (R2 أتمني أتمني أي كلمة ابقي أقولها أقولها ابقي أنكلم في الاقتصاد في الرياضة في الطب أكون مترجم فيها ابقي أنكلم فيها أترجم فيها أترجم كلام
57. I hope
58. Short Pause
59. Different برضو
60. P3
61. I will listen (R2)
62. (... ... (70 sec.)
63. To the forgonal
63. Long Pause
64. And less I am understand (r2)
65. انا افهم
66. I am understand
67. And I know
68. (. . .)
69. And I know (R2) the subject and so subject
70. Short Pause
71. ادرس خارج المملكة R2 إنا اخطط)
72. (..)
73. Future f, u , t ,u. r. e
74. Short Pause
- 75. I will America**
76. Short Pause
77. And study (R1)
78. ماجستير بالانجليزي ايش
79. (... ...)

Translation of Y. H. H's TAP of a less-skilled student

Total time: 36:18

1. I love studying English because it is the world language.
2. (..)
3. Because
4. (.)
5. International
6. (..)
7. I will write about the importance of the language (R2) world language.
8. (.)
9. Basically I am
10. (.)
11. Easy language (R2) and important.
12. I love it because it is my favorite subject, I wish to go outside the country.
13. (.)
14. I get a high degree in the subject in the language.
15. (..)
16. But to get a high degree I have to achieve a good score.
17. (.)
18. I wish to get a post graduate degree, but my grade in the Bachelor degree is not
high
19. (.)
20. To develop any speaking ability I need (R2) support for my understanding.
21. (..)

22. I wish to study outside the country, so as to develop my language, understand the language (R2)
23. and to know their culture, thoughts and their life style.
24. (...)
25. Any person who wants to study the language must know its characteristics.
26. (.)
27. Effort of contact, contact with the native speakers of the language.
28. (...)
29. My dream (R2)
30. to live in America and England for one or two years so as to be able to speak
31. better language, the native speakers of the language, to get a high degree.
32. (..)
33. I wish to study in America or England to be able or to know how to speak English.
34. (.)
35. Currently (R2)
36. my language is good, but it needs to be develop, it is fair (R2) but I need to be strengthen.
37. (..)
38. I need to develop my skills.
39. (..)
40. My problem is the poor spelling and poor expression and writing.
41. (.)
42. My problem, my problems, spelling (R2).
43. (.)

44. Spelling (R2) writing
45. (.)
46. I don't know many words, it is limited.
47. (.)
48. I need to practice the language with the native speakers of the language (R2)
49. Practice
50. Exercise (R2)
51. (.)
52. Exercise
53. (.)
54. So as to speak
55. (..)
56. I wish to know any word I want to say (R2), to explain myself in the different fields,
57. for example I what to speak in Economics, sports, medicine and to be a translator,
58. want to speak and translate.
59. I hope
60. (.)
61. Different
62. (...)
63. I will listen (R2)
64. (...)
65. I understand less
66. I understand

67. And I know

68. (.)

69. I know (R2) the subject

70. (.)

71. I am planning to study outside the Kingdom (R2)

72. (.)

73. Future, f, u, t, u, r, e

74. (.)

75. I will go to America

76. (.)

77. To study (R2)

78. What is the word master in English?

79. (.)

Appendix 7

WSQs and Compositions of the Students Studied in Chapter Five

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the writing strategies of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University majoring in English. I would be grateful if you could answer the following questions. The information provided will be of great help in my study and will be treated anonymously.

استبيان

تم تصميم هذا الاستبيان للحصول على معلومات حول الأساليب التي يتبعها الطلبة الذكور في كتاباتهم باللغة الإنجليزية في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة الملك عبد العزيز في المملكة العربية السعودية.

أشكر تفضلكم بالإجابة على الأسئلة التالية. سوف تستخدم المعلومات التي سيتم الحصول عليها من هذا الاستبيان لأغراض البحث فقط دون ذكر الأسماء ولا يمكن أن تعطى لطرف ثالث.

Personal and background information

Name: **M. A. K**
Age: 21
Grade Point Average (GPA): 4.85
Field of study: English - Linguistics
Year of English study: 3 years and half
First language: Arabic

معلومات شخصية

الاسم:

العمر:

المعدل التراكمي:

مجال الدراسة:

عدد سنوات دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية:

اللغة الأم:

Background information in English writing

- خبرة الكتابة باللغة الانجليزية

1. How many years have you spent studying English?

- كم سنة أمضيت في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟

~~I have been studying English~~

I have spent 3 years and half

2. Why are you interested in learning English?

- A. To get a better job
- b. To proceed studying abroad
- c. To gain a social status
- d. For entertainment purposes

e. Others (Mention)

I am very interested in English because I want to understand the world well.

