SELF-REGULATED STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT IN ESL WRITING FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

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ABSTRACT

Where writing in a second language (L2) is concerned, the task becomes even more complex and demanding because second language writers are often hindered by complications that arise due to proficiency in the target language (TL), knowledge of the target language genres and the sociocultural expectations that are associated with them. However, there is evidence to indicate that an interactive, and scaffolded development of strategies for writing and self-regulation of the writing process through explicit strategy instruction such as Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) instruction, can positively affect student performance across writing genres. The present study contributes to an existing body of research on SRSD and self-regulation in writing by adding to the few studies that have been done on ESL learners belonging to a particular ethnic or language group.

The subjects of this study are low-proficiency Malay learners of English as a Second Language at a public university pursuing an English for Academic Purposes course. This study examines how instruction modelled after the SRSD framework affects the writing skills, self-efficacy and learning strategies of this group of students.

Among others, the findings of the paired-sample t-test revealed that the SRSD based writing instruction had a significant positive effect on all four components of the writing skills of the low-proficiency Malay ESL learners as well as their overall use of the language learning strategies. The most frequent use of learning strategies in this ESL academic writing class was the affective strategies, and this was followed by the cognitive strategies and then the metacognitive strategies. The SRSD model also appears to positively affect the self-efficacy of the learners in the treatment. However,

what was unexpected is that the control group likewise indicated a significant change in the overall perceived self-regulatory efficacy for writing. In terms of the 10 categories of self-regulated learning, significant changes were found in organising and transforming strategies, reviewing records, keeping records and monitoring and lastly, seeking social assistance.

The findings serve to increase understanding of the impact such a strategy training programme has on both writing and self-regulated learning strategies, as well as the language learning strategies of low-proficiency Malay learners of English as Second Language. Furthermore, this strategy study also extends another area of research that is teaching EAP through SRSD intervention which up to now has not been adequately explored, especially in the ESL context. Additionally, by investigating the impact of the model on students' writing self-efficacy, this study also broadens our understanding of the effects of SRSD intervention on students' self-efficacy for academic writing.

ABSTRAK

Kemahiran menulis dalam bahasa kedua merupakan satu aktiviti yang sangat mencabar kerana penulis sering bersemuka dengan beberapa rintangan seperti penguasaan bahasa kedua yang kurang memuaskan, kurang pengetahuan tentang sesuatu genre dalam bahasa sasaran, dan juga tanggapan sosiobudaya lain yang berkaitan. Walau bagaimanapun, terdapat beberapa bukti yang menunjukkan bahawa pengajaran terperinci berasaskan Strategi Pembangunan Kawal Diri atau SRSD yang bersifat interaktif dan bersokongan memberi kesan positif terhadap kebolehan seseorang pelajar mengawal selia diri sendiri semasa proses penulisan di dalam pelbagai genre. Kajian ini yang melibatkan pelajar-pelajar Bahasa Inggeris sebagai Bahasa Kedua (ESL) dari kumpulan etnik atau bahasa tertentu diharap dapat menyumbang terhadap ilmu yang sedia ada mengenai SRSD dan pengawalseliaan diri sendiri dalam penulisan dengan menambah kepada kajian yang sedia ada dalam bidang ini.

Subjek kajian ini terdiri dari pelajar-pelajar Melayu yang berkecekapan rendah di dalam Bahasa Inggeris sebagai Bahasa Kedua yang mengikuti Kursus Bahasa Inggeris untuk Tujuan Akademik di sebuah universiti awam. Kajian ini tertumpu kepada persoalan setakat mana pengajaran berasaskan SRSD dapat memberi kesan ke atas kemahiran menulis, efikasi kendiri dan strategi pembelajaran di kalangan pelajar ini.

Antara lain, dapatan berdasarkan ujian-t sampel berpasangan mendedahkan bahawa arahan bertulis berasaskan SRSD memberi kesan positif yang ketara ke atas empat komponen kemahiran menulis pelajar-pelajar Melayu yang berkecekapan rendah di dalam ESL dan juga ke atas kegunaan strategi pembelajaran bahasa pelajar-pelajar ini. Strategi pembelajaran yang sering digunakan didalam kelas penulisan akademik ESL

merupakan strategi afektif, dan ini diikuti oleh strategi kognitif dan metakognitif. SRSD juga memberikan kesan positif ke atas efikasi kendiri pelajar-pelajar di dalam kumpulan uji kaji. Walau bagaimanapun, perubahan yang ketara juga dilaporkan oleh pelajar-pelajar di dalam kumpulan kawalan ke atas tanggapan efikasi kawal selia diri sendiri yang menyeluruh untuk penulisan. Dari 10 kategori pembelajaran kawal selia diri sendiri, perubahan ketara didapati untuk strategi menyusun dan mengubah, mengkaji semula rekod, menyimpan dan memantau rekod dan akhir sekali, meminta bantuan.

Hasil kajian ini meningkatkan pemahaman kita mengenai kesan perancangan strategik ke atas strategi pengajaran penulisan dalam bahasa kedua dan juga strategi pembelajaran kawal selia diri sendiri serta strategi pembelajaran bahasa yang digunakan oleh golongan pelajar seperti ini. Kajian ini juga menambahbaikkan satu lagi bidang dalam penyelidikan SRSD iaitu pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris untuk Tujuan Akademik melalui intervensi SRSD yang sehingga ini belum menerima perhatian yang sewajarnya, terutamanya dalam konteks Bahasa Inggeris sebagai Bahasa Kedua. Tambahan pula, dengan menyiasat kesan SRSD ke atas efikasi kendiri pelajar untuk menulis, kajian ini meluaskan pemahaman tentang kesan intervensi SRSD ke atas efikasi kendiri pelajar dalam penulisan akademik.

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Dedicated to my dad,
the late Joseph William Michael
and my mum,
Catherine Ram Dewi
who always wanted a 'doctor' in the family
and never stopped believing in me.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SRSD   Self-Regulated Strategy Development

EAP   English for Academic Purposes

ESL   English as a Second Language

IELTS   International English Language Testing System

LD   Learning Disabilities

L1   First language

L2   Second language

TL   Target language

FL   Foreign language

UiTM   Universiti Teknologi MARA

UPSREW   Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing

SILL   Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

SRL   Self-regulated learning

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

In our present day society, the act of writing has permeated every aspect of our lives, transforming human communication as we proceed into the new millennium. The ability to write well enables us to share and influence thoughts, ideas, and opinions with others, not only on day-to-day matters, but also on matters that transcend time and space. As Graham and Perin (2007c, p. 1) put it, 'education is the transmission of civilization' where students need to write if they are to learn. The National Commission on Writing in America's schools and colleges is of the view that, 'Writing today is not a frill for the few, but an essential skill for the many.' The Commission, in fact, believes that writing should be used as a tool for learning rather than as a tool for assessment because it is only through writing that learners can 'stretch their minds, sharpen their analytical capabilities, and make valid and accurate distinctions' (The National Commission on Writing, 2003, p. 13). This situation should be viewed in the light of the current developments in writing, which has evolved over the years from that of keeping records to a more crucial role in communication, learning and self-expression, where it has become the primary means by which knowledge acquisition is gauged (Graham, 2006b).

However, the current situation where schoolchildren adopt a deteriorating attitude towards writing in spite of having started off with a positive outlook (Harris, Graham, Brindle, & Sandmel, 2009), and the general decline in the writing ability of college students where in the United States for instance, more than fifty percent

of the college freshmen fail to produce error-free writing and almost one in every five of them require remedial writing (Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates, 2002, cited in Harris, Graham, Brindle, & Sandmel, 2009) is a cause for concern that warrants reform in writing instruction. To facilitate this reform, a scrutiny of strategy research thus becomes necessary and interesting if not urgent as it could provide an understanding of the development of particular writing skills, the problems faced by student writers and the cause(s) of these problems as well as the kind of writing instruction that would effectively aid in overcoming these problems. Strategy research therefore appears to be an important aspect of educational research as it deals with language learning issues pertaining to the characteristics and parameters of strategy, differentiating strategy from skill, and the development of strategic behaviour as well as the factors that facilitate and inhibit strategic development and behaviour (Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998).

Furthermore, with increased globalisation and internationalisation, many institutions of higher learning have expressed concerns about the writing ability of non-native English speakers and their ability to meet university-wide writing requirements and testing (Silva, Reichelt, & Lax-Farr, 1994). This situation highlights the need for effective instruction in academic writing or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) for students in English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms as they tend to encounter numerous difficulties in completing their academic tasks. They find themselves in a quandary where they not only need to learn academic English but also content subject matter and skills in English (Brandt, 2009; Brown, 2004). According to Rachal, Daigle and Rachal (2007), students need to exhibit appropriate will, skill

and self-regulation in order to succeed academically, but many are unable to effectively employ the necessary strategies that this entails as they are not equipped with those strategies through explicit instruction and more importantly the opportunities to apply them. As a result, there is a need for more research not only on the writing skills per se but also on the strategies that may enhance or inhibit the learning of those skills. This is to provide us with a better understanding of the development of writing skills, the problems encountered by ESL student writers and the reasons behind these problems so that an effective form of writing instruction could be devised to improve students' writing.

1.1 Background to the Study

Writing is complex as it has been perceived to be a multidimensional skill involving the interaction between the knowledge, proficiency, experience, skills, culture and identity of the writer, with the norms and cognitive demands of the task (Archibald & Jeffery, 2000; Cumming, 1998). Writing is also deemed as a complex task because its development to a large extent is subject to changes affecting the strategic behaviour, knowledge, and motivation of the writer (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005).

Where writing in a second language (L2) is concerned, the task becomes even more complex and demanding. This is because writing in L2 is different from writing in L1 (Silva, 1993) and this distinctiveness has resulted in several complications, part of which is caused by cognitive differences (Cumming, 1998; Zimmerman, 2000). Writers also have to deal with complications that arise due to proficiency in the target language (Cumming, 1989), knowledge of the target language (TL) genres and the sociocultural expectations that are associated with

them (Silva, Leki & Carson, 1997; Swales, 1990), and the interaction involving writers' L1 experiences and the expectations and values attached to literacy culture in the target language (Bell, 1995).

Despite the complexities mentioned earlier, there is enough evidence to indicate that an interactive, and scaffolded development of strategies for writing and self-regulation of the writing process through explicit strategy instruction such as Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) instruction, can positively affect student performance across writing genres (Mason, Harris, & Graham, 2011). This type of strategy instruction is able to transform passive ESL students into active learners by encouraging them to monitor, evaluate, and review their writing with tools that promote strategic planning and independent reflection (Luke, 2006). The SRSD, thus, improves students' performance by improving their approach to writing including the self-regulation skills, enhancing content knowledge as well as the quality of writing, and promoting motivation by increasing self-efficacy (Dahlman, 2010; Danoff, Harris, & Graham, 1993; De La Paz, 1999; Graham & Harris, 1989a; Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1991; Harris & Graham, 1999).

Teaching writing can be a challenge when dealing with adult learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) (Tan, Emerson, & White, 2006). English Language instructors in institutions of higher learning often lament about the inability of students to effectively plan and put their thoughts together in a coherent manner when writing in English (Lee, 2004; Nesamalar, Saratha, & Teh, 2001; Richards, 1990). This problem has come under greater scrutiny since the implementation of new policies that encourage greater use of the English language at Malaysian

tertiary institutions (Gill, 2005; Gill, Nambiar, Noraini Ibrahim, & Tan, 2010). One such policy is on the internationalisation of higher education in Malaysia (Sato, 2005). This particular policy encourages universities to have an international faculty and student body, which in turn requires that the medium of instruction at universities be English (Ministry of Higher Education, 2006). Even public universities such as Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) and the International Islamic University use English as the medium of instruction (Middlehurst & Woodfield, 2004). As a result, students in Malaysia who have undergone primary and secondary school education in Malay (Bahasa Melayu) and join these institutions of higher learning, are expected to quickly improve their proficiency in English and rise to the demands of their new learning environment. Unfortunately, this is not the case as several studies have indicated that many students at tertiary level have been found to have a low proficiency in the English language (Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia (MoHE), 2008; Munir Shuib, 2008).

Writing is often assessed to gauge a student's proficiency in English (Chan, 2007; Silva, Reichelt, & Lax-Farr, 1994). Many teachers in Malaysia, however, perceive writing and speaking to be the ESL learners' weakest skills (Fauziah Hassan & Nita Fauzee Selamat, 2002). In university, students have to be able to exhibit their understanding of what they have learnt through oral presentations and writing assignments. In the case of academic writing, the teachers as evaluators are aware of what should be included as content, while students on their part, need to present their knowledge and skills in writing to be assessed (Reid & Kroll, 1995). This notion of employing academic writing as a form of testing; however, should not be overly emphasised as current developments in education suggest that there is a

pressing need to examine, appreciate and promote academic writing as a tool for learning. According to a study by Sommers (2002) at Harvard University, writing helps students clarify and apply the ideas that they have gathered in a course. It enables them to think critically and transform the knowledge into their own language, thus making it more discernible. In other words, writing is a skill that facilitates learning (Graham & Perin, 2007c). Therefore, students who cannot write well will not be able to succeed in their courses and their subsequent career (Kellogg & Raulerson, 2007).

Surveys that have been conducted in Malaysia to assess whether graduates are meeting industry needs indicate that fresh graduates generally lack English language skills, particularly in writing and speaking (Ambigapathy & Aniswal, 2005; Koo, Pang, & Fadhil Mansur, 2005; Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia (MoHE), 2008; Morshidi Sirat, et al., 2004; Tneh, 2008). With regard to writing skills in particular, Tan, Emerson and White (2006) contend that in tertiary education, being able to write well is a skill that is more important than other skills because students are usually evaluated through their writing. However, according to a study of the English language proficiency of 405 students from six Malaysian tertiary institutions of higher learning (Zuraidah, 2008, cited in Mohd Sahandri Gani Hamzah & Saifuddin Kumar Abdullah, 2009, p. 677), 54.6 per cent of them fell under limited and very limited users of English while only 1.4 per cent were classified as good users of English. This finding indicates that Malaysian students are ill-equipped with English and need to be trained to use the language effectively.

The issue of language proficiency is compounded by the problem of large class sizes. Large groups of students do not augur well for writing courses as students require individual attention (Akinsolu & Fadokun, 2007; Normah Othman, 2009). The creation of autonomous, self-directed learners becomes a more pressing need. It is generally accepted that students in higher education institutions have to be responsible for their own learning. In other words, they have to be autonomous learners who are self-directed (Guo & Zhang, 2004; Lieb, 1991; Littlejohn, 1985). For example, those who have not achieved the required language proficiency are expected to master it on their own (Perry & Struthers, 1994, cited in Biedenbech, 2004). Nevertheless, teachers also have a role to play in helping students become autonomous learners (Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Little, 2003; Thanasoulas, 2000; Zhuang, 2010). Creating learners who are self-directed should be a primary aim in language learning classrooms, especially in situations where teachers are faced with the daunting task of teaching large groups of students with limited contact hours (Chan & Ain Nadzimah Abdullah, 2004). However, when promoting autonomous learning among ESL learners, teachers need to be aware of the importance of addressing problems related to students' lack of language learning strategies and low self-efficacy (Jinks & Lorsbach, 2003; National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000; Wong, 2005)

Strategy research, particularly that area which focuses on strategy instruction has proven that it is possible for explicit instruction on writing strategies for generating appropriate ideas, organising these ideas, and regulating the writing behaviour, to improve the performance of students who encounter difficulties with writing as well as increase their self-efficacy (Graham, 2006b; Wong, Harris, Graham, & Butler, 2003). One highly empirically validated cognitive instructional

approach for students in this area is the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) instruction model (Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999).

1.2   Research Gap

Most of the SRSD studies (Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1991; MacArthur, Schwartz & Graham, 1991; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992; Sexton, Harris, & Graham, 1998) in the past involved mainly children with learning disabilities (LD) where the scope of the study centred around strategies for planning and revising stories, narratives, and persuasive as well as argumentative essays to improve writing performance (Wong, Harris, Graham, & Butler, 2003). Recent studies (Adkins, 2005; Asaro-Saddler & Saddler, 2010; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Lienemann, Graham, Leader-Janssen, & Reid, 2006; Rogers, 2010; Schnee, 2010; Zumbrunn, 2010) appear to follow a similar trend. As such, the SRSD writing intervention research concerning adolescents and adults (Berry & Mason, 2010; Biedenbach, 2004; Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005; Dahlman, 2010; De La Paz, 2001; Delano, 2007; Kiuhara, 2009; Lienemann & Reid, 2008) has been found to be limited compared to the SRSD research involving children. SRSD studies have also been done in other academic domains such as reading (Johnson, Graham, & Harris, 1997; Rogevich & Perin, 2008) and mathematics (Case, Harris, & Graham, 1992).

SRSD has also been employed in regular classroom settings as well as in case studies where results have shown this model to be effective in developing the writing skills of normally achieving students (Berry & Mason, 2010; Biedenbach, 2004; Dahlman, 2010; Danoff, Harris, & Graham, 1993; De La Paz, 1999). Despite this, SRSD research on normally achieving students is limited. This

situation calls for more research involving these students, as they are the majority in any educational setting. Such a research is deemed necessary, as writing is now perceived as an essential tool for learning and a difficult skill to master.

As increasing importance has been given to writing and challenges in mastering this skill have been highlighted (Graham & Perin, 2007a; Graham & Perin, 2007b; Graham & Perin, 2007c; Mason & Graham, 2008), it is timely that research in SRSD writing intervention focus on more complex writing tasks, in this case academic writing which has been much neglected in strategy research.

Other noteworthy studies related to SRSD are those that investigated the effect of SRSD on the writing self-efficacy of students (Biedenbach, 2004; Danoff, Harris, & Graham, 1993; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992; Zumbrunn, 2010). Few studies, however, were done on the effects of providing SRSD writing strategy intervention to students from different language background or educational culture (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Mourad, 2009). These studies, however, focused specifically on students with LD.

The present study intends to contribute to the existing body of research on SRSD and self-regulation in writing as few studies have been done on ESL learners belonging to a particular ethnic group, in this case the Malays in Malaysia. This would provide an increased understanding of the impact such a strategy training programme would have on both writing and self-regulated strategies as well as the language learning strategies of this particular group of students. As writing is now viewed more as a tool for learning than as a tool for assessment, this study has

become more relevant with its focus on developing the students' skills in academic writing which is essential for academic and professional success. This strategy study also extends another area of research that is teaching EAP through SRSD intervention which up to now has not been adequately explored, more so in the ESL context with particular reference to low-proficiency Malay ESL students. Additionally, by investigating the impact of the model on students' writing self-efficacy and language learning strategies, this study also broadens our understanding of the effects of SRSD intervention on students' self-efficacy for academic writing as well as their learning strategies.

1.3   Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated in this study is to determine whether or not low-proficiency Malay ESL students can be taught to be self-regulated learners to improve their academic writing skills through the SRSD writing instruction.

Studies using the SRSD model have mainly investigated its effect on writing (narratives and stories) or reading performance, self-regulated strategies and self-efficacy, the maintenance and generalisation (transfer) of strategies learnt, and the proficiency level of learners; and have tried to correlate these variables (Adkins, 2005; Graham & Harris, 1989a; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Graham, Harris, & Troia, 2000; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992; Tracy, Reid, & Graham, 2009). Where writing is concerned, the focus of strategy training using the SRSD model has been mainly on learning how to write and students have been taught strategies to compose stories and narratives (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992; Tracy, Reid, & Graham, 2009) as well as expository essays in the persuasive pattern of writing (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005;

Santangelo, Harris, & Graham, 2007). It appears that the existing body of research has not adequately addressed the effect of the SRSD model on developing writing strategies in the context of academic writing where writing skills are employed by students in doing research for their term papers or reports in the process of learning content material (Reynolds & Perin, 2009). Moreover, there seems to be limited research on SRSD in its effect on the learning strategies that students apply in learning a particular language skill in L2 (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Mourad, 2009).

Furthermore, it must be noted that studies on strategy instructions have focused mainly on the language learning strategies of native speakers of English and their performance in areas such as writing, reading comprehension, and problem-solving (Chamot, 2004; Oxford, 1990). The National Capital Language Resource Center (NCLRC, 2000) reports that despite the encouraging results in strategy studies, more research is needed on language learning strategies involving ESL and foreign languages. The existing research (Fatimah Hashim & Vishalache, 2006; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989) thus far suggests that a well-devised instruction in language learning strategies can indeed improve students' language learning ability and enhance their self-efficacy. There is also a need to make learners aware of the strategies they employ in their language learning so that they have a greater control over their own learning. As strategy instruction is crucial to all learners, this study on low-proficiency Malay ESL learners adds to this body of knowledge by also factoring in learning strategies in the SRSD strategy instruction.

Also taken into consideration is the fact that while there are already several Malaysian institutions of higher learning that use English as the medium of instruction, still many more will be following suit as a result of the internationalisation policy propounded by the Ministry of Higher Education. Consequently, Malaysian students intending to pursue their tertiary education in the country will have to be proficient in English. However, many students entering Malaysian institutions of higher education come in with a less than adequate command of English and as a result, struggle with their academic endeavours (Ahmad Khamis, Noran Fauziah Yaakub, Azemi Shaari, Mohd. Zailani Mohd. Yusoff, 2002, cited in Maria Chong Abdullah, Habibah Elias, Rahil Mahyuddin, & Jegak Uli, 2009: 497). What is troubling is that university students who go into their language classrooms knowing that they are weak, enter with a defeatist attitude which in turn further hinders their progress, making this yet another challenge that teachers have to address (Shaughnessy, 1977). In the case of ESL learners, factors such an inadequately developed range of learning strategies and low self-efficacy have been directly linked to poor performance in academic activities (Wong, 2005). This has been well documented in the case of Malay ESL learners (Nor Azmi Mostafa, 2002) who make up the large majority of UiTM's student population.

Malay undergraduates have in fact been found to have low expressive or productive skills (Abdullah Mohd Nawi & Jeya Pirathaba, 2010; Rajadurai, 2010) which hinder their success both academically as well as professionally. According to Prof. Ungku Aziz, the former vice-chancellor of the University of Malaya (cited in Nor Azmi Mostafa, 2002), the Malay undergraduates' proficiency in English 'was poorer compared to other races' and 'there is a lack of academic

excellence among Malays in the country's institutions of higher learning' (p.4). This situation has partly been attributed to the Malays' historical opposition to British rule and English by extension as the colonial language, which they perceive as 'a threat to their own culture and language' (Rajadurai, 2010, p. 291). Research has indeed noted that compared to the Chinese, Indians and 'others' who form the racial matrix in Malaysia, it was the Malay undergraduates who were the most reluctant to use English as they strongly felt English to be a threat to their ethnic and national identity (Mardziah & Wong, 2006, cited in Rajadurai, 2010).

To help students achieve the desired level of proficiency in English and succeed academically, Malaysian public universities require students to take English language courses. However, these students need to be trained to use writing and language learning strategies effectively as well as be instructed in self-regulatory skills if they are to become skilled independent writers. Since strategy research on SRSD intervention in ESL learners has provided no evidence of its impact on academic writing, it is hoped that this study which employs the SRSD model in the strategy instruction for Malay ESL learners, will produce some useful findings on ESL students' attempts at self-regulation as well as their self-efficacy for academic writing.

1.4   Research Objectives

To address the research problem stated in the previous section, the following research objectives were formulated:

1.   To determine if a writing course based on the SRSD model helps improve the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in comparison to the control group

2. To examine how a writing course based on the SRSD model affects the perceived self-efficacy for writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their learning strategies in comparison to the control group.

3. To determine if a writing course based on the SRSD model affects the learning strategies employed by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their writing in comparison to the control group.

4. To propose a model for developing strategies for teaching academic writing to low-proficiency Malay ESL learners based on identifiable strengths and weaknesses of a writing course based on the SRSD model.

1.5 Research Questions

To meet the research objectives outlined in the previous section, the researcher-cum-instructor carried out a 12-week strategy training using the Self-Regulated Strategy Development Model with 33 Malay diploma students taking an academic writing course in English. These students enter the university after completing their secondary education and enrol on a three-year art and design, or music programme. Upon completion of this diploma programme, some may pursue a degree or seek employment in the related area. The following research questions were designed with such students in mind:

1. What are the differences in the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners who have completed a writing course based on the SRSD model in comparison to the control group?

2. How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the perceived self-efficacy for writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their

ability to develop and self-regulate their learning strategies in comparison to the control group?

3.   How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the learning strategies employed by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their writing in comparison to the control group?

4.   What are the distinctive features of an SRSD model for teaching academic writing to low-proficiency Malay ESL learners?

To ascertain if there is a significant difference in the development of writing skills, self-efficacy and learning strategies of low-proficiency Malay ESL students in a Malaysian university, who participated in the SRSD writing course (i.e., the treatment group) and students who participated in the conventional academic writing course which involved only the process writing approach (i.e., control group), various research instruments were used.

The first research question will be answered by assessing the Pre- and Post-instruction written assignments (Appendix A) using the revised International English Language Testing System (IELTS) scoring scale (Shaw & Falvey, 2008) for the academic writing component (Appendix B). Here, the scripts of both the treatment and control groups will be assessed by two independent raters, who have been briefed at a moderation session with the researcher. These raters also have experience teaching the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course. The data collected will be triangulated with the findings from the qualitative study involving the questionnaire on the ESL student's background and writing ability (Appendix C), the semi-structured interviews (Appendices D1 & D2) and the

students' self-reflections (Appendices E1 & E2).

The second question will be answered by eliciting information from students in both the treatment and control groups of the study at the beginning and at the end of the 12-week writing course through the pre- and post instruction administration of the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing Scale (Appendix F). This questionnaire which measures the level of confidence that students have in their writing and their ability to self-regulate is developed based on a review of literature of efficacy scales (Lavelle, 2006; Pajares, Hartley, & Valiante, 2001; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). Besides that, qualitative data collected from semi-structured interviews and students' goal setting forms (Appendices G1 & G2) will be used to triangulate the findings.

The third research question will be answered by the pre-and post instruction administration of Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Appendix H) to both the treatment and control groups. This instrument is designed to assess the learning strategies that are utilised by students learning English as a second or foreign language. The findings of this instrument will be triangulated with the findings of the qualitative study employing the Questionnaire on the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability.

The last research question will be answered by scrutinising the information collected from all the measures mentioned earlier as well as field notes and the literature review. The triangulation of the findings from these measures will throw some light on the effectiveness of the SRSD model in promoting academic writing and autonomous learning through self-regulation among low-proficiency ESL

learners.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Several definitions adopted by the researcher are listed below and help establish positions and boundaries taken in the present study.

1.6.1 Learning Strategies

According to Scarcella & Oxford, learning strategies are defined as 'specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques --such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task -- used by students to enhance their own learning' (1992, p. 63). These strategies involve conscious as well as specific thoughts and actions that a learner executes in order to attain a learning goal and enhance language learning (Chamot, 2004; Oxford, 2003). These actions by the learner 'make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations' (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). This study adopts the learning strategies that Oxford (1990) has categorised into six groups, namely cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social.

Cognitive strategies involve using all the mental processes

Metacognitive strategies involve organizing and evaluating knowledge

Memory-related strategies deal with remembering effectively

Compensatory strategies deal with compensating for missing knowledge

Affective strategies deal with managing emotions

Social strategies deal with learning with others.

1.6.2 Self-regulation

Self-regulation is described by Pintrich as 'an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation and behaviour, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment' (Pintrich, 2000, p. 453). Self-regulation involves 'self-initiated thoughts, feelings, and actions' that writers rely on to achieve their goals which may include improving their writing skills and quality of their writing (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 76). In this study, self-regulation as fostered by the SRSD model involves goal setting and self-monitoring although the self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies as identified by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) have been used to assess students' perceived self-efficacy for self-regulation in writing which is described in detail in chapter three.

1.6.3 Goal Setting

Goal setting is a strategy that allows a student to recognise and appreciate what he is aiming to achieve. When setting a goal, a student needs to comply with its properties of specificity, difficulty and proximity (Harris & Graham, 1996), and understand the nature of the task assigned to him. He then sets his goals and breaks these up into several steps that he needs to undertake in order to achieve them. The outcome of these steps is then monitored and may in turn cause the steps to be revised when needed.

Distal goal. This term refers to long-term goal. This goal is achieved through setting several proximal goals.

Proximal goal. This term refers to short-term goal that leads to higher levels of performance than a distal goal. This goal involves several steps to achieve it. These steps need to be monitored and revised as the need arises.

Students in this study have been instructed to utilise this form of self-regulation through the SRSD model employed in the writing instruction.

1.6.4   Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring refers to the ability to deal with affect or feelings when a task seems difficult. Self-monitoring, which involves self-assessment and self-recording, requires a student to check if he has done all that needs to be done as well as evaluate it (Harris & Graham, 1996). The student thus not only self-monitors his approach to the task but also the components. By evaluating what he has done, the student examines whether he has achieved his goal before moving on to the next goal. As the nature of the EAP course in this study is partly project-based, this aspect of self-regulation is not only useful but also vital for students to master.

1.6.5   SRSD Model

Self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) is an empirically validated framework for the explicit teaching of academic or instructional strategies as well as self-regulation strategies to students (Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999). In writing instruction, it enables students to learn and use the strategies used by skilled writers and ultimately adopt these strategies as their own. Besides providing strategy instruction, it promotes self-

regulation skills that increase motivation by encouraging students to set goals, use effective self-statements and self-reinforcements, monitor and evaluate their performance, and revise their writing. The SRSD model is typically criterion-based so that it enables students to achieve mastery over certain strategies before moving on to other strategies (Wong, Harris, Graham, & Butler, 2003). However, a time-based approach had to be adopted for this study, as a criterion-based approach was not feasible in a classroom setting (Reynolds & Perin, 2009). The instructor had to work within the constraints imposed by the coursework requirements as well as the scheme of work for this EAP course. The model involves six stages, namely developing background knowledge of a strategy, discussing and describing it, modelling it using the think aloud technique, memorising it through mnemonics, supporting it through collaboration between teachers and peers, and lastly, establishing independent practice. This, however, was modified as the first three stages were combined to facilitate teaching, as the students in the study were normal young adults. As this model is central to the present study, it will be elaborated upon in greater detail in Chapter Three while research related to this will be discussed in Chapter Two.

1.6.6 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy concerns the belief in one's own capacity to organise and implement the measures required to produce specific attainments (Bandura, 1997). As such, self-efficacy is task specific and is associated with the interaction between a person and task (Jackson, 2002), thus allowing self-efficacy to alter between tasks. Self-efficacy as such should

not be confused with personal characteristics such as self-esteem. Writing self-efficacy thus refers to students' estimation of the confidence that they possess in achieving the various writing skills, namely composition, grammar, usage, and mechanical skills appropriate to their level of education (Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999). In this study, self-efficacy also refers to students' confidence in employing certain learning strategies for writing and self-regulation.

1.6.7 Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy refers to the ability to assume responsibility for and take charge of one's own learning, either with or without the support of others (Sheerin, 1991) by diagnosing one's needs and locating human and material resources to facilitate one's learning as well as setting one's own goals in the learning process. It is both a goal in education and an approach to education (Littlejohn, 1985). According to Ponton (1999, cited in Ponton, Derrick, Hall, Rhea, & Carr, 2005), learner autonomy is a subset of characteristics related to self-directedness, where the learner independently demonstrates agency or intentional behaviour in learning activities by deciding on the strategies that he would or would not employ. In this study, learner autonomy involves the learner's ability to self-regulate his writing and transfer the strategies learnt to other learning contexts.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Knowledge of how this model impacts the learning strategies of Malay ESL learners is necessary as this will provide a better understanding of how strategies

can be taught to promote self-regulation and self-efficacy in learning in L2. This is necessary as the students in this study need to be proficient in English as all the courses in the university are conducted in English. Strategies have been viewed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as the tools for developing the L2 learners' communicative ability so that they are active and self-directed as they engage in learning. The teaching of strategies is slowly gaining ground in countries like Malaysia as more recognition is given for its role in facilitating learners to reflect as well as evaluate their own learning and transfer this learning across the curriculum and outside the classroom (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2003).

According to Macaro (2006, p. 332), performance in the L2 is affected by the manner in which 'clusters of strategies' interact with language processes that subsequently influence language skills (such as reading, writing, summarising or report writing). In this study, it is hoped that the interaction of the writing as well as language learning strategies, with the writing processes through SRSD will lead to improvement in the learner's knowledge of academic writing, as well as writing performance and show some automatisation in the use of strategies.

Instruction on ESL writing has to some extent focused on surface features of the text and correction of grammar although the process-based approach has been advocated (Chow, 2007; Pereira, 2003). There appears to be some misconception among writing instructors as to the skills and strategies of writing and language learning that need to be taught and emphasised when teaching writing. According to Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997), a good writer requires more than knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, he needs to have high levels of self-regulation as writing involves self-planning, self-monitoring and self-regulation.

Research (Baker & Boonkit, 2004; Biedenbach, 2004; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006; Macarthur & Philippakos, 2010; Mourad, 2009) has indicated that students' writing can be affected by elements such as poor self-regulation and strategy use as well as low self-efficacy in spite of being taught all the necessary strategies. In the case of ESL students, these factor significantly in their writing performance and subsequently their academic achievement. This situation calls for an approach to writing instruction that would provide a more supportive teaching and learning environment that would ultimately produce students who are more self-regulated or autonomous.

It is believed that this study of writing intervention using the SRSD model with a process orientation, will help students with low motivation and low writing ability acquire a more positive attitude towards writing and take charge of their learning by adopting effective self-regulated learning strategies. If students can be trained to master and transfer these strategies to other learning situations of their own accord, there is a chance that they will turn out to be independent strategic learners taking charge of their general academic performance. This approach would provide valuable insights to administrators, curriculum planners and educators as they strive towards providing an educational system that is learner-centred and effective in developing autonomous learners.

This study also contributes further towards educational research as it provides new insights into how the SRSD model impacts Malay students' self-regulation as well as their self-efficacy in writing and its relationship with their writing ability and language learning strategies. The study throws some light on a more effective pedagogy for writing instruction, particularly academic writing by providing ESL

writing instructors with a better method of teaching writing using the SRSD model with a process orientation. This model enables writing instructors to incorporate both academic strategies as well as self-regulated strategies when teaching writing. Through such an approach, writing instructors are able to encourage students to be more autonomous in their learning by drawing up their own strategic plan for their learning and this is an advantage, especially in large ESL writing classes, as it frees instructors to provide more attention and coaching for students with poor writing ability.

