

**IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ABILITY AND
WRITING STRATEGIES IN TWO DISCOURSE TYPES**

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SYNOPSIS

This study investigated the writing strategies of Iranian EFL learners with different levels of writing ability in narrative and argumentative essays. Three good writers and three poor writers were selected from 32 initial volunteers based on their level of proficiency. Data were gathered from these participants in two writing tasks through four different sources, namely think aloud protocols, stimulated recalls, post-writing interviews, and their written products. The strategic behaviors of each individual writer were initially derived from single case analyses. After that, cross case analyses were performed across different writing tasks and different groups of writers.

The findings revealed that writing was a complicated recursive process of meaning discovery. Both groups of writers used certain writing strategies in combination to approach the different tasks, interact with the texts, generate new ideas, and modify their texts. The degree of recursiveness was different between good writers and poor writers. The two groups of writers were found to employ different writing strategies in the way they interact with the emerging text, ability to see their text as a whole, concentrating on meaning, and lowering cognitive load. Another difference between the two groups of writers was that the poor writers followed almost the same writing behaviors across two different writing tasks while the good writers appeared to modify the way they composed different writing tasks.

SINOPSIS

Keupayaan Menulis Dan Strategi Penulisan Pelajar Bahasa Inggeris Sebagai Bahasa Asing Berkewarganegaraan Iran Dalam Dua Jenis Wacana

Kajian ini menyiasat strategi penulisan pelajar EFL Iran yang mempunyai tahap keupayaan penulisan yang berbeza dalam karangan naratif dan karangan argumentatif. Tiga penulis yang baik dan tiga penulis yang lemah telah dipilih daripada 32 sukarelawan awal berdasarkan tahap kecekapan mereka. Data dikumpulkan daripada responden dalam dua tugas bertulis melalui empat sumber yang berbeza iaitu melalui protokol meluahkan fikiran, melalui imbasan berdasarkan stimulasi, temu bual selepas penulisan, dan melalui hasil penulisan mereka. Tingkah laku strategik penulis setiap individu pada mulanya diperolehi daripada analisis kes tunggal. Selepas itu, satu analisis yang membandingkan satu kes dengan yang lain (cross case analysis) dibuat berdasarkan tugas penulisan yang berbeza dan kumpulan penulis yang berlainan.

Hasil kajian telah menunjukkan bahawa penulisan adalah satu proses berulang yang rumit yang membawa kepada penemuan makna. Kedua-dua kumpulan penulis menggunakan kombinasi strategi tertentu untuk melengkapkan tugas-tugas yang berbeza, berinteraksi dengan teks-teks, menjana idea-idea baru, dan mengubah suai teks mereka. Tahap perulangan penulisan adalah berbeza di antara penulis yang baik dan penulis lemah. Kedua-dua kumpulan penulis telah didapati menggunakan strategi penulisan yang berbeza dalam cara mereka berinteraksi dengan keupayaan teks yang baru muncul, untuk melihat teks secara keseluruhan, dengan tumpuan kepada maksud, dan mengurangkan beban kognitif. Satu lagi perbezaan yang didapati antara kedua-dua kumpulan penulis adalah bahawa penulis yang lemah mempunyai gaya penulisan yang sama merentasi kedua-dua tugas bertulis yang berbeza manakala penulis-penulis yang baik mengubah cara penulisan mereka mengikut tugas.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
SYNOPSIS	iii
SINOPSIS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF APPENDICES	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
Introduction	1
Process Approach to Writing	1
Composition, Cognitive Psychology, and Strategies	3
Writing Strategies, Writing Ability, and Writing Discourse Types	4
English Writing at the Tertiary Level in Iran	6
Problem Statement	8
Purpose of the Study	14
Research Questions	14
Significance of the Study	15
Limitations of the Study	16
Operational Definitions	17
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	18
Introduction	18
Theoretical Framework	18
Criticism of Flower and Hayes' (1981) Model	20
Rationale for Using Flower and Hayes' Model	22
Operationalizing Theoretical Framework	26

Writing Strategies, Processes, And Sub Processes	28
Implication for Current Study	29
Three Main Components of Writing	30
Planning	30
Writing	32
Reviewing	34
Implication for Current Study	37
Composing Research	37
Studies on Composing Strategies	39
Implication for Current Study	45
Writing Ability	46
Implication for Current Study	51
Writing Strategies of Skilled and Less Skilled Writers	52
An Overview of the Major Findings	57
Implication for Current Study	62
Writing Discourse Types	62
Implication for Current Study	65
Studies on Writing Strategies with Different Writing Discourse Types	66
Conclusion	70
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	72
Introduction	72
Design of the Study	72
Research Site	74
The Participants	74
Sources of Data for Selecting the Participants	75
Judging the Participants' Writing Ability	77
The Researcher's Role	86
Sources of Data and Rationale for Employing Them	87
Writing Prompts	88
Think Aloud Protocols	89
Training of the Participants	89
Stimulated Recalls	90
Semi-Structure Interviews	91
Written Products	91

Data Collection Procedures	92
Data Analysis	94
Interview and Stimulated Recall	95
Think Aloud Protocols	95
Transcribing/Translating the Recorded Think Aloud Protocols	96
Coding System	97
Segmenting the Transcribed Protocols	98
Coding the Segmented Protocols	98
Reliability of the Coding Scheme	100
Intra Rater Reliability	100
Inter Rater Reliability	102
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	105
Introduction	105
Research Question 1: What writing strategies do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL students employ throughout composing?	107
Skilled Writers' Writing Strategies in the Narrative Writing	107
Planning	107
Translating	112
Reviewing	120
Skilled Writers' Writing Strategies in the Argumentative Writing	123
Planning	123
Translating	126
Reviewing	131
Less Skilled Writers' Writing Strategies in the Narrative Writing	134
Planning	134
Translating	139
Reviewing	146
Less Skilled Writers' Writing Strategies in the Argumentative Writing	149
Planning	149
Translating	153
Reviewing	156
Summary of the Findings on the First Research Question	158
Research Question 2: How do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL writers differ in their use of writing strategies?	159
Comparison of Good and Poor Writers in the Narrative Writing	160
Planning Before Writing	160
Planning While Writing	164
Translating	167
Reviewing	176
Comparison of Good and Poor Writers in the Argumentative Writing	179
Planning Before Writing	179
Planning While Writing	181

Translating	183
Reviewing	190
Summary of the Findings on the Second Research Question	194
Research Question 3: Do the Iranian EFL undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary due to the discourse types?	195
Skilled Writers in the Narrative and Argumentative Task	195
Planning Before Writing	195
Interview Data on the Good Writers' Planning Before Writing	201
Planning While Writing	204
Translating	206
Interview Data on the Good Writers' Translating	223
Reviewing	224
Interview Data on the Good Writers' Reviewing	232
Less Skilled Writers in Narrative and Argumentative Writing	234
Planning Before Writing	234
Interview Data on the Poor Writers' Planning Before Writing	242
Planning While Writing	245
Translating	248
Interview Data on the Poor Writers' Translating	262
Reviewing	266
Interview Data on the Poor Writers' Reviewing	271
Summary of the Findings on the Third Research Question	273
Research Question 4: Do discourse types have a similar effect on the strategic behavior of both skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL writers?	275
Planning Before Writing	276
Planning While Writing	276
Translating	282
Reviewing	297
Interview Data on the Differences Between Narrative and Argumentative Discourses in the Writers' Viewpoints	301
Summary of the Findings on the Fourth Research Question	305
CHAPTER 5:DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	308
Introduction	308
Research Question 1: What writing strategies do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate learners employ throughout composing?	308
Research Question 2: How do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers differ in their use of writing strategies?	312
Research Question 3: Do the Iranian EFL undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary due to the discourse types?	314
Research Question 4: Do discourse types have a similar effect on the strategic behavior of both skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL	315

undergraduate writers?	
Practical and Theoretical Conclusions	317
Implications of the Study	320
Implications for EFL Composition Teaching	320
Implications for Methodology in Writing Studies	325
Suggestions for Future Research	327
REFERENCES	347

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1	Grouping Participants According to Their Writing Performance	79
Table 3.2	Differences in the Means of Reported Strategy Use	81
Table 3.3	Grouping Participants According to the Strategy Use	81
Table 3.4	Participants' Scores on their Previous Writing Courses	82
Table 3.5	Summary of the Participants' Profile	83
Table 3.6	An Overview of the Data Collection Procedure	93
Table 3.7	An Overview of Categories of Major and Minor Writing Strategies	98
Table 3.8	Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol A	101
Table 3.9	Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol B	101
Table 3.10	Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol A	102
Table 3.11	Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol B	102
Table 3.12	Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol One	103
Table 3.13	Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol Two	103
Table 3.14	Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol One	103
Table 3.15	Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol Two	103
Table 3.16	The Overall Average Intra Rater Reliability for the Main Categories and Subcategories	104
Table 3.17	The Overall Average Inter Rater Reliability for the Main Categories and Subcategories	104
Table 4.1	Presentation of Results in Chapter 4	106

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Flower and Hayes' (1981) Writing Model	19
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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A	Student Consent Form	343
Appendix B	Raters' Scores for the Participants	344
Appendix C	Writing Strategy Questionnaire	345
Appendix D	Writing Instructors' Ideas about the Participants' Writing Abilities	349
Appendix E	Interview Guide	350
Appendix F	The ESL Writing Profile (Jacobs et al., (1981)	352
Appendix G	Number of Words and the Time Each Good and Poor Writer Spent on Three Stages of Writing in the Narrative (Task One) and Argumentative (Task Two) Task	353
Appendix H	Summary of the Total Number of Uttered Words, Number of transcribed Pages, Total Number of Written Words, and Number of actual produced Draft by Each Good and Poor Writer in the Narrative (Task One) and Argumentative (Task Two) Task	354
Appendix I	Long Extracts of Think Aloud Protocols	355
Appendix J	Translation of Think Aloud Protocols	369
Appendix K	Permission Letter from TOEFL Organization	371

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The main aim of the present study is to investigate the writing strategies of Iranian EFL skilled and less skilled writers with different writing abilities. Since writing strategies are an indispensable part of writing process (Tapinta, 2006), this study investigates the writing strategies within process oriented view of writing. Hence, an overview of the process writing is firstly presented in this section. Then, given the fact that this study is purely cognitive in nature, the relationship between the underlying concepts of the study including composition, cognitive psychology, and strategies are explained. Next, three interrelated important issues of writing strategies, writing ability, and writing discourse type that this study is going to address are discussed. Afterwards, an overview of English writing at the tertiary level in Iran is presented. Finally, statement of the problem, research questions, and significance of the study are expressed.

Process Approach to Writing

Process view of writing came into existence in the late 1960s and the early 1970s as a result of work done by Linda Flower and John Hayes (Yeung, 2008). Unlike product view of writing in which writing was viewed from a linear perspective from pre writing to writing and rewriting, advocates of process pedagogy put emphasis on the recursive and goal oriented process through which “writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (Zamel, 1983, p. 156). As a consequence of this “paradigm shift” (Hairston, cited in Matsuda, 2003, p. 67) from written product to process of writing, many writing researchers investigated writing

processes and behaviors of writers, most of which done in L1 contexts (e.g., Emig, 1971; Perl, 1979). New findings and insights were obtained as a result of these attempts (Hyland, 2003). Two findings of these attempts are of high importance in the field of writing and applied in this study. The first one is the fact that writing was proved to be recursive, non-linear, and cyclical process including, in general, planning, translating, and reviewing and the second one, as Riazi (1995) also pointed out, was emergence of cognitive models of composing such as that put forth by Flower and Hayes (1980) as well as Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987).

In the process view of writing, composing is considered to be a recursive, goal-oriented, complex thinking process whereby the writers create their meanings. The writers, accordingly, move back and forth between different process of writing i.e., planning, drafting, and reviewing continually and recursively (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Zamel, 1983) which is demanding (Roca de Larios, Manchon, Murphy, & Marin, 2007). Harris, Santangelo, and Graham (2008) note that writers should simultaneously and recursively pay attention to various factors such as conventions and mechanics of writing, formal features of language, topic and purpose of writing, audience, idea generation for the coming parts and evaluation of the previously composed text.

With respect to the second finding of process based studies, the Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) model, which serves as the framework based on which the data of this study is interpreted, focuses on what writers do when they compose. In other words, their model describes the mental operations taking place during the writing process (Gamble, 2007). They divided the writing process into three sub processes: (a) planning, (b) translation, and (c) reviewing. It also included a monitor which appeared to control these sub processes (see theoretical framework).

Composition, Cognitive Psychology, and Strategies

Adapting a purely cognitive view of composing, Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 366) note that processes of writing are certain distinctive “thinking processes” that writers organize once engaged in writing. Hence, there are two key terms in the cognitive view of writing: thinking and process (Riazi, 1995). The first one identifies thinking critically in order to solve a problem which, on its own, calls for planning of the written task. This is where cognitive psychology and composition field are clearly reconciled. The problem solving nature of writing (Flower & Hayes, 1980) is accommodated in higher-order cognition in cognitive psychology. Higher-order cognition, according to Solso (cited in Bergovitz, 2008), are the mental activities or performances based on which knowledge is acquired or understood; it refers to aspects of cognition based on the perception and memory stages and which normally occur at the end of the information-processing sequence. To be more precise, this cognition “refers to such aspects of cognition as problem-solving and language” (Bergovitz, 2008, p. 12). Identifying the problem and planning the task, writers then initiate the process of composing by translating their abstract ideas and conceptions into words in addition to reviewing their written products through revising or editing (Riazi, 1995) to solve this problem. This is where the strategies are called into action. Strategy researchers generally believe that students employ strategies to solve the language problem (e.g., Oxford, 1990). On the other hand, cognitive psychologists also maintain that strategies are part of the solutions learners employ to solve a language problem (Bergovitz, 2008). Therefore, using the recursive and nonlinear processes of writing, this study adopts a holistic view to investigate the whole composing process than a single sub process like planning. This holistic investigation of writing from the time the writers see the topic up until they finish it, is also more comprehensive, as Roca de Larios et al. (2007) have asserted.

To sum up briefly, cognitive writing process models and recursiveness of composing behavior were two significant contributions resultant from process based studies which, in line with the aims of this study, are implemented in this research.

Writing Strategies, Writing ability, and Writing Discourse Types

From 1980s to date, writing strategies, indispensable to writing process (Harris et al., 2008; Tapinta, 2006) which students employ throughout the processes of writing have been under study. Numerous studies conducted in L1, L2, or EFL setting report the excessive use of writing strategies (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980; Raimes, 1987; Riazi, 1995). Hence, it was revealed that writing strategies play an important role in composing. However, as noted by Victori (1997), there is no consensus on the terminologies each researcher employed. For instance, while Flower and Hayes (1980) have used the term reviewing, Beach (1976) used self-evaluating, Perl (1979) used editing, and Hu and Chen (2008) used evaluating. In this study, in order to lessen the confusion, I adopted Flower and Hayes's (1980) writing model and hence divided writing into three main components of planning, translating, and reviewing.

Writing abilities of the writers are another area of hot debate in the field. In the first place, L2 writing competence and its knowledge components is extremely intricate (Wolff, 2000) and hence, writing abilities of nonnative writers are more difficult to assess than those of native speakers (Johns, 1991; Song & August, 2002). In the second place, lack of a unified theory of writing ability has been noted in both first and second language writing research (Gennaro, 2006; Huot, 1990; Kroll, 2003). Moreover, Cumming, Kantor, Powers, Santos, and Taylor (2000) argue that despite the fact that writing researchers regularly deal with implicit understandings of what constitutes effective English writing worldwide, so far the writing field is suffering from lack of a

unanimously accepted model for testing writing. In the third place, borrowing the term “elusive” nature of writing from Frodeson and Holten, (2003), Gennaro (2006) holds that in general, there is not a unanimously accepted conception and definition of writing ability. What is more, many writing researchers (e.g., Arndt, 1987; Beare, 2000; Cumming, 1989, 1995; Flower & Hayes, 1980, 1981; Perl, 1979; Pianko, 1979; Victori, 1995; Zamel, 1982) maintain that writing strategies, among other factors, are determining factors in differentiating skilled writers from unskilled ones. Nevertheless, Raimes (1985) and Pennington and So (1993) argue that the lack of agreement across studies on valid criteria in terms of measuring writing skill is one of the major weak points of the writing process research. That is why, they maintain, there is no clear agreement on the meaning of terms such as skilled, and unskilled writers. It is therefore possible that, according to Pennington and So (1993), the skilled writers of one study are the unskilled writers of another. Because of this, I used different sources of data to differentiate the participants in terms of their writing abilities (see participant selection). The sources I selected are in line with Angelova’s (1999) conclusion that holistic scoring supported by the instructors’ ideas are the better indicators of the EFL writers’ writing abilities. Hence, I considered holistic scoring of the participants’ writing products as also done in many writing studies (e.g., Emig, 1971; Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1982, 1983); their knowledge of writing strategies gained by a questionnaire (Yang, 2002), participants’ scores on their previous writing courses and the participants’ composition instructors’ ideas as previously employed by Hu and Chen (2008).

In terms of the writing discourse types, some researchers employed two kinds of writing genres in their studies; in other words, the participants were required to compose two different modes of discourse (see different writing discourse types). Argumentative and narrative discourse types were the ones mostly employed in different studies. The

reason for employing these two distinct modes of writing discourse is that the full range of writing strategies can best be elicited and investigated while participants are performing different writing modes because Cumming (1989) notes that different writing discourse types call for different strategies. Cumming is not alone in his belief; Oxford, Cho, Leung, and Kim (2004, p. 2) similarly hold that “different language tasks require the use of different strategies”. Therefore, in this study, three good writers and three poor writers were required to compose an argumentative and a narrative writing so that their differences in strategy use can be elicited.

English Writing at the Tertiary Level in Iran

English is an international language and hence being proficient in English is considered an important prerequisite for those who intend to take part in both regional and global academic and professional communities. It goes without saying that the higher level of education demands greater mastery of English. This is especially true for productive skills like speaking and writing. It is through these two skills that one can assert himself. In writing, in particular, one needs to be proficient because it not only enables one to “keep up with world standards” (Tapinta, 2006, p.1), but also is “becoming more demanding in the age of entire communication via email and other communicative technologies” (Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013, p.67).

Learning to write in English is a serious challenge for EFL learners, especially when it is pursued for academic purpose (Tapinta, 2006). In order to picture the difficulties these learners have when language learning, Cummins (2000) seems to provide us with a clear image. He believes that language learning for non-native speakers is cognitively demanding due to three main reasons. Firstly, these learners need to both send information and receive instruction and content in the language.

Secondly, academic language proficiency has its special jargons and registers that the learners should learn. Thirdly, while language learning needs context and exposure, EFL learners are “in a context-reduced communicative environment” (Tapinta, 2006). Hence, in order to be successful at cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), learners need to be strategic in their learning process.

In relation to this issue, the instruction of English writing during the past few decades have moved away from product to the process of writing. These instructional approaches appeared to enable learners to become “more strategic” (Tapinta, 2006, p.2) than did the traditional approaches. However, a review of the studies done in EFL context reveals that EFL learners have problem mastering writing skill. As Watcharapunyawong and Usaha (2013, p. 67) posit, “...of the four English skills, writing has been found to be the most difficult for EFL learners to master”. Considering the fact that writing strategies are found to be the main distinguishing factor between good and poor writers (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980), the main cause of these EFL learners’ problem was reportedly found to be in their inability to use writing strategies (e.g. Sasaki, 2000; Victori, 1999).

In case of Iranian EFL writers, they learn to write just through product approach with emphasis on grammar, vocabulary, and final product. Instructors are still following the traditional approaches. The students learn useful vocabulary, different patterns of sentences, and how to use certain transitive words to connect discourse to gather. In the forthcoming sessions, they are required to apply the instructed materials to the writing task assigned by the instructor. The knowledge of the different writing genres and rhetorical structures are introduced through certain essay examples. Iranian EFL writers are not instructed on the way they can develop their cognitive strategies to enhance

different writing processes like planning; neither are they instructed on the way they can generate or organize their ideas. Besides, students are not provided with enough time to develop multiple drafts or reflect on how they could revise their drafts. Generally, the writers make effort to come up with an error free piece of writing to be scored by the related instructor.

This traditional method of teaching writing, speaking from my own experience both as an EFL learner and EFL instructor, results in improvement in grammar and vocabulary than writing expertise. The Iranian EFL writers seem to lack the needed knowledge about writing strategies. Besides, very little information, if any, is available about the way Iranian EFL writers perform writing. Thus, this study is an attempt to shed light on the writing strategies that Iranian EFL writers employ while composing.

Problem Statement

The strategic behaviors involved in composing have been the central focus of attention from 1980 to date (Tapinta, 2006). In this regard, the recursive and nonlinear writing processes and strategies in relation to certain variables have been under study (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980; Mu, 2006; Hu & Chen, 2008; Lim et al., 2011; van den Bergh & Rijlaarsdam, 1999; Sasaki, 2000). However, despite coming up with important findings resultant from numerous studies on writing strategies, there are still certain gaps this study is going to fill in. They include lack of studies in Iran as an EFL setting, dearth of studies on the probable effects of discourse type on the adoption of writing strategies of EFL good and poor writers, and presence of explicit inconsistencies between findings of writing studies on writing ability and writing strategy.

In the first place, this study aims at filling certain gaps identified in writing literature vis-a-vis the lack of writing research in EFL setting. Compared to L1 and even L2, EFL writing is still in need of further investigation (see Alharthi, 2011; Cumming, 1998; Hu & Chen, 2008; Leki, 1995; Myhill & Jones, 2007; Ojima, 2006; Petric & Czarl, 2003; Wang, 2004; Wong, 2005), and studies on the writing strategies of Iranian EFL learners are quite scarce (for exception see Abdollahzade, 2010). Alharthi (2011, p.23) asserts that compared to the writing studies in L1 contexts, “much less work has investigated the writing process of EFL learners”. Petric and Czarl (2003, p.188) also observe this deficiency in the writing literature and use the term “latecomer” for writing strategy research in EFL context. This lack of studies was spotted not only on the whole process of writing, but also on the sub processes of writing like planning or reviewing. Cumming (1998) posits that research from 1990s has looked at specific aspect or sub processes of writing rather than the whole process; Ojima (2006, p. 567) notes that studies on planning as one of the writing sub processes is not that remarkable and hence, “very limited”; Myhill and Jones (2007, p. 328) argue that few studies have investigated “online revision during writing”. Although being valuable, these focused-based studies stimulate the fear of disregarding of the whole process which is in line with the concern put forth by Hu and Chen (2008, p.39) that although investigating specific aspects of composing processes lead to an understanding of these aspects, “there is a potential danger of losing sight of the big picture because of a narrow focus”. Additionally, these focused-based sub process oriented studies need to be “complemented” (Hu & Chen, 2008, p.39) by studies that look at the writing from beginning to the end of composing because, according to Baker and Boonkit (2004, p.301), “[T]he process approach is concerned with the whole writing procedure from the writer’s initial ideas to their finished product”. Therefore, if writing strategies are to be under investigation, they had better be studied from the very beginning to the very end of composing process. Hence,

given the fact that “the strategies are believed to underlie effective writing” (Harris, Santangelo, & Graham, 2008, p. 396), and it is the writing strategies, among other factors, that primarily separate successful from less successful writers (e.g., Beare, 2000; Flower & Hayes, 1980; Perl, 1979), an in-depth study of the writing process to obtain a comprehensive insight into the whole process as well as relevant sub processes of EFL writers is needed.

Bearing the aforementioned general shortage of studies in the EFL/ESL context in mind, a brief review of the literature also reveals that most of the studies on ESL/EFL writers have been carried out on Chinese or Japanese writers who were either mostly in Western educational setting or in the Chinese national context (Guangwei & Chen, 2006; Hu & Chen, 2008). Many scholars (e.g., Hedgcock, 2005; Hu & Chen, 2007; Silva, 1999), on the other hand, propose that writing in the EFL/ESL context is influenced by many factors including course goals and standards (Leki, 1992), culture and social contexts (Guangwei & Chen, 2006), education, language, and politics (Hooper, & Schwartz, 2010). Therefore, Hedgcock (2005) as well as Guangwei and Chen (2006) argue that different studies performed in different socioeducational contexts can uncover the complex patterns of writing strategies. Given the fact that, to the best of my knowledge, not a single in depth study has been reported on Iranian EFL learners’ writing strategies thus far, I intend to make a contribution in filling in this vacuum by studying EFL Iranian learners in Iran.

The second gap this study intends to bridge concerns the shortage of writing studies carried out on different writing discourse types with different levels of difficulty. It should be mentioned from the outset that the emphasis of previous research (e.g., Raimes, 1987; Zamel, 1983) has been just on writing strategies related to certain

variables (e.g., proficiency) employed by the writers, not on effect of different writing genres on writing strategies (for exception, see Hu & Chen, 2008). In other words, they differed from this study in their focus and purpose. In this study, discourse types are amongst the main variables while in the previous studies, different modes of writing discourse were used as a mediating factor to achieve the main objectives. Raimes (1987), for instance, who employed two modes of discourses of letter writing and expository, intended to study the relationship between writing ability, writing proficiency, and composing strategy. This shortage of studies on the probable influence of the discourse type on writers' strategic behavior is also the concern of Hu and Chen (2008), Kuiken and Vedder (2008), and more recently, Ong and Zhang (2010). Ong and Zhang (2010), in particular, observed the paucity of research on discourse complexity related to written language production and argued that, compared to the studies done on the oral language production, related writing studies are rare.

Perhaps the question that may come to mind at this point is that why difference in writing discourse is important in the writing studies. Many writing researchers believe that writers employ different strategies for performing different writing genres. Cohen (2003) and Oxford et al. (2004) argue that discourse type affects learners' reports of their strategy use. Cumming (1989) argues that different writing discourse types call for different strategies; Oxford et al. (2004) maintain that students may use different strategies when reading a physics textbook as compared to reading a novel; Grabe (2001) posits that different writing discourses necessitate different processing procedures. Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010), in particular, who were interested in the way their advanced Spanish EFL writers used their mother tongue in different writing genres for lexical searching, found that different levels of cognitive complexity would elicit different use of the mother tongue. The researchers also call for more studies with

the poor writers with different writing discourse as well, arguing that future studies should look at “when, how, and for what purposes lower proficiency writers use their mother tongue while searching for words in their L2 compositions”. The same concern had previously been expressed by Manchon et al. (2000). Manchon et al. (2000), who investigated backtracking strategy in two different writing genres, called for more studies on the effect of different writing discourse types on the way the writers use their first language for backtracking. Manchon et al. (2000, p. 32) state that “future research will have to ascertain which writing task demands are helped or hindered by (different types of) backtracking through the writer’s L1”. Manchon et al. (2000, p. 32) suggest that more research is needed on how these factors relate to “variables pertaining to the writer, the task, or the type and purpose of the backtracking itself”.

In conclusion, difference in the writing discourse seems to affect the way the writers compose. This effect of discourse mode on the strategic behavior of the writers, however, was the area suffering from lack of research. As El Mortaji (2001, p.68) argues, writing studies “have not investigated the effect of discourse types on the process of writing to discover if or how they may affect the writer’s approaches and strategy use”. Therefore, this study intends to contribute to fill in this vacuum in the literature because, according to Hu and Chen (2008), being aware of the different EFL writing strategies that writers use in different writing genres can benefit the writing instruction process.

The final problem this study set out to address was existence of certain explicit contradictory findings about writing ability and writing strategy. Different studies were found to come up with different findings. Interestingly enough, some studies were carried out in the same setting with the same focus and with almost the same writing

genre types. Wang (2003) and Wang and Wen (2002) are perhaps good cases in this point. The researchers similarly investigated the use of mother tongue strategy by the EFL Chinese writers across two different writing discourses of narrative and argumentative. Despite the fact that both studies investigated L1 use with Chinese writers in two different writing discourses of easy and difficult, their findings differed from each other. Wang (2003) reported that good writers in his study did not vary their L1 use across two genres of narrative and argumentative whereas Wang and Wen (2002) found less mother tongue use by the good writers in the difficult genre. Another instance of this opposing finding in the Chinese context can be found in Yang's (2002) findings and Hu and Chen's (2008) results. Yang (2002) found that the successful writers revised more often than their unsuccessful counterparts whereas in a recent study by Hu and Chen (2008), the difference was shown to be in the kinds of strategies employed than the frequency of writing strategies. One more strikingly different result can be found in the planning stage of the writing process. While successful writers spent more time planning before writing in both Yang (2002) and Sasaki's (2000) study, the less skilled writers resembled this behavior in both Raime's (1985) and Hu and Chen's (2008) study. Sasaki (2000) and Chien (2008) also differed in their findings. Sasaki (2000) found that the poor writers did less global planning whereas Chien (2008) claims that the good writers in his study plan less than their poor counterparts. Yang (2002) found that good and poor writers were different from each other in global planning, idea generating, and revising while Xiu and Xiao (2004) in their study on Chinese EFL strategies found the difference to be in idea organization and transcribing. Finally, Wang (2004) found that the Chinese EFL skilled writers employed writing strategies less than their poor counterparts while many researchers (e.g., Oxford, 1990) believe that good learners employ strategies more than poor ones.

These dissimilar and opposing results in EFL writing literature prevent one to have a clear image of the way EFL writers compose. Therefore, as both Petric and Czarl (2003) and Wang (2004) maintain, the inconclusive and sometimes contradictory findings call for more research into writing strategies in this setting to resolve contradictions and clarify uncertainties.

All in all, aiming at filling in the aforementioned vacuums in the literature and clarifying certain uncertainties, the present study is an attempt to further our understanding on the writing strategies that Iranian EFL undergraduate university students with different writing ability employ in different writing discourse types. The findings can benefit writing researchers and instructors, educational policy makers, and students as writers both in EFL settings in general, and in Iran in particular.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore and describe an in-depth study on the writing strategies that EFL Iranian tertiary students with different writing ability employ in different writing discourse types. In addition, the impact of the differences of the discourse type on strategic behavior of skilled and less skilled writers will be investigated.

Research Questions

In order to accomplish the aims of the study, the following questions will guide the research:

1. What writing strategies do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL learners employ throughout composing?

2. How do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers differ in their use of writing strategies?
3. Do the Iranian EFL undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary due to the discourse types?
4. Do discourse types have a similar effect on the strategic behavior of both skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers?

Significance of the Study

Writing as an important skill to be used in social-daily life, private-personal life, or as an academic-educational skill to be mastered is obviously evident in L1, L2 and EFL; it is an integral part of life for adults and children; it makes communication possible and strengthens the ties and relationships among members of households in small scale, communities and countries in macro-level; it promotes self-expression and personal growth (Graham, Harris, & Olinghouse, 2007). Because of the complex processes involved in writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987), many students, in particular, find writing demanding and difficult to master (McCutchen, 2011; Myles, 2002; Vanderberg & Swanson, 2007). As Watcharapunyawong and Usaha (2013) argue, out of four language skills, "writing has been found to be the most difficult for EFL learners to master". Writers must concurrently and recursively (Flower & Hayes, 1980) pay attention to the conventions and mechanics of writing, formal features of language, topic and purpose of writing, audience, idea generation for the coming parts and evaluation of the previously composed text (e.g., Harris et al., 2008; Singer, 2004).

Considering the aforementioned paragraph on the significance and intricate nature of writing, the current study is among the first in-depth studies attempting to explore and understand writing processes and strategies of Iranian EFL university

students with different writing competence while they engage in different writing genres. The findings can be fruitful especially in Iran due to the dominance of the traditional product approach in writing classes (Riazi, 1995). In other words, the results are about to hopefully contribute both to a better understanding of general EFL writing process with regard to strategic behavior and effect of different writing discourse types on the strategies used by writers with different writing ability. Besides, it may encourage other researchers in EFL settings, particularly in Iran, to conduct more studies on the writing process because, as Atkinson (2000, p. 74) believes, “[A]ny field that does not reproduce itself, academically speaking, is destined for extinction”. That is why, prompted by dominance of the product approach in Iran, this study may hopefully trigger the process writing approach research and consequently encourage process writing instruction. On the other hand, having depicted the writing behavior of skilled and less skilled EFL writers, one can not only identify the problems and probable solutions writers with different competence employ during the writing process, but also elucidate the effective strategies they have used. Consequently, the findings can be of use in writing instruction classes in terms of writing process in addition to writing strategies. Furthermore, since the study is among the first studies using task based strategy assessment (TBSA) in writing, the information obtained in terms of task type effect on writers’ strategic behavior can be similarly taken into account in writing classes because, as Lee and Schallert (2008, p. 506) posit, “finding effective ways of helping students develop their writing abilities is a primary concern” for any writing teacher.

Limitations of the Study

There are two limitations in the study. Firstly, the study is mainly qualitative in nature and hence, think aloud protocols are the main sources of data collection. In this

respect, due to the small number of participants (six), the findings are hard to generalize -- unless with students having the same profile -- as is the case with any qualitative study. Because of the amount of data to be analyzed from an in-depth examination of participants' elicited information, this is a necessary limitation. Due to the possibility of carrying out an in-depth study resultant from the small number of participants, however, this limitation can be viewed as the strength of the study. Secondly, participants' demographic information like age and gender are not taken into consideration in the study. Moreover, the six participants in this research project had similar socio-cultural and educational backgrounds in relation to learning English. The generalizability of findings about their writing behaviors from this study thus may not always be applicable to students in other EFL countries where socio-cultural and educational backgrounds are different.

Operational Definitions

1. Writing/composing is a cognitive process of knowledge production (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987).

2. Writing/composing strategies are operationally defined as methods the writers consciously and intentionally employ to generate ideas, plan, draft, organize, and revise in the whole process of writing (Arndt, 1990; Beare, 2000).

3. Writing/composing process is the rationale, goal-oriented activity of hierarchical processes in which the writer actively attempts to solve the given problem including three major stages planning, transcribing, and reviewing (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Tapinta, 2006).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The aim of the current study is to investigate the writing strategies that EFL Iranian tertiary students employ. These employed strategies are investigated in two distinct writing discourse types (narrative and argumentative) so that it becomes clear whether their strategies in each genre are different or not. Another interest of the present research is to shed light on whether discourse type inserts a similar effect on the writing strategies of both skilled and less skilled writers. In this respect, the review of literature in this chapter covers the discussions of major lines of theory, views, and findings from studies that are relevant to the inquiry of this study including (a) theoretical framework of the study, (b) learning strategies, (c) writing strategies, (d) three main components of writing, (e) composing research, (f) writing ability and finally, (g) writing discourse types.

Theoretical Framework

In this section of the study, a description of the adopted writing model, the criticism of the model, the reasons why I employed this model, and the way the writing model was used in the study are presented.

This study implements the cognitive writing model put forth by Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) as its general framework. This model was also employed by other EFL writing researchers to interpret their data. Alharthi (2011), Chien (2008), El Mortaji (2001), and Tapinta (2006), for instance, adopted this model as their theoretical

framework to study EFL Saudi Arabia, Chinese, Moroccan, and Thai students, respectively. Figure 2.1 shows the model.

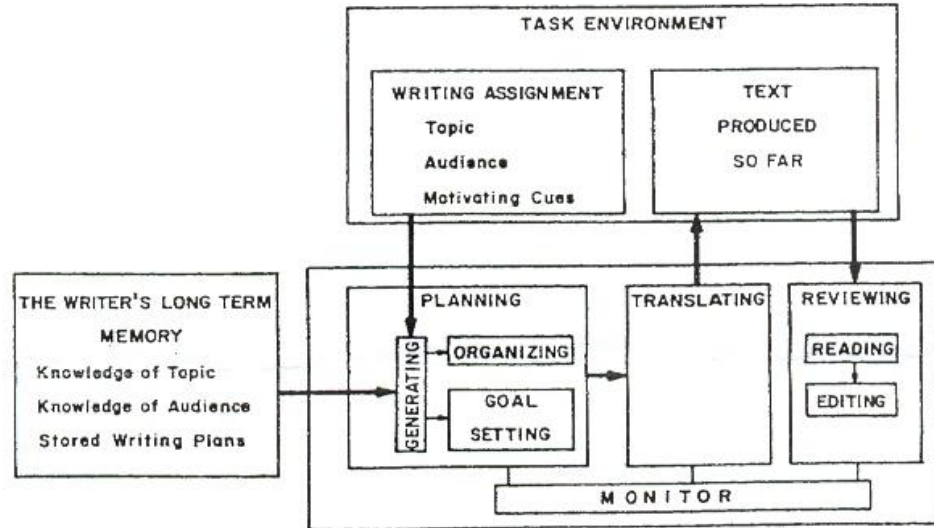


Figure 2.1 The Flower and Hayes' (1981) writing model

According to many researchers (e.g., Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Weigle, 2002), the Flower and Hayes' model is the most influential process writing model. Attempting to depict the mental operations involved in writing processes, they employed a cognitive approach and mainly think aloud technique to propose their model. In their (1981) model, as shown in Figure 2.1, in line with cognitive approach, they view composing as a thinking process to solve a problem guided by the writer's goals. There are three main components in the model that must interact: the task environment, the composer's long term memory, and the composing processor. Task environment includes "anything outside the writer's skin" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 369) such as the task and audience. The writer's long term memory includes the stored knowledge that the writer is able to draw from memory while undertaking composing process. This knowledge is not only about the topic and the audience, but also about the different writing plans, genre, and

rhetorical problems. The composing processor contains the actual composing and writing processes themselves. These are planning, translating, and reviewing which are constantly under the control of a monitor. There are three sub-components under planning: generating ideas, organizing information, and setting goals. According to Hayes and Flower (1983, p. 209), planning is “generating content, organizing it, and setting up goals and procedures for writing”. In the planning stage, the information is gathered from the task environment and long term memory. Moreover, this information is used in setting goals and establishing plans that further guide text production. In the second stage, translation, the ideas previously generated in the planning stage are translated into written words. Reviewing, the third element, is concerned with the evaluating or, if needed, revising of what has been composed or planned. Having the goal of writing in mind, the writer attempts to improve the quality of writing by detecting and correcting the language and content. This process not only generates new ideas but it also gives the writer a chance to evaluate the written text.

I have implemented the Flower and Hayes’ writing model in this study for several reasons. Before mentioning these reasons, the drawbacks and criticisms of the model are discussed first.

Criticisms of Flower and Hayes’ (1980) Model

The model, although being influential, received certain criticisms along several lines. Zimmerman (2000, p. 74) holds that the model lacks a thorough quantitative analysis and therefore, hypothetical. He claims that the model has “a deductive and hypothetical character, i.e. it has a comparatively small empirical basis”. Furthermore, he believes that the model was developed based on few data gathered from L1 skilled writers, which cannot be generalized. North (cited in Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 92),

with regard to the lack of elaboration of the model, holds that Flower and Hayes' model "is much too vague" and hence, cannot satisfy the criterion for formal model building. Kaplan and Grabe (2002, p.209) claim that the model lacks serious consideration of linguistics aspect; they believe that "the model did not offer any consideration of the impact of the writer's linguistic recourses on the composing process or on the text produced". Kern (2000) holds that the model does not recognize cross-cultural differences and issues related to sociocultural variation in the functions of the written language. This latter concern has been often put forth by the proponent of post-process approach (Matsuda b, 2003) and English for Academic Purposes (Victori, 1995). They hold that the process models do not take into account the task, context, and audience for whom the text is written. Additionally, with native speakers, "writing ability is more closely linked to fluency in and familiarity with the conventions of expository discourse" (Kogen, 1986, p. 25). L2 writers, however, as Myles (2002) notes, are in the process of acquiring these conventions and so they often need more instruction about the language itself.

Mere reliance on think aloud protocol data is another criticism on the Flower and Hayes' model (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), as a case in point, claim that Flower and Hayes have come up with their model based only on inferred invariance in protocol analysis. They (p.43) moreover argue that although this type of data describes an important layer of data, "much of what is most mysterious about composing" has remained untouched. The layer this model tries to describe is conscious thought processes. To be more exact, data from think aloud protocols reveal only the product of cognitive activities but say nothing of cognitive process itself.

Assuming a single writing process for all writers (Wang, 2004) is the last critique of Flower and Hayes's writing model. Despite making attempt to study expertise, Zhou (1994) posits, their model describes common features of all writers.

Rationale for Using Flower and Hayes' Model

Despite the aforementioned critics, the model put forth by Flower and Hayes, as stated by many researchers (e.g., Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Tapinta, 2006), is one of the most influential models in L1 and L2 writing research. Although being about thirty years of age, the model is not only still in use, but also worthy of consideration (Alharthi, 2011; Gennaro, 2006; Hayes, 2012). Regarding the importance and value of the model, Hayes (2012, p. 270) mentions that, in spite of the fact that the model is relatively old, it “contains features that are still current in modern representations of writing. The distinction between the writer, the writer's task environment, and the writer's long-term memory; the attempt to identify separate interacting writing sub processes; and the importance of the text produced so far all are still regarded as useful ideas”. Alharthi (2011, p.48) maintains that the model provides the field of writing with quite valuable insights including (a) “the way writing processes interact”, (b) providing teachers with “important deep-structure theory of how writing should be taught”, (c) being compatible with general conception about writing that “language writing comes after ideas are formed” and finally, (d) the model is “detailed and explicit during application”. Finally, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) believe that the Flower and Hayes' writing model should be credited with important findings resulting from their research program. Besides, Flower and Hayes model can be considered a starting point and impetus for process writing research because other cognitive writing models are either an expansion of this model (e.g., Hayes, 1996) or in opposition with this model (e.g., Bereiter & Scardamalia 1987).

Considering the current study, apart from the aforementioned points about the general usefulness of the Flower and Hayes' writing model, there are also two more reasons why I used their model. These reasons are singleness of the model and compatibility of the model with both adopted coding scheme and main variables of the study.

Firstly, opposed to the two models of Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) writing model, singleness of Flower and Hayes' model was found to be a positive point for implementing the model. First of all, considering the aim of this study i.e., investigating the writing strategies of the Iranian EFL good and poor writers while they are performing narrative and argumentative task types, implementing single model of Flower and Hayes does not mean that they did not consider the differences between good and poor writers. Quite contrary, as also noted by Gennaro (2006), it was Flower and Hayes who focused on the differences between skilled and less skilled composing processes; Bereiter and Scardamalia, on the other side, concentrated on the difficulty level of the writing task. According to Gennaro (2006, P.5), "where Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) offered insight into potential distinctions between skilled and unskilled writers, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) provided a useful mechanism for potentially discriminating easy from difficult tasks." Second of all, unlike Flower and Hayes who argue that good and poor writers are almost the same in the writing processes but different in the effectiveness, Bereiter and Scardamalia argue that these two groups of writers perform completely different writing processes and hence, proposed a dual writing model of knowledge telling and knowledge transforming. The former is believed to be performed by the novice writers where they only transfer their ideas into the written language whereas in the latter, which is the characteristic of good writers, the writers involve in a more complex process of constant planning and evaluating of

ideas. Implementing Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) model of writing, on the other hand, meant that I have already known the way the good and poor writers of the study carried out their writings. Put another way, because Bereiter and Scardamalia have proposed two models of writing, I had to use, for instance, knowledge telling model for poor writers and knowledge transforming model for good writers. This, in return, was perhaps a danger in the sense that it might limit the findings and/or prevent me from seeing other possibilities. Moving from the other direction in an inductive manner was not a good choice, either. The reason is that this study adopted a purely qualitative approach towards data analysis and testing a specific model was, by no means, amongst the purposes of this research. Moreover, there was no guarantee that the writers would compose based on one model or the other. Finally, it is worth noting at this point that Bereiter and Scardamalia's model has been criticized as it did not take into account the reviewing process that almost all less-skilled writers would undertake (Alharthi, 2011). Besides, Alharthi (2011, p.53) believes that Bereiter and Scardamalia's model "suggests that less-skilled students are sophisticated enough to identify genre, which requires a sophisticated writing ability".

Adopting Flower and Hayes' model, instead, seemed to be more effective and logical. Given the fact that they put forth only one model, I would be able to compare and contrast six writers of the study across two different writing discourse types based on a common criterion. Furthermore, since Flower and Hayes came up with this model as a result of studying both good and poor writers (Galbraith, 2009), the probability of the compatibility of this model with both groups of good and poor increases.

Another reason for implementing the Flower and Hayes' (1981) model relates to the commonality between the adopted coding scheme and the Flower and Hayes'

model. Compared to other writing models put forth by different researchers like Chenoweth and Hayes (2003), Hayes (2012), Kellogg (2008), and Zimmerman (2000), the compatibility between the adopted coding scheme of the study with the Flower and Hayes' model was more than that of other models. There were certain shared items between the adopted coding scheme and the writing model put forth by Flower and Hayes. The coding scheme I used to analyze the data is the modified version of Perl's (1979) categories. This scheme is believed to be one of the most powerful and complete schemes in the writing literature (Abdel Latif, 2009; Wang, 2004). There are certain shared items between Flower and Hayes' writing model and Perl's coding scheme, as also noted by both El Mortaji (2001) and Alharthi (2011). In the Flower and Hayes' planning process boxes, for instance, are where some of Perl's categories fit, mainly planning, rehearsing, repeating, and (re)reading. Another instance of this aptness between the coding scheme and the writing model can be found in the reviewing box. It includes reading, editing, and revising. In Perl's coding scheme, too, there are revising and editing. Note that as I already mentioned about the way I used the writing model in the study, adopting this coding scheme does not mean that I selected a deductive approach toward data coding and analysis. As was the case for the model, implementing a deductive approach might result in limiting my choice to the elements presented in the scheme. That is, I did not intend to impose the scheme to the data. I did not select a totally inductive approach towards data analysis, either. Considering the delicate and demanding nature of coding the think aloud protocols (Wang, 2004), I preferred to employ a moderate approach in which I firstly employed Perl's scheme and, at the same time, I tried to consider the possibilities of emerging different categories from data.

Like commonality between modified coding scheme and implemented writing model, another harmony can be found between the implemented writing model and one

of the main variables of the study i.e., discourse type. The participants were required to carry out two different modes of discourse namely, narrative and argumentative. In the Flower and Hayes' model of writing, too, there are two separate boxes attributable to the different task types. In the long term memory box, there is a concept Flower and Hayes describe as knowledge of topic through which the writers search their memories to activate the relevant information regarding the particular kind of topic and its rhetorical patterns. In this study, too, the students were asked to perform two different topics of narration and argumentation. There is also another "topic" in the model. This one, however, has been placed in the box of writing assignment which is also situated in the main box of task environment. The writers are believed to have an interaction with the task environment i.e., different modes of discourse to search for the suitable relevant information in their long term memories related to the particular task type.

I should hasten to say that considering Flower and Hayes' writing model as a general framework does not mean that I would not consider other theories. On the contrary, because writing is believed to be a complex, recursive, and goal oriented process through which certain meanings are discovered in almost all the cognitive process models of writing, I had an eye on other models of process writing such as El Mortaji (2001) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), as did Tsai (2004) in her study.

Operationalizing Theoretical Framework

Given the fact that Flower and Hayes' writing model came to existence as studying L1 writers and not EFL ones, care was taken to duly operationalize the theory in the current study. This operationalization was undertaken through several steps. Firstly, I analyzed each individual writer in either discourse type. Considering the writing model developed by Flower and Hayes (1981) as a general framework, I

analyzed the way each writer carried out each discourse type. There are three main boxes in the model including task environment, long term memory, and composing processor. Composing processor, in particular, is divided into three main components of planning, translating, and reviewing. Using Perl's scheme, the strategies the writers employed to interact with task environment, to retrieve information from their long term memories and to plan, draft, and review were then elicited. For instance, it was found that in their planning, they employed direction reading, goal setting and idea generating. Also, the strategies they employed for retrieving the information from their long term memories were elicited, as well. They were found to use certain strategies such as self-questioning or L1 use at this stage. The writers were also studied regarding the interaction they had with the text produced so far which has been placed in the box of task environment. They established this interaction through rereading the already written materials or repeating the last words produced so far. Then, depending on the aim of the research questions, I compared and contrasted these adopted strategies in the same task by different groups, in different task by the same group, in different task by different groups, and the same task by the same group. For instance, the first research question concerns the writing strategies that the six writers employ while composing. In order to do so, I analyzed their writing processes and strategies in accordance with the models in three distinct writing processes of planning, translating, and reviewing. Also, considering two other boxes of task environment and long term memory, the writers were separately studied in terms of the interaction they had with the task environment and the way they retrieved the information from their long term memories. Therefore, as explained, employing Perl's coding scheme, on one hand, and adopting Flower and Hayes' (1981) writing model on the other, enabled me to undertake an in-depth analysis of the strategies each writer employed while writing.

Writing Strategies, Processes, and Sub Processes

According to the writing practitioners who also adapted the cognitive view of writing (e.g., Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1980), writing is “a series of operations leading to the solution of a problem” (Graves, 1981, p. 4) within which the writer “manipulates a series of interrelated cognitive processes” (Whalen, cited in Victory, 1995). In writing studies, in spite of this agreement, there is neither agreement on the terminologies each researcher has applied nor on the number of these processes or strategies (Victori, 1995). Perl (1979), for instance, has used the term behavioral sequence of pre-writing, writing, and editing. Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) view writing as having three main processes of planning, translating, and reviewing which are under control of a monitor. Humes (1983) borrows a similar classification and adds two more processes of reviewing and revising as a replacement for just one which is reviewing. Raimes (1985) speaks of seven writing strategies including pre-writing, planning, reading, rehearsing, writing, revising, and editing. Arndt (1987) categorized the strategies in her study as planning, rehearsing, repeating, re-reading, questioning, revising, and editing. Mu (2006), in his recent taxonomy of writing strategies, divided the strategies into five writing strategies and 21 sub-strategies. They include rhetorical strategies (organization, use of L1, formatting/modeling, and comparing), meta-cognitive strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluating) cognitive strategies (generating ideas, revising, elaborating, clarification, retrieval, rehearsing, and summarizing), communicative strategies (avoidance, reduction, and sense of readers), and social/affective strategies (resourcing, getting feedback, assigning goals, and rest/deferral).

Other writing researchers have used writing strategies and behaviors than the term process. Pianko (1979) speaks of the behaviors like pre-writing, planning,

composing, rereading, stopping, contemplating the finished product and handing in the product. Cumming (1989) considers certain problem solving strategies as well as other writing behaviors. While the strategies include engaging a search routine, code switching, generating and assessing alternatives, and relating parts to a whole, writing behaviors were problem identification and knowledge telling statements. Wenden (1991) differentiated between cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies were mental operations or procedures employed to control learning and further categorized as planning, evaluating, and monitoring whereas cognitive strategies were more specific strategies and narrow in scope such as clarification, retrieval, resourcing, deferral, avoidance, and verification. Following Wenden's (1991) taxonomy, Riazi (1997) also made distinction between cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies. Moreover, research strategies were the fourth type of strategy he himself discerned.

Implications for Current Study

As already discussed, different studies have used different terms to refer to the same concept. Revising is a good case in this point. Researchers have used reviewing (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980), self-evaluating (Beach, 1976), editing (Perl, 1979), or evaluating (Hu & Chen, 2008). However, in spite of lack of consensus on the number and terminologies of writing processes and strategies (Griffiths, 2004; Victori, 1995), three main components of writing, namely planning, writing, and reviewing, as noted by Victori (1995, pp. 38-39), are “acknowledged by a large majority of writing practitioners and hence, implemented in the current research. A discussion of these components comes in the following section.

Three Main Components of Writing

According to Graves (1981), writing is “a series of operations leading to the solution of a problem. The process begins when a writer consciously or unconsciously starts a topic and is finished when the written piece is published” (p. 4). In this problem-solving composing process, there are generally three broad categories: planning, formulating, and revising. What follows is a detailed explanation and different definitions of the three terms.

Planning

According to Wolfersberger (2007), planning is “the process that generates the content and organization for a text before the writer generates the specific language that manifests that content and organization” (p. 13). It is the first writing process that occurs when producing a text and is interrelated to the other writing processes throughout the course of text composition (Hayes & Nash, 1996). Planning has been considered as one of the major stages for generating an actual text (Shin, 2008) besides being an “essential ingredient” (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005, p. 209) in composing. Referring to cognitive writing models, Hayes and Nash (1996) defined planning as “preparatory reflection”. This reflection includes both the means to achieve the goal and the goal to be achieved; hence, investigating the planning stage and what it entails in combination with the other composing processes are of vital importance.

Planning in written language production has been subdivided and named differently by previous authors. Burtis, Bereiter, Scardamalia, and Tetroe (1983), Flower and Hayes (1981), Carey, Flower, Hayes, Schriver, and Haas (1989) distinguished between conceptual planning and content planning, although they used different terms. Burtis et al. and Carey et al. used the term conceptual planning

including planning for the reader, purpose, goals, strategies, and organization. On the other hand, content planning for Flower and Hayes is a simplified form of information to be generated. In L2 production; as Hayes (1996) argues, it is hypothesized that planning can help learners allocate attentional resources between what they are going to say (content planning) and how they are going to say it (conceptual planning).

According to several other researchers (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1991), rather than being a process, planning is categorized as one of the metacognitive strategies. Wenden (1991) distinguishes between pre-planning and planning-in-action strategies. In the former, the objectives are set before carrying out the task while the latter is performed while carrying out the task. Hayes and Nash (1996) argued that it is not important whether the planning is pre task or within a task; the important point is that it is advantageous for students because it, among the other factors, facilitates writing by providing flexibility in the choice of problem-solving strategies.

Kellogg (1994) also believes in the advantageous role of planning for writing and divides planning into idea clustering, idea listing, and idea outlining. These three planning strategies provide topical, linear, and hierarchical organization, respectively. In other words, they represent a planning continuum ranging from retrieving relevant information from memory to one fully related with the arrangement or organization.

Flower (1993) divides the planning strategies as strong and weak strategies. Strong planning strategies help the writers to simplify juggling of constraints by decreasing the burden a writer must deal with at any one time. In other words, they aid writers to exclusively focus on idea generation, like brainstorming. Weak strategies, on

the other hand, include trying for the perfect first draft and trial and waiting for inspiration; that is to say, they result in surface content generation.

Writing

According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the meaning in memory can be represented in many different forms including key words, fully developed thoughts, or symbol system other than language. In other words, they believe that ideas and thoughts generated during planning are encoded in a form. This form is not necessarily represented in language but in imagery or sensations into written language and, as Victori (1995) posits, it is rarely expressed in the elaborate syntax of written discourse; therefore, the writer's job is to convert this knowledge into a "linear piece of written" which is language (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 373). Because of this, Flower and Hayes use the term translating, rather than drafting and transcribing to describe actual composing.

Tapinta (2006, p. 32) defines translating as "the act of composing the writer's thoughts into written speech". Generally, writers use the ideas and information they have planned to convey their intending meaning (Hayes & Flower, 1980). This notion of translating is operationalized in this study; that is, by the time the participants embark on actual composing, they have initiated this stage.

Like planning, the researchers do not seem to be in harmony on the proper name for the process mentioned above. Terms like translating, drafting, transcribing, and composing have been used to refer to the process. The other problem attributed with transcribing, as Victori (1995) holds, is that some researchers do not consider it as a process due to the inherent difficulty distinguishing it from planning. In other words, it

is not clear when planning finished and when transcribing started. What the researchers agree on, however, is the complexity of this stage (Rashid, 1996; Victori, 1995) in addition to its importance. With regard to the importance of the translating process, suffice it to say that without actual composing, there is no written text at all. As Roca de Larios, Murphy, and Manchon (1999, p. 14) posit, “formulation is the only non-optional component of writing. The quality of the written product may be affected if there is no planning or revising but if the writer fails to formulate, there will be no written product at all”. With regard to the complexity of the translating process, Rashid (1996, p.10) believes that translating is an intricate activity arguing that “[T]ranslating is a complex process where writers put their ideas into written language while dealing with discourse, coherence, and structure problems”. Likewise, Wolfersberger (2007, p. 15) points out that translating is “the most difficult and problematic process to investigate” and therefore researchers have chosen to “investigate the other writing processes before moving to formulation”. Consequently, the writer continues, there are a few studies on this stage of writing and “research on the formulation process is comparatively recent”.

As she did with planning, Flower (1993) distinguishes between two kinds of translating: weak and strong. WIRMI (What I Really Mean Is...) is a strong translating strategy that the writers call into action once they become lost in the struggle to convey an idea. They imagine that they are talking to a peer hoping for coming up with the idea itself. Satisfying is another strong translating strategy. When the composers are not quite satisfied with what they have written in their first drafts and are unable to offer a better sentence, they allow themselves to be satisfied with what has been composed. They deal with the arrangement and organizing of the contents.

To sum up briefly, translating is a demanding and difficult skill because it entails simultaneous retrieving and coordinating different types of knowledge and considerations including handwriting, spelling, punctuation, diction, syntax, grammatical rules, cohesion, coherence, organization, purpose, clarity, tone, audience, and layout. Along with these difficulties and constraints in translating, this stage frequently gets interrupted and interwoven by other strategies such as pausing, rehearsing, rereading, and reviewing (Victori, 1995). It goes without saying that managing and coordinating the aforementioned operations is difficult. Writers must consider both the writing rules and attend to factors like “organization, form and features, purposes and goals, and audience perspectives and needs” (Harris, et al., 2008, p. 396). This difficulty is surely bigger for EFL writers. According to several researchers (e.g., Tapinta, 2006; Victori, 1995), these writers should consider not only the graphic considerations, but also the acceptability of what they have written. Therefore, investigating this stage of composing together with other stages leading to a finished written text can uncover and depict the strategies that EFL writers employ while composing.

Reviewing

Some writing researchers such as Flower and Hayes use the term reviewing for what cognitive theorists would refer to as evaluating strategies (Victori, 1995). According to Hayes and Flower (1980) and Flower and Hayes (1980), reviewing consists of revising -- reading the composed text, making changes, and editing -- and evaluating. The importance of revision in writing is “universally recognized” (Sengupta, 2000, p. 97) and because it is “cognitively complex task” (Alamargot & Chanquoy, 2001, p. 108), students are in need of learning to revise more effectively (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Leki, 1992).

Revising is generally defined as “any change in text after it has been written down” (Wolfersberger, 2007, p. 18). Many writing researchers found that revision is an important part of writing (e.g., Beach, 1976; Sommers, 1980); furthermore, like emergent planning (Cumming, 1989), in line with the recursive nature of writing, it is employed throughout the composing process (Faigley & Witte, 1981). Revising is undertaken to change ideas or coherence of information to improve text comprehensibility (Tapinta, 2006). Allal, Chanquoy, and Largy (2004, p. 2) distinguished between pretext, online, and deferred revision. As the names suggests, they occur before composing, while composing, and after composing, respectively. This is in harmony with Alamargot and Chanquoy’s (2001, p. 98) idea that revision is “an activity of text reading or thought evaluation”.

According to Flower and Hayes (1980, p. 374), reviewing can be both conscious process “in which writers choose to read what they have written” and spontaneous which is stimulated “either by the text or one’s own planning”. This process of making changes also involves evaluating the plan and the composed text and can lead to recursive planning and translating processes. The main objective of reviewing, in short, is to “evaluate the outcome produced” (Victori, 1995, p. 50). Evaluating, as Victori (1995) noted, is performed for the purpose of either the produced text or the plans that have been thought of. Through this process, the writer decides to make a change. If the decision leads to the change at a more global level, it suggests revising; on the other hand, if it results in change at a more surface level, editing has been undertaken (Victori, 1995). Editing is performed to meet “standard language conventions, accuracy of meaning, reader understanding, or reader acceptance” (Hayes & Flower, 1980, p. 18) whereas revising is directed at “restructuring and shaping the discourse” (Humes, 1983, p. 211). Editing involves “correcting errors of grammar, syntax, spelling or

punctuation” (Victori, 1995, p. 52). Allal et al. (2004, p. 3) also differentiate editing from rewriting, holding that “editing incurs no meaning changes or rewriting, whereas rewriting involves alterations to the meaning”.

Myhill and Jones (2007) state that problem finding is the main theme expressed by many writing models like the one proposed by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987). Nonetheless, Hayes (2004) is against this conception noting that “in many cases, we revise not because we discover a fault but we discover something better to say or find a better way to say what we have said” (p. 11). Chanquoy (2001) also speaks against the purely detecting error of revising. According to her, revision is a process that involves “text reviewing, aiming at evaluating and improving the text quality” (p. 216) as well as “evaluating and clarifying the writer’s thoughts”; what is more, it demands the writer to evaluate “the text’s communicative quality” predicting the answer of the intended audience (Chanquoy, 2001, p. 16). Her model of revising takes the implied reader, text, and thought into consideration which, as Myhill and Jones (2007) argue, is similar to Hayes and Flower’s (1980) framing of the memory component of writing as drawing on three complementary sets of schemas: content schemas, formal schemas, and audience schemas.

Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) brought to light another feature of reviewing and evaluating. They argue that this stage can be undertaken for both written and unwritten thoughts and statements. Likewise, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) hold that they are the same process; that is, both text-planning and pre-text-planning are undertaken in the time of a problem or a mismatch. This mismatch is between what was intended and what actually appeared.

Despite the presence of different definitions and conceptualizations about reviewing in the literature, few studies have investigated students' understanding of the revisions they make, particularly online revision during writing. To an extent, the dominant research lens has been "external and text focused, concentrating on revision as the detection and correction of errors" (Myhill & Jones, 2007, p. 328). Thus, this study is an effort to further our understanding of online revision EFL writers apply in their composing.

Implication for Current Study

Different conceptualizations and definitions of planning, translating, and reviewing were reviewed and discussed in this part. Moreover, certain related studies conducted on each part were also illustrated. Due to the essential roles they play in composing, as reviewed above, planning, translating, and reviewing have been under study. However, certain gaps are witnessed in terms of writing strategies and processes. The first one is the lack of studies on the whole process of composing. In the 1990s, rather than investigating the whole process, research on writing has centered its focus on these individual components. As Cumming (1989) argues, "studies of students' composing processes have described with increased precision specific aspects of writing behaviors" in L2 writing. The second gap witnessed in the literature was the dearth of research on writing in Iran. To date and to best of my knowledge, no in depth study on the way Iranian EFL writers employ writing strategies has been reported. Hence, this study is an attempt to shed light in this issue and bridge the gap in the writing field.

Composing Research

It was in the late 90s that writing researchers adopted a cognitive view of writing and found that writing is of a non-linear, goal directed, and problem solving nature

(Flower, 1993). Writing strategies, ever since, have been at the core of attention within this cognitively based process-oriented trend (Tapinta, 2006). As Manchon (2001, p. 49) posits, “[A] major focus of research within this process-oriented research has been the study of the strategies L2 writers use”. In order to investigate these processes and strategies involved in L2 composing, many researchers adopted L1 composing models by employing in-depth case studies with individual writers whose writing behaviors were mainly studied by think aloud protocols, observations, and interviews.

Most of the early studies tried to describe all aspects of L2 composing from the very beginning up to the time the writer finishes composing (e.g., Arndt, 1987). Later researchers, however, investigated specific writing behaviors and hence studied features “unique” to composing in L2 (Angelova, 1999, p. 40). This is, in part of course, in line with Manchon’s (2001) categorization of studies on writing strategies as broad and narrow. In a broad conceptualization of writing strategies, strategies are performing writing; that is, “any action applied to the act of writing” (p. 50). The results of these studies are “holistic descriptions of L2 writers’ composing behavior” (p. 51) either globally (e.g., Arndt, 1987) or with reference to just one macro-writing process such as revision (e.g., Porte, 1995). In contrast, the narrow conceptualization of writing strategies applies to the studies where writing strategies are distinguished from other writing behaviors such as planning which is a macro-writing process (e.g., Cumming, 1989). In other words, strategies are “specific actions the writer engages in while composing” (Manchon, 2001, p. 50).