- لماذا تحرص على دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

أ. فرص وظيفية أفضل

ب. استكمال الدراسة بالخارج

ج. مكانة اجتماعية

د. لأغراض الترفيه

هـ. أخرى (اذكرها)

3. Have you ever attended any other English courses outside the realm of your regular study?

Yes

No ✓

-If yes, where?

A- Inside Saudi Arabia

B- Abroad

- هل قمت بدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية خارج إطار دراستك النظامية؟

نعم

لا

- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم، أين؟ أ- داخل المملكة

ب- خارج المملكة

4. What kind of school did you attend?

I attended only Public School.

A. Private school

B. Public school

ما نوع المدارس التي درست بها قبل الالتحاق بالجامعة؟

أ. مدارس خاصة

ب. مدارس حكومية

5. How many times a week do you write in English?

- كم مرة تكتب باللغة الانكليزية في الأسبوع؟

At least two times.....

6. What kind of essays do you write most (argumentative, narrative, descriptive, expository)?

I mainly write in descriptive and argumentative.

Argumentative = When you write an argumentative essay, you mention different points of view and try to convince the reader with one of them.

Narrative = When you write a narrative essay, you tell a story or something that happened in the past.

Descriptive = When you write a descriptive essay, you describe a person, a place, a thing, an experience.

Expository = When you write an expository essay, you give information, explain the topic or define something.

- أي نوع من المقالات تكتب دائما (الحوارية/ التي تعتمد على مختلف وجهات النظر، السردية، الوصفية، التفسيرية)؟

الحوارية = عندما يطلب منك أن تكتب مقالة تذكر فيها مختلف وجهات النظر و بعد ذلك تتبنى إحداها في محاولة لإقناع القارئ برأيك.

السردية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تروي فيها قصة حدثت في الماضي أو حياة كاتب أو سرد روائي.

الوصفية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تصف فيها أحد الأشخاص أو الأماكن أو الأشياء أو تجربة ما.

التفسيرية = و ذلك عن تكتب مقالة تعطي فيها معلومات تشرح عن شيء ما أو تعرف بشئ ما.

.....
.....

7. When you write English essays, do you think in English or in Arabic?

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية ، هل تفكر باللغة الانجليزية أم باللغة العربية؟

Mostly, I think in English.

.....

8. When you write in English do you try to translate Arabic ideas?.

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية، هل تلجأ إلى أسلوب ترجمة أفكارك من اللغة

العربية؟

I do that rarely.

.....

2. The Questionnaire

Please make a tick under the choice that best describes what you do or how you behave when you are writing.

2- الاستبيان:

رجاء ضع إشارة صحيح (✓) تحت الاختيار الذي يصف ما تعمله أو يبين ما تقوم به عندما تكتب.

Meta-cognitive Strategies Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
استراتيجيات تحفيز الذاكرة	أوافق بشكل مطلق	أوافق	غير متأكد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق أبداً
1. I plan my writing before I start. أضع خطة للموضوع قبل البدء بالكتابة		✓			
2. I only plan the introduction. أضع العناصر والنقاط الرئيسية للمقدمة فقط	✓				
3. I think of the way I organize my writing. أضع تصوراً شاملاً لكتابة الموضوع		✓			
4. I try to check what I have written before passing it to my teacher. أراجع ما كتبت قبل تسليمه إلى المدرس	✓				
5. When I write, I stop quite often to read what I have written before continuing. أتوقف أثناء الكتابة لمراجعة ما كتبت ثم أتابع	✓				

6. I always compare my writing with previous composition to see if I have improved my writing level. أحاول دائما مقارنة كتابتي بكتابات إنشائية سابقة لنا لمعرفة مدى تطور كتابتي			✓		
7. I always think of similar situations. عند الكتابة، أفكر دائما بمواقف مشابهة				✓	
8. I imagine things to be able to write. ألجأ إلى الخيال أثناء الكتابة		✓			
9. I do not plan my writing beforehand. لا أضع خطة مسبقة للكتابة					✓
10. I read and compare my writing with the writing of my friends. أقرأ ما كتبت وأقارنه مع كتابة زملائي		✓			
11. I like to write alone and not to see the writing of my friends. أفضل أن أكتب بمفردي و لا أطلع على كتابات زملائي				✓	
Cognitive Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالذاكرة		✓			
12. Before writing, I always think of what I want to write. قبل البدء أحاول التفكير بما أريد أن أكتب	✓				
13. I try to make the question simple so that I can answer it more easily. أحاول أن أبسط السؤال لأتمكن من الجواب عليه		✓			
14. When writing, I make notes about certain points. أحاول تسجيل بعض الملاحظات أثناء الكتابة.	✓				
15. I always write a draft.					