Lastly, the various measures and methods used in the design of the study will be of value to researchers interested in issues of validity and multi-probe approach in research.

1.8   Delimitations

This study that explored the use of the SRSD model in cognitive strategy instruction for writing was confined to a sample of Malay ESL students pursuing diploma programmes in Art and Design and Music as students from these two programmes were found to be generally less proficient in English compared to those from other diploma programmes in the university. It was thus felt that using the SRSD model to teach academic writing, a skill that they are especially weak in, as proven in previous years' final examination performance for BEL311 (English for Academic Purposes), will be beneficial to both students and strategy research, particularly studies involving the SRSD model. As such, the sample consisted of students of low proficiency in English. Students of high and medium proficiency were not involved in the study, thus limiting the generalisability of the findings. This, however, was a deliberate limitation imposed by the study.

In fact, the SRSD model was employed in teaching academic writing, as research on self-regulatory strategy development in this field has been inadequate. The focus of SRSD research has been mainly on teaching students to write stories, narratives and persuasive essays. At tertiary level, having skills in academic writing is crucial for success in academic career even though these students may have enrolled for a creative art course. Being skilful in academic writing would enable them to produce better assignments and perform well in written examinations. Without adequate training in this skill, these students would not be able to fulfil the vision and the mission of the university, which is to produce *Bumiputras* (literally meaning Sons of the earth in Malay) of calibre. It must be noted here that the Malays form a majority in this category of the Malaysian population.

This study thus explored the effects of the SRSD model on the self-efficacy, language learning strategies and writing performance in academic writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL students with the hope of training them to become better writers.

1.9   Summary and Preview of the Thesis

This chapter has introduced the background to the study highlighting the need for some form of writing instruction that develops the academic writing ability of Malay ESL students at Malaysian public universities that seems to be inadequate. The statement of the problem reveals how this problem is compounded by the fact that these students who are learning English as their L2 suffer from poor language proficiency, inadequate knowledge of writing and language learning strategies as well as poor self-confidence. The study thus presents the rationale for advocating

the Self-Regulated Strategy Development Model which provides training in both cognitive and self-regulation strategies as a possible solution to this writing problem with the hope of developing learners who are more independent and autonomous in their learning. It is hoped that a writing intervention using the SRSD model with a process orientation can improve the academic writing ability of students in ESL writing classes and result in these skills and strategies becoming more automatic and transferable to other less supportive academic settings.

With this in view, four research questions and objectives are then formulated, and the significance of the study is presented along with the delimitations of the study and the definitions of certain terms that are deemed important. The subsequent chapter will provide a review of literature pertinent to the study and this will be followed by Chapter Three that deals with the methodology for this study. Chapter Four will disclose the findings as well as the discussion related to the findings while Chapter Five will present the conclusion, implications, limitations, and the recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   Introduction

This chapter reviews research on writing and writing instruction in relation to the ESL learner. Particular attention is paid to the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) model and its place in L2 writing instruction, and its potential for enhancing self-regulation and self-efficacy, as well as developing the language learning strategies of ESL learners. In this study, the potential of the SRSD model for promoting writing and language learning strategies to establish learner autonomy and self-regulation in writing is investigated in the context of developing the ESL learner's proficiency in EAP or academic writing, which is viewed as a necessary skill for success in academic and professional career.

The chapter begins by discussing the place of learner autonomy in language learning and writing and then proceeds to review research on language learning strategies and the impact of strategy training on the ESL learner. This review then explores the theoretical underpinnings of the social cognitive theory concerning motivation, self-efficacy, and self-regulation in writing with particular reference to the ESL learner. This is followed by a review of literature pertaining to studies employing the SRSD model that is grounded in this theory and the model's impact on the writing process and writing instruction as well as the ESL learner.

2.1   Learner Autonomy

In order to promote lifelong learning, which is a very much desired attribute among adult learners in today's world , education needs to focus on 'knowing

how to learn' where teaching and learning emphasises a learner-centred approach that develops and supports qualities and attitudes in learners which would equip them to work independently and autonomously (Derrick, Ponton, & Carr, 2005). According to Finch (2002, p.3), learner-centred approaches to language teaching and learning which appeared in the 1980s and 1990s such as the learner-centred curriculum (Nunan, 1988), the negotiated syllabus (Breen & Candlin, 1980), learner training (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Dickinson, 1992), learning-strategy training (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991), the project-based syllabus (Legutke & Thomas, 1991), experiential and collaborative learning (Kohonen, 1992; Nunan, 1992), and learner-based teaching (Campbell & Kryszewska, 1992) all aimed at establishing autonomy and independence of learning as one of their objectives (Benson & Voller, 1997, p. 7).

Learner autonomy is defined by Holec (1981) as '… the ability to take charge of one's own learning. This ability is not inborn but must be acquired either by "natural" means or by formal learning, in a systematic, deliberate way' (p. 3). According to Holec, the autonomous learner is able to manage his learning by using learning strategies that are appropriate to his individual situation besides setting his own learning objectives and deciding on what, how, when and where to learn. He is also able to evaluate his own learning. Little (1995), however, feels that autonomy does not entail total independence or absence of support but rather calls for a state of interdependence between teachers and learners. This view of learner autonomy is also shared by Sheerin (1991) who describes the autonomous learner as taking charge of his own learning by diagnosing his needs and locating resources to facilitate his learning as well as setting his learning goals, either with or without the support of others. Littlewood (1996) believes that there are three

broad domains of autonomy (communication, learning and personal life) where language instruction should aim to foster strategies that would assist learners in making independent choices at higher levels than they would have thought possible in these domains. The independent capacity to decide and execute choices in these domains is dependent on two components, namely ability and willingness, where ability is determined by both knowledge of the alternatives available from which choices need to be made and the necessary skills for implementing choices which are considered to be appropriate while willingness is determined by having both the motivation and the confidence to take responsibility for the choices considered. In view of its varying and overlapping characteristics, it has been rather difficult to come up with a comprehensive definition of this concept of autonomy (Andrade & Bunker, 2009).

2.1.1 Learner Autonomy and Self-efficacy

In fact, Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, and Rhea (2005) believe that formal education should uphold the principle that self-efficacy beliefs with regard to autonomous learning capability can be enhanced if learners are motivated and supported in developing their autonomy through progressively structured mastery experiences in learning activities and interactions that demand increasing exhibitions of autonomous learning. This makes it necessary that instruction provides opportunities that give rise to autonomous learning. To achieve this, instruction should focus on the internal conditions involving attitudes and beliefs of the learners rather than the external surroundings and settings (Derrick, Ponton, & Carr, 2005).

Confessore (1992, cited in Ponton, Derrick, Hall, Rhea, & Carr, 2005) declares that an individual's personal desire, initiative, resourcefulness, and persistence play a significant role in self-directed or autonomous learning. Derrick, Ponton and Carr (2005) regard autonomous learning as a 'behavioural syndrome of co-occurring behaviours' involving desire, resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence where *desire* refers to the ability of one to influence one's own personal life through processes related to freedom, power, and change while *initiative* refers to the quick action of initiating learning by establishing learning goals, finding ways to solve problems, and being able to motivate oneself (p.63). *Resourcefulness*, meanwhile, refers to one's actions in anticipating future benefits of learning that may lead to making learning a priority over other activities, and also making attempts at solving one's problems in learning. Another internal variable in autonomous learning is *persistence* that concerns volition, self-regulation, and goal-maintenance.

Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea (2005) investigated the relationship of self-efficacy with the four factors associated with autonomous learning, namely desire, resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence in a sample of 82 adults and found that self-efficacy has no mediation role in the relationship between desire and autonomous learning although it appears to affect autonomous learning along with the other factors. Ponton and his colleagues hypothesised that an instrumentation to measure an agent's motivation to engage in autonomous learning would measure outcome expectancies, goals, and causal attributions associated with showing resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence in one's learning (Ponton,

Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005). Through research, it has thus become possible to use theory to inform facilitative schemes promoting learner autonomy. The facilitator or instructor needs to consider the identified variables in facilitating autonomous learning among students.

2.1.2 Self-efficacy in Promoting Learner Autonomy

Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory identifies four sources of efficacy information, namely mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and physiological/emotive arousals that facilitators interested in promoting autonomous learning should address. In their learning process, learners need to encounter mastery experiences in authentic learning situations where they have to exhibit resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence in reaching satisfying levels of learning. Having gone through such an experience, they feel efficacious and thus perceive themselves as capable of engaging in autonomous learning (Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005). However, it must be noted that self-efficacy may be compromised if learners relate success to other factors rather than personal capability. Therefore, to counter such a situation as well as enhance self-efficacy, verbal persuasion is employed to raise awareness in learners that their achievement in attempts at autonomous learning is caused by personal capability or autonomy and not facilitative opportunities.

Another source of efficacy information is in the form of providing learners with evidence of others, who in similar situations have been successful in autonomous learning tasks. This serves as vicarious experiences that can

promote self-efficacy by making learners realise that one's personal capability is responsible for one's success (Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005). Where physiological or emotive arousals such as feelings of discomfort are concerned, the facilitator needs to convince learners to view these as temporary setbacks caused by unfamiliar activities and not as an indication of lacking ability. It is, thus, necessary to encourage these learners by highlighting the gains of autonomous learning from various perspectives. From a motivational perspective, learners are made to realise how they are able to fulfil proximal course goals and complete their programmes successfully while from a distal perspective, they are made to realise how they can empower themselves through lifelong learning (Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005).

2.1.3 Self-regulation in Promoting Learner Autonomy

Besides self-efficacy, another important dimension of autonomous learning is self-regulation. The concepts of autonomy and self-regulated learning have been associated with the notion of learners taking charge of their own learning (Dembo & Eaton, 2000; Holec, 1981; Vanijdee, 2003), and have been perceived to be similar and interchangeable. However, there are distinct characteristics that separate the two. While autonomy centres on freedom of choice, self-regulated learning focuses less on making choices and more on directing learners towards being effective without reliance on the facilitator or instructor by taking control of their learning process (Andrade & Bunker, 2009).

Examining self-regulation from a social cognitive perspective (Bandura, 1986; 1997), it appears that human functioning entails the interaction between person, behaviour, and environment where self-regulation emphasises the reciprocal determinism of the environment on the person, mediated through behaviour. Learners need to engage themselves in three important processes in order to be self-regulated and these involve self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction (Bandura, 1986). The self-observation process requires the learner to pay deliberate attention to one's own behaviour. Self-judgment, on the other hand, entails that the learner makes a comparison between his own performances with that of a standard or goal while self-reaction involves the evaluative response to self-judgment. According to Bandura (1986), learners make a judgment of their progress towards their self-determined goals as a result of personal observations. Consequently, following these judgments, they modify their behaviours so that they can achieve these goals.

Being influenced by Bandura, Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1997) presented their conceptualised framework of self-regulated learning that comprises four elements, namely cognitive, metacognitive, motivation and behaviour. According to Dembo, Junge, and Lynch (2006, cited in Andrade & Bunker, 2009), the cognitive component in self-regulated learning points to utilising learning strategies to comprehend and retain information while the metacognitive component involves planning, setting goals, monitoring, and evaluating. The motivation element includes self-motivation, accepting responsibility for one's achievements and disappointments, and fostering self-efficacy to increase effort and persistence whereas behaviour

involves seeking support and forging a positive environment for learning.

2.1.4   Language Instruction and Learner Autonomy

Language instruction needs to focus more on facilitating and fostering the process of informed learning rather than on the content of that learning (Finch, 2002), as well as encourage all learners to work independently of the instructor (Dickinson, 1992). In fact, the language classroom setting seems to be ideal for promoting learner autonomy (Nunan, 1997) although it may take time before learners are able to make informed choices about what to learn and how to learn it as they normally reach such a position when they are well into a course (Nunan, 1996). This is because learners are automatically inclined to avoid accepting responsibility for their learning and find it rather difficult to engage in self-reflection of their learning process (Dickinson, 1987; Little, 1995). As learner autonomy engages the learner in metacognition, strategic competence, reflection, as well as choice and decision-making (Hurd, Beaven, & Ortega, 2001), instructors need to equip learners with appropriate strategies and create opportunities that would allow practice in using them.

Oxford (2008, cited in Andrade & Bunker, 2009) classifies strategies for language learning into metacognitive, affective, cognitive, and social-affective which are similar to the four dimensions of self-regulated learning proposed by Zimmerman & Kitsantas (1997) involving cognition, metacognition, motivation and behaviour. Furthermore, she believes that the use of learning strategies can foster learner autonomy. In view of this, Oxford's perception of autonomy is that it is synonymous with self-

regulated learning. Her conceptualization of autonomy also reveals the idea of choice, or decision-making, for the learner (Andrade & Bunker, 2009).

In order to achieve success in language learning, be it in writing, reading, listening or speaking, learners need to be taught and encouraged to use metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies, among which there are strategies for self-management, self-evaluation, note-taking, questioning, summarising, grouping, resourcing, cooperation and questioning that would facilitate learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985). They need to be able to select the strategies that would be appropriate to their learning style and the tasks given to them.

In the case of writing, equipping students with these learning strategies along with other cognitive strategies pertaining to writing such as idea-generating, planning, organizing, revising, self-monitoring and reflecting will help them improve their writing ability (Magno, 2009; Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999). Harris and Graham (1996) argue that numerous students can be trained to be effective writers through a writing programme that takes a process approach and incorporates strategy instruction and self-regulation instruction. This writing programme involves the SRSD model that is propounded by Harris & Graham (1996; 1999). Such a writing programme with its mode of autonomous or self-regulated learning needs to be examined within the framework of the social cognitive theory of Bandura (1986; 1997) in which it is grounded.

As such, this writing strategy training programme not only emphasises the development of self-efficacy and self-regulation, which are necessary for becoming an autonomous learner, but also enhances the writing skill which is a vital tool for academic success (Graham & Harris, 2003; Harris & Graham, 1999). Although the model has been successful in improving self-efficacy and self-regulation (two important aspects of autonomous learning) as well as writing ability in learners, the impact of this model on developing the learner's language learning strategies remains to be seen. Insights into the effects of SRSD model on the learning and self-regulated strategies, as well as the self-efficacy and writing ability of ESL learners may contribute to a model for developing self-regulated ESL writers who are autonomous.

2.2   Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies are specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students intentionally employ when learning a language so that they can understand, internalize and use the language (Oxford, 1990; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). According to Little (1991), learning strategies also equip students for independent, autonomous, lifelong learning. It may be the answer to promoting learner autonomy, which 'should be seen as an essential goal of all learning' (Cotterall, 2000, p. 109). This autonomisation or taking charge of one's own learning may be encouraged through repeated positive outcomes achieved during strategy training where the focus is on developing learner strategies and self-regulation (National Capital Language Resource Center, n.d.). Through strategy training, students develop cognition and metacognition that result in an understanding and appreciation of the purpose of their course, set explicit learning

goals, accept more responsibility for their learning, play an active role in initiating plans and implementing learning activities, and carry out frequent self-assessment and monitoring of their learning (Holec, 1981; Little, 2003). When students become more proficient in these areas of learning and experience the positive outcomes of strategy use in terms of achievement and proficiency, there is a greater opportunity for the transfer of strategies to content area subjects other than L2 (Pressley & Associates, 1990, cited in Oxford, 2003).

2.2.1 Strategy Training for Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy is also centred on the concept of making choices, which entails that students expand their repertoire of learning strategies as well as their understanding of the positive impact that these strategies can have on their learning (Cotterall, 2000). Being reflective of their performance is another requirement that is expected of students' undergoing strategy training to develop learner autonomy. Cotterall (2000) opines that self-reflection or self-assessment is necessary, as students need to evaluate and monitor their learning as well as their plan of action in the future. Ultimately, it can be said that strategy training should not only foster students' efficiency of learning and using their L2, but it should also encourage them to self-direct or self-regulate their language learning process and work independently of the teacher, irrespective of the given task. As Hsiao and Oxford (2002) put it, strategies are 'the L2 learner's tool kit for active, conscious, purposeful, and attentive learning, and they pave the way toward greater proficiency, learner autonomy, and self-regulation' (p. 372). To put simply, learning strategies enable students to advance their own achievement in language proficiency (Green & Oxford,

1995; Oxford, 1990).

2.2.2. Language Learning Strategies for Self-efficacy

According to Pressley and Harris (2008), cognitive theories lie at the core of earlier strategy taxonomies. For example, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) based their justifications on the cognitive principles proposed by Anderson's (1982) information processing theory known as the Adaptive Character of Thought *(ACT-R)* theory that viewed language learning strategies as skills attained as declarative knowledge, which would subsequently become procedural with extensive practice.

From the good information processing perspective, these strategies or the know-how of doing something is referred to as procedural knowledge as opposed to declarative knowledge which refers to knowledge of facts about something (Anderson, 1982). Both types of knowledge are stored in long-term memory, and are usually out of consciousness until they are retrieved and set in motion in the working memory when the need arises due to the demands of a given task (Pressley & Harris, 2008). This activation can be either automatic and associative outside the learner's control, or deliberate and quite controlled, within the learner's control where the quality of performance is dependent on the metacognitive or conditional knowledge of when and where to apply the learnt strategies. The long-term memory thus entails procedural and declarative knowledge as well as metacognition involving conditional and strategy utility knowledge (Pressley & Harris, 2008).

The activation of appropriate language learning strategies help learners improve their knowledge of a target language and achieve either overall or specific proficiency in the various language skills (Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993; Shakarami Alireza & Mardziah H. Abdullah, 2010). This successful performance thus increases the learners' motivation and encourages the learners to make further use their strategies and knowledge, realising that good performance is dependent more on effort spent on task-appropriate strategies than on factors such as native ability, simplicity of the task, or luck that are beyond their control (Borkowski, Carr, Rellinger, & Pressley, 1990, cited in Pressley & Harris, 2008). Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) opine that improving students' self-efficacy beliefs may promote the use of these strategies. Language learning strategies thus allow students to take greater responsibility for their own progress (Green & Oxford, 1995).

Effective use of learning strategies also contributes to a high level of self-efficacy as students perceived themselves as successful learners motivated by the positive learning outcomes they achieved (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986). The level of self-efficacy increases with each strategic plan (strategic clusters) being administered successfully in a task and this strengthens the motivation of the learners (Macaro, 2006). In fact, self-efficacy has a mediating effect on motivation as a learner or agent will not engage in an activity which he perceives as being futile but rather undertake activities that he feels efficacious to be successful (Ponton, Derrick, Hall, Rhea, & Carr, 2005).

Self-efficacy is viewed as a perception by Bandura (1997) since actual capability can be present although it is not realised by the learner or agent. Ultimately, however, it is perception, in this case self-efficacy, which affects the type of activity chosen and the levels of achievement (Bandura, 1997). Macaro (2006) stresses that effective utilization of strategy is crucial to motivation and is an important principle in learner strategy research. According to Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, much of human motivation is cognitively induced where a course of action is taken based on expected outcomes that are related to a range of possible activities. This course of action includes not only the action plan but also specific performance goals that help to gauge attainment.

Oxford (1990) believes motivation impacts the choice of strategies as more motivated learners are inclined to use more strategies than those who are less motivated. But what makes a learner be more motivated or less motivated? If strategy use and successful outcomes is the answer, then there is a need for more study to understand the relationship between motivation and strategy use as well as performance. Yin (2008) posits that students who think and work strategically have a high motivation to learn and a higher sense of self-efficacy that is confidence in their own learning ability. It appears that motivation and performance have a causal effect on strategy use, which may be bidirectional.

2.2.3 Research on Language Learning Strategies

The research on language learning strategies has been mostly directed at discovering the learning strategies reported by learners of different

languages (Brantmeier, 2003; Cong, 2005; Coskun, 2010; Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Zahedi & Dorrimanesh, 2008) and matters pertaining to this such as the process of identifying the strategies and their classification (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002), and the effects of learner characteristics, culture and context on strategy use (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; El-Dib, 2004; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). Other issues explored in strategy instruction research involve explicit and integrated strategy instruction, transfer of strategies to new tasks, and models for language learning strategy instruction (Chamot & O' Malley, 1994; Cohen, 1998; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999; Oxford, 1990). Current research is also examining the effect of the task itself on the selection and use of learning strategies (Baker & Boonkit, 2004; Oxford, Cho, Leung, & Kim, 2004)

Data in strategy research are mainly obtained through verbal reports in the form of retrospective interviews (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), stimulated recall interviews (Robbins, 1996, cited in Chamot, 2004), questionnaires (Brantmeier, 2003; Cong, 2005; Green & Oxford, 1995; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Li & Qin, 2006; Vermetten, Lodewijks, & Vermunt, 1999), written diaries and journals (Carson & Longhini, 2002; Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Halbach, 2000) and think-aloud protocols (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vann & Abraham, 1990) as language learning strategies involve mental processes and as such are mostly unobservable (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1975; Wenden, 1991). Language learners are asked to describe their

learning processes and strategies in these strategy studies.

However, it must be noted here that each of these methods has its limitations as students may fail to recall some details of their thought processes or they may describe what they have wrongly perceived to be true. Furthermore, it is rather difficult to make comparisons across such studies as there has been no standardization in the methods, tasks or questionnaires. Despite this, these methods provide valuable insights into mental learning strategies that are generally unobservable (Chamot, 2004). Case studies such as the one done by Vann and Abraham (1990) examining the learning strategies of two unsuccessful women learners using methods such as interview and think-aloud protocol together with task product analyses have provided insightful information on second language learning and cleared misconceptions about the strategy use of such learners. The shortcoming of such studies, however, is that they do not allow for any generalisation of the findings due to the small sample size.

Having said all, questionnaires remain the most efficient and widely used instrument for collecting data in strategy studies although there are limitations as students may claim to employ certain strategies when in actual fact they do not, or fail to understand certain strategies described in the questionnaire (Chamot, 2004). As a matter of fact, numerous studies involving mainly large numbers of foreign language learners have administered Oxford's (1990) the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) as this questionnaire provides a more global

understanding of students' learning strategies in general (Magno, 2010; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008; Rosna Awang Hashim & Sharifah Azizah Syed Sahil, 1994). The SILL presents a standardized measure with various versions catering for students of various languages, and has been extensively tested for reliability and validity in numerous ways (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) and has also been administered in studies investigating the correlation of strategy use with variables such as learning styles, gender, proficiency level, culture or ethnicity and academic major (Cong, 2005; El-Dib, 2004; Green & Oxford, 1995; McMullen, 2009; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Rosna Awang Hashim & Sharifah Azizah Syed Sahil, 1994; Zhou, 2010).

However, to prevent the possibility of the method of data collection skewing results, this method needs to be combined with other methods that may offer convergent validity for certain findings, or cause us to reconsider certain assumptions about the language learning strategies (Vann & Abraham, 1990).

2.2.4 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

Various taxonomies on learning strategies have been presented by researchers based on different systems, thus implying that the system for describing these strategies is still not well-conceived or established (Oxford, 1994). Rubin's (1981) dichotomy of direct and indirect strategies presented a distinction between strategies that directly facilitate L2 learning and strategies that indirectly contribute to L2 learning. The direct

strategies comprise six strategies, namely clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice while the indirect strategies consist of two, namely creating opportunities for practice and production tricks. Each of these eight general strategies consists of more specific strategies (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). McKeachie, Pintrich, and Lin (1985, cited in Zahedi & Dorrimanesh, 2008) introduced a taxonomy of strategies which involve three aspects of learning, namely cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management.

Meanwhile O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified the learning strategies into three broad categories of activities, that is metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective based on Brown and Palincsar's (1982) and Anderson's (1985) cognitive psychological concepts (both cited in Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). They posited that metacognitive strategies are responsible for facilitating the planning, monitoring and evaluation of one's learning in line with one's deployment of cognitive operations or that of others in various learning tasks. Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, help one manipulate the material to be learnt or apply a specific technique to the learning task. For instance, studies have shown that L2 writing benefits from the learning strategies of planning, self-monitoring, checking, revising, questioning, using cues, verbalizing and visualizing, while L2 reading comprehension gains from strategies such as reading aloud, rereading, questioning, visualization, guessing, deduction and summarizing. Research has indicated that cognitive strategies such as translating and analyzing often function together with metacognitive

strategies such as planning and organizing to support the achievement of a certain task or promote a specific skill (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). However, it is necessary that appropriate cognitive strategies are used so that the potential of these metacognitive strategies is fully realised. The third category is socio-affective strategies which are employed when language learners collaborate with classmates, seek clarification from teachers, or apply specific strategies such as self-talk to reduce their anxiety (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

Stern (1992, cited in Hismanoglu 2000) described five learning strategies, that is management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative–experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies and affective strategies while Macaro (2006) presented a continuum of subconscious (or 'less conscious') and direct strategies at one end and, conscious and indirect strategies at the other. Meanwhile, Leaver, Ehrman, and Shekhtman (2004, cited in Zahedi & Dorrimanesh, 2008) in their recent taxonomy classified learning strategies into two categories, namely deep and surface strategies.

Among these taxonomies of language learning strategies, the most widely utilized taxonomy in research is that of Oxford's (1990) which was partly influenced by Rubin's (1981) dichotomy of strategies. However, Oxford's (1990) direct and indirect categories of L2 learning strategies differed from Rubin's (1981) dichotomy to some extent. In the first category of direct L2 learning strategies, Oxford includes memory, cognitive, and compensatory strategies that directly concern the language being learned. These direct

learning strategies entail 'a mental process of receiving, retaining, storing, and retrieving the words or other aspects of the target language' (Magno, 2010, p. 41).

The second category of strategies are classified as indirect L2 learning strategies as they do not directly engage the target language but are necessary as they facilitate learning the language. These indirect strategies involve organising the L2 learning through activities that facilitate the learner in regulating his thoughts and feelings (Rausch, 2000, cited in Magno, 2010) and are subdivided into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. All in, there are six categories in Oxford's system of classification and these are described in the following section. For students to succeed academically, they need to know and use these strategies.

2.2.5 Oxford's System of Strategy Classification

Oxford's (1990) system of classification of language learning strategies, divides the strategies into six major groups, namely cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, memory-related strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are thought processes such as clarifying, verifying, guessing, inferring, reasoning, practising, and memorizing used in learning (Rubin, 1987). These processes assist learners in coping with new information presented in tasks and provide various direct ways of deep processing language materials (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). These involve

analysing, 'summarising, synthesising, outlining, reorganising information for stronger schemas, practising in naturalistic settings, and practising structures and sounds formally' (Oxford, 2003, p. 12). Cognitive strategies, in other words refer to what a learner does to facilitate his learning. Oxford (2003) posits that cognitive strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency and this is supported in studies by Oxford and Ehrman (1995) and Mochizuki (1999). In writing, some of the strategies involved are reasoning or inferencing, analysing, note-taking, elaboration, summarising, editing, translation, and referring to a dictionary (Baker & Boonkit, 2004; Mu, 2005).

Compensation strategies

Compensation strategies are strategies employed to compensate for missing knowledge and involve strategies such as guessing meaning from context, utilising gestures and synonyms when unable to think of the appropriate expression (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Compensation strategies for speaking are also known as communication strategies (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002) as they make up for missing information while the learner is speaking. Studies have indicated that these strategies are widely used by the Orientals, such as the Chinese (Cong, 2005; Zhou, 2010), Koreans (Magno, 2010; Ok, 2003) and the Japanese (Mochizuki, 1999), and by unsuccessful learners who had difficulties in L2 learning because of their inadequate knowledge of the target language (Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008). Zhang's (2005) study of Chinese EFL college students' language learning strategies revealed that students from the arts and the science and engineering departments had a greater tendency to use

compensatory strategies while metacognitive strategies and social strategies were less utilised.

Metacognitive strategies

According to Rubin (1987), metacognitive strategies involve the processes in learning that deal with planning, monitoring, and evaluating what one learns and prioritizing it. In other words, metacognitive strategies refer to what a learner does to regulate his learning. Chamot (2004) states that 'strategic learners have metacognitive knowledge about their own thinking and learning approaches, a good understanding of what a task entails, and the ability to orchestrate the strategies that best meet both the task demands and their own learning strengths' (p.14). This seems to be in line with Flavell's (1987, cited in Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998) subdivision of metacognition into three knowledge components: person, which involves perceptions of oneself as a learner or a thinker; task, which involves analyses of a range of cognitive tasks that one has come across; and strategy, which involves how certain procedures can serve to support one's performance. It also requires the learners to pay attention to what they are learning and monitoring errors that they commit (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

Successful learners who have a developed sense of metacognitive awareness have the ability to become autonomous language learners (Hauck, 2005, cited in Coskun, 2010) while those who do not have this metacognitive knowledge become less successful language learners as they lack the ability to select appropriate strategies. The reason for this better

utilisation of metacognitive strategies by the successful students than by the unsuccessful ones is that most successful students appear to have a higher proficiency of the target language or L2 (Cohen, 2000, cited in Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008). These successful students are, therefore, able to set clear objectives and plan for their L2/FL learning and are in a better position to constantly monitor, manage and evaluate their learning (Oxford, 1990, cited in Magno, 2010) than the unsuccessful learners. This finding was supported by a study done by Mohd Sahandri Gani Hamzah & Saifuddin Kumar Abdullah (2009) involving 400 Malaysian students from four institutions of higher learning (IHL), where the more successful learners generally utilised more strategies than their less successful counterparts. Also the more successful learners indicated that they used metacognitive strategies the most, followed by social strategies among the six strategies presented in Oxford's (1990) framework of language learning strategies. On the other hand, the less successful learners used social strategies the most, followed by metacognitive strategies. Memory strategies were the least utilised by both the groups, and this was followed closely by affective strategies.

Affective strategies

Affective strategies refer to behaviour of learners as they try to deal with problems affecting their emotions and motivation (Ramirez, 1986, cited in McDonough, 2001). An example of this is having a positive attitude when dealing with a task (Green & Oxford, 1995) or a positive attitude towards 'the self as language learners, towards language and language learning in general, and towards the target language and its society and culture' (Shen

& Song, 2008, p. 118). Other examples involve lowering your anxiety through progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation (Oxford, 1990). Affective strategies deal with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence to complete a task (Magno, 2010).

Furthermore, affective strategies were found to play a significant role in supporting other strategies such as social strategies that involve asking for assistance, especially in conversational situations (Green & Oxford, 1995). Therefore, these strategies are applied to reduce anxiety and deal with self-encouragement and self-reward (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). These strategies serve to increase the motivation level of learners and reduce their anxiety, so in this respect, they are not much needed by learners who are already very proficient (Oxford, Cho, Leung, & Kim, 2004).

Hismanoglu (2000) believes that emotions can have an effect on one's learning. This is evident in a study of learner's affect where negative emotions such as anxiety can hamper or delay the learning process (Ariza, 2002). Other negative emotions related to this are the fear of making mistakes and fear of socialising. In fact, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, cited in Green & Oxford, 1995) indicated that the use of certain affective learning strategies alleviates the anxiety in the language learner, thus enabling him to redirect the cognitive resources to be used with cognitive learning strategies.

Affective strategies have been found to be significantly related to L2 proficiency among South African EFL learners in research by Dreyer and

Oxford (1996, cited in Oxford, 2003) and among native English speakers learning foreign languages (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). However, in other studies, for instance that involving Kuwaiti students (El-Dib, 2004), affective strategies showed a negative relationship with L2 proficiency. One explanation for this might be that as some learners become more proficient, they become less dependent on affective strategies. Furthermore, their use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies tends to increase as these are related to higher L2 proficiency and self-efficacy (Oxford, 2003). Hence, the need for affective strategies may lessen as learners achieve higher proficiency as time progresses.

Strategy use is 'context-dependent' as learners who are motivated to deploy a certain strategy may not do so due to 'interference from another variable', which could be in the form anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p.193, cited in Green & Oxford, 1995). This leads to a situation where the outcomes of a learner's prior strategy use tend to influence his strategy use in the future, causing him to assess the chances of success in accomplishing a language task before embarking on it. This suggests that strategy training should ensure that learners are given sufficient training to deploy affective strategies effectively in their language learning.

Social strategies

Social strategies involve the learner and the people as well the environment the learner comes into contact with (Magno, 2010). These strategies, which entail verbal and non-verbal communication, come into play when interacting in the target language with others such as native

speakers of the language, thus giving the learners some exposure to the language and an opportunity to practise their knowledge of the language (Wenden & Rubin, 1987). These learners, thus, function as participants in authentic language use (Stern, 1975) and this enables them to become culturally conscious of the target language (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Besides that, social strategies also facilitate collaboration with peers in problem-solving activities, share information, evaluate a learning task, model or enact together a language activity, as well as obtain feedback on oral or written performance (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

These strategies, however, are not adequately utilised by some L2 learners; for instance the Chinese learners (Cong, 2005), and the Korean learners (Magno, 2010). Qingquan, Chatupote, and Teo (2008) noted in their study that successful learners sometimes deployed both affective and social strategies unlike the unsuccessful learners who rarely utilised these strategies. This may be an indication that good learners are very much aware of these strategies and the impact they have on their L2 learning. As such, these students may be in a better position to regulate their emotions effectively when learning the language and also find opportunities to communicate in the target language with the native speakers of the language as well as exchange ideas and experiences with others to improve their L2 proficiency.

Memory Strategies

According to Oxford (1990), memory strategies serve cognition and involve actions such as grouping, imagery, rhyming, moving physically,

and reviewing in a structured way. However, the actions subsumed under memory strategies are particular mnemonic devices that help learners in transferring information to long-term memory for storage purposes and in retrieving it from long-term memory when the need arises (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). As such, most of the memory devices do not contribute to deep processing of language information. Although memory strategies have been linked to L2 proficiency, for instance in a course designed to facilitate the memorizing of large numbers of Kanji characters (Kato, 1996, cited in Oxford, 2003) and in L2 courses catering for FL learning by native English speakers (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995), these memory-related strategies do not always indicate a positive relationship to L2 proficiency.

Oxford (2003) observed that memory strategies are utilised mainly by learners in the lower grades as they need to acquire the necessary vocabulary. However, this dependence is reduced as they progress to the higher grades as by then their 'arsenal of vocabulary and structures' would have increased (Oxford, 2003, p. 13). Strategy studies on Korean learners (Oh, 1992, cited in Magno, 2010) and Taiwanese college students (Yang, 2007, cited in Magno, 2010) revealed that memory is the least utilised strategy in acquiring L2 proficiency. The findings may have resulted from the skewed nature of the items for memory strategy in the SILL. These are directed at learning vocabulary based only on visual, auditory, and kinesthetic modalities, without including rote memory and repetition, which may facilitate successful memorization among Asians (Lee & Oxford, 2008). Memory strategies are also positively related to certain cultures. For instance, the Indonesian EFL students revealed that they have

a habit of rote learning besides relying more on metacognitive, and affective strategies compared to the IFL students learning the Indonesian language in Australia (Lengkanawati, 2004). Unlike the Indonesian students, these Australian students used cognitive, compensation, and social strategies more frequently. Additionally, Shmais (2003) indicated that English majors in a Palestinian university tend to make significant use of the memory strategy use in order to learn a foreign language.