Manchon continues that these two conceptualizations inform studies that vary in terms of the generality or particularity of their research objectives and whether or not the research includes different independent variables whose effects on the frequency

and quality of strategies is investigated. From the former perspective, Manchon argues, the studies are either an attempt to present “a global picture of L2 writers’ strategic repertoires” (p. 50), like Victori (1995), or they focus on specific strategies, like language switching (e.g., Woodall, 2002) and backtracking (Manchon et al., 2000). Concerning the effects of variables, researchers like Raimes (1987) studied both the quantitative and qualitative nature of L2 strategies while others like Hu and Chen (2008) studied the effect of certain variables (e.g., task type) on strategic behavior of L2 writers; hence, the present study can be considered unique because it addresses both perspectives mentioned above. This research aims at not only providing a list of strategies Iranian EFL graduate students employ but also the effect of writing discourse type on their strategic behaviors in composing.

Studies on Composing Strategies

Several researchers have investigated the composing processes and strategies of L2 student writers. As a consequence of these attempts, each researcher came up with a somehow unique taxonomy of writing strategies that participants have used in composing. Since providing answer to the question of “what strategies Iranian L2 student writers employ?” is one of the aims of the present study, this part reviews the major studies conducted with similar purpose.

Arndt (1987) studied the composing behaviors of six Chinese postgraduate EFL students. This study is not only one of the earliest studies on EFL writing strategies (Mu, 2006), but it also is the only one investigating “the whole picture” (Wang, 2004, p. 56) of the writing processes of Chinese EFL learners. The participants were required to produce academic written texts in both Chinese and English (completed within 1 h each). Arndt based her research design and analysis scheme on those of Perl (1979).

According to the results, the strategies students employed “remained consistent across languages” (Arndt, 1987, p. 257). The finding indicated that although the writing processes and strategies of each individual writer were similar in L1 and L2, the writers as a group demonstrated very different writing processes which were not related to their language proficiency. In Arndt’s terms, Bao was a planner, Chun was a thinker, Dai was a struggler, Lin was a reviser, Zhou was a lister, and Liano was an outliner.

Arndt’s (1987) study is important in that she not only investigated EFL learners, but she also used Perl’s (1979) coding scheme to code the data. However, the differences between her study and current study should be taken into account, as well. The participants in the former were Chinese postgraduate while this study focused on the Iranian undergraduate learners. Also, the main focus of Arndt’s study was on the differences between writing in L1 and L2 and language proficiency while the focus of the current study is on three main variables of writing strategies, writing ability and different written discourse. Therefore, the results of the two studies can be limitedly compared.

Victori (1995) investigated writing strategies of four EFL Spanish student writers with the same level of language proficiency but different writing ability and reported the same finding about relationship between language proficiency and writing ability. She employed interviews and think-aloud protocol analysis and found that language proficiency by itself does not determine whether a student will have a good or poor writing skill. Furthermore, good writers seem to be more interactive, put more effort into their writing, and in brief, “engage in a large range of problem-solving or decision making strategies” (p. 194).

Victori's (1995) study is of importance because of the fact that like the present study, it employed think aloud protocols and interviews as the instruments for collecting data. Also, the finding that language proficiency is not the main factor distinguishing good writers from poor writers is relevant to this study in participant selection procedures. However, the findings cannot be compared with those of this study due to not focusing on the effect of differences in the mode of discourse on the strategic behavior of good and poor writers. Besides, the participants were not the same either. Victori investigated writing strategies of Spanish writers while the participants of the current research are Iranian writers.

Sasaki (2000) was the researcher who unlike other researchers who used interviews or think aloud to collect their data, employed video and stimulated recalls. The researcher investigated the writing processes and strategies Japanese English learners employ using a Japanese L1 research scheme and found that (a) while the novices spent a shorter time and made a less global plan, the experts spent a longer time planning a detailed global organization before writing; (b) the experts, compared to the novices, stopped less in order to think, (c) English proficiency appeared to explain part of the difference in strategy use between the experts and novices; and (d) after 6 months of instruction, novices begun to employ some of the writers' strategies used by the experts. The researcher gathered the data through the participants' written texts, analytic scoring, videotaped pausing behaviors, and stimulated recall protocols. Unlike previous studies, three groups of expert writer, more-skilled student writer, and less-skilled student writer group participants were compared and contrasted. The participants were required to compose an argumentative essay because, according to the researcher, it is more demanding and complex than other types of writing. Then Sasaki compared these three paired groups (experts vs. novices, more- vs. less skilled student writers, novices

before and after 6 months of instruction) and identified many writing strategies including planning, retrieving, generating ideas, verbalizing, translating, rereading, and evaluating strategies; each of these strategies has its own components.

Sasaki's (2000) study is important in that unlike previous studies which examined only two groups of good and poor, it took into account three groups of expert, more skilled and less skilled writers into account. However, instead of using interviews and think aloud protocols which are believed to be quite appropriate, the researcher used participants' written texts, analytic scoring, videotaped pausing behaviors, and stimulated recall protocols.

Intending to shed more light on the writing strategies EFL good and poor writers employ, El Mortaji (2001) used background questionnaire, think aloud protocols, and interview to study the writing strategies of multilingual University level Moroccan learners in both Arabic (L1) and English (FL). She used two different discourse modes of expository and narrative in her study. The researcher found that writing is a complex recursive process of discovery of meaning. Another finding was the fact that good writers employed strategies more frequently and more effectively than their poor counterparts.

Her findings are among the impetuses for forming the first and second research questions of the current study; the first research question of the current research deals with the types of the adopted strategies by good and poor writers and the second research question intends to address the similarities and differences between good and poor writers. However, El Mortaji did not say anything about the probable effect of discourse type on the writing strategies of the good and poor writers. Besides, the only

criterion she used to judge the writing ability of the participants was holistic scoring of an argumentative essay produced by the participants. Had she used triangulation for participant selection, the findings of her study would be more vigorous. Last but not least, the participants in El Mortaji's (2001) study were Moroccan while this study focuses on Iranian EFL students; therefore, the findings of two studies should be cautiously compared and contrasted with each other.

Intending to shed more light on the writing strategies that EFL learners employ, Alharthi (2011) extended El Mortaji's (2001) study and investigated writing strategies of Saudi EFL writers. To do so, unlike El Mortaji (2001) who studied only the writing processes of Moroccan writers, Alharthi (2011) studied both the process and the product of Saudi writers. He collected the data through think aloud protocols and writing strategy questionnaire and analyzed them through Perl's (1979) coding scheme and Flower and Hayes' (1980) writing model. He found that good and poor writers are different in both kinds and types of employed strategies. For instance, it was only the good writers who performed planning. In addition, Alharthi (2011, p.231) found that poor writers stumbled over linguistic aspects and "did not know how to solve writing problems and lacked the use of strategies".

Alharthi's (2011) study and the present study shared certain similarities. These similarities were found to be in the theoretical framework and methodology. Theoretically, as done in this study, Alharthi followed the process mode of writing and implemented Flower and Hayes' (1980) writing model as the general framework. Alharthi believes that the model, despite being old, is useful in investigating writing strategies due to being detailed in operation. Procedurally, Alharthi not only employed think aloud protocols to collect the data, but he also adopted a modified version of

Perl's (1979) coding scheme to analyze think aloud protocols, as done in the current study. He asked the participants to verbalize their thinking processes and employed Perl's scheme to code the data. However, instead of using the common terminologies in the writing field, the writer borrowed terminology from both strategy practitioners and writing process paradigm. Besides, the study did not address the question of the probable effects of writing discourse types on the way good and poor writers perform writing.

While El Mortaji (2001) and Alharthi (2011) studied Arab EFL learners, Lim et al. (2011) employed think aloud, written products, and interview to conduct their writing research on four ESL Malay engineering students. Their findings were in keeping with other studies such as Hu and Chen (2008) in that two groups of good and poor writers employed common strategies but the effectiveness of the adopted strategies was the differentiating factor between two groups. In addition, Lim et al. (2011) found that writing strategies were employed in combination and in a recursive manner to discover meaning.

However, as was the case with previous studies, the issue of different writing discourse types and the choice of strategies adopted by good and poor writers while performing those tasks remained untouched. Moreover, Lim et al.'s findings cannot be generalized to the context of Iran because the study and teaching of foreign languages receives greater attention in Malaysia in comparison to how it is seen in Iran.

Abdollahzadeh (2010) was found to carry out the only study on the Iranian EFL writing strategies. Intending to investigate undergraduate Iranian EFL learners' writing strategies with reference to their gender and year of study, the researcher employed a

writing strategy questionnaire and semi-structured interview to collect the data. 230 participants filled up the questionnaire and the strategies were divided into the memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies. The study did not find significant differences in writing strategy use for either gender or year of study. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies were found to be the most frequently used strategies by all writers, and both the low- and high-level male and female learner-writers used writing strategies with approximately the same frequency.

Abdollahzadeh's study is important due to the fact that he was probably among the first researchers who investigated Iranian EFL learners' writing strategies. Also, the participants of his study and the study of mine are both Iranian undergraduate writers. However, Abdollahzadeh's study and the current study were different in that the former's focus was to find out the frequency of adopted strategy and hence, collected the data mainly through a questionnaire while the current research is interested in an in depth analysis of the writing strategies that the writers employ while involving in actual writing.

Implication for Current Study

This part reviewed certain related studies on EFL writing strategies. As it was shown, despite reporting important findings, different studies had different drawbacks like number of participants, data gathering technique, and coding scheme. Some other studies were different from present studies in their focus, terminologies, and the setting in which the study was performed. Therefore, their focus and their findings were either minimally comparable or needed to be complemented with the ones of current study.

Writing Ability

From 1980 to date, numerous studies investigated good and poor writers to shed light on the problems and the solutions that each group of writers undertakes in writing. In this regard, writing ability of the students and writing ability assessment has been an indispensable part of the enquiries intending to investigate writing. In other words, writing ability and the way this ability has been assessed, named, and categorized has continued to be a hot debate in the writing literature.

Given the fact that abilities are measurable, the term “writing ability” is mostly associated with “writing assessment”. It is generally believed that whatever the purpose of assessment would be, test takers should produce a piece of writing (Hamp-Lyons, 2003; Tsai, 2004; Weigle, 2002). In other words, the performance based assessment i.e., direct method of text production, has replaced indirect methods such as multiple choice, cloze, and sentence completion (Gennaro, 2006). Notwithstanding, as will be seen below, in the writing literature, writing ability and assessment is not a straightforward issue.

A review of writing studies reveals that the criteria that different researchers used in their study to assess writing ability is not the same. These criteria include holistic scoring, oral interview, writing instructors’ ideas, and writing strategy questionnaire. Two main reasons can be mentioned for this lack of consensus over criterion assessment. The first reason seems to be rooted in excessive variations in defining the term “writing” in the field. Looking at writing through different lenses of product, process, or constructivism, different researchers proposed different conceptualizations and definitions of writing. To Widdowson (1978, p.62), “writing is the act of making up correct sentences and transmitting them through the visual medium

as mark on paper”. Focusing on the physical composing of writing and written product, Hornby (1974, p.996) believes that writing is “to make letters or other symbols on a surface, especially with a pen or a pencil on a paper”. Taking both the problem solving nature of writing and writing process into account, Grave (1981, p. 4) states that writing is “a series of operations leading to the solution of a problem”. Finally, speaking about the communicative purpose of writing in the constructivism paradigm, Troyka (1987, p.3) states that writing is “a way of communicating a message to a reader for a purpose”. The second reason, which is closely related to the first reason, for using different criteria to assess writing ability is lack of agreement on “writing ability” and the way it was assessed. Generally speaking, the opponents of product view of writing (e.g., Hornby, 1974) believe in the final product assessment; followers of process approach (e.g., Grave, 1981) put emphasis on the writer’ ability to solve a given problem; constructivists (e.g., Troyka, 1987) argue that what counts is the ability of the writer to communicate the intended message in real world. To make the situation worse, there were certain disagreements within each paradigm. In the process view of writing which is the focus of this study, for instance, as already mentioned, not two researchers did use the same criteria for writing assessment.

Gennaro (2006) puts forth a plausible explanation for this lack of construct clarity. The author asserts that this lack of harmony in construct “writing ability” can be the result of “lack of a unified theory of writing ability” (Gennaro, 2006, p.2). While prerequisite for writing assessment is that the writing tests are rooted in a unanimously accepted theory of writing (Gennaro, 2006; Leki, 1995), “... no existing research or testing programs have proposed or verified a specific model of this, such as would be universally accepted” (Cumming, Kantor, Powers, Santos, & Taylor, 2000, p. 27).

This concern had been previously put forth by both Pennington and So (1993) and Raimes (1986). Pennington and So (1993, p.45) regard the lack of consensus across studies on valid criterion for measuring writing ability as shortcoming and state that because of this deficiency, “there is no clear agreement on the meaning of terms such as good, poor, skilled, and unskilled”. Raimes (1986, p.231) also argues that “there is at present no consensus on valid criteria for measuring skill in writing and thus no clear agreement on the meaning of unskilled”. She then points out that while Zamel (1984) found that it is the writing strategies and not the language proficiency that differentiate between good and poor writers, Jones and Tetroe (1987) found language proficiency as the effective elements in the writing process. She then warns against using purely product based writing assessment and argues that any writing study is advised to address two fundamental questions of “unskilled relative to whom and according to what criteria” (Raimes, 1986, p. 232).

Regarding the present study, the care was taken to apply the two aforementioned points by Raimes. Firstly, the context and the population of the study were tried to be adequately described so that the relationship of skilled and less skilled writers of the study on one hand, and their relationship with the population of the study on the other, would be clear. Secondly, given the fact that writing competence of the L2 writers can be influenced by many factors (e.g., Grabe, 2001; Lim et al., 2011), instead of using only one criterion, multi criterions i.e., triangulation, were employed to fully differentiate skilled writers from their less skilled counterparts because multi criterions should result in “more precise assessment” (Lim et al., 2011, p. 2) of writing ability. The choices of these sources, as will be discussed below, were in accordance with literature.

As already pointed out, different writing studies made use of different tools to assess writing. A review of writing literature suggests that the choices of criteria for writing assessment seem to stem from the answer to the question “what affects writing ability?” In general, the findings of the writing studies can be divided into two main groups. The first group found that writing ability is under effect of writing strategy than linguistic competence (e.g., Raimes, 1985) while the second group reported that language proficiency is somehow related to writing ability (e.g., Hirose & Sasaki, 1994) in the foreign language. Put it another way, while the former studies found that writing strategies and the way they are employed account for writing ability, the latter studies put more emphasis on linguistic knowledge as a distinguishing factor between good and poor writers. Logically, those who give credit to writing strategy should assess writing ability based on the strategies the participants employ whereas those who found linguistic competence more important should take linguistic element like vocabulary and grammar into consideration. However, a closer look at the literature does not fulfill such an expectation. Different studies employed different criteria most of which did not mention the reason or justification.

Some studies used holistic scoring of the participants’ final products as criterion to distinguish good writers from poor ones (e.g., Raimes, 1985). In these studies, the writers were required to produce either single or multi drafts in a given time. Later, the researchers scored the papers by using either a pre-established scoring rubric or the one the researcher already constructed. Despite being popular, the holistic scoring has not been without criticism. Pennington and So (1993), for instance, state that the process through which the text was generated and the final product of writing are separate from each other and hence, good writing product cannot guarantee good writing process. They argue that “the quality of the finished product does not actually give any direct

information about the quality of the writing process”. They continue that a poor written draft may be simply produced by what has been judged as skilled writing process.

Other studies gave positive reply to this criticism and found that rather than the final written text, the strategies through which the text is constructed should be taken into account. In fact, it was the writing strategies and not the linguistic competence which was the distinguishing factor between good and poor writers. In this regard, the less skilled writers suffer more from inefficient writing strategies than language related factors. Kraples (1990), who summarized the findings of the studies adopting process view of writing, also reports the same finding. Among the summary of findings comes the fact that lack of competence in writing results more from lack of composing competence than lack of linguistic competence. Zamel (1983; 1984) also deemphasized the role of linguistic competence and argued that it is the writers’ “writing strategies and behaviors and not primarily language proficiency that determine composing skill (Zamel, 1984, p. 198).

Debate over the relationship between writing ability and two major factors of language competence and writing strategies appeared to be reconciled by Leki, Cumming, and Silva (2008). They have made attempt to consider both writing strategies and English competence in the discussion of writing ability. The authors have synthesized writing studies done within the last three decades. In one section of their book, the authors speak about writing ability. The authors hold that three variables of writer’s characteristics, composing processes, and written text should be taken into account while speaking about writing ability. The authors then compare and contrast good and poor writers with regard to these three main variables. Good and poor writers’ characteristics, as the name suggests, have to do with the writer like age, gender, level

of confidence, and received instruction; composing process has to do with the differences between good and poor writers in their strategies like planning, drafting, reviewing, using mother tongue, and pausing to think; finally, in the written text, the authors speak about the characteristics of the text written by good and poor writers like length, syntax, part of speech, grammar, and lexicon. This conceptualization of writing ability was implemented in this study. Regarding good and poor writers' characteristics, the instruction that the participants had received were taken into account. As for composing processes, a validated questionnaire was employed to differentiate low strategy users from high strategy users. Finally, regarding the written text, the participants were required to produce a piece of writing to be scored holistically.

Implication for Current Study

As already reviewed, under the effect of different conceptions of writing and writing ability, different researchers employed different criteria to judge the writing ability of the participants. In the current study, however, in order to maximize validity of the assessment of writing ability, different criteria were employed. The criteria were selected based on two major points. Firstly, since no in depth study has been reported on Iranian EFL writers, it is not clear which of the two factors of writing strategy or linguistic competence is more important in this setting. Hence, I decided to assess both areas. The writers' language knowledge was assessed through holistic scoring of the written product and their knowledge of writing strategy was assessed through a questionnaire. The holistic scoring rubric used in the study was the one proposed by Jacobs et al. (1981) and the writing strategy questionnaire was the one recently constructed by Petric and Czarl (2003). Note that the holistic scoring rubric devotes three of its five subheads to linguistic-specific assessment of vocabulary, language use, and mechanics; hence, it is more of linguistic assessment.

Furthermore, given the fact that many writing researchers (e.g., Mu, 2007) believe that writing in FL is different from writing in L1, care was taken to apply the findings from studies done in EFL setting and not in L1. In order to do so, the current research took Angelova's (1999) conclusion into consideration for writing assessment. The researcher found that holistic scoring of the participants plus the writers' instructors ideas are better indications of the writing ability of the EFL writers than the language proficiency test like TOEFL. That is why apart from holistic scoring of the writers' drafts and writing strategy questionnaire, this study made use of two other data sources including the participants' instructors' ideas and their previous actual scores in the writing courses.

Writing Strategies of Skilled and Less Skilled Writers

Research on writing strategies employed by two groups of good and poor writers during composing has revealed certain similarities within each group. To put it another way, acknowledging the discrepancies among studies, certain differences have been documented and identified between good and poor writers.

Perhaps Raimes (1985, 1987) was among the first researchers who investigated the strategies that these two writers employ while composing in their second language. Four participants in remedial L2 writing courses and four in college-level writing courses were required to compose two different writing genre types (expository and narrative). Good and poor writers were differentiated based on their scores on a language proficiency test and holistic scoring. Raimes found that both groups of writers had many strategies in common; the good writers showed more interaction with their text while composing; the correspondence between proficiency, writing ability, and the

students' composing strategies was not much; and specifying purpose and reader for the participants had no effect on their composing strategies.

Raime's enquiry is of high importance in that the researcher compared and contrasted two groups of good and poor writers and employed a modified version of Perl's (1979) coding scheme. Also, the fact that she found both groups of writers have many strategies in common and it was other elements like having reader in mind and interaction with the text which determine the writing ability is taken into account in the current study. However, different written discourse which is one of the main variables of the present research was not of interest in Raime's study.

Attempting to investigate potential explanatory factors for L2 learners' writing products like learners' writing strategies, L1 writing ability, knowledge of second language writing, instructional background, and second language proficiency, Hirose and Sasaki (1994) conducted their exploratory study. In their study, they investigated both product and process of 19 Japanese university students, employing both quantitative (standardized English proficiency test, questionnaires about the participants' instructional and personal writing background, and a test of meta-knowledge on English expository writing) and qualitative (retrospective self-report of writing process) methods. According to the findings, good Japanese second language writers were different from their less skilled counterparts in certain ways. Good writers directly wrote in English whereas poor writers translated word by word first. The two groups of writers appeared to be different in writing confidence as well; that is, good writers, compared to poor writers, were more confident and less anxious about writing. Finally, Hirose and Sasaki report that good writers in the study used writing strategies

“similar to those of good L1 and ESL writers (218)”. This finding was also reported in other studies (e.g., Cumming, 1989; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Zamel, 1983).

Hirose and Sasaki’s attempt in investigating writing strategies are quite worthy in that they found that poor writers focused on single word and performed a word by word translation while good writers did not use L1. However, speaking from my experience as an EFL learner and EFL instructor, Iranian EFL learners, regardless of their ability, employ their L1 to a great extent. Hence, their findings should interpret with cautious in different setting. Another point is that rather than using think aloud for investigating writing strategy, the researchers used interview conducted after writing. While think aloud protocol reveals the on-line way of strategy use, in the interview, the participants should remember what they have been doing. Hence, it mainly relies on the writers’ ability to recall the events.

Victori (1999) investigated the relationship between metacognitive knowledge of good and poor L2 writers with what they actually do while composing. Besides a holistic scoring of an argumentative essay produced by the participants, the researcher used other criteria for subject selection including having the same age (18 to 21), enrolling in English major, passing the same Cambridge test, and having no writing instruction in L1 and L2. Data were obtained through think aloud and retrospective interviews. The results indicated that good and poor writers were different in their MK and, more importantly, this knowledge “determines the type of strategy or writing approach to be adopted by the writer” (Victori, 1999, p. 549). Furthermore, the skilled writers, compared to their less skilled counterparts, were found to have a more flexible view of the composing task. Finally, compared to skilled writers, the less skilled writers were not much committed to the writing task.

Victory's findings are important in the sense that, unlike other studies which came up with similar and general finding about the differences between good and poor writers, it is metacognitive strategy which is the distinguishing factor between good and poor writers. However, there are certain differences between Victory's study and current research. The former employed the terms borrowed from strategy practitioners while the current research used the writing terminologies. Also, the former studied Spanish learners while this study focused on Iranian writers. Finally, the effect of discourse mode on the strategic behaviors of writers was not of interest to her study. Therefore, results can be compared only to a limited extent.

Focusing on language switching, Wang (2003) studied two groups of skilled and less skilled writers in their English writing strategies. Eight adult Chinese-speaking English were required to produce an informal personal letter and an argument essay. Data were obtained through think-aloud protocols, retrospective interviews, questionnaires, and analysis of written products. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of the obtained data showed that the participants' frequencies of language-switching varied slightly by their English proficiency. The researcher found that both groups switched to their L1 about the same extent (from 30% to 45% of their thinking sequences) while composing in English. Skilled participants switched to their L1 more frequently than the less skilled participants did while composing the two writing tasks. Switching languages triggered the skilled participants to adjust their goals in considering the task constraints in the idea-generating and idea-organizing activities. On the other hand, the less skilled participants switched languages for ideas "in a restricted and unregulated manner" (p. 368).

Wang's study and the current research shared certain similarities like investigating two groups of good and poor writers, employing think aloud and interviews as the main techniques for collecting data, using two different writing discourse types, and employing a modified version of Perl's (1979) coding scheme. However, there are certain dissimilarity and drawbacks, as well. Wang focused on Chinese EFL learners while the present research investigates Iranian EFL learners. Additionally, the findings were mostly limited to the L1 use during writing and did not take into account other strategies. Finally, the researcher did not investigate the effect of different written discourse on the way the writers employ writing strategies.

In a more recent study, intending to bridge the gap in the discourse mode effects on the adopted strategies, Hu and Chen (2008) carried out their study. Two skilled and one less skilled Chinese college writers were asked to compose a letter and an argumentative essay. According to the results, unlike previous studies, the less skilled writer used "many more strategies and deployed most of the strategies more frequently than the two skilled writers did" (p. 44). Another anomalous finding of the study was the amount of time spent by the participants. Two skilled writers "made a quick decision on what they would write and how they would proceed" (p. 45) while in other studies (e.g., Sasaki, 2000), it was the opposite. Two skilled writers rehearsed the complete sentences whereas the less skilled writer rehearsed less and used Chinese more than English. In terms of revising, unlike previous studies (e.g., Zamel, 1982) that reported that good writers revised more globally, the use of revising strategies by these three writers revealed a more complex picture. All three participants revised mostly lexical and grammatical elements rather than discoursal structure.

Hu and Chen's study yields important results in terms of the effects that difference in mode of written discourse can have on the strategic behaviors of the good and poor writers. However, their study and the current research are different in their coding scheme, writing genres, and context of study. Hu and Chen developed their own coding scheme while this research used a modified version of Perl's (1979) scheme; Hu and Chen employed letter writing as the easy writing whereas the current study used narration; finally, the participants in Hu and Chen were Chinese while this study focused on Iranian EFL learners. Hence, results can be compared only to a limited extent

An Overview of the Major Findings

As depicted above, acknowledging the differences, skilled and less skilled writers exhibit certain common behaviors while composing in second/foreign language. These common strategies and processes are reported below.

With regard to the planning stage, skilled writers seem to spend more time thinking and planning (e.g., Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Raimes, 1985; Sasaki, 2004). More skilled L2 writers did more global planning (Sasaki, 2000) and were more able to adjust their global plans while writing (Sasaki, 2000). Several other studies (e.g., Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1982) showed that skilled writers discover new ideas as they compose and plan accordingly. Cumming (1989) found that skilled writers are either advanced planners or emergent planners. Writers who make their plans in advance are advanced planners whereas emergent planners make their mental plans as they go ahead. In emergent planning, as the name suggests, the planning comes up as the writing proceeds; therefore, planning can be performed during any stage or process of writing which is the sign of recursiveness. However, Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) findings are not in a complete agreement with this. According to the results obtained from their

studies, skilled writers and less skilled writers exhibited differences in both planning before composing and planning in the act of composing. Skilled writers appeared to plan at a more global level than surface and local one, as supported in different studies like Zamel (1982, 1983) and Raimes (1985). In other words, rather than generating the text content as less skilled writers did, they prefer to set goals for themselves. With regard to the planning being done while writing, namely, emergent planning, less skilled writers write down almost everything they verbalized in the think aloud protocol. Skilled writers, however, composed about one third of what they had thought and the rest was about the coherence, audience and style. As shown in Sommers' (1980) study, the skilled writers are believed to compose more drafts than poor writers because the skilled writers "create, discover and shape their intended meaning in writing several drafts" (Victori, 1995, p. 56).

With regard to writing fluency and stop composing to translate the idea or content, less skilled writers often stopped to translate their generated ideas into English and often stopped to refine English expression (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). English proficiency or lack of it appeared to explain part of the difference in strategies and in fluency -- less skilled writers still had to stop often to translate and were forced to think on smaller, local scales (Sasaki, 2000; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). More skilled writers wrote longer texts with more complex development at greater speed than did less skilled writers (Leki et al., 2008) and second language proficiency or lack of it explained part of the difference in fluency (Sasaki, 2000). Quantity and speed of writing increased slowly over time (Sasaki, 2004) and these writers composed sentences without much pausing (Hirose & Sasaki, 1994).

In terms of reviewing and revising, good writers seem to review more often and more thoroughly (Raimes, 1987; Stallard, 1974; Victori, 1995) and hence, they put more time on this stage of writing. As Hayes and Flower (1986, p. 110) noted, “the more expert the writer, the greater the proportion of writing time the writer will spend in revision”. The reason, according to Eysenck and Keane (2000, p. 415), is that expert writers focus on the “coherence and structure” of the arguments expressed. Furthermore, they conclude that “it is much more time-consuming to modify the hierarchical structure of a text than to change individual words”. More support for this claim comes from Faigley and Witte’s (1983) study. The researchers compared the revisions performed by writers at different levels of skill. They discovered that 34% of the revisions by experienced adult writers involved a change of meaning, against only 12% of the revisions of inexperienced college writers. Eysenck and Keane (2000, p. 415) postulate that this difference probably occurred because experienced writers are more concerned with “coherence and meaning”.

In their reviewing, good writers pay attention not only to linguistic concerns and accuracy, but they also consider change of focus or meaning (Victori, 1995); that is, they are more likely to make revisions that affect the “global aspects” (Porte, 1996, p. 107) of their writing (Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1982, 1983). Taking the entire text into account, good writers might add, delete, substitute, and reorganize whole paragraphs if needed. Error detection varies also with expertise; that is, “semantic errors are detected less often than syntactic errors, which are detected less often than lexical errors” (Butterfield, Hacker, & Albertson. 1996, p. 255). This is consistent with Sharples’s (1999) claim that skilled writers change text level and meaning features. Sharples (1999) also noted that the amount of revision increases with expertise pointing out that “expert writers revise more and the quality of their revisions is better” (p. 103). Kellogg

(1994) observed that, unlike many other activities, “as writers mature and gain expertise, they invest more effort and reflective thought in the task” (p. 204).

These writers seem to display “more confidence in their ability” (Francis & Mc Cutchen, 1994, p. 15) to do the revising tasks partly due to being more able to detect, diagnose, and correct the errors. As Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) revealed, skilled writers even transformed the new ideas to the text in the revising. The better writers are seen to be more conscious of audience (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990), discourse type (Lam, 1991), and organization (Hull, 1987). Thus, their revision is characterized by its attention to the more global factors of content and style (Porte, 1997).

Poor writers, on the other hand, spend less time planning, write a phrase at a time, and ask themselves what to do next (Cumming, 1989; Victori, 1995). They have been found to be very dependent on the text to generate ideas; that is, they often reread what they have written to decide what to say next (Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Victori, 1995). Furthermore, they usually generate their ideas by topical, rather than analytical associations leading them to write whatever comes to mind without further reflections or modifications. Consequently, they do little drafting and perceive the first draft as the last draft; thus, their free writing or first drafts largely resemble the final products and they like what they have written (Cumming, 1989; Humes, 1983; Victori, 1995). Their reviewing strategies seem to be limited to the surface level editing (Sharples, 1999) and “usually at the level of the word” (Porte, 1996, p. 107). As Sommers (1980) points out, one characteristic of the unskilled writer is a “thesaurus philosophy” -- what Porte (1996) calls “synonym-seeking” -- in which less skilled writers replace one word or phrase by synonyms; in other words, these writers focus on individual words and phrases (Eysenck & Keane, 2000). The same behavior was revealed in Bereiter and

Scardamalia (1987). Less skilled writers revised the written text at the local level; that is, they reworded or made minor changes in the grammar, spelling, and punctuation. The poor writers reflect less on their texts, are much more conservative in revision behavior, and tend to change the surface grammatical structure of compositions, with the majority of revisions being addressed to word-level concerns (Porte, 1997; Sharples, 1999).

Less skilled writers show a lack of general ability to revise for more general concerns, such as intended meaning or rhetorical aspects (Hull, 1987). The reason, according to Eysenck and Keane (2000, p. 415), is that these writers “focus on individual words and phrases”. Thus, they are less critical; have less capacity to detach from what they have written (Beach, 1976); usually like what they have written, and are unable to see strengths and weaknesses (Victori, 1995). Likewise, they show little concern for the qualities of word choice, using vague words and centering most of their attention on grammatical accuracy (Alharthi, 2011; Cumming, 1989; Victori, 1995). Furthermore, audience and purpose are rarely considered by these writers (El Mortaji, 2001; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Victori, 1995).

These writers seem to have problem detecting, diagnosing, and correcting errors (Myhills & Jones, 2007; Victori, 1995). In the case of being able to detect the meaning errors, diagnosing and correcting them are too great a task and result in deleting text (Francis & McCutchen, 1994). In fact, according to Myhills and Jones (2007), students face a dual set of difficulties in learning to revise: First, they have difficulty “self-monitoring just what their writing problems are” and second, having identified problems, they lack “access to techniques and methods for overcoming them” (Pea & Kurland, 1987, p. 295). One consequence of this is that students may respond to the exhortation to revise, but “their changes do not always result in an improved product”

(Beal, 1996, p. 221). In other words, they engage in the process without the necessary cognitive, metacognitive, and social understanding to make appropriate changes (Myhills & Jones, 2007).

Implication for Current Study

The process-oriented studies on writing reviewed above have provided valuable information and insight into the unique nature of writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Silva, 1990). At the same time, this review revealed certain knowledge gaps in the writing literature that this study intends to address. Firstly, not a single study was found to perform an in depth study in Iran as an EFL setting. It is worth noting that despite conducting numerous attempts to study EFL writers, many writing researchers (e.g., Wang, 2003) express their concern about the lack of research done in EFL writing. Secondly, the effect of difference in writing discourse type on the composing behavior of EFL writers is not among the aims of any study (for exception, see Hu & Chen, 2008) and is therefore in need of investigation. To be more exact, thus far, it is unclear what writing strategies EFL writers with different writing abilities use in different writing discourse types. Likewise and finally, there is a gap in literature concerning the issue of whether strategies used by the EFL good and poor writers stem from differences in writing genre. Hence, this study hopes to contribute in filling in the aforementioned gaps in process-oriented literature of writing literature.

Writing Discourse Types

Grabe and Kaplan (1996, pp. 217-222) have provided a comprehensive taxonomy of different writing discourse types. The authors have divided their taxonomy based on “the sorts of writing situations that exist for writers (and particularly students) in terms of settings, tasks, texts, and topics” (p. 216). The major considerations of their

taxonomy are educational settings for writing, educational writing task types, educational texts, topics for academic writing, the writer's intentions, linguistic knowledge, discourse knowledge, sociolinguistic knowledge, audience consideration and so on. Grabe and Kaplan further divide educational writing tasks into sub components such as letters, narratives, newspaper reporting, poems, plays, charts, and argumentative essays. Narratives are further divided into (a) fictional (novels/short stories) and (b) nonfictional; argumentative essays are divided into (a) logical stances, (b) ethical appeals, (c) emotional appeals, (d) empirical stance, (f) appeal to authority, and (g) counter-arguments. In line with the aims of the study, two distinct writing discourse types were selected from their taxonomy: narrative nonfictional and argumentative counter-arguments (see below for reasons).

The rationale behind choosing these two kinds of writing discourses lies in the aims of the study one of which is to study the writing behaviors of skilled and less skilled EFL writers in different discourse types. Moreover, of the intention of the research is to find out whether the difference (if any) is because of the nature of discourse types or not; hence, care must be taken for the writing discourse types to be as distinct as possible because with regard to writing skill, the effect of discourse type and task complexity/difficulty on writing process and strategic behavior of L2/EFL writers has not been clearly established. As Kuiken and Vedder (2008, p. 49) assert, "... the relationship between task type or task complexity and writing performance is by no means clear".

It is worthwhile mentioning from the outset that despite the general investigation and discussion of discourse types and task difficulty/complexity in the literature, determining task difficulty/complexity is an intricate job. Nunan (2004, p. 72) has

similarly expressed the concern and mentions that “researchers have, in fact, only begun to scratch the surface, and there is, as yet, no objective method for determining task complexity difficulty”.

With regard to writing discourse types and writing strategies that students use while writing, composing two discourse types of narrative and argumentative are believed to be different in both rhetoric and cognitive demands (e.g., Woodall, 2002); therefore, as Cumming (1989) noted, the strategies students employ in each situation should not be similar. The former is considered the easier discourse type whereas the latter, the difficult counterpart (for exception, see Kuiken & Vedder, 2008). Manchon, Roca de Larios, and Murphy (2000, p. 20) maintain that

the argumentative task is a demanding topic which requires from subjects an awareness of formal register, an ability to manipulate abstract concepts and the rhetorical conventions of presenting arguments. The narrative, on the other hand, allows the writer to draw on her own experience in a more familiar and less academic domain.

Myles (2002) also puts forth this dichotomy in a sort of continuum and claims that narrative is easier than argumentative type. He notes that writing involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information, what Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) labels “knowledge telling” which is in the form of narratives or descriptions, or to transform information in a “knowledge transforming” model, as in argumentative writing. Therefore, Myles views writing as a continuum of activities ranging from the more mechanical or formal aspects of writing down on the one end, to the more complex act of composing on the other end. Likewise, Kellogg

(2001), in terms of comparing the less skilled writers and knowledge-telling process with skilled writers and knowledge-transforming process, argues that cognitive demand is high in knowledge-transforming tasks.

According to the previous studies (e.g., Hu & Chen, 2008; Woodall, 2002), description of a personal experience is less cognitively demanding and complex than the argumentative genre. In the former, the writer is just supposed to chronologically recall the events whilst in the latter case, other elements such as critical thinking and logical reasoning should accompany the process as well. Grabe and Kaplan (1996, p. 121) similarly posit that argumentative topics require “more complex processing”. Likewise, Cumming (1989) in his study divided the tasks according to the cognitive demands they impose; that is, argumentative and summary (the more cognitively demanding tasks) which gave rise to significantly more heuristic search strategies, and letter writing (the less cognitively demanding task).

Topic familiarity, along with rhetorical structure and cognitive demand, is the last consideration in writing discourse types. Manchon, Murphy, and Roca de Larios (2005) note that the participants will be more involved in the case of being familiar with the assigned topic. In a similar vein, Hu and Chen (2008) assert that “topic familiarity could enhance participants’ involvement” (p. 42). Therefore, in the current research, two familiar topics are given to participants to write about.

Implication for Current Study

As reviewed above, descriptive and argumentative discourse types appeared to be distinct. They are different not only in rhetoric and genre, but also in cognitive load. Hence, considering the aims of the present study i.e., investigating writing strategies of

Iranian EFL good and poor writers in two different writing discourse types, the participants were given a narrative and an argumentative essay to write about. Besides, the assigned topics are familiar to the students so that their involvement and participation are maximized.

Studies on Writing Strategies with Different Writing Discourse Types

Several researchers (Hu & Chen, 2008; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Manchon, Roca de Larios, & Murphy, 2000; Wang & Wen, 2002; Woodall, 2002; Qi, 1998) made use of different writing genres in their investigations. I should hasten to point out that the major focus of these studies (except Hu & Chen, 2008) was not to investigate discourse type effect on strategic behavior and/or writing process. Manchon et al. (2000), as a part of a wider research project (the Murcia L2 Writing Project), investigated backtracking (BAKT) as a composing strategy; Woodall (2002), Wang and Wen (2002), and Wang (2003) mainly studied language switching (LS) in the L2 composing process. However, since they used two different writing discourse types in their studies, certain findings of their research relate them to the present study and hence, are reported below.

Manchon et al. (2000) conducted their study to investigate BAKT behaviors. In order to understand the types of BAKT as well as the discourse type effect on that, three intermediate Spanish participants were required to produce an argumentative and a narrative text. The findings indicated that the three writers backtracked both through their second and first language. In the former, writers scan the already composed materials, the direction, or any other notes or outlines they may have done while writing. In the latter, on the other hand, participants translated the scanned parts word-by-word while deleting or paraphrasing. In terms of the discourse type effect on BACT, the researchers found that, in narrative genre, three writers rescanned their text more

often than when writing argumentation. Moreover, in terms of first and second language use in two discourse types, they conclude that “the language used to backtrack does not seem to be dependent on the writer’s degree of writing expertise or on the nature of the writing task carried out” (p. 32). Due to the greater cognitive complexity of argumentation, the participants’ translation was accompanied by deletion and paraphrasing. This accords with Cumming’s (1989) conclusion that more cognitively demanding tasks (argumentative and summary) call for more heuristic search strategies than the less cognitively demanding one (narrative).

Manchon et al.’s enquiry is of importance due to certain factors including employing two distinct writing genres of narrative and expository, investigating EFL writing strategies, and employing think aloud protocols to collect their data. However, the study focused only on one single writing strategy i.e., backtracking and other employed strategies were not investigated.

Unlike Manchon et al. (2000), Woodall (2002) found relationship between language proficiency, level of writing discourse difficulty, and L1 use. The researcher looked at the differences in language switching between two second language proficiency levels (intermediate and advanced) and two language relationships (cognate, Spanish-English, and non-cognate, Japanese-English) across two writing genres (narrative and argument essay) and found that genre difficulty is among the factors affecting duration, and not frequency of language switching. Twenty eight participants were required to compose aloud while producing two writing samples, a personal letter and a persuasive essay. The tasks were different in genre, topic, instruction, audience consideration, and length. The results revealed that the more difficult argument essay task resulted in longer L1 use during the writing process. In other words, once a writer

had switched to the L1 during the argument essay, the writer tended to use the L1 for longer periods of time: “how often learners use their L1 during L2 writing is related more to L2 proficiency, whereas how long they use their L1 during L2 writing is more related to task difficulty” (p. 17). The researcher found that lower second language proficiency resulted in more frequent language switching while writing.

Immediately following Woodall’s (2002) study, Wang and Wen (2002) reported on a similar research project that both confirmed and conflicted with some of the results from the Woodall’s study. In this study, sixteen Chinese EFL students spanning four levels of English proficiency wrote a narrative and an argumentative essay. Like Woodall’s (2002) study, the researchers divided the writing genres according to their cognitive demands; narration, the least cognitively demanding, and argumentation, the most demanding. However, rather than providing written prompts for the narrative genre, as Woodall did, Wang and Wen provided pictures from a cartoon book. In both genre types, the students were required to compose no less than 200 words within 45 minutes. As in the Woodall study, they found that increased second language proficiency reduced the frequency of language switching strategy. Furthermore, the four levels English proficiency seemed to show a threshold of L2 proficiency below which these writers were more likely to engage in L1 use while composing. However, unlike Woodall, they found that language switching was significantly lower for the presumably more difficult argument essay, a pattern also noted in other research (Manchon et al., 2000). They reported that this difference of LS in the genres relate to the different prompts in the two writing discourses.

Following Woodall (2002) and Wang and Wen (2002), Wang (2003) also employed informal letter writing and argument writing in his study to explore the

relationship between language proficiency and code switching. Like Woodall's (2002) study, writing a letter was considered an easy task involving knowledge-telling process whereas the argumentative task was conceived as the difficult one which involves knowledge-transforming process. The participants were eight adult Chinese-speaking learners studying English in Canada. Both groups of low and high proficient writers switched to their L1 while composing the two tasks. Concerning the role of the writing genre on language switching, as in Woodall's (2002) study, higher second language proficient writers switched to the L1 more during the easier letter writing task. In terms of language proficiency, low proficient writers confirm Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge-telling model in which the writers just tell what they intend to; the results indicated that less skilled writers "concentrated on direct translation from their L1 into the L2 to perform their L2 writing" (p. 366). The study also found that the amount of language switching across both writing genres for the lower second language proficient writers was equal.

As can be seen, although employing the same writing discourse types in their studies, the focus of the aforementioned studies was not the same. Manchon et al. studied BACT by considering recursiveness and the problem solving nature of composing. Recursiveness of the writing process, they argue, "includes the movements backwards and forwards between the already produced and the emerging text as part of the writer's strategic behavior in carrying out the problem solving task that composing entails" (p. 14). Woodall (2002), Wang and Wen (2002), and Wang (2003), on the other hand, investigated LS. These three studies reported certain findings about the effect of different writing discourse types on one of the "salient characteristic" (Wang, 2003, p. 348) behavior of L2 students' writers i.e., LS. However, they did not investigate the

probable influence that different writing discourse types might exert on the general process of composing or the strategies that the EFL participants employed.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed previous studies on writing strategies, writing ability, and writing discourse types. The review offers certain limitations and implications that this study attempts to shed more light on. Regarding writing strategies and the way they were labeled, it was attempted to follow the writing discipline terminologies. Instead of using cognitive and metacognitive labels which belong to strategy practitioners, the current study borrowed the common terms from process model of writing like planning and reviewing. Also, unlike some previous studies that divided writing into three parts of pre writing, writing, and post writing, this study used planning, transcribing, and reviewing as the criteria to analyze data. There are two reasons for that. Firstly, basing the analysis on the former continuum implies the linear mode of writing which according to many studies, writing is not considered linear any more. Secondly, planning which takes place from beginning to the end of writing was both in pre writing and writing stages, excluding the reviewing of course. Considering writing model of Flower and Hayes (1980) and basing the general framework of the study on planning, translating, and reviewing, on the other hand, not only minimizes the linear conception of writing, but also makes planning, translating, and reviewing easier to identify.

Regarding writing ability, as reviewed in the chapter, due to lack of a unified theory of writing, different writers defined writing differently. Consequently, the ideas about writing ability was different and there is no wonder that to date, no clear definition of the terms like skilled and less skilled has been put forth. For some researchers, language competence was the origin of the differences between good and

poor writers while for some others, writing strategies differentiated good writers from poor ones. In the current enquiry, on the other hand, in order to duly judge the writing ability of the participants, two areas of language competence and writing strategy were taken into consideration. Besides, two other sources of instructors' ideas of the participants and their gained scores on the previous writing courses were taken into account to abide by the Angelova's (1999) conclusion that writing instructor's idea is one the best ways to judge the EFL writing ability.

The final area this review covered in this chapter was the writing studies which made use of two modes of discourse types in their investigations. As discussed, certain studies made use of argumentative and narrative genres which are commonly believed to be distinct. However, regardless of coming up with different findings, their focus and interest was different from this study (see Hu & Chen, 2008 for exception). Many of these studies were carried out in order to investigate one particular strategy like L1 use or backtracking. Besides, the participants were either Chinese or Spanish and not Iranian. In order to both contribute to the writing field and fill in this knowledge gap besides having a better understanding of the way EFL writers compose, this study set out to investigate the strategies that Iranian EFL undergraduate writers employ in two writing discourses of narrative and argumentative.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter explains the methodology employed in this study including what methods are used, how they are adopted, and for what purposes. Furthermore, the reliability and validity of the methods and techniques for the data collection and data analysis are also given.

Design of the Study

The design of the present study is multiple-case study design. There are several reasons and rationales for choosing this design. These rationales are presented below.

The main purpose of this study was to explore and describe Iranian EFL university students' application of writing strategies in English writing. As learner behaviors can be observed to a certain degree and their thoughts about learning can be accessed only through their verbalizations, a qualitative approach to research of this nature is warranted (Berg, 2004; Creswell, 2003; Tapinta, 2006). There are different types of qualitative research in education. Merriam (1998) has divided them into five types including basic or generic qualitative research, ethnography, phenomenology, case study, and grounded theory. Having their own characteristics, the author continues, these different types of qualitative research share the common features of qualitative inquiry. These common characteristics are "the goal of eliciting or understanding the meaning, the researcher as primary instrument of data collection and analysis, the use of fieldwork, an inductive orientation to analysis, and findings that are richly descriptive" (Merriam, 1998; p. 11).

The case study design, in particular, involves the “process of gathering information that allows the researcher to concentrate on a particular subject or group of subjects” (Tapinta, 2006, p. 68). This design and procedure, as noted by Berg (2004), eventually enables the researcher to come up with a holistic description of his or her understanding of the behaviors being studied. Since the aim of this study is to obtain a detailed understanding of the participants’ writing behaviors while composing in English, I therefore considered this approach suitable. As Dheram (1996, p. 13) posits, “[C]ase studies offer illuminative portrayals in the sense that they provide an in-depth analysis of the composing process in general and the composing processes of individuals in particular”. This research method has also been employed in various previous studies that focused on inquiries into the learners’ cognitive behaviors including writing strategies (e.g., Lim, et al., 2011; Raimes, 1985). Additionally, Yin (1994, 2003) points out that case studies are the preferred method when “how” and “why” questions are being asked. Considering Yin’s views, a case study method was adopted in the current research since the present investigation was primarily focused on the composing strategies of writers (how writers compose) and the factors that mediated their choice of composing strategies (why they compose as they do).

Furthermore, regarding the present study, I chose multi-case study design. Most case studies in the education field take a holistic view to approach a problem (Merriam, 1988). That is, researchers use multi-case study designs to gain an in-depth understanding. The interest lies in the processes than the outcome, and in discovery than the confirmation (Merriam, 1988). Moreover, Yin (2003) posits that, compared to the single case, owing to the fact that the evidence and findings are gathered from multiple cases, the study is considered more vigorous. I included six case studies of Iranian EFL undergraduate students. I decided to choose three participants who are students with

high writing abilities and three with low writing abilities so that I can run cross-case analysis while analyzing the data.

Research Site

Azad university of Bandar-e-Lenge was the research site of the study. This university is located in Hormozgan province in Iran. Bandar-e-Lenge, as one of its cities, is located in the South East of Iran. It is very close to the Persian Gulf so the weather is hot and humid. The university was established in 1999. This site was purposively selected due to certain reasons. These reasons were guided by Berg (2004, p. 29) asserting that the study site should be located where

1. Entry or access is possible.
2. The appropriate people (target population) are likely to be available.
3. There is a high probability that the study's focuses, processes, people, programs, interactions, and/or structures that are part of the research question(s) will be available to the investigator; and
4. The research can be conducted effectively by an individual or individuals during the data collection phase of the study (e.g., an African American researcher should not undertake research among members of the Ku Klux Klan).

Since I have been teaching in this university for more than five years, I have no problem accessing the site. Moreover, the university runs TEFL courses for more than seven years; hence, it can best serve the needs of the present research.

The Participants

The participants were senior EFL university students of Bandar-e-Lenge. Their ages ranged from 24 to 34. They all spoke Farsi as their first language and learned English as their foreign language. They all had passed three interrelated courses of

writing within their four years of studying English, each of which lasted for 34 hours. These writing courses include paragraph writing, essay writing, and letter writing. In the course entitled paragraph writing, the students receive instruction on the basic concepts of paragraph writing like “what is a paragraph?” and “how to start, continue, and finish a paragraph?” In the essay writing course, the writers become familiar with different kinds of English essays like, cause/effect, problem/solution, and narration. Finally, in the letter writing course, the learners became familiar with different kinds of letter like business and personal. Therefore, they were supposed to receive instruction on two discourse types of narrative and argumentative. The participants shared a similar educational experience. They were all bilingual and had received formal instruction in English and hence, their exposure to English and their academic writing experience are the same. Therefore, the participants can be regarded as broadly representative of English majors at Azad Universities in general. Before moving to the participant selection procedures, this part discusses the data sources for participant selection.

Sources of Data for Selecting the Participants

Writing ability and its assessment has been an intricate issue in the writing literature and has been extensively debated to date (see writing ability in chapter one and two). Different researchers seemed to have different conceptions of writing ability. There are three main reasons for these differences including, in brief, non-existence of unanimously accepted conception and definition of writing ability (Gennaro, 2006), non-existence of a unified theory of writing ability in both first and second language writing research (Cumming et al., 2000; Gennaro, 2006; Huot, 1990; Kroll, 2003) and finally, difficulty in assessment of writing ability of nonnative writers (Johns, 1991; Song & August, 2002). This lack of agreement across studies on measuring writing skill was also observed by both Raimes (1985) and Pennington and So (1993) and they note

that there is no clear agreement on the meaning of terms such as skilled, and unskilled writers.

Considering the present study, in order to lessen the confusion as well as maximize the validity of the criterion for selecting the writers, I did two things. Firstly, instead of relying on the single data source to assess the writing ability, I employed different data sources, i.e., triangulation, to assess the writing competency of the participants. Writing competence of the nonnative writers, on the other hand, can be influenced by many factors (Grabe, 2001; Hu & Chen, 2008; Leki, 1996; Lim et al., 2011) and using different data sources would enhance the validity of the judgment because it should result in “more precise assessment” (Lim et al., 2011, p. 2). The sources I selected for assessing writing ability of the participants were the ones previously employed by different researchers. They include holistic scoring of writing, scores on the previous writing courses, participants’ knowledge of writing strategy elicited by a questionnaire, and their composition instructors’ ideas.

Note that some researchers employed only one source of data while others used multiple sources. Emig (1971), Zamel (1982, 1983), and Raimes (1985) used holistic scoring of the participants’ essays and Xiu and Xiao (2004) used a national English proficiency test. The researchers who employed more than one source of data to assess the writing ability were Cumming (1989) (oral interview plus holistic scoring), Sasaki (2000) (writing experience and holistic assessment of the participants), Yang (2002) (writing strategy questionnaire and the participants’ scores in their previous composition courses), Hu and Chen (2008) (the instructors’ ideas and holistic scoring of the participants’ writing) and finally, Lim et al. (2011) (the overall performance of the participants on English subjects besides their instructors’ ideas).

Secondly, the sources I selected were in line with the Angelova's (1999) conclusion that holistic scoring supported by the instructors' ideas are better indicators of EFL writers' writing abilities. In his study, he found that, compared to the English proficiency test, the participants' written products assessed holistically along with the ideas of writing instructors about the writers can better indicate the level of writing ability. Hu and Chen (2008) also used the same data sources to study the Chinese EFL writers. They differentiated the writers on the basis of their scoring assessment plus the composition instructors' ideas. In the current study, too, holistic scoring, instructors' ideas, knowledge of the participants gained by a questionnaire, and the writers' previous scores on their actual classes were data sources based on which two groups of good and poor writers were differentiated.

It is worth noting that besides the already mentioned criteria, initially I also intended to measure their overall language proficiency by a TOEFL test (see Appendix D). However, due to the participants' heavy schedule, I was unable to do so. In the meantime, Jacobs et al.'s (1981) scoring rubric can also take care of linguistic proficiency because it has certain language elements such as vocabulary and organization (see Appendix F). What is more, many writing researchers (e.g., Arndt, 1987; Beare, 2000; Cumming, 1995; Flower & Hayes, 1980; Mu, 2006; Perl, 1979; Pianko, 1979, Victori, 1995; Zamel, 1982) maintain that writing strategies, among other factors, are determining factors in differentiating skilled writers from unskilled ones.

Judging the Participants' Writing Ability

All the initial volunteer participants were required to produce an essay titled *"What are the effects of global warming?"* Write an essay with 200-300 words within 2 hours. I chose this kind of essay because the participants had been taught this sort of

text throughout their previous composition courses. I did not ask them to write an argumentative essay since, in the actual data collection, the selected participants would be required to write one. There was a fear that they, due to the task effect, would write the second argumentation without struggling to use the strategies. I did not ask them to compose a narration for the same reason; since they were later required to compose a narrative piece, in order to avoid the task effect, I used cause and effect essay. Moreover, since it is believed that, compared to the other kinds of writing, narration is easier, there was a fear that they could not use their knowledge of vocabulary and structure in this sort of discourse.

Having gathered the students' compositions, I made contact with EFL teachers who were experienced and qualified in EFL composition teaching and evaluation. In order to obtain more consistent scoring, the evaluators made use of Jacobs et al.'s (1981) ESL Composition Profile. Following the procedures specified by Jacobs et al., each writing product was scored by at least two raters. If there were more than a 10-point variation in the total scores of the two raters, the essays were scored by a third rater. The final score for each writer was the average of the two closest scores. Table 3.1 is the summary of the scores assigned by the three raters.

Table 3.1

Grouping Participants According to Their Writing Performance

Participants	Scores			Final score	Group
	1 st rater	2 nd rater	3 rd rater		
1(withdrew)	98	82	90	86	Good
2(Ali)	85	87		86	Good
3(Majid)	84	84		84	Good
4(Elham)	87	80		83.5	Good
5	78	82		80	Fair
6	80	92	79	79.5	Fair
7	67	54	86	76.5	Fair
8	75	77		76	Fair
9	69	75		72.	Fair
10	62	74	70	72	Fair
11	65	73		69	Fair
12	69	75		71	Fair
13	75	66		72	Fair
14.	69	65		67.	Fair
15	63	45	70	66.5	Fair
16.	67	64		65.5	Fair
17	68	63		65.5	Fair
18	67	58		62.5	Fair
19	84	59	63	61	Fair
20	76	65	56	60.5	Fair
21	63	53		58	Fair
22	58	47	58	58	Fair
23	73	59	57	58	Fair
24	44	60	54	57	Fair
25	54	67	59	56.5	Fair
26	55	58		56.5	Fair
27	61	50	56	53	Fair
28(Pari)	53	50		51.5	Poor
29	45	58	51	50	Poor
30(Fati)	68	55	46	50.5	Poor
31(Sahar)	62	43	46	44.5	Poor
32(discarded)	34	40		37	Poor

As can be seen from Table 3.1, initially, four good writers and five poor writers were differentiated based on the holistic assessment. Note that having a look at the writing which was produced by participant number 32, I decided to disregard this participant. She had produced a messy paragraph instead of an essay; therefore, she seemed to have problems even with the basic concepts of writing like the difference

between a paragraph and an essay and hence, was not qualified enough to produce data needed for the study. On the other hand, student number 1, due to her heavy schedule, withdrew from the study and could not attend the other procedures. Also, since there was a 10-point difference between fifteen scores, they were rated by a third rater. Out of the five areas of content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics, specified in the Jacobs rubric, the raters were mostly different from each other in the organization part (see Appendix B). Student 31, for instance, received 16, 8, and 9 from the first, second, and third rater for organization, respectively.

Writing strategy questionnaire was another source of data used in the study to differentiate good writers from the poor writers. Petric and Czarl's (2003) questionnaire (see Appendix C) was the questionnaire used in the study. It was firstly checked by three EFL professors for validity and the only change suggested by them was omitting item number 15 (I give myself a reward for completing the assignment). The validated questionnaire was then distributed to the initial 30 students and the reliability was calculated through Cronbach alpha by SPSS. It was 79% which is acceptable, according to Petric and Czarl (2003). Afterwards, the questionnaire was distributed to the final 34 students. The learners whose mean score was above 3.5 ($M \geq 3.5$) on the questionnaire items were considered to be high strategy users, the ones who scored between 2.5 and 3.4 ($3.4 \geq M \geq 2.5$) were medium strategy users, and the ones scoring below 2.4 ($M \leq 2.4$) were low strategy users (Oxford, 1990). The participant responses were then separately classified into three groups (High, Medium, and Low Usage) based on the overall mean scores and frequency of strategy use of each group of strategy. Table 3.2 illustrates the results.

Table 3.2

Differences in the Means of Reported Strategy Use

Strategy usage	Number of participants (N)	Percent
High	12	35.5%
Medium	14	41%
Low	8	23.5%
Total	34	100%

As Table 3.2 shows, 41% of subjects who participated in study were medium strategy users ($3.4 \geq M \geq 2.5$), while 35.5 % of participants were high strategy users ($M \geq 3.5$), and 23.5% demonstrated low strategy usage. Also, the overall mean score of the writing strategy questionnaire demonstrates that the participants of the study were medium strategy users ($M = 3.35$).

According to the results of the participants' performance on the questionnaire, three skilled writers were amongst the high strategy users while out of five poor writers, students number 29 and 28 were mid strategy users and students number 30 and 31 were low strategy users. Table 3.3 reports the participants' mean score on the questionnaire.

Table 3.3

Grouping Participants According to the Strategy Use

Participants	Overall mean score	Usage
S(2)	3.7	High strategy user
S(3)	3.7	High strategy user
S(4)	3.5	High strategy user
S(29)	2.6	Mid strategy user
S(28)	2.5	Mid strategy user
S(30)	2.3	Low strategy user
S(31)	1.9	Low strategy user

Next, the composition instructors' ideas were obtained. They were given a checklist containing the names of the students (see Appendix D). The instructors were required to tick on the suitable box provided in front of the students' names under the categories of poor, average, and good. The instructors' ideas were in line with the participants' scores gained holistically; that is, those who scored high in the cause-effect essay were considered good writers by their instructors and those who scored low in the essay were considered poor by their composition instructors. This, in return, gave more support to Angelova's (1999) conclusion that in EFL setting, writing scores of the participants supported by their instructors' ideas are the better indicators of the participants' writing ability.

The scores of the participants on their previous writing courses were the last sources of data. I talked to the staff of the university and they provided me with the print of the participants' scores on their previous writing courses of paragraph writing, essay writing, and letter writing. The results are shown in Table 3.4. Note that the scores are out of 20.

Table 3.4

Participants' Scores on their Previous Writing Courses

Name	Previous writing scores			
	Paragraph writing	Essay writing	Letter writing	Average
S(2)	19	18	19	18.5
S(3)	19	17	18	18
S(4)	18	16.5	18	17.5
S(29)	16	14	14.5	15.
S(28)	15	14	14	14.33
S(30)	15	13	14	14
S(31)	14	13	13	13.33

As can be seen from Table 3.4, S(2), S(3), and S(4) with 18.5, 18, and 17.5 average scores respectively are the students with high scores and in contrast, S(29), S(28), S(30), and S(31) with 15, 14.33, 14, and 13.30 average scores respectively are the students with low scores in their previous writing courses. A comparison of the participants' obtained scores on their writing courses and their scores gained as a result of the holistic scoring revealed that the average score of the three good writers was also high here. With respect to the poor writers, participant 29 was discarded because not only his average score on the previous writing courses was higher than the other three poor writers, but also his average mean score on the items of the questionnaire was more than that of the other poor writers (see Table 3.3). Considering the aforementioned criteria, three skilled writers and three less skilled writers were identified for the study and were assigned pseudonyms. Consider the following table.

Table 3.5

Summary of the Participants' Profile

Name	Final score on the holistic scoring (between 34 and 100)	Average score on the previous writing courses (out of 20)	Instructors' ideas	Strategy user	Age	Sex	Group
Elham S(2)	83.5	18.5	Good	High	31	Female	Skilled
Ali S(3)	86	18.	Good	High	27	Male	Skilled
Majid S(4)	84	17.5	Good	High	26	Male	Skilled
Fati S(28)	51.5	14.3	Poor	Mid	25	Female	Less skilled
Pari S(30)	50.0	14	Poor	Low	26	Female	Less skilled
Sahar S(31)	44.5	13.3	Poor	Low	24	Female	Less skilled

Table 3.5 is the summary of the participants' profile in terms of their scores on the holistically scored essays, their previously obtained grades in their previous courses, their instructors' ideas, age, sex, and final grouping of the six writers of the study. As can be seen, four participants, out of six, were female and two were males. This was expected because many of the Iranian EFL learners are female.

Elham is a 31 year old woman with two children. She did not have any other instructions or English classes besides her normal English classes at university. She likes reading English journals and magazines in her free time. She also enjoys watching English movies as well as listening to English music. She won the first position with the highest average score amongst English major students. She lives in Bandar-e-Lenge, where the university in which I gathered the data is located. She believed that what counts in writing is conveying good and logical ideas to the reader. Besides, she believed that the coherence and unity of writing should also be taken into account.

Ali, another good writer, is 27 years old and single. He lives near Bandar-e-Lenge but during the semesters, he stays in a dormitory with his friends. He won the second position among EFL learners in Bandar-e-Lenge University. He seemed enthusiastic and ambitious in learning English. As he said in the interview, he always likes to be the best in his English classes; therefore, he manifests this behavior in his writing, as well. He believed that since he is a senior student learning English, his writing is supposed to show his mastery in grammar and vocabulary. In other words, his writing is the representative of his knowledge. He is keen on vocabulary learning and hence, tries to enhance his vocabulary domain via reading and memorizing English words.

Majid, the third good writer, is 26 years old and single. Unlike Elham and Ali who care about writing and vocabulary, Majid seems more enthusiastic about speaking skill and he believes that good pronunciation, in particular, is very important. He said that in writing, he tries to write as simple as possible and what counts is the smoothness and coherence of the writing. He likes listening to English music and watching English movies in his free time.