أقوم بكتابة المسودة أولاً					
16. I use dictionaries. أستخدم القاموس أثناء الكتابة		✓			
17. I use ideas from textbooks when I write. استعمل الكتب المقررة أثناء الكتابة				✓	
18. I always check spelling and grammatical mistakes. أتأكد دائما من كتابة المفردات بشكل صحيح ومن عدم وجود أخطاء قوا عديدة	✓				
19. I always memorise things from lectures. أنا دائما أحفظ غيباً ما يعطى من خلال الدروس				✓	
20. I always memorise things from textbooks and include them in my composition. أنا دائما أحفظ غيباً معلومات من الكتب و أستعملها أثناء كتابتي.				✓	
21. I do not use any memorized ideas. I like to write my own ideas. لا أستخدم أفكاراً أحفظها عن غيب في كتابتي بل أفضل أن أعبّر عن أفكاري الخاصة.	✓			✓	
22. When I write, I like to refer to similar topics discussed during the course. عندما أكتب أفضل الإشارة إلى مواضيع مشابهة تمت دراستها/ مناقشتها في هذه المادة		✓			
23. I like to organize my writing according to the ideas discussed previously. أفضل أن أنظم كتابتي حسب الأفكار التي تتم مناقشتها مسبقاً		✓			
Social Strategies Statement					

استراتيجيات تتعلق بالجانب الاجتماعي					
24. If I find the composition difficult, I like to discuss it with a friend. أذا كان موضوع الإنشاء صعباً أفضل أن أتناقشه مع أحد الزملاء		✓			
25. I like to write my ideas down and try to solve any problems alone. أفضل أن أقوم بكتابة الأفكار التي تخطر لي وأحاول التغلب بمفردي على الصعاب التي تعترضني.		✓			
26. Sometimes, I like to see the writings of others to know how they compose their ideas. أحياناً أرتغب بمشاهدة كتابات الطلبة الآخرين كي أعرف كيف هم يكتبون أفكارهم.	✓				
27. When I am composing and I cannot convey the meaning, I ask for the help of my teacher. إذا لم أتمكن التعبير عن المعنى الذي أريده أثناء الكتابة أطلب مساعدة المدرس		✓			
28. I do not ask for the help of my teacher if I have difficulty. I prefer to discuss it with a friend. لا أطلب مساعدة المدرس إذا واجهتني صعوبة بل أفضل أن أتناقشها مع أحد زملائي	✓				
29. I do not like my writing to be discussed in front of others. لا أحب أن أتناقش كتابتي أمام الآخرين.					✓
Affective Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالدوافع والانفعالات					
30. Writing is a difficult task that makes me nervous. الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية صعبة وتجعلني عصبي المزاج				✓	
31. I like writing in English.					

أحب الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية					
32. If I have difficulties while writing, I try to take a break and do a different activity. إذا واجهت صعوبة أثناء الكتابة فإني أستريح وأعمل شيئاً آخر		✓			
33. If I have difficulty in spelling a word, I try to avoid using it. إذا واجهت صعوبة في تهجئة كلمة فإني أتجنب استعمالها			✓		
34. If I do not understand a word, I try to avoid using it. إن لم أتمكن من فهم معنى مفردة فإني أتجنب استعمالها	✓				
35. If I do not know exactly the meaning of a word, I use another one. إن لم أتمكن من فهم المعنى الدقيق لمفردة فإني أستعمل مفردة أخرى		✓			
36. If I am unable to use the right grammatical tense in English, I try always to use simple tense. إن لم أتمكن من استخدام التركيب القواعدي الصحيح فإني ألتجأ إلى استعمال الزمن البسيط	✓				
37. If I am confused about an English structure, I try to translate from Arabic. إذا لم أتمكن من استعمال تركيب لغوي فإني أترجم من اللغة العربية تراكيب مشابهة.					✓
38. If I do not know the past and past participle of a verb, I usually add, for example, 'ed' to the present form to change it into past. إذا لم أتمكن من معرفة الزمن الماضي للفعل أو اسم المفعول فإني عادة أضيف ed إلى صيغة الزمن الحاضر.				✓	
39. If the composition is					

<p>difficult to write, I write only few sentences.</p> <p>إذا كان الموضوع صعب فإبني أكتب بضع جمل فقط.</p>				✓	
<p>40. If the composition is difficult to write, I try to calm down.</p> <p>إذا كان الموضوع صعب فإبني أحاول أن أستجمع هدوني.</p>		✓			
<p>41. If the composition is difficult to write, I try to put it into simple English.</p> <p>إذا كان الموضوع صعبا فإبني أعيد صياغة السؤال بأسلوب مبسط.</p>		✓			
<p>42. If I do not know how to write, I get nervous.</p> <p>إذا لم أعرف كيف أكتب فإبني أصبح عصبي المزاج.</p>			✓		
<p>43. If I get nervous, I cannot write.</p> <p>عندما أصبح عصبي المزاج لا أستطيع الكتابة.</p>		✓			

Tell us about the best holiday you ever had.