Much research has been conducted by both cognitive and educational psychologists on the nature and the development of affective, behavioural, and cognitive strategies to enhance student performance in accomplishing certain tasks in learning a language (Pressley & Harris, 2008, p. 77). However, on examining the existing body of research, Oxford (1990) observed that L2 research on social and affective strategies was sparse compared to L1 research. She posited that this was due to lack of studies focusing on these aspects of L2 learners' behaviour and the poor utilisation of these strategies by these learners who do not give importance to their feelings and social relationships in learning the L2 (Oxford, 1990; 1994).

2.2.6 Factors Influencing Strategies in L2 Learning

Many factors appear to influence general pattern of language learning and strategy choice, such as general learning styles, nature of the assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning, level of motivation and purpose for learning the language, age, sex, personality traits, nationality, and ethnicity (Magno, 2010; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993; Shakarami Alireza & Mardziah H. Abdullah, 2010).

Some strategies work well for a particular group or an individual, but this may not be the case with another. This is due to variables such as learning style, personal characteristics and cultural background that can influence strategy use. These variables will be discussed shortly in this section. Nunan's study (1991, cited in Oxford 2003) revealed that more capable learners differed from less capable learners in that they are more reflective and aware of their own language learning processes. By being able to do so, these learners demonstrate that they are more regulated in their learning. However, such a display of strategies is more apparent among active students while strategies deployed by passive students in the L2 classrooms may remain unnoticed (Tunku Mohaini Tunku Mohtar, 1991). There is, therefore, an urgent need to understand and develop the strategies of L2 learners that would enable them to accomplish a task successfully. With this knowledge, it is, therefore, possible to develop a strategy training programme that would enable students, especially the less capable language learners to be taught to help themselves (Rubin, 1987). With this end in view, several studies have, thus, investigated the strategies of more capable language learners in order to understand what strategies work best in learning a language (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975; 1981; Stern, 1975; Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

Learning style and personality traits

Several studies have indicated that learning style of students is an important determinant of the choice of L2 learning strategies (Carson & Longhini, 2002; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 2003; Oxford &

Ehrman, 1995). Ehrman and Oxford (1990, p. 311) describe this learning style as 'preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning and dealing with new information' which Brown (2000) perceives as mediating between emotion and cognition. Reid (1995) classifies research on learning styles into three main categories, namely cognitive learning styles, sensory learning styles and personality learning styles. The strategies preferred or chosen by learners, therefore, often reflect their learning styles (Green & Oxford, 1995; Li & Qin, 2006). Learners tend to choose a certain strategy over others, which is determined by their learning styles that seem to be conditioned by learner traits such as cognitive style, patterns of attitudes or interests and a predisposition to seek an environment that is conducive to their learning as well as the learner traits.

Another aspect of style that is important for L2 education is that of personality type, which consists of four strands: extraverted vs. introverted; intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential; thinking vs. feeling; and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving. In Li and Qin's (2006) study, the judging scale appeared to be the most influential personality learning style variable affecting the learning strategy choices of Chinese learners at tertiary level. This personality style had a significant influence on seven strategies out of the eight on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) scale. Furthermore, the study indicated that high achievers are more capable of exercising strategies that are associated with their non-preferred styles compared to low achievers.

Oxford (1994) found that students who adopted an analytical style of learning had a preference for strategies such as applying contrastive analysis, learning rules, and breaking down words and phrases. On the other hand, students who adopted a global or holistic style used strategies such as guessing, scanning and predicting to make sense of the language. They are more intuitive in their approach to learning. Some students are more visual in their approach to learning and prefer to use written materials in learning a foreign language while others are more auditory in their approach and prefer to hear the language (Tunku Mohaini Tunku Mohtar, 1991). Therefore, there is a likelihood that different kinds of learners might benefit from different modes of strategy training (Green & Oxford, 1995; Shakarami Alireza & Mardziah H. Abdullah, 2010). The teacher needs to be sensitive to these individual differences in the classroom and plan lessons to cater to the varied needs of the learner.

Nature of assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning
The type of task assigned to students and the level of language learning achieved by them are also important factors in determining the choice of L2 learning strategies that can be naturally deployed to accomplish the task. It was found that learners of varying ages and stages of L2 learning employed different strategies, where certain strategies are peculiar to and frequently employed by older or more advanced students (Oxford, 2003). Research on strategies employed by students at different levels of L2 learning revealed differences in strategy use with the advanced students indicating preference for certain strategies compared to beginners (Magno, 2010; Green & Oxford, 1995). For instance, Green and Oxford (1995)

found that students who possessed certain characteristics such as perceiving English as important or evaluating themselves as being highly proficient (i.e. having a high English-learning self-image), and having a heightened sense of awareness of their own repertoire of many language learning strategies, frequently employed more learning strategies than those who did not (Lee & Oxford, 2008).

Motivation, attitude and beliefs

Crookes and Schmidt (1989, cited in Oxford & Ehrman, 1995) posit that language learning motivation involves seven aspects such as interest, perception of relevance, expectancy of success or failure, perception of rewards, overt decision to learn, persistent learning behaviour and high involvement. Motivation can be based on one of the three, that is the need for achievement, the fear for failure or the fear of success (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Oxford (1994) highlighted how motivation affected strategy use among L2 learners. She indicated that the more motivated students were more inclined to increase their use of strategies than the less motivated ones. Motivation is also influenced by the learners' self-efficacy and attribution of locus of control. The reason for studying the language served as an important motivator, especially if it is related to career development, which is identified as instrumental motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, cited in Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). Another reason for studying a language may be to fit in with the community speaking the TL. This involves integrative motivation.

Motivation and enjoyment of English learning have an impact on strategy use by Japanese university students (Mochizuki, 1999). Rajamoney (2008) found that a group of form four Malaysian students of intermediate language ability neither had knowledge of language learning strategies nor understood the benefits of strategy training. In fact, they had a rather negative perception about these strategies benefiting them in any way as they seldom used English in their daily lives. The study indicates that students who lack confidence and are anxious and shy in learning English, tend to lack motivation to become independent learners even though they may be at an intermediate level of language proficiency. Strategy training can help these students identify their strengths and weaknesses in language learning and become more independent in using the appropriate strategies to facilitate language learning. Collaborative learning activities done in class also promote learners' academic progress, interaction skills as well as encourage learners' intrinsic motivation. Students will be engaged more in their learning if they are given opportunities to be involved in activities carried out in class (Surina Nayan, Latisha Asmaak Shafie, Mahani Mansor, Anis Maesin, & Nazira Osman, 2010).

Attitudes have been reported to have a significant effect on the strategies learners choose, with negative attitudes and beliefs often contributing to poor strategy use or lack of orchestration of strategies (Oxford, 1994).

Age and gender

Personal factors or attributes such as gender and age have a significant impact on strategy use. It was reported that there were differences in the

strategies executed by the various age groups with the more mature indicating preference for certain strategies. Age as a factor was shown by several studies to cause learners to deploy certain strategies. Research has indicated that young learners tend to apply social strategies like discussing and asking for assistance from others (Lee & Oxford, 2008). On the other hand, an adult learner uses metacognitive strategies. Pertaining to gender, studies reported that females generally displayed greater strategy use than males (Green & Oxford, 1995; McMullen, 2009; Ok, 2003; Zhou, 2010). However, it must also be noted that males surpassed females in the use of certain strategies. For instance, more males tend to use strategies related to active naturalistic language use than females (El-Dib, 2004). In El-Dib's study, females have a preference for cognitive-compensatory and repetition-revision strategies. Gender also has an impact on strategy use by Japanese university students (Mochizuki, 1999).

Environment, cultural background or ethnicity

Another factor that influences the choice of strategy is related to the environment or cultural background as well as nationality or ethnicity. In other words, the strategies utilised by individual learners could be influenced by their cultural or educational system (Shamis, 2002). For instance, EFL learners in Palestine tend to rely on more on memory strategies as they need to meet the demands of examinations and coursework (Shmais, 2003) unlike their Asian counterparts who rely more on compensation strategies, which are functional practice strategies to communicate with teachers and fellow students. However, among the Japanese, the more proficient students tend to use cognitive and

metacognitive strategies more frequently than the less proficient students (Mochizuki, 1999). Also, they use compensation strategies most frequently compared to other strategies while affective strategies are the least. Among the Chinese, it was found that senior high school students tended to use compensation strategies most frequently and social strategies the least (Zhou, 2010). The general pattern of language learning strategy use by these senior high school students in China is compensation, affective, metacognitive, cognitive, memory and social.

Various studies on Koreans have shown that they prefer to use compensation strategies in learning the English language while memory strategies are the least utilised (Magno, 2010). Rashidah Begam bt O. A. Rajak (2004) compared the language learning strategies of 320 low-achieving Malaysian ESL learners from rural and urban schools using the SILL and noted that there were differences in terms of strategy use between urban and rural low achievers. The low achieving learners did deploy the learning strategies but on a moderate scale. Rural low achievers preferred to use memory, cognitive, metacognitive and affective but at a much lower scale compared to the urban low achievers who made moderate use of these strategies. The study also showed that these groups performed better upon strategy training and had a positive attitude towards such training. This present study on strategy use by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners at tertiary level following the SRSD intervention in academic writing will extend this body of research on language learning strategies among ESL learners which is currently lacking.

Further research on different learning environments is required to obtain more insights on the strategies of learners in these places so that a set of commonality within and across group of learners can be established (Oxford, 1993). By establishing this consistency in the findings, it is possible to claim that there is an effective way of learning a foreign language in every cultural context, which may exclusively cater for them alone, or be shared by other cultures as well (Magno, 2010). Research indicated that memorization was a strategy preferred by students from certain cultures such as the Asian and Palestinian cultures (Magno, 2010). Also related to and conditioned by cultural background are attitudes and beliefs of the L2 learners, which subsequently have an effect on the strategies employed by them in learning the L2 (Lee & Oxford, 2008). These attitudes and beliefs can lead to poor use of strategies if they are subjected to negativity.

2.2.7 Strategies Utilisation in Language Task Completion

In language learning, there are some strategies that work well together in a highly orchestrated manner for a certain language task while others do not (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 2003). For instance, studies involving L2 listening comprehension highlight the advantages of the strategies of elaboration or world knowledge, inferencing, selective attention, word derivation skills, verification of hypotheses, self-monitoring and self-evaluation (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1999). Likewise, in L2 writing, the strategies involved are planning, resourcing, drafting, revising, editing, monitoring, evaluating, questioning, rereading and using L1 (Arndt, 1987; Sasaki, 2000; Wenden, 1991, cited in Mu, 2005). This

procedural knowledge (Pressley & Harris, 2008) that is provided through strategy training is crucial for the successful completion of tasks as studies have indicated that individuals who are academically successful or have more expertise are generally more strategic than those who are academically challenged or are less capable (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Pressley, Woloshyn, Lsysnchuk, Martin, Wood & Willoughby, 1990, cited in Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998).

Unsuccessful learners have been found to employ strategies in a random, unrelated, and unregulated way while successful learners employ a well-orchestrated strategy chain to accomplish their L2 tasks (Oxford, 2003). Research indicates that successful learners deploy a broader range of learning strategies for L2 learning significantly more frequently than learners who are unsuccessful and that the strategies are different from those often preferred by their unsuccessful peers. For instance, a study by Qingquan, Chatupote and Teo (2008) showed that successful learners employed memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies more frequently whereas their unsuccessful counterparts frequently employed compensation strategies.

The study also noted that successful learners tended to use the affective and social strategies at times while this was not the case with unsuccessful learners. The successful learners showed that they could engage themselves in emotional regulation when feeling nervous during L2 learning as well as participate actively in L2 classroom activities, Although both type of learners utilised memory and cognitive strategies,

Qingquan, Chatupote and Teo (2008) revealed that successful learners preferred to deploy deep strategies such as associations and L2-based strategies; thus, implying that they might have more background knowledge to assimilate new L2 input and a greater repertoire of English resources stored in their long term memory to facilitate further information processing than the unsuccessful learners who resorted to surface strategies which do not contribute much to their L2 learning.

In the context of reading and writing, Baker and Boonkit (2004) examined the learning strategies employed by successful and less successful learners who were undergraduates at a Thai university taking reading and writing courses in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Using Oxford's (1990) six category taxonomy with an additional category of negative strategies, the researchers found that students made significantly more frequent use of metacognitive, cognitive and compensation strategies compared to memory, social, affective and negative strategies as the overall strategy used in EAP as a whole as well as in reading in particular. This emphasised the need for instruction in academic English to focus on these strategies. The findings regarding the lower use of social and affective strategies in the questionnaire, however, were contradicted by the data obtained from the interviews and journals. Baker and Boonkit (2004) indicated that research on the learning strategies utilised in academic writing was rather sparse and this should be addressed by future research on learning strategies.

With regard to writing strategies, there appeared to be no significant differences between successful and less successful learners in all six of Oxford's categories in this study by Baker and Boonkit (2004). However, there was a significant difference between the use of negative strategies and the six strategies in Oxford's taxonomy, with negative strategies being used less frequently overall. These negative strategies such as 'I like to start writing immediately without a plan,' and 'I like to write a draft in Thai first and then translate it into English' would have been taught as being counterproductive to the writing process (Baker & Boonkit, 2004, p. 309).

Although the successful learner group tended to make more use of strategies, the differences are not statistically significant. Important differences, however, were noted between successful and less successful learners in two strategies related to the writing process that is in the frequency of use of English and in the frequency of editing. The overall strategy use in the study showed that translation or use of L1 at any stage of the writing process, even in planning was perceived to be counterproductive to good writing although this strategy appeared to be more utilised by less successful learners to compensate for their lack of proficiency in L2. Other strategies such as the use of feedback and use of background or prior knowledge, where learners could draw on their own knowledge or experience in generating ideas for writing are reported to be important to L2 writers. These findings emphasised the importance of content in facilitating the learners' writing. It is warranted here that L2 writing instructors should be aware of the need to choose topics that are

relevant and interesting to the writers to motivate them. Baker and Boonkit (2004) postulate that the existing literature on learning strategies utilised in academic writing is rather sparse. Thus, a study investigating low-proficiency Malay ESL learners' use of the learning strategies in academic writing would add to this existing body of knowledge which is rather limited.

Successful learners are also more inclined to be 'risk-takers' who employ whatever target language resources they have rather than revert to their L1 (Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008). They demonstrate 'active participation, language use, positive attitude taking and learning-process monitoring strategies' to foster successful L2 learning whereas their unsuccessful peers deploy strategies such as word-level vocabulary learning, rote memory, as well as gesturing and L1-based strategies (Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008, p. 338). By being overly-dependent on L1-based strategies, unsuccessful learners tend to experience problems in communicating in L2 and this in turn reduces their desire as well as opportunities for utilising L2. Qingquan, Chatupote and Teo (2008) posit that frequent reliance on surface strategies coupled with low proficiency in the target language (TL) has a negative impact on L2 learning, which in turn leads to even more frequent application of the very same strategies. This implies a link between frequency of strategy use and academic achievement.

Having an interest in learning an L2, in this case English, can subsequently lead to developing a positive attitude towards learning the language, as

well as have an impact on strategy use. Qingquan, Chatupote and Teo (2008) found that successful learners had more interest in learning English than the unsuccessful learners and this interest stirred them on to adopt a positive attitude towards mistakes and the strategy of self-correction which enabled them to monitor their learning process and ultimately promoted language accuracy. Once again the use of strategy is influenced by the level of the learner's language proficiency and this explains why it is not much utilised by unsuccessful learners.

Attempts have been made to remediate the unsuccessful language learners' use of strategies through strategy training (Wenden & Rubin, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985, Oxford, 1990) and these have yielded some promising results (Cohen & Aphek, 1980; Hosenfeld, 1984). However, as not much research has been done on the actual strategies used by less successful learners (Hosenfeld, 1984; Chamot & Kupper, 1989), there appears to be a problem in designing an effective strategy training programme for these learners and the approach taken has basically involved describing the strategies of effective language learners where the input is mainly from observations made by teachers or researchers and generalised retrospective self-reports provided by learners (Vann & Abraham, 1990). The present study on the effect of the SRSD intervention on the writing ability and the use of learning strategies of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners would serve to provide valuable insights to this limited body of research.

Currently, there is general acceptance that having a gamut of strategies, regardless of whether they are general or domain/task specific, is essential for academic success in any particular area (Wenden, 2002). Despite this consensus in providing strategy training and its usefulness in developing independent learners, Swan (2008) cautions that such training should not be seen as a replacement for basic language teaching. He also notes that 'the choice-of-solution' element which is crucial to language learning is not always evident in discussions on language-learning strategies, thus making the concept of strategy become 'too heterogeneous and all-inclusive' to be of real use (Swan, 2008, p. 264).

2.2.8 Strategy Instruction and Related Models

Extensive research has been carried out on strategy instruction that is also known as learner training. Research in fact, has been directed on instruction focusing on differences in terms of learner needs, abilities and interests and this is apparent from the use of terms such as 'learner-centred', 'student-centred', 'personalized', 'individualized' and 'humanized' in the literature on L2 instruction (Altman, 1980, cited in Wenden, 2002, p.32). This highlights the importance of the role of the learner in FL/L2 teaching and learning. The findings of research on learning strategy instruction has made it necessary to examine not just what is done to teach effectively, but also what is done to facilitate one's own learning. Learning strategy instruction helps one to focus on *how learning is done* rather than *what learning is done*.

Students can benefit most from the strategy training when they know why and when particular strategies are important, how to use them, and how to transfer them into the new situation (Oxford, 1990). This transfer is made possible if the strategy training emphasises metacognitive awareness of strategies as was evident in the case of learners with mental retardation (Belmont, Butterfield & Ferretti, 1982, cited in Pressley & Harris, 2008). Learners are found to be able to organize, evaluate their learning effectively when metacognitive awareness training goes before metacognitive strategy training, and with this metacognitive awareness, they are able to strengthen their effort, motivation, and persistence, as well as seek assistance from peers and teachers when needed, and provide self-instruction while learning (Chen, 2008).

Strategy instructions have resulted in positive outcomes for proficiency in speaking (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985), reading (Hosenfeld, 1984; Mason , 2004; Palincsar & Brown, 1984), listening (Coskun, 2010; Vandergrift, 1999) and writing (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, Stevens, & Fear, 1991; Graham, 2006a) in ESL/EFL strategy research. In other strategy studies, strategy instruction has increased the motivation of L2 learners (Nunan, 1997), and self-efficacy (National Foreign Language Resource Center, 2000).

In fact, research on reading and writing in both L1 and L2 advocates explicit strategy instruction which involves developing students' awareness of the strategies they employ, modelling of the strategies by the teacher, getting students to practise the newly learnt strategies, self-

evaluation of students' strategies, and promoting the transfer of strategies to other tasks (Cohen, 1998; Graham & Harris, 2000; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). All these models concur on the importance of developing students' metacognitive awareness and understanding of the value of learning strategies and stress the importance of providing ample opportunities to practise the strategies so that it results in the students' using such strategies autonomously.

2.2.8.1 Models of Explicit Language Strategy Instruction

One such model is the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model propounded by Chamot and O'Malley (1996) which provides an explicit strategy instruction for ESL learners that includes content area instruction and academic language development. It is a recursive model that enables students to revisit the earlier phases of instruction as and when needed (Chamot & O' Malley, 1994). This model presents six phases, namely preparation, presentation, practice, self-evaluation, expansion and assessment. Cohen (1998) presents a somewhat similar version of strategy instruction for native English speakers learning a second or foreign language. In his Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI), the instructor takes on several roles such as that of diagnostician, language learner, learner trainer, coordinator and coach to facilitate students' acquisition of learning strategies that support the students' learning styles.

On the other hand, Grenfell & Harris's (1999) model involves a cycle of six stages of instruction: awareness raising, modelling, general practice,

action planning, focused practice and evaluation, which students need to undergo before starting a new cycle. They need to familiarise themselves with the new strategies before they embark on personalised action plans to improve their own learning. This model is unlike the CALLA model, which has a self-evaluation phase that enables students to reflect on their strategy use before they attempt to transfer the learnt strategies to new tasks. Present strategy instruction models of language learning focus mainly on the development of students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and their adoption of strategies that will foster their language learning ability and improve their language proficiency. Therefore, when evaluating the effectiveness of any strategy instruction, teachers should look for individuals' progress toward L2 proficiency and for signs of increased self-efficacy or motivation.

Language courses, therefore, should incorporate a model of strategy training that promotes learner autonomy by focusing on aspects of the learning process such as setting goals, selecting learning strategies and evaluating progress, and serve as a means of shifting the responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learner (Cotterall, 2000). The potential for learner autonomy is enhanced as an individual's learning awareness develops. Hence activities which cause learners to reflect on their learning aim to promote learners' insight into their learning processes (Cotterall, 2000). Reflection is necessary as it enables learners to evaluate the progress of their learning as well as their plans for future learning. Thus, courses designed to develop learner autonomy need to promote goal setting, monitoring and self-reflection on the performance among learners,

and encourage them to adapt their learning behaviour in accordance with the progress made (Cotterall, 2000).

2.2.8.2 Maintenance and Generalisation of Strategies

According to Pressley and Harris (2008), literature on early strategy instruction revealed that maintenance and generalisation (transfer) of strategies that has been taught is a frequent problem among students; however, Belmont, Butterfield, and Ferretti (1982, cited in Pressley & Harris 2008) in their examination of 100 studies involving strategy instruction for people with mental retardation proved that transfer of strategies is possible even for students at risk of academic failure if strategy instruction fosters metacognitive understanding of strategies such as when and where the strategies work, what positive impact is produced by deploying the strategies, and how the strategy may be modified to new situations, and emphasises the setting of learning goals and planning of academic tasks, as well as monitoring of their performance while using the strategies. Belmont, Butterfield, and Ferretti believe that maintenance and transfer are also boosted if strategy instruction incorporates strategies of coping with failure or frustration.

A model with such features as mentioned above facilitates learner autonomy as it allows students the freedom of choice to apply what they have learnt to other tasks or subjects. However, in order to develop autonomous learners, it is essential that proper strategy instruction be provided for these L2 learners. Based on research findings, it has become apparent that the most effective strategy instruction needs to focus on an

explicit and overt as well as relevant instruction on specific strategies, demonstrating when a given strategy might be useful, as well as how to employ and evaluate it, and subsequently how to transfer it to other related tasks and situations (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1992/1993; Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, & Sutter, 1990). Research has shown that the most effective strategy instruction is one that is integrated into the regular, everyday L2 class work, and offers frequent opportunities for strategy practice while taking into consideration the individual learner's needs, style and strategies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 2003). It is also necessary to keep in mind that L2 strategy training may be hampered if the teaching strategies are not attuned to the learner's learning strategies (Muhammad Saeed Akhtar & Muhammad Shaban Rafi, 2010).

2.3 Social-cognitive Perspective on Writing

According to Zimmerman (2001, p. 5), self-regulated learners are believed to be able to (a) personally enhance their ability to learn through selective use of metacognitive and motivational strategies, (b) proactively select, structure, and even create favourable learning environments, and (c) play an important role in selecting the form and amount of instruction they require. Self-regulated learning theories assume that students play a proactive role in learning. They go about completing learning tasks out of their own personal initiative, resourcefulness, persistence, and sense of responsibility (Zimmerman, 1998). The techniques for improving writing are identical to the self-regulatory processes investigated in other content areas (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986) and are based on Zimmerman's (1989) study of general academic self-regulation. Thus, self-regulation of writing can be viewed as 'self-initiated thoughts, feelings, and

actions that writers use to attain various literary goals, including improving their writing skills as well as enhancing the quality of the text they create' (Schunk & Zimmerman, in press, cited in Zimmerman and Risemberg 1997, p. 76).

Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) have investigated ten self-regulatory techniques adopted by well-known writers and described in empirical studies done on their effectiveness. They propose a social cognitive model of writing comprising three basic types of self-regulatory influence, namely environmental, behavioural and covert or personal which form a complex system of interdependent processes (refer to Figure 2.1).
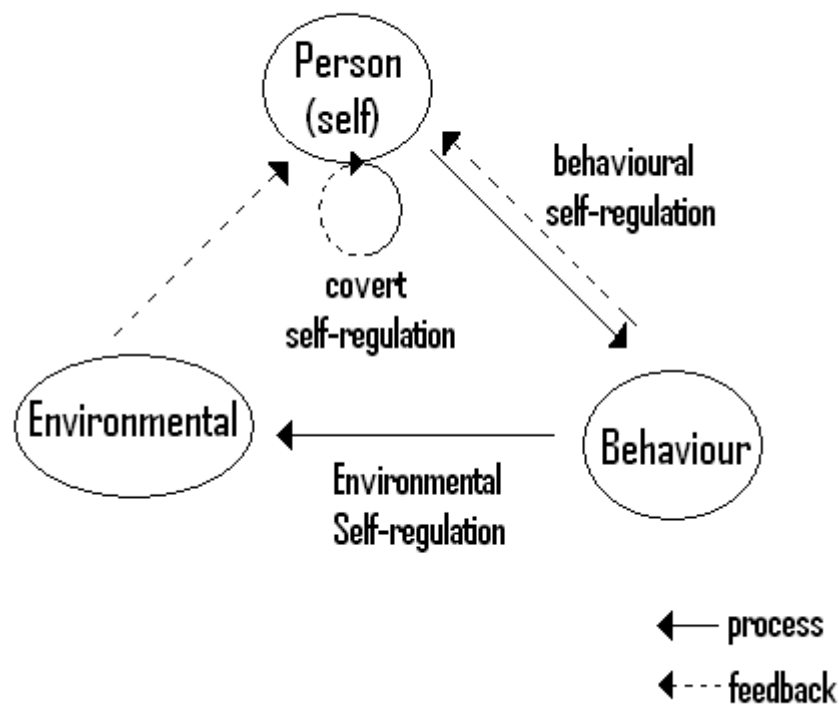
Figure 2.1   Reciprocal determinants of self-regulated functioning.

Source: Adapted from Zimmerman, B.J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *81*, p. 330.

Environmental processes involve techniques for self-regulating the writers' physical or social setting for writing. For instance, writers can use environmental structuring to select, organise, and create effective writing settings, or they can use self-selected models, tutors, or books that serve as social sources of knowledge and skill as points of reference for writing which they can imitate.

Behavioural processes involve techniques for self-regulating the writers' overt motoric activities related to writing. These involve three strategies, namely self-monitoring, self-consequences and self-verbalisation. Self-monitoring refers to overt tracking or self-recording of one's written output such as the number of pages written so as to increase one's self-awareness of the progress achieved. Self-consequences refer to rewarding or punishing oneself for the progress made in one's writing in relation to one's anticipated contingency. This may include treating oneself a movie after completing a particular chapter. Self-verbalisation refers to articulating while one is writing in an attempt to enhance what one is composing. This strategy is mainly used in generating or revising a text and as such, serves as a form of behavioural feedback about the quality of a written output.

The final group of self-regulation is covert or personal processes which involve techniques for self-regulating the writers' cognitive beliefs and affective strategies in relation to writing. Five strategies are involved here, namely time planning and management, goal setting, self-evaluative standards, cognitive strategies and mental imagery. Time planning and management involve estimating and allocating time for writing, such as setting aside three hours to write each morning. Goal setting involves setting specific writing goals to be attained, for

example, completing a chapter within a stipulated time. Self-evaluative standards involve setting or modifying standards of personal satisfaction for self-evaluating the quality of one's writing. Cognitive strategies involve the use of text-specific cognitive strategies for organising, producing, and transforming a textual output, such as idea generating strategies like using an outline to direct one's writing, to revision strategies like checking the written text for grammar. The last cognitive self-regulatory strategy in this group of personal processes is the mental imagery. This involves creating a vivid mental image of a setting, activity, or character to enhance the quality of one's writing.

The three types of self-regulating processes are said to interact reciprocally by means of a cyclic strategic feedback loop through which writers are able to self-monitor and react in an adaptive manner to feedback on specific self-regulatory techniques or processes and their effectiveness. Besides being interdependent, these triadic forms of self-regulation also suggest a strong connection with an underlying sense of self-efficacy which is linked to a motivational process. Subsequently, the resultant feedback from the self-regulatory feedback loop modifies the writers' perceptions of their own self-efficacy besides modifying their written output (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). In most cases, studies have shown that writers' self-efficacy is greater when strategic feedback points to an improvement in the written output and lower when the feedback points to a decline in their written output. There seems to be a reciprocal relation between writers' self-efficacy and writing self-regulation as studies have also proposed that writers will maintain self-regulation if self-regulatory strategies enhance their beliefs of self-efficacy. It has thus become evident that writers' perceptions of self-efficacy will determine the maintenance of self-regulatory processes, as well

as their intrinsic motivation to write, and achieve subsequent literary success (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman, 1985, cited in Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

In view of the above discussion, writing self-regulation can be aptly explicated by employing Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory as it stresses the reciprocal relations between triadic sources of self-regulatory influence as well as the part played by self-efficacy beliefs on personal motivation and achievement. According to Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997), the relative effect of each form of writing self-regulation is dependent on (a) personal attempts at self-regulation, (b) outcomes of behavioural performance or act, and (c) changes in the environmental context. Writing self-regulation is also affected by the writer's level of general learning and development, for it has been noted that an increase in age and experience facilitates the self-regulation of crucial literary processes. A self-regulated writer would and should utilise all three types of self-regulation in tandem with each other when he attempts to self-monitor. As such, he needs to be aware of the changes in the environmental, behavioural or personal circumstances in which he operates.

2.4 Research on Self-regulated Learning and Self-efficacy

Several studies have examined self-regulated learning and self-efficacy of ESL learners and this section elaborates on four such studies that have guided the method of analysis relied on in the present study, namely, the works of Lee (2002), Wang and Pape (2004), Wong (2005) and Zhaomin (2009). In addition, Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) study is also discussed in this section as

their categorisation of self-regulated learning strategies has proved to be a significant contribution to research on self-regulated learning and self-efficacy.

Wang and Pape (2004) conducted a qualitative case study of four Chinese children to investigate the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary school children and their use of self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies in their ESL learning process at home and at school. The participants reported self-efficacy beliefs across a variety of language-learning tasks, and the findings suggested that self-efficacy is a task-specific construct. The researchers observed that each child's self-efficacy varied across tasks and across home-based and school-based language-learning contexts. The participants' self-efficacy beliefs were reported to be related to their expertise in the content area, self-perceptions of English proficiency level, task difficulty level, social persuasion, physiological or emotional state, interest, attitude towards the English language and the English speaking community, as well as the social and cultural context. The participants reported almost all the SRL strategies identified by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986).

In a study by Wong (2005), the relationship between graduate pre-service teachers' language learning strategies and their language self-efficacy were examined. Based on seven given hypothetical learning contexts, Wong identified six categories of language learning strategies with the study concluding that a significant positive relationship existed between the pre-service teachers' language learning strategies and language self-efficacy. The study also revealed that pre-service teachers with high self-efficacy reported greater use of a larger number of language learning strategies than did low self-efficacy pre-service

teachers.

These studies all indicate that perceptions of one's self-efficacy determines the type of activity selected, task perseverance, degree of effort spent, and consequently, the level of success attained. Bembenutty (2009) opines that calibration between confidence of knowing or self-efficacy and actual performance is essential to effective self-regulation which involves metacognitive processes and motivation, where self-efficacy is a causal factor in determining in its establishment and maintenance (Bandura, 1986).

However, caution must be exercised in interpreting self-efficacy scores in the light of academic performance. According to Pajares and Schunk (2001), self-efficacy accounts for 'approximately a quarter of the variance in the prediction of academic outcomes beyond that of instructional influences' and is responsive to variations in students' instructional experience (p. 250). This is evident in a study by Garcia and Fidalgo (2008) investigating the impact of two cognitive and self-regulatory strategy interventions on writing self-efficacy. Their study revealed that the miscalibration of writing self-efficacy in girls with LD was significantly adjusted to a more realistic calibration of their writing competence following instruction based on the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) Model that fosters self-knowledge and self-regulation. The SRSD model proved to be more effective in improving the calibration of writing self-efficacy compared to the Social Cognitive Model of Sequential Skill Acquisition. Their findings, however, did not indicate any adjustment to the boys' miscalibration of writing self-efficacy, emphasizing the probability of gender playing a mediational role in the calibration of students' writing self-efficacy. Similarly, Winne and Jamieson-Noel

(2002) who explored the relationship between calibration judgments and self-regulation during studying which involved monitoring and study tactics discovered that the students were overconfident about their performance and overestimated their use of study tactics. Their study indicated that male students were more overconfident and more biased in their judgments compared to female students.

Therefore, an important issue to consider in self-efficacy studies is calibration which refers to the degree of congruence between efficacy beliefs and actual achievement (Klassen, 2002). Klassen opines that inadequate metacognitive knowledge and self-regulation of writing may affect the accuracy in calibration. For instance, research has revealed that low achievers' self-efficacy was significantly higher than performance while high achievers' self-efficacy was significantly lower than performance (Katz, 2001; Katz & Shoshani, n.d.) A review of literature on writing self-efficacy also shows inconsistent results in self-efficacy following intervention. Some studies (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Graham & Harris, 1989a; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Page-Voth & Graham, 1999; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992) did not reveal any changes in writing self-efficacy while others (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2006; Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, & Page-Voth, 1992) indicated significant improvement in writing self-efficacy after intervention.

Intervention studies highlighted the problem of miscalibration between perceived self-efficacy and task outcome whereby students overestimated or underestimated their writing self-efficacy after undergoing writing intervention (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005;

Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, & Page-Voth, 1992; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Klassen, 2002; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992). This phenomenon is referred to as overconfidence (or under-confidence) about one's capabilities and often involves struggling writers, especially students with LD. Students' confidence may not always correlate with adequate preparation and well-developed skills; instead, for students with a history of low achievement, apparent confidence may be masking skills deficits or inadequate preparation (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Klassen, 2007). Less calibrated students, in this case overconfident students, tend to set unrealistic goals which are beyond their capabilities or perceive themselves as having the knowledge required for certain tasks when in reality, they do not (Chen, 2003, cited in Bembenutty, 2009). Therefore, teachers in the language classroom, or any classroom for the matter, need to be aware that for some students, high degrees of confidence might not indicate knowledge or awareness about the demands of a task, but instead reflect difficulties with task-analysis and self-awareness (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). A higher degree of self-confidence may also serve as a method of protecting their self-esteem or self-concept, which in turn may pose problems in learning (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008).