Fati, the first poor writer, is 25 years old and single. She lives in Bastak, a small town near Bandar-e-Lenge and she goes to her town and comes back to Bandar-e-Lenge quite often. She seems to be a sociable girl with sense of humor. She said that she likes English songs but does not listen to them very often. With respect to writing skill, she said that she enjoys writing in English since it was quite different from writing in her first language. In Farsi, she maintained, unity in writing is not that important while in English, writing is quite systematic and all the sentences in a paragraph or essay should support each other.

Pari, the second poor writer, is 26 years old belonging to a middle class family. Like other participants, she did not have any English classes except those at university. She seems relaxed and, more or less, carefree. She does not have any English reading outside the class since she generally does not like reading; neither does she like listening to English songs. She claims that, in writing, the ideas come to her haphazardly and she does not give the writing a great deal of thought in general. She also holds that she is weak in both vocabulary and grammar. Therefore, in writing, she tries not to put too much time on the grammar and vocabulary. Instead, she tries to move the writing ahead and toy with the words she knows to convey her ideas.

Sahar, the last poor writer, is 25 years old. She is the inhabitant of Bandar-e-Lenge and single. She enjoys watching English movies and English songs although she does not understand many of the words. She seemed clever and creative. She holds that she likes doing new things. This is also the case for writing. Since the topics of writings are not similar, any time she wants to write, it feels good. However, she believes that her limited knowledge of vocabulary prevents her from expressing what she wants to convey in English writing.

The Researcher's Role

University of Bandar-e-Lenge, as already mentioned, was the research site in the study. This university is the place where I have been teaching English for more than five years and hence, the students and university staff were familiar with me. This familiarity has both positive and negative points. As a student, the participants were willing to take part in the research. This voluntary participation, in return, enhances the reliability of the study (Wang, 2004). On the other hand, they may have tendency to provide the information I was looking for. Furthermore, being involved in “a sustained and intensive experience with participants” (Creswell, 2003, p. 184) can also lead the researcher to have biases that may affect his or her analysis. To avoid this shortcoming, Isakson and Boody (1993) maintain that the researcher should explicitly express his or her rationale in making decisions about different procedures of the study and be clear about his or her interests, values and beliefs. According to Tapinta (2006), relying on multiple sources of data and methods of analyses can also help decrease any biases. Being aware of these pros and cons, I played the role of the researcher and data collector in the study.

Sources of Data and Rationale for Employing Them

As many writing researchers (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980; Wang, 2004) believe, writing is a complex problem-solving process and takes up much short-term memory storage; as a consequence, some subjects may not be well able to think aloud as expected. If the cognitive demand is too high during writing, they may pause in silence for either idea generation or language retrieval (Wang, 2004). To make up for incompleteness as such, the researcher triangulates it with other sources of data including interviews, questionnaires, and written products.

Triangulation is a tactic of “using more than one method to study the same thing” (Vogt, 1993, p. 234). According to Patton (2002, p.247), “[T]riangulation strengthens a study by combining methods”. Denzin (1987) speaks of four basic types of triangulation including data triangulation (the use of different sources), investigator triangulation (the use of several different researchers), theory triangulation (the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data) and, methodological triangulation (the use of multiple methods to study a single problem or program). Miles and Huberman (1994) add data type (qualitative text, recordings, quantitative) to their list. I chose triangulation by method including both introspective verbal report (i.e., think aloud) and retrospective verbal report (i.e., interview, and stimulated recall), as well as data triangulation (written products). The choice of think aloud and interview was guided by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987); they suggest two major techniques of interviews and think aloud protocols for studies that intend to examine writers’ thought while composing.

These large quantities of data enable readers “to know the cases well and to consider corroborating cases or counter-examples” (Duff, 2008, p. 44). Triangulation, in

return, assures the construct validity of the findings because many researchers (Yin 1994, 2003; Miles & Huberman 1994) hold that triangulation enhances the credibility of study and hence, reduces the threat to construct validity.

In brief, the rationale for choosing the aforementioned sources of data is twofold. The first one lies in enhancing the trustworthiness of the study (Wang, 2004) and the second reason is to increase the depth of understanding of the issue under study. According to many scholars (e.g., Creswell, 2003; Wang, 2004), such multiple sources of data not only strengthen the validity of different data collection methods by crosschecking data, but also enable judgment about the fittingness of the research context with other context. Seidman (2006) has properly tied the two and disagrees with blind triangulation. The writer posits that “[W]hat are needed are not formulaic approaches [triangulation] to enhancing either validity or trustworthiness but understanding of and respect for the issues that underlie those terms” (p. 26). What is more, “every research method has its limits and its strengths” (Seidman, 2006, p. 130) and, the writer continues, in order for researchers to have valid and reliable interpretation, they should be familiar with them.

Writing Prompts

The six participants were required to compose two different writing genres: a narrative and an argumentative essay. The first prompt involved a narrative writing. The title was *“Think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of 200-300 words within two hours”*. The second one, as used in Sasaki’s (2000) study, asked the participants to write an expository argumentative essay. The title was *“Some people believe that the women*

should stay home after they get married. Others, however, hold the opposite idea. What do you think? Write a composition of 200-300 words within two hours”.

Think Aloud Protocols

Quite a lot of writing studies made use of think aloud as the main source of data gathering technique (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980; Lim, et al., 2011). This study also relied on think aloud as the main source of data collection by asking the participants to compose aloud an English argumentative essay and narrative writing. The participants were required to externalize and verbalize their thoughts in either Farsi or English while composing. Below is a detailed account of the way they were trained for think aloud.

Training of the Participants

According to many researchers (e.g., Ericsson & Simon, 1993), due to the unique feature of think aloud, the training conducted before actual think aloud is very important. In order to make sure from the readiness of the participants as well as the quality of training, I personally trained the participants. They were given the following set of instructions adapted from Perkins (1981, pp. 33-34) which was also used in Wong (2005). 1. Say whatever is on your mind. Do not hold back hunches, guesses, wild ideas, images and intentions. 2. Speak as continuously as possible. Say something at least once every five seconds, even if only, “I am drawing a blank”. 3. Speak audibly. Watch out for your voice dropping as you become involved. 4. Speak as telegraphically as you please. Do not worry about complete sentences and eloquence. 5. Do not over explain or justify. Analyze no more than you would normally do. 6. Do not elaborate past events. Get into the pattern of saying what you are thinking now. 7. Verbalize in English, Farsi or mixed code (partly English and partly Farsi) as you prefer.

Instead of modeling think aloud with a writing task, I made use of a math problem in addition to reading a paragraph and think aloud it so that they could not copy my modeling in their think aloud. Furthermore, the participants were required to practice it in my presence; thereby, I would be certain about the quality of think aloud. They were also allowed to use the language they felt more comfortable with and easier to use while conducting think aloud.

Stimulated Recalls

In order to compensate for the possible deficiencies or information loss of think aloud technique in providing complete data, other sources of data were also taken into consideration in this study. Stimulated recalls were one of these supplementary sources. Previously employed in other fields such as linguistics, they are recently used in writing (e.g., Boshier, 1998). In this method, the participants are provided with a stimulus to recall the events taking place in a prior time (Di Pardo, 1994). Furthermore, stimulated recalls, as Wang (2004) noted, are best used to fill up holes left in think aloud protocols which, in return, strengthens the reliability and validity of think aloud protocols. The participants in this study were provided with their think aloud protocols and their written products (i.e., stimulus), immediately after the writing sessions. The reason being that the data should be gathered “as soon as possible after the event which is the focus of the recall” (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 84). Hence, they had less difficulty recalling what they had in their minds and what they were thinking about (Gass & Mackey, 2000), especially, at the times of pauses. The rationale for choosing two sources of stimulus comes from Gass and Mackey (2000). They argue that “The stimulus should be as strong as possible. This may mean using a stimulus of more than one source” (p. 85).

Semi-Structured Interviews

Other supplementary source of data was interviewing. The interview made me able to elicit certain information probably not revealed through other sources of data collection (Bosher, 1998). For instance, as done in other studies (e.g., Beare, 2000; El Mortaji, 2001; Perl, 1979; Wang, 2004), I was able to elicit the information from the participants about the difficulties they had while composing in each discourse type or the solutions they found to those problems. As Chamot (2004, p. 15) maintains, “learners are asked to describe what they were thinking or doing during a recently completed learning task”. Furthermore, semi-structured interview made me able to yield more chances to probe. Probes are used to “deepen the response to a question, increase the richness and depth of responses, and give clues to the interviewee about the level of response that is desired” (Patton, 2002, p. 373). The interviewer’s role in interview is of vital importance because Patton (2002) believes that “the quality of information obtained during an interview is largely dependent on the interviewer” (p. 341); hence, reviewing different interview protocols, writing strategy questionnaires, as well as different taxonomies, I prepared the questions of the interview beforehand (see Appendix E).

Written Products

The finished products of the participants were also taken into account as the last source of data in this study. The reason, according to Van Someren et al. (1994, p. 15), is that “the solution to a problem may reflect aspects of the problem-solving behavior”. The notes, outlines, drafts, and final written products were matched with the stimulated recalls and think aloud protocols. Besides, as suggested by Gass and Mackey (2000), while the participants were being interviewed, their written products were in front of them to enable them to recall the strategies and processes they used while composing.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedure of the study began in the winter of 2009 and lasted for about two months. After identifying three skilled and three less skilled writers, the data were gathered as follows: Firstly, they were required to compose aloud. They performed the narrative discourse type first and, after about 10 days, they composed the argumentative task. The actual writing sessions and think aloud protocols were conducted in the laboratory of the English department of the university. This is in accord with many case study researches. Duff (2008) maintains that case study research “has often been conducted in research laboratories where the fidelity of recording equipment is greater, where other equipment can be used most effectively, and where the study can proceed without extraneous noise or interruptions” (p. 125). Considering the size of the room (18 meters) as well as the comfort of the participants while composing aloud, the participants did the writing sessions one by one. I made the arrangement with the participants according to the schedule we had designed; therefore, each participant exactly knew what time to do which assignment. When the assigned participants showed up, I talked to them to find out if they were ready to do the writing. The participant selected the seat and I reviewed the think aloud procedure for the participants again and in the case of not having problem or question, I would leave the room. The participant would start writing as soon as he or she felt ready. Immediately after each composing session, they were provided with their think aloud protocols as well as their written products as the stimuli. They listened to the protocols and in case of unintelligibility, data loss or long pauses, they could easily recall the information required. The stimulated recall was performed in Farsi and tape-recorded for later transcription and analysis. Afterwards, a retrospective interview was conducted with each participant to further provide data probably not revealed so far. Here again, the written products were present to help the participants recall the strategies they had

employed. The interview was also performed in Farsi and audio-taped for future transcription and analysis which is in line with what Seidman (2006, p. 114) holds. He postulates that “[T]he primary method of creating text from interviews is to tape-record the interviews and to transcribe them”. Table 3.6 shows the data collection procedures.

Table 3.6

An Overview of Procedure for the Data Collection Procedure

Week	Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity3
One	Explaining the aim of the study, administrating the consent form and the original writing strategy questionnaire.	Students write an essay to be holistically scored.	Distributing the validated questionnaire.
Two	Raters’ evaluation of the students’ essays.		
Three	Raters’ evaluation of the students’ essays.		
Four	Introducing and practicing think aloud procedure for the selected six participants.	Participants write the narrative task, perform stimulated recalls, and give interviews.	
Five	Participants write the narrative task, performed stimulated recalls, and give interviews.		
Six	Participants write the narrative task, performed stimulated recalls, and give interviews.	Participants write the argumentative task, performed stimulated recalls, and give interviews.	
Seven	Participants write the argumentative task, performed stimulated recalls, and give interviews.		
Eight	Participants write the argumentative task, performed stimulated recalls, and give interviews.		

As can be seen from Table 3.6, the data were gathered within 8 weeks and in each week, certain activities were performed. Two points are worth mentioning here. First, the participants composed narration in weeks four, five, and six and argumentation in weeks six, seven, and eight. Those who had performed narration

earlier in week four were called to perform argumentation in week six earlier, as well. Hence, the time interval between two composing sessions for each participant was about 10 days. Second, this step by step planning for data collection which is called “the case study protocol” is a strategy to enhance the reliability of case study research (Yin, 1994, 2003). Yin (2003, p. 57) posits that the case study protocol “is a major way of increasing the reliability of case study research” and it is used to “guide the investigator” in the process of data collection.

Data Analysis

In order to provide answers to the four proposed research questions of the study, the collected data including think aloud, stimulated recalls, interviews, and final written products were organized, analyzed, and interpreted (see below). Each individual writer was assigned a folder in which these gathered data were situated. Considering the aim of each research question, these data sets were compared and contrasted. Consider the second research question of the study which aims at finding the differences between good and poor writers. In order to find the differences between two groups of writers, three good writers and three poor writers were compared and contrasted firstly in the narrative writing and secondly in the argumentative writing. Certain different patterns emerged as a result of the mentioned procedure. Different data sources were called into action at this point. Then, I resorted to the data again to make sure about two points. The first point was the fact that the emerged differences between good and poor writers were valid. To do so, I tried to look for other instances of these differences or similarities. These recurring patterns were identified either in the think aloud protocols or in the data of interview and stimulated recalls. Note that I tried to be unbiased towards the data so that I would be able to see other possible interpretations. The second reason why I constantly moved back and forth between different data sources of the study and the

initial findings was to find further differences not revealed by the previous analysis. For instance, in the case that there was silence in think aloud protocols, I assumed that the writer was either thinking about generating new ideas or trying to retrieve a suitable English discourse. To shed light on the issue, I had to resort to stimulated recalls and interviews to see what exactly the writer was doing while being silent. What follows is a more detailed account of the way the data of the study were analyzed. The qualitative analysis of raw data in the study consisted of two parts: (a) interview and stimulated recall, and (b) think aloud protocols.

Interview and Stimulated Recall

These sets of data were complementary in this study. The data resultant from transcription and analysis of these sources were employed as a guide and supplementary in the analysis of the participants' composing behaviors, strategies, and processes. These pieces of information were particularly useful when there are information losses or unintelligibility in think aloud protocols. What is more, participants' solutions to composing problems were elicited through these supplementary sources. The interviews and stimulated recalls were selectively transcribed and analyzed by the researcher himself so that care is taken that the data may not be lost and that all the useful information is duly elicited.

Think Aloud Protocols

Protocol analysis was conducted via several steps including transcribing/translating the raw materials, developing an adapted coding system, segmenting the transcribed protocols, and finally coding the segmented protocols.

Transcribing/Translating the Recorded Think Aloud Protocols

Three good writers and three poor writers were required to produce a narrative and an argumentative writing; therefore, there were totally twelve think aloud protocols (see Appendices G and H). I manually transcribed the protocols verbatim so that no data would be lost and hence, the interpretation and analysis would be more valid and reliable. The six Iranian EFL undergraduate writers used Farsi, their mother tongue, extensively from beginning to the end of writing sessions. Therefore, transcribing the data was mostly accompanied by translating them. While transcribing/translating, I tried to find the closest English equivalents for their Farsi utterances so that the resultant written English discourse and the intended Farsi concept they had in mind would almost convey the same concept. For instance, by the time the writers used Farsi to generate ideas, the focus of translation was on the ideas and concepts while by the time they were looking for certain lexicons, the emphasis was more on the single words they were verbalizing. Below is an example of the Majid's think aloud protocols.

Majid, good writer, narrative task

"...the days I was experiencing, bad time, bad days, were...were so, it was very bad...it was very bad, terrible, terrible for me."

Translation

"...days ke man dashtam migzarundam, zamane badi bud, ruzhaye bad, were...were so, kheili bad bud, vahshatnak bud, terrible, terrible for me."

As can be seen, while composing, Majid intended to express the badness of the days he was experiencing. To this end, he searched his memory while uttering different Farsi words like "zamane bad", "kheili bad", and "vahshatnak" to find a good English equivalent. In Farsi, the degree of the harshness of these words increases from "bad", to "kheili bad" and finally to "vahshatnak". In order to convey what he uttered while composing, these Farsi words were translated to "bad", "very bad", and "terrible", respectively.

Coding System

It should be mentioned from the outset that the initial coding system adopted for this study played the role of a guide for me. According to Merriam (1998), in basic or generative qualitative research, the researcher looks for recurring themes and patterns; that is, data analysis is an inductive or bottom-up process. The initial coding scheme used in this study was the one basically developed by Perl (1979) for L1 writers. This scheme, due to its strength and elaborated nature, was later modified and used in L2/EFL studies by many researchers (e.g., Alharthi, 2011; Arndt, 1987, 1990; El Mortaji, 2001; Raimés, 1987; Rashid, 1996; Wang, 2004; Wong, 2005). Perl's scheme, as both Abdel Latif (2009) and Wang (2004) have summarized its strengths, can provide certain information after the coding of the think aloud protocols including the amount of time spent during pre-writing, writing each sentence, or between sentences; the strategies used in pre-writing, writing each sentence, and between each sentence; when editing occurs, the nature and the frequencies of editing behavior. Furthermore, with regard to the depth of the study besides being different in nature with other studies so far conducted in the field, I also considered other taxonomies put forth by other researchers such as Flower and Hayes (1980), Arndt (1987), Wenden (1991), Riazi (1997), Sasaki (2000), Woodall (2002), Mu (2006), and Hu and Chen (2008). Here is the list of the strategies.

Table 3.7

An Overview of Categories of Major and Minor Writing Strategies

Major Categories	Symbol	Minor categories	Symbol
abandoning ideas/language	AB	addition	add
brainstorming	BR	audience	aud
leaving blank for what could not be retrieved	BL	reordering	reo
circumambulation	CIR	content	c
direction reading	DR	Persian	P
editing (formal correctness)	ED	deletion	del
evaluation of text/self	EV	English	en
formulating position	FP	language	l
goal setting	GS	global	g
generating idea	GI	local	lo
use of mother tongue	L1	next/new paragraph	npr
monitoring language	MO	outline	o
rehearsing (trying out ideas and language)	RH	preposition	pr
repeating words or phrases in English or Persian	RP	punctuation	punc
rereading what has been written	RR	spelling	sp
revising (making changes for meaning)	RV	sentence structure	ss
scanning back over text written so far	SC	style	sty
self-questioning for content or language	SQ	substitution	sub
self-talk	ST	topic	t
task interpretation	TI	underlining	u
		time constraints	tc
		title	tt
		word choice	wc

Diacritics Used In the Analysis

{ }	composing episodes
	composing segments
[]	composing segment at sub level
<>	time used for each episode
---	interrupted speech

Segmenting the Transcribed Protocols

In order to facilitate description of the transcribed protocols, as done in many writing studies (e.g., Smagorinsky, 1987; Wang, 2004), the raw protocols were parsed into composing episodes. A composing episode in this study, according to Wang (2004), is a unit of concentration in the writer's composing process that marks the point where a shift occurs in the focus, attention, goal, or plan of the writer.

Coding the Segmented Protocols

Three writing processes of planning, translating, and reviewing which were present in the model of Flower and Hayes were coded and analyzed based on the coding system mentioned above. Below is an instance of coding system in this study. Note that since students spoke as they were writing nearly all their sentences, I did not include speaking as writing amongst the writing strategies.

Wr RHe Wr RP
“{For example,||**some of the people** some of the women||***the woman***
RHe Wr RR
like stay at home like stay at home||*for example some of the women*
RR Wr
like stay at home [*at home*] by themselves||< 00:44>}”

The whole episode lasts for 44 seconds. The writer starts writing the chunk (for example) in English followed by rehearsing the phrase (some of the people) in English. This rehearsal resulted in writing down the phrase (some of the women). Since the writer repeats the chunk (the woman) and this repetition leads to composing, this part is considered a new segment and hence, it is separated from the previous segment. Having repeated the chunk (the woman), the writer then rehearses another utterances (like stay at home) in English which results in writing it down. Then the writer rereads the previously composed parts in English and because it is followed by adding a new part (by themselves) to the written sentence, it is considered another segment.

In sum, employing the aforementioned data collection and analysis procedures made me able to provide answers to the research questions of the study. Depending on the nature and aim of each research question, the writing strategies that each writer in three main processes of planning, drafting, and reviewing employed were qualitatively studied across two writing tasks of narrative and argumentative, across two groups of skilled and less skilled writers, and within the same group.

Reliability of the Coding Scheme

In terms of the reliability of the coding, I performed both intra-rater and inter-rater reliability which is reported below.

Intra Rater Reliability

Out of participants' 12 think aloud protocols gathered from two writing discourse types performed by the six participants, I randomly selected 2 protocols of a narrative and an argumentative writing from each group to be coded again after a week from the first coding. The results of the reliability for each protocol are reported in

Tables 3.8, 3.9, 3.10, and 3.11. To get these results, I counted the number of the strategies identified in two situations, and then I checked the number of differences and similarities. Finally, I divided the total number of similar strategies by the total number of the strategies I previously identified and in order to get the percentage, the result was multiplied by 100. This procedure was performed for the main and the sub categories:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of similar strategies identified by a second coder and the researcher} \times 100}{\text{Total number of strategies identified by the researcher}}$$

Table 3.8

Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol A

Total number of strategies		Total number of similar strategies	Total number of different strategies
First coding	Second coding		
17	16	15	1
Reliability in protocol A		88%	

Table 3.9

Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol B

Total number of strategies		Total number of similar strategies	Total number of different strategies
First coding	Second coding		
23	21	19	2
Reliability in protocol B		83%	

Table 3.10

Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol A

Total number of strategies		Total number of similar strategies	Total number of different strategies
First coding 184	Second coding 201	170	31
Reliability in protocol A		85%	

Table 3.11

Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol B

Total number of strategies		Total number of similar strategies	Total number of different strategies
First coding 245	Second coding 258	235	23
Reliability in protocol B		91%	

Inter Rater Reliability

I also performed inter-rater reliability of the coding. I asked one of the EFL university instructors to code the data. He has been teaching English courses at the English department of Shiraz University for more than 15 years and luckily has a strong background in language learning strategies in general and writing strategies in particular. We firstly discussed the writing strategies I had identified in the data and then he coded two of the protocols. These two protocols were randomly selected from two groups of good and poor writers in each task; one of the protocols was from the poor group and the other one was from the good group. Protocol one which was randomly selected for the inter rater reliability was accidentally protocol A that was previously selected for intra rater reliability. These two protocols represented more than 10% of the whole data. The results are presented in the Tables 3.12, 3.13, 3.14, and 3.15.

Table 3.12

The Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol One

Total number of strategies		Total number of similar strategies	Total number of different strategies
The researcher 184	The coder 173	159	14
Reliability in protocol one		86%	

Table 3.13

The Percentage Agreement of the Main Categories in Protocol Two

Total number of strategies		Total number of similar strategies	Total number of different strategies
The researcher 177	The Coder 165	151	14
Reliability in protocol two		85%	

Table 3.14

The Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol One

Total number of subcategories		Total number of similar subcategories	Total number of different subcategories
The researcher 23	The coder 21	19	2
Reliability in protocol one		83%	

Table 3.15

The Percentage Agreement of the Subcategories in Protocol Two

Total number of subcategories		Total number of similar subcategories	Total number of different subcategories
The researcher 19	The coder 18	16	2
Reliability in protocol two		84%	

Now that the percentage of reliability for each protocol has been calculated, the following tables present the final percentage of the reliability.

Table 3.16

The Overall Average Intra Rater Reliability for the Main Categories and Subcategories

	Intra-rater reliability for the main categories	Intra-rater reliability for the subcategories
Protocol One	92%	88%
Protocol Two	96%	83%
Average	88%	85.5%

Table 3.17

The Overall Average Inter Rater Reliability for the Main Categories and Subcategories

	Inter-rater reliability for the main categories	Inter-rater reliability for the subcategories
Protocol One	86%	83%
Protocol Two	85%	84%
Average	85.5%	83.5%

As shown in Table 3.16 and Table 3.17, the final inter-rater reliability for the main categories and subcategories are 85.5% and 83.5% respectively, and the final intra-rater reliability for main and subcategories are 88% and 85.5 % respectively, which is, according to El Mortaji (2001), quite high.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the findings of the study with respect to the research questions introduced in chapter one. The first research question of the study concerned the strategies that skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL writers adopted while performing two different writing modes of narrative and argumentative. The second research question intended to find out the differences between strategies that two groups of skilled and less skilled writers adopted while composing. The third research question aimed at finding the differences between the composing strategies of the participants across narrative and argumentative writing. Finally, the fourth research question was formulated to find the effect of the writing discourse type on the strategies that each group of skilled and less skilled writers employ while writing. The data are presented in line with the research questions. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the way the data were analyzed vis a vis each research question.

Table 4.1

Presentation of Results in Chapter 4

Sections	Research Questions	Procedures
First Section	1. What writing strategies do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL learners employ throughout composing?	Identifying adopted writing strategies by skilled and less skilled writers in two discourse types of narrative and argumentative.
Second Section	2. How do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers differ in their use of writing strategies?	Comparing and contrasting of writing strategies in each discourse type of narrative and argumentative between two groups of skilled and less skilled writers in terms of planning, drafting, and reviewing.
Third Section	3. Do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary due to the discourse types?	Studying each group of skilled and less skilled writers separately in three processes of planning, drafting, and reviewing in narrative and argumentative discourse type.
Fourth Section	4. Do discourse types have a similar effect on the strategic behavior of both skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers?	Comparing and contrasting of each group of skilled and less skilled writers both within and between each group in narrative and argumentative discourse types in terms of the writing strategies they adopted in planning, drafting, and reviewing.

In order to elaborate the issues under study, quotations and related transcripts from the participants' think aloud protocols or interviews are given. Note that, as done in other writing studies (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001; Wang, 2004), underlined words are those written by the participants; *italic* words are the written words being read/reread in English; **bold** words are their thinking in English; simple Times New Roman words are their Farsi verbalizations; and *italic bold* words are the words being repeated. An example is provided below.

“It was awful in my life (the writer is writing the words down) in my life (the writer is rereading in English) I could not tolerate (the writer is verbalizing his thoughts in Farsi) tolerate (the writer is repeating in Farsi) because I cannot (the writer is thinking in English) what? (the writer is asking himself question in Farsi)...in my life (the writer is repeating in Farsi) it was awful (the writer is rereading in English) for me but he was very kind (the writer is writing)”

RQ1. What writing strategies do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL learners employ throughout composing?

Three Iranian EFL skilled writers of the study (Majid, Elham, and Ali) were found to employ a set of writing strategies throughout their composing in both narrative and argumentative discourse types to approach the writing, to interact with the text in progress, to generate ideas and text, and to perform reviewing. The adopted writing strategies were used in combination in recursive manner for meaning making and discovery. Hence, in line with the findings of other studies (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001; Lim, et al., 2011; Raimes, 1982; Wang, 2003), the writers carried out their writings through employing certain writing strategies cyclically in a way that the strategies constantly interrupted each other. These employed strategies across two discourse types are reported below in a more detailed account.

Skilled Writers’ Writing Strategies in the Narrative Writing

Planning

In the Flower and Hayes’ (1981) writing model, planning includes goal setting, idea generating, and idea organizing. Three skilled writers of the study were found to set themselves goals to achieve and create/organize ideas. They set themselves procedural, content, and rhetorical goals and this goal setting behavior was almost observed throughout their narrative writing. As for idea creating/organizing, they generated and organized their ideas through seeking help from three different components of Flower

and Hayes' (1981) writing model including task environment (rereading the writing prompt and repeating the key words), their long term memory (retrieving information), and the produced materials (rereading, scanning, repetition of words, chunks, and sentences). Furthermore, the writers of the study were found to plan not only at the outset of their writing, but they also did planning during their composing. The strategies the writers employed at the outset of their protocols were direction (re)reading, interpreting the writing task, self-questioning, brainstorming, goal setting, and L1 use. The strategies they employed during writing were planning to finish/start a paragraph as well as setting procedural goals.

The skilled writers of the study read direction for the first time to know what it entailed. Then, they reread it in order to get aid from the task environment to generate ideas and plan the content because, according to Flower and Hayes (1980), the ideas and concepts are stored in the memory in different forms and representations and the writer's job is to retrieve the related ideas to translate them into written language. In this respect, Ali, Majid, and Elham were found to reread and repeat the key words in the prompt in order to get help to recall/generate the ideas. However, they took different steps while reading the direction. Ali kept rereading the prompt while brainstorming and asking himself questions; Elham reread the direction for herself for three times while she translated the prompt into her mother tongue; Majid read and reread the direction for once only and then he started writing his narration. Consider the following think aloud excerpt from Majid:

Excerpt 1 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)=87

“Think about the most interesting moment in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of 200 to 300 words within 2 hours. Think about the most interesting moment in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of 200 to 300 words within 2 hours”. (00.01.04)

As the first example shows, Majid read the writing prompt for the first time to know what it is and he reread it for the second time so that he can retrieve the related information from his long term memory to compose about.

Task interpretation was another strategy only Elham, the skilled writer, employed in the pre writing stage of her narrative writing. Considering the fact that there was no difficult word in the writing prompt, she seemed to interpret the task for herself so that another chance might be given to her schemata to be activated for recalling/generating ideas. In other words, the aim for task interpretation was not due to her linguistic deficiency; rather, it was done for the purpose of idea searching in her long term memory. Consider the following extract:

Excerpt 2 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“...Think about one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper, write a composition of 200-300 words, about what interesting moments... interesting...the moments which ...interesting in your life...(00.02.33)”

As extract 2 shows, Elham appeared to repeat and reread the prompt and its key words in both English and Farsi to search her memory in order to spot one of the best moments of her life.

Use of mother tongue or L1 use was another writing strategy that Ali and Elham employed in their pre writing stage of their narrative task. L1 use has been found to be among the unique features of EFL writers, as also shown by other studies (e.g., Wang & Wen, 2002). Analysis of their think aloud protocols revealed that Ali and Elham translated the prompt for themselves. They apparently had no problem understanding the direction; however, they reread and translated the prompt in order to make sure they understood it completely and search their memories more efficiently. The writers also

seemed to use their mother tongue as a tool to help them retrieve/generate the ideas at this stage. As excerpt 2 above shows, Elham read the narrative prompt 4 times while translating it into Farsi. She said in the interview that she understood it for the first time but reread and translated it in order to ensure what she understood was right. What is more, repeating and rereading the translation of the writing prompts seemed to enable her to spot the most suitable piece of information in her long term memory.

Self-questioning was another writing strategy that only Ali employed in the narrative task. In order to retrieve related information from his long term memory, he seemed to ask himself questions while using the key terms in the assignment (see example 3). Ali employed this strategy in the narrative task while Elham and Majid did not ask themselves questions in either task. It seems that, unlike the argumentative task where the participants relied on the setting procedural goal, brainstorming, and rehearsing, as will be seen, the writers heavily relied on their long term memory for information retrieval in the narrative task. This could be attributed to the format and nature of the narration. Compared to the argumentative task where the writers used the knowledge of the format of the argumentation like introduction, support, and conclusion, in the narrative task they just relied on their memory to simply recall a story to narrate. The same behavior was also reported by El Mortaji (2001) where the Moroccan EFL writers did not use their learned knowledge about different parts of an essay. El Mortaji then hypothesized that different genres of writing have their own different theories and they cannot be used interchangeably in different task types. The following example is given for illustration.

Excerpt 3 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“...The third subject, what can it be? What can it be? Entering university emm paying a visit to relatives in Emirates, emm, what can the third subject be? What should I write? The most interesting moment...”

As example 3 illustrates, looking for the information in his long term memory, Ali asked himself a question twice in the narrative task. This strategy proved to be successful for him because he could remember the other two events from which he could select one to write about.

Like self-questioning, brainstorming was another strategy adopted only by Ali at the outset of his think aloud protocols in the narrative task type. Consider the following excerpt.

Excerpt 4 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“...being accepted for the university, visiting the relatives after 15 years. The third subject, what can it be? ... Something that is both interesting and has happened for me, this is a hard topic...generally, there is nothing interesting ... the most interesting moment...Aha, I remember, ranked as the second top student...”

As example 4 illustrates, Ali seemed to have problem spotting a good moment of his life in his long term memory and that is why he resorted to brainstorming strategy. As he later said in his interview, his life has been a routine one with no special happening. He said that in the case of being asked about the worst moment either, again he would have difficulty finding one in his life.

Goal setting was another writing strategy adopted only by Ali. As Flower and Hayes (1980) noted, goal setting is the strategy by which the writers plan both what and how they want to express themselves. The goals writers set for themselves, on the other hand, can be about content, rhetoric, or procedure (Flower & Hayes, 1980). In the pre writing stage of the narrative task, due to being an advance planner, Ali set himself a process goal to achieve. Unlike Elham and Majid who were emergent planners and planned their next step as they were proceeding with their writings, Ali was the skilled writer who liked to firstly generate/organize his ideas and then embark on drafting.

Moreover, the goals he set for himself were of both macro and micro nature. In the macro level, he specified his general steps to be taken throughout his writing; in the micro level, on the other hand, he specified only his immediate action. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 5 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“...I will firstly focus on the content and later on I deal with the revision and editing”.

Excerpt 6 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“...So I firstly write the content”.

Excerpt 5 where Ali planned how to generally perform the task is an instance of setting process goal at macro level while excerpt 6 where he planned his next step exemplifies the micro goal Ali set before drafting his narration. At the same time, it can be said that Ali also set a rhetorical goal in the sixth example in the sense that he knows how to start his narration.

Translating

Translating is the act of composing the writer’s thoughts into written speech (Hayes & Flower, 1980). At this stage, the ideas created in the planning are put into written language. The strategies that the three good writers of the study employ at this stage were rereading/repetition, rehearsing, use of mother tongue, scanning, and circumambulation.

Rereading/repetition were two main strategies the writers employed while carrying out their narrative writing. As did the good writers in El Mortaji’s (2001) study, the writers employed these two strategies at different occasions to fulfill different functions. They reread over the outline (only in case of Ali), chunks, sentences, and a group of sentences to not only know what was said before, but the writers also reread to

know what should be said in the forthcoming part. In other words, the writers constantly used rereading/repeating strategies to fulfill two functions of taking care of the coherence of the ideas and knowing what word to use next. Employing Flower and Hayes' (1980) terminologies, the three writers constantly and simultaneously searched their memories for language to a great extent, and ideas to a lesser extent, through these two strategies. Therefore, in general, Ali, Majid, and Elham seemed to employ rereading/repeating in order to establish an interaction between the text and themselves.

However, the three writers differed from each other in the way they used rereading. Majid and Ali were different from each other in the purpose they employed rereading while Elham was different from the other two writers in the language in which she performed rereading. Majid was the skilled writer who mainly used rereading or repetition by the time he was looking for English lexicon and it seems that he was not reliant on the already produced materials to move the narrative text ahead. The reason, as he said in his interview, was the fact that his being accepted to work in his favorite organization was truly the best moment of his life and because of this, he could easily recall the moment and write it down. Ali, on the other hand, was the good writer who highly cared about the English words he intended to use and in order to write down good words, he appeared to be much dependent on the text in progress; hence, rereading the produced materials was a prevalent strategy throughout his writing. Elham, another good writer, had a different story. Unlike Ali who reread the produced materials in both languages of Farsi and English, Elham was another skilled writer who did rereading mostly in her mother tongue. Like Ali, she seemed to use the written materials not for the purpose of getting help to move the text ahead. Rather, she reread the written parts to get help for selecting the discourse in a way that she would produce a coherent text. In other words, she seems to use rereading as a way of planning the forthcoming ideas

so that the written discourse would follow each other logically. The following examples illustrate the aforementioned differences between the three writers.

Excerpt 7 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“Therefore when the site of custom, **customs affair**, *affaires*, *affaires* announced, *the site of customs affaires*, emm what was the word? To announce... to tell people... to show on TV, *custom affairs*, aha **announce** announced the result of the examination...”

Excerpt 8 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“...they didn't return to they didn't return to Iran until I, I was in the secondary school, I went to UAE with my father, *went* ...*travel* is better *so I traveled to UAE, so I traveled to UAE with my father, to visit them after a long time*”.

Excerpt 9 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“Because becoming a mother was a gift from God, *I was thankful of my God, I had many wishes*, to treat my kids, many wishes for making my child as one of one of the, as one of the, one of the best one of the best humans that for making my child as one of the, *one of the best humans that can be useful* that can be useful, *that can be useful for the society.*”

Examples 7, 8, and 9 show the way Majid, Ali, and Elham used rereading in the narrative writing. In example 7, Majid reread the written sentence so that it might help him recall the word “announce” and it seemed that it was a successful strategy for him. In example 8, Ali decided to substitute “travel” with “went” as a result of rereading a sentence. He seemed to reread over the sentence for three purposes of confirming his decision about the change he intended to have, remembering what he was writing so that the ideas would follow each other smoothly, and enabling him to finish the sentence. Example 9 shows the way Elham used rereading. As can be seen, like Ali, Elham appeared to be much dependent on the produced text. However, she mainly used Farsi to reread the written materials.

L1 use was another strategy the good writers employed while writing their narration. As with the L2 writers of other studies (e.g., Woodall, 2002), the writers of this study, too, employed their mother tongue to the extent that finding a segment in

their think aloud protocols without a L1 word was almost impossible. The writers, intentionally or un-intentionally, used their mother tongue in the form of translation or code switching. Intentional L1 use was the time where the writer (see example 14) used Farsi to express feelings and ideas either about the task or himself while in the un-intentional L1 use (see examples 10, 11, 12, and 13), the writer used Farsi to plan and generate the content of writings. Regarding translation, it was done at sentence level. The writers either translated the written materials to Farsi for different purposes of generating idea, establishing coherence between what was said and what was going to be said, and for the purpose of writing them down. In the code switching, however, the writers switched between Farsi and English at the word level and the purpose was mainly lexical seeking. In either case, they properly moved between two languages so that no interference was witnessed between their Farsi thinking and English writing.

Therefore, whether intentionally or un-intentionally, code switching or translation, the good writers appeared to employ their mother tongue positively and effectively for three main reasons at different occasions. In order to produce ideas, L1 was the strategy the writers employed in three occasions of beginning, middle, and within the sentences. For the purposes of finding English equivalents and verifying the accuracy of the intended discourse, the writers used Farsi within the sentences in progress. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 10 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“We almost stay there for fifteen days and then came back, we stayed there almost fifteen days *about fifteen days* and we came back to Iran, went back to Iran with very unforgettable and nice memories, with sweet memories.”

Excerpt 11 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“I opened the door *the door* of the drivers I could not talk, I could not speak, I breathed deeply, I took a deep breath, and said to Mr. Mandegari, I was accepted, he got very happy, he was very happy.”

Excerpt 12 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

*“...The feeling of the feeling of being mother, mother was very worthy ... the word valuable ... that happened in my life was the time the God gave me my first child. The feeling of being mother was very worthy, **worthy** worthy, worthy, for me...”*

Excerpt 13 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“It was so interesting for me...to me or for me? It was so interesting ... for me, interesting to me, it was so interesting for me...”

Excerpt 14 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“This is a hard topic.”

Examples 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 show the ways L1 was employed by the writers. Example 10 is an instance of L1 use for idea creating at the beginning and within the sentences. Ali employed his mother tongue to perform rehearsal for the purpose of idea creation both before a sentence (“we almost stayed there for fifteen days and then came back”) and within the sentence (“with very unforgettable and nice memories”). Example 11, on the other hand, is an instance of L1 use in the middle of the sentences for creating new ideas. Majid, as example 11 shows, created new ideas (“I could not talk”, “I opened the door”, “he got very happy”) while constructing the sentence. Excerpt 12 shows the intentional use of mother tongue for the purpose of lexical searching; Elham resorted to two strategies of L1 use and rereading strategies to recall the word “worthy”. These strategies proved to be successful for her and she was able to retrieve the word from her long term memory. Example 13 is an instance of using L1 as a criterion for verifying the acceptability of the English discourse. Note that the same behavior was reported by the Canadian participants in Cumming’s (1989) study. As shown in example 13, L1 use appeared to enable Ali to decide between “interesting to me” or “interesting for me”. Finally, example 14 shows the un-intentional use of L1. Due to having problem finding a good moment in his life, Ali judged the narrative task as difficult.

Rehearsal, trying the ideas out before writing them down, was another strategy the writers employed in their narrative writings. Certain points are worth mentioning about rehearsing. Firstly, as also reported by Raimes (1987) and Lim et al. (2011), the writers of this study, too, were found to employ rehearsing as one of their main techniques to move their writing ahead in either task. Secondly, apart from this idea creating function of rehearsing, the way the writers performed rehearsing seemed to be for the purpose of handling the writing constraints. In the first place, they rehearsed the whole idea at the beginning of the sentences and then during writing, those rehearsed ideas were written down part by part. Hence, during writing, rather than making effort to generate new ideas, they could pay attention to other aspects of writing such as cohesion. In the second place, they mainly rehearsed their ideas in Farsi which was their mother tongue. Thinking in their first language seemed to be less cognitively demanding than in their foreign language.

In general, the writers adopted rehearsing at different occasions for different reasons. Rehearsing ideas at the beginning of the paragraphs was what Ali, to a great extent, and Elham, to a lesser extent, employed. Like the good writers in Yang (2002) and Hu and Chen's (2008) study, Majid, Elham, and Ali were found to articulate long and complete sentences. Examples 15 and 16 are the instances of rehearsing at the beginning, between, and within the sentences in progress.

Excerpt 15 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“There were many close relatives there. I knew no one there, my father introduced them to me one by one...emm, I visited a lot of ...unknown people that *unknown people* that my father had to intro, intro introduce to me introduce for me.”

Excerpt 16 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“I opened the door, *the door* of the drivers I could not talk, I could not speak, I breathed deeply, I took a deep breath, and said to Mr. Mandegari, I was accepted, he got very happy, he was very happy.”

In example 15, Ali, through using his mother tongue, firstly rehearsed the whole ideas verbally at the beginning of the sentence (“There were many close relatives there. I knew no one there, my father introduced them to me one by one”) and then started writing them down part by part (“introduce to me”). Excerpt 16 is an instance of rehearsal between the sentences in progress taken from Majid’s think aloud protocols. Majid rehearsed three sentences of “I could not talk”, “I breathed deeply”, and “he got very happy” while carrying out his narrative writing. This latter use of rehearsing seemed to be adopted by three writers to take care of the coherence of the writing as well as reviewing the ideas they have already come up with.

Self-questioning was another strategy adopted by Majid and Ali in their narrative writing. Unlike their pre writing stage where it was only Ali who used this strategy in order to recall one of the best moments of his life, they employed this strategy almost in similar occasion. Both Ali and Majid asked themselves questions by the time they intended to recall an English word from their long term memories or being in doubt about prepositions. Thus, unlike their poor counterparts who adopted this strategy for creating new ideas, Ali and Majid used this strategy for language purpose only. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 17 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“Therefore when the site of custom, customs affair, affairs, *affaires* announced, *the site of customs affaires*, emm what was the word? To announce... to tell people...to show on TV, aha announce, *custom affairs* announced the result of the examination...”

Excerpt 18 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“...It was interesting to me or for me? ...”

Extracts 17 and 18 show the adoption of self-questioning strategy to search the memory for retrieving suitable English discourse. In example 17, Majid asked himself a question when trying to recall the word “announce”. It seems that this was a right

choice because he could recall the intended word after asking himself the question. In example 18, too, Ali employed self-questioning strategy for selecting the right preposition. He seemed to use self-questioning strategy since he should hear the word; therefore, it can be said that he made his choice based on what sounds right on this occasion.

Scanning a group of sentences or the whole narrative text was another strategy employed only by Ali. Note that the reason why Ali scanned his text was different from the reason the poor writers employed scanning. The poor writers used scanning strategy for different reasons like knowing what they wrote and how they should continue, getting help from the written materials to generate new ideas in order to move the writing ahead and finally, remembering what they were writing. Ali, however, scanned his narrative text to improve it regarding the content, grammar, and vocabulary. The following extract shows the time when Ali decided to scan the narrative text.

Excerpt 19 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...Ok, let’s check the writing in terms of the grammar, vocabulary, and content. So I reread it once very fast...”

In example 19, having written his first draft, Ali decided to scan it so that it would help him improve the text not only in terms of the meaning and content i.e., at the global or macro level, but also in terms of the language i.e., local or micro level.

Circumambulation, recalling an English word through using different L1 equivalents, was another strategy identified in the data. The term was borrowed from Wang (2004). Majid was the good writer who appeared to employ this strategy once in his narrative writing. He repeated related Farsi words so that it resulted in finding his

intended English counterpart. Put it simply, while searching his memory for English equivalent, he used the related synonyms in Farsi. The following extract is the examples of the way he used circumambulation in his narrative writing.

Excerpt 20 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“...the days I was experiencing, bad time, bad days, were...*were so*, it was very bad...it was very bad, terrible, *terrible for me*.”

Translation of Excerpt 20 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“...days ke man dashtam migzarundam, zamane badi bud, ruzhaye bad, were...*were so*, kheili bad bus, vahshatnak bud, terrible, *terrible for me*.”

Example 20 illustrates the way Majid employed circumambulation strategy. He intended to say that he had really bad days and by using certain Farsi expressions, he came up with the word “terrible” after repeating certain Farsi equivalents.

Reviewing

According to Hayes and Flower (1980), reviewing consists of revising, editing and evaluating. Revising is undertaken to change ideas or coherence of information to improve the comprehensibility of the text. This process of making changes also involves evaluating the plan and the composed text and can lead to a recursive planning and translating processes. Through revising and evaluating, editing is performed to meet “standard language conventions, accuracy of meaning, reader understanding, or reader acceptance” (Hayes & Flower, 1980, p. 18).

The good writers of the study adopted reviewing strategy from the very beginning up to the very end of their writings and thus, as also noted by other researchers like Zamel (1982) and El Mortaji (2001), unlike the linear model of writing in which reviewing is adopted at the end of writing to improve the text, revision and editing were the strategies the writers employed throughout their composing processes.

Furthermore, the writers, as also noted by Flower and Hayes (1980), reviewed not only their ideas in their minds, but they also reviewed their sentences while and after writing them down. The following examples are the instances of using reviewing strategy at the level of rehearsing, while writing, and after writing in the narrative task type. Three examples below can illustrate the point.

Excerpt 21 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“**I have** no I had so stress...”

Excerpt 22 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“**It’s not bad**, It is not bad to tell I think it is better to use **say** instead of **tell**...”

Excerpt 23 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“So, I went to UAE with my father, **travel** is better than **went**, so I traveled...”

Example 21 shows the adoption of reviewing strategy while an idea is being rehearsed. As can be seen, Majid rehearsed “I have” before writing the idea down. But immediately, by verbalizing “no”, he writes “I had” indicating that he consciously reviews what he is rehearsing. Example 22 is an instance of reviewing while writing. Ali decided to use the word “say” instead of “tell” while involved in composing. Excerpt 23 depicts Ali’s same reviewing behavior that occurred after writing down an idea. As shown, he decided to change the word “went” with “travel” after he wrote the word down.

Another point regarding reviewing is the role of rereading. Rereading is one of the components of the reviewing process in the Flower and Hayes’ (1981) writing model. The three good writers of the study modified their narrative text either as a result of rereading it or it took place without rereading. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 24 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“My feeling is... my feeling is, was, is, it is about past...my feeling was...”

Excerpt 25 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“... I wanted my God to help me ...as one of the best ~~people~~ person is a better word here....”

Excerpt 24 is an instance of text modification after rereading the sentence while example 25 shows modification without rereading the already produced material. Majid changed the verb “is” to “was” as a result of rereading the sentence. He realized that he should change the tense to the past because he was writing about a past event. In example 25, however, Elham decided to substitute “person” with “people” without rereading the produced discourse.

Another point worthwhile mentioning about the good writers’ reviewing was the way they revised their narrative text. Many of the changes they made to their narrative text seemed to be performed while they had the reader in their minds and hence, they appeared to modify their narrative text based on what Flower (1998) describes as “reader-based” prose, opposed to the “writer-based” view which was adopted by the poor writers. While the writer writes in a way that everything would be clear to the reader in the former writing, in the latter, the writer takes the reader’s understanding for granted and assumes that comprehension is the reader’s duty. The good writers composed and modified their texts so that their sentences follow each other smoothly. Although not directly stated in their verbalizations, their revision and even editing activities were used in a way that the reader would follow their text without difficulty. Perhaps, Ali’s think aloud is a good case in this point.

Excerpt 26 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

*“So, I travelled to UAE with my father with my father to visit them. I should change this part since if I write **them**, it means those who live in Qatar, *to visit I travelled to UAE with my father to visit my relatives in UAE.”**

In example 26, Ali replaced “my relatives in UAE” with “them” in order to decrease the confusion of the idea which suggests the readership concern.

Skilled Writers’ Writing Strategies in the Argumentative Writing

Planning

Planning strategies, according to Flower and Hayes (1980), are behaviors that enhance the processes of goal setting, idea generating, and idea organizing. Regarding the writers’ planning, there are certain points worthy of noting. Firstly, Ali, Majid, and Elham were found to constantly perform planning and hence, as also found in other studies (e.g., Lim et al., 2011; Zamel, 1982), their writing processes were of cyclical nature in which the writers constantly plan, write, and review their ideas and their written texts.

Secondly, compared to their narrative writing, they were found to use their learned knowledge of different parts of an essay which was employed in the form of a process goal. This process goal, in return, can be equated with the “composing plans” of the Flower and Hayes (1980) model by which the writers are able to produce acceptable prose. Planning to finish/start a paragraph and setting process goals were used for this aim. Thirdly, apart from “composing plans”, the writers seemed to be quite aware of the two other kinds of planning activities. They, as described by Flower and Hayes (1981), include “planning to do” and “planning to say”. Planning to do is a sort of planning in which the writer is aware of the general aim of the writing whereas planning to say is planning the actual content of the writing. The good writers of the study appeared to perform planning to do quite fast. By the time they read the argumentative prompt for the first time, they realized that they should discuss in favor of their idea. They also performed “plan to say” activities. This was especially the case for Elham and Ali.

Through performing planning at both global and local level, they seemed to have a general picture of their essays. In other words, compared to the poor writers who just planned their essays at the very global or abstract level, good writers moved to what Flower (1998) describes as the operational definition of their goals.

In short, three good writers were found to be aware of the importance of planning both before and during composing and they were constantly involved in setting goal and idea generating/organizing. In order to carry out planning, they resorted to certain strategies such as direction reading, task interpretation, L1 use, and brainstorming. Elham's think aloud protocols at the outset of her argumentative essay is a good case in this point (see Appendix I , Longer Extract 1).

Longer Extract 1 shows the way Elham read direction, used her mother tongue, brainstormed her ideas, planned at both levels of global and local, generated/organized certain ideas, and set herself procedural and content goals to achieve before starting her argumentative text. Having read the writing assignment for the first time, she seemed to understand what to do and performed an invisible "plan to do", immediately. She, then, initiated setting herself abstract procedural, rhetorical, and content goals to achieve by saying (first of all, this subject should be discussed that the responsibility of the women after marriage cannot let them work outside). At the same time, in order to create certain main ideas, she appeared to employ brainstorming strategy while having an eye on what Flower (1998) describes as "operational definition" of her ideas she would write about later in her essay. She then finished her initial planning with what Flower and Hayes (1981) describe as eventual plan to write an introduction by saying (Now I had better write an introduction).

Formulating position or intentional side taking was another strategy identified in Ali's think aloud protocols. Look at the following excerpt.

Excerpt 28 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)
"...I believe that the women should stay home."

In example 28, Ali explicitly took his side announcing that he believes in the idea that women should stay home after marriage. Perhaps, he used this strategy so that he can categorize the ideas in his mind easily. Given that neither Majid nor Elham employed this strategy, the reason for employing formulating position strategy seemed to be his writing habit. Also, considering the fact that Ali was a pre planner, it can be said that he was the writer who preferred to explicitly mention everything before starting his essay.

Apart from employing "plan to do" and "plan to say" done via different strategies like direction reading, L1 use, and brainstorming, the three good writers in the study also used certain "composing plans" while composing the argumentative task. These strategies were planning to finish/start a paragraph as well as setting procedural goals. They constantly set themselves goals to achieve and, as Flower and Hayes (1981) believe, they mostly set goals to achieve than creating new ideas to continue. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 29 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)
"...Ok, this was our first idea, let's go to the second."

Excerpt 30 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)
"...ok, that was the second main idea, now we should support and elaborate the point".

Example 29 is an instance of planning to finish/start a paragraph while example 30 is the instances of goal setting strategy. Ali, in example 29, decided to finish his first

supporting paragraph and move to the second one. In extract 30, Majid set himself a rhetorical goal by mentioning that he intended to provide supporting ideas for the main idea.

Translating

The three good writers of the study employed certain strategies while translating or actual writing. Through translating their abstract ideas into written language, in keeping with what Raimes (1982) found in her study about good writers, three good writers of this study were found to have a good interaction with their texts. Adopting rereading, repetition, self-questioning, and L1 use, the writers constantly recalled the information from their long term memory to write them down and the produced text, in return, helped them to create more ideas. Hence, as reported by Lim et al. (2011), the strategies were used in combination in a recursive manner for meaning making.

Repetition and rereading were amongst the main strategies that Ali, Majid, and Elham employed in their argumentative writing. As in their narrative task, the writers repeated the last parts of the discourse or reread over their outlines, chunks, sentences, and a group of sentences. They employed these two strategies to not only know what was said before (i.e., look back), but the writers also reread to know what should be said in the forthcoming part (i.e., look ahead) to fulfill two functions of taking care of the coherence of the ideas and knowing what word to use next. The main aim of rereading/repeating was creation of an interaction between the text and the writer.

However, the writers were found to employ these two strategies almost differently. Ali employed what Manchon et al. (2000) described as prospective and retrospective function of rereading in order to generate new ideas and review his text,

respectively. Elham and Majid, in contrast, appeared to mostly use rereading for the purpose of generating new ideas i.e., prospective function (see Appendix I, L. Ex. 2 and 3). Long Extract 2 taken from Majid's think aloud protocols shows the way he employed the prospective function of rereading while L. Ex 3 shows that Ali employed rereading strategy both retrospectively and prospectively. Considering what Raimes (1987) held about rereading that in order to understand the purpose of rereading, one should look at the activity that happens after rereading, it can be seen that Majid performed rereading for creating new ideas; he added certain ideas to his text after rereading the already produced discourse. He added "women must stay home" after rereading "Muslims believe that". Then again, rereading the sentence "many Muslims believe that women must stay home" plus repeating the word "home" resulted in producing "and don't like" to his text. In example 3, however, Ali repeated the small units of "should" and "because of some" while writing so that he would remember what he was writing. In terms of rereading, as shown in the example, Ali reread over the sentence he has already composed for three times while the purpose was the same. For the first time, he forgot what he was writing because of the fact that after writing down the sentence, he rehearsed the whole idea he intended to write about. He did rereading for the second time since he was still looking for the vocabulary and asking himself question. Finally, having rehearsed the ideas and felt ready to write, he reread the written sentence to enable him to link the previous ideas to the new ones. Therefore, he used rereading and repetition strategy to take care of the comprehensibility, meaning, grammar, and unity of writing. In other words, as his peers in this group, Ali tried to have a good interaction between himself and his text by using these two strategies.

L1 use or the use of mother tongue strategy was another main strategy Ali, Majid, and Elham employed while carrying out their argumentation. They used their

mother tongue to the extent that it was almost impossible to find a segment of the protocols devoid of Farsi thinking/word, proving what Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010, p. 78) held about L1 in L2 writing that “the mother tongue is fairly ubiquitous in L2 writing”. In fact, as also reported by other studies like Woodall (2002), the good writers of the study were found to be heavily dependent on their first language in their planning (idea creating), translating (lexical seeking), and reviewing processes (giving comment). Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 31 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...Okay, due to certain reasons... the first one is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home. What is treating in English? ...”

Excerpt 32 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...It is better that I use another word instead of aim ... like purpose or objectives, we use objectives...”

Excerpt 33 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“...So here what counts is their agreement, first step, the first step, the first step, that a woman a woman must do it carefully is her agreement, *agreement*, the first thing, the first step is their agreement, when they get married, the house is the place that she should do her duties inside, when she married, the house is a place ...”

The examples above show the way Ali and Elham employed their mother tongue in the planning, translating, and reviewing processes. In example 31, Ali generated some ideas as well as searched for the English word “treating” through employing his first language. In example 32, he also used Farsi while reviewing the alternatives he could write for the word “aim”. Example 33 shows how Elham juggled between two languages while writing her argumentative task. She firstly generated and rehearsed her ideas completely in Farsi. While writing those ideas down, she constantly changed the language from Farsi to English and vice versa. It can be said that, being aware of her abilities in English, she appeared to have no problem moving between two languages because she did not produce any unacceptable English discourse.

Rehearsal, trying out ideas before writing them down, was another writing strategy the three writers made use of while carrying out their argumentative task. The three writers employed this strategy as one of their main techniques to generate new ideas, as reported by Raimes (1987). Another similarity among these three good writers in their rehearsing was in their medium through which they performed this strategy. They all rehearsed their ideas in Farsi, their mother tongue. Moreover, unlike their narrative writing where Elham and Majid, in particular, did not employ rehearsing at the beginning of the paragraphs, the three good writers were found to rehearse their ideas at length at the beginning of each paragraph perhaps because they needed to consider the unity of the ideas in the argumentative task. Furthermore, rehearsing their ideas at the outset of each paragraph helped the writers know what they intended to write beforehand; therefore, by the time they started writing each paragraph, they knew the main idea and hence, wrote the paragraphs coherently. Later, while composing each sentence, they appeared to rehearse their ideas part by part in two occasions of between the sentences and within the sentences. The use of rehearsing ideas performed part by part in Farsi seemed to lessen the writing constraints the writers would encounter during composing.

In brief, the good writers used rehearsing at the beginning of each paragraph for the purpose of creating ideas and used rehearsing between and within the sentences for the purpose of developing and completing an idea in their argumentative writing. Perhaps the following extract from Ali's think aloud protocols can illustrate the point.

Excerpt 34 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“Now the third point. Earning money is the men's responsibility and the women are responsible for inside the house affairs. Islam has men, Islam force the men that support support their families in financial issues and you should know that it is good to know that...”

Example 34 shows the way Ali employed rehearsal strategy in his argumentative writing. As can be seen, he generated certain ideas through rehearsal completely at the beginning of the paragraph (Earning money is the men's responsibility and the women are responsible for inside the house affairs) and then while writing down those rehearsed ideas, he again rehearsed them part by part (and you should know that) so that besides being able to write the ideas down more coherently, he would also be able to refine those produced ideas more. Perhaps that is why he firstly rehearsed "you should know that" but wrote "it is good to know that".

Self-questioning was another strategy identified in Ali and Majid's think aloud protocols. Ali and Majid, unlike the poor writers who asked themselves question of "what should I write?" to create new ideas, were the writers who adopted self-questioning strategy for language purpose, in general, and vocabulary seeking, in particular. Given the fact that Ali and Majid tended to ask themselves questions about the language aspect of their writings, there is no wonder why Elham did not use this strategy. She was the good writer who seemed to have mastered this aspect or, at least, she was confident enough about the discourse she used in her composing; therefore, there was no need for her to stop in order to check her writing via self-questioning strategy. Her think aloud protocols also showed that she never paused for linguistic or ideational reasons and had a smooth writing session.

An example from Ali's think aloud protocols below shows the way he used self-questioning strategy.

Excerpt 35 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

"...the women can treat the kids better if stay at home. What is treating in English?"

Excerpt 35 shows the way Ali used self-questioning strategy to retrieve/recall an English word. In the middle of writing a sentence, as can be seen, he stopped to search his memory for the word “treat”. Later, as revealed by his think aloud protocols, he remembered the word “treat” and wrote it down.

Scanning, rereading a group of sentences/paragraphs or the whole text, was another strategy only Ali in his group employed. Unlike the poor writers who mainly scanned their text so that it would help them create new ideas, Ali was the skilled writer who scanned his text after drafting stage, that is, before redrafting. Unlike Majid and Elham who appeared not to be much concerned about the word choice and grammar and hence, did not scan their text to improve its grammar and vocabulary, Ali scanned his text to check if he could improve the vocabulary he had used, if he had conveyed the ideas he intended to, and if the grammar he had used was the correct one. Consider the following excerpt for illustration;

Excerpt 36 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...Let’s read the text to see if it is a good writing. I also check the grammar and vocabulary...”

In example 36, having finished his first draft, before starting redrafting of his essay, Ali scanned it rather fast so that he might improve the grammar or vocabulary.

Reviewing

Analysis of the good writers’ reviewing revealed certain points. Firstly, the three good writers of the study reviewed both their ideas and their texts. In other words, the writers reviewed not only their ideas or what Flower and Hayes (1981) and Witt (1987) describe as pre-text in their minds, but they also reviewed their sentences while and

after writing them down. Therefore, in line with what Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 374) maintain, reviewing took place at any given time the writers were writing and it interrupted other processes. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 37 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“The second, The final reason, reason is believe beliefs of her husband.”

Example 37 illustrates the adoption of reviewing the rehearsed ideas. As can be seen, although Majid rehearsed “the second”, he wrote “the final” on the paper suggesting that he reviewed his ideas before writing them down.

Secondly, Ali, Majid, and Elham modified their texts at different occasions of between the sentences and within the sentences. These modifications took place either as a result of rereading the previously composed materials or it happened without rereading. Elham’s think aloud (Excerpt 38) demonstrates revision as a result of rereading.

Excerpt 38 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“...the house is a place that the most of works the most of work , that must be done by the woman, the first part is okay then we write The house is a place that, the house is a place that a woman must manage her duties her management for all of the responsibilities must be paid attention to”.

Excerpt 38 is an example of revision as a result of rereading. As illustrated in the excerpt, when Elham was redrafting the original writing to the final one, she decided to modify the sentence because she felt that this sentence could not duly convey what she meant. In order to do so, she changed active to passive sentence, added certain words, and reordered the idea.

Thirdly, the writers were found to use what Flower (1998, p. 232) describes as “global revision” and “local revision” throughout their argumentative writing. In the former, the writer addresses the meaning-based issues and takes the whole text into consideration whereas local revision is the process of “evaluating individual words, phrases, and sentences” (Flower, 1998, p. 232). Majid and Ali were the good writers of the study who edited for deletion, addition, substitution, word choice, and punctuation. It is worth noting that, as in her narrative task, Elham did not employ local editing in the argumentative task. Although she employed strategies like adding and deleting, these strategies were employed to perform a more serious modification which was global revision. As also noted by Flower (1998), in order to carry out global revision, the writers need to perform local revision, too. Besides, the range of the discourse she reviewed was not less than phrases and clauses. Therefore, a plausible explanation for her reviewing behavior can be the fact that she has already mastered the language aspect of the writing and there was no need for her to pay conscious attention to this aspect. Majid, Ali, and Elham’s think aloud protocols are given for further illustration.

Excerpt 39 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“...I *enjoyed*, after **enjoy** we need **ing**, I *enjoyed* going on...”

Excerpt 40 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...for example, **for instance**, I can say **for example** but many students use it, so I write for instance...”