- ① Where was that holiday?
- ② How many months did it last?
- ③ What was the most interesting ^{thing} which made it unbelievable?
- ④ ~~Where~~ did you spend it with family?

The most beautiful holiday in my life was last summer in Syria. It lasted for two months and half. There are many interesting ~~things~~ and funny things. In fact, the most wonderful event was in ~~Al-Ladhiyah~~ ^{Al-Ladhiyah}. Of course, I ~~spend~~ spent it with my friends, ~~and I got new experiences~~ away from my family.

~~I chose Syria~~

My terrific vacation was last summer in Syria for several reasons. First of all, Syria, ~~is~~ in my point of view, is the ~~and~~ cheapest country in Arab world. Moreover, it is the ~~most~~ nicest country. In fact, there are many parks, calm districts, clean beach and very generous ~~people~~ and friendly people. In addition, customs of Syrian society is very close to ours. ~~Finally~~ Finally, my ~~journey~~ journey lasted for two months and half, and was the best short period in my life.

Being in ~~Latakia~~ Al-Ladhiyah, ~~the Syrian beach~~ where the Syrian beach, was the splendid time in my ~~holiday~~ expedition. After I went to that beach I changed my opinion toward Syrians. In fact some of Syrians are very free. They do not ~~they~~ follow Islamic values and cultures precisely. On the other hand, the majority of Syrians are ~~conservative~~

Being in Al-Ladhiyah, where Syrian beach, was the most splendid time in my expedition. In fact, there is a well-organized beach and very superb apartments which have unique design. ~~what is~~ more, there are very pretty and attractive ladies. The ~~most~~ most weird thing which I figured out and had a ~~big~~ great effect on my life and simultaneously changed my opinion ~~was that something~~ on the beach. ~~Syrian society is divided into two~~ ^{about Syrian} society that some Syrians are very free and they do not follow Islamic values and cultures. On the other hand, the majority ~~of~~ are conservative even if they are not Muslims, but they have their own traditions.

I feel happy when I am with my friends especially during travelling or picnics. I enjoyed my time for being with my friends and apart from my family. In fact, ~~when I am with my family I lose~~ my freedom and I have to obey its rules. Unlike with friends, something is totally different. We can go wherever we wish without any restrictions besides getting various experiences.

TAP

10.10.

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the writing strategies of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University majoring in English. I would be grateful if you could answer the following questions. The information provided will be of great help in my study and will be treated anonymously.

استبيان

تم تصميم هذا الاستبيان للحصول على معلومات حول الأساليب التي يتبعها الطلبة الذكور في كتاباتهم باللغة الإنجليزية في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة الملك عبد العزيز في المملكة العربية السعودية.

أشكر تفضلكم بالإجابة على الأسئلة التالية. سوف تستخدم المعلومات التي سيتم الحصول عليها من هذا الاستبيان لأغراض البحث فقط دون ذكر الأسماء ولا يمكن أن تعطى لطرف ثالث.

Personal and background information

Name: M. ALM

Age: 22

Grade Point Average (GPA): 2.98

Field of study: English Language

Year of English study: 1 Year

First language: Arabic

معلومات شخصية

الاسم:

العمر:

المعدل التراكمي:

مجال الدراسة:

عدد سنوات دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية:

اللغة الأم:

Background information in English writing

- خبرة الكتابة باللغة الانجليزية

1. How many years have you spent studying English?

- كم سنة أمضيت في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟

I spent 1 year in collieg... expect the
higher school:.....

2. Why are you interested in learning English?

- a. To get a better job
- b. To proceed studying abroad
- c. To gain a social status
- d. For entertainment purposes

e. Others (Mention)

.....

- لماذا تحرص على دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

أ. فرص وظيفية أفضل

ب. استكمال الدراسة بالخارج

ج. مكانة اجتماعية

د. لأغراض الترفيه

هـ. أخرى (اذكرها)

3. Have you ever attended any other English courses outside the realm of your regular study?

Yes

No

-If yes, where? A- Inside Saudi Arabia

B- Abroad

- هل قمت بدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية خارج إطار دراستك النظامية؟

نعم

لا

- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم، أين؟ أ- داخل المملكة

ب- خارج المملكة

4. What kind of school did you attend?

A. Private school

B. Public school

ما نوع المدارس التي درست بها قبل الالتحاق بالجامعة؟

أ. مدارس خاصة

ب. مدارس حكومية

5. How many times a week do you write in English?

- كم مرة تكتب باللغة الانكليزية في الأسبوع؟

..... in the class ~~just~~

6. What kind of essays do you write most (argumentative, narrative, descriptive, expository)?

Argumentative = When you write an argumentative essay, you mention different points of view and try to convince the reader with one of them.