On the other hand, Bandura (1997) suggests that a modest level of overconfidence is desirable where self-efficacy is concerned, as he believes that this promotes success. This view is supported by Pintrich and DeGroot's (1990) observation that people who have strong beliefs in their capabilities tend to put in more effort in what they do as they view difficult tasks as challenges rather than threats. Those who doubt their capabilities tend to give up easily when faced with obstacles as they find it difficult to motivate themselves. Pintrich and DeGroot's study

involving students in the 7th grade revealed a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and self-regulation, as well as a positive relationship between self-regulation and student's intrinsic motivation for learning. This corresponds with Bembenutty's (2009) findings that calibrated learners with high positive self-efficacy beliefs are self-regulated learners with accurate metacognitive knowledge.

Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) in their research on self-regulation identified 14 categories of self-regulated learning strategies from students' responses to a structured interview that focused on six learning contexts. These categories which were derived from Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986) included goal-setting, environmental structuring, self-consequences (self-rewarding and self-punishment), and self-evaluation. Other categories from closely associated theories were strategies of organizing and transforming, seeking and selecting information, rehearsal and mnemonic strategies, strategies of seeking social assistance and reviewing previously compiled records involving class notes and notes on text material. They found that high achieving students demonstrated a significant use of 13 categories of the identified self-regulated learning with a significant preference for 'seeking information', 'keeping records and monitoring', and 'organizing and transforming'. The high achievers also relied more on seeking social assistance than the low achievers, with teachers exceeding as sources of social support, followed by peers and then other adult, suggesting that self-regulated students depended greatly on social sources of assistance to complete their academic tasks. However, one category of self-regulation, namely self-evaluation, failed to indicate any association with student achievement in this study. High achievers also indicated significantly less use of a

single category of non-self-regulated response labelled as 'other' compared to low achievers.

Lee (2002) in his study on strategy and self-regulation intruction in ESL writing of Malaysian students indicated that the personal and strategy variables were frequently ignored in ESL writing instruction. Furthermore, as the writing activity was often carried out alone, Lee (2002) postulated that writing instruction overlooked students' relationship needs. In Lee's study, actual classroom implementation of strategy and self-regulation instruction was carried out in a 15-week ESP course for 29 students pursuing an engineering degree programme in a Malaysian university. The aim was to investigate whether students' ability to plan and revise their writing as well as to self-regulate would improve with instruction, and whether their ability to regulate their writing, would enhance their attribution, self-efficacy and self-determination. Findings suggested that the instruction improved students' planning and revision strategies and had an impact on self-regulation, particularly in four variables, namely self-evaluation, organising and transforming, seeking information and seeking social assistance. Furthermore, strategy instruction also increased their self-efficacy and self-determination, making them more positive towards negative feedback. There was an appreciation of peer feedback as they had come to realise the greater need to diagnose the mistakes in their writing. Strategy and self-regulation instruction, however, had no obvious effect on attribution as the students already had good attribution with almost all linking their success to ability and effort. Intelligence was perceived to be developmental with students expressing a desire to improve themselves.

The present study that focuses on low-proficiency Malay ESL students' self-efficacy and use of learning strategies as well as self-regulation in academic writing following the SRSD strategy training extends the existing knowledge of self-regulation and self-efficacy by providing some insights into the influence of one's cultural background on ESL learner's writing ability.

Zhaomin (2009) developed the Self-Regulated Learning Scale (SRLS) based on Zimmerman's strategy model (1986), which measured the self-regulated learning (SRL) ability of Chinese undergraduate non-English majors enrolled in an independent English listening class. Based on data collection, Zhaomin (2009) identified elements from Zimmerman's model that accurately reflected the self-regulated learning process of Chinese undergraduate non-English majors and in doing so emphasised the fact that elements of Zimmerman's strategy model had to be evaluated for appropriateness based on the background of the learners. The coding of Zimmerman's model by Zhaomin informs a similar attempt undertaken in the present study.

2.5   Instruction for Process Writing

Writing is a complex cognitive activity that involves a variety of processes such as planning, generating ideas, organizing the ideas, drafting, revising and self-regulation (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Graham & Harris, 2003; Hayes, 1996; Tribble, 1996; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997) where self-regulation involves learning strategies such as self-evaluating, self-monitoring, and reflecting (Magno, 2009). Owing to the complexity of the writing, some researchers, however, may differ in their categorising of certain writing strategies and processes.

2.5.1 Models of the Writing Process

Hayes and Flower (1980), for instance, include goal setting as one of the strategies for planning, along with generating ideas and organising ideas into a plan. In this study, however, goal setting is classified as one of the personal or covert strategies of self-regulatory processes in writing (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Hayes and Flower (1980) have established that planning, translating the planned ideas into sentences, and reviewing the ideas and text, which are the three basic production processes, do not occur in a linear sequence as was first presented by Rohman (1965), but are rather recursive in nature. One process calls upon another as when translating ideas into text may require further planning on the part of the writer (Olive, Kellogg, & Piolat, 2002). Each of these processes is considered to be under the direct control of the writer and each process could be disrupted to incorporate any other process. This cyclical and dynamic process of writing is clearly presented in Figure 2.2 by Tribble (1996) where in his model, he illustrates five stages in the writing process. This model, however, supports Hayes and Flower's (1980) notion of the writing process. Here, the prewriting stage corresponds to the planning stage, the composing or drafting stage to the translation of ideas stage while the revising and editing stages correspond to the reviewing stage. Tribble, however, includes publication as the last stage, which is optional as the writer may or may not wish to have his writing published. It must be noted that this final stage can lead to further development in the writing itself as it may result in more planning, writing and revision as well as editing based on feedback received from audience.
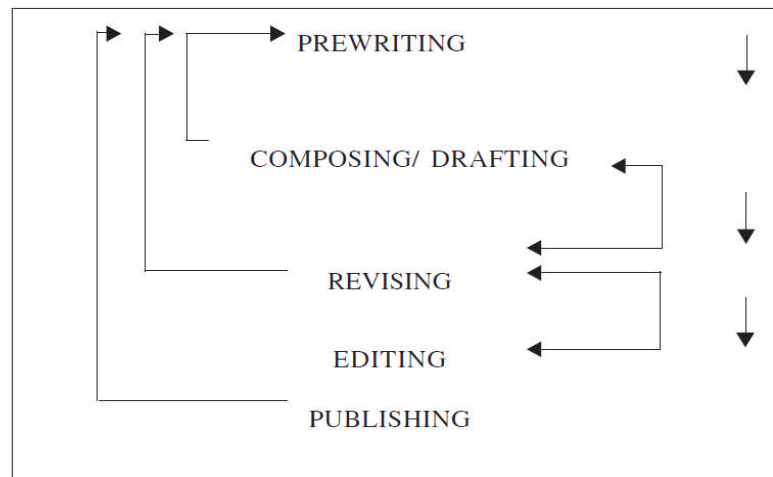
Figure 2.2   The dynamic and recursive nature of the process of composing

Source: Tribble, C. (1996). *Writing.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Research on the writing process presented writing as dynamic and recursive in nature. As a recursive model, the process approach places emphasis on revision which depends on feedback that is provided by readers. Feedback is viewed as an input that is crucial for revising texts.

Research has shown that strategy instruction on writing that employs the process writing approach has been successful as it enables students to carry out their writing tasks through cycles of planning, translating, and reviewing in a workshop environment with provisions for extended opportunities for writing with audiences in mind and personalised instruction (Graham & Perin, 2007a). This approach also promotes personal responsibility and ownership of the writing tasks among students as well as a supportive environment for increased student interactions, self-reflection and evaluation (Graham & Perin, 2007a).

Hayes and Flower's (1980) model promotes self-regulatory behaviour as it supports the notion that writing is a goal-directed activity where the writer has to set goals and sub-goals to navigate him in what needs to be said and done in the course of writing (Graham & Harris, 1994). This model encourages self-regulation and effort on the part of the writer, thus enabling him to direct the whole writing process from the beginning until the end, relying on his or her personal observations, judgments, and reactions as a guide (Graham & Harris, 1994).

The process writing model (Hayes, 1996; Hayes & Flower, 1980) has been found to be effective in teaching ESL or L2 students. Hayes's (1996) model of writing, which is an expansion of Hayes and Flower's (1980) model, presents writing as having two major dimensions, that is the task environment and the individual, where the task is further split into two aspects, which are the social and the physical. According to Hayes (1996), the individual dimension is the central focus in writing rather than the task environment dimension. The individual dimension is influenced by variables such as motivation and affect that involve knowledge bases, attitudes, beliefs, strategy use and apprehension in writing and is further influenced by long-term memory with its accompanying constituent composites. Hayes included a motivation/affect component to his model as he supports the notion that the writer's goals, predispositions, beliefs, and attitude affect the writing process. Another modification to the model is the inclusion of linguistic and genre knowledge as well as the task schema element to the long-term memory component.

Hayes revised the cognitive processes to incorporate a reflection category comprising problem solving, decision making, and inferencing. Translation was subsumed under a more general category labelled as text production while revising was replaced with text interpretation. Reflection and translation were also presented as methods to rectify problems in the text and effect changes. Another significant modification to the 1980 model was the inclusion of the working memory category. This working memory category explains how a skilled writer holds information and ideas for writing in memory while simultaneously carrying out other cognitive processes that warrant his attention. On the whole, Hayes' incorporation of motivation and working memory categories to this model is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the process writing approach although the model is considered to be relatively new to be fully validated and assessed on its impact on the whole writing process as compared to Hayes and Flower's 1980 model (Graham, 2006b).

Another contribution to the process writing approach was the model devised by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) which is known as the knowledge telling model, a simplified version of Hayes and Flower's model. They believed that children tend to translate the writing task into a mere telling of what they know about a topic. Their model comprised three components that are very comparable to Hayes and Flower's components and these are mental representation of the assignment, long-term memory and knowledge telling process. The knowledge telling process describes what immature writers do as they go through the writing process, beginning with the writer making decisions about the topic and type of

text to be written. Next, the writer goes through to a search and retrieval process where relevant content and discourse knowledge is retrieved from long-term memory and is tested to determine its appropriateness to the given task or topic before it is finally transcribed into written text. Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge telling model, which is consistent with research findings on observations made on struggling writers (Graham, 1990), is sometimes adopted by even adult writers who may consider themselves as good writers.

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) also devised a more expert model of writing known as knowledge transforming. The model starts with a mental representation of the assignment, a feature that is similar to the knowledge telling model. Here, the writer establishes the demands of the writing task and then proceeds to analyse the problem, and set content and rhetorical goals for the writing task. The two types of planning (content and rhetorical process planning) here interact closely through a problem translation component, where the writer retrieves and transforms both content and discourse knowledge. The resulting plans are then translated into writing through the knowledge telling process. As the text is being written, it goes through further analysis and the resulting information is sent back to the problem analysis and goal setting component for further review and changes.

The transforming model is more complex than the knowledge telling model and it assumes that skilled writers operate through a series of stages from knowledge telling to knowledge transforming. This model has not

made much impact on research related to process writing and as such, there is limited evidence to validate if its description of expert writing is accurate. However, the process-telling model with its plausible description of novice writing has attracted much research that is concerned with poor or struggling writers (Graham & Harris, 2003).

Zimmerman and Risemberg's (1997) model differs from the models mentioned earlier in this section as it focuses on the various developmental levels involved in the writing process whereas the other models focus on the cognitive and non-cognitive skills in the writing process that writers needed to order to write (Graham, 2006b). Their model is greatly influenced by Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory that incorporates self-efficacy and self-regulation and Zimmerman's (1989) theory of social cognitive learning, and focuses mainly on the self-regulatory aspects of writing. According to the model, writers deploy self-regulatory strategies to intentionally regulate their writing behaviour, environment, and their personal processes (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997) when composing and subsequently 'monitor, evaluate and react to their use' (Graham, 2006b, p. 461). Writers tend to utilize their self-initiated, thoughts, feelings and actions to pursue various goals pertaining to the enhancement of their skills in writing and the quality of the text produced. It is believed that writers will retain self-regulatory strategies that are beneficial and discard those that are not, through a process of monitoring and self-reacting towards feedback obtained via an enactive feedback loop in the cycle (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). As a result, the self-efficacy of writers may be heightened or lessened based on the success of the strategies

employed. The writers' sense of self-efficacy thus influences not only their self-regulatory processes but also their intrinsic motivation to write and their eventual literary outcomes (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994).

Zimmerman and Risemberg's (1997) model has contributed significantly to our knowledge base of the writing process by providing an explicit account of how writers deliberately control or regulate their act of writing. Secondly, it elucidates the role of self-efficacy in influencing the writers' self-regulatory behaviour and performance in writing. Lastly, it increases our understanding of how writers develop new self-regulatory behaviours. It has become evident that researchers need to design new strategy interventions for writing so as to incorporate the valuable information provided by new models into the writing process. The models that are reviewed here provide both theoretical and developmental basis that would aid in understanding the development the SRSD model that is employed of the current intervention study on writing.

2.5.2 Problems Faced by Student Writers

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1986) have identified five aspects of composing an essay that can be a challenge for students and these are listed as (a) generating ideas, (b) developing and organizing the essay, (c) setting goals and drawing out to execute higher order writing skills, (d) incorporating the mechanical aspects of writing, and (e) revising and editing the writing and redefining goals.

The first aspect, that is generating ideas for an essay is part of the pre-writing stage, which usually involves brainstorming where writers take time to ponder over their topic, consider their audience, and generate ideas through methods such as listing, clustering or free writing. The success of the writing, to a large extent, depends on a student's ability to plan before writing during this pre-writing stage. Unfortunately, many students do not realise the value of planning before writing; instead, they tend to write with minimum or no planning just as soon as they get their assignments. Such a practice does not promote planning nor goal setting (Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005), which is essential for self-regulation in writing. These less successful writers tend to resort to a technique known as knowledge telling where they write whatever comes to their mind (Graham, 1990).

Closely connected to the first aspect, which is generating ideas or planning, is the second aspect that is developing and organizing the essay. Less successful writers tend to produce writing which is poorly organised with a few inadequately developed ideas (Graham, 1990). This is probably due to their poor utilisation of the strategies for information retrieval and their perception of writing assignments as question-and-answer tasks (Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005; Graham, 1990). Owing to this notion, there is little effort at evaluating or revising the information used with respect to their 'rhetorical goals' as these writers tend to employ little metacognition and adopt a 'retrieve and write' approach to writing where they write from memory with hardly any self-regulation (MacArthur & Graham, 1987). Graham (1990) in his study of the composing behaviour of

students with LD found that students writing opinion essays tend to compose essays with elements missing and end their essays without a conclusion or summation, thinking that they have 'answered' the question by merely stating a 'yes' or 'no' with a few reasons. Thus, it was found that weaker or learning disabled writers wrote shorter essays which lacked quality and coherence compared to their peers who were better or not disabled (Graham , 2006a; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993).

Flower and Hayes (1980) discovered that experienced writers tend to formulate a set of goals as well as plans at the outset of a writing task to direct them in executing higher-level writing skills in the writing process. These goals and plans are then evaluated and redefined as they proceed with their writing. In fact, skilled writers tend to orchestrate a wide range of 'strategies for generating, organizing, evaluating, and reformulating what they plan to do and say,' while keeping their audience and purpose in mind (Sexton, Harris, & Graham, 1998, p. 296). The goals and plans that they have set earlier serve as a point of reference and give them a focus or direction in their writing.

However, these complex aspects of writing, especially planning, composing, evaluating, and revising are difficult even for expert writers (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997) what more when it concerns ESL students. According to Scardamalia and Bereiter (1986), many students do not know how to revise skillfully as their attempts at revision are limited to mechanical and word-level changes. Sommers (1980, cited in Graham, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1995) discovered that inexperienced writers

viewed revision to involve hunting for errors, and substituting or deleting words. This perception of revision, therefore, affects their goal setting for revision as it may focus on changes related to the form of text rather than those related to substance (Graham, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1995). ESL writers have to contend with higher-level writing skills, which have also been noted as an area of difficulty for students with LD (Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1991). Writing is viewed as a problem-solving task that involves setting goals for writing as well as identifying the means of achieving them. These goals are then assessed during and after the writing process to determine whether a student needs to redefine the goals or continue with the writing process (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986).

In the ESL context, content course lecturers at institutions of higher learning have expressed concern over the lack of writing competency among learners as they pursue advanced level courses at these institutions (Shahrina Md Nordin & Norhisham bt Mohammad, 2006). Students have been found to be unable to express themselves clearly nor provide convincing arguments to indicate their understanding of their content subjects (Chandrasegaran, 1991). Numerous factors have been identified as variables contributing to this low proficiency in English among most Malaysian ESL learners, which ultimately affects their ability to write.

According to a study involving lower secondary Malaysian ESL students, these contributing factors are lack of exposure to the English language as well as reluctance to use the language, negative attitude towards the language, lack of confidence in using the language, lack of motivation and

lack of competent English language teachers (Fauziah Hassan & Nita Fauzee Selamat, 2002) These factors, some of which are interrelated, continue to have an impact on students as they move on to a higher level of education. Not only does the English proficiency of the students remain low but it also prevents them from becoming autonomous learners.

In a study comparing students from the Diploma Programme and the Matriculation students in a Malaysian institution of higher learning, it was found that the diploma students acquired better writing skills than the matriculation students. The diploma students performed better in all the five writing components, that is content, vocabulary, organization, language use and mechanics. This difference in performance was attributed to exposure to the English language where the Diploma students had all their subjects taught in English Language. This indicated that the Matriculation students were slightly less proficient in their writing performance due to lack of language use. Writing may be hard and demanding but frequent exposure to reading and writing will help improve writing performance (Yah Awg Nik, Hamzah, & Rafidee bin Hasbollah, 2010). This is necessary, especially in the case of ESL learners.

Another problem encountered while writing is that non-native speakers (NNS) tend to think about all the rules they need to apply and in so doing they tend to make mistakes or commit errors. It thus becomes apparent that although NNS know how to write a 'summary' or do an 'analysis' in another language whether it is Malay, Mandarin or even Spanish, this does not necessarily mean that they will be able to do so in English (Kern, 2000,

cited in Norhakimah Khaiessa Binti Ahmad, 2007).

2.5.3 Writing Instruction for ESL Learners

The teaching of writing in ESL has undergone some notable changes in the last 20 years that have led to the development of numerous approaches for the teaching of writing (Badger & White, 2000). Of these, three prominent approaches in the teaching of writing have been the product-oriented approach, the genre-based approach and the process-oriented approach. Where writing instruction is concerned, process and product approaches have been prominent in the teaching of EFL, as well as ESL, over the past two decades while genre approaches gained ground in the last decade (Badger & White, 2000).

Writing in the process approach is perceived to be primarily dealing with linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, with hardly much emphasis on grammar and text structure (Badger & White, 2000). As for the stages in writing, there are differing views on this, but it is generally accepted that a typical model would have four stages, namely prewriting, composing/drafting, revising and editing (Tribble, 1996). The process approach in writing can be adopted for any type of writing and this includes academic writing. In teaching academic writing, Tribble (1996) states that the students should first brainstorm in small groups the topic to be discussed in writing as this enables them to generate ideas before they proceed to write. This stage is then followed by preparing an outline of the academic essay and individually composing its first draft. Subsequent to this, students revise their initial drafts and give them to other students for

peer-reviewing and feedback. The final stage in this process writing engages the writer in editing the essay to eradicate all forms of language errors. Thus, the focus of this approach is on the process rather than the product. The process approach has received a lot of attention in Malaysia. One study asserts that the process approach is more effective than other traditional approaches in helping Malaysian university students overcome writing apprehension (Siti Hanim Stapa, 1998).

According to Silva, Reichelt, and Lax-Farr (1994), the literature on ESL writing instruction for undergraduates has primarily focused on improving the writing ability of these undergraduates through developing writing programmes. In designing such a programme, Silva, Reichelt, and Lax-Farr (1994) developed an EAP course which focused on academic and professional writing in a process oriented approach and found that students responded positively to the course although they were initially apprehensive about writing in English. However, one concern highlighted in the research was that students perceived the course as taking up valuable time which, otherwise, would have been better spent working on projects related to their own field of study. These ESL students also indicated that they expected teachers to take on an authoritarian role sometimes, even in a learner-centre classroom environment that promoted student collaboration and employed a 'transmission model of instruction' (Silva, Reichelt, & Lax-Farr, 1994, p. 201).

Furthermore, peer-reviewing received mixed reactions as students did not see any merit, especially in serving as resources in addressing grammar

and other linguistic issues. In fact, there was a general appreciation of and requests for individual conferences with the teacher and the use of written models. This issue of providing models, however, gives rise to the notion of stifling creativity and learning by risking 'unproductive imitation' (Silva, Reichelt, & Lax-Farr, 1994, p. 203). This, however, was rather debatable as reluctance to provide such a model may be more disabling than facilitative.

In a study on academic writing involving Arab postgraduate students of the college of business at a Malaysian university, Fadi Maher Saleh Al-Khasawneh (2010) found that the students faced several problems in vocabulary, grammar, organization of ideas and spelling, as well as referencing. They attributed their problems in English to their weak foundation, environment, and methods of teaching English in their respective countries. As a solution to these problems, they suggested that their lecturers correct the grammar in their written assignments and initiate discipline specific writing classes and increase the number of writing tasks so that they can develop their writing ability in academic writing.

Also, the importance of the affective factors in writing instruction cannot be emphasised enough as they may be the cause of the problems learners face with writing and this affect may be referred to by terms such as 'writers' perceptions and beliefs' and 'writers' personal knowledge' (Muhammad Abdel Latif, 2007).

Although research on the learning strategies used by students in various second and foreign languages has been extensive, research on their effectiveness in helping less successful language students enhance their performance through learning strategy instruction has been rather limited (Chamot, 2004). In this respect, the SRSD model (Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999) may be just the model to achieve this objective among students as it provides explicit strategy training equipping students with strategies that are both cognitive and metacognitive in nature which encourage students to reflect and self-regulate the task they have at hand. This model also promotes self-efficacy and independent learning among them.

2.6 The Self-Regulated Strategy Development Model

Hayes and Flower's (1980) seminal work on the process of composing has led to considerable research in understanding the cognitive processes involved in writing in the last 30 years. However, in spite of the progress made in this area, the existing models of writing and descriptions of the development of writing are still inadequate. Several new models of writing (Hayes, 1996; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997) have emerged suggesting that writing is a complex and challenging task with the sub-processes in the composing process occurring recursively. The models also suggest that a high degree of self-regulation is crucial in skilled writing, as writing is perceived to be self-initiated, self-planned and self-sustained in order to manage the writing environment, the topic constraints and the composing processes (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). These writing sub-processes, namely planning, selecting and organising, translating and revising, are extensively self-regulated in skilled writing (Graham & Harris, 2000).

Harris, Graham and their associates have postulated that students can be trained to be effective writers through a process approach-based writing programme that incorporates cognitive as well as self-regulated strategy instruction (Harris & Graham, 1996; Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1991). Such a writing programme with its mode of autonomous or self-regulatory learning, can be examined within the framework of Bandura's (1986; 1997) social cognitive theory that factors self-efficacy and self-regulation. According to this theory, self-efficacy and self-regulation are key factors in students' learning and achievement. These two factors in turn are promoted by modelling which is another important variable in this theory (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007).

Schunk and Zimmerman's (1997) model of the development of self-regulatory abilities that is based on the social cognitive perspective has influenced the SRSD model, specifically in its self-regulation component. Their model comprises four levels of development, namely observation, imitation, self-control, and self-regulation. According to this model, self-regulation is defined as the 'process whereby students activate and sustain cognitions, behaviours and affects, which are systematically oriented towards attainment of their goals' (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994, p. 309). Zimmerman (2000) posits that self-regulated students are active participants in their learning and are capable of self-regulating aspects of their learning behaviours, environment, and internal cognitive and affective processes. Self-efficacy, or an individual's personal judgment of his or her ability to reach a set goal, plays a significant role in the attainment of self-regulation. Research has correlated self-efficacy with enhanced learner motivation, academic performance, and overall achievement (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Self-efficacy is indicated as the key to promoting students' engagement and learning.

The SRSD model is an integrated approach to teaching strategies based principally on Bandura's social cognitive theory as well as four other theoretical perspectives (Wong, Harris, Graham, & Butler, 2003). The first source of influence was Meichenbaum's (1977) cognitive-behavioural intervention model, which involved Socratic dialogue as well as stages of intervention. Likewise, the SRSD model was devised having several stages of instruction with emphasis given to the role of dialogue or discussion in its mode of delivery. Secondly, the SRSD's components of self-regulation and modelling were derived from the works of researchers such as Vygotsky, Luria, and Sokolov concerning the social origins of self-control and the development of the mind while the third source of influence on SRSD was the work of Deshler, Schumaker, and their colleagues concerning the validation of acquisition steps for strategies among adolescents with LD (Deshler, Alley, Warner, & Schumaker, 1981). The fourth influence was from the research done on the development of self-control, metacognition, and strategy instruction by Brown, Campione, and Day (1981).

Using the SRSD approach, student writers are taught to set goals, select appropriate strategies to accomplish a writing task while at the same time generate self-instructions that would motivate and help them fulfil the task accordingly (Zimmerman, 1998). According to Zimmerman, the students learn to manage time effectively, create effective environmental settings, monitor progress, self-evaluate performance, seek help when needed and reward themselves or impose consequences based upon personal performance.

This SRSD model which focuses on the development of the strategies for composing and self-regulation in tandem (Harris, Graham, Mason, & Saddler,

2002) is designed 'to make the use of strategies automatic, routine and flexible' (p. 110). It is devised to enhance writing development in three areas, namely the learners' strategic behaviour, knowledge and motivation and is found to be compatible with other theories related to promoting competence in a subject-matter domain (Alexander, 1992; Harris & Alexander,1998; Pintrich & Schunk,1996, cited in Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006). Students with LD have been found to have a negative attitude towards writing (Harris & Graham, 1999) and they tend to produce writing which is shorter, less coherent and poorer in terms of quality. This model, then known as self-control strategy training, was, therefore, designed to empower these students at elementary level with writing and self-regulation strategies such as planning, drafting and revising as well as goal setting and self-monitoring that would help them improve the quality of their writing (Graham & Harris, 2003; Wong, Harris, Graham, & Butler, 2003).

The SRSD model, therefore, continued to be extensively researched particularly in the field of writing with more than 40 studies to date, involving learners who are struggling writers, mainly children and adolescents with or without LD (Tracy, Reid, & Graham, 2009). The focus of SRSD research has mainly been on the strategies for planning, drafting and revising in genres such as stories, narratives, and persuasive essays, where SRSD-instructed students have been found to produce essays that are longer, better organised schematically and better expressed qualitatively (Graham, 2006a; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Graham & Perin, 2007c). Improvement in writing was also evident in high achieving students who were instructed using the SRSD model (De La Paz, 1999) and adults who were preparing for general equivalency diploma (GED) examinations (Berry & Mason, 2010; MacArthur & Lembo, 2009). The SRSD model of instruction has

also improved self-efficacy, attributions, and attitude towards writing while enabling short-term maintenance of the learnt strategies and generalization of performance across settings, teachers, and even medium of writing (Harris & Graham, 1999).

Recent research has proved that the SRSD model is effective in helping student writers improve in their attitude towards writing and the writing processes particularly in the areas of self-regulating their writing strategies, developing ideas, organising and revising the content (Schnee, 2010). The focus was on writing stories. Similar findings were reported by Zumbrunn (2010) who investigated the SRSD intervention on writing stories and indicated that the children also showed improvement in their writing self-efficacy. Rogers (2010) demonstrated that the SRSD story-writing intervention carried out by nonprofessional adult volunteers on children who were struggling writers, had positive effects on the writing quality and story length as well as maintenance of the strategy.

SRSD studies on adults and adolescents appear to be limited as the focus of this strategy instruction has been mainly on children. Dahlman (2010) investigated the use of SRSD model in teaching academic writing to first year college (FYC) students. The study tried to determine what pedagogical techniques were most effective in the FYC classroom in raising student self-efficacy. Biedenbach (2004) focused on the effects of employing the SRSD model in teaching basic writing to 'at risk' college students on their perceived self-regulatory efficacy and improvement in their writing skills. The study indicated the importance of knowing the self-beliefs of students at the onset of a course and found that

students with improved writing performance were those who showed an increase in their perceived self-regulatory efficacy for writing and who maintained their self-monitoring and self-regulation within the established system of goal-setting.

Few studies (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Mourad, 2009) have looked at the writing performance of ESL students in an SRSD intervention programme. Mourad (2009) investigated the writing performance of ESL students with LD in Egyptian secondary schools while Garcia and Fidalgo (2008) investigated 5th and 6th grade Spanish students with LD.

The lack of writing skills among others minimizes students' opportunity to learn as it hinders them from expressing the ideas and the knowledge they have gained from their studies (Graham & Perin, 2007c). These poorly developed writing skills may ultimately affect the students' goals in furthering their academic and professional career (Kellogg & Raulerson, 2007; Mason & Graham, 2008). Harris, Graham, Brindle, and Sandmel (2009) revealed that students and adults, who struggle with writing, will not or cannot engage themselves in this activity. Consequently, they may end up severely handicapped in the present world as they cannot realize their educational, professional and individual potentials. These circumstances strongly suggest that writing instruction to remedy this problem has to incorporate strategy training to improve writing ability along with strategies to promote self-efficacy.

Recent research on student motivation posits that 'all the aspects of engagement as well as learning and achievement are reciprocally related' and that 'self-efficacy [which is a construct of motivation] can lead to more engagement and,

subsequently, to more learning and better achievement' (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003, p. 123). To facilitate students' writing at college level, writing instruction needs to focus on academic writing and the self-regulation of planning, text generation, and reviewing through metacognitive control of these processes (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). This view that is also endorsed by Hyland (2006, p.1, cited in Tribble, 2009) who describes teaching academic writing or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as: 'teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language' should be given more instructional importance at college level as it has been perceived as a useful tool for learning (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000).

Raising writing self-efficacy, or the belief about one's writing skills, is also important, as there is a direct relationship between self-efficacy and achievement in the subject (Shell, 1989, cited in Lavelle, 2006). However, higher self-efficacy alone is not enough to become better writers. Students also need to be provided with instruction on effective strategies for the writing process (planning, organizing, writing and revising strategy) and they need to be trained for self-regulation (goal setting and self-evaluation) (Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005) in a learning environment that allows them to get feedback from the learning community consisting of peers and the instructor. Such a setting is supportive of learner autonomy as students learn to co-construct knowledge rather than function as mere recipients of instruction. In this environment, learners are encouraged to make necessary changes to their goals and plans in the learning process.

The present study attends to the challenge of helping low-proficiency students improve their writing skills by introducing them to a method of learning that trains them in writing strategies, as well as self-regulation, and develops their self-efficacy. Research has indicated that when learners are highly efficacious, they put in more effort into the given task and there is engagement in their learning (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Self-efficacy is linked to motivation and this can result in improved performance (Zumbrunn, 2010). This model was initially designed to empower students at elementary level who had learning difficulties, with writing and self-regulation strategies such as goal setting and self-monitoring that would help them improve the quality of their writing and succeed in their studies (Case, Harris, & Graham, 1992; Cassel & Reid, 1996; Danoff, Harris, & Graham, 1993; Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham & Harris, 1993; Johnson, Graham, & Harris, 1997). Recent research has proved that the SRSD model is effective in helping student writers improve in their writing processes particularly in the areas of self-regulating their writing strategies, developing ideas and organising the content (Schnee, 2010). Moreover, it has been reported in recent studies that examined the effectiveness of this model that it has been successfully adapted to help students at various levels of studies pursuing courses as diverse as reading, writing and mathematics (Berry & Mason, 2010; Hagaman & Reid, 2008; Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006; Mason, 2004; Nelson, Benner, & Mooney, 2008).

The SRSD model was developed based on Harris' research on cognitive-behavioural interventions for children and Graham's early work on children's writing (Wong, Harris, Graham, & Butler, 2003). Although the model had been initially developed to help students with learning disabilities (LD) (Graham, 1990;

Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham & Harris, 1993; Graham & Harris, 1994; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992), the model has been successful in helping all kinds of students, whether they are children (Adkins, 2005; Asaro-Saddler & Saddler, 2010; De La Paz, 1999; Santangelo, Harris, & Graham, 2007; Tracy, Reid, & Graham, 2009), adolescents (Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005; Delano, 2007; Jacobson & Reid, 2010; Kiuhara, 2009; Mourad, 2009) or adults (Biedenbach, 2004; Berry & Mason, 2010; Dahlman, 2010; MacArthur & Lembo, 2009), with or without LD.

Research (Berry & Mason, 2010; Biedenbach, 2004; Dahlman, 2010; Danoff, Harris, & Graham, 1993; De La Paz, 1999; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; MacArthur & Lembo, 2009) employing this model in regular classroom settings or in case studies has shown this model to be effective in developing the writing skills of normally achieving students. Despite this, SRSD research on normally achieving students as well as low-proficiency students per se is limited. This situation calls for more research involving these students as they appear among the majority in any educational setting. The need for such a research is even greater now that writing is perceived as an essential tool for learning and a difficult skill to master.

More research is needed to investigate how low-proficiency or low achievers can be trained to become more self-regulated and successful in their writing. This model has been highly validated both theoretically and empirically by writing research investigating its effectiveness in improving students' strategies, self-regulation, content knowledge and motivation (Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998; Graham & Harris, 2003; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Pintrich & Schunk,

1996, cited in Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006).