Excerpt 41 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“*My personal idea about this issue is this my idea my idea my idea about **this subject** better than the word issue *about this subject* is this is this that is this that women work after women can work after they got married *after marriage* because of because of some reasons, *because of some reasons* but there are some exceptions but it has many exceptions many exceptions that, that we can that we can discuss here.”*

Extracts 39 and 40 are the instance of local editing used by Majid and Ali while example 41 is an instance of global reviewing used by Elham. In example 39, Majid

correctly substituted “going on” with “to go” by getting help from his language knowledge. Example 40 is an instance of editing for word choice. As known, there is not any difference between “for instance” and “for example” but Ali preferred to use the former one under the assumption that many students use the latter. Unlike Majid and Ali who mostly performed local editing, Elham appeared to take longer discourse into consideration and performed global revision. In example 41, Elham employed addition and reordering. She had previously written the chunk “my personal idea about this issue is this” in her first draft and she changed it to “my idea about this subject is this that women work after marriage because of some reasons but it has many exceptions that we can discuss here”. She added two sentences to her original sentence and she behaved as if she was writing the sentences for the first time. Her revising behavior gave more support to what Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) mentioned about the good writers that they are able to insert new ideas into their text while revising the written discourse.

Less Skilled Writers’ Writing Strategies in the Narrative Writing

Planning

Three poor writers employed certain writing strategies while performing the narrative text. Before writing, they firstly read the assignment to see what it entailed. They reread it for the second or third time to not only check what they understood was right, but they also reread the direction to search their memories and activate their schemata. In the writing model put forth by Flower and Hayes (1981), writing assignment is placed in the task environment while knowledge of topic, audience, and writing plans are placed in the long term memory. The writers of the study reread/repeat the key words in the writing assignment in English and Farsi to activate their schemata so that the intended information would be retrieved successfully from their long term memories. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 42 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...Favorite moments happening in your life...the most important one...think about one of the most important moment happened in your life...”

Example 42 shows the way Sahar reread the direction. As observed in the example, she read the writing prompt for 3 times so that it might give her a chance to spot the related information in her long term memory.

Having read the prompt, in order to find their best moment of their lives, the writers employed self-questioning strategy to search their long term memories. The question they asked themselves was “what should I write?” This feature of poor writers is what Cumming (1989) describes as “what next strategy”. The researcher maintained that this is one of the main strategies the poor writers employ in order to generate ideas and move their writings forward. An instance of this strategy is provided below.

Excerpt 43 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...Favorite moments happening in your life...the most important one...I do not know, oh my God...very difficult...think about one of the most important moment happened in your life...what should I say? What should I say? One of the most important moments of my life...”

The above excerpt is an instance of using self-questioning strategy. As can be seen, after employing prompt rereading strategy and translating the prompt into Farsi, Sahar seemed not to be able to recall a good moment of her life from her long term memory and thus, she resorted to self-questioning strategy performed in Farsi.

Another writing strategy three poor writers employed was L1 use. Example 43 above illustrates the way Sahar employed Farsi, her first language, before starting her narrative writing both intentionally and un-intentionally. As can be seen, she dominantly used Farsi in order to read the writing prompt, to search her memory for

retrieving the idea, and to ask herself questions. Moreover, she expressed her desperation through un-intentional use of L1 by saying “very difficult”.

Regarding the way the writers used their mother tongue in their planning, certain points are worth pointing out. Firstly, as with the participants of other studies (e.g., Wang, 2004; Wang & Wen, 2002), L1 use was a dominant strategy from the very beginning of writing up to the time the writers finished their text. Secondly, the writers used their first language for different reasons in different occasions. They used their mother tongue in their planning, translating, and reviewing for different purposes such as idea generation, idea organization, goal setting, searching their memories for relevant information, rehearsing, self-questioning, and language checking. Note that despite the fact that L1 use seemed to be of help for them in coming up with new ideas in the planning and idea generation processes, it sometimes made composing difficult. Because they were thinking in Farsi for new ideas, they needed to translate those ideas into English while writing and this, in return, caused another burden for them to handle in composing. In their pre writing stage, while reading the direction, the writers used Farsi, their mother tongue, intentionally or un-intentionally. In the case of former, they spoke Farsi to either translate the writing topic or to generate/retrieve ideas from their long term memories. In the case of the latter, however, they used Farsi to express their feelings or assess the writing task. Moreover, they translated the topic in order to both make sure they understood it completely and search their memories more efficiently.

The final writing strategy identified in the poor writers' think aloud protocols before they start their narrative task was task interpretation. Sahar and Pari were two writers who interpreted the narrative writing prompt for themselves perhaps because it

would make them able to come up with an idea to write about. Two examples of task interpretation strategy are given in the following excerpts.

Excerpt 44 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...one of the most important moments of my life, in other words, it should be one of my sweetest memories...”

Excerpt 45 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“...does it mean what makes me happy? What are interesting things to me in my life? ...”

In example 44, after employing various strategies such as prompt rereading, L1 use, and self-questioning, Sahar resorted to this strategy in the hope that she would recall a good moment in her life. This strategy seemed to be of help to her because after task interpretation, she came up with an idea and started her narrative writing. Example 45 shows Pari's adoption of task interpretation strategy. Unlike Sahar who employed it as the last resort, Pari employed task interpretation strategy accompanied by self-questioning at the very beginning of her think aloud protocols, as shown in the second example. This is perhaps due to the differences between the writing habits of the two writers.

All in all, the strategies that the three poor writers employed at the outset of their think aloud protocols in the narrative task were (re)reading the writing prompt, asking question, L1 use, and task interpretation. Employing these strategies resulted in coming up with a single abstract idea to write about. To be more precise, they behaved as if they were asked a question to be answered by a single word. Pari is a good case in point. It took her 17 minutes to come up with an idea to write about. Her behavior resembles Yin Ping in Raimes' (1985) study who spent more than 17 minutes struggling to understand the writing assignment and revisiting the topic or Hu Ang in Hu and Chen's (2008) study who spent more than 10 minutes rehearsing her ideas. Pari painstakingly made

effort but her efforts for idea generating and global planning were in vain. She spent 17 minutes (re)reading the writing prompt, asking herself questions, writing, and crossing the written sentences out (see Appendix I, Long Extract 4).

As the example shows, Pari faced with many problems due to lack of skill in planning. She was found to be the writer who composed based on what Flower (1998) describes as “inspiration”. As shown in the excerpt, she waited for the ideas to inspire her to write and the strategies she mainly employed were asking question and L1 use. Having written a couple of sentences, however, she seemed to realize that what she wrote was not the thing she was supposed to write. Therefore, it seems that she followed the pattern of write first, think next in her planning and writing.

Another point regarding Pari’s pre writing stage is that, as also noted by Flower and Hayes (1981), she reviewed her writing from the beginning up to the end and hence, reviewing was not an end of the processes activity. As observed from her think aloud protocols, although Pari was not able to perform effective planning, she seemed to review what she produced and as a result of this reviewing, she came to realize that she should cross out the produced ideas. Another related point regarding Pari’s pre writing stage proved what many researchers (e.g., Bridwell, 1980; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) believe about the cue for revision. It is believed that one of the main stimuli triggering revision is the incongruity between intention and execution. This was especially the case for Pari. As example 1 shows, having reread the written sentences, she realized that the produced ideas were not the ideas she was supposed to say and hence, she crossed them out and started another sentence.

In brief, borrowing the Flower and Hayes' (1980) terminology, the poor writers merely performed plan to do i.e., they knew what they wanted to do with writing. There was no sign of "plan to say" i.e., the actual content or "composing plan" i.e., the techniques to carry out the task before they start their actual drafting; consequently, they faced with many problems while composing. Therefore, it seems that, rather than the frequency and the type of adopted strategies, it is the effectiveness and the quality of the adopted strategies which matters. This is in line with what Hu and Chen (2008) found. They reported that, compared to the skilled writers in their study, the Chinese EFL less skilled writers employed more strategies with more frequency but the result was not satisfactory. Moreover, unlike the Moroccans' participants in El Mortaji's (2001) study who employed technical terms like point of view, setting, and character, the writers of this study did not mention any of these terms before they start composing.

Translating

Having come up with an idea to write about, the three less skilled writers embarked on drafting. Fati decided to write about the day she was informed about being accepted for the university; Sahar decided to write about the day she met her boyfriend; and Pari decided to write about her friend.

Use of mother tongue was a prevalent strategy the less skilled writers employed while composing. In fact, as reported by other researchers who studied the role of first language in L2 writing (e.g., Wang & Wen, 2002), it was almost impossible to find a segment in the writers' think aloud protocols devoid of mother tongue use. The writers used their mother tongue in the form of translation or code switching, as did the Moroccan participants in El Mortaji's (2001) study. Another distinction between L1 use was the purpose for which the writers used Farsi. Like in their planning, they either used

Farsi to express their feelings and ideas vis a vis the task and themselves i.e., un-intentional L1 use or they used Farsi to plan and generate the content of their texts i.e., intentional L1 use. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 46 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“...aahh how fast the apprenticeship period is passing, we had a very good time... this is the place we used to have conversational courses... in the laboratory, good old days ...”

Excerpt 46 is an instance of un-intentional L1 use done by Fati while composing. This un-intentional use of mother tongue was not related to the writing and was in the form of self-talk. As can be seen, in the middle of writing, Fati, under the effect of the topic got emotional and started remembering her “good old days” and talking to herself. Then, she reread the previous part to remember what she was writing.

Analysis of the poor writers’ think aloud protocols revealed that Fati, Sahar, and Pari were constantly looking for English words while drafting their narrative task. One of the strategies that Sahar and Fati, in particular, employed when looking for a suitable English word was circumambulation strategy, the strategy used by the time the writer wants to recall an English word through using different L1 equivalents. The writers of this study repeated related Farsi words so that it resulted in finding their intended English counterpart. Below is the excerpt from Sahar’s think aloud protocols while she was searching for the word “finally”.

Excerpt 47 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“Finally I saw him, finally ...at last... in the end... finally...”

Translation of Excerpt 47 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

Belakhare didamesh, belakhare... aghebat...dar payan... finally...”

As can be seen, Sahar intended to write “finally” but she seemed to have problem recalling the English word. Thus, she repeated certain Farsi equivalents in the hope that it might result in remembering the English word. Luckily, as shown in the example, this strategy was helpful and she could recall the word.

Fati also made use of circumambulation and synonym seeking in the same situation so that no ideas were abandoned or deleted. However, Fati seemed to be more successful than Sahar. Fati seemed to be the poor writer who acted almost like the good writers in the sense that instead of focusing on the single word and direct translation, as did Sahar, she made attempt to convey her meanings in one way or the other. In other words, while Sahar seemed to limit her choice to one or two abstract ideas, Fati broadened her search domain because of her focus on the meaning she wanted to convey and not the abstract Farsi words. Because of this, she was able to escape from the vocabulary trap and wrote “baby’s school” instead of “kindergarten” or “I heard in the news” instead of the word “announce”. Note that, although Fati seemed to be more successful by the time she faced with vocabulary problems, it does not mean that she produced an error-free writing. The instance where she, under the influence of her mother tongue, produced certain unacceptable English discourse is “an old thinking” instead of “traditional view”. Sahar, on the other hand, mainly repeated the Farsi word to search for the exact English equivalent and because of this, she, for instance, wrote “he very much likes” which is exactly a direct translation from Farsi into English. Therefore, there is no wonder why it was only Sahar who employed blank leaving strategy while carrying out her narrative text. Due to limiting her vocabulary searching to the single Farsi abstract concepts, she was not able to concentrate on the general meaning and hence had to leave blank. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 48 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“... what is mutual in English? I cannot recall the word, let it go.....He is an officer in sea force, what is commander in chief? ...let’s forget about it...”

In example 48 above, Sahar was not able to recall the words “mutual” and “commander in chief” in English; therefore, she had to leave blank and continue.

Unlike Sahar who left blank for the words she did not know in English, Pari was the poor writer who abandoned the idea for the words she was not able to recall. Therefore, it seemed that Sahar and Pari resembled the poor writers in Victori’s (1995) study in the sense that both groups of writers did not put enough effort into their writing and they quitted their ideas by the time they faced with difficulties. Consider the following extract.

Excerpt 49 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“It was awful in my life *in my life* I could not tolerate, tolerate, **because I cannot** what? ***In my life*** *it was awful,* for me but he was very kind...”

In example 49, Pari abandoned an idea due to not being able to recall the word “tolerate” in English. She also adopted idea abandoning once in her narrative writing due to the fact that she was unable to generate more ideas to finish what she has already produced. Given the fact that she carried out her narrative task based on the inspiration and not proper planning and idea generating activities, her main problem was generating new ideas to continue her narration. Consider the following excerpt:

Excerpt 50 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“~~I like~~, ***I like*** ~~have you~~, no... ***I like*** emm...What? When I am sad just think to you can calm me...”

As can be seen, Pari crossed out the sentence “I like have you” and abandoned the idea since she was not able to either finish or stretch what she has started.

Rehearsal was another strategy identified mainly in Sahar's and Fati's think aloud protocols. They, like the participants in the Lim et al.'s (2011) study, mainly employed this strategy for generating new ideas. There were some times that they also used rehearsing for checking the correctness of the discourse they intended to write down. Another point worth noting is that while the medium of thought for Sahar was Farsi, Fati was the poor writer who performed her rehearsals in both languages of Farsi and English. Consider the following transcripts.

Excerpt 51 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"He likes to gain a lot of money, He likes it very much. He likes be a rich man..."

Excerpt 52 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

"**That night I couldn't sleep, that night I couldn't sleep, that night I could not sleep...**"

Examples 51 and 52 are the instances of rehearsal strategy adopted by Sahar and Fati. Example 51 shows the way Sahar used rehearsing her ideas first in Farsi and then wrote them down in English. Excerpt 52 depicts Fati's rehearsal strategy. As can be seen, she rehearsed her ideas in English twice and then wrote them down.

Repetition and rereading strategies were two other strategies the three poor writers employed while carrying out their narrative tasks. Note that the writers seemed to employ these strategies almost differently. Fati was the poor writer who appeared to be very dependent on the text she was producing. To be more precise, it was almost impossible to find a segment of her think aloud protocols without repetition or rereading strategy. She mentioned the reason in her interview. She said that in every piece of writing, the sentences should support each other. Thus, compared to her peers, she produced a more coherent narrative text. Sahar and Pari were two poor writers who, compared to Fati, were not reliant on the already produced text and rarely used

repetition or rereading strategy. In fact, Sahar used rereading strategy only twice in her narrative text and Pari, because she wrote based on inspiration, used repetition strategy only when she had trouble moving the text ahead. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 53 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“He likes be a rich man *he likes be a rich man, very like.*”

Excerpt 54 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“I do not understand why...*why, why, why, I do not understand why*”

Example 53 illustrates the way Sahar reread her already produced discourse to generate more ideas and example 54 shows how Pari used repetition and rereading in her writing. As can be seen, because Pari could not generate new ideas, she resorted to the text she has written so that it might help her create ideas.

Like repetition, self-questioning was another strategy poor writers employed in order to create new ideas. As Cumming (1989) and Alharthi (2011) also maintained, this “what next” strategy is the writing strategy mainly employed by poor writers as a means to produce new ideas. Pari, in particular, adopted self-questioning and repetition strategies to generate ideas. The question she kept asking herself was “what (else) should I write?” She seemed to be blocked and was not able to push the text ahead. She was silent most of the time thinking about what to write next. The reason seemed to be in her lack of skill in idea generating and more importantly, goal setting strategy. Given the fact that the writer’s goals are created by the writer (Flower & Hayes, 1981), Pari’s main problem seemed to be in her creativity and critical thinking in generating new ideas in order to move the text ahead. An example of self-questioning strategy is given below from Sahar’s and Pari’s think aloud protocols.

Excerpt 55 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“He was a good boy. He also looked appealing. He also seemed wise; he should not be lightheaded. *He was a good boy...* what else should I say to describe him?”

Excerpt 56 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“**Why, why** what? How can I put it? **Because, because** what? **Why, why**, emm he supports me what? What should I write? What can I write?”

As excerpt 55 shows, Sahar asked herself question about the content while writing her narration. Example 56 illustrates the way Pari used repetition and self-questioning strategies together. As can be seen, Pari used these two strategies by the time she was blocked and was not able to think about any new idea.

Self-talk was another strategy identified mostly in Sahar’s think aloud protocols. As already mentioned, both Sahar and Pari had problem creating new ideas to move their narration forward. One of the reasons of their problems seemed to be the fact that they failed to see the writing as the whole. They focused on the small discourse like sentences and chunks and were not aware of the communicative purpose of the writing. Their main aim was to produce certain error free sentences on the paper; consequently, as Zamel (1983, p. 173) observed, “...the overall relationship between ideas seemed to suffer”. Sahar was found to talk excessively to herself in the hope that an idea may emerge. However, this solution turned out to be a hindrance at times because her ramblings went off the topic and by the time she wanted to continue writing, she forgot what she was writing. Hence, she needed to come back to the previously composed parts so that they may help her generate an idea. Consider the following example:

Excerpt 57 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)243

“Let me explain the day I saw him. I had **stress**. I had stress. Oh my God, I remember I had too much **stress** and I could hardly move my legs. Because it was our first time to see each other. Then... it was not such a big deal...”

Excerpt 57 depicts the way Sahar talked to herself so that she would be able to generate new ideas in the midst of narrative writing. As can be seen, she firstly decided to explain the day she saw her boyfriend. Later, however, she moved off the topic as a result of excessive irrelevant talking and hence, had to reread the produced text so that she would remember what she was talking about.

Another point about Sahar's narrative writing is that, because she did not consider writing as a whole and lacked interaction with text, she was the poor writer who changed the focus of her writing several times. She firstly decided to write about the day she had met her boyfriend while in the midst of her writing, since she was not able to stretch the idea, she decided to write about the boy's characteristics. Later, she wrote about the boy's job, though. Flower and Hayes (1981), on the other hand, believe that three main factors of writers' knowledge, writers' goals, and the text produced so far guide the writers in moving the text ahead. Sahar seemed to be guided partially by her already produced text and partially by her goals which, of course, were not very effective.

Reviewing

The three less skilled writers of the study, for the already mentioned reasons including inability to see the text as a whole or lack of skill in goal setting strategy, were more concerned with surface level editing than with the changes affecting meaning. They edited for addition, deletion, substitution, and spelling. This dominant attention to the language aspect of their narrative texts was the problem shared by Sahar and Fati. Unlike Pari who preferred not to pay attention to her grammar while composing, Sahar and Fati were mostly paying attention to the correctness of their writings. Instead of focusing on the content and idea, they were constantly concerned with the language

aspect of their texts and this over use of monitor interrupted their thinking process. Sahar and Fati thus resembled the less skilled writers in Zamel's (1983) study where the writers, more often than not, lost track of what they meant due to their excessive attention to correcting grammatical points.

Sahar and Fati were found to stop and interrupt their composing processes in three different occasions of before, while, and after writing down their ideas. Firstly, they reviewed their language before writing the ideas down at the stage of rehearsing or what Flower and Hayes (1980) called pretext. On this occasion, they had to not only find a suitable English equivalent for their Farsi ideas, but they were also found to check the language aspect of their intended discourse. As the following transcript illustrates, Sahar reviews her rehearsal in terms of the spelling the word "European" before writing it down.

Excerpt 58 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"...European, how is it spelled? ..."

Secondly, Sahar and Fati checked their texts while they were composing their texts. On this occasion, Sahar was mostly concerned with spelling while Fati tried to check the preposition she intended to use. Consider the two examples below.

Excerpt 59 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"...I missed something, *Europe* has e at the beginning ..."

Excerpt 60 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

"...**in that time** or **at that time**? ... **at that time**, no, **in that time**... in, **in that time**, in that time..."

The examples above are the instances of on line reviewing adopted by Fati and Sahar. As example 59 shows, Sahar stopped writing to see if the spelling of the word

“country” was right. In example 60, Fati also stopped writing to know which preposition is correct to use, “in” or “at”.

Thirdly, Sahar and Fati checked their writing after they wrote the ideas down. They came back to amend the sentences they had already produced for several times. Note that nearly all the modifications were of surface-level-editing nature such as spelling, punctuation, and word choice. For instance, when Fati was composing the sentence “I like to describe my feeling” in her second paragraph, she came back to her first paragraph and changed the word “like” in “like when I went to a kindergarten”. The reason was avoiding repetition of words, as she said in her think aloud. Sahar also came back to her previously composed materials to change the object pronoun “him” to subject pronoun “his”.

Evaluating strategy, the final component of reviewing, was another strategy the writers employed. According to Flower and Hayes (1980), evaluation can be performed on both written and unwritten materials. For the written materials, it is done through rereading, editing, and revising. For the unwritten materials, it is done on the pretext or rehearsal. Furthermore, Emig (1971) noted that writers tend to evaluate both themselves and their texts and their evaluation can range from positive to negative. Except Fati, Sahar and Pari evaluated themselves negatively in the narrative writing. Sahar and Pari’s think aloud protocols are given as examples:

Excerpt 61 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...We have friendly relationship..... even I myself did not understand what I wrote.....I should correct my text...the paragraphs do not go together...my sentences are not interrelated...”

Excerpt 62 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“...Think about one of the most interesting... My grammar is awful...”

Examples 61 and 62 are the instances of negative evaluation. In example 61, Sahar negatively evaluated her text saying “even I do not understand what I wrote”. In example 62, too, Pari negatively evaluated herself by stating “my grammar is awful”.

In sum, Sahar and Fati paid more attention to the local editing in both while writing and post writing stages and no modification of the ideas was witnessed in either stage. Pari, another less skilled writer who apparently showed no concern for grammaticality in her actual drafting, was found to write more coherently while rewriting her text. All the same, the only thing she did was to change the place of the sentences she had already produced in a more logical order besides adding, substituting, and deleting certain parts. Hayes and Flower (1986), on the other hand, name four factors for revision including dissonance between what was meant and what was said, discovery of a better thing to say, negative evaluation of a plan, and failure to comprehend the text. The way Pari edited and revised her text seemed to be attributed to her discovery of a better way to say what she meant and not a better thing to say because she actually did not add anything new.

Less Skilled Writers’ Writing Strategies in the Argumentative Writing

Planning

The writers employed certain strategies in order to perform planning. It should be mentioned from the outset that this planning activity was carried out throughout their writing session and was not limited to the pre writing stage. Compared to their narrative writing, they manifested a more cyclical and recursive writing process in which different processes and strategies interrupted one another. They, regardless of the success and effectiveness of the strategies they employed, were found to plan and evaluate their thinking processes frequently throughout their writings. Within this

process, the writers were found to come up with certain new ideas in the course of writing, lending more proof to the discovery nature of writing.

At the outset of their protocols, the writers employed L1 use, direction reading, formulating position, brainstorming, and goal setting strategies. Use of mother tongue was the strategy they used before starting to draft their argumentation. Note that unlike their narrative writing where they employed un-intentional L1 use by either judging the writing task or expressing their feelings, in the argumentative task, they were more focused and used Farsi only intentionally. As will be seen in the coming part, the medium of thought through which the writers formulated position, generated certain ideas, and set themselves certain goals was Farsi. Moreover, it was only Sahar who translated the writing prompt into Farsi. This is her think aloud protocol.

Excerpt 63 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...Some people believe that the women should stay home after marriage...”

As can be seen, she translated the writing prompt perhaps due to the fact that translation might enable her to retrieve certain ideas from her long term memory.

Formulating position was another strategy the writers employed at the outset of their argumentative writing. The writers explicitly verbalized their position by the time they read the writing prompt. The way the writers reacted to the writing prompt and verbalized their position, however, was not the same. Sahar and Pari immediately took their side after reading the prompt for the first time while Fati acted more cautiously and did not get emotional. Consider the examples.

Excerpt 64 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...I totally disagree with the idea...”

Excerpt 65 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...Never, who believed so...”

The examples above are the instances of using formulating position strategy. Example 64 illustrates the way Sahar formulated her position after reading the prompt for the first time. Pari also showed a fast reaction to the topic after reading it. In example 65, she seemed to be even annoyed by the idea that the women should stay home after marriage.

Brainstorming was another strategy identified only in Fati's think aloud protocols. She appeared to rehearse and brainstorm certain ideas before starting her argumentation. Consider the following extract.

Excerpt 66 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...The men lives as like as women and the women as like as men. Why the men think the women should stay home? ...”

As can be seen from the above excerpt, Fati performed her brainstorming activity in English. Considering the fact that she tried to use the exact phrase she produced by her brainstorming in her writing, it can be said that she performed her brainstorming in English because she intended to produce certain ideas so that she would use them exactly as they were firstly produced.

Goal setting strategy was another strategy the three poor writers employed. The writers performed a sort of global planning through setting themselves procedural goals to achieve. What is more, they seemed to benefit from the instructions they received in their writing classes because three writers almost followed the same pattern; they mentioned some technical terms like introduction, main idea, and supporting sentences. In fact, their knowledge of different parts of an essay seemed to help them generate and,

at the same time, organize their ideas. This is what Flower and Hayes (1981) named as “stored writing plans” situated in the writer’s long term memory. The less skilled writers took help from their learned knowledge for the purpose of both generating/organizing ideas and setting themselves goals.

However, due to lack of skill in what Flower (1998) describes as “operationalizing” their planning, as is clear from the following excerpts, they did not move to the next step of planning which was local planning or planning to say. They knew what they intended to do with writing but they did not mention any word about what they wanted to say in the writing because what they were dealing with at this stage was a general idea of agreement or disagreement. Consider the following excerpts.

Excerpt 67 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...I firstly should write an introduction and then some supporting ideas. What can a good introduction be? ... or I can say I disagree first and then...ok.”

Excerpt 68 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...I should say three things to support my idea.”

As examples 67 and 68 show, the writers employed procedural planning to set themselves goals to achieve. However, these goals were of abstract nature. The writers did not move to the actual or concrete goals. Sahar, for instance, as example 67 illustrates, only verbalized that she would write introduction or would write about her idea which was an abstract goal. Example 68 shows the way Pari used procedural planning. She, too, just worked on the general format of her text by mentioning that she would provide three supports in favor of her idea. Fati also planned at the very general and macro level.

Translating

Having decided about the general format and content of their essays, the writers started translating. The writers, compared to the narrative task, experienced an easier writing session and they wrote with less pause and silence. Neither did they complain about the difficulty level of the task. A better interaction was also observed not only between writers and their texts but also between three main components of planning, translating, and reviewing. The three writers constantly, through recalling their learned knowledge, planned their next step while reviewing what they already had written. In other words, the stored writing plans borrowed from long term memory were called into action to accompany idea generating, idea organizing, and goal setting strategies. The ideas gathered through this process were ready for translating into written speech, then. At this stage, too, there was a, more or less, good interaction between what the writers already produced and what was to come next. In other words, they apparently knew when to move from one process to the other. This is what Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 374) call “monitor” in their model. They hold that this monitor “functions as a writing strategist which determines when the writer moves from one process to the next”. This useful use of monitor, like their process goal strategy, seems to be resultant from the instructions the writers had in their courses because the three writers followed almost the same steps throughout their writings. The following excerpts are given as examples of setting process goal.

Excerpt 69 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...now I will add ‘*first*’, ‘*second*’, and ‘*finally*’ to my text and it is all done.”

Excerpt 70 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Now I should provide *support* here.”

Excerpt 71 (Sahar poor writer, argumentative task)

“How about the *conclusion*?”

The excerpts above are the instances where the writers were found to use procedural planning. Pari, in particular, was the poor writer who very rarely rehearsed her ideas or set herself goals. However, as example 69 shows, she once mentioned in her protocols that she intends to insert certain transitive words to her text suggesting that she was aware of the format through which she was constructing her essay.

However, the writers' learned knowledge seemed to be of no use for their creativity in generating ideas. They had a general plan in their minds in the sense that the first paragraph is introduction, the middle ones are supporting ideas and the last one is conclusion but they had problem in generating the actual content. Therefore, it happened, at times, that they were unable to generate content to suit the paragraphs. It then can be concluded that the writers had problems thinking creatively. Moreover, there was not a vivid or logical coherence between the paragraphs they composed; they knew they were supposed to support their standpoints but they were not able to do so. The following example taken from Pari's think aloud protocols can illustrate this point.

Excerpt 72 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

"I think emm no for example I think I cannot stay at home because I / I ...am very what? **Very, very, very busy so** emm **so, so,** what? Nothing comes to my mind, I forgot the sentence, what shall I say? Emm **so, so, so,** nothing..."

As example 72 shows, Pari, due to her lack of skill in creativity and idea generation, seemed to fail to finish the sentence she had started. As in her narrative writing, she seemed to write based on inspiration and because of this, her argumentative lacks logic sequence and enough strength to support her viewpoint.

Besides goal setting strategy, the strategies the three poor writers employed while carrying out their argumentative task were rehearsal, rereading/repetition, and L1 use. Rehearsing was adopted for idea generating. Rereading and repetition, on the other

hand, were employed for different purposes of seeking help from the produced materials for idea making, seeking help for lexical searching, and remembering what they were writing. There is no wonder why rehearsal, rereading, and repetition strategies were mostly accompanied by L1 use. In other words, they used their mother tongue to plan, translate, and review their ideas and their texts (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 5 and 6).

As Long Extract 5 shows, Fati used rehearsal, rereading, repetition, and L1 use to move the writing ahead. In the meantime, she is struggling to find a suitable English phrase for her Farsi idea “old thinking”. Spending some time performing rereading, repetition, and rehearsal, she seemed not to be able to find a good English equivalent and then wrote “old thinking” and kept writing. This was also the case for Sahar, another poor writer. As extract 6 shows, she produced her writing through constant use of rehearsing, rereading, repetition, and L1 use. Meanwhile, she reviews what she was producing. As shown in the extract, she initially writes “we are” but, having rehearsed rehearsing her intended ideas, she changed it to “we have”. Then, through rehearsing in her mother tongue, she generates new ideas to add to her sentence while looking for the suitable English equivalent for the word “duties”. Having found the English equivalent, she repeats the same process of rehearsing in Farsi to generate ideas and then translating them into English while, at the same time, reviewing the rehearsal or written discourse to both spot the probable error or seek a better way to convey her ideas.

As can be seen, due to the writers’ attention to the words per se plus being weak in English vocabulary and grammar, they produced some unacceptable chunks like “in the best form” resultant from direct translation from Farsi to English. Other examples from Sahar’s writing are “what in house” instead of “either in house”, “work of women” instead of “women’s job”. This direct translation was also the case for the other two

writers. Fati produced “old thinking” instead of “traditional view” and Pari wrote “women better work” instead of “women work better”.

In sum, three less skilled Iranian EFL writers seemed to have a better writing session in the argumentative writing than in the narrative one. The reasons can be attributed to firstly, a better interaction between the writer and their texts obtained via setting procedural goals and secondly, a better interaction amongst three composing processes of planning, translating and reviewing gained via making use of a monitor. Furthermore, the writers constantly made use of L1, rehearsal, rereading/repetition, and reviewing strategies during their composing. What is more, due to their excessive use of mother tongue and lack of their knowledge in English, they directly translated their Farsi thoughts into English written words which resulted in producing certain unacceptable discourses in their argumentative writing.

Reviewing

The writers reviewed both their written texts and ideas from the very beginning till the end of writing. In line with findings of other studies regarding the recursiveness of composing (e.g., Lim et al., 2011; Zamel, 1987), the writers of this study, too, manifested a recursive writing process in which reviewing interrupted other processes of drafting and planning. An example of this reviewing activity is provided below.

Excerpt 73 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“We are ... we have successful mothers, we have successful mothers ...”

As extract 73 shows, Sahar firstly wrote “are” but immediately replaced it with “have”, suggesting the fact that she constantly reviewed her language while writing.

However, the writers were not similar in their reviewing activities. Unlike Pari who was not concerned with correctness of her writing while drafting, Sahar and Fati were concerned about the surface level editing and they used strategies such as deletion, addition, and substitution. This was also true for their redrafting stage. Sahar and Fati were more concerned with re-writing than re-vision of their works. Therefore, instead of seeing their writing as a whole and checking the unity of the paragraphs and sentences, they focused on single words and they mainly tried to substitute the words with better ones. That is why their original and final drafts were much similar. An example of Fati's think aloud is given below:

Excerpt 74 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

Some people have traditional think about work of women, we do not need "to" here (deletion), I should use "of" instead of "to", work of women work of the (adding) women in out in the (adding) out of the (adding) house."

Example 74 shows the way Fati redrafted her argumentative writing. As can be seen, she employed deletion and adding strategies only at the surface level and she mainly dealt with the language aspect of her writing.

Pari, distinct from Sahar and Fati, did not pay conscious attention to the language aspect of her writing during writing. In contrast, she showed more concern for the comprehensibility of her ideas in the redrafting stage. Consequently, her first and final drafts were not alike. However, it is worth noting that in spite of modifying her text a lot, the main ideas were still the same and she did not exert a fundamental change to her argumentative essay. Perhaps the way she modified her first sentence is a good case in this point. Below comes the first sentence of her argumentative writing in the first draft.

Original Draft (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

I think the idea is very bad because no different between men and women so women can have a job outside.

As illustrated in the example, she expressed three ideas in her first sentence in the original draft. These ideas were (a) the idea that the women should stay home after marriage is bad, (b) there is no difference between men and women, and (c) women can work outside home like men. In her redrafting stage, she modified this sentence in a way that she used the same ideas but placed them at different places. She wrote her first and second paragraphs while using the same ideas. Consider the following transcript.

Excerpt 75 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

“I think... this (substitution) idea that the women... should stay, *stay*, home after they get married is really false (addition). First, *first* ... I think no difference between men and women because what is both of them in English? every body, everybody... can have, *have*, a job (addition).”

As excerpt 75 shows, in her redrafting stage, Pari placed three ideas previously expressed in the first sentence to the one single main idea (“the idea that women should stay home after they get married is really false”) and a supporting idea (“first, I think no difference between men and women”). In the meantime, in order to revise her sentence, she employed substitution and addition strategies.

Summary of the Findings on the First Research Question

The aim of the first research question was to find out what writing strategies Iranian EFL learners with different writing abilities employ while composing. Three good writers and three poor writers were required to carry out a narrative and an argumentative task. Analysis of the participants’ think aloud protocols, interviews, stimulated recalls, and written products revealed certain points. Firstly, the writers were found to adopt a set of strategies to approach their writing tasks, to interact with

assigned topics, to generate text, and to perform reviewing. These strategies were interpreted mostly in line with writing model put forth by Flower and Hayes (1981) in which writing is composed of three processes of planning, translating, and reviewing. The strategies they employed for the purpose of planning were direction (re) reading, brainstorming, L1 use, formulating position, rehearsal, task interpretation, goal setting, idea generating/organizing, and self-questioning. The strategies the writers adopted while translating include L1 use, rehearsal, self-questioning, self-talk, rereading, repetition, circumambulation, goal setting, idea generating/organizing, blank leaving, idea abandoning, scanning, editing, revision, and evaluating. In their reviewing, too, they employed certain strategies such as self-questioning, evaluating, L1 use, rereading, editing, and revising.

Secondly, as indicated by other studies (e.g., Wang, 2004; Zamel, 1982), the writers were found to employ writing strategies in combination in a non-linear fashion aimed at discovering new ideas. Planning, for instance, was witnessed from the beginning up to the time they finished their tasks. It was also the case for reviewing. They constantly reviewed their ideas or pretext as well as their writing throughout their composing sessions.

RQ2: How do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL writers differ in their use of writing strategies?

In order to answer the second research question of the study, the writing strategies of the two groups of good and poor writers of the study were compared and contrasted across two discourse types of narrative and argumentative. These adopted writing strategies were interpreted in line with the cognitive writing model forwarded by Flower and Hayes (1981) in which writing is made of the three related and, at the same

time, distinct thinking processes of planning, translating, and reviewing. The similarities and differences between two groups of writers in the narrative writing are explained in this section.

Comparison of Good and Poor Writers in the Narrative Writing

Planning Before Writing

The participants' think aloud protocols at the outset of their narrative writing revealed that there were two differences between two groups of writers. The first difference which was witnessed in the way Majid and Pari from good and poor writers behaved before starting the narrative task, was the way they approached the task. They employed different strategies to come up with an idea to write about. The second difference, which was spotted in the way Ali and Sahar from good and poor writers acted in their pre writing stages, was found to be in the effectiveness of the adopted strategies. Although they employed almost the same types of the strategies, Ali was more successful in his planning than Sahar.

Regarding the differences between the way two groups approached the narrative discourse, comparison of pre writing activities of Majid, the good writer, and Pari, the poor writer, shows the differences between the way these two writers behaved (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 7 and 8). In Long Extract 7, Pari seemed to have problem with three components of planning including goal setting, idea generating, and idea organizing. There was no sign of setting goal in her think aloud. Neither was she able to retrieve/organize information from her long term memory to start with. In order to solve this problem and find a good moment of her life, she resorted to different strategies of brainstorming, self-questioning, L1 use, and task interpretation. Employing these strategies, she intended to start her narrative text four times. In each time, after writing a

sentence, she realized that she did not write what she was supposed to; therefore, as put forth by Flower (1998), instead of using heuristics, she appeared to use trial and error strategy, perhaps because, to her, it was a comfortable way to proceed. Flower (1998, p. 53) maintains that in trial and error, there is no need to plan or study the problem; “you just start writing and see how it turns out”. In example 8, in contrast, Majid appeared to set his mind quite fast and started his narrative text after one minute. Having read the prompt twice, he seemed to come up with an idea and started writing.

A comparison of Majid and Pari’s pre writing activities suggests two points. Firstly, apposite to the finding of other studies (e.g., Sasaki, 2000) which found that the good writers spend more time planning their ideas and their texts, it was found that it is the quality of planning and not the amount of time that is important. This finding has been recently reported also by Hu and Chen (2008). Secondly, Majid and Pari seemed similar in their global planning or their planning to do practices. They knew that they were supposed to write about one of the best moments in their lives and both appeared to search their memories to find one. However, they were different in what Flower (1989) describes as “operational definition” of their plans. Flower (1998, p. 162) believes that the definition of the problems the writers have is better to be “operational” than abstract because it suggests possible courses of action or the features of a good solution. Pari seemed to plan at the very global and abstract level whereas Majid immediately turned the abstract idea into the operational one by starting writing.

Another difference between good and poor writers was in the effectiveness of the adopted strategies. As reported by Hu and Chen (2008), rather than the type, it was the way the good and poor writers employ certain strategy that mattered. Ali, a good writer, and Sahar, a poor writer, are good cases in this point. In their pre writing stage,

at first glance they behaved almost the same and employed the same strategies of translation, asking question, rehearsal, and planning; however, the analysis of their think aloud protocols revealed that Ali, unlike Sahar, adopted strategies more effectively. Ali seemed to know that he should think about the topic and generate ideas (i.e., content planning) to begin with. Hence, he made use of various strategies and tried to come up with an outline of what he intended to write later in his text. Sahar, despite employing almost the same strategies as did Ali, on the other hand, behaved as if she was asked a question to answer with one word. Put it another way, while Ali seemed to perform idea generating, idea organizing, and goal setting activities, Sahar appeared to just come up with what Flower and Hayes (1981) describe as a “top-level” goal to begin with. As will be seen later in her drafting stage, due to her lack of skill in setting certain middle range and concrete goals, she was found to have problem moving her writing forward (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 9 and 10).

Examples 9 and 10 in Appendix I show that both writers seemed to not only have the same problem of finding their best moments of their lives, but they adopted the same strategies of direction rereading, self-questioning, task interpretation, and L1 use. However, Ali and Sahar were different not only in the procedures they adopted to cope with the problem, but they were also different in the success and effectiveness of the adopted strategies. Having read the writing prompt, as shown in Long Extract 9, Ali translated the sentence for himself and due to not finding a good moment, he kept trying. He tried to retrieve the information from his long term memory while repeating the key words borrowed from the task environment and as a result, he found being accepted for entering university as one of the good moments. Not satisfied with this choice then, he came up with another idea i.e., visiting his relatives in the Emirates after 15 years, resulted from using two strategies of repeating the key words (interesting

moments) and self-questioning strategies (what else?). Like before, he performed a brainstorming like behavior to search his memory for an idea to write about. He again used the strategies of repeating the key words, self-questioning, and rereading. Finally, ranking as the second best student amongst the students came to his mind as the third interesting moment to write about. After that, he planned the content and organized his ideas based on two criteria of ability to stretch the idea and language. As he stated in his think aloud protocols, “I should choose the one which I can write well and I can use good vocabulary”. In other words, he was planning globally and locally. Having made up his mind on the content, he moved to a more local and detailed planning asserting “let’s see what I can remember about the event” so that he can explain the detail of his trip to the Emirates. Having no problem recalling the details by saying “when I was 14, I went to Emirate”, he employed procedural planning and embarked on writing the event then.

As for Sahar, she also employed the same writing strategies of self-questioning, repeating the key words, and interpreting the task to find a good moment of her life. As example 10 in Appendix (I) shows, her first effort to find one failed and she tried for the second time while using direction reading, self-questioning, repeating the key words of the writing prompt, and interpreting the writing task. Having spent two minutes and forty seconds and employing the above mentioned strategies, she came up with an abstract idea of “getting acquainted with” her boyfriend.

In sum, considering Flower and Hayes’ (1980) writing model, while Ali considered three components of goal setting (narrating a story about his travel to Emirates), generating idea (a more detailed account of his trip), and organizing idea (where/how to begin and finish his narration) before his writing, Sahar just set herself a

vague goal (getting acquainted with her boyfriend) and started writing. Therefore, Ali as a good writer seems to be equipped with good planning, with what Flower (1998, p. 81) described as “a secret power” that problem solvers possess. Flower (1998) further notes that, unlike poor writers who may rely on trial and error strategy to begin their writings, “problem solvers rely on plans” and moreover, as was the case for good and poor writers of this study, good planning can have a good effect on the quality of writing. Due to his planning, Ali was able to write a coherent text while Sahar had to frequently shift the foci of her writing and hence, her narrative text suffered from lack of coherence.

Planning While Writing

Two groups of good and poor writers of the study were also studied in terms of their planning while writing. The most noticeable difference between the two groups was their ability to create new ideas in order to move the text ahead. There seems to be three main reasons for this difference. Firstly, they were different in the way they sought help for creating new ideas. In view of Flower and Hayes (1980), three forces of the writer’s ideas, writer’s plans, and the written text are responsible for creating new ideas and moving the text ahead. Good writers were able to seek help from the three mentioned sources while composing. They appeared to constantly retrieve the ideas from their long term memories through rehearsing or self-questioning. In the meantime, using rereading/repeating strategies, they appeared to have a good interaction with the text under construction. They were also found to use their monitor in order to move between planning, drafting, and reviewing. Poor writers, however, were not found to have interaction with their text and if they did, it was not as effective as it was for the good writers. They were not able to get help from three sources of ideas, plans, and the text. To be more exact, at every single time, they seemed to refer to just one or two of

them for creating ideas. Pari, for instance, instead of relying on her ideas, creativity, and plans, constantly paused for the new ideas and asked herself question of “what should I write?” Instead of searching her memory for related idea or seeking help from the written materials, she waited for what Flower (1998) describes as “inspiration”. Sahar, another poor writer, also appeared to ask herself questions about what to write quite often. She was the writer who, like Pari, did not get help from the written text. Instead, she relied on her ideas as she was writing. Fati, another poor writer, in contrast, was the writer who was highly reliant on the produced text and in fact, unlike Sahar and Pari, she mainly used the written materials as a springboard to generate new ideas. All the same, she was found to have problem moving the text ahead. The reason seemed to lie in her inability to get help from her plans while composing.

Secondly, another plausible explanation for the poor writers’ difficulty in the narrative task is their lack of creativity on one hand, and their teacher-dependency, on the other. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), creativity plays a crucial role by the time the writers are faced with an unfamiliar writing situation. Compared to the argumentative task where the writers were frequently guided by the format of the argumentative essay through recalling the instructions they had about different parts of an essay like introduction and conclusion, they did not mention any technical narrative terms like setting suggesting the fact that they were not sufficiently instructed on this genre. Assuming the fact that the three poor writers faced with an unfamiliar topic like narrative task in this study, due to being highly dependent on their instructors, they seemed unable to cope with this situation.

Thirdly, instead of using “heuristics” strategy which are “efficient strategies or discovery procedures”, the poor writers appeared to employ what Flower (1998, p. 53)

describes as “using rule” strategy where “rules tell you exactly what to do when”. Compared to the good writers who employed different strategies to make meaning, poor writers just jot down everything that came to their minds (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 11, 12, 13, and 14 for the differences between two groups in their on line planning).

Long Extracts 11 and 12 show the difficulties Pari and Sahar had in creating new ideas and moving the narrative text ahead. In extract 11, Pari appeared not to be able to continue the sentence (“I do not understand why”) and had to resort to firstly the written text through repetition/rereading and secondly her long term memory by using self-questioning and L1 use to move the text ahead. In either case, due to not using heuristics and creativity, she seemed not to get a good result. Excerpt 12 is an instance of Sahar’s problem in creating new ideas. Having written the first sentence about her boyfriend’s characteristics (“he was a good boy”), because of problems in continuing the main idea, she wrote about the first day they met each other. Later, after expressing the difficulty level of the task, she wrote about their relationships. Hence, due to not seeking from the written text and her plans, she just moved her narrative text by her own ideas. That is why she wrote an incoherent text.

Long Extracts 13 and 14 in Appendix I, on the other hand, show the way Ali and Majid created new ideas in their narration. Excerpt 13 shows that Ali generated new ideas and moved his narrative text ahead by establishing a smooth interaction between text produced so far, his long term memory, and writing processors. He reread his already produced materials and rehearsed his forthcoming ideas to create/organize his ideas and his text. In example 14, Majid seems to have his story in front of him and just translated the memories into written language. He seemed to employ his ideas and

plans more than the produced text because he mainly carried out his narrative task through rehearsing his new ideas and writing them down.

In sum, good writers were found to have a smooth writing session due to certain factors including having a good interaction with the text under construction, using heuristic strategies, and being creative. Poor writers, on the other hand, due to certain reasons including employing “rules” and “trial and error” strategies, not being creative in producing new ideas, and being dependent on their instructors, did not have an easy writing session. That is why they had to frequently pause in order to create new ideas to move the story ahead.

Translating

Translating is the act of composing the writer’s thoughts into written speech (Hayes & Flower, 1980). There were certain differences between two groups of good and poor writers of the study while they were composing. Perhaps the most noticeable difference between the two groups was in their priorities. While good writers gave priority to the content and idea, poor writers’ main objective was producing error-free discourse on the paper. This different attention to different aspect of writing was, on its own, the origin of certain differences between two groups of good and poor writers.

First and foremost, good and poor writers were different in the smoothness and the interaction they had with their text. Regardless of the differences between two groups in their ability in producing ideas while writing, poor writers constantly stopped composing to either check the correctness of both their rehearsed ideas and written discourse, or to find English vocabulary. In the case of finding a good English equivalent for their rehearsed ideas, they wrote it down; if not, they would either

abandon the idea or leave blank and continue. Good writers, however, due to emphasizing on meaning and content and having a good interaction with their texts, seemed not to get stuck for lack of idea or language problem. It does not mean that they did not have any trouble or problem while writing. Rather, it means that they apparently knew how to move the text ahead. In the case of not knowing a word or expression, due to paying attention to the meaning, they were able to rephrase the ideas so that they could handle the problem.

In sum, skilled writers gave priority to the content and idea while less skilled writers limited their choice to the individual abstract words and their translation. This attention to the word per se plus lack of vocabulary knowledge resulted in their employing two avoiding strategies of blank leaving and idea abandoning. They left blanks for the English words they were unable to recall whereas they abandoned ideas for either not knowing the English words they wanted to use or not being able to continue what they had already started (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19). These examples show the differences between Ali, the good writer, and Sahar and Pari, the poor writers, in the way they translated their abstract ideas into written language.

In Long Extract 15, Ali intended to express the concept of time in his essay. Instead of sticking to the “long time” which he apparently did not know in English, he rephrased the concept in a way that he could not only convey his idea, but also continue with his writing. He then decided to write “years” to express his meaning. In Long Extract 16, in contrast, since Sahar did not know the word “commander in chief” in English, she just left the idea and did not try rephrasing the concept. Had she focused on the meaning, she would have probably been able to write the simpler words like

“boss”, “supervisor”, or even “manager”. She did the same in Long Extract 17. Rather than trying to rephrase the idea or concentrating on the meaning, she narrowed her search down to the single abstract word and as in the first example, she had to leave blank and go ahead with writing. Long Extracts 18 and 19 taken from Pari’s narrative writing are also examples of idea abandoning strategy. In Long Extract 18, since she was unable to continue/finish what she had already started, she abandoned the idea and crossed it out. In Long Extract 19, on the other hand, she abandoned an idea because she was not able to find a suitable English equivalent for “tolerate” and wrote an irrelevant sentence down.

Another difference between good and poor writers’ strategic behavior in their narrative composing was the fact that, self-talk, like abandoning idea and blank leaving, was employed only by poor writers. They were found to talk mostly about the things not related to their writing. They seemed to firstly use it as a strategy to help them generate new ideas but later it proved to be a hindrance to them because they moved off the topic most of the time. Some examples are given below for illustration.

Excerpt 76 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...he likes his job...but he is tired of it...it is interesting, is it not? He both likes his job and got tired of it... he likes his job...”

Excerpt 77 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task) 53

“... ahhh how fast the apprenticeship period is passing, we had a very good time... this is the place we used to have conversational courses... in the laboratory, good old days ...”

Examples 76 and 77 are the instances of self-talk performed via un-intentional L1 use by Sahar and Fati. In example 76, Sahar rehearsed her idea about her boyfriend’s job and she suddenly had an internal monologue when she says “it is interesting, is it not? He both likes his job and gets tired of that”. The same self-talk behavior was also

witnessed in Fati's' narrative writing. In excerpt 77, this un-intentional use of mother tongue was not related to the writing and was in the form of self-talk. As can be seen, in the middle of writing, Fati, under the effect of the topic, got emotional and started remembering her "good old days" and talking to herself. Then, she reread the previous part to remember what she was writing about. Therefore, two groups of writers appeared to employ rereading differently.

Rereading was another strategy the two groups of writers employed differently. Poor writers appeared to use what Manchon et al. (2000) describe as prospective function of rereading to get help in order to finish what they have already started. Good writers, in contrast, employed what Manchon et al. (2000) describe as retrospective function of rereading to take care of coherence of the text and to check the grammaticality of the writing. There were also some times that they appeared to take help from the written materials to know what to say next. In other words, they did rereading to not only see what was said and how it was said but also know what they should say and how it is going to be fitted in the forthcoming parts. Taking it one step further, they seemed to have their ideas in their minds and reread the text to see how/what to write down; hence, a good interaction between the writers and emerging text was maintained. Poor writers, however, appeared to use rereading mainly for creating idea and moving the text forward.

Excerpt 78 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"There is nothing in my mind. I do not think I wrote more than 50 words so far oh my God...He was a good boy... He also looked appealing. He also seemed wise; he should not be lightheaded, *he was a good boy*...what else can I say to describe him? How difficult? 1, 2, 3, 4... It is not even 40 words yet. We started a good friendship, we start, started a good, I should say nice...

Excerpt 79 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

"...I had a very good feeling a very good and interesting feeling...*I had a very good and interesting feeling because*...I could not imagine that I was accepted

because *interesting feeling...I had a very good and interesting feeling because I could not imagine...I could not imagine...i-m-a-g-i-n-e, I can't imagine that I accept* I will add that here. *I like describe about my feeling when I see that I accept for university. I have a very good and interesting feel because I can't imagine, I could not, I can't imagine I accept for it accept for it*".

Examples 78 and 79 are the instances of rereading strategy Sahar and Fati employed in her narrative writing. In excerpt 78, after writing a sentence, she started doing a brainstorming like behavior to generate ideas. She talked to herself about the boy and when she wanted to write an idea down, she seemed to forget the previous one. She then resorted to rereading so that she might continue the writing. Then, she decided to write about something new which is totally irrelevant to the previous part. Thus, rereading was not helpful in writing coherently. Not considering the relationship between the sentences, she just tried to write more words on the paper. Example 79 shows the way Fati used rereading. As the example shows, Fati carried out her narrative writing through rehearsing, writing, and rereading. Besides, as is also evident from the example, rereading strategy seemed to be a useful choice in creating new ideas because she was found to add a certain discourses ("and interesting feeling", "because", "I could not imagine", "I accept for it") after each time she reread the written materials. However, the way she generated new ideas and moved her text ahead seemed to be different from that of the good writers. As already shown, good writers were found to have their stories in their minds and they reread the written parts mostly for knowing how to continue their discourse so that they would write more coherently. Also, the good writers reread the previous parts critically in the sense that it was the writer who decided what/how to say next. Fati, however, was the writer who seemed to be guided by the text she had already produced than her ideas or plans.

Rehearsal was another strategy two groups of good and poor writers employed differently. Firstly, two groups were different in the length and smoothness of their rehearsed ideas. Three poor writers limited their rehearsals to the smaller units of phrases and clauses whereas good writers were found to rehearse their ideas at the sentence level. Secondly, good writers frequently rehearsed their new ideas at the beginning, within, and between the sentences and the written text played the role of the discursal guide to them. In other words, it was their creativity and thinking processes that were responsible for creating new ideas while, for the poor writers, instead of relying on the internal knowledge resources such as their long term memories, critical thinking, and creativity, it was the produced text that mostly told them what to say next. These two differences between two groups of writers i.e., the ability of the good writers to rehearse both longer discourse and seeking help from their creativity and critical thinking, resulted in the effectiveness of the good writers' rehearsing strategy. This finding about different use of rehearsal between two groups of writers of the study is in accordance with Yang (2002) and Hu and Chen's (2008) findings that good writers rehearse their ideas more effectively (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 20, 21, 22, and 23).

Long Extract 20 presented in Appendix I shows that Ali employed rehearsal strategy for the intention of idea generation via retrieving the ideas from his long term memory. He rehearsed the whole idea first, and then put them down on the paper. In Long Extract 21, Elham, like Ali, rehearsed the content of the paragraph she intended to write first and then put the ideas down. She seems to rehearse the whole idea she intended to develop in the paragraph first and then during writing down the ideas, she again rehearsed the ideas in chunks perhaps to handle the writing constraints more effectively and more easily. Long Extract 22 is an instance of Sahar's rehearsal at the

beginning of the sentence for idea making. As noticed, rehearsing two similar sentences (“He likes to gain a lot of money, he likes it very much”) resulted in writing the same single sentence (“He likes be a rich man”). Fati’s rehearsal, too, as shown in Long Extract 23, did not exceed the sentence level. She rehearsed (“that night I could not sleep”) and wrote down the same sentence on paper. The general pattern emerged from her think aloud protocols was the fact that she seemed to create her new ideas mostly at the beginning of each new sentence by rehearsing them. The rest was mainly generated by rereading the produced part. In other words, opposite to the way the good writers used rehearsing, the initiating ideas were created by seeking help from her long term memory and her own ideas while the rest of the discourse was developed from the already produced materials. Perhaps the three poor writers were not able to rehearse and generate new ideas because of the writing constraints imposed on their cognition while composing.

Use of mother tongue was another strategy employed differently by two groups of good and poor writers. Note that all the six writers were found to heavily rely on their mother tongue in idea creating in general, and vocabulary seeking, in particular. However, there were certain differences in the way two groups employed their L1.

Good writers seemed to be more professional and properly moved between two languages of Farsi and English in their writing so that it made no interference with their composing process. They used their first language in different places for different reasons. They used Farsi at the rehearsing level to generate new content; they used Farsi while writing the ideas down in order to move the text forward, and finally; they employed their L1 after writing the ideas down to backtranslate the written ideas so that they would know what and how to proceed. The way they used their first language

confirmed what Ortega and Carson (2010) and Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010) stated. Putting forth “bilingual turn”, Ortega and Carson (2010) state that the L2 writers should not be seen as two monolingual writers in one and, considering the fact that L1 did not appear to interrupt thinking and writing processes, Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010, p. 78) argue that L2 writers are supposed to be “psycholinguistically multicomponent”. Three good writers of the study juggled between two languages easily and as the good writers in Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010), their L1 thinking and English writing were properly integrated. This smooth use of L1, on the other hand, seemed to be resultant from the fact that they concentrated on the meaning and not the single, abstract ideas. Instead of sticking to the word per se, as did the poor writers, they seemed to be able to rephrase their ideas while composing and hence were able to get their message across (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 24 and 25).

Long Extracts 24 and 25 in Appendix I show how Ali and Elham used Farsi in narrative writing. Extract 24 shows the L1 use both at the beginning of the sentence in rehearsal and in the middle of the sentences for translating the ideas. Ali firstly rehearsed the whole sentence and then while writing them down in English, he switched between Farsi and English (“and then came back (rehearsing in Farsi) we stayed there (writing in English) almost fifteen days (rehearsing in Farsi) about fifteen days (rereading in English) and (writing in English) we came back to Iran” (rehearsing in Farsi) to develop the text. Example 25 shows that Elham focused on the meaning and not on the word. Elham used the word “criterion” in her rehearsal before putting the idea down. While writing, however, it seems that she did not know this word in English and instead of blank leaving, idea abandoning, or direct translation as did the poor writers, due to be concerned with meaning and not the translation, Elham wrote “reason” and finished the sentence.

Poor writers, however, lacked this skill and limited their attention to the word per se and not the meaning. They failed to concentrate on the meaning they intended to convey and made effort to just translate the abstract Farsi words into English written discourse. Therefore, direct translation of Farsi into English was their first choice while writing. This, in return, resulted in producing some unacceptable English discourse. Sahar wrote “in the best form” instead of “correctly”, “what in house” instead of “either in house”, “work of women” instead of “women’s job”; Fati produced “old thinking” instead of “traditional view” and finally; Pari wrote “women better work” instead of “women work better”.

In the case of not finding an English equivalent, they either left blank or abandoned the idea. Note that good writers were not found to use these two strategies in their narrative task. Sahar and Pari were the poor writers who adopted these strategies. An instance for each strategy is given below.

Excerpt 80 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“... what is mutual in English? I cannot recall the word, let’s continue...”

Excerpt 81 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“It was awful in my life *in my life* I could not tolerate, tolerate, **because I cannot** what? ***In my life*** *it was awful,* for me but he was very kind...”

In example 80, Sahar left blank for the word “mutual” and kept composing. In example 81, Pari abandoned an idea due to not being able to recall the word “tolerate” in English and had to write the sentence (“for me but he was very kind”) which was not related to the previous sentence (“it was awful in my life”).

In conclusion, considering the way good and poor writers employed their mother tongue while composing seems to be in line with what Zamel (1982) found that it is the writing strategies that primarily differentiates between two groups of writers.

As already shown through the above examples, owing to their awareness of the fact that it is their message and meaning that is important and not the word alone, good writers were able to smoothly integrate their mother tongue into their composing while poor writers, due to concentrating on the word alone, failed to make good use of their mother tongue and had to leave blank or abandon their ideas.

Reviewing

The two groups of good and poor writers of the study exhibited their awareness of reviewing in two stages of while writing and post writing. Therefore, the similarity between two groups of the writers was in the fact that they did not postpone reviewing to the end of writing; hence, as reported by El Mortaji (2001), the writing processes of the two groups of skilled and less skilled writers were of recursive and cyclical nature during which different writing activities may interrupt each other. The following excerpts are the examples of reviewing while writing in two groups.

Excerpt 82 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...European, how is it spelled? European countries ... *c-o-u-n-t-r-i-e-s*, I missed something, *Europe* has **e** at the beginning...”

Excerpt 83 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“It is not bad to tell I think it is better to write **say** instead of **tell**...”

Excerpts 82 and 83, from Sahar and Ali’s think aloud from poor and good writers, respectively, are the instances where the writers reviewed and then inserted certain changes while they were involved in composing their narrative task. In example 82, Sahar takes spelling of two words (“European” and “countries”) into account and Ali, in example 83, replaces “say” with “tell” while composing. As can be seen, their reviewing behavior was in line with what Flower and Hayes (1981) believe. They believe that reviewing is applied from the time the writer intends to start writing and it can interrupt writing at any given time.

Apart from this similarity between good and poor writers, there were certain differences in their reviewing. The first difference between two groups was in the extent of attention and the aspect to which their attention was directed. While three good writers seemed to pay more attention to the content than to the grammaticality of the text, Sahar and Fati from the poor writers were concerned with surface level editing in both while writing and post writing stage. Consider the following examples of Ali, the good writer and Sahar, the poor writer.

Excerpt 84 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“... to visit them I should change this part since if I write **them**, it means those who live in Qatar, *to visit I travelled to UAE with my father to visit my relatives in UAE.*”

Excerpt 85 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“The day that I saw his no it does not need **that**...”

In excerpt 84, Ali decided to change “them” with “my relatives in UAE” in order to decrease the confusion of the idea and increase the comprehensibility of his narrative text. Although not explicitly stated, it also shows the readership concern in his writing process. He did not mention who the reader might be in his writing session but from this example, it can be perceived that he modified his text so that the reader would not misunderstand him. Excerpt 85, in contrast, shows the way Sahar, the poor writer, edited her text while composing. As illustrated, she concentrates on the small units of discourse. She seemed to edit based on what sounded right since she did not provide any justifications for the changes she made.

The second difference between two groups was in the knowledge and justification based on which they modified their texts. Good writers, through verbalizing their justifications for intended changes, appeared to mention the reason for

which they behaved so. This is in sharp contrast to the way the poor writers modified their texts. They seemed to edit or revise based on what sounded right. Most of the time, they just changed the discourse without giving any justification for their actions. Sahar, for instance, came to realize that she needed to substitute “his” with “him” in the middle of her narrative writing. Then, mistakenly, she replaced all “his” with “him” without rereading the sentences or considering the correctness of this editing activity. The following examples show the way Ali and Elham recalled their grammatical knowledge while reviewing.

Excerpt 86 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“*The most interesting moment* **were** or **was**? **Moment** is singular...**was** or **were**? When it is plural, I should ... *the most interesting moment*. The instructor exactly mentioned this...it should be singular...”

Excerpt 87 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“... before my death, **death** is noun here, *my death*, before my death, that’s right, as a noun...”

Extracts 86 and 87 are the instances where the good writers made use of their grammatical knowledge for editing or revising. In example 86, being in dilemma for “was” or “were”, Ali tried to remember what the instructor had told him and hence, he correctly wrote “was” and continued his text. Example 87 also illustrates the same behavior by Elham. She tries to use the correct word form by recalling the rule to herself. The modifications applied by the good writers were found to be based on their knowledge and because of this, they appeared to be sure about the changes they intended to impose on their written discourse.

The final different reviewing behavior was identified to be in the way two groups used evaluation. Sahar and Pari from the poor writers employed self and text evaluation negatively whereas good writers did not use this strategy in their narrative

writing. This “more confidence in their ability” (Francis & McCutchen, 1994, p. 15) to do their revisions was perhaps due to being more able to detect, diagnose, and correct the errors. Poor writers, in contrast, appeared to have a negative attitude towards both themselves and their texts. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 88 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...even I myself did not understand what I wrote...”

Excerpt 89 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“...my grammar is awful.”

Examples 88 and 89 are the instances of negative evaluation strategy. In example 88, Sahar acknowledged that what she was writing did not make sense; however, she took no measures to correct it. Example 89 is also an indication of the low self-confidence expressed by Pari.

The way poor writers adopted reviewing confirmed what other researchers have asserted. Myhill and Jones (2007), for instance, believe that poor writers are not able to diagnose their writing problem. In the case of being able to do so, they lack the ability and confidence to amend it. Hirose and Sasaki (1994), on the other hand, argue that low self-confidence is one of the characteristics of the less skilled writers.