Narrative = When you write a narrative essay, you tell a story or something that happened in the past.

Descriptive = When you write a descriptive essay, you describe a person, a place, a thing, an experience.

Expository = When you write an expository essay, you give information, explain the topic or define something.

- أي نوع من المقالات تكتب دائما (الحوارية/ التي تعتمد على مختلف وجهات النظر، السردية ، الوصفية ، التفسيرية)؟

الحوارية = عندما يطلب منك أن تكتب مقالة تذكر فيها مختلف وجهات النظر و بعد ذلك تتبنى إحداها في محاولة لإقناع القارئ برأيك.

السردية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تروي فيها قصة حدثت في الماضي أو حياة كاتب أو سرد روائي.

الوصفية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تصف فيها أحد الأشخاص أو الأماكن أو الأشياء أو تجربة ما.

التفسيرية = و ذلك عن تكتب مقالة تعطي فيها معلومات تشرح عن شئ ما أو تعرف بشئ ما.

.....
.....

7. When you write English essays, do you think in English or in Arabic?

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية ، هل تفكر باللغة الانكليزية أم باللغة العربية؟

..... I was thinking sometime in Arabic and
..... usually in English.....

8. When you write in English do you try to translate Arabic ideas?

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية، هل تلجأ إلى أسلوب ترجمة أفكارك من اللغة

العربية؟

..... Yes.....
.....

2. The Questionnaire

Please make a tick under the choice that best describes what you do or how you behave when you are writing.

2- الاستبيان:

رجاء ضع إشارة صحيح (✓) تحت الاختيار الذي يصف ما تعمله أو يبين ما تقوم به عندما تكتب.

Meta-cognitive Strategies Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
استراتيجيات تحفيز الذاكرة	أوافق بشكل مطلق	أوافق	غير متأكد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق أبداً
1. I plan my writing before I start. أضع خطة للموضوع قبل البدء بالكتابة	✓				
2. I only plan the introduction. أضع العناصر والنقاط الرئيسية للمقدمة فقط		✓			
3. I think of the way I organize my writing. أضع تصورا شاملا لكتابة الموضوع	✓				
4. I try to check what I have written before passing it to my teacher. أراجع ما كتبت قبل تسليمه إلى المدرس	✓				
5. When I write, I stop quite often to read what I have written before continuing. أتوقف أثناء الكتابة لمراجعة ما كتبت ثم أتابع	✓				

أقوم بكتابة المسودة أولاً				✓	
16. I use dictionaries. استخدم القاموس أثناء الكتابة				✓	
17. I use ideas from textbooks when I write. استعمل الكتب المقررة أثناء الكتابة				✓	
18. I always check spelling and grammatical mistakes. أتأكد دائما من كتابة المفردات بشكل صحيح ومن عدم وجود أخطاء قوا عديدة				✓	
19. I always memorise things from lectures. أنا دائما أحفظ غيبا ما يعطى من خلال الدروس				✓	
20. I always memorise things from textbooks and include them in my composition. أنا دائما أحفظ غيبا معلومات من الكتب و استعملها أثناء كتابتي.				✓	
21. I do not use any memorized ideas. I like to write my own ideas. لا أستخدم أفكارا أحفظها عن غيب في كتاباتي بل أفضل أن أعبر عن أفكاري الخاصة.				✓	
22. When I write, I like to refer to similar topics discussed during the course. عندما أكتب أفضل الإشارة إلى مواضيع مشابهة تمت دراستها/ مناقشتها في هذه المادة				✓	
23. I like to organize my writing according to the ideas discussed previously. أفضل أن أنظم كتابتي حسب الأفكار التي تتم مناقشتها مسبقا				✓	
Social Strategies Statement					

استراتيجيات تتعلق بالجانب الاجتماعي					
24. If I find the composition difficult, I like to discuss it with a friend. إذا كان موضوع الإنشاء صعباً أفضل أن أتناقشه مع أحد زملاء	✓				
25. I like to write my ideas down and try to solve any problems alone. أفضل أن أقوم بكتابة الأفكار التي تخاطر لي و أحاول التغلب بمفردتي على الصعاب التي تعترضني.	✓				
26. Sometimes, I like to see the writings of others to know how they compose their ideas. أحياناً أريد بمشاهدة كتابات الطلبة الآخرين كي أعرف كيف هم يكتبون أفكارهم.	✓				
27. When I am composing and I cannot convey the meaning, I ask for the help of my teacher. إذا لم أتمكن التعبير عن المعنى الذي أريده أثناء الكتابة أطلب مساعدة المدرس	✓				
28. I do not ask for the help of my teacher if I have difficulty. I prefer to discuss it with a friend. لا أطلب مساعدة المدرس إذا واجهتني صعوبة بل أفضل أن أتناقشها مع أحد زملائي		✓			
29. I do not like my writing to be discussed in front of others. لا أحب أن أتناقش كتابتي أمام الآخرين.		✓			
Affective Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالدوافع والانفعالات					
30. Writing is a difficult task that makes me nervous. الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية صعبة وتجعلني عصبي المزاج		✓			
31. I like writing in English.					