Stage 1:   Develop Background knowledge ←

Stage 2:   Discuss it

Stage 3:   Model it

Stage 4:   Memorise it

Stage 5:   Support it

Stage 6:   Independent Performance

*Arrows indicate possible combinations of the strategy stages for lesson planning; stages may be recursive, reordered, or combined according to students' and teachers' needs
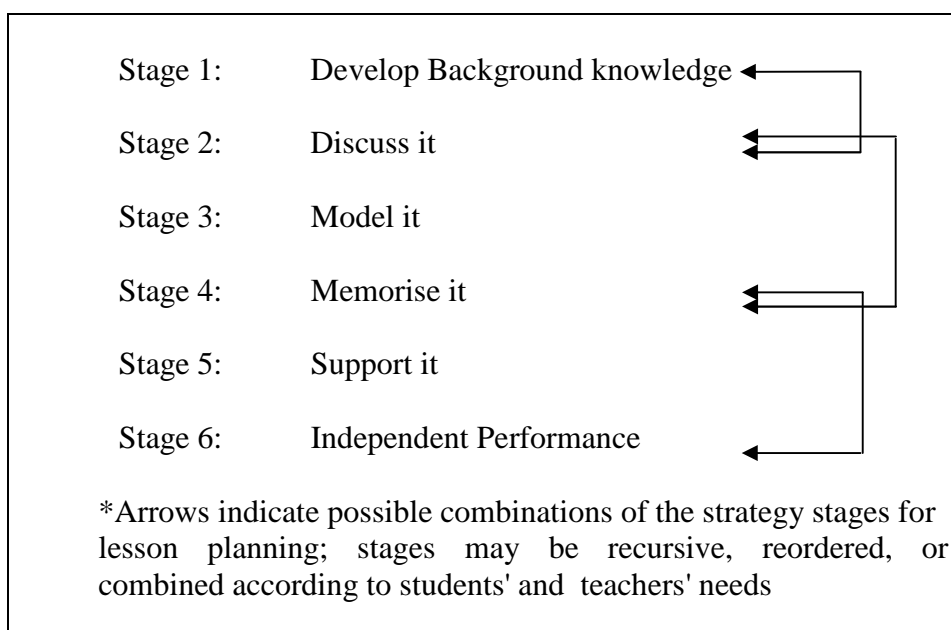
Figure 2.3:   Stages of strategy instruction in the SRSD model

Source: Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (1996). *Making the writing process work: Strategies for composition and self-regulation.* Brookline, MA: Brookline Books, p.27

The model (refer to Figure 2.3), with its six stages of instruction which are recursive and flexible, has been widely used in the teaching of writing in various conditions such as the integration of SRSD into the process approach to writing (Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1991; Harris & Graham, 1996; MacArthur, Graham, Schwartz, & Schafer, 1995). A detailed description of the model is presented in Chapter Three.

With SRSD, students learn through collaboration in developing strategies for planning and revising as well as procedures for regulating the application of these strategies, the writing task, and individual cognitive and behavioural attributes (such as impulsivity) that may adversely affect writing performance (Sexton, Harris, & Graham, 1998). This approach has been successful in helping students

with LD develop strategies for brainstorming and planning (Harris & Graham, 1996; Tracy, Reid, & Graham, 2009), using text structure to generate possible writing content (Danoff, Harris, & Graham, 1993; De La Paz & Graham, 1997; Graham & Harris, 1989a), setting goals (Graham, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1995), peer response in revising (MacArthur, Schwartz, & Graham, 1991), revising for both mechanics and substance (Graham & MacArthur, 1988; Schnee, 2010) and generalisation as well as maintenance of strategies learnt (Graham & Harris, 1989a; Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006).

According to Harris and Graham (1996; 1999), SRSD aids young writers in mastering higher level cognitive processes connected to writing, monitoring and regulating their use of effective writing strategies, developing positive attitudes about the writing process, and perceiving themselves as proficient writers. To date, over 40 studies using SRSD in the field of writing have been published (Tracy, Reid, & Graham, 2009) indicating that SRSD has made a significant impact on children's development of a variety of planning and revising strategies. Writing strategies have been developed, typically with teacher and peer support, for a variety of genres, such as narratives, story writing, persuasive essays, report writing, and so on. The focus of research on SRSD leads to improvements in students' performance: quality of writing, knowledge of writing, approach to writing, and self-efficacy (Harris & Graham, 1999). The quality, length and structure of students' compositions have improved; depending on the strategy taught, improvements have also been documented in planning, revising, substantive content and mechanical concerns. These improvements have occurred among normally achieving students as well as students with learning problems, although most normally achieving students do not need as much time or extensive

support in learning the self-regulation and writing strategies.

Although the SRSD model focuses on children's writing, this model can be applied to learners of all ages and various genres (Santangelo, Harris, & Graham, 2007). As the model has been used mainly in writing instruction involving children, the focus has been on writing stories and narratives (Lane, Harris, Graham, Weisenbach, Brindle, & Morphy, 2008; Lienemann, Graham, Leader-Janssen, & Reid, 2006; Rogers, 2010), with research findings revealing lasting improvements in story completeness, length, and quality. The model's application on instruction related to writing opinion or persuasive essays, and expository essays has also shown similar promising results (Lienemann & Reid, 2008; Jacobson & Reid, 2010; Kiuhara, 2009; Sexton, Harris, & Graham, 1998). Studies have examined the use of the model in more advanced genres involving synthesis of information from various sources and summary writing (Helsel & Greenberg, 2007; Reynolds & Perin, 2009) using an SRSD strategy known as PLAN&WRITE for intervention and obtained promising results.

In fact, several meta-analysis studies on the effectiveness of strategy training (Graham, 2006a; Graham & Harris, 2003; Graham & Perin, 2007b) have revealed that instructing students on the strategies for planning, revising and editing by employing the SRSD model has resulted in significant improvement in the quality of writing. For instance, Graham and Harris (2003) reported a large average unweighted effect size of 1.47 for writing quality for students with learning disabilities from Grade 3 to 8 in their analysis of studies using the SRSD model for writing instruction. This large average unweighted effect size (1.14) for writing quality was also evident in the SRSD-based studies analysed by Graham

(2006a) in his study of research involving various forms of writing strategy instruction for students from Grade 2 to 10. Graham's (2006a) meta-analysis also proved that this model had a greater impact on promoting generalization of strategies to new tasks and maintenance of strategies over time compared to other forms of writing strategy training.

The SRSD model which is based on the socio-cognitive theory of Bandura (1986) and Zimmerman's model of self-regulated learning (1989) fosters the development of self-regulatory strategies to strengthen students' writing skills (Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006). Instruction using the SRSD model is ideal for teaching students who are academically weak and find themselves struggling in learning subjects such as writing, reading, mathematics and those involving problem solving. The SRSD based strategy instruction is able to address their multiple cognitive, behavioural, and affective challenges (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2003; Harris, Graham, Brindle, & Sandmel, 2009) and has been shown to have significant effect on students' knowledge of writing, quality of writing and approach to writing (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006; Mourad, 2009; Zumbrunn, 2010).

Studies on SRSD have also investigated the impact of this model on students' self-efficacy (Biedenbach, 2004; Dahlman, 2010; Garcia & Fidalgo, 2006; Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Graham & Harris, 1999; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Zumbrunn, 2010). In some studies, self-efficacy increased with SRSD instruction (Dahlman, 2010; Garcia & Fidalgo, 2006; Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, & Page-Voth, 1992; Zumbrunn, 2010) while others indicated no significant change following treatment by SRSD (Garcia &

Fidalgo, 2008; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Page-Voth & Graham, 1999; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992). These contradicting findings are the result of differences in variables such as the background of the subjects, gender, self-awareness, instructional experiences as well as deficits in skills (Bandura & Schunk, 2001; Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Klassen, 2007; Pajares & Schunk, 2001) which to a certain extent can result in miscalibration of students' self-efficacy (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, & Page-Voth, 1992; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Klassen, 2002; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992). It is for this reason that the SRSD model needs to be tested and adapted for teaching instruction in differing learning environments.

Dahlman (2010) investigated the use of the SRSD model with a group of 84 first year college students and found that self-efficacy increased and contributed to their academic performance. More specifically, through the use of the model, Dahlman (2010) discovered that factors such as the teacher practices, the manner of selecting assignment questions and the act of providing students with full-credit grading affected the students' self-efficacy. The study found that SRSD instruction could indeed encourage students to take control of their learning process by training them to set and monitor achievable goals. Even when goals were not achieved, SRSD instruction enabled students to evaluate what might have been done differently or what behaviour could be changed in order to put themselves back on track to achieve their goals. Also, the study concluded that students with low self-efficacy were unable to deal with any topic in writing simply because they doubted their ability and did not want to engage in activities

where they knew they would fail. In contrast, students with high self-efficacy viewed the same situation as a challenge.

Similarly, Biedenbach (2004) in her study focused on the effects of the SRSD model in teaching basic writing to 'at risk' college students on their perceived self-regulatory efficacy and improvement in their writing skills. The study demonstrated the importance of understanding the students' self-beliefs at the onset of a course and found that students with improved writing performance were those who showed an increase in their perceived self-regulatory efficacy for writing and who maintained self-monitoring and self-regulation within the established system of goal-setting. SRSD instruction was also found to help improve the writing of adults preparing for general equivalency diploma (GED) examinations (Berry & Mason, 2010; MacArthur & Lembo, 2009).

All these studies show that SRSD intervention enables strategic knowledge to be enhanced by teaching students the more complex strategies for dealing with academic tasks (Graham & Harris, 2003). The body of research on this SRSD model has indicated that this model has been adopted for teaching various strategies that are related to a wide range of genres such as narratives, story writing, persuasive essays, expository writing and report writing. However, no study has examined the use of this model in teaching academic writing to a group of low-proficiency ESL students. In fact, there was an attempt to examine the SRSD intervention (Nguyen, 2008) as probable means of developing learner autonomy in an ESL academic writing class where the Vietnamese students appeared to possess a low level of learner autonomy. This notion, however, was not supported by any study involving these students. It is for this reason that the

fourth research question has been posed in the present study. It is hoped that by examining the strengths and weaknesses of an ESL academic writing course based on the SRSD model, effective strategies can be developed to teach such students to become more autonomous in their learning.

2.7   Summary

This chapter has reviewed several broad but interrelated areas of scholarship relevant to the research problem of the present study. Having looked at the concept of Learner Autonomy and its relation to key concepts such as self-efficacy and self-regulation, the review of literature turned to language learning strategies, which then provides the backdrop for understanding the Self-Regulated Strategy Development Model, upon which the present study is reliant. This chapter also reviewed the challenges faced by ESL students with process writing because in this study, the SRSD model is tested for its effectiveness in helping ESL learners address the challenges in mastering academic writing that is taught through the process approach. The following chapter outlines the procedures followed for data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This study examines how strategy training in an academic writing course based on Harris and Graham's (1996, 1999) SRSD model, affects the self-efficacy, learning strategies and writing skills of low-proficiency Malay learners of English as a Second Language.

This chapter reports on the selection of research subjects, development of research instruments, and the organisation of the research procedure that was followed for data collection and analysis.

3.1 Location of the Study

The present study is located at Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), a public university in Malaysia. Because of national policies, UiTM only accepts Malaysian *Bumiputra* students. *Bumiputra* is a Malay term used in Malaysia, to denote the ethnic Malays, Javanese, Bugis, Minang and other indigenous ethnic groups such as Orang Asli in Peninsular Malaysia and the tribal people in Sabah and Sarawak (Latisha Asmaak Shafie, Anis Maesin, Nazira Osman, Surina Nayan, & Mahani Mansor, 2010). The majority of these *Bumiputra* students are Malays, resulting in a largely homogenous student body on campus. With most students preferring to communicate in the Malay language, mastery of English is a challenge even though the medium of instruction at the university is English.

To help students achieve the desired level of proficiency in English, UiTM, like other Malaysian public universities, require students to take English language courses. In UiTM, as many as 21 language courses are offered to pre-degree and degree students (http://apb.uitm.edu.my/v1/), with most students completing an average of 3 to 5 English language papers in their pre-degree programme and about 2 to 3 language papers in their degree programme (Zarina Suriya Ramlan, Academic Coordinator, Academy of Language Studies, UiTM, personal communication, January 12, 2010). However, classroom sizes are large and contact with lecturers limited. Constraints such as these result in less time for practice in writing (Chan & Ain Nadzimah Abdullah, 2004). As a result, language lecturers at UiTM have to turn to concepts such as independent or self-directed learning as a probable means of helping students achieve the desired level of proficiency in the quickest way possible.

Newly structured schemes of work for language proficiency courses at UiTM apportion learning time outside the classroom (referred to in UiTM's course documents as 'Students' Learning Time'), designed to accommodate the hours of independent work that students are required to do. This reflects the institution's expectation that learners should be capable of taking control of their learning. For example, in courses such as academic writing or report writing, students are required to work on their own at seeking information for their written projects. However, studies indicate otherwise. For example, studies by Puvaneswary and Thang (2010) and Thang (2007) have reported that many Malaysian students find independent learning a challenge for which they are ill-prepared.

Since an autonomous learner is someone who has "a higher sense of self-efficacy or confidence in [his] own learning ability" (Yin, 2008, p. 1), the challenge in creating autonomous learners of ESL in Malaysian institutions of higher education has to do with helping students improve their self-efficacy, equipping them with academic as well as self-regulated strategies. This study aims to investigate the extent to which this can be achieved through the adaptation of the SRSD model.

3.2 The Subjects

The subjects in the study come from four ESL classes at UiTM, taught by three English language lecturers, of which the researcher is one.

3.2.1 The ESL Learners

The sample or subjects chosen for this quasi-experimental study were based on purposive sampling as random sampling is not possible when conducting a study in a classroom setting, which is experimental in nature (Coronado-Aliegro, 2006). Moreover, according to Merriam (1990), purposive sampling is necessary if 'one needs to select a sample from which one can learn the most' (p.48). In this study, as the objective was to gain insights on how low-proficiency Malay ESL students responded to the explicit strategy instruction provided by the SRSD model in terms of their writing skills, self-efficacy and learning strategies, purposive sampling was therefore crucial to this research. As such, the students involved in the study were from two faculties where records of past performance in the English examination had been rather poor. The sample, in fact, comprised the entire population of students taking the compulsory EAP course in their diploma programmes. As the focus of the study was

on low-proficiency students, the high proficiency students were weeded out. As there were only four groups based on enrolment at the two faculties, two that were assigned to the researcher served as the treatment group. This was necessary as only the researcher was familiar with the SRSD model and there was no possibility of training other instructors to employ this method of instruction as teaching load was only made known just before the semester started. The remaining two groups in these faculties, therefore, served as the control group.

The sample of the study consisted of 66 Malay ESL learners from the Faculty of Art and Design and the Faculty of Music. Thirty-three of them (12 from the Faculty of Art and Design and 21 from the Faculty of Music) from two intact classes formed the treatment group. The students who were 18 to 23 years of age were in the third semester of their four-year diploma programme. Prior to taking the EAP course (BEL311) this semester, they had taken two semesters of English Proficiency courses, namely BEL120 and BEL260. As such, the EAP approach to writing was unfamiliar to them.

The control group was comparable to the treatment group in terms of demographics (Table 3.1). This group also had 33 students (10 from the Faculty of Art and Design and 23 from the Faculty of Music) from two intact classes. The control group comprised 18 male and 15 female students who were between the ages of 18 and 22. The mean value for the two groups was the same (19.2). These groups with 33 students each complied with the minimum required figure for statistical analysis

indicated by researchers (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2006).

Table 3.1   Demographics of students

| | Sex | | Total | Age | | | |
	Male	Female		Mean	SD	Max	Min
Treatment	21	12	33	19.2	0.9	23.0	18.0
Control	18	15	33	19.2	0.7	22.0	18.0

Also, it must be noted that these groups were homogenous, as they comprised Malay students who had a low proficiency in English. This was validated through a pre-instruction essay that was administered to all the students in these groups at the start of the study. It was found that their IELTS scores for writing generally ranged from 2.38 to 4.25 with only four students scoring more than 4.5 in the scale which ranged from 0 to 9. Those who scored below 4.25 were categorised as extremely limited and limited users based on the IELTS band and were, therefore, identified as low-proficiency students for the purpose of this study. The four students who scored more than 4.5 were classified as moderate users; ergo, they are considered to be of average proficiency (refer to Appendix I for IELTS band scores). This being the case, the four were not included in the sample that initially consisted of 72 students. Two more had to leave on medical grounds, thus leaving only 66 students as participants in the study. As the existing sample appeared to be homogenous and exceeded the minimum requirement of 30 for statistical analysis, the statistical data derived from this sample was considered to be valid. However, due to the limited

sample size, caution must be exercised when making any generalisations from the findings.

3.2.2 The ESL Instructors

In total, five ESL lecturers were involved in this study. As explained in the introduction to section 3.2, three lecturers were involved in directly teaching the research subjects, with the researcher teaching the treatment group. Two other lecturers were involved in the study in their capacity as raters who had to grade the pre and post instruction written protocols. The ESL lecturers involved in teaching the treatment and the control groups had 23 to 28 years of teaching experience and had been involved in teaching and grading EAP writing at UiTM ever since the EAP course (BEL311) was introduced to diploma students in July, 2008. This is necessary as these lecturers were in a better position to understand and help the students with their writing problems. Moreover, it was found that not all ESL lecturers at the university were familiar with the requirements of academic English so it was necessary in this study to ensure that the lecturers were well-equipped to teach these students.

The researcher taught two classes of students, one from the faculty of Art and Design and another from the faculty of Music and employed the SRSD model in teaching the EAP course. In her capacity as a researcher as well as an instructor, she had to maintain a firm balance between the 'healthy scepticism of the researcher' and her 'ingratiation into a culture' from the point of view of ethnographic research while at the same time recognising as Coffey (1999, p.22) puts it, 'the situatedness of the self as part of the

cultural setting.' From Coffey's point of view, it is difficult for a researcher to be involved in and at the same time be distanced from the study. Despite this limitation, this method of investigation enabled the researcher to study the students in a more natural environment and gain more insights from her observations and interactions with them. To offset the loss of objectivity, the researcher collected data through various methods. Kantor, Kirby, and Goetz (1981, cited in Liebman-Kleine, 1987) suggest that the use of multiple methods also enables researchers to achieve some measure of validity through the triangulation of data. This was necessary as 'no one source was completely objective and reliable' (Liebman-Kleine, 1987, p.104).

The two raters who volunteered to grade the pre and post instruction written protocols had also been involved in teaching and grading EAP writing at UiTM. One rater was a 42-year-old female lecturer holding a Masters degree in Language Studies and Linguistics from Universiti Sains Malaysia with 10 years' teaching experience. The other rater was a 50-year-old female lecturer holding a Masters degree in Literature from Universiti Putra Malaysia with 26 years' teaching experience. Both served on the resource team for EAP writing and were involved in the setting and marking of examination papers in the EAP course at UiTM.

3.3   Pilot Study

The pilot study was carried out in two stages. This was carried out to evaluate the appropriateness of the research instruments and procedure, and in doing so, take appropriate measures to rectify any shortcomings (Nunan, 1992).

3.3.1 Stage One

A 13-week study was conducted at the outset of this research and it involved thirty students who were enrolled in an academic writing course in the third semester of their Pre-Law programme at UiTM. First, a two-day pilot testing of the questionnaires and written protocols was carried out for the purpose of refining these instruments.

This stage of the study revealed several weaknesses in the approach taken for data collection and helped determine the final data collection procedure. Firstly, several questionnaires were administered to obtain information on the students' background and their self-assessment of their writing ability. One was administered at the beginning and another at end of the 13-week period to evaluate the effectiveness of SRSD instruction. In addition, other questionnaires such as the learning style questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire, and the writing self-efficacy questionnaire were administered both as pre and post instruction protocols. The use of numerous questionnaires made the students feel uneasy and took up time that could have been used more effectively for strategy instruction. The use of multiple questionnaire resulted in too many variables being investigated although the learning style and self-assessment questionnaires were administered primarily to raise awareness among students about their learning style as well as the strengths and weaknesses in their language ability. Although this practice is part of the psychological preparation that is advocated in learner training and is intended to promote learner autonomy (Dickinson, 1992; Lum, 1993), the use of multiple questionnaires was clearly a burden to the

research subjects and this was considered in the final research design. The number of questionnaires was thus reduced to only three compared to the six, which were used earlier.

Stage One also revealed that the weekly two-hour sessions allocated for SRSD instruction were insufficient and the effect of this writing strategy instruction on the Pre-Law students was questionable as these students were already doing two other courses in English which involved reading and writing for academic purposes. Therefore, the results of the study, which indicated a favourable response to strategy training, may have partly been influenced by the instruction provided in these two courses. Also, as there was only one group of students taking the third semester Pre-Law programme at the time of the study, it was not possible to validate the findings in the absence of a control group. Pre-Law students were initially the subjects of the study as they were the only ones doing EAP course at the time of the study and also, it was the intention of the researcher to investigate students' response to the SRSD instruction in academic writing which is vital for their academic success.

Based on these insights, changes were incorporated into the design of the present study. One major change involved the selection of subjects for the study. The aim of the present study is to investigate how students who have not had any prior training in EAP manage their writing tasks. Another change was in the selection of the EAP course as the earlier course did not offer the researcher sufficient time to effectively apply elements of the SRSD model. It was therefore decided that another EAP

course, namely English for Academic Purposes (BEL 311) would be a better option as it was a six-hour a week course focusing on reading, writing and speaking. This course would allow the researcher-cum-instructor to utilise at least four hours a week for SRSD writing instruction.

Besides that, the number of questionnaires administered was also reduced to just three compared to the six distributed in Stage One of the Pilot Study. However, this was done without compromising the intent of providing some form of psychological preparation in learner training. Certain elements from the learning style questionnaire (i.e. independent learner or group learner, and preference for oral expressiveness or written expressiveness) as well as the self-assessment questionnaire were included in an adapted version of the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability questionnaire (Appendix C).

The evaluation questionnaire for the SRSD writing course, on the other hand, was replaced with interview sessions to elicit information on the progress of the learner and the effectiveness of the course while also gaining insights into the impact the SRSD model had on the learner.

Another important improvement to the research instruments was the inclusion of the goal setting component, which is an important strategy in self-regulation (Graham & Harris, 2003). While SRSD has been administered without the goal setting component, research has indicated

that its inclusion is necessary to promote generalisation or transfer of strategies (Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992).

Another change resulting from observations during the pilot study involved the written protocol. It was decided that the research subjects would no longer be given a timed essay to complete in class (Biedenbach, 2004). Instead, they would be allowed to take home their writing assignment and submit the completed typed assignment within a stipulated period of time, in this case within one week's time. This change was necessary in view of the fact that research in EAP and process writing has recognised that writers need time to generate ideas and think over these ideas before composing, and then revising what they have composed (Williams, 2005). This makes the whole exercise more authentic and the research relevant to the process a learner actually goes through for an EAP writing assignment.

3.3.2   Stage Two

In view of the changes made to the research instruments, it was necessary in Stage Two of the pilot study to re-evaluate certain measures before administering them in the full study. In this case, the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale was piloted among 33 semester four students from the Faculty of Art and Design at the beginning of the semester prior to the commencement of lectures. The previously used 12-item Writing Self-efficacy Scale that was adapted from the 10-item Writing Self-efficacy Scale devised by Pajares, Hartley, and Valiante (2001) was found to be inadequate as 50 per cent of

the items focused on the mechanical aspects of writing such as grammar, spelling and punctuation and did not take into consideration the nature of the writing task, which in this case involves EAP. Changes, therefore, needed to be made to the self-efficacy scale as Bandura postulates that a self-efficacy scale should be task specific, meaning that it should be 'tailored to activity domains and assess the multifaceted ways in which self-efficacy beliefs operate within the selected activity domain' (Bandura, 2006, p. 310) .

The purpose of piloting the UPSREW Scale was to check for validity and reliability of the instrument that was developed to measure the self-efficacy in students' self-regulation of their academic writing. Students were asked to assess the strength of their perceived efficacy for each of the 37 items on an 11-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 to 10 where a score of ten indicated a strong belief of being able to do the task presented in the item. This instrument had been adapted from the self-efficacy scales developed by Lavelle (2006), Pajares, Hartley and Valiante (2001), and Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) with the guidelines presented by Bandura (2006). The Cronbach's alpha reliability test that was done to check the consistency of the data yielded a coefficient of $+0.981$ which was above 0.7, thus indicating a high degree of consistency (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The factor analysis that was performed to test the validity of the items tested indicated that the loading factor for all the items was above 0.5 (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010) suggesting that no items or questions need to be deleted for the final data collection process. However, as it had been validated by factor analysis that items 21 and 23 were almost identical, and

also up consulting language experts at the faculty, it was decided that omitting one item would not affect the results. Items 21 and 23 are listed as follows:

21   When I have written a long or complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors.

23   When I edit a complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors.

Therefore, in the interest of refining the self-efficacy instrument for academic writing, item 23 was omitted from the scale as both items 21 and 23 dealt with locating and correcting one's grammatical errors, and this subsequently resulted in the scale having 36 items instead of 37.

While the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability questionnaire (adapted from Morais, 2000) had been piloted at Stage One of the pilot study, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) was not piloted as literature review had already established that reliability tests done on SILL yielded a Chronbach's alpha coefficient ranging from .93 to .98 depending on whether the SILL was in the learner's own language or in L2 (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

In response to the researcher's request, the students involved in the pilot test as well as some semester three students from the Faculty of Music also suggested topics of interest that they would like to write about. It was necessary to gather this data as it would shed light on the type of topics students might be interested in. It was expected that the topics suggested would differ considerably from those preferred by the Pre-Law students in

stage one of the pilot test given the difference in academic pursuits. Consequently, this information would help in formulating the pre and post instruction topics that would be assigned to the students involved in the actual study. Such a practice also ensured that students wrote on topics of high interest or relevance to them (Hidi & Boscolo, 2008) during the pre-test and the post-test sessions. This was necessary as research had revealed that students would be more motivated and thus, would persevere and devote more effort when the topics chosen were of interest to them (Walker, 2003). This mini-survey also enlightened the researcher on the kind of topics that she could use during the SRSD writing instruction. By using topics of interest during instruction, students would be motivated to engage in a given task and persevere in the face of any difficulties by applying the strategies learnt during the exercise.

3.4   Research Instruments

The present study utilised several instruments, namely questionnaires, pre and post instruction written protocols, students' goal setting sheets, their written self-reflections and writing, semi-structured interviews and the researcher's field notes.

In the context of teaching and learning, research has indicated that employing a single approach or method of collecting data may contribute to misleading or restricted data, which can misconstrue the findings of a study (Cohen & Manion, 1989). Therefore, it is necessary that several methods of data collection be utilised in research dealing with human behaviour and attitude, as they can complement and build upon the strengths of the other (Patton, 1990). In this light, the use of

multiple instruments is justified as it promotes the triangulation of various findings and increases the validity of these findings (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2006) while at the same time provides different perspectives to the study.

3.4.1 Questionnaires

In this study, three questionnaires were used, namely the questionnaire on the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability, Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale, and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire. During the administration of these questionnaires, the researcher provided clarification whenever there were any queries from the students. As students had a low proficiency in English, certain words were translated into Malay for them to facilitate understanding.

3.4.1.1 Questionnaire on the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability

This questionnaire on the ESL students' background and writing ability (Appendix C) which was adapted from Morais (2000) was administered in class at the pre-instruction phase for both the treatment and control groups to collect information on the students' demographic profile and their writing ability in English. The questionnaire contained 35 items and had both open ended, as well as closed questions that would be more appropriate for quantitative analysis. It was necessary to include open-ended questions as they tend to provide more meaningful information (Nunan, 1992). In this study, the questionnaire served to provide some insights into the students' needs concerning writing in English and their learning style. It also enabled the researcher-cum-instructor to have a

better understanding of the students involved so that a close rapport could be established between the students and the researcher to facilitate learning and collaborative work.

3.4.1.2 Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale

A 36-item self-efficacy scale known as the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale (Appendix F) was used for measuring the students' self-efficacy for academic writing in English. It was administered in the first week to both the control and the treatment groups. It was constructed based on Bandura's (2006) guidelines and adapted from existing self-efficacy scales following a review of literature (Lavelle, 2006; Pajares, Hartley & Valiante, 2001; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). As advocated by Bandura, the 36-item scale that was developed was presented in gradations of 'can do' to reflect a measure of capability (Bandura, 2006, p.308). The scale, however, ranged from 0 to 10, as it was easier for students to assess their confidence level in this range, instead of that which ranged from 0 to 100 as was recommended by Pajares, Hartley, and Valiante (2001) to improve predictive utility. To prove this point, the questionnaire with the scale ranging from 0 to 100 was administered to a group of 29 students from the Faculty of Artistic and Creative Technology for feedback. Such change, however, was necessary as it was found to offer greater discrimination and predictive utility than the 5-point and the 7-point Likert scale.

It was then decided upon consulting some language experts as well as a statistics expert, who strongly felt that assessing one's self-efficacy in the range of 0 and 100 would be more difficult than if it was from 0 to 10, especially from the standpoint of students. These students were more used to quizzes and tests where the scoring was done on a scale of 1 to 10 than from 1 to 100. As the variability would be greater and more subjective if it was from 0 to 100, it was thus agreed that their scoring of their confidence level would be more reliable if it was based on a scale from 0 and 10. Furthermore, the scale was checked to ensure that it was domain specific to autonomous learning to improve both predictive and explanatory utility within this construct and also the items represented performance impediments to maximize discrimination between respondents (Bandura, 2006). As Bandura suggested, a factor analysis was done following the pilot testing of the scale to determine item homogeneity, that is content validity and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure internal consistency, that is, its reliability. This was reported in the stage two section of the pilot test.

3.4.1.3 The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning or SILL (Oxford, 1990), which was designed for students of English as a second or foreign language, was administered in the first week of the SRSD writing instruction. Students were required to answer a 50-item questionnaire on their use of language learning strategies (Appendix H). This self-reporting questionnaire, which adopted a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "never or almost never true" to "always or almost always true", served to raise

students' awareness of the types of strategies available, the types that they used and their frequency of use. The SILL was re-administered in the 12th week to gauge any changes that might have occurred in the use of language learning strategies due to the writing instruction and provided answers to the third research question. The SILL contains six categories of strategies, namely

(1)   memory strategies for storing and retrieving new information;

(2)   cognitive strategies for manipulating and transforming learning materials;

(3)   compensation strategies for overcoming deficiencies of knowledge in language;

(4)   metacognitive strategies for directing the learning process;

(5)   affective strategies for regulating emotions; and

(6)   social strategies for increasing learning experience with other people.

An instrument that was used in this study to assess the language learning strategies was the English as a second language (ESL)/English as a foreign language (EFL) version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). This strategy survey questionnaire has been widely used to gauge the foreign language learning strategies (McDonough, 2001; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). In the 5-point Likert scale, if the average score is 1.0-2.4, then it is described as low use; 2.5-3.4 as medium use; and 3.5-5.0 as high use (Oxford, 1990). According to published reports, the SILL appears to be the only language learning strategy instrument that has been extensively checked for reliability and validity. The Cronbach's alpha

reliability coefficients, that measure internal consistency, range from 0.89 to 0.98 (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995, p. 4). Its validity as a measure, that is, the degree to which an instrument measures what it claims to assess, has also been proven in numerous studies (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995, p.10).

3.4.2 Pre and Post Instruction Written Protocols

The written protocols used in this strategy instruction, that is the pre and post instruction essays (Appendix A) were administered to both the treatment and control groups at the start of the semester, that is the 1st week for the pretest and in the 12th week for the posttest. As the writing instruction employed the process approach in which students were taught to reflect and revise in a multistage recursive composing activity, the pre- and post instruction written assignments writing were not timed nor confined to a particular venue as is the norm for most written tests. However, students were given a duration of one week to submit their type-written assignment where the stipulated length is 350 words, similar to the length specified in their final examination paper for the writing section. This resulted in a more authentic mode for assessing their writing ability that also ensured validity in the testing. As the course involved is academic writing, students were required to refer to other sources of reference as well as use computer based technology such as word processing.

The topic given for the task was neutral in terms of culture, gender and prior experience, and was of interest to the students. This was ascertained by examining the topics of interest submitted by students during the pilot

test. The probes for the pre and post tests were then finalised upon consultation with two colleagues who also taught the course. Although the probes were closely related to each other in similarity, the topic of the post-test was not the same as that of pre-test. The decision not to provide the same topic for the pre and post tests was made based on the assumption that the element of familiarity may skew results.

The International English Language Testing System or IELTS scale (Appendix B) was used in grading the students' pre and post instruction assignments. This scale was considered appropriate as it has been widely used for assessing the writing proficiency of those wanting to enrol in institutions of higher learning. The band scale for writing ranges from 0 ("Did not attempt the test") to 9 ("Expert User"), and a profile score for this skill is calculated by taking the mean of the scores awarded for the four criteria presented in the IELTS writing scale, that is task response, coherence and cohesion, lexical resource, and grammatical range and accuracy. Each of the four criteria is awarded a score out of 9 as the criteria are equally weighted (Appendix B). These scores are added and then divided by 4. For example, in the pretest, a student may have scored the following:

Task response   5

Coherence and cohesion   3

Lexical resource   3

Grammatical range and accuracy   2

The total is 5+3+3+2=13 and the mean score is 13÷4=3.25

In this study, the scores were not rounded to the next whole band or half band as is the norm for IELTS band scores. Instead, the original scores were retained to reflect the students' performance more accurately.

The benefits of the analytical mode of grading such as that of IELTS are that it discourages norm-referencing and allows greater discrimination across a broad range of assessment bands (nine bands in all) and exercises a greater control over what influences the impressions of examiners, thus preventing an inclination to evaluate impressionistically. It was felt that adopting an analytical approach in this study would enhance the reliability of the marking since it would increase the number of observations, and discourage impressionistic marking. Furthermore, an analytical approach also allowed the students as well as the instructor to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses which could then be used in evaluating and improving students' writing.

The IELTS Academic Writing scale was chosen as the scoring guide for the written protocol in this study as it has been well-researched and used extensively to assess an individual's ability to write in clear, formal English, as this is the requirement that is generally expected in an academic setting. Furthermore, using a standardised internationally recognised grading scale such as the IELTS will ensure greater external reliability and validity through replication of the SRSD studies.

By adopting the IELTS writing scale, this study advocates a different approach to assessing the effectiveness of the SRSD writing instruction in

improving students' academic writing skills. The evaluation was based on the following criteria, that is *task response* which deals with how accurately the task is addressed, *coherence and cohesion* which involves how organized one's writing is, *lexical resource* which refers to the range of one's vocabulary and lastly, grammatical range and accuracy which examines the correctness of one's grammar. A score was assigned to each of these criteria based on the nine bands in the IELTS scale. This provided valuable insights into the development of students' writing as the focus was on assessing students' response to a given writing task by examining whether a clear position was presented, the main ideas were well-developed, with relevant and fully extended supporting details and appropriate conclusion. Also through the coherence and cohesion component, the assessment focused on logical sequencing of ideas and appropriate paragraphing as well as effective use of cohesive devices. Other aspects of writing that were included in the IELTS writing assessment were flexibility and appropriateness in the use of vocabulary, accuracy of spelling and word formation, and good control of structures, grammar and punctuation.