Comparison of Good and Poor Writers in the Argumentative Writing

Planning Before Writing

Before starting their argumentative writing, the two groups of writers tried to set themselves a goal and plan the content and organization while employing the steps they had been taught in their composition classes. However, they differed in terms of the quality of their knowledge and the way they applied it in their writing. Poor writers seemed to have no problem with the declarative knowledge but with the procedural

one; they were good at setting abstract goals to achieve but not the concrete or what Flower (1998) describes as “operational” ones. All six writers mentioned the terms like “introduction” and “conclusion” but it was only the good writers who were able to make operational use of their knowledge. In this respect, poor writers directly reverted to their learned knowledge to produce and classify their ideas while good writers came up with certain ideas first and then tried to place them in their own paragraph. For instance, Sahar, the poor writer, firstly used her learned knowledge about different parts of an essay as an aid to generate/organize idea whereas Ali, the good writer, firstly created his ideas and then by considering the format of his essay, he placed them in their due places. In fact, Ali seemed to use a more or less top-down trend to generate ideas and structure his essay while Sahar behaved more in bottom-up fashion (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 26 and 27)

As Long Extract 26 shows, Ali generally took time to carefully consider the task requirements besides performing procedural and content planning. In order to find a focus and fully understand the assigned topic, he read the topic, translated, underlined, and repeated the key words, and then explicitly took his side mentioning that “I believe that the women should stay home after marriage”. He then moved to another level of global planning involving structuring. In order to do so, through rehearsal and brainstorming, he tried to come up with three ideas to support his main idea. Recalling the learned knowledge gained through composition instruction besides his general knowledge about the topic gained through his outside reading guided him to structure his ideas into his writing. He wrote three ideas in the form of an outline with intention to refine and develop them later in his writing. Finally, he finished this stage by performing procedural planning stating that “So I firstly write the content”. Therefore, because he was a pre planner, Ali had a picture about both the general aim and content

of his essay as well as the detailed ones. This sort of planning was not witnessed in the poor writers' think aloud protocols. As the poor writers' planning in Feng's (2001) study, Sahar, Pari, and Fati just had a sketchy plan in their minds before starting their text. Sahar, for instance, did not use much global planning at the beginning of her writing and because of this, she failed to consider her text as a whole.

Unlike Ali whose major and minor aims were clearly stated, Sahar's planning was vague and foggy; it was done very generally and at a very global stage. As Long Extract 27 shows, having read the assigned topic for the first time followed by translating it to her mother tongue, Sahar immediately took her side and showed her opposition. Recalling the received instructions and using technical terms like introduction and supporting ideas, she moved to the procedural planning performed via self-questioning. The writer then moved to the local planning aiming at generating the ideas suitable for the introduction part. She ended this stage by once more planning the content of the introduction. As noticed, what she worked on at this stage was just certain abstract learned knowledge and ideas. That is why she did not actually mention any word about the actual content of her essay.

Planning While Writing

Like planning before writing, two groups of writers also differed in their planning while writing. Planning to finish or start a paragraph was the strategy only employed by the good writers. Consider the following example;

Excerpt 90 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“Okay, this was our first idea, let's go to the second.”

Excerpt 90 indicates the adoption of planning to finish a paragraph by Ali where he planned to finish his first body and start the second one. The adoption of planning to finish/start a sentence or paragraph only in the argumentative task by the good writers suggests certain interrelated points. The first point is that unlike the poor writers, the good writers of the study planned and monitored the organization of their argumentative essays while composing. According to Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 374), the monitor plays the role of the strategist determining “when the writer moves from one process to the next”. As shown in the examples above, the monitor coordinated the back and forth movement that the writers should have between three distinct and at the same time, related activities of planning, translating, and reviewing.

Secondly, unlike poor writers who failed to look at their essays holistically, the three good writers considered their argumentative text as a whole. They seemed to be aware of the fact that they should compose their argumentation in a way that different parts would make a whole and because of this, they constantly monitored these different parts so that they would be on the right track. The final point vis-à-vis using planning to finish/start a paragraph is that the composing processes of the good writers gave more support to the recursive nature of their writing, as also noted by other writing researchers such as Flower and Hayes (1981), El Mortaji (2001), and Lim et al. (2011). The writers were constantly involved in reviewing and planning their ideas and essays throughout their composing activities and, opposed to the linear model of writing in which planning is done only at the beginning and reviewing is applied only at the end of composing, three good writers were involved in constant planning from the very beginning up to the end of composing.

Translating

The two groups of writers were found to be different in employing certain strategies while drafting. Repetition was among the strategies employed differently by two groups of good and poor writers while translating. The difference was in the purpose and the success resultant from this strategy. Note that besides certain differences between two groups of good and poor writers in employing repetition strategy, there were also certain differences among the writers in each group. For the good writers, Elham, for instance, was the writer who employed repetition less than Ali and Majid. Moreover, while Majid and Ali performed repetition in English, Elham mainly performed her repetitions in Farsi. For the poor writers, Sahar, unlike Fati and Pari, was the writer who rarely employed this strategy.

Besides that, two groups of writers seemed to be different in the purpose for which they employed repetition strategy. While good writers used repetition for the discursal purposes like vocabulary seeking or more coherent writing, poor writers appeared to use repetition in order to come up with an idea to write. This difference was more noticeable when Ali and Majid's think aloud (good writers) is compared with that of Sahar and Pari (poor writers). Because they had a highly recursive writing process, Ali and Majid constantly referred to their produced text to get help from so that it would help them in continuing their written discourse. The help they sought from the produced materials seemed to be mostly for the lexical decision than idea generating. They needed to know how to proceed than what to say next. Therefore, considering the fact that Ali and Majid did not have any pauses after repetition in their writings, it seemed that employing repetition strategy enabled them to both follow their ideas and establish links between single words successfully. Consider the flowing instances of repetition in Ali and Majid's think aloud protocols.

Excerpt 91 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“Earning money is the men’s responsibility... The men *the men* have to support have to support the family in financial issues.”

Excerpt 92 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“...and religion *religion* is so important so important about connection *connection* with the opposite sex, opposite sex, **opposite sex** ahan **opposite sex** with the opposite sex.”

Example 91 is an instance of the way Ali used repetition strategy for the purpose of moving the text ahead. Since he did not have difficulty in choosing the right word, it can be concluded that he firstly rehearsed the whole sentence and by the time he intended to translate them, he would break the sentence into smaller and manageable pieces. Then, employing repetition, he tried to provide a link between what was said and what is to be said in the forthcoming part. This is also the case for Majid in example 92. Like Ali, Majid seemed to repeat the produced words so that he could compose a better text in terms of the flow of his ideas. He also employed repetition for the rehearsed ideas before writing them down. He repeated the chunk “opposite sex” perhaps to see if it sounded right or not and then wrote it down.

Unlike Ali and Majid who frequently employed repetition strategy to compose a more coherent essay, Sahar and Pari were the poor writers who employed repetition strategy as a compensatory strategy to move the text ahead. Rather than seeking help from two other partially useful sources of their ideas and plans, they seemed to mainly rely on their written materials. Perhaps that is why Pari, when in trouble generating new materials, kept repeating the last produced discourse so that it might help her generate new ideas. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 93 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task),80

“I think emm no for example I think I cannot stay at home because I / I ...am very what? **Very, very, very busy** so emm **so so** what? Nothing comes to my mind, I forgot the sentence, what should I say? Emm **so so so** nothing...”

Excerpt 94 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Today, today ... there are many *many* many, successful, what was the word?
Aha successful...”

In example 93, Pari repeated the previous parts to know what to say in the forthcoming parts. As can be seen, she kept repeating the word “very” in English to get help for creating new ideas. It was a successful choice then because she was able to write the word “busy”. Having written this word, she seemed to be in the same trouble again and hence, resorted to the same strategy. After repeating the word “so”, however, she could not generate any new idea and she had to abandon the idea. Excerpt 94 shows the only time when Sahar used repetition. She seemed to repeat the word “many” so that it can help her guide and move her sentence. Furthermore, since there was no rehearsal at the beginning of the sentence besides having a pause in the middle of the sentence, she seemed to write down her ideas as they came to her and after a while she stopped to generate more ideas to continue.

Rereading was another strategy that Ali, the good writer, and Sahar, the poor writer, in particular, employed differently. The main differences between the writers were found to be in the two key issues of the writers’ interaction with the text in progress and the degree of their abilities to look at the text as a whole.

Ali was the good writer who appeared to constantly refer to the written text in his writing for different purposes of recalling a specific vocabulary, remembering what he was writing, and knowing how/what to write. Sahar, however, mainly reread over the chunks in progress to both move the writing forward and remember what she was writing. That is why it was only Ali who reread his outline while composing in order to know what to say next or if he was on the right track. Consider the following extract.

Excerpt 95 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I believe that the women should, *should stay should stay home after they get married* due to certain reasons *because of some because of some reasons*. Okay due to certain reasons... the first one is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home...”

Example 95 shows that Ali reread his outline (“The first reason is that the women can treat the kids better if they stay at home”) while involved writing a sentence. This sort of rereading appeared to help him in both staying on the right track and generating more ideas to continue. In other words, the purpose was both ideational and discursal.

Concerning the ability of the two writers to see their text as a whole, it seemed that the more the writer was able to look at the text holistically, the more range of discourse the writer would take into account to reread. Given the fact that Ali reread over longer discourses, he seemed to be able to see his essay holistically and hence, write more coherently. Sahar, in contrast, limited her rereadings to the smaller discourse. This local rereading appeared not to enable her to generate complete and related ideas (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 26 and 27).

In Long Extract 26, aiming at writing his first main idea in the first body, Ali searched for the word “treat” by asking question. He reread and rehearsed his ideas previously produced in an outline form in the hope of finding a good equivalent for the word “treat”. Gaining no result, he reread the sentences previously produced to seek help for moving the text ahead. He repeated the same behavior 2 times and finally he rephrased the idea through circumambulation and wrote “pay attention” instead of “treat”. In Long Extract 27, Sahar paused in every segment of her think aloud protocols to either check her text in terms of the accuracy or to look for the right vocabulary. By

the time she intended to compose what she had found in either case, she needed to reread the last produced part so that she could remember what was under construction.

Rehearsal was another strategy good and poor writers employed differently in their argumentative writing. In general, the six writers rehearsed their ideas to find a focus, to find a new idea, to elaborate/clarify an already stated idea, and to find a suitable word. Two groups of writers, however, were different in the location and purpose of employing rehearsal. Good writers, who had a good interaction with their text, rehearsed their new ideas in three occasions for different purposes. They rehearsed the several sentences at the beginning of the paragraphs; they rehearsed a single idea before each sentence; and they rehearsed for English chunks within the sentences. Poor writers, in contrast, due to writing the ideas as they came to them, tended to rehearse just between and within the sentences in progress so that they might find a way to move the text ahead (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 28 and 29).

Long Extracts 28 and 29 are the instances of using rehearsing strategy by the good writers. In Long Extract 28, Elham generated her ideas through rehearsal before starting a paragraph. This is an instance of rehearsal between the sentences in progress in order to both elaborate the previous idea as well as producing the new one. As can be seen, having written a sentence, Elham rehearsed the sentence “the first one [reason] is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home” to be written down. Long Extract 29 is an instance of rehearsal within the sentence just for the sake of generating new idea and pushing the text forward. As can be seen, interacting with his text, Majid rehearsed different chunks (“Muslims believe that”, “women must stay home”) to move the writing forward.

Unlike the good writers who appeared to rehearse on three occasions of beginning, within and between the sentences for different reasons of creating new ideas, elaborating the previous part, and generating new ideas, poor writers narrowed their rehearsal to the words and phrases to just move the writing forward (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 30 and 31).

Long Extracts 30 and 31 are the instances of rehearsing by Fati and Sahar. In Long Extract 30, Sahar used rehearsing both at the beginning (“some people”) and within the sentence (“out of house”, “women should not work in a manly place”). As observed in the example, she limited her rehearsing to the smaller units like phrases and clauses. Long Extract 31 also shows the same behavior by Fati. She rehearsed at the beginning (“I think situation and position”) and within the sentence (“but I like to work outside”). However, the rehearsed ideas did not extend more than a sentence.

L1 use was another strategy the writers employed differently while composing their argumentation. The first difference was the fact that good writers concentrated on the meaning and content whereas the poor writers thought about some single, abstract words and concepts. In other words, poor writers focused on the Farsi individual words previously rehearsed while the good writers used their Farsi ideas in order to convey meaning. Owing to prioritize content and meaning over form and single word, good writers, unlike poor writers who stuck to the words, were able to rephrase their Farsi ideas so that they could find the English equivalents for them (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 32 and 33).

Long Extracts 32 and 33 are the instances of the difference between Ali, good writer, and Fati, poor writer. In Long Extract 32, Ali intended to convey the idea that it

is the men's responsibility to work and earn money; however, the words he wrote were quite different from the words he rehearsed. In other words, due to paying attention to the ideas and meanings, he seemed to give priority to the content than to the single words. In Long Extract 33, however, Fati wrote the discourse she produced in her rehearsal. She rehearsed "some of the women" and composed the same chunks down.

This focus of the poor writers on single ideas made them perform a direct translation from Farsi into English. That is why they produced certain unacceptable English discourses. The instances are "in the best form", "what in house", and "work of women" instead of "correctly", "either in house", and "women's job", respectively produced by Sahar. This direct translation strategy was also adopted by other two writers. Fati produced "old thinking" instead of "traditional view" and Pari wrote "women better work" instead of "women work better".

The second difference in L1 use between two groups of writers was in the length of the rehearsed ideas in their first language. Elham and Ali, for instance, were the good writers who mostly rehearsed the whole idea they intended to write about in a single paragraph. When writing down their rehearsed ideas, they also employed their mother tongue in a way that they would divide the ideas into small pieces so that they could handle the writing more effectively. Poor writers, on the contrary, limited their rehearsals to the small units like chunks and single words (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 34 and 35).

Long Extracts 34 and 35 are the instances where Elham, the good writer, and Sahar, the poor writer, employed their L1 differently for rehearsing. In Long Extract 34, Elham firstly rehearsed the whole idea she wanted to express later in a paragraph in

Farsi. While she was writing the ideas down, too, she employed her L1 to generate certain more ideas. However, compared to the rehearsal before writing, the ideas she rehearsed while composing were in smaller units such as the phrase (“The reason why their responsibilities become more, in my view, is that...”). Long Extract 35 shows Sahar’s Farsi use during her writing process. As seen, in order to create new ideas, she did rehearsal in Farsi. Unlike Elham, the good writer, who appeared to rehearse the whole idea she intended to write in a paragraph, Sahar limited her rehearsed ideas mostly to the single words (successful) and chunks (women in society). What is more, during her rehearsal, she frequently looked for the English word by asking herself question. She succeeded in finding two words of “successful” and “duties”. However, when it came to the phrase “they do their duties efficiently” and “either inside or outside the house”, she mistakenly did word by word translation and due to the language difference, she wrote “they do their duties in the best form” and “what in out of house”, respectively.

Reviewing

Both groups of writers reviewed and modified their texts in both stages of during writing and post writing. However, there were certain similarities and differences between two groups of writers in their priorities and abilities in performing the intended modifications. With respect to the similarities between two groups of writers, they adopted reviewing from the very first moment of their argumentative writing up to the time they finished it. Therefore, in line with previous studies, reviewing was adopted throughout the whole process and it was not limited to the end of activity.

With respect to the differences, regardless of the individual differences among the writers of the same group, good writers were mostly concerned with the global

aspect of their composing whereas poor writers employed reviewing at the local level of their essay. That is why Elham, the good writer, also added some paragraphs in her redrafting stage.

Two groups were also different in their reviewing behaviors. Ali and Elham, for instance, tried to concentrate on the idea and content in their first drafts and hence, they focused more on writing holistically. In writing their first drafts, they did not deal with the mechanics or language aspect of their writing whereas Sahar and Fati were the poor writers who were concerned about the language aspect in both while writing and post writing stages. In this respect, Ali, in particular, seemed to lower his cognitive load by not paying attention to the linguistic aspect of his text while Sahar and Fati got in the trap of language monitor.

There was also another possibility for this difference. The three good writers had already mastered and automatized the language side of the writing while the poor writers seemed to have problem with this issue. Moreover, the three good writers seemed to give priority to getting their message across than the grammaticality of their texts and it was in their redrafting stage that they dealt with the modifications. It can be said that they behaved so in order to lessen the writing constraints during writing and they intentionally ignored paying conscious attention to the correctness of their written discourse. Sahar and Fati, in contrast, were the poor writers who were obsessed with the accuracy of their writing from the very first moment and because of this, it happened that they forgot their main ideas and hence, had to reread the materials they already produced in order to remember what they were writing. Consider the following excerpts:

Excerpt 96 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I think that ***I think that*** the eye catching issue I write issue here for the time being and change it later since repetition is not good in writing so *I think that the eye catching issue* after eye catching issue ***eye catching issue.***”

Excerpt 97 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“The more of men agree are agree **with** or **to**? **With** is correct I think.”

As observed in example 96, Ali was not satisfied with the chunk “eye catching” but he did not stop to think about other choices. Rather, he preferred to continue with his writing and he came back to look for a better choice in his redrafting stage. In example 97, however, Sahar stopped to check if she had used the correct preposition or not. Confirming the choice she made without any justification, she continued her writing. Therefore, another difference between two groups of good and poor writers was the justification they had for themselves for the changes they made to their text.

As already mentioned, not paying attention to the correctness of the writing in the actual drafting was one of the tools the good writers had in order to free their minds for information processing. This factor, alone, did not appear to make the good writers more able to write easily because Pari, like three good writers, was the poor writer who did not pay attention to the grammaticality of her text, either. However, she was the writer who had serious problem moving her text ahead. It seems that focusing on the meaning is just one of the factors attributed to the good writers. There are other things included like ability to generate ideas, ability to see the text as a whole, and ability to seek help from different sources for moving the text ahead.

Compared to Sahar and Fati whose first and final drafts almost resembled each other, Pari was the less skilled writer who made attempt to use both revision and editing while redrafting and hence, her final draft was the improved one. Despite employing

various strategies like deleting, reordering, and addition, the ideas were still the same in both drafts and she appeared to behave in a way that she improved her text in terms of the comprehensibility of the ideas she had previously come up with. In this respect, on the surface, she appeared to add a new paragraph to her text as her first supporting idea while redrafting. However, a closer look at her first draft revealed that the idea was already expressed in the original draft in her introductory paragraph and she only put those ideas in a more comprehensible order. Therefore, unlike Elham who discovered and added two more ideas in two separate paragraphs to her final draft while redrafting her argumentative text, Pari just tried to improve and polish her original ideas. Below is the sentence she produced in her first draft.

Original Sentence (Pari, narrative task)

I think the idea is very bad because no different between men and women so women can have a job outside.

As can be seen, Pari expressed two ideas in her first sentence in the original draft. She mentioned that she disagreed with the idea that women should stay home and that both men and women can have a job. While redrafting, however, she decided to separate the ideas and hence, placed one idea in the introduction and one to the body. Her think aloud protocols and the final drafts are given below.

Excerpt 98 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task/final draft)

“I think... this (substitution) idea that the women... should stay, *stay* home after they get married is really false (addition).”

Excerpt 99 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task/final draft)

“First, *first* ... I think no difference between men and women because what is both of them in English? Every body everybody... can have, *have* a job (addition).”

Extracts 98 and 99 are think aloud protocols and final drafts taken from Pari’s argumentative redrafting. As can be seen, she decided to separate the two ideas she had

previously combined in her first draft and put each idea in a separate paragraph while redrafting. Applying this revision to the sentence, she also used addition (“first”, “everybody”, “that the women should stay home after they get married”) and substitution (“this” with “the”, “false” with “bad”) strategies.

Summary of the Findings on the Second Research Question

The aim of the second research question of the study was to investigate the differences between two groups of good and poor writers in their strategic behaviors while composing. Analysis of the data revealed that two groups were different from each other in three components of Flower and Hayes’ (1981) writing model including planning, translating, and reviewing.

In general, the differences can be classified at two levels of macro and micro levels. At macro level, the two groups were found to be different in their priorities, degree of their interaction with the text, readership concern, and ability to see their text as a whole. These differences at macro level affect the way, purpose, occasion, and effectiveness of the employed strategies. Hence, these hidden underlying differences between two groups of writers manifested themselves at three writing processes of planning, translating, and reviewing.

In planning, good writers appeared to be aware of the importance of planning and performed both global and local planning through setting themselves both abstract and concrete goals and generate/organize ideas. Poor writers, however, despite employing the same strategies as good writers employed, were unable to perform effective planning.

In translating, three factors of concentrating on meaning, having more interaction with texts, and being able to have a wider view about text resulted in an effective and different adoption of certain strategies such as rereading, repetition, rehearsal, and L1 use by good writers. The same finding was reported by Hu and Chen (2008) where Chinese EFL good writers were found to be different from their poor counterparts in the effect and result of the adopted strategies.

Reviewing, the final component of writing in Flower and Hayes' (1981) writing model, was another area of difference between two groups of writers. Good and poor writers differed in their editing, revising, and evaluating strategies across two task types. In general, their reviewing activities were in line with what many researchers (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001) revealed about good and poor writers. Good writers were found to give priority to general idea and meaning in two tasks while poor writers were mostly concerned with local and surface language correctness. Two groups differed from each other in their evaluating strategy, as well. Sahar and Pari were the poor writers who negatively evaluated their texts and themselves in the narrative task whereas good writers did not adopt this strategy in either task.

RQ 3: Do the Iranian EFL Undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary due to the discourse types?

Skilled Writers in the Narrative and Argumentative Writing

Planning Before Writing

Three skilled writers were studied in terms of planning before their actual composing across two writing tasks of narrative and argumentative. According to the data, the writers seemed to be aware of the importance of this stage of writing and tried

to generate/organize ideas across two tasks. However, there were certain differences at micro level, that is, in the way or type of strategies they employed. This difference in the kind of adopted strategies, for instance, can be partially attributed to the different instructions the writers received on different genres and partially to the different nature of the writing tasks. For instance, in either task, the thing which appeared to remain the same was the good writers' attempts to generate certain ideas to begin with. Ali, however, was the good writer who employed task interpretation and self-questioning before starting his narrative task while in the argumentative task, under the effect of the received instruction, he intentionally took side and used procedural goal setting. Three good writers' pre writing strategies across two tasks of narrative and argumentative are discussed below in a more detailed account.

Ali was the good writer who exhibited similar and different behaviors before writing in two tasks. He appeared to be an advance planner in two tasks and wrote certain sentences in an outline fashion on top of his paper. However, there were certain differences in different discourse type. The first difference was in employing formulating position strategy. Having read the prompt a couple of times, he took his side mentioning that he is for the idea that women should stay home after marriage. The following extract shows his behavior.

Excerpt 100 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I believe that the women should stay home.”

As example 100 illustrates, Ali explicitly took his side in the argumentation. This is perhaps due to the different nature of the writing tasks. In the narration, the writers were found to just recall and narrate one of their best moments of their life while in the argumentation, they were supposed to argue in favor of their viewpoint.

Self-questioning strategy was another strategy Ali employed differently in different task type. He seemed to employ self-questioning strategy by the time he faced with difficulty when trying to search/retrieve information from his long term memory. Contrary to the narrative task where he asked himself questions for five times, in the argumentative task, because he had enough information about the topic, he easily retrieved the ideas from his long term memory and therefore there was no need for him to ask questions about the content. It seems that asking question about the content is one of the main strategies Ali employed to search his long term memory. This strategy proved to be of help for him and he was able to come up with certain good moments of his life thereby. This is in line with what the researchers (e.g., Hu & Chen, 2008; Wang, 2004) hold about good writers that they know how and when to use which strategy. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 101 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...The third subject, what can it be? What can it be? Entering university emm paying a visit to relatives in Emirates, emm, what can the third subject be? What should I write? The most interesting moment...”

As illustrated in the example above, before starting his narrative writing, Ali tried to search his memory through asking himself questions such as “what can the third subject be?” or “what should I write?” so that he can retrieve suitable information.

Considering the amount of time Ali spent, the strategies he employed, and the difficulties he faced across two tasks, it seems that rather than the amount of time, it is the quality of planning activities that matters. While in the narration Ali wrote the first word on the paper after 12 minutes, in the argumentation, he started his essay after 5 minutes. According to his think aloud protocols, he spent 12 minutes searching his long term memory to spot one of the best moments of his life while in the argumentative

task, he employed different strategies of brainstorming, formulating position, generating and organizing ideas, and setting procedural goals in just 5 minutes.

Planning before writing depends on many factors one of which is the writer's ability to retrieve the relevant information from long term memory for idea generating/organizing. As Ali said in his interview, since he did not have any special happening in his life, it was difficult for him to spot one. This, in return, reveals a serious weak point of the purely cognitive studies. Therefore, as also pointed out by Riazi (1997), a more socio-cognitive side of writing should be taken into consideration in the writing studies. Although Ali was a skilled writer, he had problem generating and organizing his ideas. This problem did not seem to stem from his lack of writing skill; rather, it was rooted in his personal and social life.

Elham was another good writer who used quite different writing strategies in two discourse types for the same purpose of idea creating. Before starting writing in the narration, she mainly employed direction reading and L1 use. In other words, she mainly relied on the task environment, that is, the writing prompt and she translated the prompt for three times. In the pre writing stage of the argumentation, however, besides these two strategies, she employed brainstorming and procedural planning, as well. Having mentioned the term "introduction", she seemed to retrieve the instructions she had received in her writing classes (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 36 and 37). Note that the amount of time she spent at this stage in either discourse type was almost the same (about two minutes and thirty seconds in each discourse type).

Long Extracts 36 and 37 show the strategies Elham employed before writing across two discourse types. In Long Extract 36, the only strategies Elham employed at

this stage were direction reading and L1 use. In the argumentative task, however, as observed in Long Extract 37, besides direction-reading and L1 use, she brainstormed her ideas and set herself procedural and rhetorical goals. She planned her essay at both levels of global and local quite carefully within this short period. She knew what she was supposed to do with writing, what she was supposed to say in writing, and how she would carry out her writing. This is what Flower and Hayes (1983) describe as “plan to do”, “plan to say”, and “composing plan”, respectively. With respect to the planning to do, she seems quite aware of the aim of this kind of writing. She knew that she should firstly state her opinion and later expand and support it. Then, she moved to the other level of planning which is local planning or planning to say. This is what Flower and Hayes (1983) believe to be the actual content of the essay. Finally, she seems to be able to employ planning during writing because, as will be seen later in her translating stage, she constantly generated/organized her ideas while setting herself goals during composing.

Majid, another skilled writer, was the writer who seemed to have the least changes in his planning across two discourse types. In the narrative discourse, he behaved like Elham and just read the writing prompt a couple of times in one minute. In the argumentative discourse, he read the assignment twice and then paused for a few seconds to think about the topic. He then read the prompt once more and then said “yes, why not?” Thanks to the two supplementary techniques of interviews and stimulated recalls, I could elicit the kinds of activities Majid was performing in the pre writing stage of each discourse type. He said that for the narration, after reading the writing assignment, the only thing that came to mind was acceptance in an organization. He mentioned that even if he were given the same topic, he would write about the same event. This is what he said.

Interview after narrative writing (Majid, good writer)

“Having read the prompt, acceptance in the Customs Organization immediately came to my mind and I started writing about this experience.”

In the argumentation, however, where he was silent for a couple of seconds, he mentioned that he had been thinking about the general idea he would write about in his essay. In other words, unlike Elham and Ali who tried to plan both globally and locally before they started composing, Majid has been performing only global planning. His stimulated recall data are reported as follows:

Stimulated recall after narrative writing (Majid, good writer)

“After reading the prompt for the first time, I considered two different ideas and viewpoints about the issue and then, I took my side. It was then that I decided to start writing; in other words, I needed to have something general in my mind by the time I wanted to start writing”.

As Majid’s stimulated recall shows, like Elham and Ali, he seemed to be performing an invisible global planning before starting his argumentation. He appeared to be what Cumming (1989) describes as emergent planner because, as shown in his stimulated recall, he just had a very general idea of what he would write and he generated his ideas more in the actual course of writing. Flower and Hayes (1983), on the other hand, state that this type of behavior should not be confused with “undirected, free-association sometimes encouraged as free writing” in which the writer “writes as it comes”. Instead, they continue, the writers are setting up certain situations for discovery. This is the case for Majid since, as will be seen in the next section, he knew the general aim and format of his essay and during writing, he discovered, formulated, and refined his ideas.

Given the fact that his planning before writing was not much different across two tasks, it can be said that Majid’s planning activities seemed to be more affected by his writing style than the task type. In either task, he did not write any word or outline

on the paper. Neither did he verbalize any activities vis a vis planning. Another point worthwhile mentioning is that, silence, by no means, can be equated with doing nothing in writing. As already mentioned, Majid was thinking about the general idea he intended to compose. This, in return, places a serious weakness to the think aloud protocols in depicting the activities of the writers. As shown, since think aloud protocols can be analyzed only when the writers verbalize their thoughts, silence may tempt the researcher to think that the writer is doing nothing while, in the case of Majid, he was planning silently. Hence, one finding of the study is that think aloud protocols, despite being valuable, cannot catch all the on line activities and should be supplemented by other sources of data such as interview and stimulated recall. This concern was also put forth by other researchers such as Wang (2004).

Interview Data on the Good Writers' Planning Before Writing

The similarities and differences in each writer's planning across two writing discourse types were also mentioned by the writers in their interviews. The similarity between the three good writers was the fact that before starting composing, there was a general idea in their minds about what they would write and it was during writing that the ideas emerged and were refined; hence, their writing processes were for meaning making and discovery. This finding was in agreement with that of other studies such as El Mortaji (2001) and Zamel (1982). Zamel (1982, p. 195), for instance, reported that "[S]ince writers do not seem to know beforehand what it is they will say, writing is a process through which meaning is created". The differences, however, were in their procedural planning and goal setting behaviors. They seem to be guided by the format of the argumentative essay because from the outset of their argumentative writing, they mentioned technical terms such as introduction and main idea. Consider what Ali, the pre planner skilled writer, mentioned.

Interview after narrative task (Ali, good writer)

Having read the prompt, I searched my memory hard to find the good moments of my life because there has been nothing special or interesting taken place in my life. Generally, if I am asked about bad memories as well, I cannot find it in my life; my life has been routine. It may have had slight ups and downs but not worthwhile mentioning. Amongst three interesting moments I found in my life, I chose the one which was not only interesting, but I also could write about. Then, I did not start writing about it fast; rather, I reviewed the story first in my mind and then I started writing.

Interview after argumentative task (Ali, good writer)

In general, compared to the first assignment, it was easier. I could perform think aloud easier, too. I think the topic was also better for me today since I had read certain articles about this issue before. By the time I read the prompt, like the other day, I wrote an outline for myself to mention three reasons about why the women should stay home after marriage.

Ali stated that, as reported above, compared to the argumentative discourse, he experienced a harder time in the narrative discourse because he did not have any special moment (i.e., good or bad) during his life time and hence, it was hard for him to find one to write about. In the argumentation, however, since he had read certain articles about the topic, he easily listed three things to support his viewpoint. Nevertheless, he acted almost the same in either genre at macro level; he firstly planned and created the content and then started writing. Also, in either task, he wrote certain key words on the top of his paper so that these key words would guide him through writing.

Unlike Ali who was a pre planner and tended to plan the writing in advance in either task, Majid and Elham were different in each task. In the narrative task, they both narrowed their pre writing stage to topic selection. This was especially true for Majid. As he said, being accepted to a company was the only thing in his mind and he did not think about any other event. In the argumentative task, in contrast, both Majid and Elham mentioned that, compared to the narrative task, they needed to think about the topic in terms of their position and the ideas they wanted to write in support of their standpoint. Elham, in particular, said that she had a general idea of what she wanted to

later express in the introduction, body, and conclusion in her writing. The following interview extracts report what Majid said after each task.

Interview after narrative task (Majid, good writer)

Having read the prompt, acceptance in the Customs Organization immediately came to my mind and I started writing about this experience, immediately.

Interview after argumentative task (Majid, good writer)

After reading the prompt for the first time, I considered two different ideas and viewpoints about the issue, and then I took my side. It was then that I decided to start writing; in other words, I needed to have something general in my mind by the time I wanted to start writing.

As can be seen, the only good moment coming to Majid's mind after reading the narrative prompt was being accepted to work in the company he wished to work for. In the argumentative task, however, he appeared to plan at the very general and global level. At the same time, he also considered the format of his essay and the way he would place his ideas in his argumentative text.

Elham also mentioned different things in her interviews about different tasks. Consider what she mentioned in her interviews.

Interview after narrative task (Elham, good writer)

I firstly read the prompt to know what it was about. Then I reviewed the interesting moments in my life and then, based on the criterion of the value, I decided to write about one... I did not know exactly the details of the writing I wanted to write. I just knew the general idea.

Interview after argumentative task (Elham, good writer)

I firstly needed to give the topic a thought to see what it required me to do. Then I decided to start with a fact like everyone has his own idea about this topic and then I just concentrated on my own hometown and the local people's ideas. My personal idea came next. However, it does not mean that I knew all the points in detail; I just knew the general aim and format of my essay in advance.

As can be seen, she said that in either task, she knew the general aim and general content of her text before starting writing. Regardless of this similarity across two tasks, she also pointed out to the differences. She said that in the argumentative writing, she had to plan the general format of her essay as well as the ideas she would write in each paragraph whereas in the narrative writing, she just recalled the good moment of her life and wrote it down.

In sum, this part reported the similar and different planning activities and the reasons the writers behaved the way they did in each discourse type before actual drafting. Although Ali was found to be a pre planner in either genre type, because of his background knowledge and the instructions he had received, he employed procedural planning and formulating position only in the argumentative writing but used self-questioning strategy in the narrative one. Majid, due to his writing style, acted almost the same across two tasks and started his writing quickly while having a general idea of what he will write about in either task. Finally, Elham, another skilled writer, acted differently in different discourse. She employed prompt reading and L1 use in the narrative writing to come up with an idea whereas in the argumentative writing, intending to generate some convincing ideas, she used brainstorming, local and global planning, and goal setting strategies.

Planning While Writing

Apart from the differences in their planning before writing in each discourse type, the three skilled writers were found to be different in their planning while composing across the two genres. It was only in the argumentative writing that they appeared to set themselves procedural and rhetorical aims to achieve. This finding parallels that of El Mortaji's (2001) on Moroccan participants. She observed that certain

planning strategies were employed in the argumentative writing and not in the narrative one. El Mortaji concludes that certain type of knowledge and strategies were not required in either writing discourse because it does not normally occur. She then hypothesized that the expository type has its own “theory” and requires some knowledge of things like “different ways of classifying the content” (El Mortaji, 2001, p. 350). The same seems to be true for this study. The following excerpt is given as an example.

Excerpt 102 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I firstly read the text to check the content and language”.

Example 102 is an instance of process goal employed by Ali in the argumentative writing. As it is shown, before redrafting, he decided to check the writing in terms of the language and idea.

Besides setting process goal during the argumentative writing, the three skilled writers also planned to finish or start a paragraph only in this discourse type. Consider the following example.

Excerpt 103 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“... okay, this was enough for the first one. Let’s go to the second idea...what was it?”

Excerpt 103 illustrates the use of planning to finish/start a paragraph by Majid. He planned to finish his first supporting idea and start the second one.

Employing these two strategies of setting procedural/rhetorical goals and planning to finish/start a paragraph only in argumentative writing suggests two points. Firstly, given the fact that the writers constantly retrieved the writing plans they were

taught in their composition courses only in the argumentative writing plus not mentioning any technical narrative terms like point of view or setting in their narration, it seems that the writers did not receive sufficient instruction on narrative writing.

Secondly, employing their learned knowledge manifested in setting process goals and planning to finish/start a paragraph can be looked at in terms of both their causes and effects. Apart from the instructions they had on this genre, the writers seemed to use these two strategies mostly as a result of considering the text as a whole. In order to set procedural goals, they had to know where they were, where they are, and where they want to go. The effect of this knowing what was said, what should be said, and what is going to be said is having an interaction with the text in progress. This better interaction, in return, made the writers maximize their access to the sources of knowledge in the task environment and their long term memories. Ultimately, it helped them move the text ahead and that is why their argumentative writing was found to be smoother and their ideas more coherent. As noted by Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 373), the reciprocal relationship between the writer's goal and new ideas move the text ahead in the sense that "...as goals lead a writer to generate ideas, those ideas lead to new, more complex goals which can then integrate content and purpose".

Translating

The three proficient writers' general writing behaviors remained almost unchanged throughout their writings in either task. In both genres, by using the key words borrowed from the task environment and considering both the comprehensibility and accuracy of their writings, they retrieved the information from different sources of their ideas, their plans, and the text to move the writing ahead while, at the same time, considering how to situate them into their writings. Put another way, an interaction was

observed between the text, the writer, and the assigned topic which correspond to the Flower and Hayes' (1981) task environment, composing processor, and writer's long term memory. Furthermore, Flower and Hayes (1981) maintain that three forces of the writer's goals, knowledge, and current text struggle to win the attention of the writer in composing and it is these forces that guide the writer in moving the text ahead. Given the fact the three skilled writers of the study revealed a good interaction between their long term memories, texts under construction, and composing processor, it can be concluded that they were able to seek assistance duly from these three forces. It seems that one of the characteristics of the good writers is their ability to appropriately and accordingly get help from these three forces while composing. This is in line with the general belief expressed in the literature that skilled writers, compared to their less skilled counterparts, are able to employ the intended strategies more effectively (e.g., Hu & Chen, 2008).

This effectiveness was also the result of the fact that three good writers appeared to focus on the meaning they intended to convey. For instance, by the time the skilled writers did not know a word in English in either discourse, they searched their memories first through asking question, circumambulation, and repetition. In the case of not being able to find the intended word or phrase, instead of abandoning idea as did the poor writers, owing to their focus on the meaning and idea, they either rephrased their rehearsals or reread the text produced so far in the hope that it might help them find another way to get their message across. Thus, the interaction between the text and long term memory is settled. By the time they intended to write their ideas down, they either rehearsed it or wrote without rehearsing. Through these interactions, it seemed that they took longer discourse into consideration and at times, this longer discourse turned out to be the whole text in either discourse type.

Apart from similarity in concentrating on meaning, having a good interaction with their text, and looking at the text as a whole in either discourse, the writers were found to be dealing with cognitive load and readership concern more, if not only, in the argumentative writing. The support for difference between these two concepts of cognitive load and readership concern in different task comes from different ways the writers employed certain strategies. In other words, in order to lower the cognitive load and consider the reader in the argumentative writing, certain strategies were adopted differently. These differences were found to be in the way three strategies of rehearsing, rereading, and L1 use was employed in each discourse type.

Majid and Elham, for instance, were the good writers who rehearsed their whole ideas in Farsi at the beginning of the paragraphs only in the argumentative writing. Firstly, producing ideas in one's native language is easier than in another language; therefore, they used Farsi for rehearsal. Secondly, by rehearsing their ideas completely at the beginning of the paragraphs to create ideas, they did not need to make effort to produce ideas constantly. Rather, by breaking the already rehearsed ideas into parts while composing, they appeared to use ready-made ideas and hence, they appeared to free their mind to deal with other aspect of writing such as idea coherence.

The same holds true for readership concern. Rehearsing the ideas at the beginning of each paragraph made the writers produce convincing sentences to be used in favor of their argument. Compared to the narrative writing where Majid and Elham did not rehearse at the beginning of the sentences, it seems that they wrote their ideas down to just narrate their stories. In the argumentative writing, however, they appeared to pay attention to the content of their ideas perhaps because they took the reader into

account. The three writers' different translating behavior in two discourse types will be discussed next.

Regarding rehearsing, Elham and Majid were the good writers who adopted rehearsing differently in different discourse types while Ali was the writer whose rehearsal behavior remained unchanged across two tasks. Majid and Elham seemed to be affected by task type while Ali wrote based on his writing style and was consistent across the two tasks. In either task, he cared for the language aspect of his text and rehearsing was one of his used strategies to check the discourse he intended to use.

Ali did rehearsing for different reasons on different occasions in either task. At the beginning of each paragraph, he rehearsed the main idea to be developed in the paragraph; in the middle of the sentences he rehearsed so that he would take care of the coherence and unity of his text, and within the sentences in progress he rehearsed to find English words to be used (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 38 and 39).

As can be seen from Long Extracts 38 and 39, Ali tended to rehearse his ideas similarly across two tasks. He rehearsed his ideas completely at the outset of paragraphs both in narrative ("There were many close relatives there. I knew no one there. My father introduced them to me one by one") and argumentative ("Now the third point. Earning money is the men's responsibility and the women are responsible for inside the house affairs") tasks. Hence, by the time he started writing them down, he knew the main idea and hence wrote the paragraphs coherently. He also rehearsed between the sentences and within the sentences in progress. However, the aim was different. As shown in the examples, in either task, while he did rehearsing at the beginning of the

paragraphs for the content, he did rehearsing in the middle and within the sentences to find suitable words and continue his writing.

Elham, like Ali, also used rehearsal across two writing tasks (see Long Extracts 40 and 41 in Appendix I). As can be seen, she did rehearsing more between and within the sentences in the narrative task while in the argumentative task, she rehearsed at the outset of the paragraphs, between the sentences as well as within the sentences. There seems to be two reasons for this difference. The first reason seemed to be in the readership concern. Although not explicitly stated in her think aloud protocols, in the argumentative writing, she took the reader into consideration while writing. As she mentioned in her interview after the argumentative task, the supporting ideas she intended to provide in favor of her position were of great importance to her. Therefore, she seemed to write based on what Flower (1998) describes as “reader-based prose” in which the writer takes the reader into account while writing. That is why she had to rehearse the ideas together as a whole to see if they were good enough to be expressed. In the narrative writing, in contrast, she was not supposed to argue or convince for/against an idea; hence, she appeared to just retrieve the moment from her long term memory to write it down.

The second reason for Elham’s rehearsing at the beginning of the sentences only in the argumentative writing seemed to be in lowering cognitive load. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the writers need to juggle the writing constraints while writing. Rehearsing the whole idea at the beginning of each paragraph seemed to be a good way to decrease the burden of idea generating in the actual drafting; she seemed to free her mind to deal with other aspects of writing and not the idea creating task. Then by the time she started writing down those completely rehearsed ideas, through

rehearsing chunk by chunk, she broke them into smaller and manageable pieces to facilitate the task. Consider two Long Extracts 40 and 41 taken from Elham's narrative and argumentative writing presented in Appendix I.

Long Extracts 40 and 41 reveal that Elham rehearsed differently in different discourse types. The ideas she rehearsed in the argumentation ranged from small units (their responsibilities) to the complete sentences (because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues) while in the narrative writing, clauses (when we want something from God) were the longer discourse she rehearsed. The reason seemed to be in the difference between the function of the sentences in each task. While she moved her narration chunk by chunk, in the argumentative, since she needed to write down convincing ideas, she had to rehearse them as a whole together. In example 41 taken from her argumentative task, she appeared to rehearse at the outset of her paragraphs by mentioning what general meaning she wanted to cover in the paragraph. After that, she frequently and constantly rehearsed her ideas while producing the sentences.

Like Elham, Majid was the writer who, due to lowering cognitive load and having the reader in mind, not only rehearsed his ideas at the beginning of the sentences only in the argumentative writing, but he also used rehearsing more frequently in this task. Consider Long Extracts 42 and 43 presented in Appendix I. As shown in Long Extract 42, Majid composed his narrative task without much rehearsing and difficulty for idea creation. He seemed to have his story in front of him and narrated what he was seeing. In Long Extract 43 taken from his argumentative task, however, he appeared to rehearse his main ideas first and then started writing them down. Moreover, due to his

attention to the idea and content, besides not having difficulty searching for the relevant information, he seemed to have a very easy writing session and did not pause while writing. He just recalled the events and put them down on paper. He tried to rehearse his ideas part by part, and wrote them down. In the second task, however, he behaved more cautiously and tried to rehearse his ideas both at the beginning of the paragraphs and sentences as well as the sentences in progress and at times, his rehearsal turned to be a kind of brainstorming to generate new ideas.

Rereading was another strategy employed differently by the three writers in different tasks. Ali was the good writer who employed rereading differently on two occasions. The first difference was the fact that he reread his outline only in the argumentative task. The reason related to the nature of the topic. In the narrative task, he was supposed to write about just one single moment of his life while in the argumentative task, he listed three ideas to support his standpoint; therefore, referring to his ideas in the outline was a must for him. He reread his outline to know what he has said and what he should say next.

The second difference in Ali's rereading strategy in two tasks was the fact that, compared to the narrative task, he reread more in the argumentative task while compared to the other two skilled writers, he did less rereading. He used rereading while producing all the sentences in argumentation while there were some sentences he wrote down without rereading in the narrative task. The reason seemed to lie in the differences in the purpose and function of rereading in either task. Because he spent more time rehearsing his ideas in the argumentative task, he appeared to forget what he was writing; therefore, this sort of rereading which was over longer discourse was witnessed only in argumentative writing. Besides, the purpose of rereading in the argumentative

task seemed to be for idea producing and writing coherently while in the narrative task, he mainly retrieved the information from his long term memory and rereading was adopted just for coherence in writing. Consider Long Extracts 44 and 45 presented in Appendix I.

As observed in Long Extracts 44 from the narrative task, Ali retrieved the moment from his memory by rehearsing the ideas in the middle of the sentence and hence, in order to continue, he reread over smaller discourse (“to Sharjah”). In example 45 taken from his argumentative writing, however, while writing his first sentences, he rehearsed his supporting ideas to plan the organization of writing so that it might help him with his writing. Having reviewed his main ideas, he reread the written sentence (“I believe that women should stay home after they got married because of some reasons”) twice to help him both generate a related idea to write about and remember what he was writing.

Majid was also different in either task with respect to rereading strategy. He seemed to reread his story in the narrative task to help him find a way to narrate his story; in other words, it was more for the language purpose. In the argumentative task, in contrast, he reread for the idea generating purpose because he mostly used rereading when he had difficulty moving the text ahead for the creation of ideas (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 46 and 47). In Long Extract 46, Majid reread the written sentence in the narrative task so that it might help him recall the word “announce” and “exciting” and it seemed that it was a successful strategy for him. In the argumentative example, however, he reread the sentence three times to know how/what to say next. This strategy, as in the first task, also proved to be helpful for him to find an idea in order to push the text ahead.

Elham also used rereading strategy in narrative and argumentative tasks differently. However, unlike Majid and Ali who appeared to use rereading more in the argumentative task, task type seemed to have no noticeable effect as such on the way she did rereading. Although she was found to be much dependent on the text under construction more in the argumentative task, it does not mean that the text type exerted serious effect on the way she performed rereading. In the narrative task, she wrote just four sentences without rereading the previous parts while in the argumentative task, she reread almost all the sentences.

The main difference was in the language she used to perform rereading. A comparison of her think aloud protocols across two tasks suggests that she reread her written discourse in both languages of Farsi and English in the narrative task whereas in the argumentative writing, she mainly reread her written materials only in Farsi. The reason seemed to be related to the cognitive load of idea generation in the argumentation. She probably employed Farsi to reread the written materials so that it might help her with the coming ones more easily. Consider the two following examples.

Excerpt 104 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

*“The important point that the important point that **that** can be mentioned here can be mentioned here is that people that people have **people** people **have many interesting** people have many interesting times in their life, people have many interesting time in their life...”*

Excerpt 105 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“In general, in general, people people have different ideas, people have different ideas, about this, about this issue, issue. People have different ideas about this issue. It depends on their, it depends on their thoughts...”

As observed in excerpts 104 and 105, Elham reread her previous sentences both in English and Farsi in the narration while in the argumentation, she reread the materials

mainly in her first language. Thanks to her linguistic knowledge, she did not stop to translate her ideas into English and it was an ongoing process. Using the Manchon et al.'s (2000) terminology, Elham backtracked the narrative text in L1 and L2 while she backtracked the argumentative text only through L1. In other words, she backtranslated the already produced text as a “look back” behavior to make her able to perform “look ahead”, according to de Beaugrande (1984).

Considering these two points, it can be said that her medium of thought for idea generation in the argumentative task was mainly Farsi while for narrating a story, she was able to use both languages of English and Farsi. Moreover, it seemed that, like Ali and Majid, Elham used on line planning and her long term memory to narrate her story while in the argumentative task, she needed to get help from the text produced so far so that she can not only lessen the writing constraints but write with better coherence.

Regarding the four sentences Elham wrote in her narration without rereading, if we assume that she was more reliant on the produced text in the argumentative task, then there would be certain probable explanations. A plausible explanation for this behavior could be the fact that in the narrative writing, two forces of her ideas i.e., her knowledge about the topic, and her planning (i.e., her goals), were the main drivers to move the text ahead. In the argumentative writing, however, she used three forces of her knowledge, her goal and the text produced so far, as suggested by Flower and Hayes (1981), to push the text ahead. Another possible explanation for Elham's rereading in the argumentative task may be the cognitive load concept. It seems that Elham employed rereading strategy in the argumentative task to help her handle the “simultaneous constraints” (Flower & Hayes, 1980, p. 31) of writing because “rescanning may help to lower the processing load which, in turn, creates more

favorable conditions for moving forward through the text” (Manchon et al., 2000, p. 15). What is more, this finding was also in line with the findings of some other researchers such as Cumming (1989) that the more cognitively demanding task calls for more heuristic search strategy. Overall, her writing processes in either task follow the pattern of creating her ideas, writing them down, rereading over them, and writing another part down.

L1 use was the final writing strategy the three skilled writers employed both similarly and differently in each discourse type. Ali seemed to use his mother tongue similarly across two writing modes. In both narrative and argumentative discourses, he used his mother tongue for different purposes of planning/generating ideas, reviewing/revising, and lexical problems. However, unlike Majid who only used the compensatory function of mother tongue for lexical searching, as will be seen later, Ali employed both compensatory and upgrading roles of his mother tongue. He employed compensatory function since nearly all his ideas were created in Farsi and hence, translation and lexical searching was inevitable for him. He employed upgrading function of lexical searching because of his meticulous attention to writing academically with elite vocabulary. It frequently happened that he decided to replace the already produced words with a better one. Excerpts 171 and 172 are the instances where he employed Farsi to rehearse his ideas in task one and two, respectively (see Appendix J for translation).

Excerpt 106 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“They were very happy to see me. They were very happy *happy* that see me after a long a long time. We stayed there for 15 days and then came back. We stayed there about 15 days about 15 days and came back to Iran went back to Iran with very nice memories with sweet memories.”

Excerpt 107 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...third...earning money...is the men’s responsibilities, earning money, the men *the men* have to support have to support the family in financial issues. The

men have to *support* the family in financial issues. Now I should describe these three...”

As can be seen, Ali rehearsed his ideas in Farsi first and then wrote them down in English part by part in example 106. In example 107, too, he did the same and rehearsed his ideas in L1 first and then wrote them down as he was proceeding.

He also employed intentional L1 use in either task to review his text for the purpose of editing or revising. Excerpt 108 from his narrative protocols and excerpt 109 from his argumentative writing are given as examples (see Appendix J for translation).

Excerpt 108 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“... so, I write, okay, *my my mother said*, no ... *my mother* should be at the beginning of the sentence, okay, so we place it at the beginning of the sentence, *my mother*, maybe it is better to use **inform** instead of **say** because of word repetition, *my mother informed me*...”

Excerpt 109 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“... the family can't have a good life and can't obtain their ... it is better that I use another word instead of aim ... like **purpose** or **objectives**, we use **objectives**... *and can't obtain their objectives easily*”.

As observed in example 108, Ali decided to change the place of ‘my mother’ and moved it to the beginning of the sentence while, at the same time, he also made decision about the word choice between “say” and “inform”. In the argumentative task, as example 109 shows, he also behaved the same. Aiming at finding a better word to replace “aim”, he reviewed two options of “purpose” and “objectives” and then decided to write down “objectives”.

Majid was another skilled writer whose use of L1 strategy was both similar and different in two tasks. The similarity was found to be in two areas. Firstly, unlike Ali

who expressed his hopelessness and evaluated the narrative task as difficult, Majid did not mention any word about the difficulty of the writing in either task; hence, he did not use his mother tongue un-intentionally. Secondly, he employed Farsi to solve the lexical problem similarly in two tasks. Rather than employing the upgrading function, Majid used Farsi for what Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010, p. 78) called “compensatory” purpose across two tasks. He resorted to Farsi not due to finding a better word to express but to find the original English equivalent. Excerpts 110 and 111 are the instances of his code switching for the lexical problems.

Excerpt 110 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“Therefore when the site of custom, customs affair, affairs, affairs announced, *the site of customs affaires*, emm what was the word? To announce... to tell people...to show on TV aha **announce** *custom affairs* announced the result of the examination...”

Excerpt 111 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“...and religion **religion** is so important so important about connection connection with the opposite sex, opposite sex, **opposite sex** ahan **opposite sex with the opposite sex.**”

As excerpts 110 and 111 show, Majid switched between two languages of Farsi and English to find English equivalents for the words “announce” in the narrative and “opposite sex” in the argumentative task type. In either situation, he successfully found the words he was struggling for.

Apart from the aforementioned similarities, Majid also used his first language differently in different task types. Differences in the generating idea and procedural planning were the areas in which he employed Farsi differently in different task type. It was only in the argumentative writing that he used Farsi to create the content and set himself a process goal. In the first task, he mainly employed L1 in the middle of the sentences to rehearse his idea in order to move the text forward and it was more of

language aim than content purpose. In the argumentative task, in contrast, he seemed to resort to L1 to lessen the cognitive load of idea creating/organizing so that he would be able to handle the writing constraints more effectively. Hence, in line with the findings of other studies about the way L2 writers search for their intended words (e.g., Cumming, 1989) or about L1 use regarding higher levels of knowledge task demands (e.g., Wang & Wen, 2002), Majid, like Elham and Ali, appeared to use his first language so that it would enable him to handle the writing constraints through regulating his mental processes. Excerpt 112 is an example of his intentional L1 use to generate ideas through brainstorming and rehearsing as well as procedural planning.

Excerpt 112 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“The second reason...about job...it depends on the husband’s job situation...yes...no... maybe, they should stay home, the first one had to do with the life situation and the second one deals with the husband’s beliefs...the beliefs are important. The second reason is the second reason depends on the beliefs...the husband’s beliefs. Now what should we do here? We should *support* it...”

As example 112 shows, Majid used Farsi to brainstorm and generate the supporting ideas in his argumentation. To do so, he rehearsed his new idea first and after reviewing the first supporting idea, he decided to change the idea of “husband’s job” that he had previously come up with the “husband’s beliefs”. Moreover, he planned locally by mentioning that he should provide support in the coming part, again suggesting that Farsi was his medium of thought.

Elham, like Ali and Majid, was the writer who made use of intentional function of her L1 in either task. However, unlike Majid who tended to use more Farsi words in the argumentative task in idea generating and procedural planning, she seemed not to be affected by the task type with respect to L1 use for generating new ideas. In fact, nearly

all the ideas she created was in Farsi and since she tended to backtrack and backtranslate the produced texts a lot, she used more Farsi words than her peers in the group. She employed Farsi for different functions of planning (goal setting, idea generating and organizing), reviewing (editing, reviewing, word choice) and, in fact, there was not a single sentence written without being rehearsed in Farsi. Excerpt 113 and 114 are the examples of her intentional translation/code switching while writing narrative and argumentative tasks, respectively (see Appendix J for translation).

Excerpt 113 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“I thought I thought *thought* I would have had difficulties *many problems and* many problems in **difficultly** difficulty *I would have many problems and difficulties* many problems and hardships would have by growing my child. One of the first things that was difficult, **from the age** from the age that from the age that he could understand, he understood I tried to learn him I tried to teach him *I tried to learn him* I tried to teach him when he wants to use the others’ things when he... *I tried to learn him when he wants to use the others’ things* when he wants to use the properties of others, he first must take he must take permission from others.”

Excerpt 114 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“Here we can get this conclusion that a woman can work outside if her duties at home, here we can get get this conclusion this result we can get this conclusion that that a woman can work out of the house if in the case of a woman can outside the house it doesn’t affect no effect on does not have a bad effect effect on her house responsibilities.”

In either example of 113 and 114, as noticed, Elham constantly and frequently moved back and forth between what was said and what was to be said while switching between Farsi and English. In other words, she translated the previously written materials to enable her to go ahead with her writing. Hence, she seemed to generate ideas mainly in Farsi across the two tasks.

However, she employed only compensatory purpose of L1 for solving lexical problems in the narrative task whereas in the argumentative task, she employed only

upgrading purpose. The fact that Elham made use of upgrading lexical searching only in the argumentative task (i.e., the more demanding task), and compensatory lexical searching only in the narrative task (i.e., the easier task), may suggest that the cognition hypothesis put forth by Robinson (2001) is correct here. According to this theory, increase in the degree of task difficulty will not degrade task performance and, on the other hand, according to Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010), the writers “can control their resources, monitor the task demands, and search for more precise, appropriate or more sophisticated expressions of their ideas” in the more difficult task. Therefore, Elham seems to be keener on the way she used lexicon in the argumentative task and because of this, she employed upgrading function of L1 in lexical searching in this task. Excerpt 115 is an instance of the L1 use for the purpose of finding a word while excerpt 116 exemplifies the substitution of a word (see Appendix J for translation).

Excerpt 115 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

*“The feeling of the feeling of being mother, mother was very worthy... the word valuable...that happened in my life was the time the God gave me my first child. The feeling of being mother was very worthy **worthy** worthy, worthy for me...”*

Excerpt 116 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

*“...we have many problems about, about this subject this, about this **event**, maybe it is better to use the word **subject** than **event** because it is a subject have many problems about this subject, **subject**, **subject** is a better word...”*

In excerpt 115 taken from her narrative writing, she intended to use the word “valuable” in her writing. She tried to find the English equivalent in her mind and after repeating the word in Farsi several times and also rereading the written sentence to help her, she finally came up with the word “valuable” and kept writing. In excerpt 116 taken from her argumentative writing, on the other hand, the purpose was word substitution and not word searching. While involved in writing a sentence, she intended to select the best word to convey the “subject” under writing in her rehearsal, of course. She finally came up with the word “subject” and wrote it down.

Regarding the un-intentional L1 use, it was only Ali who made use of this function across two tasks and neither Majid nor Elham used it in either task. As revealed by his think aloud protocols and interviews, Ali did not have any special moment in his life and because of this, he had problem finding a good moment of his life to write about. Because of this, he spent about 12 minutes before writing his first sentence in the narrative task while it took him about 4 minutes to start writing in the argumentative task. Hence, the amount of time spent before writing cannot be always taken as an indication that the writer is planning globally or locally.

In this respect, Ali's behavior revealed to be different from the common belief about the good writers expressed in the literature that they spend some time thinking about their ideas and the way they would organize them (e.g., Sasaki, 2004). In the narrative task, instead of thinking and planning about the overall structure of his writing or the ideas he would write about, he was just searching his memory to spot a good moment and it proved to be hard for him. He verbalized this sort of hardship in his think aloud protocols. Two examples are given below.

Excerpt 117 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"This is a hard topic."

Excerpt 118 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"I wish I could go there again."

Through this un-intentional use of their mother tongue, as examples 180 and 181 show, Ali assessed the assigned topic as difficult and verbalized his inner feelings vis a vis the moment provoked by the writing prompt of the narrative discourse.

Interview Data on the Good Writers' Translating

The aforementioned similarities and differences in their drafting were also stated in the writers' interviews. As the writers mentioned in their interviews, compared to the argumentative writing, they had an easier translating process in the narrative one. Ali mentioned that in the narrative writing, regardless of the difficulties he had in finding a good moment in his life, he was following the story in his mind as it had happened while, in the argumentative writing, he needed to take care of the unity of his writing as well as the ideas he wanted to convey. His interview protocols are as follows.

Interview after narrative task (Ali, good writer)

I followed the story I had in my mind. But, to tell you the truth, the beginning was not easy for me. I think it is the case for any time I start writing. After I start it, it becomes easier and the ideas come to me easily. When I started writing, I just focused on the content and tried not to consider grammar and spelling. For example, I wanted to mention that I took this trip when I was 15. It took me a while to decide where I could write it so that the text would be an acceptable and coherent one.

Interview after argumentative task (Ali, good writer)

The most important thing to me was how to support my standpoint i.e., the unity of writing when I was writing. I just focused on the ideas to be expressed and did not pay attention to the vocabulary or grammar.

Majid also held the same idea and said that he was just composing the narrative story as it had happened. Unlike the narrative task where he felt free and did not pay much attention to the structure of his sentences and writing, in the argumentative task, he had to pay attention to the strength of his ideas as well as the way he put them down on paper. This is what he said in his interviews after each task.

Interview after narrative task (Majid, good writer)

It was a good and easy writing. I actually composed as the things were coming to my mind...I do not think that I considered the grammaticality of the writing at all because, as I said, it was quite easy and there was not any need to do that.

Interview after argumentative task (Majid, good writer)

The most important thing was my ideas and beliefs when I was writing. I intended to write in such a way to convey what I wanted to write...There were

some instances where I was not sure about the prepositions or articles but I preferred not to pay attention to them as long as I was moving ahead.

Elham, like Ali and Majid, held that the narrative task was easy. She attributed this to the fact that she was supposed to just narrate a story and she did not use any difficult word. In the argumentative task, however, she needed to take the ideas, coherence, and unity of writing into account to have a firm argumentation.

Interview after narrative task (Elham, good writer)

In general, it was an easy writing and I knew the general points of what I wanted to say beforehand. I did not pause because the words I wanted to use were the simple ones and it was not difficult to recall them.

Interview after argumentative task (Elham, good writer)

I mostly paid attention to the content of my essay. There were some sentences coming to my mind while writing. At these occasions, I tried to remember them so that while redrafting I would change or add them to my text... While writing, I tried to take care of many points at the same time like spelling, grammaticality, coherence, and good content.

Reviewing

In general, the three skilled writers performed reviewing from the time they started writing up to the point they finished it and it was not an end of the process activity. This is in accordance with findings of previous studies (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Wang, 2004) that the writers do not follow the fixed order of pre writing, writing, and reviewing and different writing processes interrupt and indeed, are embedded within each other. Moreover, the writers of the study constantly reviewed and evaluated not only their texts, but also their ideas or what Flower and Hayes (1980) and Witt (1987) described as pretexts. Besides, it was found that the writers set themselves new goals and generate new ideas as a result of this reviewing activity which, in turn, made their writing process to be of meaning discovery and cyclical in

nature. Each writer's reviewing activities will be compared and contrasted across the two writing discourse types.

Regarding the differences, it was only Majid and Elham who were different in either task and Ali, as was the case for his planning and translating, appeared to perform reviewing based on his writing style. Different reviewing behavior spotted in Majid and Elham seemed to be related with the readership concern in the argumentative task. Majid, for instance, followed the pattern of rehearse, write, read, review in his narrative writing while in his argumentative task, he followed the pattern of rehearse, review, write. In the narrative writing, the story was of importance while in the argumentative writing, the ideas were important and the ideas should be firstly ratified and then written down. By the same token, Elham also appeared to be concerned with the ideas she wanted to convey to the reader. That is why she modified nearly all the sentences in the argumentative discourse while in the narrative redrafting, she kept some sentences unchanged. The three writers' reviewing activities will now be compared and contrasted across two writing discourse types.