أحب الكتابة باللغة الإنكليزية	✓				
32. If I have difficulties while writing, I try to take a break and do a different activity. إذا واجهت صعوبة أثناء الكتابة فإني أستريح وأصل شيئاً آخر	✓				
33. If I have difficulty in spelling a word, I try to avoid using it. إذا واجهت صعوبة في تهجئة كلمة فإني أتجنب استعمالها	✓				
34. If I do not understand a word, I try to avoid using it. إن لم أتمكن من فهم معنى مفردة فإني أتجنب استعمالها	✓				
35. If I do not know exactly the meaning of a word, I use another one. إن لم أتمكن من فهم المعنى الدقيق لمفردة فإني أستعمل مفردة أخرى	✓				
36. If I am unable to use the right grammatical tense in English, I try always to use simple tense. إن لم أتمكن من استخدام التركيب القواعدي الصحيح فإني ألتجأ إلى استعمال الزمن البسيط	✓				
37. If I am confused about an English structure, I try to translate from Arabic. إذا لم أتمكن من استعمال تركيب لغوي فإني أترجم من اللغة العربية تراكيب مشابهة.	✓				
38. If I do not know the past and past participle of a verb, I usually add, for example, 'ed' to the present form to change it into past. إذا لم أتمكن من معرفة الزمن الماضي للفعل أو اسم المفعول فإني عادة أضيف ed إلى صيغة الزمن الحاضر.	✓				
39. If the composition is					

☼ My best holy day ☼

Why? I met most my friends and my family and we are
kind of ramban month and.
when? before two years when my grand father
he still alive that is my best holiday and my family
had ~~some~~ some tech between

T A ()

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the writing strategies of Saudi male students at King Abdul-Aziz University majoring in English. I would be grateful if you could answer the following questions. The information provided will be of great help in my study and will be treated anonymously.

استبيان

تم تصميم هذا الاستبيان للحصول على معلومات حول الأساليب التي يتبعها الطلبة الذكور في كتاباتهم باللغة الإنجليزية في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة الملك عبد العزيز في المملكة العربية السعودية.

أشكر تفضلكم بالإجابة على الأسئلة التالية. سوف تستخدم المعلومات التي سيتم الحصول عليها من هذا الاستبيان لأغراض البحث فقط دون ذكر الأسماء ولا يمكن أن تعطى لطرف ثالث.

Personal and background information

Name: M. H. SH

Age: 21

Grade Point Average (GPA): 3,2

Field of study: ~~2 years~~ English.

Year of English study: 8 years

First language: Arabic.

معلومات شخصية

الاسم:

العمر:

المعدل التراكمي:

مجال الدراسة:

عدد سنوات دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية:

اللغة الأم:

Background information in English writing

- خبرة الكتابة باللغة الانجليزية

1. How many years have you spent studying English?

- كم سنة أمضيت في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟

I think 8 years ago.

.....

2. Why are you interested in learning English?

- a. To get a better job
- b. To proceed studying abroad
- c. To gain a social status
- d. For entertainment purposes

e. Others (Mention)

I am very like this language.....

- لماذا تحرص على دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

أ. فرص وظيفية أفضل

ب. استكمال الدراسة بالخارج

ج. مكانة اجتماعية

د. لأغراض الترفيه

هـ. أخرى (اذكرها)

3. Have you ever attended any other English courses outside the realm of your regular study?

Yes

No

-If yes, where? A- Inside Saudi Arabia

B- Abroad

- هل قمت بدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية خارج إطار دراستك النظامية؟

نعم

لا

- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم، أين؟ أ- داخل المملكة

ب- خارج المملكة

4. What kind of school did you attend?

- A. Private school
✓ B. Public school

ما نوع المدارس التي درست بها قبل الالتحاق بالجامعة؟

أ. مدارس خاصة

ب. مدارس حكومية

5. How many times a week do you write in English?

- كم مرة تكتب باللغة الانكليزية في الأسبوع؟

*Not all the week I am written the English
but I am always write many of sentences in our life.*

6. What kind of essays do you write most (argumentative, narrative, descriptive, expository)?

Argumentative = When you write an argumentative essay, you mention different points of view and try to convince the reader with one of them.

Narrative = When you write a narrative essay, you tell a story or something that happened in the past.

Descriptive = When you write a descriptive essay, you describe a person, a place, a thing, an experience.

Expository = When you write an expository essay, you give information, explain the topic or define something.