SRSD studies on writing in the past had mainly looked at features such as the overall length, number of essential elements, number of transitions, number of descriptive words and overall quality of the stories, narratives or persuasive essays (Graham & Harris, 2003). This change in assessment was deemed necessary as academic writing in all its complexity should not be assessed in the manner practised in previous SRSD studies.

There were two independent ESL lecturers who rated the pre and post-test scripts. Both of them have vast experience in the teaching of English as a second language, especially the EAP course. They volunteered to co-assess the pre and the post-instruction essays after having gone through a series of moderation sessions with the instructor using the IELTS scale. The two evaluators then assessed all the essays and all their scores were checked if there was any great disparity in assessment. An allowance was made for one to three marks' difference as the scores were to be averaged. However, if the disparity was greater than this, the essay scores were discussed and remarked or resolved by reaching a consensus. Of the 132 scripts marked by each rater, about seven had to be remarked for this reason. On the whole, the Pearson correlation between the scores given by Rater A and Rater B was 0.763. The correlation is significant with p-value less than 0.05. The reliability or consistency of scores between both the raters is thus considered strong with a high correlation value.

3.4.3   Students' Goal Setting Sheets

Distal and proximal goal setting sheets (Appendices G1 & G2) were used in the SRSD instruction in order to introduce the students to the concept of goal setting and the importance of setting long term and short term goals. Goal setting is seen as an important element in this model as it paves the way for self-reflection and self-monitoring which are important processes in self-regulation. At the initial stage, students were asked to specify their long term (distal) and short term (proximal) writing goals, to identify appropriate resources, and to rate the extent of their progress in attempting

to reach their goals. They were subsequently encouraged to set proximal goals for each writing task that they attempted.

3.4.4 Written Self-reflections

Written self-reflections (Appendices E1 & E2) were used in this study to promote self-evaluation and self-monitoring, which are necessary for self-regulation. Students were requested to write their first self-reflection about what they had learnt about academic writing, and the method of instruction that they had received so far that semester and how they planned to improve further in their writing. They were also asked to discuss any changes to their level of confidence where writing was concerned. This was done in week 7. Their second written self-reflection was done in week 10 where they were requested to recall how they went about writing an essay and also discuss their efforts at self-regulation and goal setting. Besides that, they were requested to describe their use of learning strategies and assess their level of confidence. As they were students with low proficiency in English, they were told that they could choose to express themselves in Malay rather than in English in their self-reflections so that they would be more at ease in expressing their thoughts. This option, however, was only taken up by one student.

3.4.5 Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were carried out in two stages with students from the treatment group. At the first stage, interviews were conducted during the goal setting session which started in the fourth week (refer to Appendices G1 & G2, for list of questions). The aim was to illicit

information on variables such as students' attitudes towards self-regulation and writing. The interviews provided the researcher with data to validate and further support data from the questionnaires and goal setting sheets. The interviews allowed the researcher to probe further and get a better understanding of the students' views on writing and self-regulation such as planning and setting goals. The interviews were conducted with the students on a one-to-one basis.

Since the researcher was also the facilitator for the writing instruction class, the students were at ease during the interview sessions as rapport had already been established. They were also reassured that their identities would not be disclosed in reporting the study and that they were permitted to express themselves in Malay, which is their L1 if they were more comfortable in doing so. In fact, the researcher occasionally used Malay during the interviews when she felt that the students were not at ease in expressing their views, or did not understand the question. This was done to encourage them to be more open in revealing their thoughts. However, it needs to be mentioned here that despite their low proficiency and lack of fluency in English, almost all the students made an attempt to respond in English.

A second round of interviews was conducted at the end of the semester, after the final examination (refer to Appendix D2, for list of questions). The aim was to determine if there was maintenance and generalisation of the strategies learnt. The interviews also provided the researcher an opportunity to get feedback from the subjects about how effective they

found the strategy training to be.

All the interviews, with the exception of three were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim adopting guidelines provided by Humble (n.d.). The three had to be interviewed by telephone as they were not available for a face-to-face interview and were in the midst of preparing to return to their home towns after the final examination. Square brackets [ ] are used to modify text or include explanatory remarks in a quote to bring about clarity, as well as denote non-verbal communication such as lengthy pauses and laughter. According to transcribing conventions, square brackets are also used to enclose the term *sic* as in "[sic]" to indicate that the word it follows in the transcribed text is a grammatical error. However, as these ESL students made numerous grammatical errors when they spoke, this convention was not adhered to in the transcription. It was felt that too many insertions of [sic] might prove to be cumbersome and break the flow for the reader. Ellipses (...) are used to indicate that some material has been omitted in the transcription, or that a speaker is continuing from an earlier thought.

3.4.6   Field Notes

The researcher kept field notes on observations made during the writing instruction sessions. These observations which involved students' reaction and behaviour in class in response to the SRSD approach taken in writing instruction proved to be useful in validating the insights obtained from the other measures such as goal setting and the SILL as well as the UPSREW questionnaires used in the study. They were also instrumental in

suggesting ways in which the approach taken at the strategy instruction sessions could be further improved.

3.5   Teaching Material

The material for this course is a textbook of academic writing (Michael et al., 2010) compiled by a group of lecturers at the Department. The material is used as a resource rather than a script. As it is a prescribed textbook for the course, it clearly followed a writing process approach. The book is designed around the syllabus for the EAP course and as such, it was easy to incorporate the SRSD model into the exercises available for either group or individual work. The control group used the same book but without any goal setting or SRSD treatment. It must also be noted here that the checklists for revising as well as editing and proofreading, and the peer and self-evaluations that were used as props to support training in self-regulation in the SRSD treatment group, were from the textbook. As such, these props were also available to the control group.

3.6   Treatment Condition: Adopting the SRSD Model

Several studies (Emig, 1971, cited in Kamimura, 2000, Flower & Hayes, 1980) have indicated that writing instruction that employs a process approach is an effective method of teaching writing. As the writing instruction for the EAP course in this study already takes a process writing approach as recommended by the course developer at the university, the SRSD model was integrated into the existing writing instruction.

By employing this SRSD model, the whole writing process was broken down into specific strategies, which were then taught through the method of teacher

modelling the strategies and students imitating the strategies. Ideally, the writing instruction gradually moves away from being more teacher-directed to being peer-supported. Then, with peer-support, the instruction progresses with more opportunities for students to practise their strategies until finally, they are more self-directed and more self-regulated in their writing.

The aim of this study was to determine if SRSD strategy instruction training could help students become more autonomous in their academic writing by enhancing the students' learning strategies, their self-efficacy and writing skills.

Throughout the writing instruction course, the students in the treatment were taught based on the SRSD model developed by Harris and Graham (1996; 1999). Besides that, the students were also taught to set goals as well as analyse their achievement of these goals based on Alderman (1999). This motivated them to employ the self-regulated strategies as they evaluated their goal achievement. The model with this goal setting component was necessary to train them to regulate their learning. The six stages of SRSD are as follows:

Stage One

Stage one focused on establishing background information where the instructor assessed the students' prior knowledge of the task that is the writing genre and its parts. It was also important that the instructor ensured that the student knew the purpose for writing, which is to communicate his ideas in some form of genre, whether it is a story or a narrative, or to convey information, or to persuade or express an opinion. The student was also reminded to consider the audience or the reader when writing. Here, a model or anchor essays were utilized as a way to

gauge students' knowledge about genre-specific essay components such as a thesis statement in a persuasive essay. Students were then asked to identify these components on a printed essay.

Stage Two

Stage two involved discussing the strategy. Here, the student was also encouraged to assess his needs and to set goals for writing (Appendices G1 & G2). Prior to initiating a strategy, the instructor and students discussed the characteristics of good writers and their approach to writing an essay. The strategy then served as a 'trick' for improving writing. According to the SRSD model, instructors usually introduce resources such as mnemonic charts and graphic organizers to facilitate learning as they describe the strategy. As the subjects of this study were 'normally achieving' tertiary level ESL students, meaning they were without any disabilities, this use of mnemonics was minimised although some mnemonics such *POWeR* referring to the stages in the writing process, that is **P**rewriting, **O**rganising, **W**riting a rough draft, **e**valuating and **R**evising and Rewriting, or *TREE* referring to **T**opic, 3 **R**easons for one's view, **E** for examples or elaborations and finally **E** for ending had been used from time to time to promote memory. This, however, was necessary with the weaker students who had poor retention problem. Generally, the instructor used a sample essay to facilitate discussion about how to improve an essay by examining its parts. Students were also introduced to the notion of setting goals and the need for this was highlighted to them. A mini lecture about goal setting was given, and this was followed by a discussion to create awareness of the importance of setting goals. In the case of EAP, students at this stage were also introduced to the idea of brain-storming and planning, as well as sourcing for relevant materials.

Stage Three

Stage three involved modelling, which is fundamental to the teaching of most strategies, especially from the social cognitive perspective (Bandura, 1989). This technique is important when it comes to teaching writing. During the strategy instruction, the instructor modelled a writer's cognitions ("think aloud") to show how and when to use the strategy. In the case of young learners, reference could be made to supporting materials such as charts and organizers while modelling. This instruction phase was crucial as it enabled the instructor to illustrate the process of planning and writing a well-organized essay. Students were taught through the stages of the writing process to complete each essay assignment and within each stage of the process, writing strategies were introduced and practised.

The approach for this study involved a five-stage process as indicated in the prescribed EAP textbook for the diploma students at this university (Michael et al., 2010). The book also provided peer and self-evaluation checklists as a form of support for students to gauge their work at various stages of the writing process, namely preparing the outline, writing the draft as well as the final draft. Emphasis was given to giving feedback as well as setting and reassessing one's goals repeatedly throughout the writing instruction in the SRSD model to underscore the fact that self-reflection is a critical component of self-regulation. The third stage of the SRSD model also emphasized the use of self-statements known as *self-instructions* and *self-reinforcements.* In this SRSD model, students were encouraged to develop and record some personal self-statements that are also known as **s**elf-instructions as they **i**mitated the instructor during this modelling stage. In fact, they were encouraged to use these developed personal self-statements such as 'Calm down' or 'Need to get help' while planning or writing.

When working on an essay, they could say 'Now I shall apply the strategy,' or 'I know I can do this,' and when checking their work, 'Let's check carefully,' or 'Wow, that's great'. If negative self-statements such as 'This is really difficult,' or 'I don't know what to write' occurred, they were to be addressed immediately. In this study, however, it was difficult to get students to self-talk as they felt shy and embarrassed doing this overtly.

Self-reinforcement was another type of self-statement encouraged in the SRSD instruction to let the learners know when they are doing well. Self-instructions were used to self-reinforce a job well-done or a well-written essay. Students were taught to use their self-assessments as an opportunity to praise themselves for completing the steps in the strategy or a task correctly, or when they had done a good job of setting a goal, monitoring their progress, and guiding themselves through it.

Stage Four

Stage four involved memorization and evaluating outcomes as well as strategic planning. Students should be allowed sufficient time to memorize the strategy until they are fluent in understanding mnemonics, their meanings, and each strategy step. In this study, however, not much use was made of mnemonics although students had been introduced to *POWeR*, which refers to the writing process, and TREE, which is used for expository writing.

Stage Five

Stage five involved guided practice. The instructor offers scaffolding or support as needed to ensure that students are successful. Guided practice involves

collaboration between the instructor and students as they proceed to write essays. The students provide ideas, while the teacher writes notes and the essay. In this present study, the students tended to also participate in writing the essays collaboratively with the instructor. This was then followed by peer work where they wrote essays collaboratively, starting with groups of 6 or more students, and then ending with smaller groups of 4 or 2. Support materials such as checklists for revising, editing and proofreading, and guides for peer and self-evaluations were used and students were encouraged to give feedback as well as set goals and re-evaluate them as they worked in groups. The instructor should ensure that guided practice was given to writing essays at various stages of the writing process.

Stage Six

Stage six, which was the final stage involved independent performance. At this stage students should be able to apply appropriate strategies without any support. Support materials, for example, are gradually replaced with student-developed products such as students creating their own graphic organizer on paper. It is necessary that students be given an opportunity to practise writing essays in varied settings or genres so as to promote generalization of strategies learnt.

3.7 Procedure

This study employed a pre-treatment/post-treatment quasi-experimental design with a control group. Among the variations in the design, a quasi-experimental design may be characterised as having pre and post-treatment of control and experimental groups where the subjects assigned to these groups were not randomly selected (Seliger & Shohamy, 1995). This design is suited for the study as it is more feasible for the researcher to gain access to students and conduct the

study in a classroom without causing any further disruption then it would have been possible in a true-experimental design. As a quasi-experimental study is conducted in conditions that resemble the real world (Seliger & Shohamy, 1995), it provides greater external validity and allows the researcher to obtain the best evidence to gauge whether a particular intervention had the intended causal effect.

The experimental or treatment group in this study comprised two intact classes of semester three diploma students from the faculties of Art and Design, and Music at UiTM. Treatment here refers to anything done to a group or groups under controlled circumstances with a purpose of measuring of its effect (Seliger & Shohamy, 1995).

In this study, the treatment involved a writing strategy instruction which adopted the SRSD model to train 33 students in academic writing in a course that already employs a process writing approach. All the students in the treatment group were taught by one instructor, in this case the researcher over a period of 12 weeks. Approximately, four hours per week in two 2-hour sessions were allocated for this strategy writing instruction from end of July 2010 to mid October 2010.

The control group was selected from two intact classes of semester three diploma students from the same faculties that is Art and Design, and Music at UiTM. These students were also taught academic writing using the process writing approach by two writing instructors from the same university as the researcher over the same period of time. Weeks 13 and 14 were normally used for revising and carrying out other forms of assessment.

To ensure that the groups were comparable, all the participating groups used the same textbook that adopted a process oriented approach to writing, and followed a weekly schedule that was designed based on the recommended textbook. As such, both the treatment and the control groups covered similar topics in relation to the writing component and both had access to all the checklists for revising, as well as editing and proofreading, and peer and self-evaluation guides that were available in the book. These checklists and evaluation guides served as props to promote self-regulation in the treatment group. The students were taught and encouraged to use them. However, in the control group, it was left to the students to decide whether they wanted to use these props. Also, the on-going assessments and the deadlines for the writing assignment such as the evaluation of outline, first draft and final draft for the term paper that involved pair work were closely observed by all the instructors.

The only difference between the two groups was that the SRSD model was incorporated into the writing strategies instruction of the treatment group while the instructors in the control group taught the students the strategies for selecting an appropriate research topic, planning the first draft, searching for sources of information, revising and editing this draft through mini-lessons that did not involve modelling, self-instruction and goal setting. The instructors briefly described the strategies and asked the students to practise applying them in the subsequent exercises provided in the recommended textbook. They also conferenced with students about their writing projects; however, there was considerable variation in the frequency in which the conferences were held.

Although different instructors were involved in this study with the researcher teaching the treatment group and two other instructors teaching the two control groups, measuring teacher-specific effects was beyond the scope of the current study. The possibility of teacher effects seemed minimal as all were experienced in teaching EAP at UiTM and had been involved with the BEL311 right from its conception.

The independent variables examined in this study include the treatment and the control groups, and the students' low proficiency. The dependent variables are the writing skills as assessed in the students' writing, students' self-efficacy for writing and the students' use of learning strategies. It must be noted here that all the names of students presented in the results and discussion section of this study are pseudonyms so as to ensure the confidentiality of the students' personal identity. This was necessary to minimise response bias and social evaluative concerns (Bandura, 2006). Reassuring students' of the confidentiality of their responses and feedback encouraged greater participation from students. An overview of the research questions in this study, the measures used to assess the dependent variables as well as the methods of data analysis are given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2   Data analysis framework indicating research questions, data sources and
analysis procedures

Research Questions	Data Sources	Analysis procedures
1. What are the differences in the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners who have completed a writing course based on the SRSD model in comparison to the control group?	• Pre and Post instruction assignments administered to both control and treatment groups • Semi-structured Interview 1 – during the setting of goals (Distal & proximal goals) and identifying writing problems • Semi-structured Interview 2 – on changes in writing, self-efficacy, learning strategies & achievements of goals, as well as generalisation and maintenance of strategies after the treatment • Goal setting sheets • Self-reflections	• Paired sample t-tests on overall writing score and the 4 components of the IELTS scale • Students' transcribed interviews and self-reflections are analysed and coded using Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) interview schedule for self-regulated learning. • The findings are used to triangulate and validate the results of the quantitative data. Statements pertaining to self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-efficacy are also traced.
2. How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the perceived self-efficacy of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their learning strategies in comparison to the control group?	• Pre and Post instruction administration of the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale	• Paired sample t-tests on the overall self-efficacy score and the 10 categories of self-regulated learning strategies based on Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) interview schedule for self-regulated learning.
3. How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the learner strategies employed by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their writing in comparison to the control group?	• Pre and Post instruction administration of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)	• Paired sample t-tests on the overall SILL scores and the 6 categories of the language learning strategies

4.   What are the distinctive features of an SRSD model for teaching academic writing to low-proficiency Malay
      ESL learners?
 	
    • The data sources involved are field notes and the data collected using the above- mentioned measures.		

To address the research questions in Table 3.2, the data collection procedure was

divided into three phases as reflected in Figure 3.1.

Phase 1 PRE INSTRUCTION PHASE Week 1 (July, 2010)	→	**Pre-instruction writing – assigned** **Questionnaire: SILL** **UPSREW Scale** **ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability** **Ice-breaking activities**
Phase 2 INSTRUCTION PHASE Week 2-11 (July-October, 2010)	→	**Process writing & SRSD treatment** **Goal setting & evaluation – Distal goal setting & Proximal goal setting** **Interview 1- Elicit background information and discuss writing goals & problems (written/audiotaped)** **Written Self-reflection 1** **Written Self-reflection 2** **Observations & Field notes**
Phase 3 POST INSTRUCTION PHASE Week 12 (October, 2010) and 2nd week of November, 2010	→	**Post instruction writing - assigned** **Questionnaire: SILL** **UPSREW Scale** **Interview 2- Elicit feedback on the writing instruction and achievement (written/audiotaped) – 2nd week of November 2010**

Figure 3.1   Research procedure

Pre-instruction Phase

Sessions one and two in the 1st week of the semester was the pre-instruction phase where the researcher attempted to establish a base line for the outcome measures. During this phase, students in both the treatment and control groups were given three questionnaires: the background questionnaire, the SILL and the UPSREW scale to complete. They were invited to seek clarification pertaining to the items in the questionnaires as well as the strategies presented in the SILL. Besides that, the students were also given the topic for the pre-instruction writing assignment that was to be completed within a week from the date it was assigned.

At this point of the strategy instruction, no introduction was made to strategies. Instead, some time was taken for the ice-breaker as students needed to get along with one another during the course of the instruction. They were also informed of the purpose of the study and their responsibility as subjects of the study.

Instruction Phase

Weeks two through eleven were utilised for the SRSD instruction and writing was done using the process approach (refer to Appendix J for a detailed schedule of the sessions). During these class sessions, students received explicit writing strategy instruction from the researcher-cum-instructor. The researcher modelled the strategies at various stages of the writing process, and instructed the students to do likewise within their groups or with their partners. Sometimes, the strategy was done collaboratively as a class. During the instruction stage, importance was given to mastering the strategy before moving on to the next strategy. The stages of the SRSD allowed flexibility in the movement back and forth as and when, the need arose. These stages were used in teaching students to source for online

information, to do the outlining, to do the write up based on the outline together with the in-text citations and references, the editing and revision and the final draft as the whole class was made to work on one paper together. At each stage if the writing process, the students were also asked to imitate what was done working with their partner or group. Once all the stages of the writing process had been explained and taught to them, they were asked to do the entire essay with their group or partner and then another on their own. At this stage, students were also allowed to work as a group or with their partner if they felt they were not ready to work individually. Consultations were given when the need arose, or when it was requested by the students themselves. The textbook was used throughout the instruction as it had enough exercises for group work as well as individual work and it also provided prompts or checklists for self-evaluations

In the second week of instruction, the students were asked to list down five goals for their writing course that was to be discussed after a mini-lecture on goal setting. During the second session of the second week, a mini-lecture was conducted to explain to students about goal setting and its efficacy. Students were also required to rethink their goals for the semester and complete the distal goal sheets. The proximal goal sheets were given to students in the following meeting, which was the first session in the third week. Before that, the instructor explained to students about the setting of proximal goals and its importance. This distal goal sheet was then review together with their proximal goal sheets and their pre-instruction essay during the goal setting interview which began in the fourth week. Each interview took about 10 to 15 minutes as the instructor also discussed their pre-instruction essay with them. Students were told to set proximal goals before each writing piece they attempted.

This phase was also used by the instructor to get students to self-reflect on what they had been doing and evaluate that they had learnt. This was part of the training for self-regulation that involved the processes of self-evaluation and self-monitoring as well as goal setting and planning. Students were asked to reflect on what they had done so far and how they could further improve using the strategies they had learnt. Students were asked to write down their self-reflections in class. 15 to 20 minutes was given for this. These self -reflection were carried out in week 7 and 10.

Post-Instruction

The last phase was the post-instruction phase. This was the 12th week of the strategy instruction. Students from both the treatment and control group completed the UPSREW scale and the SILL at this point. They were also given the topic for the post-instruction writing assignment that was to be completed within a week from the date it was assigned. The purpose of the post-instruction phase was to collect data for comparison with the pre-instruction phase for the outcome measures. However, the researcher also conducted an interview with each student in the treatment group in the second week of November to get some feedback from students on the treatment and whether they applied what they had learnt for the writing section of their final examination that was held three weeks after the SRSD writing instruction. This probe helped to provide some information on whether there was any attempt at generalisation and maintenance of the strategies the students had learnt.

3.8   Data Analysis

The data gathered were analysed and compared with that from the control group (*N*=33) made up of students following the same course but without the SRSD treatment. The quantitative data were analysed using statistical techniques, while findings from other sources were used to support and elucidate the findings. This triangulation of data from multiple sources, methods and analyses is necessary to ensure credibility and trustworthiness of the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Such data also offered valuable insights into the writing and learning process of the participants involved in the study. In the context of ESL learners, this is necessary as writing, particularly in EAP, is an important skill.

Of the multiple instruments that were used to gather data, one instrument, the UPSREW scale had to be analysed differently. The UPSREW scale contained 36 items that had to be grouped according to an adapted list of SRL strategies proposed by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986). This list of strategies is offered in Appendix K.

Once grouped, nine categories of the self-regulated learning strategies and one non self-regulated learning category became apparent. The 'rehearsing and memorising' self-regulated learning category from the Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) schedule of self-regulated learning strategies was omitted as literature review (Lee, 2002) of its application to writing indicated that it was irrelevant. This new set of categories (Appendix L) that subsumed the 36 UPSREW scale items was analysed statistically employing the paired sample t-test.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has outlined the approach taken to examine the effectiveness of the SRSD model in supporting a group of low-proficiency ESL Malay learners with their academic writing skills. The process of selecting the subjects and designing the 12-week programme has been described. The various instruments used for data collection has also been described and the rationale for relying on these multiple instruments has been explained. The following chapter turns to discussing the findings that have been generated from the data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0   Introduction

This chapter presents the findings that answer the four research questions posed in Chapter One. Data obtained from the students' pre and post instruction written assignments, as well as the pre- and post instruction administration of the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-regulated Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale and the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) were used to examine the effectiveness of the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) model on students' academic writing. The effect of the model on the students' self-efficacy and their language learning strategies was also examined. The data obtained from these protocols were analysed by carrying out paired sample t-tests comparing the performance of the treatment group to that of the control group. This was done to determine if there was any significant change in the students' writing skills, perceived self-efficacy and language learning strategies following SRSD strategy instruction in the treatment group as compared to the control group which underwent the conventional instruction based on the process writing approach as required by the language department.

Data obtained from interviews with students were also analysed using the categories of self-regulated learning strategies identified by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) (Appendix K) to gather additional evidence to support the quantitative analyses. Other qualitative data obtained from written self-reflections, ESL student's background and writing ability questionnaire, field notes, goal setting sheets and students' written assignments were also utlised to serve as

evidence to support the quantitative data. It must be noted here that all names that are used in the following discussion are pseudonyms so as to protect the identity of the respondents.

The results are presented in three sections which correspond to the first three research questions listed below. The first section compares the pretest and posttest results of students' performance in the pre and post instruction written assignments for both the treatment and control groups. The second section investigates the self-efficacy of both the treatment and control groups, based upon their responses in answering the UPSREW Scale at pretest and posttest. The third section examines the language learning strategies employed by the treatment and control groups in ESL learning. The data for this was obtained through the administration of the SILL as pretest and posttest. Lastly, the fourth section explores the features of the SRSD writing course that are effective in developing strategies for teaching academic writing among low-proficiency Malay ESL learners. This involved examining both the quantitative evidence provided for the first three research questions and the qualitative evidence obtained from interviews, written self-reflections, background questionnaire, field notes, goal setting sheets and students' written assignments.

The research questions addressed in this chapter are:

1. What are the differences in the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners who have completed a writing course based on the SRSD model in comparison to the control group?

2. How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the perceived self-efficacy for writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their

ability to develop and self-regulate their learning strategies in comparison

to the control group?

3. How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the learning

strategies employed by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability

to develop and self-regulate their writing in comparison to the control

group?

4. What are the distinctive features of an SRSD model for teaching academic

writing to low-proficiency Malay ESL learners?

4.1 What are the differences in the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners who have completed a writing course based on the SRSD model in comparison to the control group?

This section reports on how the SRSD model affected the writing skills of low-

proficiency young adult learners of English in a mono-ethnic group of Malays.

SRSD intervention in writing has proven to be effective in improving the writing

skills of children, adolescents and adults, of varying backgrounds, whether with or

without LD (Adkins, 2005; Asaro-Saddler & Saddler, 2010; Berry & Mason,

2010; Biedenbach, 2004; Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005; Danoff, Harris, &

Graham, 1993; De La Paz, 1999; Delano, 2007; Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Graham,

Harris, & Mason, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007c; Mourad, 2009; Wong, Harris,

Graham, & Butler, 2003; Zumbrunn, 2010). Clearly, the response of learners to

the SRSD model is affected by several variables. Therefore, the effectiveness of

the model on this particular group of learners must be measured if it is to serve its

purpose of helping such students in their EAP course. Writing has become an

essential skill for academic and professional success (Kellogg & Raulerson, 2007)

and in the case of these low-proficiency Malay ESL students, there is an urgent

need to equip them with this skill so that they are able to compete with other

students on a more level playing field. The IELTS grading scale for academic writing (Appendix B) was used to assess the students' pre and post instruction written assignments (Appendix A).

The paired sample t-test results in Table 4.1 indicate a significant change in the overall IELTS writing scores for the pretest and posttest of the treatment group. In contrast, the difference in scores for the control group was not significant. In the treatment group, the p-value of the test was 0.000 ($p<0.05$). The post mean score (M=4.050) was more than the pre mean score (M=3.340), indicating a mean difference of 0.710.

Table 4.1   ESL students' overall performance for writing at pretest and posttest

Time	Treatment Group (N=33)				Control Group (N=33)			
	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value (<0.05)	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value (>0.05)
Posttest	4.050	0.840	6.008	0.000*	3.400	0.730	1.726	0.094
Pretest	3.340	0.540			3.160	0.520		

Note: *Significant level at p< 0.05

Therefore, there was a significant improvement in the writing score for this group. In the control group, the p-value of the test was 0.094 ($p>0.05$), indicating that there was no significant change in the writing scores of students in this group. The mean difference for this group was 0.240, which shows only a slight improvement in the students' writing. Thus, this result indicates that SRSD writing instruction has a significant positive effect on the students' performance in the writing test administered to the treatment group. The students' scores prior to SRSD instruction ranged from 2.5 to 4.25 (out of a maximum score of 9) in the pretest,

which placed them as extremely limited and limited users based on the IELTS band. However, in the posttest following the SRSD instruction, there was improvement with scores ranging from 2.5 to 6.5, with some students being placed as either modest or competent users (Appendix I). This improvement in adult students' writing due to SRSD treatment is similar to the findings of previous studies involving adult learners (Berry & Mason, 2010; Dahlman, 2010; Graham & Harris, 2003; MacArthur & Lembo, 2009). For instance, Berry and Mason (2010) observed improvement in the posttest in the expository writing of low-achieving adult learners in terms of quality and organisation. Similarly, MacArthur and Lembo (2009) noted that the SRSD improved the overall quality and organisation of persuasive essays through strategy training in planning, writing, and revising as well as self-regulation strategies such as goal setting and self-evaluation.

Also, the paired sample t-test results in Table 4.2 show that the treatment group performed better than the control group in all four components of the IELTS writing scale, namely task response, coherence and cohesion, lexical resources, and grammatical range and accuracy.

Table 4.2 ESL students' performance for writing at pretest and posttest according to the four IELTS writing components

IELTS WRITING COMPONENTS	Time	Treatment Group (N=33)				Control Group (N=33)			
		Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
Task Response	Posttest Pretest	4.880 3.940	0.970 0.660	5.782	0.000*	4.360 3.950	0.770 0.500	2.714	0.011*
Coherence and Cohesion	Posttest Pretest	4.170 3.390	0.850 0.720	5.018	0.000*	3.320 2.920	0.780 0.590	2.946	0.006*
Lexical Resources	Posttest Pretest	3.760 3.270	0.840 0.630	4.835	0.000*	3.120 2.990	0.770 0.710	0.679	0.502
Grammatical Range and Accuracy	Posttest Pretest	3.410 2.740	1.020 0.600	4.106	0.000*	2.930 2.760	0.850 0.730	0.940	0.354

Note: *Significant level at p< 0.05

4.1.1 Task Response

Looking at the treatment group's performance, it is evident that the performance in task response was the best among the four components. The t-value was 5.782 and the p-value of the test was 0.000 (p<0.05). Therefore, there was a significant difference in the writing scores in terms of task response. The post mean score (*M*=4.880) was more than the pre mean score (*M*=3.940). Thus, there was a significant improvement in writing scores in terms of task response for this group. In the control group, the t-value for task response was 2.714, and the p-value of the test was 0.011 (p<0.05). This indicates that there was also a significant change in the writing scores in terms of task response for the control group. However, the treatment group that followed the SRSD instruction performed better at task response compared to the control group. Noticeable improvements were identified in post instruction essays, with stronger thesis statements and better development of main ideas in the

body paragraphs. Although a word limit of 350 words was imposed for both pre and post instruction essays, an examination of the essays and a word count carried out using the provisions in the Microsoft word software indicated that students generally wrote longer essays in the post instruction essay exceeding the length of the pre instruction essay and the limit of 350 words that was specified (refer to Appendices Q and R). This was a result of more supporting details and better elaboration. This finding is similar to observations in several other studies that indicate that the quality as well as the length of the essays improved following SRSD intervention in writing (Berry & Mason, 2010; De La Paz, 1999; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005)

The following paragraphs (Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 & 4.4) present portions of a student's pre instruction as well as post instruction writing that reflects a clear development in the student's approach to writing an academic essay following the SRSD writing instruction. However, it should be noted that although there is development, the sample of the post instruction writing indicates that the student's knowledge of grammar is still inadequate. It is evident in the sample of the pre instruction essay entitled: *The Internet and its influences on our culture* that the thesis statement is missing in the introduction (Figure 4.1):

Internet has influences on our culture nowdays. There are a good and a bad things about internet. Internet actually is the interconnected system of networks that connects computers around the world via the TCP/IP protocol. Meanwhile, culture totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought.

Figure 4.1   Sample introductory paragraph of a student's pre instruction essay

The two subsequent body paragraphs (Figure 4.2) of the student's pre instruction essay show lack of coherence and development compared to those of the post instruction essay (Figure 4.4).

The Internet have had an impact on all societies. Cyberculture is the culture that emerged nowdays. It used in many field such as computer networks especially for communications, entertainment, business and education. As a student, what we can see now is a various social phenomena associated with the internet and other new form of network communication such as online communities, online multi player gaming and e-mail usage.

All of these is the benefit to us actually. Especially for student. Student can finish their work earlier than the traditional way. The information and data can be reach-able faster with the internet rather than go to library and find the books that is hardly to find. With the using of e-mail, student can discuss the lesson with each other without seing each other.

Figure 4.2   Sample body paragraphs of a student's pre instruction essay

However, after following the SRSD writing instruction, it is evident in the sample introductory paragraph (Figure 4.3) that there is improvement in the student's writing as the thesis statement appears to be well-constructed in the post instruction essay entitled: *Mobile phone and its influence on our society today.*

The Free Encyclopedia defined mobile phone or cell phone is a long-range, portable electronic device used for mobile communication. In addition to the standard voice function of a telephone, current mobile phones can support many additional services such as SMS for text messaging, email, packet switching for access to the Internet, and MMS for sending and receiving photos and video. Nowadays, mobile phone is useful and gives effect to the community in terms of communication, lifestyle and education.

Figure 4.3   Sample introductory paragraph of a student's post instruction essay

Besides that, there is better development of ideas as well as coherence in the two subsequent body paragraphs (Figure 4.4). There are also references

made to sources of information and inclusion of citations, which are features characteristic of academic writing. Although grammar is still lacking, the portion of the post instruction essay presented here is longer than that of the student's pre instruction essay (Figure 4.2). Further examples of students' pre and post instruction essays are presented in Appendices Q and R.

Mobile phone is useful and gives effects to the community in terms of communication. With the mobile phone, people can communicate more easily because of this technology. Without the phone, many of us would be quite lost in connecting with other people (Jain, 2005). For example, people easy to use mobile phones to communicate, especially on such important news events and news of the family over the world by SMS, MMS or phone call. The calendar function on the mobile phones can help us track our lives. Phones can also function as radios. For some, the mobile phone also becomes a notepad and can send an SMS to one self and make it a reminder service. People can see their friends or colleagues that they are talking to across geographical distances and in real time. This gives a more fulfilling experience and ensures that the users are not missing anything. They can see the exact expression on the face of their loved ones as they converse with them in real time. This situation is very good for the community to be able to enjoy the useful of technology.