Ali was the writer whose general reviewing process remained almost unchanged across two discourse types. As discussed in the planning and translating stages, he was the writer who exhibited the least changes across two tasks and his priorities across two tasks were almost the same. In other words, he seemed to compose based on his habit and style which seemed to be impervious to the discourse type. He tried to use the correct language alongside attractive vocabulary under the assumption that his writing should represent his knowledge of language and vocabulary. Moreover, he believed that he should write such that to show he was an EFL senior student. That is why, compared

to Elham and Majid, Ali was the good writer who seemed to pay attention to the grammar and vocabulary of his text more.

All the same, Ali's editing behavior seems to disagree with Perl's (1979) conception of "editising". She believes that students often lose the meaning they are trying to construct when they do not give themselves the opportunity to let their ideas flow freely and begin editing prematurely. As the following examples will show, Ali seems to be able to handle editing such that he will not forget the meaning he intended to get across. This is probably because he is accustomed to this way of writing so that no interruption would be caused thereby. Another plausible explanation is that he seems to prioritize meaning and content to the language and in order to convey the meaning, he modified his text. Therefore, he did not sacrifice meaning to the language (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 48 and 49).

Long Extract 48 where he substituted "travel" with "went" in the narrative task and Long Extract 49 where he substituted "normal life" with "good" in the argumentative task are the instances of text modification. In both occasions, he modified his text in order to get his idea across more effectively and as illustrated, the emphasis was on meaning and comprehensibility of the text.

Ali also modified his text in order to show off his vocabulary knowledge. Excerpts 119 and 120 are good examples.

Excerpt 119 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"... my mother said ... maybe it is better to use **inform** instead of **say**... my mother informed me..."

Excerpt 120 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...for example, **for instance**, I can say **for example** but many students use it so I write for instance...”

Examples 119 and 120 are the instances where Ali replaced vocabulary so that the writing would appear more academic. In example 119, he replaced “inform” with “say” to avoid word repetition so that the reader would realize the domain of Ali’s vocabulary. In example 120 taken from his argumentative writing, Ali tried to change “for example” with “for instance” not due to the text comprehensibility or avoiding word repetition. The reason, as he verbalized, was the fact that many other student writers may use it and hence, he preferred to change the word so that he can show his vocabulary knowledge to the reader. This, as will be seen later, was also pointed out in his interview. Furthermore, he spoke of the score as another impetus to check the grammar. He held that the most important point to remember in editing is grammar even if the content is vague. This, in return, indicated that the teacher was the main reader in his mind during writing and he failed to write for a general reader.

As can be concluded and also pointed out by Riazi (1997), the classes in Iran seem to be following the traditional product-based view of writing in which the teacher’s ideas about the learners and the final grades are the most important things. Furthermore, appealing to the teacher and showing off the language knowledge in writing are as important as the ideas, content, and getting the message across.

Majid, another skilled writer, exhibited both different and similar reviewing processes in his narrative and argumentative writing. The similar theme identified in his writing across two tasks was the fact that he reviewed his rehearsing in his writing and hence, in some cases, his rehearsed idea and written language were not the same.

Regarding the different reviewing behavior in two tasks, Majid modified his narrative text as a result of rereading the sentences he had previously composed while in the argumentative task, he mostly revised the sentences and ideas as he was composing them. In other words, his composing and reviewing occurred simultaneously in the argumentative writing while in the narrative task, he firstly wrote the ideas and then through rereading, he dealt with the modifications. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 121 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“**The second, The final reason** *reason* **is** *believe* **beliefs of her husband.**”

Excerpt 122 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“*My feeling is...* my feeling is, was, is, it is about past...*my feeling was...*”

Examples 121 and 122 above are the instances where Majid did reviewing on the sentences in progress in argumentative and narrative writing. Excerpt 121 shows Majid’s reviewing at the rehearsing level where he rehearsed “second” but wrote “final” on paper. Example 122 illustrates the way he modified his narrative text as a result of rereading. As shown in the example, he firstly wrote “my feeling is” but then after rereading the chunk, he changed it to “my feeling was”.

Three reasons can be mentioned for Majid’s different reviewing behaviors across two tasks. Firstly, as he said in his post-narrative interview, it was truly his best moment of his life and he was so impressed by the memory that he intended to just transfer the feeling to the reader. Hence, there was no time and no need for him to deal with the language aspect of his writing. Secondly, as he noted in his interview, the narrative task was easy for him and therefore, he did not use any difficult language or vocabulary which needs to be checked while writing. In other words, in the narrative task, as is evident from his think aloud, he used knowledge telling writing process and there was no need for him to refine or elaborate on any idea or language. In the

argumentative task, in contrast, his attention to the way he was arguing seemed to make him give more thought to the writing; he had to constantly plan, translate, and review both his ideas and texts to see if he wrote what he intended to.

Thirdly, as it is evident from his writing behavior and interview data, he appeared to compose his argumentation while having the reader in mind. Although he did not mention the readership concern explicitly, he seemed to consider the reader because of paying attention to the strength of his ideas. In the writing literature, it is believed that the cue or initiating condition for revision is “a dissonance or incongruity between intention and execution” (Flower & Hayes, 1986, p. 1110). Perception of this mismatch is the impetus for the writer to decide to change the text. Sommers (1980), in particular, gives “the anticipation of a reader’s judgment” as an example of this dissonance between intention and execution. It seems that Majid uses this cue as his criterion to modify his argumentative text while in the narrative task, his criterion was just the accuracy and the correctness of the sentences.

Elham, the final skilled writer, was also similar and different across two writing tasks. With respect to the similarities, she constantly performed reviewing through rereading the composed parts i.e., looking back (de Beaugrande, 1984), in order to plan the forthcoming ones i.e., looking ahead (de Beaugrande, 1984). Therefore, revision and editing were not performed at the end of her writing in either task. Moreover, this back and forth movement between “what was said” and “what is to be said” was mostly accompanied by translation and code switching i.e., backtracking and backtranslating (Manchon et al., 2000). She used her L1 not only to reread and evaluate the written materials but also to generate new ideas in either task.

Another similar reviewing behavior Elham revealed in either task was the fact that she did not perform any sort of editing i.e., surface level changes in either task. This was because she had mastered the language aspect of the writing such as spelling and punctuation. This was also pointed out in her interview. She held that since she felt she had mastered this area, she preferred to concentrate more on the meaning she intended to convey. Therefore, her mind was free to handle the more important aspects of writing such as meaning making, text producing, idea generating, and goal setting.

The final similar reviewing behavior Elham revealed was her concern for word choice. She made efforts to use the most suitable vocabulary so that she could convey her ideas in two tasks. Consider the following excerpts.

Excerpt 123 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“I wanted, because everything I want from god, I wanted my god to help me ...as one of the best people, person is a better word here, that can be used for the society.”

Excerpt 124 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“...we have many problems about, about this subject, this, about this event, maybe it is better to use the word **subject** than **event** because it is a subject, have many problems about this subject **subject, subject** is a better word...”

Excerpt 123 from narrative writing and excerpt 124 from argumentative writing are the instances of revision for word choice. In excerpt 123, Elham substituted “person” with “people” since she thought that the former is a better choice and can better convey her meaning. In excerpt 124, she substituted “subject” with “event”. However, unlike the narrative excerpt where she firstly wrote the word and then changed it, she did the substitution while she was rehearsing her ideas here.

With respect to the differences, considering that Elham both edited and revised more in the argumentative task, she seemed to take care of the comprehensibility and

unity of the text more in the argumentative task. To be more precise, she modified all her sentences while rewriting them in the argumentative task whereas many of the written sentences in the narrative task were rewritten as they were in the original draft. She also added two more paragraphs to the argumentative writing while she kept the same format while rewriting her narrative text (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 50 and 51).

In Long Extract 50, she added two sentences to her original sentence and she behaved as if she was writing the sentences for the first time. As in previous examples, she also used revision for the word choice in this example; she substituted “subject” with “issue”. In Long Extract 51, focusing on the general meaning and idea she intended to convey, she decided to change the second part of the sentence she had previously composed. Therefore, she changed the sentence “...the most of works that must be done by the woman” to the sentence “...her management for all of the responsibilities must be paid attention to”.

As mentioned before, many writing researchers (e.g., Bridwell, 1980; Sommers, 1980) believe that discovery of a mismatch between intention and the produced text initiates revision. However, Elham’s decision for revision seems to be triggered by something else. Although she had produced what she intended to, she decided to modify the sentence. Flower and Hayes (1986) appear to provide a plausible explanation for Elham’s behavior. They (p. 1111) maintain that the writers decide to change what they have already produced, albeit appearing to write what they intended to, because they have discovered a better thing to say in the course of writing; “[W]riting stimulates discovery, and discovery can initiate revision in the absence of dissonance”. This was true for Elham. Although she seems to write what she intended to, she decided to

change it in a better way. Also, it can be said that, as was the case for both Ali and Majid, she seems to have the reader in mind because she changed the text so that it would be more comprehensible for the reader.

Interview Data on the Good Writers' Reviewing

The three good writers were also interviewed on the way they revised and edited their texts while drafting and redrafting their works. While Ali was the good writer who approached both tasks in almost the same way, Majid and Elham said both similar and different things in each task.

Ali was the writer whose redrafting behavior, in particular, remained similar in either task. In both tasks, as he said, he tried to focus on the content and meaning while writing and in his re-drafting stage, his mind was free to just deal with the grammar and vocabulary. In other words, the main act of meaning making and discovery was performed in his first draft and in his later drafts, he just dealt with the surface editing.

Interview after narrative task (Ali, good writer)

The most important thing to me was grammar and structure. Since I firstly dealt with the content in the drafting stage, in rereading or redrafting, I mainly pay attention to the grammar. Because I am the senior English student, I should write in a way that you would realize my knowledge in language. This was also the case for the vocabulary; I like to use bombastic and difficult words. I also avoid using a word for two times in my writing.

Interview after argumentative task (Ali, good writer)

I edited my text so that my ideas support each other better. Also, I tried to change some simple sentences to the complex one, or reverse. I also substituted certain vocabularies with better ones. Since I usually focus on the content in my first draft, in the re-writing or reviewing, I mostly deal with the grammar and vocabulary.

Elham was both different and similar across two tasks. She was similar across two tasks in the sense that she took care of the accuracy aspect of her writing while she

was drafting. She was different in each task in the sense that in the argumentative task she paid attention to the mechanics of writing, general meaning, and linguistic points.

The following extracts are her words.

Interview after narrative task (Elham, good writer)

I mainly focused on the content and I liked to say what I wanted to. Generally, I guess I did not change any things because I tried to take care of the grammar of the text while writing.

Interview after argumentative task (Elham, good writer)

Firstly, I considered the grammaticality of the text at the time of the writing and the modifications were not just at the end of the writing. Secondly the most important things for me, both while writing and redrafting, were meanings, the writing mechanics, and the grammatical points.

Majid held that since the narrative task was easy, he did not take the grammaticality of his text into account in this task. In the argumentative task, however, since the strength of his supporting ideas were of high importance, he tried to use better grammar and vocabulary; therefore, he tried to improve his essay to argue more convincingly. Consider the following extracts.

Interview after narrative task (Majid, good writer)

Since the task was not difficult, I guess I did not use any special vocabulary or structure. Therefore, I decided to redraft my original text as it was. However, I changed some words and added/deleted certain articles in the text.

Interview after argumentative task (Majid, good writer)

What mattered were the ideas and beliefs I mentioned in my writing. I did my best to have a strong argumentation. It was also the case for my redrafting. If I felt that by adding or deleting some parts my argumentation would become better, I would do it surely.

Less Skilled Writers in Narrative and Argumentative Writing

Planning Before Writing

The three less skilled Iranian EFL writers were found to perform planning before starting their narrative and argumentative texts. There were certain similarities and differences in their planning behavior in two writing task types.

The similarity between three writers in either task was the fact that they appeared to be neither able to nor aware of the importance of this stage. Instead of trying to generate/organize some ideas or set different kinds of concrete goals, they limited their activities to either topic selection in the narrative task, or set abstract goals in the argumentative task. In other words, they appeared not to know that they were supposed to expand the idea later in their texts. Pari and Sahar, for instance, worked at the very global or what Flower and Hayes (1981) name “planning to do” level. They were not able to perform what Flower (1998) describes as “operationalizing” their plans and move to “planning to say” or the actual content of their texts.

Apart from this similarity between three poor writers in their two tasks, there were also some differences. Task interpretation was employed only in the narrative writing whereas setting procedural goal was the adopted strategy only in the argumentative writing. Sahar and Pari interpreted the task for themselves in narrative as a way to retrieve related information from their long term memories. Sahar, Pari, and Fati were found to use procedural goal only at the outset of argumentative writing probably under the effect of the instructions they had previously received. A detailed description of each individual’s pre writing processes across two discourse modes of narrative and argumentative can further reveal how they approached the task.

Pari was the less skilled writer who experienced a hard time before her actual drafting in the narrative writing. Like Sandy in Feng (2001), Ping in Raimes (1985), and Huang in Hu and Chen's (2008) study, Pari spent 17 minutes struggling to come up with an idea to start her writing. She started her text four times and each time she crossed the sentences out since she realized that what she was writing was not relevant to the assignment. In the argumentative writing, however, it took her just one minute to give the topic a thought. It does not mean that in the argumentation she did effective planning. Rather, the knowledge about different parts of the argumentative essay seemed to help her create and organize her ideas (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 52 and 53).

Long Extracts 52 and 53 show the strategies Pari employed in either task before starting writing. As can be seen, compared to the argumentation, Pari experienced a hard time before starting her narrative writing. In Long Extract 52, instead of trying to retrieve a good moment from her long term memory, finding a focus to write about, generating/organizing ideas, and setting goal to achieve, she wrote the ideas as they came to her mind, crossed the ideas out, and repeated the same steps again. Relying on the task environment per se and not seeking help from the long term memory by appropriate search for a relevant idea or planning /organization the ideas, she was unable to recall the best moment from her long term memory. Having read the writing prompt for the first time, she interpreted the task via self-questioning. Gaining no result, she once more asked herself question and decided to start her writing albeit being aware that she did not know what to write next. She moreover seemed not to know that she should set herself goal, generate and organize ideas. This "write first, think next" procedure happened four times and each time she crossed out the sentences she had

composed. Finally, after 17 minutes, she set herself goal and made her mind about what to write.

In the argumentative writing, however, as shown in Long Extract 53, Pari had an easier time. Having read the prompt for the first time, she formulated her position and thereby, she appeared to know the general goal of her essay. Then, she read the topic once more to ensure she had understood it correctly and then she moved to another level of global planning trying to recall what the composition instructor had told her about providing support. Although she seemed to know the focus and general aim of her essay, her planning was quite fast and she did not bother to think deeply about the writing; neither did she underline or write any word.

Sahar, another less skilled writer, appeared to act like Pari in either task in the sense that she worked with the very general and abstract level of planning in either task. However, as with Pari, setting process goal resultant from the instruction she had received seemed to help her in creating and organizing ideas. Long Extracts 54 and 55 presented in Appendix I reveal what she did in either task at his stage.

As observed in Long Extract 54, Sahar behaved as if she was asked a simple question to be answered with one word in the narrative writing. Instead of generating/organizing the content and setting herself a goal to achieve, she just came up with an idea of “getting acquainted with...” via using reading direction and self-questioning strategies. This behavior caused her to be hesitant and unfocused during writing and, as will be seen later, she had to change the focus of her writing several times. In the argumentative writing, however, as shown in Long Extract 55, having read the writing prompt for the second time, she formulated her stand. Another difference

between two tasks was employment of procedural planning. Unlike the narrative writing in which she only adopted direction reading and self-questioning to just come up with an abstract idea of an interesting moment of her life, she globally planned the organization of her text by considering different parts of the essay carried out through self-questioning (what can a good introduction be?), rehearsing, idea generating, and idea organizing strategies (I should firstly write an introduction) in the argumentative task.

Fati also appeared to have problem in planning before writing in the narrative task. She seemed to lack the skill in goal setting, generating, and organizing ideas in this task. Like Sahar and Pari, she seemed not to know what to write about and in order to solve this problem, she resorted to strategies of direction-reading, self-questioning, and task interpretation. Like her peers in this group, she limited her pre writing activities to the topic selection. In the argumentative task, however, as will be shown, despite employing the direction-reading strategy as the first choice, she behaved differently.

Long Extracts 56 and 57 presented in Appendix I show Fati's think aloud protocols across two tasks. As Long Extract 56 illustrates, the only thing Fati did before starting her narration was selecting a good moment of her life. Having read the prompt for the second time, she seemed to remember certain good incidents and then employed self-questioning, task interpretation, and rereading the direction strategies, she made her choice and decided to write about the day she was informed that she was accepted for university. In Long Extract 57, however, having read the argumentative prompt for the first time, by saying "okay", Fati seemed to understand what it entailed. To be more precise, like the other two less skilled writers in the argumentative task, she seems to perform "plan to do" quite well; she was familiar with the function of this sort of text.

She then reread it for the second time to find a focus and plan the content. After that, notwithstanding very abstract and general, she moved to “plan to say” level to generate and organize ideas besides setting procedural goal to achieve. She seemed to get help from her long term memory in recalling the stored writing plans while, at the same time, setting herself a goal and trying to generate new ideas through rehearsal, brainstorming, procedural planning and L1 use. She decided to write about different ideas in the introduction and her own ideas in the body; hence, she knew the general aim of her essay. That is why, compared to the narrative writing, she did not hesitate during writing and her writing process was smoother.

Another different planning behavior she revealed across two tasks was using brainstorming and rehearsing. In order to create ideas, unlike the narrative task where she only employed task interpretation and direction reading, in the argumentative writing, she employed brainstorming and self-questioning strategies to search her memory for ideas. Furthermore, she also searched her memory for language at this stage by asking “stay home or stay at home?” She ended her planning activities by local planning, deciding to write the main idea in the introduction.

A probable explanation for the poor writers’ difficulty in planning can be found in one of the patterns Flower and Hayes (1983) put forth. They present three patterns by which the writers may set themselves goals. One of these patterns is called “explore and consolidate”. The writers, according to this pattern, firstly try to search their memories to gather certain information to begin with. Later, they come back to review what they have gathered. Through consolidating then, the writers can draw inferences and create new concepts which, in return, produce a more complex idea. The writers of this study were able to employ exploring. They searched their memories to spot the best moment

of their lives. However, rather than reviewing the story in their minds and consolidating the information they have gathered, they immediately wrote down the first idea which came to their mind. Put it another way, they wrote under the principle of “write it as it comes” and no reviewing of the ideas were being taken place.

Last but not least, task interpretation was another strategy employed by the three poor writers only in the narrative discourse type. Compared to the argumentative task where there was no need for the writers to search their memories for the good moments, the narrative task required the writers to spot one of their best memories and write about it. The three poor writers seemed to have problem in both finding and selecting their best moments of their lives and in order to solve this problem, they interpreted the key words in the writing prompt for themselves through self-questioning and use of mother tongue. In line with the Flower and Hayes’ (1980) model, the writers adopted this strategy so that through interaction between task environment and long term memory, they could plan the content of their writings. To be more exact, the writers borrowed the key words from the task environment and took them to their past memories so that they could find a suitable idea. The following excerpts are presented for illustration.

Excerpt 125 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“Think of the most interesting moment happened in your life and describe it. Does it mean what makes me happy? What are interesting things to me in my life? ...”

Excerpt 126 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“...One of the most important moments of my life; in other words, it should be one of my sweetest memories...”

Excerpt 127 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“...it should be a nice moment...”

Examples 125, 126, and 127 are the instances of task interpretation strategy three poor writers adopted in the pre writing stage of the narrative writing. In example 125, having read the prompt for the first time, Pari interpreted and redefined the task for herself in her own words. She firstly read the prompt to see what it entailed and then embarked on searching her memory for the content. She tried to search for the content in her long term memory by employing task interpretation accompanied by self-questioning in her first language. Gaining no result thereby, she again asked herself question to recall one of the best moments of her life. Apparently, she used the key words of the task environment to look for the relevant ideas stored in her memory so that she would later use them in her writing. However, she seemed to have problem recalling/finding one in her life. Sahar, in example 126, also employed task interpretation via self-questioning accompanied by her first language only in the narrative task. Having read the prompt of writing, she asked herself question for the content for two times. Finding no idea to write about, she rephrased and changed the key words of the prompt while, at the same time, kept interpreting the task for herself (“in other words, it should be one of my sweetest memories”). By saying “getting acquainted with...”, it became clear that employing the aforementioned strategies have enabled her to spot a good moment in her life. However, as will be seen later in her actual drafting stage, she just tried to spot an abstract concept in her memory and due to this, she faced with many problems in generating ideas and finishing the task.

As for Fati, she also used the same procedure in the narrative writing. As example 127 shows, she seemed not to have problems understanding the prompt. However, she reread and interpreted the task while asking herself questions in her first language in order to find “a nice memory” in her long term memory. Having read the prompt, by saying “many things”, she seemed to spot certain good moments of her life.

In order to select one to write about, she used self-questioning strategy. She seemed not to be satisfied and resorted to task interpretation to find a focus to write about. Having read the prompt for one more time, she finally made her mind and decided to write about her acceptance for university.

In brief, the three less skilled writers were found to be different in the pre writing stage of the each task. While they employed task interpretation only in the pre writing stage of the narrative task, setting process goal was the planning strategy they employed only in the pre writing stage of the argumentative task. The writers seemed to have problem in finding a focus to write about in the narrative text and hence, task interpretation was the strategy they employed at the outset of their think aloud protocols to help them find one to compose about. Thus, they seemed to employ this strategy to compensate for their lack of knowledge in this task type.

In contrast, the less skilled writers were found to set themselves process goals to achieve only in the pre writing stage of the argumentation. Therefore, unlike the task interpretation strategy which they employed to compensate for their deficiencies in planning the narrative text, procedural planning, which was the result of the instructions they had received, seemed to be employed to guide them through argumentative writing in generating/organizing their ideas. Moreover, it was in this task that they appeared to both create and organize their ideas through employing certain strategies like brainstorming and rehearsal.

The reason can also be attributed to the different “theory” of each discourse type, as El Mortaji (2001) observed. According to El Mortaji (2001), each genre has its own “theory” and certain activities seem to be uniquely employed in certain writing

genres. However, unlike her study in which the Moroccan participants recalled their knowledge of literary terms like point of view and employed certain strategies such as borrowing certain expressions only in the narrative writing as a result of the instructions they had received, the writers of this study did not use any specific knowledge or strategy in their narrative composing suggesting the fact that they have not been adequately taught this sort of knowledge in their composition courses.

Interview Data on the Poor Writers' Planning Before Writing

The interviews held after each writing session not only proved what their think aloud protocols revealed about their planning activities, but it also shed more light on the steps they took before starting their texts. The three writers held that at the outset of their writing across two tasks, they did not have a definite and comprehensible idea of what they would write later, proving the idea of discovery nature of writing. As many other researchers maintain (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1981, 1983), writing is for meaning making and it is through writing that the writers come up with new ideas. Another point the three writers mentioned was the difficulty of the narrative discourse, as compared to the argumentative one.

Pari, the less skilled writer who spent 17 minutes struggling to spot the best moment of her life, for instance, said that she experienced a hard time before actual drafting of the narrative task. Here is what Pari said in her interview after the narrative task.

Interview after narrative task (Pari, poor writer)

Having read the prompt, I searched my memory to see what the best moments of my life have been. It was all in Farsi. I once realized that I had made a mistake. Firstly, I thought that I was supposed to write about several good moments of my life. Later, however, I realized that I should write only one. I even wrote a couple

of sentences and then I realized that I had mixed several things together...I did not have an outline and I had something very general in my mind.

Her interview protocols and think aloud protocols suggest two probable reasons for the difficulties she had in the narrative writing. Firstly, she thought that she was supposed to write about several good moments and not only the one. This, in return, suggests that Pari was a careless writer and did not read the writing prompt carefully. Secondly, she seemed to have problem both finding a good moment and describing it on the paper. The former case imposes a serious problem to the studies which adopt a purely cognitive view to writing. As Riazi (1997) stated, alongside with the cognitive activities taking place in the writer's mind while composing, the social aspect of writing should also be taken into consideration. As was the case for Pari, it was hard for her to recall a good moment of her life from her long term memory. Unlike Pari's former problem in finding a good moment of her life which was partially due to the social aspect of the writing, her later difficulties in describing and developing the story on paper seemed to be mostly explained by the strategies she employed while composing. It can be said that in either task, Pari and her two peers in this group were finally able to plan what Flower and Hayes (1981) describe as "top level" or abstract goals and it was the sub-goals or the actual representation of those ideas that created problems for them. The origin of this difficulty seemed to lie in certain factors such as lack of instruction, lack of creativity, and more importantly, lack of skill in goal setting activities.

In the argumentative writing, in contrast, Pari appeared to be at ease and, like her two peers in this group, was able to carry out her argumentative writing better. Furthermore, unlike her narrative writing where she did not have any idea about what to write next, in the argumentative writing, she had a general and vague plan of what she intended to write. This is what she said in her interview.

Interview after argumentative task (Pari, poor writer)

Like the other writing tasks, I read the title to know what it was about and as soon as I read the topic, I found that I totally disagree with the idea. Having something general in my mind, I started composing...By general thing, I mean good or bad/ agree or disagree. The rest came to my mind later, during the actual writing.

Thanks to the instructions she had received on the argumentation about different parts of an essay, Pari appeared to recall those instructions and hence, by the time she intended to initiate composing, she knew the focus of her writing and this general aim and global planning seemed to guide her throughout her argumentative writing.

Fati, the poor writer who tried to recall and abide by the instructions she had received while composing, also mentioned that she did not know in advance the details of her texts in either task and it was during writing that certain ideas emerged. This is what she said in her interview after the narrative task.

Interview after narrative task (Fati, poor writer)

Having read the prompt, I thought about it for a while and certain things came to my mind. I chose one of them for writing...the criterion based on which I selected this topic was my ability to continue it. I think this kind of writing was somehow difficult for me because I did not have much information about it. Moreover, from the time I passed the writing courses, I did not practice writing.

As can be seen, she said that she had not practiced writing from the time she had passed the writing courses. This, in turn, indicates two points; firstly, the writing classes in Iran are teacher centered and hence, the aim of the writing courses is just getting the needed score to pass the course and secondly, Fati is much dependent on the teacher. This latter point is what El Mortaji (2001) found about her Moroccan poor writers that “their knowledge of composing is limited to the classroom, which unfortunately focuses mostly on the form instead of the content”. El Mortaji (2001, p. 347) then concludes that

while good writers become independent after a while, “bad writers always depend on the teacher and what they were taught in class”.

In the argumentative task, in contrast, since she had some general idea of what she wanted to write besides receiving seemingly enough instruction, Fati could perform better. The following extract is in her words:

Interview after argumentative task (Fati, poor writer)

Having read the prompt, the first thing came to my mind was the fact that I disagreed with the idea. Then, I decided to mention my reasons in the body... I knew what I intended to write but very general and vague. To tell you the truth, it was not clear from the very first. I knew how to write but not what to write. I started to compose and it came to my mind gradually... if I were given this topic in the exam, I would know in advance what my reasons were.

Sahar also shared the idea of the discovery nature of writing across two tasks. She further pointed out that, as also revealed by her think aloud protocols, she just had an abstract concept of getting acquainted with her boyfriend in her mind in the narrative task.

Interview after narrative task (Sahar, poor writer)

When I read the prompt, I firstly was lost and had no idea of what I should write. After a while, getting acquainted with my boyfriend came to my mind and I simply decided to write about the event.

In the argumentative task, however, having generated/organized certain ideas at the outset of her writing, she could compose better. What she said comes below.

Interview after argumentative task (Sahar, poor writer)

In general, I think I performed this assignment better than the other one. Although the topic was a little more difficult, but I wrote the text with comfort. I guess, I had many pauses for the previous task but for this one, I was more at ease. When I read the assignment, I found out that I totally disagreed with the idea. Then I decided to mention my reasons about why I believe so ...I knew the general purpose of my writing that I wanted to say that I disagree and the rest came to my mind as I was writing.

Planning While Writing

Apart from the aforementioned differences in the pre writing stage of each task, the less skilled writers were also found to act differently in different discourse type while involved in their actual on-line planning. In the narrative writing, due to having difficulty creating new ideas, they had problem moving the text ahead. Besides, there was no sign of goal setting strategy. In the argumentative writing, however, three writers frequently set procedural goals while writing.

The problem the three less skilled writers had in planning while composing their narration can be explained in the light of the fourth principle of Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 381). It states that “[W]riters create their own goals in two key ways: by generating goals and supporting sub-goals which embody a purpose; and, at times, by changing or regenerating their own top-level goals in light of what they have learned by writing”. Writers create their own top level and abstract goals unique to each task. As the writers compose, they develop an elaborate network of sub-goals so that they can give concrete meaning to their abstract ones (Flower & Hayes, 1981). The researchers claim that the writers have the ability to revise and regenerate their top level goals as the writing proceeds. Regarding the less skilled writers of this study, they seemed to have problem with the second part of this principle. They, as already mentioned, appeared to set themselves goals through planning to do; they knew that they should narrate a story which is an abstract, top level goal. It was during their actual drafting where they were supposed to set themselves certain sub goals that they had problems; it was hard for them to say what they had in mind. In other words, they did not have enough skill for carrying out planning to say. Consequently, since the goals and sub goals did not follow each other and did not result in regenerating or revising, they wrote certain sentences following each other on the paper devoid of coherence between the ideas. Put it another

way, in the narrative task, there was a lack of interaction between the writer, text, and long term memory.

In their argumentative writing, in contrast, the writers set process goals while composing and this strategy seemed to help them in moving the text ahead. Goal setting strategy can be considered what Flower and Hayes (1983, p. 34) describe as “composing plans” because, according to the researchers, these are the plans which help the writers produce an “acceptable text”. The writers seemed to benefit from this strategy in several ways. It helped them in choosing the right ideas to be mentioned in each paragraph. Every now and then, for instance, they verbalized in their think aloud protocols that they should provide support for what they intend to write or it is time for them to write the conclusion.

Applying their learned knowledge of different parts of an essay in the argumentative task which was performed through a kind of setting a “top-level goal” (Flower & Hayes, 1983) also seemed to make the writers able to establish better interaction among three main components of composing, namely, long term memory, task environment, and writing processor. In order to perform this goal setting activity, they needed to resort to their long term memories to retrieve their learned knowledge. Then they applied this retrieved knowledge to the text produced so far. Therefore, in order to know what to say next, reviewing what they have written was inevitable. As a result of this better interaction between the writers and their texts and also a better interaction among three components of long term memory, task environment and writing processors, they, compared to their narrative writing where they only composed what came to their minds and hence, no interaction was witnessed between the writers

and their texts, wrote a more coherent text in the argumentative task. Consider the following examples of procedural planning.

Excerpt 128 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Now I should provide *support* here.”

Excerpt 129 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“How about the *conclusion*?”

Excerpt 130 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...now I will add ‘*first*’, ‘*second*’, and ‘*finally*’ to my text and it is all done.”

Examples 128, 129, and 130 illustrate that three writers took the organization of their writings into account only in the argumentative writing. Fati, in example 128, concerned herself about the procedural planning and the structure of her essay. Having different parts of her essay in mind, she tried to stay on the right track by reminding herself to write supporting ideas or concluding remarks. Sahar also revealed her planning behavior during writing only in the argumentative writing. As observed in example 129, she used self-questioning strategy to search her memory for an idea to be expressed in the conclusion performed via planning for organization. Finally, Pari, the less skilled writer who wrote mostly based on inspiration, towards the end of her writing in example 130, mentioned that she should add certain transitive words to her text suggesting that she knew that these are the three supporting ideas stated in the body of her essay.

Translating

The three less skilled Iranian EFL writers showed both similar and different writing behaviors across narrative and argumentative tasks in their translating stage. With respect to the similarities, these three poor writers seemed to mostly follow their writing habits and writing styles in either task. For instance, Fati was the less skilled writer who similarly relied on two strategies of rereading and rehearsal while

performing each task. Sahar also acted almost similarly while carrying out either task in the sense that she constantly reviewed her language; moreover, she almost always rehearsed her ideas in either task before writing them down. This latter point was in sharp contrast to what Pari did. She carried out her drafting stage without rehearsing her ideas across two tasks. She seemed to follow the same process of write first and think next in either task and despite the fact that she wrote her argumentative task more easily, she asked herself the question “what should I write?” in either task to generate new ideas.

With respect to the differences for each writer across two tasks, it can be said that, in general, they experienced a more effective and better writing session in the argumentative writing. Analysis of the data revealed that the main reason for this difference between the two tasks was in the kind of instructions they had on the argumentative task. Through setting certain procedural goals and recalling their learned knowledge while argumentative writing, they had a better interaction with their texts. That is why they neither abandoned any idea nor left any blank in their argumentative writing. Another difference emerged from the writers’ think aloud protocols and supported by interview was the readership concern in the argumentative task. The three less skilled writers were consistently concerned with convincing the reader while writing. They appeared to care for the essence of the supports they intended to provide so that they could best argue in favor of their viewpoint.

In narrative task, in contrast, due to concentrating on the immediate discourse, lack of planning, not taking the reader into account, and emphasizing on grammar, they frequently lost track of what they were writing; thus, they needed to scan their text to not only remember what they were saying, but they also reread the produced text to seek

help for generating new ideas. This behavior was not witnessed in the argumentative writing, though. In this part, the similarities that each poor writer revealed across two tasks are presented in a more detailed account.

Fati was the poor writer who mostly relied on two strategies of rereading and rehearsal in order to generate new ideas across two tasks. Throughout her writing sessions, she constantly rehearsed her ideas, wrote them down, and then reread the previous parts to move ahead. She performed rereading a lot in either task probably because of the instructions she had received in classes. As she stated in her interview carried out after each task, she believed that all sentences in any writing should support each other. Therefore, she reread the already composed parts to see if there was a link between the previous part and the forthcoming part in either task.

Another point worth mentioning vis-à-vis Fati's rereading or what Manchon et al. (2000) describe as backtracking strategy is that she performed this strategy mainly for the prospective reason i.e., idea generation purpose than for retrospective reason i.e., reviewing purpose. This behavior, interestingly enough, has been attributed to the good writers' behaviors in previous studies such as Faigley and Witte (1981) and Flower and Hayes (1981). Perhaps this difference can be explained by the fact that different writers, as a result of receiving different instructions in different contexts, have different ideas about writing and this difference can reveal itself through employing writing strategies differently. Regarding Fati's backtracking behavior, it can be said that since she was taught that the sentences in any piece of writing should be related to each other, she took a great care to write in a way to abide by this rule across two tasks. Another point that needs to be mentioned about Fati's rereading is that, as shown in the examples 204 and 205, she mostly performed her backtracking in English.

Considering the fact that two other less skilled writers performed backtracking differently from each other (Sahar performed backtracking in both English and Farsi while Pari rarely used backtracking), it seems that what has been mentioned about individual differences for employing backtracking holds true. According to some researchers (e.g., Smith, 1994), different writers may employ backtracking differently as a result of different approaches to writing in general, and task completion in particular. Consider the following extracts.

Excerpt 131 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task) 59

“That night I couldn't sleep, that night I couldn't sleep, that night I could not sleep... that night I could not sleep emm *that night I could not sleep that night I could not sleep* then I disconnect the computer from internet.”

Excerpt 132 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“For example, **some of the people *some of the women, woman, the woman* **like stay at home, like stay at home, for example some of the women like stay at home at home by themselves.**”**

Examples 131 and 132 show the way Fati created new ideas while writing each task. Excerpt 131 is an instance of the way Fati used rehearsal and rereading strategy in the narrative task. As illustrated, after rehearsing the sentence “That night I couldn't sleep” in English, she wrote it down and then translated it to Farsi so that she can extend and continue the idea. Gaining no result, she reread the sentence twice and she could finish the sentence. In example 132, too, she moved the argumentative essay ahead by employing rehearsing and rereading strategies. As can be seen, having rehearsed the chunk “some of the people”, she wrote down “some of the women” and then, in order to generate more new ideas, she reread the written discourse “the women” and rehearsed the new idea “like stay at home” to continue writing. Then again, she reread the whole produced sentence “for example some of the women like stay at home” so that it would result in adding the chunk “by themselves” to finish the sentence. The same procedure continued to the end of the sentence.

As for Sahar, certain similarities were observed in her protocols in two tasks. Firstly, she almost always rehearsed her ideas in Farsi before putting them down in English across two writing task types. Put another way, the ideas were firstly created and hence rehearsed in Farsi and then she translated those Farsi ideas into English in order to carry on her writing. Thus, rehearsal and translating were two main strategies Sahar used to move the writing forward in either task (see the following examples). Note that she wrote only one sentence in each task without rehearsal. Secondly, she was mostly occupied with the grammaticality and accuracy in either of the tasks. As also reported by El Mortaji (2001, p. 346), poor writers "...were more concerned with single words and grammatical correctness than the development of ideas". Consider the following illustrative examples.

Excerpt 133 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)251

"He helps me in everything, He help me in everything everything **everything** is one word or two words? Even in thinking, he helped me even in thinking, in *everything*, what is even in English? Even in thinking think ...in correct life in living correctly, what is to live correctly in English? He is a dreamy man, d-r-e-a-m-y"

Excerpt 134 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)82,133

"...they can perform their duties efficiently, **their duties**, that **they do**, they do their duties, well, shape, form ... form, yes, that's right, in the best form, form is a better choice...*d-u-t-i-i-e-s*..."

The examples 133 and 134 above illustrate the way Sahar employed rehearsing, translation, and reviewing strategies while carrying out narrative and argumentative tasks. In excerpt 133, she firstly created new idea through rehearsal (He helps me in everything) and then wrote it down. She then rehearsed the coming part and before writing the rehearsed ideas down, she checked the syntax (everything is one word or two words?) by using self-questioning strategy. Having confirmed the spelling, she started putting the ideas down in the form of chunks. Furthermore, as shown in the example, she looked for the suitable English equivalent (what is "to live correctly" in

English?) for her Farsi ideas. She continued this process of rehearsing the ideas, looking for English words, and checking the spelling to the end of her narrative writing. In excerpt 134 taken from her argumentative task, too, she exhibited the same pattern of strategy use in her writing. As illustrated in the example, having rehearsed an idea in Farsi (they can perform their duties efficiently) and English (their duties), she wrote the idea down. Then, she looked for the word “efficiently” in her memory. Due to performing a word by word translation and lack of her knowledge of English vocabulary plus paying attention to the abstract ideas and not the meaning she wanted to convey, she wrote “in the best form” which is not an acceptable English discourse. Moreover, as can be seen, she dealt with spelling the word “duties” while writing it down. She, in general, carried out two writing tasks through rehearse (in Farsi), write (translate from Farsi into English), and edit process.

Pari, another poor writer, was also found to follow certain writing procedures and strategies across two tasks. The similar theme identified from her think aloud protocols across two tasks seems to be the fact that she generated her ideas based on inspiration. As maintained by Flower (1998), the writers who compose based on inspiration are reluctant to reread what they have produced. Pari was not an exception. Rereading was the strategy she rarely employed in either task. In addition, she appeared to have the problem of “plan to say” in both tasks; that is, she was not able to produce the actual content of her essay, a problem that Flower and Hayes (1983) attributed to the lack of creativity on the part of the writer. She, furthermore, due to not being able to look at her writing holistically, concentrated on small discourse in each task and hence, moved the text ahead part by part. Moreover, when stuck, she tended to repeat the last word(s) she already produced in the hope that it might help her generate new content. She wrote chunk by chunk and then waited for the new ideas to come to her in order to

move her text ahead. In other words, for moving the writing forward, she tried to seek help both from her long term memory by employing self-questioning strategy, as well as her written ideas by employing repetition. The question she mostly asked herself was “what should/can I write?” This “what next” strategy, as named by Cumming (1989), is employed mostly by the poor writers to enable them to create new ideas.

Another similar behavior Pari revealed in writing both narrative and argumentative was, quite contrary to the other two less skilled writers, lack of attention to the language aspect of her writing. Unlike Fati and Sahar who were concerned with the correctness of the discourse they produced in two tasks, Pari showed almost no concern for the grammaticality of the sentences in either task. Her behavior was also in a sharp disagreement with the findings of other studies (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001; Lim, et al., 2011) where excessive attention to the surface level editing such as spelling and punctuation was among the features of the poor writers’ composing process. The reason was brought to light by what she said in her interviews. She mentioned that her awareness of her deficiency in grammar caused her to ignore this aspect and instead, she tried to concentrate on the essence of what she intended to get across. In other words, instead of spending time and effort on the area she knew she was poor at, namely, language aspect of her writing, she preferred to work on the aspect of writing which she could improve, namely, the general meaning aspect. Hence, by paying less attention to the accuracy side of her writing, she seemed to decrease the cognitive load of her writing so that she would be able to deal with the writing constraints more easily and effectively.

However, in spite of her awareness of her deficiency in language and deciding not to pay much attention to this side of writing in order to maximize the potentials of

her mind to handle the writing difficulties, her low level of linguistic knowledge, her failure to see the text as a whole plus her lack of skill in idea generating/organizing seemed to be responsible for her low performance in writing. The following excerpts are given for illustration.

Excerpt 135 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task),61

“I do not understand why...why, why, why, I do not understand why ...why, why what? How can I put it? **Because, because** what? **Why, why**, emm he supports me what? What should I write? What can I write?”

Excerpt 136 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task),80,129

“I think emm no, for example I think I cannot stay at home because I, I ...am very what? **Very, very, very busy so** emm **so, so** what? Nothing comes to my mind, I forgot the sentence...what should I say? Emm **so, so, so**, nothing...”

Excerpts 135 and 136 are the instances of the way Pari moved her texts in either task. In example 135 taken from her narrative writing, Pari wrote an idea (I do not understand why) without rehearsing it or knowing what to write next. Then, due to not having a main idea to expand or a general meaning to convey, she resorted to repeating the last word in the hope of getting help from the written sentence. Gaining no result, she employed rereading strategy and later, having no idea to write down, she used repetition and self-questioning strategies. She kept using repetition and self-questioning strategies to the point that an idea (“he supports me”) came to her mind and she wrote it down. Getting stuck for idea again, she felt desperate and searched her memory for ideas by asking herself question of “what should/can I write?” In example 136 taken from her argumentative writing, too, she had the same problem of lack of skill in planning in general, and idea generating, in particular. She wrote a sentence (for example I think I cannot stay at home because I am very...) down and in the midst of writing, repeated the word “very” to seek help from the written word to move the text forward. Coming up with the word “busy”, she again stopped to search her memory for ideas and not for language because, as mentioned above, she tried not to pay much

attention to the linguistic aspect of her writing and she mainly searched her long term memory to retrieve the materials and put them down on paper. Although the knowledge of different parts of an argumentative essay seemed to help her in the argumentative task, the same process of “write first, think next” was prevailing in her argumentative writing, too.

Overall, Pari was the less skilled writer who appeared to have problem with generating ideas while writing. In order to solve this problem, she resorted to repetition and self-questioning strategies across two tasks; therefore, she performed her narrative and argumentative writing following the simple pattern of write, repeat/self-question, write.

To recap, the three poor writers were found to generally follow the same steps and employ the same strategies in either discourse of narrative or argumentative. Moreover, they were found to jot down what came to mind and hence no polishing, refining, or elaborating of ideas was seen in their writings. However, there were certain differences for each writer across two writing tasks. These differences are discussed next.

Poor writers employed blank leaving, abandoning idea, scanning, and L1 strategies differently in different tasks. It should be mentioned from the outset that while Fati did not employ these two strategies in either task, both Pari and Sahar used blank leaving and abandoning ideas in the narrative task. Perhaps Fati, unlike Sahar and Pari, was able to get her message across in either task and hence, there was no need for her to either leave blank or abandon her ideas.

Sahar and Pari decided to either leave blank or abandon their ideas by the time they were not able to continue their writings only in the narrative task type. It seems that the writers adopted these two strategies as a result of not concentrating on meaning and lack of interaction with their texts. Due to focusing attention on the single abstract word at any time, they were deprived of paying attention to the meaning they wanted to convey and instead, they limited themselves to translating single words on the paper. Also, they composed their narration almost in one way direction; therefore, abandoning idea and blank leaving were the strategies they had to employ to continue.

Note that the reason for blank leaving was purely lexical deficiency and they left blanks for the English words they were not able to recall. Abandoning ideas, on the other hand, was employed because of both lexical deficiency and idea generating deficiency. They abandoned their ideas due to either not knowing the English words or not being able to continue what they had already started. Consider the examples below.

Excerpt 137 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“what is mutual in English? I cannot recall the word, let it go...”

Excerpt 138 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“He is an officer in sea force, what is commander in chief? ...let’s continue”.

Excerpt 139 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“~~I like~~, *I like* ~~have you~~, no... *I like* emm...What? When I am sad just think to you can calm me...”

Excerpt 140 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“It was awful in my life *in my life* I could not tolerate, tolerate, **because I cannot**, what? *In my life*, *it was awful*, for me but he was very kind...”

Example 137 is an instance of blank leaving strategy and examples 138, 139, and 140 are the instances of abandoning idea strategy. In example 137, Sahar did not know the word “mutual” in English and hence, decided to leave blank. She did not bother to rephrase the word due to her extreme attention to the word and not the

meaning she wanted to convey. In example 138, she abandoned her idea due to not knowing the English equivalent for “commander in chief” and therefore she did not write it on the paper. In example 139, Pari abandoned the idea of “I like have you” because of not knowing what to say next. In contrast, in example 140, she abandoned “I could not tolerate” because she did not know the word “tolerate” in English and hence, the reason was lack of lexical knowledge.

Besides using blank leaving and abandoning idea strategies, scanning strategy was another strategy employed by the three poor writers only in the narrative task. They adopted scanning by the time they either forgot what they were writing and hence had to scan the text so that they can remember what they were writing or they scanned their text in the hope of getting help to make them able to produce new related ideas. However, it was accompanied by editing strategy at times which, in turn, made the writing more difficult for the writers. The fact that the writers did not forget what they were writing and hence, did not scan their text in the argumentative task lend more support to the conclusion that they were able to consider the text as a whole, to interact with their texts, to concentrate on meanings, and to see their writing as a whole (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 58, 59, and 60).

Long Extracts 58, 59, and 60 are the instances of using scanning strategy by three poor writers in the narrative task. In Long Extract 58, Sahar forgot what she was writing and therefore she resorted to the scanning strategy as an aid so that it might help her to stay on track and remember what she was saying. Having scanned the previous parts, she asked herself questions for the content and she finally came up with an idea (“his good behaviors are more than his bad ones”) to write about. Another example of rescanning is given from Pari’s narrative writing. Long Extract 59, too, is an instance of

employing rescanning strategy taken from Pari's think aloud protocols in the narrative task. Having written a sentence down, she complained about the difficulty level of the task followed by self-questioning strategy for the content. Gaining no result then, she used scanning strategy so that the composed material may help her create new ideas to write about. It was then proved to be a successful choice and she could produce the sentence "I have best time with my friend". In Long Extract 60, Fati forgot what she was writing because she stopped to add "that" to her sentence. Like Pari and Sahar, she firstly asked herself a question and then, due to not gaining any result, she decided to scan the written text in the hope that it might help her create a new idea. This strategy was of use to her and she could add "for it" to the unfinished sentence "I accept".

Use of mother tongue was the last strategy the three poor writers employed differently in different tasks. While in the argumentative task the writers were found to be more focused on the task and composition, in the narrative writing, they were found to talk to themselves to the extent that they went off the target and hence, by the time they intended to continue their writings, they had to reread or even scan the whole or part of the text they had already produced.

Analysis of the writers' think aloud protocols revealed that the way they used their mother tongue in the narrative task was different from the way used in the argumentative task because of their inability to generate new ideas and set suitable goals, lack of instruction, and not being creative in their narration. In the argumentative task, they were found to be guided by the procedural goals they set for themselves throughout their writing and, in fact, this learned knowledge about different parts of an essay and the roles they play in any argumentative writing helped them generate and organize their ideas; consequently, they faced with less difficulty moving the text ahead.

In the narrative writing, in contrast, in order to move the writing forward, they appeared to talk to themselves in a brainstorm fashion to create or organize new ideas. However, the result was counterproductive, at times. Since they were supposed to think and write about one of the best moments of their lives, they occasionally became emotional and their monologue turned out to move off topic. Consider the following English and Farsi excerpts (see Appendix J for translation):

Excerpt 141 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“When I appointment with my friend, I sense that he is he was very different with all of people. Oh, thanks God that I have you in my life. I cannot imagine what would happen if I did not have you. I cannot even think of that. I do not know how long this is going to continue. The thing that I know is that you are the most valuable thing in my life ... I was very happy...”

Excerpt 142 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“Let me explain the day I saw him. I had **stress**. I had stress. Oh my God, I remember I had too much **stress** and I could hardly move my legs. Because it was our first time to see each other. Then... it was not such a big deal... Finally I saw him, finally ...at last... in the end... finally, does it have one or two ‘L’? Two Ls, I saw him...I liked him very much, I do not know why, it was a nice day... He was a good boy... He also looked appealing. He also seemed wise; he should not be lightheaded, *he was a good boy*...what else can I say to describe him?”

Excerpt 143 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“*I could not believe...* ahhh how fast the apprenticeship period is passing, we had a very good time... this is the place we used to have conversational courses... in the laboratory, good old days ... *I could not believe...*”

Examples 141, 142, and 143 are the instances of unintentional L1 use by the three poor writers in the narrative task. In example 141, Pari got emotional after writing down a sentence about her best friend and started talking to herself. She kept verbalizing her feelings out and after a lapse of silence, she wrote a sentence “I was very happy” which was not a product of her monologue. In example 142, Sahar also talked to herself during carrying out the narrative task. Compared to Pari, however, her words were more related to the topic she was writing. Sahar started a sentence about the

characteristics of her boyfriend and she then started saying the things mostly centered on the previous idea and it did not help her create any new content. Having verbalized three sentences, she decided to reread the written sentence so that it might help her move the text forward. She intended to remember and write about the day she visited her friend for the first time. After writing a sentence, she seemed to be under the influence of the emotion she experienced on that day and after verbalizing four sentences and writing none of them down, she wrote another sentence (I saw him) not related to the original idea she intended to write about. Feeling nostalgic under the effect of the topic, she talked to herself about her feelings towards her friend and then wrote another irrelevant sentence (He was a good boy). Next, she kept talking about the boy's characteristics again. Not satisfied with the ideas, she decided to reread the written sentence so that she not only remembered what she was writing but it also might help her create better ideas. In example 143, in the midst of her writing, since she was writing about being accepted to university, Fati remembered the previous courses she had passed at university. She forgot what she was writing and as did Sahar, she reread what she had produced so far so that she could remember the idea in progress.

Readership concern was the final difference the three less skilled writers revealed across two tasks. In the narrative task, they seemed to write based on the simple process of retrieving information from their long term memories and writing them down. This phenomenon is what Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 371) describe as “writer-based” prose and what Raimes (1981) describes as “egocentric writing”; and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) depict as the “knowledge-telling” writing process. Whatever the label, this kind of writing is generally believed to be very simple and performed by writing down everything related to the topic and thus, it “often fails to transform or reorganize that knowledge to meet the different needs of a reader” (Flower

& Hayes, 1981, p. 372). Analysis of the three less skilled writers' think aloud protocols and their interview transcripts showed that they performed their narrative task through information retrieval from their long term memories and writing them down. In their think aloud protocols, there was no word suggesting the writers' concern of any kind for the reader.

Analysis of their narrative text also proved the same phenomenon. There was no coherence or unity between the ideas expressed in each paragraph. This was especially true for Sahar, who changed the foci of her writing several times, and Pari, who composed based on her inspiration. Fati also failed to duly describe what she intended to do. She intended to describe the night she was informed about being accepted for the university. However, due to just recalling the moment and writing it down and not considering the reader while composing, she failed to provide a good narration. Finally, in the interview after narrative, they all mentioned that they did not take the reader into account and they just wrote what they could remember about their best moment.

Interview Data on the Poor Writers' Translating

Unlike the narrative task, the writers seem to take the reader into account in their argumentative writing. According to their think aloud protocols, from the time they saw the writing prompt, they constantly dealt with the way they could best support their standpoint. Therefore, although not explicitly stated, they seemed to be concerned with the readership. Moreover, compared to the narrative task where the writers neither set any goal for themselves nor organized their ideas, in the argumentative task they constantly employed these two strategies. On the other hand, Flower and Hayes (1981) believe that any piece of writing carried out with the reader in mind demands the writer to constantly set goal and organize the new ideas so that it would be easy for the reader

to read and understand the text. This readership concern was perhaps more evident in the interviews held after argumentative task. The three less skilled writers did not mention any word about the reader but they mentioned that the most important thing for them in their argumentation was the supporting ideas they intended to provide in favor of their standpoint.

Pari held that, as also revealed by her think aloud protocols, she did not pay attention to the grammar across the two tasks. The reason, as she said, was her awareness of her deficiency in this area. Therefore, instead of focusing on the language aspect of her writing which, as she said, was counterproductive, she decided to focus on the ideas she wanted to express. Moreover, compared to the narrative task where she just composed the ideas as they came to her, she paid more attention to the content she wanted to write in the argumentative task, suggesting that she had the reader in mind.

Interview after narrative task (Pari, poor writer)

I was mostly thinking about the content of my writing while composing and tried not to pay attention to grammar. The reason was the fact that I was quite aware of my deficiency in the grammar.

Interview after argumentative task (Pari, poor writer)

The most important point in my writing was the fact that I wanted to say that there is no difference between men and women and women can work in the society like men. Then, based on common sense, I wrote my ideas. I think I crossed many sentences today because I felt that my sentences were not correct in terms of both content and coherence. Moreover, compared to the other task, since I got confused, I had to come back to see what I was writing. In general, compared to the first task, it was more difficult since you should convince people in your argumentation. In the first task, however, it was more of personal nature and hence, I felt freer and wrote anything I liked.

Fati implicitly stated that the drafting stage of the argumentative task was easier. As she said, in the narrative task, she paused a lot to look for either language or content. In the argumentative task, in contrast, by trying to recall the sentences she had learned in the writing courses, she seemed to write easier.

Interview after narrative task (Pari, poor writer)

I guess it was hard for me to write about this topic. I had many pauses since I did not know how to continue or what to write. Moreover, I had problem with finding suitable words. Probably If I knew the topic beforehand, I could have performed better today.

Interview after argumentative task (Pari, poor writer)

I mostly tried to recall what the instructor had told me to do about both the format and language. I even used the phrase “there are some...” borrowed from the composition teacher. I also tried to use the correct grammar when writing...Another important point while writing was the fact that the sentences should support each other in the writing.

Sahar also shared Pari and Fati’s idea regarding the task difficulty and believed that she had a better writing session in the argumentative task. In the narrative task, she apparently had problems finding the ideas as well as translating the ideas into English. In the argumentative task, however, she said that she had an easier writing task since she was able to perform think aloud more easily. Moreover, she seemed to care for the reader because as she said in the interview and suggested by her think aloud protocols, the ideas she wanted to write in favor of her position were of importance to her.

Interview after narrative task (Sahar, poor writer)

It was not an easy writing for me. I had so many pauses while writing and I did not know what to write next. Sometimes I knew what to write but did not know the English words to express my ideas. In the meantime, I guess my sentences were not related to each other and each one could be a paragraph each. With respect to grammar, I liked my grammar and spellings have no problem while I write; however, I knew that both have some problems.

Interview after argumentative task (Sahar, poor writer)

I wanted to write quite well; therefore, I checked content and grammar while writing. I guess that is why I reread the text a lot while writing. I did rereading to know (a) what I wrote, (b) if the sentence needs modification, and (c) what I should write next. In general, it was a better writing, I felt. I did think aloud protocols easier, as well.

In a nutshell, the three poor writers were found to compose narrative and argumentative task both similarly and differently. Pari was the poor writer who, due to

her awareness of her deficiencies in grammar and vocabulary, decided to concentrate on the message and the way she could best get her message across in either task. Also, considering the fact that she did not perform local planning, she composed based on her inspiration and perhaps that is why she neither rehearsed her new ideas nor did she reread her written products. Moreover, when stuck in writing, she asked herself question and repeated the last written word(s) across two tasks. Speaking about the differences in different task type, she employed blank leaving, idea abandoning, and scanning strategies only in the narrative task because the narrative task appeared to be more difficult for her to perform.

Fati was the poor writer who mostly relied on two strategies of rereading and rehearsal to compose both narrative and argumentative. Her similar writing steps were due to her conception about writing resultant from the instructions she had received. She believed that all the sentences in any writing should support each other and that is why she acted the same in either task. Regarding the differences she had across two tasks, it should be noted that she scanned the previous parts only in the argumentative task.

Sahar, another poor writer, also appeared to act similarly and dissimilarly in narrative and argumentative writing. She constantly reviewed the language she intended to write in the two discourse types. Another similar strategy she employed in two tasks was rehearsing her ideas in Farsi. She was found to nearly rehearse all her ideas before writing them down. Consequently, L1 use was dominant in her writing and it was the main medium of thought. With respect to the differences, she employed scanning, blank leaving, and idea abandoning only in the narrative writing seemingly because of the difficulty level of the narrative task.

Reviewing

The three less skilled writers performed reviewing throughout their writing sessions and they did not postpone it to the end of writing. Therefore, as Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 374) believed, reviewing, like planning, is able to “interrupt any other process and occur at any time in the act of writing”. However, there were certain similarities and differences for each writer in each task. Fati and Sahar, in general, remained almost unchanged in their reviewing practice across two tasks during drafting and re-drafting stages while Pari, compared to the narrative writing, seemed to be more concerned about the general format of writing and unity of ideas in the redrafting stage of the argumentative task.

While composing narrative and argumentative tasks, Sahar and Fati were found to behave like the other poor writers in other studies. They were concerned with the surface level editing and they used strategies like deletion, addition, and substitution, as also reported by Cumming (1989), Victori (1995), El Mortaji (2001), and Hu and Chen (2008). In fact, they seemed to concern themselves with the correctness of the language than the general meaning they wanted to get across. The following examples taken from Sahar’s think aloud protocols are given in narrative and argumentative task for illustration.

Excerpt 144 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“... he likes European countries, European how is it spelled? European countries, he cannot because of his job but for his work he can't go, for his work, because of his job *c-o-u-n-t-r-i-e-s* I missed something, *Europe* has e at the beginning, *for his work*.”

Excerpt 145 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“...the more of men agree are agree **with** or **to**? **With** is correct I think.”

Excerpts 144 and 145 show the way Sahar performed reviewing in either task. In example 144, she stopped in the middle of text construction to check the spelling of the word “European”. It again occurred in the next sentence while writing the word “country”. The way she carried out her writing in two tasks seemed to be in line with what Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 381) describe as “make everything correct and perfect as you go” which is the hidden goal the poor writers set for themselves. As observed in example 145, she had problem with the preposition and did not know what to use. She seems to make her choice by chance and keeps composing.

Apart from reviewing their works while composing, Sahar and Fati also modified their texts while redrafting. Here again, as in their actual drafting stage, they mainly paid attention to the surface level editing and accuracy of their writing; they were more concerned with the re-writing their works than re-vising them and were not able to move beyond the phrases or clauses. Hence, they dealt with only surface level editing and did not perform what Flower (1998) describes as “global revision”. Besides, in the case of trying to improve a sentence, the result was not satisfactory. Therefore, instead of seeing their writing as the whole and check the unity of the ideas expressed in different paragraphs and sentences while redrafting, they focused on the single words. This local focus on the small discourse which is one of the characteristics of the poor writers (Eysenck & Keane, 2000), resulted in what Sommers (1980) and Porte (1996) respectively described as “thesaurus philosophy” and “synonym-seeking”; that is, they mainly tried to change the words with better ones. That is why their original and final drafts were much similar (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 61, 62, 63, and 64). This similarity between first and final draft of the poor writers has been also reported by other studies (e.g., Cumming, 1989; Victori, 1995).

Long Extracts 61 and 62 show how Fati modified her narrative and argumentative texts in the redrafting stage and Long Extracts 63 and 64 show the way Sahar modified her texts in either task. In Long Extract 61, for instance, Fati decided to improve her first sentence but the result was not better than the previous written sentence. The same holds true for argumentative writing. In Long Extract 62, she reread the original written sentence several times. Although she sensed that there was something wrong with the sentence, after several rehearsals and rereading, she decided to delete “some” from the sentence and write the sentence down. In Long Extract 63, in the rewriting the first sentence of the narrative task, Sahar deleted the “day” since she considered it as redundant besides substituting “my best friend” with “my partner.” Long Extracts 64 provides an example of her editing behavior in the argumentative task. She decided to substitute “of” with “to” and add “the” to her text while seemingly not knowing why. She seemed to modify the text based on what sounds right since she provided no justification for the changes she applied on her text.

Unlike Fati and Sahar whose general editing and revising behaviors were the same across two tasks in both writing and post writing stages, Pari seemed to be both similar and different in two tasks. The similar reviewing behavior in two tasks was the fact that she rarely considered the grammaticality of her text into consideration. As she said in her interview after each task, since she was aware of her deficiencies in grammar and vocabulary, she decided not to pay much attention to these two domains. Instead, she tried to convey her ideas in one way or the other in either task.

Regarding the differences, in the narrative task Pari behaved like the other two writers and, more or less, transferred the first draft to the final one whereas in the argumentative task, she modified her text a lot. To be more exact, in the narrative task, she mainly dealt with the surface level editing and the changes she made were limited to

the small units such as words. Consequently, her two drafts were much alike. In the argumentative task, however, she did both editing and revision. In her redrafting stage of the argumentative task, she behaved as if she was choosing from the ideas she had previously come up with in her first draft and wrote them down in the final draft for the first time. In other words, she modified her argumentative task at both levels of micro and macro level whereas in the post writing stage of narrative writing she merely dealt with the micro level modifications. Nevertheless, although her original and final drafts were not much alike, the ideas were almost the same and she seemed to just improve them by reordering, addition, substitution, or deletion. Certain examples are given from her redrafting stage.

Original Sentence (Pari, narrative task)

The best happen was one choice.

Excerpt 146 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task/final draft)

“The best happen was one choice in 4 or 5 years age (addition).”

Original Sentence (Pari, narrative task)

When I was 20 years old I need to a friend but I do not have and it was very bad for me.

Excerpt 147 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task/final draft)

“When I was 20 years old I need to a ... friend that speak about problem but I can't find any person (addition).”

Examples 146 and 147 are the instances of the way Pari modified her narrative text while redrafting. In example 146, she added a chunk (“in 4 or 5 years ago”) while in example 147, she added a sentence (“that speak about problem but I can't find any person”). As noticed, she tried to improve her narrative text and the modification she made to her text ranged from small chunks, as in example 146, to adding a whole sentence, as in example 147. Despite the measures she took to improve her text, as can be seen, the final writing was not much different and was not devoid of errors.

In her argumentative post writing stage, in contrast, she not only employed revision and editing strategies with more frequency, but she also tried to enlarge the scope of the discourse from sentence to paragraph. As can be seen from the examples given, compared to the narrative task, since Pari modified her texts more at both macro and micro level in the argumentative task, her argumentative text was more coherent and the words, sentences, and paragraphs were following each other logically. At macro level, she had the general format of writing in her mind and hence, divided her essay into four different parts (one paragraph of introduction, three paragraphs of body, and one paragraph of conclusion); at micro level, she mainly substituted and added certain words to her text. The original sentence in the argumentative writing, the final draft in the redrafting stage, and her think aloud protocols are given below for illustration.

Original Sentence (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

Daily life is very hard and everybody has problem especially financial problem so women can help for solve this problem.