- أي نوع من المقالات تكتب دائما (الحوارية/ التي تعتمد على مختلف وجهات النظر، المرديّة، الوصفية، التفسيرية)؟

الحوارية = عندما يطلب منك أن تكتب مقالة تذكر فيها مختلف وجهات النظر و بعد ذلك تتبنى إحداها في محاولة لإقناع القارئ برأيك.

السردية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تروي فيها قصة حدثت في الماضي أو حياة كاتب أو سرد روائي.

الوصفية = و ذلك عندما تكتب مقالة تصف فيها أحد الأشخاص أو الأماكن أو الأشياء أو تجربة ما.

التفسيرية = و ذلك عن تكتب مقالة تعطي فيها معلومات تشرح عن شيء ما أو تعرف بشئ ما.

*I am written only sentences not essays
that from my life.*

7. When you write English essays, do you think in English or in Arabic?

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية ، هل تفكر باللغة الانجليزية أم باللغة العربية؟

My focus is in English language only.

8. When you write in English do you try to translate Arabic ideas?.

- أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية، هل تلجأ إلى أسلوب ترجمة أفكارك من اللغة

العربية؟

*Yes, of course but I am don't know
that is right or not.*

2. The Questionnaire

Please make a tick under the choice that best describes what you do or how you behave when you are writing.

2- الاستبيان:

رجاء ضع إشارة صحيح (✓) تحت الاختيار الذي يصف ما تعمله أو يبين ما تقوم به عندما تكتب.

Meta-cognitive Strategies Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
استراتيجيات تحفيز الذاكرة	أوافق بشك مطلق	أوافق	غير متأكد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق أبدا
1. I plan my writing before I start. أضع خطة للموضوع قبل البدء بالكتابة	✓				
2. I only plan the introduction. أضع العناصر والنقاط الرئيسية للمقدمة فقط				✓	
3. I think of the way I organize my writing. أضع تصورا شاملا لكتابة الموضوع	✓				
4. I try to check what I have written before passing it to my teacher. أراجع ما كتبت قبل تسليمه إلى المدرس	✓				
5. When I write, I stop quite often to read what I have written before continuing. أتوقف أثناء الكتابة لمراجعة ما كتبت ثم أتابع		✓			

6. I always compare my writing with previous composition to see if I have improved my writing level. أحاول دائماً مقارنة كتابتي بكتابات إلشائية سابقة لنا لمعرفة مدى تطور كتابتي	✓				
7. I always think of similar situations. عند الكتابة، أفكر دائماً بمواقف مشابهة	✓				
8. I imagine things to be able to write. أجاء إلى الخيال أثناء الكتابة		✓			
9. I do not plan my writing beforehand. لا أضع خطة مسبقة للكتابة				✓	
10. I read and compare my writing with the writing of my friends. أقرأ ما كتبت وأقارنه مع كتابة زملائي				✓	
11. I like to write alone and not to see the writing of my friends. أفضل أن أكتب بمفردي و لا أطلع على كتابات زملائي	✓				
Cognitive Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالذاكرة		✓			
12. Before writing, I always think of what I want to write. قبل البدء أحاول التفكير بما أريد أن أكتب	✓				
13. I try to make the question simple so that I can answer it more easily. أحاول أن أبسط السؤال لأتمكن من الجواب عليه	✓		عاجلة		
14. When writing, I make notes about certain points. أحاول تسجيل بعض الملاحظات أثناء الكتابة.			✓		
15. I always write a draft.		✓			

أقوم بكتابة المسودة أولاً		✓			
16. I use dictionaries. أستخدم القاموس أثناء الكتابة		✓			
17. I use ideas from textbooks when I write. استعمل الكتب المقررة أثناء الكتابة			✓		
18. I always check spelling and grammatical mistakes. أتأكد دائما من كتابة المفردات بشكل صحيح ومن عدم وجود أخطاء قوا عديدة	✓				
19. I always memorise things from lectures. أنا دائما أحفظ غيباً ما يعطى من خلال الدروس		✓			
20. I always memorise things from textbooks and include them in my composition. أنا دائما أحفظ غيباً معلومات من الكتب و استعملها أثناء كتابتي.	✓			✓	
21. I do not use any memorized ideas. I like to write my own ideas. لا أستخدم أفكاراً أحفظها عن غيب في كتابتي بل أفضل أن أجبر عن أفكاري الخاصة.	✓				
22. When I write, I like to refer to similar topics discussed during the course. عندما أكتب أفضل الإشارة إلى مواضيع مشابهة تمت دراستها/ مناقشتها في هذه المادة		✓			
23. I like to organize my writing according to the ideas discussed previously. أفضل أن أنظم كتابتي حسب الأفكار التي تتم مناقشتها مسبقاً		✓			
Social Strategies Statement					