Mobile phone is useful and gives effected to the community in lifestyle. For example, mobile phones help lift poor out of poverty. The United Nations report that mobile phones spreading faster than any other information technology and can improve the livehoods of the poorest people in developing countries. The economic benefits of mobile phones are go well beyond access to information where fixed-line or Internet are not yet available in rural areas, mostly in Least Developed Countries. Mobile phones have spawned a wealth of micro-enterprises, offering work to people with little education and few resources, such as selling airtime on the streets and repair or refurbishing handsets. In India, some operators have been promoting many TV channels on the cell phone over next-generation networks like EDGE (Rajesh Jain, 2005). The phone can be used to connect to any POP or IMAP server and allow receiving and sending email. While most phones may not have the ease of use that a Blackberry has with email, contacts and calendar, the fact that it is on the phone itself and that there is no need for a separate device can be a big help (along with the lower total cost of ownership). Totally, it can changes the normal lifestyle of community.

Figure 4.4   Sample body paragraphs of a student's post instruction essay

4.1.2 Coherence and Cohesion

The IELTS writing component with the second highest score in terms of performance was coherence and cohesion. Table 4.2 shows that the treatment group performed better than the control group in this component. The t-value in the treatment group was 5.018 and the p-value of the test was 0.000 ($p<0.05$). This indicates a significant change in the writing scores in terms of coherence and cohesion. The post mean score ($M=4.170$) was more than the pre mean score ($M=3.390$) with a mean difference of 0.780. This shows there was a significant improvement in the writing scores of subjects in the treatment group in terms of coherence and cohesion. In the control group, the t-value was 2.946, and the p-value of the test was 0.006, ($p<0.05$). The post mean score ($M=3.320$) was more than the pre mean score ($M=2.920$) with a mean difference of 0.400 which was lower than that of the treatment group. This indicates that there was a significant change in writing scores in terms of coherence and cohesion in the control group; however, the change was not as significant as that in the treatment group. Students in the treatment group who were interviewed indicated that they either did not plan at all before writing or only spared a few minutes when it came to planning before they wrote the pre-instruction essay. For instance, when asked whether any planning was done, the following students remarked:

Irwan:
'No, it has never been a habit before. I never write rough outline [pause] I just think about what is culture and its influence and I write some essay... I do straight away'

Nisa:
'Before this I not really know how to arrange my essay. I write whatever that I want and do not write an outline.'

The remarks of Irwan and Nisa reflect the general consensus of most of the learners in the treatment group before they were exposed to the SRSD writing instruction. Responses were also recorded after the students went through the treatment and they indicated a definite change in the way they planned their writing:

Irwan:
'I will start by [free] writing and making an outline to get the idea of the topic given.'

Nisa:
'I plan before I write. For example, I write an outline before I write an essay I control my essay with arrange my outline properly.'

This finding concurs with Chalk, Hagan-Burke, and Burke's (2005) observation of many students who failed to appreciate the value of planning. They posit that the practice of writing with minimum or hardly any planning does not promote goal setting that is crucial for self-regulation in writing. It must be noted here that the students in the present study did have problems assimilating goal setting which was incorporated into the SRSD instruction. Besides that, it should be noted that these students had taken a proficiency course in the previous semester where writing was supposed to have been taught using the process approach. However, based on feedback from the students in the treatment group, the process approach was not emphasised as focus shifted to writing grammatically accurate sentences. This emphasis was aptly described by one student who perceived a good piece of writing as 'writing without making grammatical or spelling mistakes'. As a result of this neglect in the strategies for process writing, most students in the present study resorted to

the technique of knowledge telling (Graham, 1990; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986) where they wrote what came to their mind. To them, good writing meant writing correctly. For instance, when asked whether there was any improvement in writing and how it had changed compared to the previous semester, the following students remarked:

Irwan:
'Ah [pause] in grammar and the other one is linkers.'

Jess:
'I think the biggest change was the outlines, cos last semester I just write what I want, without having any outlines or planning.'

4.1.3 Lexical Resources

The lexical resources component had the third highest score in terms of writing performance. The t-value for the treatment group was 4.835 while the p-value of the test was 0.000 (p<0.05). This reveals a significant change in writing scores in terms of lexical resources. The post mean score was 3.760 while the pre mean score was 3.270, resulting in a mean difference of 0.490. This shows a significant improvement in writing scores in terms of lexical resources in the treatment group. In contrast, the t-value for the control group was 0.679 and the p-value of the test was 0.502 (p>0.05). This shows that there was no significant change in the writing scores in terms of lexical resources for this group. In fact, the control group scored the lowest for this category as the post mean score (*M*=3.120) and pre mean score (*M*=2.990), with a mean difference of 0.130, suggest that the control group students had difficulty with lexical resources.

This finding suggests that the incorporation of the SRSD model can significantly help low-proficiency adult learners of English with the mastery of vocabulary that is required for academic writing. In fact, students had generally expressed concern over their lack of vocabulary during the goal setting interviews. Here are some of their responses:

Irwan:
'English language is too wide some of the words I do not even know the meaning. I got so much trouble if it came to paraphrase, what can you do if you do not understand.'

Zahar:
'I use the same vocabulary every time I wrote the essay, I cannot..apa..stuck [with my limited vocabulary], so I use the things [vocabulary] that I got. So that's kind of boring.'

Having identified the need to increase one's vocabulary as a goal to achieve during the goal-setting stage, many students in the treatment group worked harder at increasing their vocabulary range. Furthermore, the nature of the EAP course itself which required students to read extensively also propelled their mastery of new vocabulary and this in turn contributed to the higher score for the lexical resources category.

4.1.4 Grammatical Range and Accuracy

For the grammatical range and accuracy component, the treatment group had a t-value of 4.106, which was the lowest score for this group compared to its t-values for the other components. However, the p-value of this component was 0.000 ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that there was a significant change in the writing scores in terms of grammatical range and accuracy. The post mean score was 3.410 while the pre mean score was 2.740, resulting in a mean difference of 0.670. These results are indicative of

improvement in writing scores in terms of grammatical range and accuracy for the treatment group. This improvement is likely the result of introducing the practice of goal setting and self-monitoring. From the goals set by students, it became evident that they were very concerned about their grammar and, therefore, were prepared to make an effort to improve in this area. Furthermore, they were encouraged to monitor their work using the peer evaluation or self-evaluation checklists that were provided. For instance, when asked whether he monitored his work, one student, Izam, revealed that he tried to monitor his writing while he wrote. He said, 'Ah, I look for errors and make sure I made no grammatical mistakes.' When asked if he had set goals, he replied, 'Yes, I set goals so that I can do something. I can write better… Usually, to do writing without a lot of mistakes and to use some nice language.' When asked to rate his goal achievement on a scale of 0 to 10, he indicated, 'Maybe about 8 or 9.'

In the control group, the p-value was 0.354, ($p > 0.05$) while the t-value was 0.940. Therefore, there was no significant change in the writing scores in terms of grammatical range and accuracy for this group. A comparison of the results for the treatment and control groups indicates that use of SRSD writing instruction can significantly improve the writing performance of low-proficiency adult ESL learners in all aspects of writing that is task response, coherence and cohesion, lexical resources, and the grammatical range and accuracy. The introduction of the SRSD model has been effective in providing the necessary strategies needed by students to enhance their writing performance, as found with other groups of students (Biedenbach, 2004; Dahlman, 2010; Graham & Perin, 2007c)

4.2 **How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the perceived self-efficacy for writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their learning strategies in comparison to the control group?**

The Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale was administered to both the treatment and the control groups in the study to assess the perceived self-efficacy of these students as writers. This provided information to answer the second research question that investigated if the perceived self-regulatory efficacy with regard to students' ability to develop and regulate their learning strategies was affected by the SRSD model. This data provided insights into students' self-efficacy and self-regulation, which are vital to autonomous or self-regulated learning where students take charge of their own learning (Dembo & Eaton, 2000; Holec, 1981). According to Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1997), self-regulated learning that comprises four elements, namely cognition, metacognition, motivation and behaviour, influences the utilisation of learning strategies, the planning, monitoring and evaluation of academic tasks, self-motivation and preparedness for accepting responsibility for one's successes and failures. Also, self-regulated learning promotes self-efficacy to increase effort and persistence besides encouraging behaviour that seeks support and creates a positive environment for learning.

4.2.1 The SRSD Model and Perceived Self-Efficacy

The data on self-efficacy in this study elucidates whether the SRSD intervention has any effect on developing the strategies needed to improve ESL academic writing. A high level of self-efficacy has been linked to effective strategy use which has been found to result in positive learning outcomes that subsequently lead to increased motivation in learners

(National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986).

Upon analysing the data, the paired sample t-test results in Table 4.3 indicate a significant difference in the overall self-efficacy scores for the pretest and posttest in both the treatment group and the control group.

Table 4.3   ESL students' overall performance in the self-efficacy scale at pretest and posttest

Time	Treatment Group (*N*=33)				Control Group (*N*=33)			
	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
Posttest	5.649	1.43	2.61	0.014*	6.292	1.448	3.727	0.001*
Pretest	5.093	0.937			5.38	1.011		

Note: *Significant level at p< 0.05

In the treatment group, the p-value of the test was 0.014 (p<0.05). The post mean score (*M*=5.649) was more than the pre mean score (*M*=5.093), indicating a mean difference of 0.556. Therefore, there was a significant change in the mean of the self-efficacy scores which also demonstrates a significant improvement in the mean of the self-efficacy scores in this group. Reports of improvement in self-efficacy following SRSD instruction is also reported in several studies on SRSD intervention (Biedenbach, 2004; Dahlman, 2010; Zumbrunn, 2010).

In the control group, the p-value of the test was 0.001 (p<0.05). This shows a significant change in the mean of the self-efficacy scores in this group. The post mean score (*M*=6.292) was higher than the pre mean score

(*M* =5.38), indicating a mean difference of 0.912. On comparing the p-values as well as the means of both the groups, it appears that the control group showed a greater improvement of self-efficacy. This finding extends observations made in several intervention studies (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005, Graham, MacArthur, Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Katz, 2001; Klassen, 2007; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992) that students who are usually struggling writers tend to be overconfident (or under-confident) about their capabilities and often have a wrong perception of their capabilities as writers. Moreover, Klassen (2007) posits that students' confidence may not always correlate with sufficient preparation and well-developed skills. In fact, those with a record of having low achievement but high self-efficacy may be just disguising their lack of skills or inadequate preparation (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008).

The lower rating on self-efficacy by some students in the treatment group that contributed to this group's overall lower post mean test score compared to that of the control group (Table 4.4) can be explained by Bandura's (1997) observation that good students may not report high self-efficacy because of a lack of awareness or confidence about their capabilities.

Table 4.4   Pretest and posttest self-efficacy scores for writing of low-proficiency ESL learners in the treatment and control groups

Treatment Group			Control Group		
Students	Pretest	Posttest	Students	Pretest	Posttest
S1	4.833	3.778	S1	5.889	7.194
S2	3.333	4.722	S2	4.917	5.000
S3	5.361	5.861	S3	4.944	6.278
S4	5.722	3.722	S4	4.722	6.028
S5	4.778	3.944	S5	5.722	5.083
S6	4.250	5.278	S6	5.278	6.806
S7	5.944	6.889	S7	4.278	9.694
S8	4.583	4.667	S8	5.667	7.528
S9	6.972	7.000	S9	3.750	4.972
S10	5.306	8.139	S10	5.000	5.583
S11	5.083	5.111	S11	4.500	6.167
S12	4.639	3.278	S12	4.694	5.083
S13	7.194	8.111	S13	7.528	9.750
S14	5.444	8.139	S14	5.806	9.417
S15	3.528	4.722	S15	4.417	5.083
S16	4.333	5.139	S16	7.500	7.639
S17	5.222	6.778	S17	5.139	4.500
S18	5.111	6.250	S18	6.139	5.278
S19	4.167	7.000	S19	4.139	5.056
S20	4.056	5.194	S20	6.694	5.111
S21	4.750	3.917	S21	7.333	6.500
S22	5.333	4.194	S22	5.944	6.250
S23	5.667	6.861	S23	7.111	8.139
S24	5.111	6.167	S24	6.028	4.833
S25	5.611	7.361	S25	3.917	6.861
S26	5.889	6.167	S26	4.556	5.278
S27	6.889	7.583	S27	4.917	5.889
S28	4.639	4.778	S28	5.222	4.944
S29	5.722	4.944	S29	5.972	7.944
S30	4.917	4.222	S30	5.000	5.889
S31	4.639	4.250	S31	5.222	5.806
S32	3.250	5.333	S32	5.139	6.944
S33	5.806	6.917	S33	4.472	5.111

In fact, there is evidence to show that low achievers' self-efficacy could be significantly higher than performance while high achievers' self-efficacy was significantly lower than performance due to the problem of

miscalibration (Katz, 2001; Katz & Shoshani, n.d.). This observation is, especially evident in the case of eight students in the treatment group and five in the control group who displayed lower self-efficacy even though their writing scores actually reflected improvement.

Another probable explanation for the slightly greater improvement in self-efficacy reported by the control group in comparison to the treatment group is that the students in the control group must have felt that they had improved based on the fact that they had acquired specific knowledge on the conventions of academic writing during the 12 weeks of the EAP course. In contrast, having undergone training in writing strategies and self-regulation, students in the treatment group had a more realistic outlook towards their capability in using the strategies needed for academic writing. Due to their increased awareness of their strengths and weaknesses in their writing ability, resulting from the SRSD instruction that focused not only on writing strategies, but also on SRL strategies such as goal setting, self-monitoring and self-evaluation, the students in the treatment group were understandably more cautious when rating themselves.

While statistically significant, a frequency count of those who rated themselves highly indicated only a slight difference between the treatment and control groups. Only 3 students in the treatment group indicated a self-efficacy rating of more than 6.5 (in a scale ranging from 0 to 10) against 5 students in the control group in the pretest while in the posttest, there were 10 students in the treatment group compared to 12 in the control group

who had 6.5 or more (Table 4.4).

On comparing the results of the pre and post tests for writing following the SRSD writing strategy instruction, it was evident that there was significant improvement in writing in the treatment group with only three students showing a lower writing score against 13 in the control group. Thus, not only did the students in the treatment group show a significant improvement in their self-efficacy, they also showed significant improvement in their writing. This finding corroborates with studies that have proved that the SRSD treatment has a positive effect on struggling writers as it enables them to be trained to write well (Graham & Harris, 2003; Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999). It also suggests that the SRSD treatment enables students to be more realistic in calibrating their self-efficacy for writing. This corresponds to the findings in Garcia and Fidalgo's (2008) study that compared the effects of two different treatments, the SRSD and the Social Cognitive Model of Sequential Skill Acquisition on writing self-efficacy.

Although the students in the control group did not perform as well as those in the treatment group for the written protocol (Table 4.2), they reported higher self-efficacy. This appears to corroborate with studies (Katz, 2001; Katz & Shoshani, n.d.) that highlighted the problem of miscalibration of self-efficacy whereby low achievers' self-efficacy could be significantly higher than performance.

4.2.2 The SRSD Model and Self-regulatory Learning Strategies

In order to gain deeper insights into the ESL learners' perceived self-regulatory efficacy as writers, it was necessary to look at their self-efficacy in employing SRL strategies in writing. The 36 items in the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale were coded using the SRL strategies framework developed by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986). For this study, the 15 categories identified by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons were regrouped into 10 categories following an SRL scale developed by Zhaomin (2009) where some were viewed as describing a related strategy, for instance reviewing tests, notes and textbooks. The three were reclassified as a single category for this study. A similar move was made for 'seeking social assistance' that included peers, teachers and adults. The 'rehearsing and memorizing' category was omitted from this study on academic writing as Lee's (2002) study on strategy and self-regulation intruction in ESL writing which employed a somewhat similar questionnaire to assess self-regulation proved this category to be unutilised. The data gathered were then analysed using the paired sample t-test and presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5   ESL students' performance in the self-efficacy scale at pretest and posttest according to the self-regulated learning categories

Self-regulated learning strategies	Time	Treatment Group (*N* =33)				Control Group (*N*=33)			
		Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
Goal setting	Posttest	5.076	1.803	0.260	0.796	6.106	1.823	1.756	0.089
	Pretest	5.167	1.445			5.470	1.397		
Self -Evaluation	Posttest	5.649	1.700	1.670	0.105	6.390	1.453	3.903	0.000*
	Pretest	5.216	1.291			5.325	1.340		
Organising and Transforming	Posttest	5.714	1.503	3.231	0.003*	6.290	1.502	4.085	0.000*
	Pretest	4.970	0.980			5.301	1.041		
Seeking Information	Posttest	6.848	1.955	0.705	0.486	6.576	1.733	0.191	0.850
	Pretest	6.545	1.954			6.485	2.210		
Keeping Records and Monitoring	Posttest	5.586	1.404	2.614	0.014*	6.131	1.532	3.459	0.002*
	Pretest	4.970	1.132			5.222	1.183		
Environmental Structuring	Posttest	5.333	1.987	0.819	0.419	6.227	1.838	0.601	0.552
	Pretest	5.091	1.898			6.000	1.299		
Self -Consequences	Posttest	5.424	1.937	0.200	0.843	6.455	1.938	2.410	0.022*
	Pretest	5.515	1.716			5.485	1.482		
Seeking Social Assistance	Posttest	6.182	1.565	2.106	0.043*	6.348	1.613	1.637	0.111
	Pretest	5.515	1.608			5.788	1.516		
Reviewing Records	Posttest	5.061	1.321	2.811	0.008*	6.152	1.839	3.937	0.000*
	Pretest	4.212	1.364			4.667	1.493		
Other	Posttest	5.121	1.833	1.357	0.184	6.212	1.850	3.968	0.000*
	Pretest	4.606	1.435			4.788	1.166		

Note: *Significant at p< 0.05

As the subjects in this current study were low-proficiency learners of ESL, their confidence in applying the SRL strategies subsequent to the SRSD instruction was significant for only some of the SRL strategies listed in the UPSREW scale as shown by the t-test results in Table 4.5. Although they had been subjected to SRSD intervention, their ability to self-regulate might have been influenced by their low self-efficacy that could be attributed to their low proficiency in English, task, interest and other socio-cultural factors (Wang & Pape, 2004).

On comparing the two groups, it was found that the treatment group's pre mean scores for the perceived self-regulatory efficacy for writing were generally lower than the pre mean scores of the control group except for two SRL categories, that is 'seeking information' and 'self-consequences' while the post mean scores were also lower than those of the control group except for one category, that is 'seeking information'. Following the SRSD writing instruction, however, it was found that the treatment group's post mean scores for self-efficacy were higher than its pre mean scores for all SRL strategies except for 'goal setting' and 'self-consequences' while the post mean scores of the control group showed improvement for all SRL strategies. Looking at the mean scores of both the groups, it was found that they ranged from 4.212 to 6.545 for the pretest and from 5.061 to 6.848 for the posttest, which would be considered to be within the medium range in the UPSREW scale of 0 to 10. This indicated that generally, there was improvement in self-efficacy, but it was only slight as the self-efficacy remained in the medium range.

Also, the findings revealed that the treatment group was capable of utilising SRL strategies that involved all three triadic processes of self-regulation, namely environmental, behavioural and covert or personal (Bandura, 1986; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997) following the SRSD instruction with significant difference in the use of certain SRL strategies, namely 'organising and transforming', 'keeping records and monitoring', 'seeking social assistance' and 'reviewing records' which in turn resulted in significant improvement in academic writing as noted in all four IELTS subskills for writing, that is *task response*, *coherence and cohesion*, *lexical*

resources and *grammatical range and accuracy*. To put it simply, there was improvement in planning or generation of ideas, organisation, vocabulary and the mechanics of writing. This could only be attributed to the SRSD instruction, as the control group did not perform as well despite their reported improvement in their self-efficacy. An earlier study that corroborates with this contention is Lee's (2002) study that related instruction on strategy and self-regulation with improvement in ESL students' planning and revision strategies.

While it may appear from Table 4.5 that only 4 SRL strategies, namely 'organising and transforming', 'keeping records and monitoring', 'seeking social assistance' and 'reviewing records' were employed by the treatment group students in the present study, self-reflection records and interviews with students revealed that they did employ other SRL strategies such as 'goal setting', 'environmental structuring' and 'seeking information' as and when the need arose. An example of this utilisation of a wider range of SRL strategies is evident in the following actions taken by Sham, a student in the treatment group. He stated that he had set goals to improve his comprehension and the content on the body paragraphs and '... to train myself to find other sources towards this essay and try to practise doing the essay.' In order to achieve his goals, he took the steps to read more articles and newspaper and tried to collect points that were relevant to the topic as well as 'do some brainstorming for the article... start to plan and ready points before writing my essay'. By doing so, he managed 'do the essay arrangely and not keep repeating points... my strategy is not to think hard in my writing. Which means that I tend to write in simple English to

get marks and avoid errors.' His regulation of his writing, however, depended on 'the time that is given to do the articles or essays. 'First, I would like to achieve is to try to correct some corrections. Then I try to refer again and search for mistakes again... I have to push myself to do the work and try to find a way to be focus and be discipline. Sometimes, I approach my friends and Internet for help or assistance to achieve my goal. I usually try to finish my writing assignment and other homework in between classes because my flat is quite noisy and not conducive for learning'. This showed that besides applying the SRL strategies of goal setting and planning, seeking information and, organising and transforming, as well as self-evaluation and monitoring, he also sought social assistance, employed self-consequencing to overcome obstacles and attempted environmental structuring.

Although some of the SRL strategies may not have been effectively employed, it would be fallacious to assume that these SRL strategies were not utilised at all in a given writing task by students.

4.2.2.1 Goal Setting

In the present study, the control group reported a higher level of self-efficacy and exhibited some characteristics of high achievers in their confidence to employ some of the SRL strategies in their writing. This included goal setting which interviews with students indicated to be an unexplored area for most of them. The students indicated that goal setting was 'something new' to them. Also, the study indicated that students preferred to set goals for tasks or courses that they found easy and

achievable if they felt the need to set goals. This finding supports Ponton, Derrick, Hall, Rhea, and Carr's (2005) study which revealed that self-efficacy has a mediating effect on motivation. This helps explain why students may not engage in a task perceived as futile but would instead attempt tasks deemed efficacious. This was evident in the comments of the following students who had problems in achieving their goals for writing:

> Fazli:
> I have a thought in my mind that saying English is quite difficult especially in academic writing. I don't put enough effort to achieve that goals.

> Irwan:
> I don't have any specific goals [for writing] but I just want to get a good result… I try setting goals for the writing assignment on the impact on mobile phones as you asked to do… I set goals for certain courses, for [example] the offset photography course. My goal is to get them in...Because that's the main subject and we…already done it before...I think I can [do] better… setting goals is new and I not confident [to achieve them]. I set goals for courses I like coz there are certain courses I dislike...not dislike, I learn...I cannot complete. It's really tough for me. I don't set goals for courses [that are] really hard. I… not set any goals for the final exam… I do some planning for the essay.

It should be noted that the post mean score of 6.106 for the control group was higher than the post mean score of 5.076 for the treatment group. This was despite the fact that students in the control group were not exposed to SRL strategy unlike students in the treatment group. A possible reason for this could be that learners tend to overestimate the quality of what they have learnt, as they are not aware of the extent of their learning deficiencies if their cognitive model does not include instruction on self-regulation (White and Baird, 1991, cited in Lee, 2002). Another likely reason for this is that some students who are poor at writing tend to

wrongly perceive their capabilities as writers (Klassen, 2002; 2007; Page-Voth & Graham, 1999).

On comparing the self-efficacy scores for the pre and post goal setting strategies for the treatment and control groups, it was evident that both groups had p-values which were more than 0.05. The p-value of the treatment group was 0.796 while that of the control group was 0.089. This meant that there was no significant change in the goal-setting category of the self-efficacy scores for both groups. This finding is supported by studies that showed that self-efficacy for writing was not influenced by goal setting or strategy use (Graham & Harris, 1989b; Page-Voth & Graham, 1999; Sawyer, Graham & Harris, 1992). The students in the SRSD writing instruction appeared to find it difficult to adopt this habit of setting goals and many did not set any proximal goals for the post instruction assignment although they were told to do so. One possible reason for this poor utilisation of the goal setting strategy is the students' lack of confidence in achieving the goals that they had set. Being low-proficiency students, they also had low self-efficacy and this prevented them from attempting certain tasks as they thought it was too difficult and that they might fail. As one student, Nisa, indicated, there were many barriers that prevented her from achieving her goals.

Nisa:
Because I lack of confidence in order to achieve the goals for these semester because there a lot of barriers to my goals. One is my attitude.

However, those who were more receptive to this new strategy of setting goals took charge of their learning process and monitored their goals, especially those which they felt they had not yet achieved. They realised that they could attain the success they so desired if they put in enough effort. The way one student, Izam, responded after following SRSD instruction concurs with Dahlman's (2010) findings that SRSD instruction could encourage first year composition students to take control of their learning process by training them to set achievable goals and monitoring them.

> Izam:
> There is still a lot that I can do to improve my written assignment. I have achieved my goals of writing with less errors on tenses and spelling. This is possible because I have done a lot of writing exercises… I want to write better English than before and to write very confidently. Setting goals has helped me to be more critical in my writing. I want to set goals for other courses because setting goals will help me do better in these subjects.

At interview sessions conducted after the final examinations, some students reported that they did not set any goals prior to attempting the examination question. A common reason given by the students who were interviewed was that they felt disheartened by the topic that was given to them on organ donation. The topic was very challenging to them as they were unfamiliar with the subject matter as well as unsure of what the question required of them. Therefore, they felt inadequate and worried about the writing section. Thus, feeling 'off the track', they felt pressured to just get on with the examination without setting any goals. As discussed earlier in this section, and further, highlighted by the interview, students

tended not to set goals for tasks where they lacked confidence (White and Baird, 1991, cited in Lee, 2002). This refusal to utilise a known strategy is referred to as learned helplessness, that is, a situation in which learners choose not to apply something that they know will benefit them because of self-doubts, poor self-efficacy and low motivation (Pressley & Harris, 2008). An example of how students felt and why they failed to set goals is reflected in Fazli's response:

> 'Cause, I'm blur [when] I saw the title [of the essay for the final examination]... because before this when you give me the assignment to do on academic writing, I can do [pause] but in the examination, it was difficult. Because like I said... the title is tricky coz, I don't know what it is all about… The articles I understand but the essay requirement... I do planning but only for the topic sentence and the thesis statement... supporting details...no [and] citations...no but I have references [at the end]… I give from my own opinion. I guess coz I don't find in the correct [supporting] sentences for my essay, my draft.'

Among those who did set goals, it appeared that they were more confident and knew what they had to do. For instance, Zulfah revealed at the interview that her goals for the final examination were to 'pass it, to aim on both writing and reading' as there were two components in the final examination paper, namely reading and writing, with a weighting of 20 marks each. She was one of the students who responded well to this strategy of setting goals. Zulfah indicated that she was confident about achieving her goals and set her confidence level at eight. In her own words, she wrote: 'I am confident that I did my goal correctly and I achieved to do what I started… For achieving my goal, I tried and did not give up along the way.' Among her proximal goals, she wrote:

'I want to read more newspaper at least twice a week so that I could know the latest issue to update in the news around Malaysia and around the world. I also would like to find solutions to solve particular problem by googling on the net on what can be done so that my essay can be elaborated into more ideas'

Among those who were not so confident about achieving their set goals was Nisa, who revealed during the goal setting interview that she rated her confidence level in achieving her goals as 6 out of 10 because 'I lack of confidence in order to achieve the goals for these semester because there a lot of barriers to my goals.' When asked to identify the barriers that would prevent her from achieving these goals, she indicated that it was her attitude and her solution was to push herself to do more writing exercises. As she progressed in the SRSD writing course, Nisa, like Jess, was more confident about achieving her goals and even felt the need 'to set the goals for the other courses to make sure I can score A and do well during examination.'

Nor Mazli, on the other hand, expressed his lack of confidence by stating, 'The reason for not achieving my goals are [that I'm] afraid of writing wrong points.' Another student, Irwan, stated that he rated his confidence level in achieving his goals as 6 out of 10 because 'I don't have much confidence to rate higher number because I realize where my level at.' When asked to identify the barriers that would prevent him from achieving these goals, he wrote:

'Do not know the suitable book for my level. Do not know how to use the internet for education properly. Surrounding influence. Laziness, other influences, weak mind set'

This student's response to not applying the strategies for self-regulation corresponds to the findings of Wang and Pape (2004). Irwan's solution to these barriers was to be diligent and find someone who could teach him. In other words, he needed to seek social assistance.

On the other hand, there were also students who were over-confident about achieving their goals. One student, Zahar stated that he rated his confidence level in achieving his goals as 8 out of 10 because he felt, 'I can do this' and added that he did not have any goal which he was 'least confident of achieving'. This student actually obtained a C+ for the final examination compared to a B- in the previous semester's English course which was a proficiency course. However, this student contracted chicken pox at the time of the examination, which might partly be the reason for the decline in his performance despite his high self-efficacy. When asked to identify the barriers that would prevent him from achieving these goals, he stated: 'I am looking arrogant and also show off to everybody when I am speak English.' This resulted in relationship problems as he had problems interacting with some of his classmates as they thought he was arrogant and tended to talk about him behind his back. Thus, he reported his housemates and his attitude as barriers and felt that the solution to overcome these barriers would be 'to focus on everything, compete with everybody and to mix with smart students'. This student, however, did not put in enough effort to achieve his goals. Although he had indicated that he needed to improve his vocabulary, he found reading a challenge and did not persist in trying to achieve his goal of reading 'a lot of article' which would also enable him to improve his writing which seemed to 'lack ideas

and facts'. He had, in fact indicated this to be the most important goal. Instead of reading articles, he preferred to listen to the radio or watch television to get information and improve his vocabulary.

> Zahar:
> 'I more listen to the radio in the mornings. [pause] In the morning they have a lot of news so I prefer that... so I can remember it faster than reading. I'm not a reader so I'm not reading a lot.'

Most of the students were not specific in stating their goals and had to be guided, especially in setting their proximal goals so that they were achievable while at the same time there was a need for some effort on the part of the students. Typical examples of distal goals set by these students are as follows:

List 5 specific areas in your writing which you have to focus on and improve this semester:

Example One (Nisa's goals)

a) I want to improve my grammer.

b) I want to used new words in my writing.

c) I want to write well in music education assignment.

d) I want to improve my vocabulary.

e) I want to score full mark in my BEL writing.

Example Two (Zahar's goals)

a) The area in my writing which I have to focus and improve this semester is my grammer.

b) Other than this I have to read a lot of article. This is because when I do the writing, I lack ideas and facts.

c) I also will focus on my vocabulary. This is because I used the same vocabulary every time.

d) I will give more attention in my class.

e) Last but not least, I also practice with my friends and also will do my assignments.

For the proximal goals, the examples set by the two students are as follows:

What are the goals that you had set for this written assignment? List 2 or 3 specific goals:

Example One (Nisa's goals)
Get more information about internet
Improve my vocabulary and grammar
Improve my academic writing

Example Two (Zahar's goals)
I expand more idea in my thesis statement.
Improving my grammar and vocabulary
More example and fact in my essay

Clearly, goal setting was a struggle for ESL students who had low proficiency in English. The students who were afraid of making mistakes when they wrote or spoke tended to lose confidence easily and feel overwhelmed by 'a lot of barriers' in the face of any difficulties in achieving their goals. Furthermore, as their goals were usually not specific, this feeling of being overwhelmed could indeed be very discouraging and contribute to a sense of being helpless. As a result, many preferred either to set goals that they knew were easily achieved without much effort or not at all. Some even chose to set goals for courses where they felt confident. More time is needed to help train these students to appreciate the efficacy of this strategy.

4.2.2.2 Self-evaluation

On comparing the pre and post self-efficacy scores of both groups for the 'self-evaluation' strategy, it was found that the p-value of the test was 0.105 (p>0.05) for the treatment group. Thus, there was no significant change in the 'self-evaluation' category of the self-efficacy score in this group. Previous studies such as those by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986), and Lee (2002) have reported contrasting observations on self-evaluation. While Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) found no significant change in self-evaluation practices of high achievers, Lee (2002), found that strategy instruction in his study on strategy and self-regulation in ESL writing did promote self-evaluation among university students. In the present study, evidence of self-evaluation was indicated during post test interview sessions with students. For example, Zulfah from the treatment group remarked:

> 'Because there were evidence [and] examples in the essay
> and the structure as well as the fluent of the essay to me was
> good for my level.'

Interestingly, there was a significant change in the 'self-evaluation' category of the self-efficacy scores of the control group, with the p-value of the test being 0.000 (p<0.05). Thus, this indicated that there was a significant improvement in the 'self-evaluation' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. The higher post mean score (*M*=6.390) as compared to the post mean score of 5.649 for the treatment group, however, did not reflect the group's writing performance based on the IELTS grading scale. This finding corresponds to observations made in

other studies (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Katz, 2001, Katz & Shoshani, n.d.; Klassen, 2007; Winne & Jamieson-Noel, 2002) that struggling student writers tend to be overconfident (or under-confident) about their capabilities and often have a wrong perception of their ability as writers.

4.2.2.3 Organising and Transforming

Comparing the pre and posttests for the 'organising and transforming' SRL strategy, it was found that in the treatment group, the p-value of the test was 0.003 while the control group had a p-value of 0.000, (p<0.05). It was evident that there was a significant difference in the 'organising and transforming' category of the self-efficacy scores. The post mean score was higher than the pre mean score for both groups. Thus, there was a significant improvement in the 'organising and transforming' category of the self-efficacy scores in both groups. The use of this SRL strategy which refers to student-initiated instructional materials to facilitate learning (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986) is evident in the following recounts by students in the treatment group in their written self-reflections:

> Zulfah:
> The goals that I set was to think and wrote down the influence of internet on culture in note forms. I then elaborate in a draft. As I finish, then I complete it in an essay… I solve particular problem by googling on the net on what can be done so that my essay can be elaborated into more ideas.

> Izam:
> First, I select a suitable topic. Then I will find references and articles and make an outline out of the points that I have then I will start writing the essay… I did a proper planning before I write. Organize all points so that I can start writing.

The reason for the higher mean score by the control group ($M=6.290$) compared to the treatment group ($M=5.714$) could be attributed to the effects of the writing instruction based on the process writing approach or the observations made by Katz (2001), Katz and Shoshani (n.d.), and Klassen (2007) that struggling student writers tend to be overconfident (or under-confident) about their capabilities and often misjudge their ability as writers. As this high score in the 'organising and transforming' SRL strategy was not reflected in the control group's writing performance based on the IELTS grading scale, the latter reason would be an apt explanation for this finding.