Excerpt 148 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task/final draft)

“Second reason is ... (addition) life is very hard and most of people (substitution) has problem especially what is the right spelling? financial problem so women can help for solve this problem. First, *first* ... I think no difference between men and women because what is both of them in English? Every body everybody... can have *have* a job (addition).”

Original Sentence (Pari, argumentative task)

In my country most of receptionists and officer are women because women almost better work and it is clear for all of people.

Excerpt 149 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task/final draft)

“Third, research show that... women better work so ...*so* when they can *they can they can they can* what? *good work they can good work* ... should not stay at home (substitution).”

Examples 148 and 149 show Pari’s attention to the general format of the text, comprehensibility, and word choice while redrafting her argumentative essay. In example 148, she changed the original sentence to a more focused and clearer one by which she could explicitly state her ideas in the form of introduction. Moreover, she

took the spelling of the word “especially” into consideration in order to take care of the micro level editing. Also, she added “second reason is” and substituted “most of people” with “everybody” to improve her text at both levels of local and global. She added “second reason is” to guide the reader and enhance the unity of her text and substituted “most of people” with “everybody” to take care of local editing. In example 149, she added “third” to guide the reader through her writing besides performing reordering and substitution to write a better sentence. That is why each paragraph was following a clear main idea in her argumentation. In the narrative task, however, she mostly paid attention to the micro structure and hence, the sentences were not much related to each other.

Interview Data on the Poor Writers’ Reviewing

The aforementioned differences and similarities were also pointed out in their interviews. Pari mentioned that in either task, she did not care about the grammaticality of her text because she was aware of her poor linguistic knowledge. In the second task, however, she paid more attention to the meaning and content while redrafting. This was also evident in her think aloud protocols in her post writing stage. She was the writer who did more modifications in the argumentative task. Compared to the first task, she was able to write a better text in terms of the unity and coherence of ideas.

Interview after narrative task (Pari, poor writer)

I did not check what I was writing while drafting. In the redrafting, however, certain sentences came to my mind and I wrote them down. Since I know my grammar is poor, I tried to focus on the content and tried to get my message across as best as I could.

Interview after argumentative task (Pari, poor writer)

The content was the most important thing in my mind and hence, instead of focusing on the grammar and accuracy issues, I focused on the meaning and general ideas I wanted to mention. The reason why I did not pay attention to grammar was the fact that I knew my grammar was not good and I just tried to express my ideas in a way that the reader would understand them.

Fati remained unchanged in post writing stage across two tasks. She was the writer who proved to be much reliant on the instructor and the instructions she had received in her classes. Therefore, she tried to apply the knowledge she had gained through writing classes. She even wrote her first sentence in the argumentative task which she had memorized from her courses. Furthermore, as she mentioned, the important thing in writing was the support that each coming sentence provides for the preceding one.

Interview after narrative task (Fati, poor writer)

The most important thing for me while rewriting was what the instructor had told us; the fact that all the sentences should support each other in writing. Therefore, while focusing on the structure of the written sentences, I paid attention to the relationship between the sentences.

Interview after argumentative task (Fati, poor writer)

While rewriting I was mostly concerned with the support each sentence should provide for the previous one. Since the instructor had told us that the second sentence should support the first one. At the same time, I checked the grammar and the general content of the text.

Sahar held that during her redrafting stage across two tasks, she mainly focused on the local and surface editing. She was concerned with the correctness of the sentences besides looking for a better word to be substituted.

Interview after narrative task (Sahar, poor writer)

The most important point for me was grammar at this stage because I believe that correct grammar guarantees correct content. At the same time, the content was also important since it is important for me that the reader can understand me. Moreover, I tried to change certain words with the better ones. For instance, I substituted work with job.

Interview after argumentative task (Sahar, poor writer)

I tried to modify my text while writing and hence, I did not change anything while re-writing my text. However, I mostly paid attention to the words since I thought that if I changed some words, the content of the sentence would be better.

Summary of the Findings on the Third Research Question

The third research question of the study aimed at finding out whether the strategic behaviors of the Iranian EFL undergraduate learners vary due to the discourse type. In this respect, each writer was separately studied across two tasks of narrative and argumentative. According to the data, the writers appeared to act both similarly and differently in either task. In line with previous studies (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001; Zamel, 1982), the six writers were found to follow a more or less recursive and cyclical writing process through which they seemed to discover meaning as they were composing. Apart from this general similarity, analysis of the data of the three good writers across two tasks revealed certain differences for each writer.

Good writers' planning at macro level remained unchanged while in micro level, there were certain differences. In two tasks, they appeared to know that they should think about the topic in order to have a general idea of what they intended to write. In micro level, however, the strategies they employed to generate/organize ideas were not the same. This difference can be attributed to the nature of the task, kinds of instruction the writers had on each task, and individual writing style.

With respect to the translating stage, like their planning, the three good writers' general writing pattern remained almost unchanged. In either task, they prioritized meaning over accuracy and looked at their text as a whole. More importantly, an interaction was observed between the text, the writer, and the assigned topic which corresponds to the Flower and Hayes' (1981) task environment, composing processor, and the writer's long term memory. These interactions were maintained through employing strategies like self-questioning, rehearsing, rereading and repetition. However, analysis of the data also revealed certain differences for each writer across

two tasks of narrative and argumentative while composing. The differences originated as a result of lowering cognitive load and readership concern in the argumentative writing. The strategies the writers employed to deal with these two issues were rehearsal, rereading, and L1 use.

Concerning reviewing, readership concern appeared to be the main factor affecting the way the writers reviewed differently. In order to present a convincing argumentation, Elham and Majid were the good writers who seemed to vary their reviewing in either task. Majid, for instance, modified his narrative text as a result of rereading while, in his argumentative writing, the written sentences seemed to be already reviewed at the level of rehearsal. Elham was also the good writer who was found to perform more modifications to her argumentative text. She modified almost all the sentences of her argumentative essay while rewriting while she kept many narrative sentences untouched. Moreover, it was only in her argumentative redrafting that she added two more paragraphs.

Three less skilled writers were also studied across two tasks of narrative and argumentative. In general, they almost followed the same pattern in two tasks. However, it was found that they had a better and more effective writing session in the argumentative task in terms of planning, translating, and reviewing. With respect to their planning, they appeared to recall the instructions they had for goal setting, idea generating, and idea organizing, and hence were able to do better planning in the argumentative task. In the narrative task, however, because of certain factors like receiving insufficient instruction on the narrative genre, insufficient creativity and critical thinking, failing to look at their text as a whole, and lack of skill in planning to say and composing plans, they had a difficult time composing their stories.

Regarding the translating process, the similarity for each writer across two tasks was the fact that they were found to generally follow the same steps and employed almost the same strategies in either task of narrative or argumentative. They were also found to jot down what came to their minds and hence no polishing, refining, or elaborating of ideas was witnessed in their writings. However, blank leaving, abandoning ideas, scanning, and L1 use were the strategies the writers employed only in their narrative writing. Another difference identified in the data was the readership concern. The three writers seemed to take the reader into consideration only in the argumentative task. They composed their argumentative task based on what Flower (1998) described as “reader-based” prose while they carried out their narrative writing based on “writer-based” view.

As for their reviewing process, Sahar and Fati were the poor writers who remained almost similar in either task. Pari, however, was the poor writer who was similar in her drafting stage but seemed to be different in her redrafting stage across two tasks. She redrafted many of her narrative sentences without basic changes while in her argumentative redrafting, she modified almost all her written sentences. The reason, as already mentioned, seemed to be in the readership concern in the argumentative task.

RQ 4: Do discourse types have a similar effect on the strategic behavior of both skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL writers?

In order to answer the final research question of the study, as done for the third research question, two groups of skilled and less skilled writers were studied across two discourse types in terms of the planning, translating, and reviewing. Then, the

similarities and differences that the writers in each group revealed under the effect of the writing discourse type were identified.

Planning Before Writing

Two groups' general planning behaviors at the outset of the protocols seemed to be similarly affected by discourse type. Good and poor writers read the assigned topic in the narrative task and without rehearsing, brainstorming, or procedural planning, they started their text immediately while in the argumentative task, they planned locally and globally, set content and procedural goal, and generated idea before embarking on writing. Majid and Elham from the good writers, like Fati and Sahar from the poor writers, seemed to be under the same effect of the discourse type in their planning at the outset of their think aloud protocols.

Majid and Elham read the assigned topic in the narration and without rehearsing, brainstorming, or procedural planning, started their text immediately while in the argumentative task, they acted differently. Majid spent more time reading the topic, did an invisible planning, set himself goals, and generated ideas before embarking on writing. Elham also planned both globally and locally in the argumentative writing. She generated ideas through brainstorming and rehearsing.

Fati and Sahar, similarly, were the poor writers who in the narration just read the assigned topic and asked themselves questions to search for the idea and finally came up with an idea to begin with. In the argumentative writing, however, they employed reading direction, brainstorming, rehearsing, formulating position, idea generation, goal setting, and procedural planning. Elham's think aloud protocols from good writers'

group and Fati's think aloud protocols from poor writers' group are compared and contrasted below (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 65, 66, 67, and 68).

Long Extracts 65 and 66 show the pre writing activities Elham performed in either discourse type. As Long Extract 65 shows, Elham limited her pre writing strategies in the narrative writing to the prompt reading and L1 use. She appeared to use the prompt and its key words to search her memory in order to spot one of the best moments of her life. This is in contrast to what she did in the pre writing stage of the argumentative writing. As Long Extract 66 illustrates, Elham employed reading direction, L1 use, brainstorming, global and local planning, idea generation/organization, and setting procedural and content goal. Furthermore, as is also evident from the example, she seems to interestingly follow the steps that Flower and Hayes (1981) believe the good writers follow in their planning including top level or abstract goal ("the best thing I can write first is something general"), operational definition of that goal ("different ideas about the women who stay at home") and eventual plan to write an introduction ("now I had better write an introduction").

The aforementioned planning differences in the pre writing stage across two writing discourses were also witnessed in Fati's think aloud protocols. She appeared to narrow her planning down to the topic selection in the narrative writing while in the argumentative one, she employed different strategies of brainstorming, L1 use, self-questioning, and setting procedural goals in order to generate/organize new ideas. Long Extracts 67 and 68 show the pre writing activities Fati performed in two writing discourses. Long Extract 67 is Fati's think aloud in the pre writing stage of the narrative task. As can be seen, she adopted task interpretation, L1 use, and prompt reading strategies. She seemed to behave as if she was looking for a single, abstract idea in her

mind. This is in contrast to what she did in the argumentative task. As observed in Long Extract 68, Fati employed different strategies of L1 use, prompt reading, brainstorming, and procedural planning at the outset of her think aloud protocols. She firstly planned her essay globally through procedural goal setting (“I should firstly say that there are different ideas”). She then appeared to brainstorm certain ideas to be used in her text (“**The men lives as like as women and the women as like as men**”). Moreover, as illustrated in the example, she employed self-questioning strategy for two different purposes of checking language (“**Stay home or stay at home?**”) and looking for content (“**Why the men think the women should stay home?**”).

The point which is worth mentioning regarding Fati’s pre writing stage is her unduly concern for correctness at this stage (“**Stay home or stay at home?**”). Contrary to what Flower (1998, p. 128) warns about brainstorming that “[D]on’t try to write ‘polished prose’ when you are brainstorming”, Fati was highly concerned with the language aspect of writing at this stage, the feature that other researchers (e.g., Zamel, 1982) have also observed about their poor writers. Flower (1998) maintained that the writers should not stop creating ideas in order to perfect their spelling, grammar, and even phrasing. Unfortunately, as shown in the example above, albeit trying to generate/organize her ideas, Fati was concerned with the accuracy of the language to be used later in the drafting stage. It is no wonder then that she did not let herself experience the freedom by which she could explore her thoughts on paper.

However, the difference between two groups of writers in their effectiveness of their planning is the point worthwhile mentioning here. As already observed in think aloud protocols, Fati and Elham seemed to similarly change their pre writing activities in different tasks. They started with a general abstract goal, moved to the middle range

one, and finished it by an eventual planning. However, it does not mean that the writers were similar in the effectiveness of the strategies they employed. While poor writers dealt with abstraction in vacuum, good writers were really aware of the steps they were taking. Elham and two other skilled writers appeared to have the ability to operationalize their knowledge into the actual drafting while Fati and other two poor writers were found to have problem in applying what they verbally mentioned into their actual text. In other words, the poor writers seem to have problem with procedural knowledge and not declarative knowledge. They were good at verbalizing their learned knowledge vis-à-vis planning whereas by the time they wanted to write their text, they were unable to use their knowledge. Flower (1998, p.162) describes this phenomenon as an “operational problem definition”. She believes that this operational definition is more useful than the abstract one because “it suggests possible courses of action or the features of a good solution”.

Planning While Writing

Two groups of the skilled and less skilled writers of the study were found to have been affected by discourse type both similarly and differently regarding their planning while drafting. The first similarity was in the constant use of setting procedural goal in the argumentative task. Two groups of good and poor writers were found to plan their next step only in the argumentative writing. The reason why two groups used process goal only in the argumentative writing seemed to lie in the instructions that they had on this writing genre (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, and 74).

As observed in Long Extract 69, Majid was the skilled writer who used this strategy at micro level. He decided to provide support for the already mentioned idea. Elham also used local procedural planning to set her mind on the conclusion part in

Extract 70 when she decided to include the “conclusion” in her essay. Ali, however, was the skilled writer who set himself process goal at both macro and micro levels. In the former, he decided to read the content first and then refine his text. In the latter, however, as Long Extract 71 shows, he decided to provide support for the written part. Example 72 is the only time Pari set herself process goal. Long Extracts 73 and 74, too, are the instances where two other poor writers namely, Fati and Sahar, planned to write supporting idea and conclusion part, respectively.

Apart from the aforementioned similarity between two groups of writers in employing procedural planning only in the argumentative writing, the two groups of good and poor writers were also affected differently in different discourse type in terms of adopting certain other strategies. Planning to finish or start a paragraph was the strategy that only the good writers employed in the argumentative writing. In other words, less skilled writers appeared not to be influenced by the task type in terms of this sort of planning. The reason seems to lie in the fact that they did not take the organization of their writing into consideration while writing. Not adopting this sort of strategy in either task further suggests that they were not able to see their writing holistically and hence, it can be said that they carried out their writings as the ideas came to them in any given paragraph. Good writers, in contrast, took control of their writings and it was up to them to either continue or finish a paragraph. As will be shown in the following examples, Elham mentioned that although she could stretch an idea more, she decided to finish it and go to another paragraph. Consider the following examples of planning to finish/start a paragraph.

Excerpt 150 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“... Although I can continue another one or more sentences here, I think it is enough for this idea.”

Excerpt 151 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“...okay, this was enough for the first one. Let’s go to the second idea...what was it?”

Excerpt 152 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“Okay, this was our first idea, let’s go to the second.”

In example 150, Elham planned to finish a paragraph in progress in her argumentative writing. Despite her ability to further add some more sentences to this paragraph, she decided to stop continuing this paragraph and to start another one. Perhaps the reason is that she thought she has provided enough ideas to support her standpoint in this paragraph and there was no need to add any other content to it. In example 151, Majid planned to finish his first supporting idea and move to the second one. In example 152, as did Majid, Ali finished his first paragraph and started the second.

Perhaps, what Flower and Hayes (1981) mentioned about what guides the writer in composing can clarify this difference between good and poor writers. Flower and Hayes (1981) posit that while writing, three factors of the writers’ idea, plan, and written text are constantly trying to win the writer’s attention to move the text ahead. Good writers of the study, given the fact that they did not pause while writing, seem to be aptly guided by the three factors and they knew when to use which of these forces. Poor writers, in contrast, due to relying on one or two of the three forces at any given time, were found to face with many problems and hence, paused a lot. In the argumentative writing, they seemed to retrieve the instructions they had received in their classes from their long term memories while, at the same time, they translated their ideas into written language. However, the third factor, namely, the produced text, seems to receive the least attention and they were not able to get help from what they were

producing. In the case of rereading the produced materials to get help, as did Fati for instance, it was mostly limited to the micro level and smaller discourse.

All in all, the examples above give support to the fact mentioned by other researchers (e.g., El Mortaji, 2001; Flower & Hayes, 1981) that meaning making and discovery is done during the act of writing, that the writer's goal leads the writer to create new ideas and those ideas lead to new goals, that the goal setting activities are not limited to the pre writing stage of writing and it is "intimately bound up with the ongoing, moment-to-moment process of composing" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 373). Good writers were able to create/organize ideas and set different goals as they were composing. Poor writers, however, appeared to lack this skill.

Translating

Discourse type appeared to yield different effects on the strategic behavior of skilled and less skilled writers of the study. This different effect was manifested through employing different strategies of L1 use, rehearsing, and rereading by two groups.

Use of mother tongue or L1 use was the writing strategy employed by the writers differently in different tasks. Unlike planning to finish/start a paragraph which was employed by the good writers only in the argumentative task, un-intentional L1 use in the form of self-talk was employed by the poor writers only in the narrative task type. Three poor writers were found to speak to themselves not pertinent to their writing or writing task, most of the times. There were two reasons for this self-talk. Firstly, due to their inappropriate planning and lack of skill in generating new ideas, they had to pause to think about a way to move the text ahead. Within these pauses, intending to set goals and create/organize ideas, they started to talk about the topic and hence, they performed

a brainstorming behavior to create new ideas. However, after a while, their monologue turned out to move away from the topic and the result was counterproductive because they again forgot the main idea to follow. Secondly, the poor writers seemed to talk to themselves due to the effect of the topic of the narrative task. Since it was about one of their best moments of their lives, they got emotional at times and started talking to themselves about that special moment. Consider Longer Extracts number 75 and 76 in Appendix I)

Long Extracts 75 and 76 the use of self-talk strategy by Sahar and Fati in the narrative task. In Long Extract 75, Sahar firstly employed her mother tongue intentionally in order to make her able to retrieve/generate certain new ideas carried out by brainstorming. In the middle of this idea generating activity, however, she moved off the topic by mentioning more irrelevant sentences. It happened again after writing the sentence “he was a good boy”. She started to talk to herself about the boys’ characteristics and when she decided to continue writing, she forgot the previous part and hence, she employed rereading in order to know what she was saying. Fati also felt nostalgic and started to talk to herself about her past memories. As Long Extract 76 shows, since she was writing about being accepted to enter university, she, in the middle of her writing, remembered her apprenticeship and seemed to miss that time.

Another strategy two groups employed differently in different discourse types was rehearsing. Poor writers rehearsed their ideas similarly in two tasks. They limited their rehearsals to the smaller units of discourse performed within sentences. Majid and Elham, on the other hand, were the good writers who used rehearsal differently in different task. Note that Pari was the poor writer who composed based on inspiration and hence did not use rehearsing in either task and Ali was the good writer who

similarly rehearsed ideas at different occasions of beginning, middle, and within the sentences for moving the text ahead

Elham and Majid' adopting rehearsing strategy was different in either task. The difference was found to be in the place and reason of rehearsing strategy. Regarding the place, Majid and Elham rehearsed their ideas completely at the beginning of each paragraph while in the narrative writing, they mostly used rehearsal between and within the sentences. Regarding the reason, in the narrative task, two good writers rehearsed smaller units to move their stories ahead. In the argumentative writing, however, they rehearsed their ideas completely at the beginning of each paragraph for two reasons of lowering the cognitive load of idea making while writing and considering the reader. Concerning the cognitive load, having made certain new ideas before writing each paragraph, there was no need for them to generate ideas anymore and instead, they freed their mind to deal with other aspects of writing. In terms of strength of their ideas, it seems that the underlying reason was having the reader in mind. In order to convince the reader, they seemed to pay attention to the content they were writing (see Appendix. I, Long Extracts 77, 78, 79, and 80).

Considering four examples taken from Elham and Majid's rehearsing strategy, two points are worthwhile noting. Firstly, as observed in Long Extracts 77 and 78, the absence of rehearsal at the beginning of the paragraphs in the narrative task seems to be due to the fact that they had the story in their minds and there was no need for them to rehearse for the ideas. Put it another way, Majid and Elham mainly did rehearsing for the idea generation rather than language problems. Secondly, a glance on the four examples above reveals that Elham and Majid, like Ali, performed nearly all their

rehearsals in Farsi. Therefore, in either task, the ideas seemed to be stored and recalled through Farsi and they just translated them into English while writing.

Unlike good writers who did rehearsing at the beginning of the paragraphs in the argumentative task, three poor writers limited their rehearsals to the smaller units of phrases and clauses in either task and hence, they seemed not to be affected by the task type. Fati and Sahar were the poor writers whose rehearsal strategy remained the same in either task. They were found to rehearse her ideas mostly within and between the sentences across two tasks (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 81, 82, 83, and 84).

Long Extracts 81 and 82 show the way Fati rehearsed in narrative and argumentative task respectively, and Long Extracts 83 and 84 show the same behavior by Sahar in two tasks. As observed in examples, Fati and Sahar rehearsed the same for the same reason across two tasks. They mostly used rehearsing in the middle and within the sentences while writing. In the case of rehearsing at the beginning of the paragraph, as shown in the Long Extracts 81, 82, 83, and 84, it was limited to the one single sentence and was not employed for the purpose of creating the general meaning or the focus of the paragraph.

Unlike Sahar and Fati who employed rehearsing in both discourse types, Pari did not employ rehearsing in either task. The reason is the fact that she composed based on what Flower (1998) describes as “writing based on inspirations”. As will be shown in examples 277 and 278, she did not rehearse her ideas in either task and she wrote chunk by chunk and then, in order to move her text ahead, waited for the new ideas. Instead of rehearsing, she used repetition and self-questioning strategy to go forward. Consider the following examples.

Excerpt 153 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)61, 208

“I do not understand why...why, why, why, I do not understand why ...why, why
what? How can I put it? **Because, because** what? **Why, why**, emm he supports
me what? What shall I write? What can I write?”

Excerpt 154 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task),209

“I think emm no for example I think I cannot stay at home because I I ...am
very what? **Very, very, very busy so** emm **so so** what? Nothing comes to my
mind, I forgot the sentence, what should I say? Emm **so so so** nothing...”

As observed in examples 153 and 154, Pari wrote both narrative and argumentative tasks without rehearsing her ideas. Having written a couple of words in each example, she was not able to continue the idea and hence, resorted to self-questioning, rereading, and repetition strategies. In the case of finding an idea to write about, she again waited for another idea coming to her mind.

Pari's not employing rehearsal strategy can be discussed in terms of both its causes and effects. The reason why she did not rehearse her ideas before writing them down can be explained in two ways. The first cause can be traced back to what she mentioned in her interviews and verbalized in her think aloud protocols regarding her knowledge of English grammar. She said that since she knew she was weak at grammar, she preferred not to deal with this issue while writing. Rehearsing, on the other hand, has to do with the trying out ideas/language before writing them down. Therefore, she seems not to rehearse her ideas under the assumption that she might make the bad, worse; because rehearsing may tempt her to manipulate the language, she intentionally decided not to employ this strategy and hence, she jugged down any given idea as soon as she found one. Another cause that made her not to employ rehearsal strategy linked to her lack of skill in goal setting and creating/organizing new ideas. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the goals the writers set for themselves lead to generating new ideas and these new ideas lead the writer to come up with the new goals. Therefore, the ideas and goals are created by the writer while writing and this creativity, in return,

is partially responsible for moving the text ahead. Since Pari appeared to have serious problem creating new ideas, on one hand, and rehearsal is trying out those ideas, on the other, there was nothing left to be rehearsed.

Lack of rehearsal also had its own effect on the way Pari carried out her writing sessions. Considering what Raimes (1987) mentioned about the purpose of rehearsal that it is used for producing, developing, and completing inchoate ideas, there is no wonder Pari had problem moving the text ahead. According to Raimes (1987, p.455), “[I]t [rehearsal] produced ideas of what to include” and it is one of the good strategies the writers employ to move the text forward. Hence, it can be said that had Pari employed rehearsal strategy, she might have been able to create new ideas and write more easily.

Rereading, like rehearsal, was another writing strategy Elham and Majid from the good writers’ group employed differently in narrative and argumentative task types. Poor writers, however, were found to be almost the same regarding the use of rereading. Poor writers reread over the small units in either task while good writers (Ali) reread over their outline, their previous sentences, as well as written chunks. Furthermore, in either task, while the good writers employed rereading over the parts already produced for the purpose of language (word seeking), contents (general ideas previously expressed), and writing (coherence), poor writers reread their works for the purpose of gaining aid for finishing what they had already started.

As already mentioned, while Elham and Majid performed rereading differently in different task type, Ali was the skilled writer whose rereading behaviors were almost

the same. Note that Ali was the writer who also employed planning and rehearsal strategies similarly in either task type (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 85 and 86).

Long Extracts 85 and 86 show that Ali adopted rereading strategy in either task with no apparent change. In both examples, due to his attention to the vocabulary usage in either task, he frequently reread over the already produced sentences to establish both the unity between materials and find better words to write. Considering what Manchon et al. (2000) mention about rereading or backtracking that the writers use backtracking for either prospective reason i.e., idea creation or retrospective reason i.e., reviewing purpose, Ali seems to be the writer who adopted backtracking for the retrospective reason. In Long Extract 85, since in the middle of writing he decided to substitute “travel” with “went”, he reread over the sentence to confirm his decision about the change he intended to have, to remember what he was writing so that the ideas would follow each other smoothly, and to enable him to finish the sentence. In Long Extract 86 taken from the argumentative writing, he reread over the sentence already produced for three times. The aim was almost the same in each time. For the first time, because of the fact that after writing down the sentence he used planning and rehearsing, he seemed to reread over the sentence to establish a link between what was said and what was going to be said. In the meantime, as done in the first example, he was looking for the word “treat”. He did rereading for the second time since he was still looking for the vocabulary and asking himself question on that. Finally, having rehearsed the ideas and felt ready to write, he reread the written sentence to enable him to link the previous ideas to the new ones. As noted, although the behaviors during rereading strategy were different across two tasks, his purpose for rereading remained unchanged. He reread to take care of the comprehensibility, meaning, grammar, and unity of writing across two

tasks. It is worthwhile mentioning that in the first task, compared to the second, since there was not an outline, he did not reread over it.

Unlike Ali who backtracked his texts similarly in different task types, Majid and Elham adopted backtracking differently in different tasks. However, Elham and Majid were both different from and similar to each other in certain aspects. In general, it can be said that the similar purpose for which these two writers employed rereading strategy in the narrative task was for language and vocabulary purpose whereas in the argumentative task, it was done for the meaning creation purpose. Hence, it seems that the purpose of rereading in argumentative task was coming up with better ideas to put forth. The concern for better ideas, in return, is associated with the readership concern.

This finding was evident from the way Majid carried out his two tasks but by what Elham mentioned in her interviews (see below). They seem not to be reliant on the already produced materials for the purpose of generating new ideas in this task. Rather, they appeared to employ rereading for the purpose of finding a suitable English vocabulary or write more coherently.

In the argumentative task, in contrast, Elham and Majid acted differently in the sense that they adopted rereading for the purpose of meaning and producing new ideas. Perhaps that is why compared to the narrative task where they reread over single sentences and chunks, they reread over preceding two or three sentences in the argumentative task. The same rereading behavior was reported by Raimes (1987) where the writers reread over smaller discourse in the narrative task. She attributed this difference to the nature of the task holding that “in order to establish the course of their arguments”, the writers may reread over longer discourse in the argumentative task

type. Moreover, Majid's different rereading behavior is in line with the studies that analyzed the effect of blind writing, a kind of writing in which the writers are deprived of rereading the already composed materials, which Faigley et al. (1985) reviewed. It was reported that the writers appeared not to be hindered while carrying out a narrative task but they seemed to have problem writing persuasive task due to the fact that they used the written materials as a springboard to plan what to say next in this kind of text.

Majid's rereading behavior was not much similar across narrative and argumentative task. He appeared to employ the retrospective function of rereading in the narrative writing while in the argumentative writing, he used the prospective function. In the narrative task, he did rereading mostly by the time he was looking for the suitable word or structure to continue his story while in the argumentative task, he reread the written materials in order to seek help for the ideas to continue. Consider the excerpts below.

Excerpt 155 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

*“Therefore when the site of custom, **customs affair**, affairs, **affairs**, announced, the site of customs affaires, emm what was the word? To announce... to tell people...to show on TV, aha **announce**, *custom affairs* announced the result of the examination...*

Excerpt 156 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

*“Muslims **Muslims**, **Muslims**, Muslims do not ~~do not~~ let, Muslims believe that, many Muslims believe that women, women must stay, must stay, women must stay ...many *Muslims believe that* women must stay home... many *Muslims believe that women must stay home*, **home**, and *must stay home*, many Muslims believe that women must stay home, **home** and don't like **don't like**, they, *don't like* connection with men.*

Examples 155 and 156 show different rereading strategy adopted by Majid. In example 155, he reread the written sentence so that it might help him recall the word “announce” and it seemed that it was a successful strategy for him. In example 156, however, he reread the sentence for three times to know how/what to say next.

According to Raimes (1987), the purposes for which the writer employs rereading strategy can be understood by the activity it follows. As can be seen in example 156 above, having employed rereading strategy, Majid added the word “announce” to his text and kept writing while in the argumentative text, rereading resulted in idea production.

Elham’s rereading behavior was also different in the narrative and argumentative task. Unlike Majid who was the skilled writer who used retrospective function of backtracking in the narrative and prospective function of backtracking in the argumentative task, Elham appeared to be different in the language through which she used backtracking than the purpose for which she used rereading. While she mostly performed her rereadings through her mother tongue in the argumentative task and hence, backtranslated the written materials, in the narrative task she reread the produced materials in English. The use of backtranslation in argumentative writing gave more support to the notion that this task demanded more cognitive effort to be done and L1 use appeared to lower this cognitive overload (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 87 and 88).

Long Extracts 87 and 88 show that Elham used different languages for rereading in different task types. In Long Extract 87, Elham reread the already produced materials mostly in her mother tongue in the narrative task. In general, she moved her narrative text ahead through rehearsing her ideas in Farsi, writing the ideas down in English, and rereading them in English to make her able to generate new ideas in a way that the unity and coherence of the text would be taken care of. She seems to use rereading as a way of planning the forthcoming ideas so that the written discourse would follow each other logically. Hence, considering what Raimes (1987) held about rereading that in order to

understand the purpose of rereading, we should look at the activity taken place after rereading, since no modification was witnessed in her narrative writing after rereading, it can be said that she mainly used prospective function of rereading strategy in this task. Hence, in line with what De Beaugrande (1984) and Manchon et al. (2000) held about rereading, she looked back not to know what to say next; rather, she looked back to see how to write the forthcoming parts in her narrative text. The reason, as will be discussed in the following section, was the fact that she found the narrative task easy to perform.

In Long Extract 88, however, she mainly carried out her rereadings through her mother tongue and hence, it was mostly backtranslation, as Manchon et al. (2000) posit. Elham's use of backtranslating strategy which is "specific to L2 writing" (Manchon et al., 2000, p. 16) has been also reported by other previous studies like Cumming (1990) and Whalen and Menard (1995) where the L2 writers reread the produced materials in their mother tongues. She was excessively reliant to the text produced so far and it was impossible to find a composing segment without rereading strategy in her think aloud protocols. She seems to perform her rereading in her first language as a technic to lessen the cognitive load in the argumentative task. It, then, can be said that out of three factors of the writer's ideas, plans, and the produced text that Flower and Hayes (1983) believe to be responsible for moving the text ahead, Elham seems to get help mostly from the ready-made one, namely, the produced text so that she would be able to handle the writing constrains more easily. She employed rereading to generate ideas in Farsi and then translated them into English and because of her linguistic knowledge, translation was not a hindrance to her in writing.

Unlike Elham and Majid from the good writers' group whose rereading strategy differed across the two writing tasks, poor writers' rereading strategy was found to be almost the same. Pari, the less skilled writer who composed based on inspiration, for instance, used rereading only once in narrative and twice in the argumentative task. Flower (1998, p.231) properly attributes lack of rereading strategy to the writers who write under inspirations mentioning that "[W]riters who depend on inspirations are often reluctant to reread their papers". The following examples from Pari's narrative task show the way she did rereading in two tasks.

Excerpt 157 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)61,208,253

"I do not understand why...why, why, why, I do not understand why ...why, why what? How can I put it? **Because, because** what? **Why, why**, emm he supports me what? What should I write? What can I write?"

Excerpt 158 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

"Unfortunately in my country, **my country** my country, most of most of men most of men think that if women if women has a job she can't grow up her children."

Examples 157 and 158 show the similar way Pari employed rereading strategy in either writing task. As excerpts 157 and 158 above illustrate, Pari rarely performed rereading strategy while carrying out narrative and argumentative task. As also observed in the excerpts, she employed this strategy for prospective reason i.e., idea generating in either task because she reread the composed parts by the time she was stuck and did not know what to write next. In fact, instead of getting help from the written text, she frequently used self-question strategy, a strategy Cumming (1989) describes as "what next" strategy. In example 157 which is the only time she employed rereading in her narrative writing, due to not knowing what to say next, she asked herself question and then reread the sentence "I do not understand why" so that it would enable her to generate new ideas. She acted the same in the argumentative task. Excerpt 158 is the instance where she employed rereading when she was redrafting her argumentation. She

mainly relied on repetition rather than rereading the sentences or chunks and she reread “most of men” for once in English to help her move the writing ahead.

Pari’s rare employing rereading strategy in two tasks seems to unfold another aspect of the difficulties she had in creating new ideas and moving her writing forward. Considering three factors of the writer’s plans, produced text, and ideas which, according to Flower and Hayes (1981), are responsible for moving the text ahead, seems quite useful in unfolding her problems in writing. Regarding planning, given the fact that Pari rarely rehearsed her ideas, she seemed to be the writer with exceptionally least planning and composed her text, the narrative one in particular, based on inspiration. Regarding the text produced so far, since she rarely employed rereading strategy, she was found to have the least interaction with the text under construction and hence, she did not seek help from the produced materials. Therefore, what remained for her to get help from was her ideas. As her think aloud protocols revealed, she appeared not to possess critical thinking skill besides not having good general information or knowledge. What is more, she appeared to have problem with creativity and was not able to process the ideas she had in her mind. Therefore, Pari was found to have problem moving the text ahead because of lack of interaction with the text in progress, failure to see the text as a whole, deficiency in planning, and finally, lack of skill in critical thinking and creativity.

Sahar, like Pari, did not use rereading a lot in her writings. However, there were both similar and different reasons in her rereading strategy across two tasks. Analysis of the way she employed rereading strategy in either task of narrative and argumentative suggests two differences. Firstly, she reread over a group of sentences for two times to know what to say next in the narrative task while in the argumentative task,

she reread over the chunks and individual sentences. In the narrative task, she resorted to rereading strategy due to either forgetting the points because of excessive self-talks or lack of ideas to continue. In the argumentative task, however, due to spending much time on looking for English vocabulary, she forgot what she was writing. In general, she seemed to resort to the written parts to remember what she was writing; in other words, she was not focused on the task (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 89, 90, and 91).

Long Extracts 89, 90, and 91 show the adoption of rereading strategy by Sahar in two tasks. Long Extract 89 in the narrative task shows the way Sahar employed rereading strategy due to forgetting what she was writing. Having written a sentence, she started talking to herself and then, by the time she intended to write, she had forgotten the previous parts. Thus, rereading the already written materials was necessary. Although in both tasks she talked to herself a lot irrelevantly, in the narrative task it was done more to the extent that she frequently got lost and did not know what she was writing about. Long Extract 90 is an instance where Sahar reread the previous part to seek help for creating new idea. She reread the sentence “he likes to be rich” in order to come up with a new idea to stretch this sentence. Rereading proved to be successful and she added “very much” to this sentence. In Long Extract 91 taken from her argumentative writing, Sahar spent some time searching for suitable words to write down. Having come up with the words, she forgot the previous parts and hence, she had to reread over them.

Fati reread over her written materials across two tasks almost similarly. In fact, rereading and repetition were two main writing strategies through which she was able to establish an interaction between the text and her long term memory. Furthermore, she employed rereading differently from her two peers in this group. Fati was different from

Pari in the sense that Pari was the poor writer who employed rereading strategy by the time she was not able to produce any new idea whereas Fati used rereading strategy throughout her writing and it was one of her main strategies to produce discourse. Fati was also different from Sahar, another poor writer. Unlike Sahar who had to reread her produced materials as a result of self-talk, over use of monitoring, or looking for English equivalents, Fati resorted to her already produced materials not just at the times she was in trouble. Regardless of the situations she was into while writing i.e., either as a solution to a problem or as a writing strategy to produce written discourse, she was found to excessively adopt rereading strategy in every single segment she was producing in either task (see Appendix I, Long Extracts 92 and 93).

A comparison of the two Long Extracts of 92 and 93 reveals that Fati, in general, produced her narrative and argumentative writing similarly and hence, the pattern of using rereading strategy was not an exception. She mainly employed rehearsal, writing, repetition/rereading strategies while carrying out her writing in either task. Regarding the way she used rereading strategy, as observed in Long Extracts 92 and 93, firstly, there is not any single sentence written down without using rereading. It suggests that she should write a more coherent text in either task. Secondly, the reasons for which she employed rereading strategy in two tasks were the same. She mainly used rereading strategy to generate new ideas and hence, to produce discourse in either task. In line with what Raimes (1987) held about rereading that in order to understand the purpose for which the writer employs rereading, one should look at the activity following rereading, Fati mainly added certain new ideas after rereading the produced discourse in either task. These added discourses ranged from small units like phrases (“interesting feeling” in the narrative and “stay home” in the argumentative example), to the larger units like a sentence or a group of sentences (“I have very good and

interesting feel because I can't imagine I accept for it" in the narrative and "some of the women like to stay at home because of their husbands and others like be in society" in the argumentative task). Finally, when in trouble creating new ideas, she used the already produced materials excessively to get help for producing the coming parts. Luckily, as two examples above show, after doing many readings, she came up with an idea in either task to continue her writing. In the narrative task, she reread the sentence "*I can't imagine I accept for it*" for four times and finally it helped her write a sentence starting with "One of day...". Also, in the argumentative task, she reread the sentence "*Some of the women like to stay at home*" for four times and she finally added a sentence starting with "They think they..." to her argumentative text.

Reviewing

Discourse type seemed to affect three poor and three good writers both similarly and differently with respect to their reviewing activities. The similarity between two groups was in the non-influentially of the discourse type on their general reviewing behavior. They remained consistent across two tasks in the sense that they reviewed their works thorough their writings and it was not just an end of the process activity. In this respect, they were the same across two tasks. They, in general, reviewed at different occasions for different reasons; they reviewed their written materials for different purposes of language and content consideration; they reviewed their rehearsals to see how they could best write them down to both convey the idea and translate them; they reviewed their works during the act of writing for the purpose of spelling as well as unity of the text.

Despite this similarity, task type appeared to affect two groups differently. Majid and Elham were the good writers who modified their texts differently in different tasks

while it was only Pari, the poor writer, who acted differently only in the redrafting stage of the different task. Two good writers appeared to modify their narrative texts as a result of rereading while in the argumentation, due to considering audience, they wrote down the already reviewed discourse. Pari, on the other hand, was the poor writer who appeared to take longer discourse into consideration while argumentative redrafting and modified nearly all sentences she had previously produced while in the narrative redrafting, she concentrated on smaller discourse and rewrote many sentences as they were in the first draft. What follows is a more detailed analysis of the aforementioned differences for each writer in each task.

Majid and Elham showed different reviewing behaviors across two tasks. Elham and Majid performed revision in the narrative task as a result of rereading the sentences while in the argumentative task, they reviewed their rehearsal first and by the time they wrote the idea down, it was already revised. Put it another way, in the narrative task, Majid and Elham mostly paid attention to their story while in the argumentative task, they adopted reviewing mostly while they were rehearsing their ideas. This, in return, suggests that in the argumentative task, they considered both the strength of the ideas and the language by which they want to convey the idea. This was also mentioned in their interview, as will be seen later. They held that, in the narrative task, they felt freer and wrote everything they felt like writing; in the argumentative task, however, they said that their supports were the things that mattered to them, suggesting that the kind of discourse affected the way they wrote in terms of the reader.

In brief, in the narrative task, they wrote based on what Flower (1998) describes as writer-based and Raimes (1987) calls “egocentric”. In the argumentative task, however, since they were supposed to be convincing, they took the reader into

consideration and this affected their reviewing throughout their writing. Consider the following reviewing examples taken from Majid and Elham's think aloud protocols in two tasks.

Excerpt 159 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

"*My feeling is... my feeling is, was, is, it is about past...my feeling was...*"

Excerpt 160 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

"**The second** The final reason *reason* is *believe* beliefs of her husband".

Excerpt 161 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

"I wanted, because everything I want from god, *I wanted my god to help me* ...as one of the best people person is a better word here that can be used for the society."

Excerpt 162 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

"...we have many problems about about this subject this *about this event* maybe it is better to use the word *subject* than *event* because it is a subject have many problems about this subject **subject**, *subject* is a better word..."

Examples 159 and 160 show the way Majid performed reviewing in two tasks and examples 161 and 162 show the same behavior by Elham across to writing tasks. As observed in examples 159 and 160, Majid's rereading strategy resulted in text modification in the in the narrative task while in the argumentative task, he appeared to firstly review his rehearsal and by the time he wrote the idea down, it was already revised. In excerpt 159, Majid decided to substitute "was" with "is" as a result of rereading the sentence while in excerpt 160, he wrote the revised version (the final reason) of his rehearsed idea (the second reason). In example 161, Elham substituted "person" with "people" since she thought that the former is a better choice. In example 162, too, she also substituted "subject" with "event". However, unlike the narrative excerpt where she firstly wrote the word and then changed it, she did the substitution while she was rehearsing her ideas.

Regarding the poor writers, unlike Fati and Sahar who were dominantly occupied with local editing in either task and hence their original and final drafts were much similar, Pari was the poor writer who considered revision in her redrafting stage of the argumentative task. Although the ideas were almost the same in her first and final drafts, she nearly modified all her sentences while redrafting them. She used both local and global modifications. She divided her argumentative text into different parts of introduction, body, and support besides adding “first”, “second”, and “finally” to her text so that it would be more comprehensible. She seems to rewrite the sentences from her original to the final argumentative draft in a way that she had certain ideas in front and she selects, modifies, and re-writes them down. Consider the following examples taken from her narrative and argumentative redrafting.

Original Sentence (Pari, narrative task)

The best happen was one choice.

Excerpt 163 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task/final draft)

“The best happen was one choice in 4 or 5 years age (addition).”

Original Sentence (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

I think the idea is very bad because no different between men and women so women can have a job outside.

Excerpt 164 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task/final draft)

“I think... this (substitution) idea that the women... should stay *stay* home after they get married is really false (addition). First, *first* ... I think no difference between men and women because, what is both of them in English? Every body, everybody... can have *have* a job (addition).”

Examples 163 and 164 show the way Pari redrafted her narrative and argumentative texts, respectively. Extract 163 from her narrative task shows the way she added a chunk (in 4 or 5 years ago) to her original sentence (the best happen was one choice). The exerted change was of editing nature and she did not change or revise the general structure/meaning of the sentences. In the argumentative task, however, the changes were both of local and global; she performed both revision and editing. As

observed in example 164, her original sentence was written in a way that she had expressed three ideas in it (she disagrees with idea, there is no difference between men and women, and women can work outside). In the final draft, she decided to extract the introduction (I think the idea that women should stay home after they get married is really false) and first body (first, I think no difference between men and women because everybody can have a job) from this sentence. In the meantime, she also used local editing like substitution (“this” with “the”).

Interview Data on the Differences between Narrative and Argumentative Discourses in the Writers’ Viewpoints

At the end of the second interview carried out after the argumentative task, the writers were asked about the differences/similarities between the narrative and argumentative task. What Elham and Majid, the good writers, mentioned in their interviews about the easiness of the narrative writing were in accordance with what Flower (1998) posits. Flower (1998, p.216) maintained that narrative writing is rather easy to carry out due to the fact that it is “a prefabricated order and easy to generate”.

Majid believed that in the narrative task, he felt free to write the way he liked. In line with what Flower (1998, p.216) mentioned about narrative writing that rather than worrying about idea organization or the readership concern, “the writer can simply remember his or her own discovery process and write a story”, Majid said that he wrote the things which came to his mind as he was proceeding. In the argumentative task, however, since he was required to argue for/against an idea, he was more cautious. He needed to correctly evaluate the words and the language he wanted to use so that he would duly express what he intended to communicate. In brief, he seemed to carry out

his argumentative writing based on what Flower (1998) describes as reader-based whereas in the narrative writing, he wrote a writer-based text. These are his words.

Interview (Majid, good writer)

Compared to the first writing [narrative], this one [argumentative] was somehow different. In the first writing, I wrote everything which came to my mind. Since it was truly the best moment of my life, I would not forget the details of that day and it was the case for my writing, as well; I was just writing the story as it was on my mind. In the second task, however, I needed to be more thoughtful because I was supposed to write in favor of my ideas; I needed to support what I thought about the issue and it demanded more logic. While in the first task the story was of importance, in the second task the ideas and beliefs were important and in order to convey my ideas effectively, I tried to use a better language and more suitable vocabulary.

The same things were mentioned by Elham. She held that the argumentative task was different but not necessarily difficult. She mentioned that unlike the narrative where she was writing the story as it had happened, in the argumentative task she had to pay attention to the ideas she intended to put forth in favor of her argument. In other words, while the story per se was of significance in the narrative task, what mattered in the argumentative task was the strength of ideas. That is why she added two paragraphs to her argumentative task while she almost re-wrote the same things in the narrative re-writing.

Interview (Elham, good writer)

Today, the writing [argumentative] was different. I do not mean difficult, though. You know, in the first assignment [narrative], I felt free and wrote as I liked; in the second writing [argumentative], I had to pay attention to the meanings and general points I wanted to convey. Because of this, while I was redrafting, I realized that my text still needed certain ideas to be more coherent whereas I do not think I added any new ideas to the first writing.

Ali, however, mentioned different things about the easiness of the writing tasks. Different from Elham and Majid who perceived the narrative task as the easier one, Ali held that the argumentative task was easier for him. He attributed this easiness of the

second task to the background information he had about the topic. Based on what he said, he found the narrative task difficult to perform due to the fact that he did not have any particular bad or good moment in his life whereas, since he had read certain articles about the argumentative task, he had information about the argumentative topic. This is what some writing researchers (Leki, 1995; El Mortaji, 2001; Riazi, 1997) maintain about writing that alongside with cognitive processes, writing involves certain social and personal factors. Moreover, in the interview, he revealed the reason of his attention to the language aspect of his writing across two tasks. He believed that if the structure and language of the sentences are not correct, the meaning will be lost. He said that he had to use good words and language in either task because he was an English student. This concern for vocabulary and grammar remained unchanged in either task.

Interview (Ali, good writer)

With respect to the topic, I guess the first task [narrative] was more difficult for me because there was nothing interesting or terrible in my life. In the case of the second task, since I had read certain articles on this topic, I could write it more easily. The most important things for me in writing are content and language. I cannot separate them from each other. I think if I can use correct grammar, I would be able to get my message across. In other words, correct grammar guarantees conveying message. What is more, I want to show the reader my knowledge of language and vocabulary. Since I am a senior English student, I should write accordingly and it was important for me in either tasks.

Like Ali, the good writer, three poor writers stated that the argumentative task was easier for them to carry out. However, they mentioned different reasons. Sahar believed that compared to the narrative task where it was somehow difficult for her to verbalize her thinking processes, since she could perform think aloud easier in the second task, the argumentative task was easier for her. What is more, as also revealed by her think aloud protocols, she claimed that the narrative task was easier for her to write because she knew what she wanted to write at the beginning. In sum, she

evaluated the argumentative task as easy due to two reasons of performing a better think aloud protocols and global planning before writing.

Interview (Sahar, poor writer)

Today, the writing [argumentative task] was easier for me. I guess the reason was in both the topic and think aloud procedures. I guess, I did think aloud better than the first session. Moreover, I could write about the topic today than the other session perhaps, although this is my habit to start writing fast, because I knew what I wanted to say from the beginning.

Pari also pointed out that she had an easier writing session in the argumentative task. The reason, as she said, was her ability to plan globally and to create idea to begin with in the second task. As also observed in her think aloud protocols, it took her 17 minutes to start her first sentence in the narrative task while, for the argumentation, it was 2 minutes. Furthermore, she believed that her language deficiency and poor writing ability were responsible for her poor performance.

Interview (Pari, poor writer)

I think this assignment [argumentative] was easier for me, compared to the first one [narrative]. In general, I had a vague picture of what I wanted to write at the beginning and during writing I could transfer them to the text. I think if I were supposed to write the second writing in my first language, I would write even more and better.

Fati, another poor writer who was found to be dependent on the instructions she had received, also shared the same opinion and said that the argumentative task was easier for her. However, her reasons were quite unique. She said that she did not have enough opportunity to work on the narration and compared to the argumentative essay, she was not instructed well on the narrative writing. Moreover, as also was the case for her think aloud, she held that regardless of the task type, the sentences should support each other in any piece of good writing.

Interview (Fati, poor writer)

I was able to concentrate on my writing today [argumentative task] better than the first writing [narrative]. Moreover, the instructors worked on this type of writing more than the other one. I tried to recall what I was taught in the classes and it helped me throughout the writing. Moreover, the important thing in writing, I guess, is the fact that the sentences should support each other and I tried to bear it in my mind in any piece of writing.

Summary of the Findings on the Fourth Research Question

The aim of the final research question of the study was to shed light on the similar and different effects of the writing discourse type on the writing strategies of the both groups of Iranian EFL skilled and less skilled writers.

Analysis of the participants' protocols before writing revealed that Majid and Elham from the good writers, and Fati and Sahar from the poor writers, were similarly affected by discourse type. Four writers limited their planning before writing to the topic selection and finding a focus to compose about while in the argumentative task, they spent more time, generating ideas, setting procedural and content goal, and brainstorm the ideas. Ali, the good writer, and Pari, the poor writer, were found to follow their writing habits across two tasks and were not affected as much as their peers by task type.

Two groups' on-line planning was also found to be affected by discourse type both similarly and differently. The six writers, under the effect of the writing instructions, set themselves procedural goals more often than not in the argumentative task. They seemed to be guided by the goals they set for themselves. However, it was only the three good writers who were affected by the argumentative task in the sense that they planned to finish/start a new paragraph in this task. It suggests that they constantly monitored their writing and considered the unity of each paragraph.

Regarding translating, two groups appeared to be differently affected by task type in employing certain strategies like self-talk, rehearsing, and rereading. Poor writers, due to lack of interaction with text, failure to look at writing as a whole, lack of planning, and concentration on single idea and correctness of their writings, had problem moving the narrative text ahead. Therefore, they talked to themselves in the hope of creating content only in their narrative writing. Elham and Majid were the good writers who rehearsed differently in different tasks while poor writers used rehearsing similarly. The two good writers used rehearsing at the beginning of the paragraphs in the argumentative to both lower the cognitive load and consider the audience while in the narrative, they used rehearsing between and within the sentences to just move the writing forward. Like rehearsing, rereading was the strategy differently employed only by the good writers in different task. The difference was both in the length of the rereading materials as well as the purpose for which they adopted rereading. Good writers reread over the smaller units like sentence and chunk to find suitable words to write down in the narrative task; in other words, it was for the language purpose. In the argumentative task, however, they extended the scope of their rereading to the group of sentences and even paragraphs; in other words, it was for the idea generation purpose. Poor writers, on the other hand, used rereading similarly in either task and narrowed their rereading to the smaller parts like single sentences.

Finally, two groups' reviewing was under similar and different effect of the task type. Task type seemed not to affect the writers in the sense that they reviewed their works from the beginning to the point they finished it. Nevertheless, Elham and Majid from the good writers, and Pari from the poor writers, were found to be under the influence of the argumentative task. Compared to the narrative task where they reviewed the written sentences and not their pretexts, two good writers performed

revision both on the written and unwritten materials in their argumentation. In the narrative task, in other words, due to focusing on the story per se, they firstly wrote the idea down and then through rereading, they modified it whereas in the argumentative task, due to intending to put forth convincing ideas in favor of their standpoints, they were found to review their rehearsal and then wrote it down.

Pari, unlike Sahar and Fati who were the same across two tasks, was different in her redrafting across two tasks. While transferring her original writing to the final one, compared to the narrative task where she inserted minor and superficial changes, she modified nearly all of the sentences she had produced in her first draft in the argumentative task.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This study was set out to shed more light on the writing strategies that the Iranian EFL undergraduate writers with different writing abilities employ to compose two different discourse types of narrative and argumentative. The findings of the study which are presented in accordance with the research questions are reported in this chapter. Next, the implications and suggestion for future research obtained from this study are given.

Research Question 1: What writing strategies do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate learners employ throughout composing?

Considering the aim of the first research question, three good writers and three poor writers of the study were asked to perform two distinct writing discourses of narrative and argumentative so that the possible range of the strategies they adopted would be elicited. According to the data gathered from think aloud protocols, interviews, stimulated recalls, and the participants' written products across two writing genres, certain findings were obtained. Firstly, each individual writer of the study, as the Chinese EFL writers in Wang's (2004) study, went through three-staged composing processes but conducted recursive composing activities at various intervals. As also indicated by other researchers like Zamel (1982), Flower and Hayes (1980; 1981), El Mortaji (2001), and Lim et al. (2011), the writers constantly employed their strategies in a way that different strategies interrupted each other while composing; the writers recursively performed planning, translating, and reviewing throughout the process. However, as El Mortaji (2001) argued, the degree of recursiveness seemed to be

different among the individual writers across different writing discourse and writing ability.

Secondly, two groups of good and poor writers appeared to employ a set of strategies in their writing. In their planning, they tried to set different goals and generate/organize ideas both before writing and during composing. They constantly generated new ideas from different sources of the written text, their long term memories, and their own plans through employing direction (re)reading, interpreting the writing task, self-questioning, brainstorming, goal setting, L1 use, and formulating position. In their translating, they used numerous strategies including rereading/repetition, rehearsing, use of mother tongue, scanning, circumambulation, and self-questioning. They moved their narrative and argumentative texts ahead while rehearsing their new ideas mostly in Farsi besides rereading and repeating the already produced materials in both languages of Farsi and English. Hence, an interaction was established between the writers and their texts in progress as well as among three writing components of writing processor (planning, translating, and reviewing), long term memory, and task environment. In their reviewing, too, they made use of certain strategies. These strategies included revising, editing, deleting, self-questioning, and using L1. The writers were found to review both their rehearsals and their written discourses.

Thirdly, it was found that the same strategy was employed at different occasions for different reasons. In other words, depending on the aim of the writer, a specific strategy was employed differently. Rereading and rehearsing are perhaps good cases in this point. Rereading was sometimes used as a means of creating new idea and sometimes it was adopted as a means of recalling the intended English vocabulary. It

was also the case for rehearsal strategy. In a specific occasion, it was used for creating an idea, as noted by Raimes (1987), and in another occasion, it was performed for reviewing purpose. In the latter case, however, the writer was found to rehearse the word to hear it so that based on what sounded right, the writer might write it down or not.

Fourthly, the data of the study revealed that Iranian EFL writers' use of mother tongue both supports and contradicts previous studies. In keeping with other studies (e.g. Wang & Wen, 2002; Weijen, van den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam, & Sanders, 2009) which found that L1 use is a salient feature for L2 writers, the participants of this study, too, regardless of their writing abilities and writing discourse types, were found to be highly dependent on their mother tongue. However, some findings of the study about L1 use are not in complete agreement with other studies like Wang (2004) and Weijen et al. (2009). Weijen et al. (2009, p.245) report that L2 writers use their mother tongue when they "experience cognitive overload" whereas the writers of this used their first language from the very beginning up to the time they finished. This different finding is perhaps because of the fact that the classes in Iran are still being taught in Farsi and then, using first language in L2 writing is inevitable. Wang (2004) found that his Chinese EFL learners' use of mother tongue decreases when the level of their writing ability increases. However, these six Iranian EFL writers showed a great dependency on their mother tongue and their reliance to their mother tongue appeared to be independent of their writing abilities. Two reasons can be mentioned about this dissimilarity. The first reason perhaps lies in the way these Iranian EFL writers were instructed in their writing classes. The medium of instruction in their writing courses is purely Farsi while perhaps the participants in Wang's (2004) study have been taught in both English and Chinese. In this respect, there is no wonder why the writers of this

study were so much dependent on their first language. Another probable reason for the aforementioned contradiction seemed to be in the way the participants were judged as good and poor. In this study, the writers were evaluated based on criteria like holistic scoring of their writings and their actual gained scores in their previous composing classes whereas Wang (2004) used two standardized tests of CET and TEM to differentiate her participants. Employing these different criteria in different studies for the purpose of assessing writing ability has made the comparisons of different studies problematic, the concern expressed by many researchers like Raimes (1985), Hu and Chen (2008) and Lim et al. (2011).

The final point regarding the way the participants of the current study employed their L1 is that poor writers, due to concentrating on word and not idea, appeared to worsen their difficulties by resorting to their first language. This latter finding both supports and, at the same time, restricts the “bilingual turn” recently put forth by Ortega and Carson (2010). The researchers believe that the L2 writers should not be seen as two monolingual writers in one but as what Murphy and Roca de Larios describe as “psycholinguistically multicomponent” (2010, p. 78). Ortega and Carson (2010) came up with this finding because of the fact that in their study, the writers’ first language seemed not to interrupt their thinking or writing processes. Regarding the result of this study, it seemed that use of mother tongue strategy can help the writers if they know how to use it and, in fact, it can be said that besides their vocabulary knowledge, the way they used their mother tongue while writing was also important.

Fifthly, two groups of writers were found to recall and use the writing instructions they had previously received in their writing courses. In their argumentative writing, regardless of their success, both groups of writers were able to employ the

knowledge about different parts of an argumentative essay like “introduction” and “conclusion”. In their narrative writing, however, due to receiving ineffective instruction on this genre of writing, no such knowledge was reported and because of this, the poor writers were found to experience a difficult writing session. Two points are worth mentioning here. Firstly, the poor writers’ problem in their narrative writing gave support to what Flower and Hayes (1981) stated about the creativity and critical thinking that in the unfamiliar situation, the writer’s creativity would be of help to them. Given the fact that both groups of writers had received the same instruction, good writers, perhaps due to their creativity and their writing ability, were found to face with less difficulty while performing their narrative task. Secondly, compared to El Mortaji’s (2001) study where Moroccan’s participants used some technical narrative terms like “setting” and “point of view” while carrying out their narrative writing, neither good nor poor writers of this study did mention any words as such. This, in return, supports the teacher-centeredness trend of writing classes in Iran, as noted by Riazi (1997) because in case of not receiving sufficient instruction, as was the case for the narrative task, the students would not have any outside reading or writing whatsoever. They only learn what their instructors teach them and no outside the class reading would not be conducted.

Research Question 2: How do skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers differ in their use of writing strategies?

The second research question of the study dealt with the differences between good and poor writes. It was found that two groups differed from each other in the way they adopted certain strategies at micro level across two different writing discourses of narrative and argumentative due to three main reasons. Firstly, compared to the poor writers who did not interact with their texts, good writers were found to have a better

interaction with the text in progress and as the skilled writers in Raime's (1985) study, they "engaged in more interaction with the text as it emerged on paper". This better interaction resulted in the fact that the good writers were able to get help from the written text in order to not only create ideas, but it also made them able to compose more coherently.

Secondly, two groups were different in their priorities. While the good writers' priorities were meaning and content, poor writers were concerned with the correctness of their written products. Good writers' concern seemed to be in getting their message across while writing. Poor writers, however, mostly focused on the accuracy aspect of their writing. This conscious attention to the correctness of their texts not only interrupted their thinking processes, but it also put them in the trap of grammar.

Thirdly, good and poor writers appeared to be different in degree of their abilities to see their text as a whole. Good writers were found to consider their texts as one entity in which they were supposed to write down certain coherent ideas. Poor writers, in contrast, focused on their immediate action and were not able to consistently pursue their aims in writing.

These three main differences at macro level between two groups of writers influenced the way the writers used rehearsing, rereading, and L1 use at micro level. These micro level differences between good and poor writers could be found in the purpose, occasion, or result of using a writing strategy. Consider rereading as an example. Owing to give priority to the idea, having a good interaction with the text, and looking at the text as a whole, good writers used rereading over longer discourse for the purpose of both generating idea and writing a more coherent text at different occasions

of beginning, middle, and within the sentences. Poor writers, in contrast, limited their rereading over single words and chunks for the purpose of producing idea in the middle of the sentences in progress because of the fact that they neither interacted with their writings, nor did they see their text as a whole. Also, due to giving priority to the accuracy, it happened at times that while rereading, instead of coming up with an idea, they edited the discourse they were rereading. Then, they had to reread it again to remember what they were talking about.

Research Question 3: Do the Iranian EFL undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary due to the discourse types?

The aim of the third research question of the study was to find out whether Iranian EFL undergraduate learners' writing strategies vary because of the difference between the modes of the discourse. Setting out to find the difference, each individual writer was separately compared and contrasted across two writing discourses of narrative and argumentative. The data revealed that the writers composed both similarly and differently in either discourse.

Firstly, there were two distinct across-genre-similarities for each writer across two discourse types. The first similarity for each writer was found to be in the recursiveness of the writing processes in either writing discourse. Six writers of the study shared this similarity and they were found to compose their two genres in a way that different strategies interrupted each other throughout composing. This finding was in agreement with previous studies like El Mortaji (2001) and Lim et al. (2011). The second type of across-genre-similarity, unlike the first type which was shared by six writers in two writing discourses, was found to be shared by the writers who composed based on their writing styles. The writers who composed based on their writing habits

were found to be impervious to the different modes of discourse. In other words, regardless of their writing abilities and the kind of discourse they were involved in, they followed almost the same pattern to carry out composing. Ali, the good writer and Sahar, the poor writer were the writers who composed almost similarly in different discourse type.

Secondly, apart from the two aforementioned similarities across two discourse types, each writer was found to vary his/her strategies in different genre, as well. These variations across two discourse types appeared to come to existence as a result of certain factors. These underlying factors were writing instructions, cognitive load, and readership concern. Depending on the reason of the differences, the differences could be either trivial or noticeable.

Thirdly, concerning the differences between two groups of writers in different writing genres, another finding of this study is that poor writers, unlike their good counterparts, were found to be almost the same in either writing discourse and the trivial differences they had were the result of instructions they had received on the augmentative task. In either task, Fati moved her writing forward through using rereading and repetition; Sahar used rehearsing similarly and finally; Pari was the poor writer who composed based on inspiration, rarely adopted rereading and rehearsing, and was not concerned with accuracy of her writing in either task.

Research Question 4: Do discourse types have a similar effect on the strategic behavior of both skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL undergraduate writers?

The aim of the final research question of the study was to understand whether two groups of good and poor writers are similarly affected by discourse type or not.

Firstly, the results of the study suggest that discourse type affected two groups differently. In fact, it was found that it was only the good writers who were affected by difference in the discourse mode. As indicated in the findings of the third research question, poor writers seemed to mostly follow the same pattern of strategy use in either discourse while the good writers appeared to be almost different in different discourse. According to the result, the effect of the discourse mode on the poor writers was limited to the occasions where the poor writers were able to use their learned knowledge of writing and in occasions other than this, they followed their own writing style which, of course, was almost stable in either discourse.