استراتيجيات تتعلق بالجانب الاجتماعي					
24. If I find the composition difficult, I like to discuss it with a friend. إذا كان موضوع الإنشاء صعباً أفضل أن أناقشه مع أحد زملائي.		✓			
25. I like to write my ideas down and try to solve any problems alone. أفضل أن أقوم بكتابة الأفكار التي تخطر لي وأحاول التغلب بمفردي على الصعاب التي تعترضني.		✓			
26. Sometimes, I like to see the writings of others to know how they compose their ideas. أحياناً أريد بمشاهدة كتابات الطلبة الآخرين كي أعرف كيف هم يكتبون أفكارهم.		✓		✓	
27. When I am composing and I cannot convey the meaning, I ask for the help of my teacher. إذا لم أتمكن من التعبير عن المعنى الذي أريده أثناء الكتابة أطلب مساعدة المدرس.		✓			
28. I do not ask for the help of my teacher if I have difficulty. I prefer to discuss it with a friend. لا أطلب مساعدة المدرس إذا واجهتني صعوبة بل أفضل أن أناقشها مع أحد زملائي.				✓	
29. I do not like my writing to be discussed in front of others. لا أحب أن أناقش كتابتي أمام الآخرين.		✓			
Affective Strategies Statement استراتيجيات تتعلق بالدوافع والانفعالات					
30. Writing is a difficult task that makes me nervous. الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية صعبة وتجعلني عصبي المزاج.				✓	✓
31. I like writing in English.	✓				

أحب الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية	✓				
32. If I have difficulties while writing, I try to take a break and do a different activity. إذا واجهت صعوبة أثناء الكتابة فإني أستريح وأعمل شيئاً آخر		✓			
33. If I have difficulty in spelling a word, I try to avoid using it. إذا واجهت صعوبة في تهجئة كلمة فإني أتجنب استعمالها				✓	
34. If I do not understand a word, I try to avoid using it. إن لم أتمكن من فهم معنى مفردة فإني أتجنب استعمالها		✓		✓	
35. If I do not know exactly the meaning of a word, I use another one. إن لم أتمكن من فهم المعنى الدقيق لمفردة فإني أستعمل مفردة أخرى		✓			
36. If I am unable to use the right grammatical tense in English, I try always to use simple tense. إن لم أتمكن من استخدام التركيب القواعدي الصحيح فإني ألتجأ إلى استعمال الزمن البسيط		✓			
37. If I am confused about an English structure, I try to translate from Arabic. إذا لم أتمكن من استعمال تركيب لغوي فإني أترجم من اللغة العربية تراكيب مشابهة.		✓			
38. If I do not know the past and past participle of a verb, I usually add, for example, 'ed' to the present form to change it into past. إذا لم أتمكن من معرفة الزمن الماضي للفعل أو اسم المفعول فإني عادة أضيف ed إلى صيغة الزمن الحاضر.		✓			
39. If the composition is					

<p>difficult to write, I write only few sentences.</p> <p>إذا كان الموضوع صعباً فإبني أكتب بضع جمل فقط.</p>	✓				
<p>40. If the composition is difficult to write, I try to calm down.</p> <p>إذا كان الموضوع صعباً فإبني أحاول أن أستجمع هدوني.</p>	✓				
<p>41. If the composition is difficult to write, I try to put it into simple English.</p> <p>إذا كان الموضوع صعباً فإبني أعيد صياغة السؤال بأسلوب مبسط.</p>	✓				
<p>42. If I do not know how to write, I get nervous.</p> <p>إذا لم أعرف كيف أكتب فإبني أصبح عصبي المزاج.</p>		✓			
<p>43. If I get nervous, I cannot write.</p> <p>عندما أصبح عصبي المزاج لا أستطيع الكتابة.</p>	✓				

Tell us about the best holiday you ever had.

My best holiday is last summer. In that period I had many of ~~ideas~~ ideas. The first idea, I want to take summer's semester. But I am not serious. The main reason is I am very irritable for this thing. So then talked with my father about this subject. And he told me "if you too a friend don't take this semester". after that I am stay in ~~my~~ my home and don't come in to Jeddah. In that vacation I am very happy because I am with my family and with my friends in my home. From early morning I am grow up, then ~~we~~ pray Al-Fajr and then we have a break fast with my mother and father or with my best friend every day. After pray of al-Asr I am and my friends or my Queen going to playing football. In a nice atmosphere not very cold not very hot. And you can see mountains covered with the green grass. In the night I am stay in the house into 10 o'clock then go to my friends to eat the dinner and after that ^{we} stay for ~~hours~~ ^{along time} hours to ~~the~~ talking together and to have

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a nice time with theme. There are many of party in that vacation. Meeting with public people and we have with theme fun time. That is small part from my best holiday. I am written that in this paper. but I think this vacation not againe an other time.

With my best wishire D.r