Note that two groups of good and poor writers set themselves process goal to achieve in the argumentative writing. Employing process goal strategy only in the argumentative discourse by two groups may tempt one to conclude that both groups have been similarly affected by task type. However, according to the result, it was only the good writers who were able to “operationalize” (Flower, 1998) their plans while composing. Poor writers appeared to work on the “top-level” and abstract goals while the good writers were able to move to the concrete level through planning to say and composing plans.

Secondly, apart from this on-the-surface similar effect of the discourse type on the strategic behavior of the two groups of writers, discourse type appeared to only affect the way good writers employed their strategies. Elham and Majid, in particular, appeared to have been affected by discourse type; they employed rereading, rehearsing and using L1 differently in different discourse. The reason for this different effect appeared to be in two factors of knowledge of the writing discourse demand and knowledge of writing strategies. Good writers seemed to be aware of the different ways

they should adopt a needed strategy in different occasions. Being aware of the fact that composing an argumentative essay is more demanding, they tried to employ certain strategies in a way that they can handle this difficulty. Poor writers, on the other hand, did not take these two points into consideration and hence, did not adjust the strategies they employed to the needs of the writing.

Practical and Theoretical Conclusions

The most important conclusions that can be drawn out of the analysis of the participants' think aloud protocols, stimulated recalls, interviews and written products can be summarized in the following:

First, features of good and poor writers need to be revisited. In the literature, it is generally believed that good writers spend more time planning, employ more strategies, and focus less on accuracy of their writing. In the present study, however, these features were not borne out and hence, instead of the three aforementioned characteristics of good and poor writers presented in the literature, three issues of “why?”, “how?”, and “what happened?” corresponding to presence, manner, and effectiveness of the employed strategy should be taken into account. The presence of a strategy is under influence of the conception that the writer has about writing, the purpose for which the strategy is called into action, the writing instruction that the writer has received and finally, the knowledge and information about adopted strategy (Fati's rereading in either task). The manner of strategy use has to do with the purpose for which the strategy has been used for besides the writing style of the writer (self-questioning, rereading, rehearsal, and L1 use by two groups of the study). Finally, effectiveness of the employed strategy deals with the result of using a given strategy (goal setting and L1 use by two groups of the study).

Second, there are certain major elements responsible for having an effective writing. Note that these elements had been separately mentioned in separate studies while in the current research, it was found that these elements are so interwoven that not using one would result in an inappropriate use of others; thus, these factors should be all together. These elements are focus on meaning (Raimes, 1985), make a good use of L1 (Wang, 2004), see the text as a whole (El Mortaji, 2001), deal with cognitive load (Cumming, 1989), have a reader in mind (Flower & Hayes, 1980) and finally, interact with the text (Flower & Hayes, 1980).

Third, this study found that the way each writer operationalizes the six above mentioned issues can/should be left to the writer. Taking different writing styles the writers of the study and the effects that this difference had on the way the writers performed their writing into account, it was found that writing style plays an important role in the ways the strategies are adopted. At times, writing style was so prevailed that some writers adopted the same type of strategy in the same manner for the same purpose in different discourse type.

Fourth, the Flower and Hayes' (1980) cognitive process model of writing on one hand and Perl's (1997) coding scheme on the other were found to be able to account for the strategies that good and poor writers employed. In fact, there was a sort of compatibility between the way Flower and Hayes depicted writing, the categories Perl proposed, and the way the writers of this study performed their writing. Planning perhaps is a very good case in this point. In the Flower and Hays' model, planning includes idea generating, idea organizing, and goal setting. In the meantime, the writers' planning is supposed to have an interaction with not only task environment which includes writing assignment and produced text, but also writers' long term memory

which includes writers' knowledge about audience, topic, and stored writing plans. The writers of this study generated certain ideas through seeking help from task environment (rereading the prompt and repeating the key words), long term memory (retrieving information while rereading and repeating the key words), and the produced text so far (rereading, scanning, and repeating). The same story was true for goal setting. The writers set themselves different goals to achieve in the form of either process goal or planning to start/finish a paragraph. To do this, they resorted to what Flower and Hayes describe as their long term memory and task environment. In their long term memory, they searched for the knowledge stored in the form of what Flower and Hayes call stored writing plans or composing plans; in the task environment, they reread the text produced so far to enable them to decide what they wrote so that it would help them plan the forthcoming parts.

Moreover, the writing model also appeared to account for the problems poor writers of the study encountered while composing. According to the findings of the study, poor writers had many pauses due to lack of ideas to continue. In other words, their main problem was found to be in the idea generating and moving the text ahead. In the Flower and Hayes' model, on the other hand, the sources the writers can resort to for creating new ideas are task environment and writer' long term memory. To be more precise, the writers can make use of three available sources of produced text, their fresh ideas, and their general plan (Flower & Hayes, 1980) to move the text ahead. Poor writers of the present study, however, were found to resort to one or two of these available sources and hence, did not experience a smooth writing session.

Despite being effective in the analyzing writing strategies, both Perl's coding scheme and Flower and Hayes' writing model did not take L1 use into account. Given

the fact that the researchers worked with L1 writers, this deficiency is quite natural. The participants in their enquiries were native speakers and used only one language while thinking aloud and composing. The writers of this study, however, were EFL writers and were found to employ their mother tongue from very beginning to the very end of composing.

In brief, the findings of the study gave more support to what both Alharthi (2011) and Hayes (2012) state about Flower and Hayes' writing model. Alharthi (2011) speaks about the usefulness of the model in operation due to its detailed nature and Hayes (2012) posits that, despite being old, the writing model, due to considering important elements while writing, is still in use and of help.

Implications of the Study

The implications of the findings of the current study can be categorized into two main areas of composition teaching and composition methodology.

Implications for EFL Composition Teaching

This study was mainly stimulated by the dearth of research on the Iranian EFL learners' writing strategies. Despite the fact that it does not claim to be comprehensive, the current research attempted to shed more light on the strategies that Iranian EFL writers employ while composing. Also, the effects of different writing discourse types on the employed strategies were of interest. To this end, the study employed think aloud protocols, interviews, stimulated recalls, and written drafts to investigate the writing strategies of six Iranian EFL undergraduate students with different writing abilities in two different writing discourse types of narrative and argumentative so that a deeper

understanding of the strategies they employed would be gained. Therefore, this study contributes to the field of EFL pedagogy in certain ways.

First and foremost, as mentioned in the first and second chapter, there is a gap in the literature in relation to the strategies that Iranian EFL writers with different writing abilities employ in different writing discourse types. 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 Iranian EFL learners, thereby filling some of the gaps in that field.

Second, given the fact that this study adopted a problem solving view of writing, it brought to light some of the writing problems in Iran context; thus, the findings of the data analyses can be useful for writing instructors and can consequently contribute to improving the English writing quality of Iranian EFL learners.

Third, due to the teacher-centered policy and educational system in Iran, the writers of this study were found to heavily rely on their teachers and the writing instructions they had received. This is especially true for the poor writers. In fact, they appeared to produce what they had been instructed; they used certain rules and chunks in their writing which they had previously memorized. As the results showed, knowing the rules by heart at the level of declarative knowledge would not guarantee a good piece of writing because what matters is the ability to apply the learned knowledge to their writing. Therefore, it is recommended that instead of providing Iranian EFL students with a list of rules to memorize, the composition instructors understand and learn about the students' strategic needs.

Fourth, this is about time for a paradigm shift from process to product in Iran as an EFL setting. The results of the present study suggest that by paying attention to the accuracy aspects of the writing, the writers tend to give priority to language aspect like grammar and spelling and hence, ignore the content/meaning which is the main aim of the writing. This influences the final draft and hence, their score, which seemed to be the most important concern of the students. Therefore, the composition teachers should teach composing processes explicitly so that the student writers are aware of their own composing tendency and style; furthermore, they should be told when they need to make use of which strategy and how. As shown in this study, poor writers had problem planning and hence, their actual drafting stage was not smooth and frequently interrupted. Had they been taught how to plan during this stage, they would have had less difficulty in their actual writing stage. What is more, doing this, their working memories would then be used better and they can use it for lexical searching or audience consideration, which, in turn, would increase the coherence and fluency of the students writers' composing. Also, providing enough instruction for them in terms of the post writing procedures and related time division, the students would learn that, content and ideas have more priorities for editing and revision than spelling and punctuation. Strategy instruction can also result in a better strategy use (Sasaki, 2000; Wang, 2004) and positive attitudes (Nunan, 1997).

Fifth, the Iranian writers of the current study see writing as a one draft activity. The instructors should teach the students that writing is thinking and it is during writing that discovery and creativity take place because according to Kormos (2012, p.390), “[W]riting is not only a complex task but also a time-consuming activity that requires concentration and determination”. It is the instructor’s duty to teach the students to produce different drafts. The students need to be taught about how to set their goals,

generate/organize ideas while adopting reviewing throughout the process. To do so, the instructors are advised to read the students' essays and constantly give them feedback so that the writers would be able to work on their later drafts to improve them. The score could be then assigned for the final drafts because, as revealed by the think aloud protocols and interviews, students write to gain high score and it can be a motivating factor to produce more drafts for higher score. Besides, they will realize that writing is an ongoing process and not a product and that writing done in one session can be greatly improved in the coming sessions.

Eights, there were certain individual differences both within each group of writers and between two groups. The EFL composition instructors in general and EFL composition instructors in Iran in particular should be aware of the individual differences in composing and therefore, try to employ different techniques and approaches to take care of the students' different needs. In the case of having to teach abundant number of the students, putting poor writers with the good ones can be a good idea. By grouping the students based on their writing abilities, the poor writers could learn the approaches and strategies from the good writers.

Ninth, writing instructors need to be aware of the particular features of each writing discourse type in their strategy instruction. Knowledge of the degree of cognitive load of the writing tasks is a good case in this point. Being aware of the differences in the degree of cognitive load, the instructors can employ the less demanding genres for teaching the more difficult writing strategy, and vice versa. As the data of the study showed, three Iranian EFL poor writers were found to have problem producing new ideas while composing. Narrative writing, on the other hand,

which is less cognitively demanding, can be employed in order to improve the idea generating strategy.

Tenth, as the results of the study showed, different from three Iranian EFL good writers who were flexible in the way they employed certain strategies in different discourse types, three poor writers mainly followed the same strategic pattern across two writing sessions. Iranian EFL poor writers need to realize that they can/should employ certain strategies differently in different writing situations. They need to know that writing strategies are basically the tools that they are equipped with in order to deal with writing constraints. These writing constraints may be different in different writing discourse. Hence, poor writers should be taught the way they can use the same strategy differently in different pieces of writing.

Eleventh, six Iranian writers made use of their mother tongue, Farsi, to a great extent while performing writing. However, this use of mother tongue while composing was of harm at times, especially for the poor writers. Two main reasons of imposing more loads on their cognition and not being aware of the translation limitation can be mentioned for this deficiency. Although L1 use is an indispensable element of writing in another language (e.g., Woodall, 2002) and can help writers in decision making and idea generations (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001), too much use of mother tongue not only makes the composing boring and difficult (Wang, 2003), but it also sets extra constriction on the writing practice (Friedlander, 1999). Besides, there is no guarantee that for every English word, there is an equivalent in the writers' mother tongue. This was true for the poor writers of the study because they, according to Wang (2004, p. 284), failed to recognize "the culturally and linguistically different ways of expressing

meaning in English”. Therefore, the writing process is limited by the negative transfer from the mother tongue, as happened for three poor writers in the study.

Overall, mother tongue is both of use and of harm to the student writers. Depending on the writing abilities of the writers, demand and difficulty of the writing discourse, and writing stage of the composition, the composition instructors should teach the students’ writers when and how to use their mother tongue more effectively.

Implications for Methodology in Writing Studies

The present study provided some implications for methodology. First, intending to investigate the writing strategies of Iranian EFL writers, this study, due to lack of a comprehensive EFL writing theory (Genarro, 2006; Wang, 2004), used L1 writing model and L1 coding scheme to analyze the data. In this respect, Flower and Hayes’ (1980) model of writing and a modified version of Perl’s (1979) seminal coding scheme which are both considered influential (Abdel Latif, 2009), were implemented to analyze, code, and interpret the think aloud data. Combining these two proved to be successful because it resulted in an in depth analysis and understanding of the way these writers performed their writing tasks. In fact, the writing model proved to be useful and practical and gave support to what Alharthi (2001) mentions that the model is “detailed and explicit during application”. Therefore, this study contributes to the field of both theory and methodology and provides other EFL writing researchers with both a ready-to-use and easy-to-apply analytical tool.

Second, think aloud protocols, as also reported by other writing researchers (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980; Lim, et al., 2011; Sasaki, 2000) were proved to be “valuable and thoroughly reliable source of information about cognitive processes” (Ericsson & Simon,

p. 247). It gave more support to what Raimes (1985) held about think aloud. She stated that “think aloud protocol was simply too good a tool not to be used” (p. 234). What is more, composing aloud can be also used in the classroom so that the writing instructors would be able to find out how the students compose, what problems they have during composing, and how they come up with the solutions for their problems. This is in line with what Raimes observed. She maintained that think aloud “can be applied to generate words, sentences, and chunks of discourse and to communicate in the new language” (p.251-252). Moreover, the concern of distraction while writing and speaking put forth by some researchers like Faigley and Witte (1981) and Nunan (1992) was not found in the data.

Third, interviewing, another source of data, was also found to serve the function it was supposed to. In this study, I employed interview, as did Boshier (1998), in order to elicit the information probably not revealed by think aloud protocols. Ali’s protocol at the outset of the narrative writing is a good case in this point. He had difficulty finding the best moment of his life to write about. One might think that he was not able to retrieve the idea from his LTM. However, in his interview he said something else. He stated that in his life, there was no special moment, either good or bad, to write about.

Fourth, unlike think aloud protocols and interviews, stimulated recall was not able to shed any more light on the issue under study. The writers, regardless of their writing ability and discourse mode, were unable to provide any further information and in the case of silence in their think aloud, they mostly said that they were thinking. Also, it was found that the writers were reluctant to listen to their verbalization in the presence of the researcher. This was perhaps because it was the first time that they needed to

reveal the way they actually think or write. The reason, in other words, had to do with their personality and shyness.

Fifth, written products of the writers, on the other hand, were found to provide certain useful information because in line with what Van Someren et al. (1994, p. 15) assert, “the solution to a problem may reflect aspects of the problem-solving behavior”. The words the writers wrote as outline or the words and sentences they delete or add, accompanied by their verbalizations, revealed certain valuable insights about the way the writers compose.

Suggestions for Future Research

Due to the fact that this study is amongst the first, if not the only one, in depth exploratory studies done on the Iranian EFL learners, the results and findings are better to be complemented by other attempts so that a better insight and understanding of Iranian EFL writers would be possible.

Firstly, the same study can be replicated with more participants. Doing this, one can better generalize the findings and results. Furthermore, certain writing patterns, tendencies, and strategies may show up that in this study were not emerged.

Secondly, other studies should be carried out requiring the participants to produce other kinds of writing texts like compare and contrast or cause and effect text. The strategies that the writers employ then can be compared and contrasted with those of the present study.

Thirdly, while the participants of this study were skilled and less skilled Iranian EFL writers, studying these two groups besides the average writers would be of value. Writing strategies that the two extreme groups employ can be juxtaposed with those of the middle group.

Fourthly, longitudinal study is another suggestion for future attempts. The participants can be under study within the whole four years of studying at the universities. Since EFL learners write “in a way they are taught” (Wang, 2004, p. 293), the impact of factors like their linguistic proficiencies or writing courses on their composing behaviors should be under study. Hence, the progress they make or the writing strategies they adopt can be investigated more.

Fifthly, using quantitative approach, along with the qualitative one, also should be done in future attempts. This study mainly relied on the qualitative sources of data such as think aloud protocols and interviews. However, employing different sources of data like questionnaire along with more sophisticated quantitative data analysis would make it possible to study more students in a wider range.

Sixthly, since writing is a social construct (Cumming, 1989; Riazi, 1997) and cannot be conducted in a “social vacuum” (Wang, 2004, p. 293), replicating this study with other Iranian EFL student writers with different social, cultural, and educational backgrounds should be done. As noted by Sasaki (2000), considering the aforementioned backgrounds can enrich the field and helps the enrichment of EFL writing domain.

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Appendix A

Student Consent Form

Dear student

You are invited to participate in a study investigating writing. The purpose of this research is to investigate and analyze the process that Iranian undergraduate university students learning English as a foreign language go through while composing two different discourse types of narrative and argumentative.

If you choose to participate in this study, you will be required to fill up a questionnaire, attend two writing sessions, record your voice while writing, perform a stimulated recall and finally, give an individual interview after each writing session.

All information gathered from you will be used for the purpose of the study only. Moreover, the data will remain confidential and hence, will have no bearing on your academic standing.

If you would like to join this study, please sign below to give the investigator your authorization to collect data from you and publish it anonymously.

Farhad Fahandezh Sadi

Doctoral candidate,

I, the undersigned,....., acknowledge that I have read and fully understood the information on the form. I consent to participate in the study mentioned above. I authorize the researcher, Mr. Farhad Fahandezh Sadi, to collect data from me and publish it anonymously. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw from the study at any time.

Signature:

Date :

Appendix B

Raters' Scores for the Participants

	Good writers			Poor writers		
	Elham	Ali	Majid	Fati	Pari	Sahar
	content	content	content	content	content	content
Rater 1	29	24	24	18	14	18
Rater 2	23	24	24	17	16	13
Rater 3				16		15
	organization	organization	organization	organization	organization	organization
Rater 1	16	17	16	16	14	16
Rater 2	17	18	17	14	13	8
Rater 3				9		9
	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	vocabulary
Rater 1	16	15	15	16	10	11
Rater 2	18	16	16	10	9	10
Rater 3				9		10
	Language use	Language use	Language use	Language use	Language use	Language use
Rater 1	21	25	24	15	12	15
Rater 2	18	25	23	11	10	10
Rater 3				10		10
	Mechanics	Mechanics	Mechanics	Mechanics	Mechanics	mechanics
Rater 1	5	4	4	3	3	2
Rater 2	4	4	4	3	2	2
Rater 3				2		2
	Total score	Total score	Total score	Total score	Total score	Total score
Rater 1	87	85	84	68	53	62
Rater 2	80	87	84	55	50	43
Rater 3				46		46
Total Score	83.5	86	84	50.5	51.5	44.5

Appendix C

Writing Strategy Questionnaire

The Writing Process

In this part, you will find statements about the different stages of writing in English: before writing, while writing, and when revising. Please read each statement and circle the number indicating how true of you the statement is. There are no wrong or right answers to the questionnaire. Therefore, please answer as honestly as you can based on what YOU really think, not on how you think should answer. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and will not have any effect on your grade or on anyone's opinion of you.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me (less than half of the time)
3. Somewhat true of me (about half of the time)
4. Usually true of me (more than half of the time)
5. Always or almost always true of me

EXAMPLE:

I eat snacks while watching TV.	Never	Usually	Somewhat	Usually	Always
If you eat snacks all the time when watching TV, or almost always, circle 5.	True 1	Not true 2	True 3	True 4	True 5

A. BEFORE I START WRITING AN ESSAY IN ENGLISH...

Please circle the appropriate number.

BEFORE I START WRITING AN ESSAY IN ENGLISH...	Never True 1	Usually Not true 2	Somewhat True 3	Usually True 4	Always True 5
1. I make a timetable for the writing process.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Before I start writing I revise the requirements	1	2	3	4	5
3. I look at a model written by a native speaker or more proficient writer.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I start writing without having a	1	2	3	4	5

written or mental plan.					
5. I think about what I want to write and have a plan in my mind, but not on paper.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I note down words and short notes related to the topic.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I write an outline of my paper.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I write notes or an outline in my native language.	1	2	3	4	5

B. WHILE WRITING ...

Please circle the appropriate number.

WHEN WRITING IN ENGLISH...	Never True 1	Usually Not true 2	Somewhat True 3	Usually True 4	Always True 5
1. I start with the introduction.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I stop after each sentence to read it again.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I stop after a few sentences or a whole paragraph, covering one idea.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I reread what I have written to get ideas how to continue.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I go back to my outline and make changes in it.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I write bits of the text in my native language and then translate them into English.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I go for sure in grammar and vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I simplify what I want to write if don't know how to express my	1	2	3	4	5

thoughts in English.					
9. If I don't know a word in English, I write it in my native language and later try to find an appropriate English word.	1	2	3	4	5
10. If I don't know a word in English, I find a similar English word that I know.	1	2	3	4	5
11. If I don't know a word in English, I stop writing and look up the word in the dictionary.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I use a bilingual dictionary.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I use a monolingual dictionary.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I ask somebody to help out when I have problems while writing.	1	2	3	4	5

C. WHEN REVISING...

Please circle the appropriate number.

WHEN REVISING ...	Never True 1	Usually Not true 2	Somewhat True 3	Usually True 4	Always True 5
1. I read my text aloud.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I only read what I have written when I have finished the whole paper.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I use a dictionary when revising.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I make changes in vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I make changes in sentence	1	2	3	4	5

structure.					
7. I make changes in the structure of the essay.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I make changes in the content or ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I focus on one thing at a time when revising (e.g., content, structure).	1	2	3	4	5
10. I drop my first draft and start writing again.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I check if my essay matches the requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I leave the text aside for a couple of days and then I can see it in a new perspective.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I show my text to somebody and ask for his/her opinion.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I compare my paper with the essays written by my friends on the same topic.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I give myself a reward for completing the assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I check my mistakes after I get back the paper with feedback from the teacher, and try to learn from them.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Writing Instructors' Ideas about the Participants' Writing Abilities

Dear teacher,

This checklist aimed at providing information about the students' writing abilities.

Please tick the appropriate box in front of each student.

Student's Name	Writing Ability			Comment
	Good	Average	Poor	
1				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				
6.				
7.				
8.				
9.				
10.				
11.				
12.				
13.				
14.				
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19.				
20.				
21.				
22.				
23.				
24.				
25.				
26.				
27.				
28.				
29.				
30.				
31.				
32.				

Appendix E

Interview Guide

1. Biographical information including name, age, marital status, family background.
2. Educational background including number of years of learning English or having English classes beside/before university.
3. Feelings and ideas about writing in English including likes/dislikes about English writing.
4. Free time activities including watching English movies or reading English stories.
5. Writing strategies:

Explain what you did, step by step, while writing this task.

What did you do first? Did you write immediately after seeing the topic or you thought first and then started to write? Why did you choose this procedure? What (if any) were you thinking about before starting to write? How did you get your ideas for writing? Did you use outline or short notes? How? Did you use Farsi or English? Why?

When you started to write, what did you do exactly? Were you thinking about anything special or different things at the same time? What was the most important thing you were concerned with while writing? Did you know what exactly are you going to write? Did you change your ideas while writing? Why? When? Did you think of grammar, spelling, and punctuation while composing? Why? Did you think about the audience of your writing? When? Did you use Farsi or English while composing? When? Why? Did you come back to your outline (if any) while writing? When? Why? Did you change it while writing? How? Why? Did you ever stop while writing? When? Why? Did you reread the written sentence (or sentences)? Why? When?

Did you revise/edit/review your text? When? How? What aspect of the text was the most important to you in reviewing/revising/editing? Was it while writing or after finishing your writing? Did you change the vocabulary? Why? Did you change the structure? When? Why? Did you change the contents and ideas? Why? When? While revising, did you focus on one thing (e.g., structure) or several things at the time? Did you read it aloud when it was finished? Why? Did you check your writing or you just handed in when you finished? Specify the points in the composition where you stopped writing. Say why you stopped and what you were thinking about. Why do you think those points were important for you? Generally, did you make any pauses when you write? What happened normally when you paused in the course of writing?

Compare and contrast two writing tasks in terms of the three stages of pre writing, during writing, and post writing, the amount of time you spent on each stage, the sources of difficulties you had in each task and the solutions you found for the problems.

Appendix F

The ESL Writing Profile (Jacobs et al., (1981)

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE			
STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC	
SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
Content	30-27	EXCELENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic	
	26-22	GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant to topic, but lacks details.	
	21-17	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject, little substance, inadequate development of topic	
	16-13	VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, OR not enough to evaluate	
Organization	20-18	EXCELENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive	
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing	
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing, and development	
	9-7	VERY POOR: does not communicate, OR not enough to evaluate	
Vocabulary	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range, effective word/idiom choice and usage, word form mastery, appropriate register	
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range, occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured	
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range, frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage, meaning confused or obscured	
	9-7	VERY POOR: essentially translation, little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word forms, OR not enough to evaluate	
Language Use	25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex construction, few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, propositions	
	21-18	GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple construction, minor problems in complex construction, several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, propositions but meaning seldom obscured	
	17-11	FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex construction, frequent error of agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, deletions, meaning confused obscured	
	10-5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, OR not enough to evaluate	
Mechanics	5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions, few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing	
	4	GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured	
	3	FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, poor handwriting, meaning confused or obscured	
	2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions, dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, handwriting illegible, OR not enough to evaluate	
TOTAL SCORE	READER	COMMENTS	

Appendix G

Number of Words and the Time Each Good and Poor Writer Spent on Three Stages of Writing in the Narrative (Task One) and Argumentative (Task Two) Task

Participant	Task type	Number of words written	Time spent/Percentage			Total time
			Pre writing/%	During writing/%	Post writing/%	
Sahar (poor)	One	205	*00.02.40/3.87	00.54.00/78.26	00.12.00/17.87	01.09.25
	Two	203	00.01.43/1	00.50.33/70	00.21.00/29	01.11.00
Pari (poor)	One	162	00.17.00/30.33	00.27.00/48.21	00.12.00/21.42	00.56.00
	Two	192	00.00.51/1.95	00.22.00/46.8	00.24.09/51.25	00.47.00
Fati (poor)	One	260	00.03.00/3	01.00.00/84	00.16.00/13	01.19.00
	Two	236	00.03.45/6.33	00.44.00/80	00.10.00/13.67	00.54.49
Total	One	627	00.22.40/9.3	02.21.00/70	00.40.00/20.7	03.23.40
	Two	631	00.05.28/3	01.55.00/66	00.55.09/31	02.55.28
Mean	One	209	12.4%	70.15%	17.43%	
	Two	210	3.10%	65.6%	33.92%	
Ali (good)	One	160	00.12.00/18.	00.19.00/29.	00.35.00/53.	01.06.43
	Two	198	00.04.23/12.	00.33.00/ 50.	00.25.00/ 38.	01.06.53
Elham (good)	One	333	00.02.33/6.	00.27.00/68.6	00.10.00/25.4	00.39.33
	Two	361	00.02.40/4.3	00.28.00/55.4	00.20.00/39.6	00.50.40
Majid (good)	One	212	00.01.00/ 3.5	00.26.20/74.9	00.07.35/21.6	00.35.00
	Two	266	00.01.35/2.8	00.36.00/73.	00.13.00/24.2	00.50.35
Total	One	705	00.15.33/10	01.12.20/51	00.52.35/39	2.21.16
	Two	825	00.08.38/4.9	01.37.00/54.3	00.58.00/40.8	2.46.58
Mean	One	235	9.3%	57.5%	33.2%	
	Two	275	6.5%	59.5%	34.%	

Note. Two minutes and forty seconds (3.87 percent of total time)

Appendix H

Summary of the Total Number of Uttered Words, Number of transcribed Pages, Total Number of Written Words, and Number of actual produced Draft by Each Good and Poor Writer in the Narrative (Task One) and Argumentative (Task Two) Task

Participant	Task Type	Total number of uttered words (number of transcribed pages)	Total number of written words (number of actual draft pages)
Sahar	One	1563(6)	205(1)
	Two	1098(5)	203(1)
	Total	2661(11)	408(2)
Pari	One	1210(6)	162(1)
	Two	734(4)	192(1)
	Total	1944(10)	354(2)
Fati	One	1611(8)	260(1)
	Two	1520(7)	236(1)
	Total	3131(15)	496(2)
Total		7736(36)	1258(6)
Ali	One	1945(4)	160(1)
	Two	2518(6)	198(1)
	Total	4463(10)	358(2)
Majid	One	1611(7)	212(2)
	Two	1520(5)	266(2)
	Total	3131(12)	478(4)
Elham	One	1565(3)	333(1/5)
	Two	2013(3/5)	361(2)
	Total	3578(6/5)	694(3/5)
Total		11172(28/5)	1197(9/5)
Grand Total		18908(64/5)	2455(15/5)

Appendix I

Long Extracts of Think Aloud Protocols

Long Extract 1 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“Some people believe that women should stay home after they got married. Others however hold the opposite idea. What do you think? What is your personal idea about this issue? First of all, this subject should be discussed that the responsibility of the women after marriage cannot let them work outside. Okay, the best thing I can write first is something general...different ideas about the women who stay at home or the reverse, the women who work outside after they get married. Now I had better write an introduction because this issue is among those that is discussed in the family affairs.....what do you think? What do you think?” (00.02.40)”

Long Extract 2 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“Muslims Muslims, Muslims, Muslims do not ~~do not~~ let, Muslims believe that, many Muslims believe that women, women must stay, must stay, women must stay ... many Muslims believe that women must stay home... many Muslims believe that women must stay home, home, and must stay home, many Muslims believe that women must stay home, home and don't like don't like, they, don't like connection with men.”

Long Extract 3 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I believe that the women should, should stay should stay home after they get married due to certain reasons because of some, because of some reasons. Okay, due to certain reasons... the first one is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home. What is treating in English? ... Doing the chores...earning money is men's responsibility...I believe that women should stay home after they get married because of some reasons, treat, what is treat in English? Treat, treat I believe that women should stay home after they get married because of some...some reasons how can I start? Why women should stay home. Firstly because of treating the kids, and secondly because they can do the chores better. I believe that women should stay home after they got married because of some reasons. First, treat, more attention to kids. First, women should pay more attention to their sons.”

Long Extract 4 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“Think of the most interesting moment happened in your life and describe it. Does it mean what makes me happy? What are interesting things to me in my life? No idea, what is interesting in my life? Nothing, I will write, it is not important it is good or bad, when I was child I will wish, I wished that be good person in future so I try study but I can't, what happened? What is the relationship between what I am writing and what I have been asked to write? Interesting moment happening in your life and describe it. In other time I think when go to university I am happy but it false, oops not right again, what makes me happy? The best happening in my life, the best happening, it happened when... what? Oh my God...what was it? I think it happened when I was child, I think when I was child I have best period best period in my life because I don't understand about problems and hard life so I have I don't understand about problems and hard life so I have best life, what shall I start with? What shall I write? Nothing in my mind... when I had 18 years old my sister married and it was a good happening for me because I don't have any brother and I think her husband can like my brother but it false her married was bad choice... I do not know if I write about my boyfriend or not? I loved him but I lost him, this is not a good happening, what shall I write?... the best happen in my life is is my father and I am so happy because everybody wish have like my father...no... these are nonsense ...what shall I write? ...What shall I write? I can write nothing... nothing in my mind...my best

moment ... think of one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper. Let's do something...we write again from the beginning."

Long Extract 5 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

"...but I think it's the, but I think it's the ...ok...old, old think, old think, what should I write now? They cannot allow be in society just for their husband... I continue... I do not know, emm ok, they can't allow be in then society just for their husbands, emmm viewpoint think, an old, old think, an old viewpoint, it's an old think, emm old think, an old think,...."

Long Extract 6 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

"We are, no, we have successful mothers, we have successful mothers that they, that they cope with their affaires quite well... fulfill their duties satisfactorily, their duties ...that they do...they do their duties well, the best in the best form, shape, that is right, in the best form form is the better choice, I had better change the place of "their duty"... They do in the best form their duty."

Long Extract 7 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

"Think of the most interesting moment happened in your life and describe it. Does it mean what makes me happy? What are interesting things to me in my life? No idea, what is interesting in my life? Nothing, I will write, it is not important it is good or bad, when I was child I will wish, I wished that be good person in future so I try study but I can't, what happened? What is the relationship between what I am writing and what I have been asked to write? Interesting moment happening in your life and describe it. In other time I think when go to university I am happy but it false, oops not right again, what makes me happy? The best happening in my life, the best happening, it happened when... what? Oh my God...what was it? I think it happened when I was child, I think when I was child I have best period best period in my life because I don't understand about problems and hard life so I have I don't understand about problems and hard life so I have best life, what shall I start with? What shall I write? Nothing in my mind... when I had 18 years old my sister married and it was a good happening for me because I don't have any brother and I think her husband can like my brother but it false her married was bad choice... I do not know if I write about my boyfriend or not? I loved him but I lost him, this is not a good happening, what shall I write?... the best happen in my life is is my father and I am so happy because everybody wish have like my father...no... these are nonsense ...what shall I write? ...What shall I write? I can write nothing... nothing in my mind...my best moment ... think of one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper. Let's do something...we write again from the beginning (00.17.00)."

Long Extract 8 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

"Think about the most interesting moment in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of 200 to 300 words within 2 hours. Think about the most interesting moment in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of 200 to 300 words within 2 hours." (00.01.04)

Long Extract 9 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"Think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and describe it on the paper... The most attractive incident happening in your life. Let me write the content in Farsi first. The most attractive happening of my life...In general, nothing interesting has taken place in my life. There is nothing interesting in my mind to write about either...in your life and describe it on the paper ...nothing in my mind...Generally, nice moments...nothing in my mind...the most interesting moment of my life...Acceptance for BA may be one of them... the best moment...it can be... What else? ...Visiting the relatives in Emirate after 15 years, it has been

interesting...em... Being accepted for the university, visiting the relatives after 15 years. The third subject, what can it be? What can it be? Entering university emm paying a visit to relatives in Emirates, emm, what can the third subject be? Something that is both interesting and has happened for me, this is a hard topic...generally, there is nothing interesting, I forgot, *think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and describe it on the paperrrrr*. What shall I write? The most interesting moment, the most interesting moment, the most interesting moment, nothing in my mind, I don't remember, maybe I forgot, entering university emm paying a visit to relatives in Emirates, emm, Aha, I remember, ranked as the second top student...these three topics are hard for me to write about, I should choose the one which I can write well and I can use good vocabulary. I should also write between 200-300 words in 2 hours. Visiting the relatives after 15 years ok, let's see what I can remember about the event...no other good event in my life...interesting moment, interesting moment...three of them are difficult...When I was 14 years old, I went to Emirate. I will write about it. Let's start."(00.12.10)

Long Extract10 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"Think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and on the paper... to describe...a composition of 200-300 words within 2 hours... favorite moments happening in your life...the most important one...I do not know, oh my God...very difficult...think about one of the most important moment happened in your life...what should I say? What should I say? One of the most important moments of my life, in other words, it should be one of my sweetest memories...one of the most important one...getting acquainted with...it is good...I write it". (00.02.40)

Long Extract11 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

"I do not understand why...*why, why, why*, I do not understand why ...*why, why* what? How can I put it? **Because, because** what? **Why, why**, emm he supports me what? What should I write? What can I write?"

Long Extract12 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"There is nothing in my mind. I do not think I wrote more than 50 words so far oh my God...He was a good boy... He also looked appealing. He also seemed wise; he should not be lightheaded, *he was a good boy*...what else can I say to describe him? How difficult? 1, 2, 3, 4... It is not even 40 words yet. We started a good friendship, we start, started a good, I should say nice..."

Long Extract13 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"We traveled by plane to Sharjah, to Sharjah and after hours, it took us around 4 hours to get to my uncle's house, *to Sharjah and after hours*, we arrived to, we got to arrive at my uncles' house **my uncle my uncles' house**."

Long Extract14 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

"I opened the door **the door** of the drivers I could not talk I could not speak, I breathed deeply I took a deep breath and said to Mr. Mandegari, I was accepted, he got very happy he was very happy."

Long Extract 15 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"They were very happy that see me after a long time, long time, I write **years**. They were very happy that see me after years."

Long Extract 16 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"He is an officer in sea force, what is commander in chief? ...let's forget about it".

Long Extract 17 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“I trust him; there is a mutual trust between us... what is mutual in English? I cannot recall the word, let it go...”

Long Extract 18 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“I like, I like have you no... I like emm... What? When I am sad just think to you can calm me...”

Long Extract 19 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“It was awful in my life in my life I could not tolerate, tolerate, **because I cannot** what? In my life it was awful, for me but he was very kind...”

Long Extract 20 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“When I got there, my close relatives were there. I knew no one. My father introduced them to me one by one. I met them after 15 years. When I saw them, my dad had to introduce them to me. I visited a lot of unknown people...”

Long Extract 21 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“Because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues, I think when a woman gets married...”

Long Extract 22 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“He likes to gain a lot of money, he likes it very much. He likes be a rich man he likes be a rich man, very like.”

Long Extract 23 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“**That night I couldn't sleep, that night I couldn't sleep, that night I could not sleep...** that night I could not sleep emm that night I could not sleep that night I could not sleep then I disconnect the computer from internet.”

Long Extract 24 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“We almost stay there for fifteen days and then came back, we stayed there almost fifteen days about fifteen days and we came back to Iran, went back to Iran with very unforgettable and nice memories, with sweet memories.”

Long Extract 25 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“The important point that the important point that that can be mentioned here can be mentioned here is that people that people have people have many interesting people have many interesting times in their life people have many interesting time in their life, but every person every person everyone has his own criterion for selecting a best moment of his life, people have many interesting times in their life but every person but every person every person every person has its own reasons.”

Long Extract 26 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I believe that the women should, should stay should stay home after they get married due to certain reasons because of some because of some reasons. Okay due to certain reasons... the first one is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home. What is treat in English?...doing the chores...earning money is men's responsibility...I believe that women should stay home after they get married because of some reasons treat what is treat in English? Treat, treat I believe that women should stay home after they get married because of some...some reasons how can I start? Why women should stay home. Firstly because of treating the kids, and secondly because they can do the chores better. I believe that women should stay home after they got married because of some reasons. First, treat, more attention to kids. First, women should pay more attention to their sons.”

Long Extract 27 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“We are ...we have successful mothers, we have successful mothers that they ...they can perform their duties efficiently **their duties** that **they do they do their duties** well, shape, form... form, yes, that’s right, in the best form form is a better choice...If I write **their duties** here, it is better...*they do in the best form their duty* yes here is better.”

Long Extract 28 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“Because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues, I think when a woman gets married...”

Long Extract 29 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“Muslims Muslims, Muslims, Muslims do not do not let, Muslims believe that, many Muslims believe that women, women must stay, must stay, women must stay ... many Muslims believe that women must stay home...”

Long Extract 30 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Some people some people have... traditional think about, about, about working, **work of**, working women in out of house, house and about the men, no, out of house, they believe that, they believe that, women should not work in a manly place don’t be correct working women work of women in out of house in manly environment, in place of a place where men work, place of work men.”

Excerpt 31 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“**I think situation and position**, I think it depends on ...their position position or situation, situation position or situation but I think I like, but I like to work outside , **I like work** I like be, I want to be in the society **society...**”

Long Extract 32 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“Now the third point. Earning money is the men’s responsibility and the women are responsible for inside the house affairs. Islam has men, Islam force the men that support, support their families in financial issues and you should know that it is good to know that...”

Long Extract 33 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“For example, **some of the women**, some of the women, women, the women, like stay at home, like stay at home for example some of the women like stay at home at home themselves...some of them want stay home because of their husbands because of their husbands...”

Long Extract 34 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“Because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues, I think when a woman gets married, when the women gets married, their responsibilities, their responsibilities are more than before, their responsibilities become more than before. The reason why their responsibilities become more, in my view, is that because when they get married, when they get married...”

Long Extract 35 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Today, today ... there are many many many successful, what was the word? Aha successful... women in society either outside home, either, what, what in house what

in out of house, we are ...we have successful mothers, we have successful mothers that they ...they can perform their duties efficiently **their duties** that **they do they do** their duties well, shape, form... form, yes, that's right, in the best form, form is a better choice...If I write **their duties** here, it is better...*they do in the best form their duty* yes here is better.”

Long Extract 36 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“Think about one of the most attractive moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper... *Think about one of the most interesting... moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper...* Think about one of the *most interesting* moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper, *write within two hours. Think about one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper, write a composition of 200-300 words*, about what interesting moments... *interesting...the moments which ...interesting in your life...*”(00.02.33)

Long Extract 37 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“*Some people believe that women should stay home after they got married. Others however hold the opposite idea. What do you think? What is your personal idea about this issue? First of all, this subject should be discussed that the responsibility of the women after marriage cannot let them work outside. Okay, the best thing I can write first is something general...different ideas about the women who stay at home or the reverse, the women who work outside after they get married. Now I had better write an introduction because this issue is among those that is discussed in the family affairs.....what do you think? What do you think?*” (00.02.40)”

Long Extract 38 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“There were many close relatives there. I knew no one there. My father introduced them to me one by one...emm, I visited a lot of ...unknown people that unknown people that my father had to intro *intro* introduce to me introduce for me.”

Long Extract 39 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“Now the third point. Earning money is the men's responsibility and the women are responsible for inside the house affairs. Islam has men, Islam force the men that support support their families in financial issues and you should know that it is good to know that...”

Long Extract 40 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“I think when, when we want something from God, we want something from God *when we want something* from our God for arriving to that thing, we count the numbers, for arriving to that we count the moments, we...the moments... *we counts the moments.*”

Long Extract 41 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“Because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues, I think when a woman gets married, when the women gets married, their responsibilities, their responsibilities are more than before, their responsibilities become more than before. The reason why their responsibilities become more, in my view, is that because when they get married, when they get married...”

Long Extract 42 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“I opened the door, **the door** of the drivers, I could not talk, I could not speak, I breathed deeply, I took a deep breath, and said to Mr. Mandegari, I was accepted, he got very happy he was very happy.”

Long Extract 43(Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“The second reason...about job...it depends on the husband’s job situation...yes...no... maybe they should stay home, the first one had to do with the life situation and the second one deals with the husbands’ beliefs...the beliefs are important. The second reason is the second reason depends on the beliefs...the husbands’ beliefs.”

Long Extract 44 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“We traveled by plane to Sharjah, to Sharjah and after hours, it took us around 4 hours to get to my uncle’s house, to Sharjah and after hours, we arrived to, we got to, arrive at my uncles’ house my uncle my uncles’ house.”

Long Extract 45(Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“I believe that the women should should stay should stay home after they get married, due to certain reasons, because of some because of some reasons. Okay, due to certain reasons... the first one is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home. *I believe that women should stay home after they got married because of some reasons*, how can I present them? From which one I should start? ... Firstly, the women should treat the kids... Secondly, they can do the chores better... *I believe that women should stay home after they got married because of some reasons... First...*”

Long Extract 46 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“Therefore when the site of custom, customs affair, affairs, affairs announced, *the site of customs affaires*, emm what was the word? To announce... to tell people... to show on TV aha **announce** *custom affairs* announced the result of the examination...”

Long Extract 47 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“Muslims Muslims Muslims Muslims do not do not let Muslims believe that, many Muslims believe that women, women must stay must stay, women must stay ... many Muslims believe that women must stay home... many Muslims believe that women must stay home, home and must stay home, many Muslims believe that women must stay home home and don’t like don’t like, they, don’t like connection with men.”

Long Extract 48 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“It’s not bad, It is not bad to tell I think it is better to use **say** instead of **tell**, to say that my relatives migrated to UAE when I was ...6 month, what is 6 month in English? When they migrated to UAE, I was 6 months old, *That my relatives migrated to UAE, to UAE, migrated to UAE, when I was 6 months*, I write **had** instead of **was**, when I had 6 months. So, I went to UAE with my father, travel is better than **went**, so I traveled to UAE, so I travelled to UAE with my father to visit them...”

Long Extract 49 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...the family can’t, can’t, can’t have a, normal is better so instead of good life I write normal, normal life and...”

Long Extract 50 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“*My personal idea about this issue is this* my idea my idea about this this subject better than the word issue, *about this subject* is this is this that is this that

women work after, women can work after they got married after marriage because of because of some reasons, *because of some reasons*, but there are some exceptions but it has many exceptions many exceptions that, that we can, that we can discuss here.”

Long Extract 51 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“...*the house is a place that the most of works the most of works that must be done by the woman*, this sentence can be written in a better way to exactly convey what I mean. Ok, *the house is a place that the most of works the most of work , that must be done by the woman*, the first part is ok, then we write The house is a place that, the house is a place that a woman must manage her duties, her management for all of the responsibilities must be paid attention to”.

Long Extract 52 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“*Think of the most interesting moment happened in your life and describe it*. Does it mean what makes me happy? What are interesting things to me in my life? No idea, what is interesting in my life? Nothing, I will write, it is not important it is good or bad ,when I was child I will wish, I wished that be good person in future so I try study but I can't, what happened? What is the relationship between what I am writing and what I have been asked to write? Interesting moment happening in your life and describe it. In other time I think when go to university I am happy but it false, oops not right again. What makes me happy? The best happening in my life, the best happening, it happened when... What? Oh my God...what was it? I think it happened when I was child, I think when I was child I have best period *best period in my life* because I don't understand about problems and hard life so I have *I don't understand about problems and hard life* so I have best life, what shall I start with? What shall I write? Nothing in my mind... when I had 18 years old my sister married and it was a good happening for me because I don't have any brother and I think her husband can like my brother but it false her married was bad choice...I do not know if I write about my boyfriend or not? I loved him but I lost him this is not a good happening, what should I write?... the best happen in my life is is my father and I am so happy because everybody wishes to have a person like him...no... these are nonsense ...what should I write? ...What should I write? I can write nothing... nothing in my mind...my best moment ... think of one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper. Let's do something...we write again from the beginning.” (00.17.00)

Long Extract 53 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)

“*Some people believe that the women should stay home after they get married*. Never, who believed so. *Others however hold the opposite idea*. What do you think? *Some people believe that the women should stay home after marriage*. I should say three things to support my idea.” (00.01.00)

Long Extract 54 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“Think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and on the paper... to describe...a composition of 200-300 words within 2 hours... favorite moments happening in your life...the most important one...I do not know, oh my God...very difficult...think about one of the most important moment happened in your life...what should I say? What should I say? One of the most important moments

of my life, in other words, it should be one of my sweetest memories...one of the most important one...getting acquainted with...it is good...I write it.” (00.02.40)

Long Extract 55 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Some people believe that the women should stay home after they get married nonsense. Others however hold the opposite idea. What do you think? Write a composition of 200-300 words in 2 hours. Some people believe that the women should stay home after marriage...I totally disagree with the idea, I firstly should write an introduction and then some supporting ideas. What can a good introduction be... or I can say I disagree first and then...ok.” (00.01.40)

Long Extract 56 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“Think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of Ha? Think of one of the most interesting moments...describe it on...ok...many things. What should I write? ...Many things...It should be a nice moment... If I knew the topic in advance, I could write better...one of the most interesting moments interesting moments in your life. Think of the most important moments in your life...aha...happens in your life...my acceptance for university.” (00.03.00)

Long Extract 57 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“Some people believe that the women should stay home after they get married. What do you think? Ok, some people believe that the women should stay home after they get married. What do you think? Others, however, hold the opposite ideas. What do you think? What do you think? Ok I should firstly say that there are different ideas ... and then I should say my own idea that why I disagree. **The men lives as like as women and the women as like as men. Why the men think the women should stay home? Stay home or stay at home?** Ahan... stay home after they get married ok...now I should write the **main idea**...**main idea** about this topic.” (00.03.41)

Long Extract 58 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“He is an officer in sea force, what is commander in chief? ...let’s forget about it. I do not think about the quality of my writing. What else can I write? ... Let’s read the previous parts. Don’t tell lie, he likes his work but tired of that. He is a officer in sea force, he have a bad habit he smoking ... emm... he smoking but...but...what can I say? His good behaviors are more than his bad ones.”

Long Extract 59 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“I love, I love my friend. My friend thank you for all of help ... What else can I write? ... Let me read the text once. *This happening is really true. I am not a liar. The best happen was one choice. When I was 20 years old, I need to a good friend but I...because it was maybe I was a big girl. When I appoint my friend, I sense he was very different with all people so I was very happy. I have best time with my friend.*”

Long Extract 60 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“**I can’t imagine that** I can’t imagine that I can’t imagine that I accept I see I see that if I add “that” here... What was I writing about? Let’s read it, *I like describe about my feeling when I see that I accept for university. I have a very good and interesting feel because I can’t imagine ... I could not, I can’t imagine I accept for it accept for it, ok?*”

Long Extract 61 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“*Very things can be in my life that be interesting... my life very things can be, in my life, a very funny sentence. In our life can be (reordering) can be very interesting moment (reordering, adding)....”*

Long Extract 62 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“*Ok, let’s rewrite it. There are some my ideas, there are my ideas, ideas, my ideas, there are **some** (deletion) my ideas, there are my ideas about the women after married. There are my ideas about the woman after married.*

Long Extract 63 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“*One of the most interesting moments happening in my life ... was day of day no getting acquainted with, day was it is not needed to mention the day(deletion), was to familiar with my partner or it is better to say **my best friend** my best friend (substitution).”*

Long Extract 64 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

“*Some people have traditional think about work of women, we do not need “to” here (deletion), I should use “of” instead of “to”, work of women work of the (adding) women in out in the (adding) out of the (adding) house.”*

Long Extract 65 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“*Think about one of the most attractive moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper... Think about one of the most interesting... moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper...Think about one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper, write within two hours. Think about one of the most interesting moments happened in your life and describe it on the paper, write a composition of 200-300 words, about what interesting moments... interesting...the moments which ...interesting in your life...” (00.02.33)*

Long Extract 66 (Elham, poor writer, argumentative task)

“*Some people believe that women should stay home after they got married. Others however hold the opposite idea. What do you think? What is your personal idea about this issue? First of all, this subject should be discussed that the responsibility of the women after marriage cannot let them work outside. Okay, the best thing I can write first is something general...different ideas about the women who stay at home or the reverse, the women who work outside after they get married. Now I had better write an introduction because this issue is among those that is discussed in the family affaires...what do you think? What do you think?” (00.02.40)*

Long Extract 67 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“*Think of one of the most interesting moments happening in your life and describe it on the paper. Write a composition of Ha? Think of one of the most interesting moments...describe it on...ok...many things. What shall I write? ... Many things...it should be a nice moment... If I knew the topic in advance, I could write better...one of the most interesting moments interesting moments in your life. Think of the most*

important moments in your life...aha...happens in your life...my acceptance for university". (00.03.00)

Long Extract 68 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task) "Some people believe that the women should stay home after they get married. What do you think? Ok, some people believe that the women should stay home after they get married. What do you think? Others, however, hold the opposite ideas. What do you think? What do you think? Ok I should firstly say that there are different ideas ... and then I should say my own idea that why I disagree. **The men lives as like as women and the women as like as men. Why the men think the women should stay home? Stay home or stay at home?** Ahan... *stay home after they get married* ok...now I should write the **main idea...main idea** about this topic". (00.03.41)

Long Extract 69 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)
"...ok, that was the second **main idea**, now we should **support** and elaborate on it".

Long Extract 70 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)
"...Now we can conclude the essay here, so I write the **conclusion**".

Long Extract 71 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)
"...they have duty to support family and to earn money. I should support this idea".

Long Extract 72 (Pari, poor writer, argumentative task)
"...Now I will add **first**, **second**, and **finally** to my text and it is all done."

Long Extract 73 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)
"...Now I should provide **support** here."

Long Extract 74 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)
"How about the **conclusion**?"

Long Extract 75 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)
"Let me explain the day I saw him. I had **stress**. I had stress. Oh my God, I remember I had too much **stress** and I could hardly move my legs. Because it was our first time to see each other. Then... it was not such a big deal... Finally I saw him, finally ...at last... in the end... finally, does it have one or two 'L'? Two Ls, I saw him...I liked him very much, I do not know why, it was a nice day... He was a good boy... He also looked appealing. He also seemed wise; he should not be lightheaded. Ok, what was I writing? ... *he was a good boy*...what else can I say to describe him?"

Long Extract 76 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)
"*I could not believe... ahhh how fast the apprenticeship period is passing, we had a very good time... this is the place we used to have conversational courses... in the laboratory, good old days... I could not believe...*" 110

Long Extract 77 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)
"I thought I thought thought I would have had difficulties **many problems and** many problems in **difficultly difficulty I would have many problems and difficulties** many problems and hardships would have by growing my child. One of the first things that

was difficult, from the age from the age that from the age that he could understand, he understood I tried to learn him I tried to teach him I tried to learn him I tried to teach him when he wants to use the others' things, when he... I tried to learn him when he wants to use the others' things, when he wants to use the properties of others, he first must take he must take permission from others."

Long Extract 78 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

"Because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues, I think when a woman gets married, when the women gets married, their responsibilities, their responsibilities are more than before, their responsibilities become more than before. The reason why their responsibilities become more, in my view, is that because when they get married, when they get married..."

Long Extract 79 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

"I opened the door the door of the drivers I could not talk, I could not speak, I breathed deeply, I took a deep breath and said to Mr. Mandegari, I was accepted, he got very happy, he was very happy."

Long Extract 80 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

"The second reason...about job...it depends on the husband's job situation...yes no... maybe they should stay home, the first one had to do with the life situation and the second one deals with the husbands' beliefs...the beliefs are important. The second reason is the second reason depends on the beliefs...the husbands' beliefs."

Long Extract 81 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

"That night I couldn't sleep, that night I couldn't sleep, that night I could not sleep... that night I could not sleep emm that night I could not sleep that night I could not sleep then I disconnect the computer from internet."

Long Extract 82 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

"I think situation and position, I think it depends on ...their position position or situation, situation position or situation but I think I like, but I like to work outside , I like work I like be, I want to be in the society society..."

Long Extract 83 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"He helps me in everything, He help me in everything everything everything is one word or two words? Even in thinking, he helped me even in thinking in everything, what is even in English? Even in thinking think ...in correct life in living correctly, what is to live correctly in English? He is a dreamy man..."

Long Extract 84 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

"The women ... can manage the household affairs... managing the family issues... doing the household issues ...housewives carried out which is do does does the work in house. Of course in today's life in this life more women work out of house..."

Long Extract 85 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

"...they didn't return to, they didn't return to Iran until I, I was in the secondary school, I went to UAE with my father, went,...travel is better so I traveled to UAE so I traveled to UAE with my father to visit them after a long time."

Long Extract 86 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

"I believe that the women should, should stay should stay home after they get married due to certain reasons because of some, because of some reasons. Ok, due to certain reasons... the first one is that the women can treat the kids better if stay at home. What

is treat in English?...Doing the chores...earning money is men's responsibility...*I believe that women should stay home after they get married because of some reasons* treat what is treat in English? Treat, treat *I believe that women should stay home after they get married because of some...some reasons* how can I start? Why women should stay home. Firstly because of treating the kids, and secondly because they can do the chores better. *I believe that women should stay home after they got married because of some reasons. First, treat, more attention to kids. First, women should pay more attention to their sons.*"

Long Extract 87 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

"The important point that *the important point that **that** can be mentioned here can be mentioned here is that people that people have people people have many interesting people have many interesting times in their life people have many interesting time in their life, but every person, every person, everyone has his own criterion for selecting a best moment of his life, *people have many interesting times in their life but every person but every person every person every person has its own reasons.*"*

Long Extract 88 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

"Because once a woman gets married, a woman, the first thing she does is to carry out her responsibilities at home, which is her most important responsibility and after that she can deal with the outside the family issues I think when a woman gets married, when the women gets married, their responsibilities, their responsibilities are more than before, their responsibilities become more than before. The reason why their responsibilities become more, in my view, is that because when they get married, when they get married..."

Long Extract 89 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"He is an officer in sea force... What else can I write?...Let's read the previous sentences...*don't tell lie, he likes his work but tired of that , he is a officer in sea force, he have a bad habit, he smoking ... emm... he smokes cigarette...but...but... what shall I say? His good behaviors are more than his bad ones...what shall I say? Sometimes there is nothing in your mind. He takes life very seriously...what else should I say now? Thirty minutes passed...*"

Long Extract 90 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

"He likes to gain a lot of money, he likes it very much. He likes be a rich man *he likes be a rich man, very like.*"

Long Extract 91 (Sahar, poor writer, argumentative task)

"We are ...we have successful mothers, we have successful mothers that they ...they can perform their duties efficiently their duties that they do they do their duties well, shape, form... form, yes, that's right, in the best, form form is a better choice...If I write their duties here, it is better...*they do in the best form their duty* yes here is better."

Long Extract 92 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

"I have very good feeling and it was interesting for me... I have a very good feel a very good feeling I had a very good feeling, a very good and interesting feeling... *I had a very good and interesting feeling because...I could not imagine that I was accepted because interesting feeling...I had a very good and interesting feeling because, I could not imagine...I could not imagine...i-m-a-g-i-n-e, I can't imagine that I accept* I will add that here. *I like describe about my feeling when I see that I accept for university. I have a very good and interesting feel because I can't imagine, I could not, I can't imagine I accept for it accept for it .What happened? What should I write? I have very good and interesting feel because I can't imagine I accept for it*

Why not? Yes. Now I should support it. *I have very good interesting feel about...I can't imagine I accept for it. ...I can't imagine I accept for it...One of the days in Shahrivar month. One of day...*”

Long Extract 93 (Fati, poor writer, argumentative task)

“For example, some of the people, some of the women, *women, the women, like stay at home*, like stay at home, *for example some of the women like stay at home at home themselves...some of them want, stay home, because of their husbands, because of their husbands, and others and others like be like be, out if the home out of in society and be and be familiar with other people*. Now I should open them one by one. *Some of the people like to stay at home. Why is it so? What is the reason? Some of the women like to stay at home. Some things are coming to my mind. Some of the women like to stay at home because of their husbands and others like be in society...others like be in society and others like be in society and be familiar with others*. I put full stop here and start another paragraph. *Some of the women like to stay at home by themselves... Some of the women like to stay at home ...They want...they think they...*”

Appendix J

Translation of Think Aloud Protocols

Translation of extract 106 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“Unha kheili khoshhal budand ke mara miinand. They were very happy *happy* that see me after a long *a long time*. Ma 15 ruz unjam undim va be Iran bargashtim. We stayed there about 15 days *about 15 days* and be Iran bargashtim went back to Iran ba khaterate besiyar shirin with sweet memories.”

Translation of extract 107 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“...third... emrare mash...be ohdeye mardan mibashad, emrare mash, the men *the men* Have to support *have to support* the family in financial issues. Mardan majburand ke support konan khanevade ra dar masaele mali. Hala in se ta ro berim tozih bedim...”

Translation of extract 108 (Ali, good writer, narrative task)

“... khob pas minvisam, khob, my *my* mother said, na... my mother sbayad avale jomle bashe khob pas mizarimesh ebtedaye jomle, my mother, behtar hast ke be jaye say az inform estefade konam bekhatere inke tekarar jaleb nist tuye neveshtan , my mother informed me...”

Translation of extract 109 (Ali, good writer, argumentative task)

“... the family can't have a good life and can't obtain their ... behtere ke be jaye aim az kalemeye digari estefade konam ...masalan purpose... ya objectives, we use objectives ... and can't obtain their objectives easily”.

Translation of extract 110 (Majid, good writer, narrative task)

“Therefore when the site of Customs affairs *affairs* elam kard the site of custom affairs kaleme chi bud? Elam kardan, elam kard ahan, announced the result of the examination I was so man kheili exciting...”

Translation of extract 111 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“...and religion *religion* is so important *so important* about connection connection ba jense mokhalef, jense mokhalef, opposite sex ahan opposite sex with the opposite sex.”

Translation of extract 112 (Majid, good writer, argumentative task)

“dalile dovom ... dar ertebat ba shoghl...bastegi dare be sharayete kariye showhar...are...na...momkene unha tu khune bemunan, avalish dar ertebat ba sharayete zendegi hast va dovomi dar ertebat ba eteghadate hamsar...eteghadat moheman. The second reason is dovomin dalil depends on eteghadat...the husband's beliefs. Khob hala chi kar konim? support mikonim.

Translation of extract 113 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“man fekr kardam I thought *thought* I would have dasht sakhtiha many problems and moshkelate ziyadi dar *difficultly* difficulty I would have many problems and difficulties kheili moshkelat vazahemati khahad dasht by growing my child. avalin chizi kekheili sakht bud, from the age from the age that az seni ke tunest befahmad, he understood I tried to learn him man saei kardam behesh yad bedam I tried to learn him man saei kardam behesh yad bedam when he wants to use the others' things when he... I tried to learn him when he wants to use the others' things vaghti ke

mikhahad az vasaye shakhsiye digaran estefade konad, he first must take he must take permission from others.”

Translation of extract 114 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“dar inja mitunim in natije ra begirim ke yek zan mitune kharej az khune kar kone agar vazayefash dar khane, here we can get in natije ra begirim this result in natije ra mitunim begirim that a woman can work out of the house if darsuratike zan mitune birun az khane it doesn't latme bezanad, latme nadashte bashad have a bad effect tasir on her house responsibilities.”

Translation of extract 115 (Elham, good writer, narrative task)

“The feeling of being, zamane madar shodan...*the...one of the...moments that happened in my life was the time that God gave me my first child. The feeling of the feeling of being mother, mother was very* ba arzesh... kalameye ba arzesh...*that happened in my life was the time the God gave me my first child. The feeling of being mother was very worthy, worthy, worthy for me...*”

Translation of extract 116 (Elham, good writer, argumentative task)

“...we have many problems about dar ertebat ba in mozu this **about this event** behtare kea z kalameye mozue estefade konam ta etefagh chun in ye mozu hast have many **problems about this subject subject, subject** kalameye behtari hast...”

Translation of extract 141 (Pari, poor writer, narrative task)

“When I appointment with my friend, I sense that he is he was very different with all of people. Oh khoda ro shokr ke to ro tu zendegim daram. Aslan nemitunam tasavoresho konam ke age to nabudi che etefaghi miyoftad. Hatta fekresho ham nemishe kard. Nemidunam cheghadr tul bekeshe nvali chizi ke motmaenam in eke to ba arzeshtarin chiz tu zendegim hasti... I was very happy...”

Transkation of extract 142 (Sahar, poor writer, narrative task)

“Bezar ruzi ke didamesh ra tosif konam. Stress dashta. I had stress. Oh khodaye man yadam miyad cheghadr esters dashtam unghadri ke nemitunestam harkat konam. Chun dafeye aval bud hamdige ro mididim. Badesh ... hichi dige ... belakhare hamdige ro didim, ... aghebat ... belakhare ... saranjam ... finally, ye l dare ya do ta? Do ta, I saw him... azash khosham umad, dalilesho nemidunam, ruze khubi bud ... He was a good boy ... pesare khubi be nazar miresid, bahush neshun midad, namibayest jelf bashe *he was a good boy* ... dige hi begam bara tosifesh?”

Translation of extract 143 (Fati, poor writer, narrative task)

“*I could not believe... aahh cheghadr sari dare tamam mishe dorane daneshjue, che dorani dashtim... inja mokaleme bud... tu azemayeshga, yadesh bekheir... Namitunestam bavar konam...*”

Appendix K

Permission Letter from TOEFL Organization



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Educational Testing Service
Rosedale Road, MS 42-L
Princeton, NJ 08541

October 20, 2009

Farhad Fahandej Saadi
University of Malaya
Serdang, Malaysia

Juana Betancourt
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BY: Farhad Fahandej Saadi

TITLE: PhD Candidate

DATE: 21.10.2009

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- 3 -

Appendix A

Materials Covered by this Permission:

TOEFL Paper Pencil Public dataset which includes the test form, answer key, and responses

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