4.2.2.4 Seeking Information

Comparing the pre and post 'seeking information' self-efficacy scores for the treatment and control groups, it was found that the p-values were more than 0.05. Thus, there was no significant change in the 'seeking information' category of the self-efficacy scores in both groups. However, the post mean score of the treatment group ($M=6.848$) was higher than that of the control group ($M=6.576$) indicating that the SRSD instruction promoted greater use of this SRL strategy which is very crucial to academic writing. As this SRL strategy involved the use of 'non-social sources' (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986), the range of information sources for this writing course includes the Internet, journals, books, magazines and newspapers. This strategy is differentiated from the SRL strategy of 'seeking social assistance' that refers to 'social sources' such as peers and tutors. Students were considerably dependent on the Internet for seeking information although other sources were also utilised. This is

indicated in the responses of the following students in the treatment group:

Jess:
I also learnt how to find a good articles and examples of articles from Google scholar. They are so many benefits from there that I can improve my essay and try to write better and better.

Zulfah;
I tried to solve particular problem by googling on the net on what can be done so that my essay can be elaborated into more ideas

Nor Mazli:
In my planning, I will search for articles or something else from books, journals, as well as magazines to read about. Then I will write about something using those materials that I have read and I apply it on my writing.

Some students, however, also indicated that they had problems locating suitable articles or even extracting relevant information from articles. The following comments were made by students who had problems in seeking information:

Hazmi:
I'm not so good in communicating to other and I'm not good in order to use the internet

Irwan:
I do not know the suitable book for my level. Do not know how to use the internet for education properly. ..We learn a way to find the article in the internet, the internet really help but I am really bad when it comes to technology. I do not know how to properly use the internet to find the article, until now I still have the problems… I also have problem to expand [main] point[s] more [due to] lack of reading.

4.2.2.5 Keeping Records and Monitoring

On comparing the pre and post 'keeping records and monitoring' self-efficacy scores for both groups, the treatment group's p-value for the t-test was 0.014, (p<0.05). Thus, there was a significant change in the 'keeping records and monitoring' category of the self-efficacy scores. The post mean score was higher than the pre mean score. Thus, there was a significant improvement in the 'keeping records and monitoring' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. In the control group, the p-value of the test was 0.002, (p<0.05). Thus, there was a significant change in the 'keeping records and monitoring' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. Instances of monitoring were evident when students in the treatment group made the following remarks during interviews:

> Izam:
> I look for errors and make sure I made no grammar mistakes

> Nisa:
> Yes, I control my essay with arrange my outline properly

> Zulfah:
> Yes, I tried to monitor my writing because I need the structure, introduction, thesis statement, 3 body parts, 2 main ideas, elaboration and complete it.

An examination of the mean scores indicates that the post mean score of the control group (*M*=6.131) was higher than that of the treatment group (*M*=5.586). This high score, however, did not result in a corresponding increase in the control group's writing performance. Observations by Katz (2001) and Winne and Jamieson-Noel (2002) pertaining to miscalibration of students' self-efficacy impacting their writing self-regulation may be a plausible reason for this finding.

4.2.2.6 Environmental Structuring

Comparing the pre and post 'environmental structuring' self-efficacy scores for the treatment and control groups, it was found that the p-values in both groups were more than 0.05. Thus, there was no significant change in the 'environmental structuring' category of the self-efficacy scores in both groups. This, however, does not mean that this strategy of self-regulation was not employed by students. During the goal setting interview, a student, Zulfah, from the treatment group indicated that 'the temptation to go online on facebook and chatting with friends as well as being lazy to do my writing assignments' as barriers or obstacles to achieving her goals to improve her writing. As a form of environmental structuring, she stated, 'I will try to finish the writing assignment first then I can online.' Some students had problems with noisy roommates and would try to finish what they needed to do while in campus itself. Some, however, failed to utilise this strategy to self-regulate themselves, and tended to come late to class, blaming their roommates for this. Zahar, for instance, disclosed that 'it is hard to wake up in the morning...all of them stay up till 4 a.m. All of us are doing our own things...they play some music loudly and so it is hard to sleep.' When students fail to adjust to environmental structuring, it can result in behaviour that is detrimental to their academic success as these students tend to lack commitment to their coursework thus failing to meet deadlines, as well as lack attention that is vital in any classroom.

4.2.2.7 Self-consequences

Comparing the pre and post 'self-consequences' self-efficacy scores for the treatment and control groups, it was found that the p-value of the test was 0.843 for the treatment group, (p>0.05). Thus, there was no significant change in the 'self-consequences' category of the self-efficacy score in this group. In contrast, the p-value of the test was 0.022 for the control group, (p<0.05), indicating a significant change in the 'self-consequences' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. It appears as though the control group employed more of this strategy than the treatment group as indicated by the post mean score of 6.455 which was higher than that of the treatment group (M=5.424).

As this strategy deals with student's arrangement or imagination of rewards or punishment for success or failure in the accomplishment of a task (in this case, writing an essay), it is linked to the students' use of affective strategies. An examination of the employment of the affective strategies in Table 4.6, however, indicates that this type of strategy was more prevalent in the treatment group (M=3.576) compared to the control group (M=3.429) following the SRSD instruction. Katz's (2001) and Winne and Jamieson-Noel's (2002) observation that struggling student writers tend to be overconfident (or under-confident) about their capabilities and often have a wrong perception of their ability as writers may again offer a plausible explanation for this finding. These strategies deal with how students motivated themselves or pushed themselves to complete a task. In a way, this strategy is also related to goal setting and its achievement. As the low-proficiency ESL students in this study were

generally more passive and reserved in their behaviour, there did not seem to be much self-consequencing taking place. An instance of employing this self-consequencing strategy is seen in Izam's determination to finish his writing, which was revealed at the interview.

Researcher: You took three hours to type...you sat there? Did you take breaks in between or you just sat there and finished it? How was it?

Izam: Maybe I take a little break but a short break.

4.2.2.8 Seeking Social Assistance

Comparing the pre and post 'seeking social assistance' self-efficacy scores for the treatment and control groups, it was found that the p-value of the test was 0.043 ($p<0.05$) in the treatment group. Thus, there was a significant change in the 'seeking social assistance' category of the self-efficacy scores. The post mean score was more than the pre mean score. This indicates that there was a significant improvement in the 'seeking social assistance' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group In the control group, however, the p-value of the test was 0.111, ($p>0.05$) indicating there was no significant change in the 'seeking social assistance' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. As project-based pair work assignment and group discussions were common in the EAP course in both the groups, the self-efficacy for 'seeking social assistance' was expected to be significant for both. However, the fact that the self-efficacy rating for this SRL strategy was significant in only the treatment group could be due to the augmentative effect of the SRSD instruction followed by this group (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008).

In this study, it was generally found that the weaker students were more at ease with the idea of approaching their classmates who were better than them for help with their assignments, rather than the lecturer. As revealed at the interviews and in the self-reflections, some even approached their parents for ideas when it came to their written assignments. As all the students were new to academic writing, it would have served them better if they approached the lecturer rather than their classmates for assistance.

However, this finding has highlighted that the employment of social strategies is important to learning. Writing should not be treated as a task that is devoid of social interaction, especially at the higher level.

4.2.2.9 Reviewing Records

Comparing the pre and post 'reviewing records' self-efficacy scores for the treatment and control groups, it was found that the p-value of the t-test was 0.008, ($p<0.05$) in the treatment group. Thus, there was a significant change in the 'reviewing records' category of the self-efficacy scores with the post mean score being more than the pre mean score. This indicates that there was a significant improvement in the 'reviewing records' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. In the control group, the p-value of the test was 0.000, ($p<0.05$). Thus, there is also an indication of a significant change in the 'reviewing records' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. The post mean score, however, was higher for the control group ($M=6.152$) than that of the treatment group ($M=5.061$) although this did not result in a corresponding increase in writing performance. A probable explanation for this finding is given by Katz

(2001) and Winne and Jamieson-Noel's (2002) whose studies revealed that struggling student writers tend to be overconfident (or under-confident) about their capabilities and often have a wrong perception of their ability as writers.

An instance of this strategy being employed can be seen in how one student in the treatment group, Zulfah, went about preparing for her examination to achieve her goals. She indicated that she liked 'to target on what the question wants, because 'I research on past year's questions, so I focus on [that]. Also …some of the seniors say definitely will come out this question…definitely so I target on that.' Hence, there is evidence of not only reviewing records, but also seeking social assistance.

4.2.2.10 Other

Comparing the pre and post 'other' self-efficacy scores for the treatment and control groups, the p-value of the test was 0.184, (p>0.05) in the treatment group, indicating no significant change in the 'other' category of the self-efficacy score in this group. In contrast, the control group indicates a p-value of 0.000, (p<0.05). Thus, there was a significant change in the 'other' category of the self-efficacy scores in this group. It appears that students in the control group who did not undergo any explicit strategy training involving self-regulation, had a higher post mean score with a significant positive improvement for this category. The 'other' category is a non-SRL strategy where students tend to be dependent on others such as teachers and parents when it comes to regulating their learning. This non-SRL strategy is also employed by the treatment group as indicated by the

post mean score of 5.121. This finding indicates that as low-proficiency students, they sometimes left certain decisions related to their learning to others. This failure to take responsibility for one's learning and not self-regulating one's learning was more evident in the control group than the treatment group. This lack of self-regulation could be due to feelings of inadequacy or low self-confidence. An instance of this is seen in this response given by a student from the treatment group in her self-reflection to the question: Do you regulate your writing? She indicated that she did and went on to say, 'Especially when my lecturer ask me to do that'.

Overall, the control group in this study, which had a higher level of self-efficacy than the treatment group, demonstrated significant differences in 5 out of the 9 categories of SRL strategies and one non-SRL strategy. These SRL strategies were 'self-evaluation', 'organising and transforming', 'keeping records and monitoring', 'self-consequences', and 'reviewing records' while the non-SRL strategy was marked as 'other'. The treatment group, followed closely displaying significant differences in students' self-efficacy in 4 out of the 9 categories of SRL strategies, and these were 'organising and transforming', 'keeping records and monitoring', 'seeking social assistance' and 'reviewing records'. These 4 categories of SRL strategies with significant improvement in self-efficacy for writing in the treatment group were also among the top 6 SRL strategies listed as significant in the high achievement group in Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) study which investigated high and low achievers in six learning contexts. Coincidentally, the categories of 'self-evaluation' and 'other' (the non-SRL strategy) failed to relate to both the treatment and

high achievement groups although they appeared to be significant for the control group in the present study and the low achievement group in Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) study.

On another note, what constitutes as the SRL strategies for high achievers may vary as it is subject to variables such as age, experience, task, self-efficacy, personal motivation and achievement (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). As such, the findings of this study pertaining to the SRL strategies of the treatment group comprising low-proficiency students appear to concur with the top six strategies used by high achievers in the Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons' (1986) study. This suggests that SRSD treatment fosters SRL strategies that are prevalent among high achievers. However, these findings are not completely in agreement with the findings of Shapley (1993) where the high achievers depended significantly on SRL strategies such as 'self-evaluation', 'organising and transforming' and 'self-consequences' while the low achievers utilised 'seeking social assistance' (from teachers) and the non-SRL strategy, 'other'. Moreover, self-efficacy beliefs have been linked to the subjects' expertise in the content area, language proficiency level, task difficulty level, social persuasion, physiological or emotional state, interest, attitude towards the English language and the English speaking community, as well as the social and cultural context (Wang & Pape, 2004). This could have a bearing on the SRL strategy use among ESL students reported in the study.

From the findings, it has become apparent that the SRSD writing instruction promotes SRL strategies which help to improve students'

writing skills (Chalk, Hagan-Burke, & Burke, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006). Research has revealed that these strategies have been significantly utilised by high achieving learners (Shapley, 1993; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986). The treatment group seemed to indicate a significant improvement in their self-efficacy for employing the SRL strategies utilised by the high achievement group although they appeared to be lacking in their self-efficacy for utilising other SRL strategies such as 'seeking information', 'goal setting', 'self-evaluation', 'self-consequences', and 'environmental structuring' where academic writing is concerned. This finding, however, could have been influenced by the sample size as interview sessions with the students revealed that they had employed all the SRL strategies. In fact, the nature of the EAP course in this study was project-based and, therefore, fostered the deployment of these strategies to some extent.

The project-based EAP course required students to engage in research and self-regulation. This course created a concern for grammar, vocabulary and development of ideas. As such, students were encouraged to utilise online resources as well as dictionary. They were informed of the many resources available such as online databases, quizzes and grammar instruction and were encouraged to seek clarification or assistance from people whom they had identified as approachable for assistance whenever they had problems with the language. Such a practice in the SRSD writing course promoted SRL strategies such as 'seeking information', 'record keeping and monitoring', 'seeking social assistance', 'self-evaluation' and 'goal setting' among others that appeared to be lacking in students.

4.3   How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the learning strategies employed by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their writing in comparison to the control group?

This section reports on how the SRSD model affected the learning strategies of low-proficiency adult Malay learners of English in their ability to develop and regulate their academic writing as compared to the effects of the conventional method employing the process writing approach in this study. It is necessary to examine the effect of the SRSD writing instruction on students' learning strategies because this would be new knowledge that determines if this highly validated and empirically tested strategy training model can impact learning strategies of low-proficiency ESL learners. This insight into students' deployment of learning strategies through SRSD instruction in academic writing is valuable as these strategies facilitate language learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985). Learners need to be instructed to use these learning strategies effectively along with other cognitive writing strategies such as idea generation and planning as this would help them improve their writing ability (Harris & Graham, 1996; 1999; Magno, 2009). Failure to provide explicit instruction may result in ineffective deployment of strategies even at the college level (Rachal, Daigle, & Rachal, 2007). In fact, Macaro (2006) posits that the effective use of each strategic plan in accomplishing a task increases the level of self-efficacy, which in turn strengthens the motivation of the learners.

By investigating the impact of SRSD on students' learning strategies, insights could be gained as to how students could be trained to realise the potentials of the learning strategies in helping them become autonomous or self-regulated in their learning as well as writing (Little, 1991). This is necessary as learner autonomy is

based on the notion of making choices for which students need to expand their repertoire of learning strategies and appreciate the positive impact of these strategies (Cotterall, 2000). The SILL questionnaire was used to measure the strategies used by the subjects in the present study (Appendix H).

4.3.1 The SRSD Model and Language Learning Strategies

The overall use of language learning strategies by students in the treatment and control groups is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6   ESL students' overall use of the language learning strategies at pretest and   posttest according to SILL

Learning Strategies	Time	Treatment Group (N=33)				Control Group (N=33)			
		Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
Overall (6 strategies combined)	Posttest Pretest	3.512 3.335	0.424 0.326	3.774	0.001*	3.571 3.396	0.668 0.454	1.528	0.136

Note: *Significant level at p< 0.05

The results reveal that for the treatment group, the p-value of the test is 0.001, (p<0.05). This indicates a significant change in the SILL scores. Focusing on the mean scores of the treatment group, it is evident that the post mean score is more than the pre mean score, suggesting that the use of the SRSD model has contributed to a significant improvement in SILL scores for this group. In comparison, the p-value of the test administered to the control group is 0.136, (p>0.05), indicating that there is no significant change in the SILL scores for this group. This finding implies that the repertoire of strategies used by students in the treatment group following

strategy training was wider compared to that of the control group and this condition promotes learner autonomy (Oxford, 2008, cited in Andrade & Bunker, 2009). This finding proves that besides improving self-efficacy and self-regulation for writing as discussed in the previous section, SRSD strategy instruction also develops the learners' language learning strategies, resulting in enhanced writing skill that is necessary for academic success (Graham & Harris, 2003; Harris & Graham, 1999).

4.3.2 The SRSD Model and Direct and Indirect Language Learning Strategies

The use of direct and indirect language learning strategies by students in the treatment and control groups is presented in Table 4.7. The direct language learning skills are divided further as memory, cognitive and compensatory skills while the indirect language learning skills are metacognitive, affective and social skills (Oxford, 1990). Generally, there was an improvement in the use of learning strategies in both groups based on comparions made between the pretest and the posttest. However, it appears that the SRSD model was more effective in fostering and supporting students to make significant use of strategies that were appropriate for the writing task at hand. In this case, the strategies involved are affective, cognitive, and metacognitive language learning strategies. These findings concur with a study involving low achievers from Malaysian schools who were found to make greater use of memory, cognitive, metacognitive and affective language learning strategies following strategy training (Rashidah Begam bt O. A. Rajak, 2004).

Table 4.7   ESL students' use of the six language learning strategies at pretest and posttest according to SILL

			Treatment Group (*N* =33)				Control Group (*N*=33)			
		Time	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
	Learning Strategies									
Direct Strategies	Memory	Posttest	3.175	0.429	0.971	0.339	3.535	0.717	1.675	0.104
		Pretest	3.094	0.457			3.316	0.473		
	Cognitive	Posttest	3.541	0.513	2.976	0.006*	3.654	0.676	1.486	0.147
		Pretest	3.355	0.435			3.461	0.547		
	Compensatory	Posttest	3.581	0.615	1.455	0.155	3.717	0.746	1.202	0.238
		Pretest	3.449	0.469			3.556	0.572		
Indirect Strategies	Metacognitive	Posttest	3.734	0.530	2.429	0.021*	3.630	0.793	0.970	0.339
		Pretest	3.549	0.508			3.485	0.560		
	Affective	Posttest	3.576	0.677	5.123	0.000*	3.429	1.001	2.590	0.014*
		Pretest	3.136	0.506			3.030	0.719		
	Social	Posttest	3.561	0.696	1.376	0.178	3.601	0.798	1.148	0.259
		Pretest	3.409	0.571			3.439	0.760		

Note: *Significant level at $p< 0.05$

4.3.2.1 Memory Strategies

Although the post mean score of the use of memory strategies similarly fell within the medium range of usage that is 2.5-3.4, which is similar to strategy use in the study by Rashidah Begam bt O. A. Rajak (2004), this strategy type was not significant and ranked last among the strategies used in the treatment group based on the t-value. This difference could be due to the difference in the students' grade level. The tertiary level students in the present study do not depend on memory strategies as much as school students who were the focus of Rashidah Begam bt O. A. Rajak's (2004) study (Oxford, 2003). According to Oxford (2003), those at the lower grade level needed these memory strategies to acquire the necessary vocabulary. Similarly, Mohd Sahandri Gani Hamzah and Saifuddin Kumar Abdullah (2009) found that memory strategies was the least utilised among

more successful and less successful Malaysian students from four institutions of higher learning (IHL).

Writing instruction based solely on the process approach as in the case of the control group did not indicate any significant change in strategy use except for the affective strategies, which was ranked first in terms of strategy use with a t-value of 2.590 for this group. The SILL analysis of language learning strategies based on the post mean scores indicate that the use of strategies fell within the high range of usage, that is 3.5 to 5 for all types of strategies except for the memory strategies in the treatment group and affective strategies in the control group, both of which were in the medium range.

For the use of memory strategies, the results indicate that in both groups, the p-values are more than 0.05, where the treatment group had a p-value of 0.339 while the control group had 0.104. Thus, there was no significant change in memory strategies in both groups. This strategy was also ranked the lowest in terms of strategy use for the treatment group. This finding is supported by strategy studies by Oh (1992, cited in Magno, 2010) and Yang (2007, cited in Magno, 2010) which revealed that memory strategies are the least utilised strategies in gaining L2 proficiency. A possible reason for the low utilisation of this strategy is the skewed nature of the items for memory strategies listed in the SILL. These items are directed at learning vocabulary and fail to include strategies pertaining to rote memory and repetition, which may facilitate successful memorization of language content among Asians (Lee & Oxford, 2008).

Based on the findings of the present study, especially where goal setting is concerned, it has become evident that there is a need to foster the use of these memory strategies as students have expressed the need to expand their existing vocabulary. This has become a desired goal among students as far as academic writing is concerned. One of the students in the treatment group, Zahar, wrote in his self-reflection sheet:

> 'It is a brilliant step where academic writing is concerned because by that we will becoming more educated. This is because we need a lot of information and facts to do the academic writing. It is also very helpful because we have to learn to be a formal writer, using the high level of vocabulary and bombastic words.'

Academic writing requires the use of formal language; and as the students' feedback indicates, their existing repertoire of vocabulary may be inadequate. However, there is also an indication here that some students have a misconception that academic writing involves the use of high-flown language and this problem is compounded by the fact that these students have problems understanding some of the articles used for their written assignments.

4.3.2.2 Compensatory Strategies

On comparing the pre and post SILL mean scores for the compensatory strategies in the treatment and control groups, the paired sample t-test shows that the p-values were more than 0.05 in both group, therefore indicating no significant change in compensatory strategies in both groups. These strategies ranked fourth in terms of the t-value and had the highest post mean score of 3.717 for the control group and second highest, 3.581

for the treatment group, signifying that the strategies are important to these ESL learners as they support these learners when they have problems related to missing knowledge such as the inability to find an appropriate word or expression when writing (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). The use of this strategy was evident in the language used by the students in this study as vocabulary had been highlighted as a problem by most of them. Some of them at times resorted to translation of expressions from their L1 to L2. For example, one student, Zulfah, revealed that she used Google Translate. 'I go on to Google Translate because I'm Malay and want to know certain words, like what's this in English so I go on Google Translate.' Similar importance was given to the use of these strategies in studies involving Orientals (Cong, 2005; Magno, 2010; Mochizuki, 1999; Ok, 2003; Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008; Zhou, 2010) as learners tried to cope with their inadequacies in their knowledge of the target language.

4.3.2.3 Cognitive Strategies

Unlike in the previous two direct strategies, there was an evident difference in the use of cognitive strategies by students in both groups. For the treatment group, the p-value of the t-test was 0.006, ($p<0.05$). This indicates a significant positive change in the cognitive strategies represented by the SILL scores. This is further supported by the fact that the use of this strategy ranked second in the treatment group following the SRSD writing instruction with the post mean score, 3.541 being in the range of high use compared to the pre mean score of 3.355 which was in the medium range prior to the SRSD instruction. In contrast, the p-value of

the t-test for the control group was 0.147, (p>0.05). This indicates that there was no significant change in the cognitive SILL score for this group. Where cognitive strategies for academic writing are concerned, the students' self-reflection of the writing instruction indicated that they had learnt strategies such as learning to prepare an outline, writing a good thesis sentence, paraphrasing, analysing, elaboration and using a dictionary, all of which facilitated their writing. These cognitive writing strategies are similar to those identified by Baker and Boonkit (2004) and Mu (2005) in ESL and EAP writing.

The results of the SILL analysis support the notion that cognitive strategies are important and significantly related to proficiency in L2 (Mochizuki, 1999; Oxford, 2003; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). However, they appeared to be inadequate as far as these ESL students are concerned. As one student, Izam, stated:

> 'So far, I have learned that academic writing does not only involved writing but also involving other skills such as finding for information, points organizing and paraphrasing. Besides that, I also learned about how to write a good paragraph and thesis statement.
>
> So far I am confident in finding for information and references for the topic I have chosen. I am also confident in writing using the correct grammar and vocabulary.
>
> I need to do a lot of reading and writing exercises in order for me to become good in academic writing. Besides that, I also need to expand my vocabulary by reading a lot of higher level English articles.'

Another student, Nor Mazli, stated:

> 'I learned in the way of planning to do an outline from a researched topic. I also have improved in the way of doing an

outline. I have learnt the methods and format of an outline. There are several important methods that I have learnt namely brainstorming, free-reading, search for articles, making research questions, make a rough outline and make a detailed outline with the correct format… The other problems that I have with my writing are grammatical errors and vocabularies.'

Zulfah wrote in her self-reflection that:

'As a student of BEL 311, what I have learnt so far for academic writing is more towards the systematic structure of an essay specifically on essay for academic writing. Every essay needs a good thesis statement. This will guide the reader to where the passage is leading. Furthermore, I also learnt to do paraphrasing and outline. This is new to me so it is interesting but sometimes difficult to find citation.'

Although the SRSD writing instruction has improved their repertoire of cognitive strategies pertaining to academic writing significantly, there are other aspects that need to be addressed when dealing with ESL learners so that they can succeed or do well in writing. Students such as Irwan, Hazmi, Nor Mazli, Zahar, Fazli, Izam, and Nisa expressed their concerns over vocabulary and grammar when it came to writing. Also evident here was the lack of self-efficacy to carry out a task when students perceived problems in certain aspects of writing. A similar observation was made by Dahlman (2010) in her study of first year students' compositions (FYC) at college level. This lack of self-efficacy in fulfilling the requirements of a writing task to some extent appears to be linked to the students' metacognition or self-regulation. Mochizuki (1999), in his investigation, has pointed out that proficient students tend to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies more frequently than less proficient students and this utilisation of strategies appears to be related to the course that the

students major in, motivation [which is related to self-efficacy] and enjoyment in learning English. In this study, the students were pursuing diploma programmes in either Art and Design, or Music. Therefore, a substantial portion of their time was allocated for practising on their instruments or working on art projects. This left them with little time for compulsory university courses such as English.

4.3.2.4 Metacognitive Strategies

Within indirect strategies, the first strategy that was examined was the use of metacognitive strategies. The results reveal that in the treatment group, the p-value of the test was 0.021, ($p<0.05$). This indicates a significant change in the metacognitive SILL scores. This is supported by the post mean score of 3.734, which was more than the pre mean score of 3.549, signalling that there was a significant improvement in metacognitive SILL scores in this group. In fact, these strategies were ranked third in terms of strategy use with a t-value of 2.429. In contrast, the p-value of the t-test for the control group was 0.339, ($p>0.05$), suggesting no significant change in the metacognitive SILL score in this group. Also, in terms of strategy use, these strategies were ranked last among the six learning strategies with a t-value of 0.970 for this group.

From the SILL analysis, it has become apparent that SRSD intervention with its incorporation of self-regulation has significantly increased the use of metacognitive strategies that are responsible for facilitating the planning, monitoring and evaluation of one's learning (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Rubin, 1987). As a developed sense of metacognitive awareness

fosters learner autonomy (Hauck, 2005, cited in Coskun, 2010), it also supports greater utilisation of strategies as can be seen from the SILL analysis. This has resulted in improvement in students' writing. The use of these metacognitive strategies, for instance can be seen in Nisa's self-reflection of her learning as she assesses what she has learnt and decides what she needs to do:

> 'I have improved on how to write thesis statement and conclusion. I also know to numbering the paragraph when I do the raft outline. I also improve on the format that I should use when I write an essay. I able to make documentation after I read the articles.
>
> The problems that I have with my writing is I always lack of ideas while doing outline. I also have a problems with my grammar and sometimes with my vocabulary.
>
> What I have plan to do is I want to make a lot of practice on writing, review the writing, tenses and always refer to the dictionary if I do not know the meaning of certain words.
>
> I confidence to write thesis statement at the beginning of the essay and write the conclusion.'

On setting goals (which is a relevant metacognitive strategy) for writing and its importance, Nisa declared:

> 'I feel better and know what I want as well as know what I want to achieve and I will go for it. I feel I need to set the goals for the other courses to make sure I can score A and do well during examination. Yes [setting goals is important], in order to make my target clear.'

This student was able to persevere in her efforts to do well and to achieve this, she decided that she had to 'make a lot of practice on writing; grammar & reading. I have to be consistent and change my attitude'. With the effort she put in her writing, she realised that her writing was

improving. Nisa, who in the previous semester had a B for an English course, managed to obtain an A- in her final examination for the EAP course she was taking. The use of self-reflection and goal setting appear to be an effective means of making students assess their learning and evaluate their use of strategies. Pertaining to self-reflection, Cotterall (2000) believes it facilitates self-evaluation and monitoring of students' learning as well as their plan of action in the future, thus promoting independent learning and learner autonomy.

4.3.2.5 Affective Strategies

It was found that for the second indirect category of affective strategy, both treatment and control groups posted scores indicative of significant change. In the treatment group, the p-value of the test was 0.000, $(p<0.05)$. The t-value of 5.123 indicated that students in the treatment group made significant use of these strategies. In fact, these strategies were ranked the highest in terms of strategy use in this group. The post mean score for the treatment group was 3.576 indicating a high usage of these strategies compared to the pre mean score of 3.136 that indicated moderate use at the start of the course. This difference in strategy use reflected a significant improvement in employing affective strategies by this group following SRSD intervention. Similarly, in the control group, the p-value of the test was 0.014, $(p<0.05)$ and this also indicated a significant change in the affective SILL scores in this group with a t-value of 2.590 making these strategies the highest in terms of strategy use in this group. In fact, this group of strategies was the only one that was marked by a significant change at the end of the 12 weeks for the control group.

Prior to the training or writing instruction, affective strategies ranked as fifth in the treatment group and sixth in the control group in terms of mean score of the strategy use. This is very much in line with Oxford's observation that L2 students do not make much use of affective or social strategies (Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1994). However, it has become evident that with certain strategy instruction such as the SRSD, students can be taught to make good use of these strategies and give greater importance to their feelings and social relationships in learning the L2.

As these strategies have been identified to increase motivation and reduce anxiety (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995), they are very much needed to facilitate academic writing, a higher order writing task among ESL learners. This increase in motivation is also believed to increase strategy use among students (Oxford, 1990). This could be a reason for the increase in self-efficacy in both the groups. On the other hand, Macaro (2006) posits that effective strategy use is crucial to motivation and is influenced by one's self-efficacy. There appears to be a bidirectional relationship involving strategy use, motivation and self-efficacy. Affective strategies are especially necessary in the case of low-proficiency learners although they are less utilised by the more proficient learners (Oxford, Cho, Leung, & Kim, 2004). This group of strategies, for instance, is necessary for a student like Fazli who revealed:

> 'I have a thought in my mind that saying English is quite difficult, especially in academic [writing]. I don't put enough an effort to achieve that goals…Because I have a little bit low self esteem and doesn't seems to put a lot of effort on it [achieving the goals]…I am satisfied with the method of teaching although I am quite depressed because my previous

work need to be re-made again. I think we should be exposed
a lots of academic writing and do several exercise together on
this essay in this format in order to increase our knowledge in
Academic writing.'

4.3.2.6 Social Strategies

Finally, on comparing pre and post Social SILL scores for the treatment
and control groups, it was found that the p-values are more than 0.05 for
both groups. Therefore, both groups showed no significant change in the
use of social language learning strategies. These social strategies appeared
to be fourth in ranking where the post mean score of the strategy use is
concerned. However, in this study, there appears to be an increase in the
use of these strategies where the post mean scores indicated high usage
compared to the pre mean scores that fell in the medium range of strategy
use. The increase in the use of these strategies could be attributed to the
writing instruction in both groups which employed both pair work as well
as group work. These social strategies facilitated collaborative work
among students in activities involving modelling of a language activity,
peer evaluation of a piece of writing or a learning task as posited by
(O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). This shows that the nature of instruction is
crucial for strategy development, especially among ESL learners who can
be passive learners as postulated by Tunku Mohaini (1991). L2 learners, in
fact, have been found to underutilise these social strategies (Cong, 2005;
Magno, 2010; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1994) and this is more apparent
among less successful learners (Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008).
Following SRSD intervention, one of the students, Nisa indicated her use
of this strategy during the second interview:

Researcher:	So what do you plan to do to improve that?
Nisa:	My grammar?
Researcher:	Grammar and vocabulary
Nisa:	I think I should communicate with others in English.
Researcher:	So are you planning to do that?
Nisa:	I have done it but I talk in broken English
Researcher:	But do you think there is improvement?
Nisa:	Yes, I have confidence to talk in English
Researcher:	Good! So, is it something you are doing this semester?
Nisa:	Yes
Researcher:	Not last semester
Nisa:	This semester because I teach Gamelan [a musical instrument] for International students, so have to speak in English
Researcher:	So that itself is reason enough for you to try improving your English
Nisa:	Yes
Researcher:	I see. Ok.
Nisa:	And now, I have friends, foreigners then we communicate in English, I try to communicate
Researcher:	Ok...friends, where are they from?
Nisa:	Yemen
Researcher:	So you are using English to communicate
Nisa:	Ya

This efficacy of this social strategy was also shared by another student, Izam who revealed at the interview that it would be better for students to befriend foreigners in order to communicate in English as these students had a tendency to interact with each other in their own language (L1), in this case Bahasa Melayu (Malay) as they belong to a mono-ethnic group

consisting of Malays. He also felt that the exercise of group work would be futile even if the group were not mono-ethnic as Malaysian students had a tendency to use the national language, this being Malay to communicate during class. A similar view was shared by Magno (2010) who investigated Koreans studying in the Philippines.

The following performance profiles of two students provide some insights on how students in the treatment group responded to the SRSD strategy instruction in terms of their writing performance, language learning strategies, perceived self-regulatory efficacy and their final examination grades. These students, whose pseudonyms are Jess and Hazmi, are chosen as they embodied typical female and male low-proficiency Malay students with low self-confidence. Jess is representative of a student who, being receptive to the SRSD strategy instruction, was able to employ the strategies learnt to some extent and thereby show improvement in her writing ability. On other hand, Hazmi is representative of a student who did not show much improvement despite having undergone the SRSD strategy instruction. Although his self-efficacy had increased, it did not boost his writing ability or his use of strategies. What needs be noted here is that ESL students, in this case low-proficiency Malay students may differ in their responses following SRSD treatment due to other factors such as gender, attitude and personal traits or experiences.

<u>Jess</u>

Jess represents students who responded well to the SRSD writing instruction where there was improvement in all three measures used in the

study, that is, the SILL scores, perceived self-regulatory efficacy and writing (refer to Table 4.8).

Table 4.8   Jess's performance profile

Measures	SILL	Perceived Self-Regulatory efficacy	Pre and Post Instruction Writing	Final Examination Grade	
Pretest	2.5	4.639	3.13	Previous semester	C+
Posttest	2.84	4.778	3.63	Present semester	A-

Although she was a low-proficiency student with a low level of confidence, she was willing to put in more effort being equipped with the right strategies. In her self-reflection, she wrote:

'For BEL311 especially, so many things I have learnt for academic writing. I have learnt about how to improve my introduction, make a good essay as well, find and write thesis statement, make a body paragraph and try to do more on conclusion. I also learnt how to find a good articles and examples of articles from Google scholar. They are so many benefits from there that I can improve my essay and try to write better and better.

Confident? Actually sometimes I can felt the confident of my writing maybe because the essay is related to me, but sometimes it makes me blur anyway. I even cannot think very well and find any ideas sometimes and it makes me feel down when write an essay. Other than that my English language is not good at all, so it is hard for me to understand.

I think the method of teaching is good enough. I can learnt from the method in a good way. But sometimes, it still have which I cannot pay a good attention about what I need to learn in class. I think I really need to improve myself in any way. I need to find more articles, read and try to write my own essays as good as I can. I have to write and learn more about BEL especially and of course dictionary is very important for me if I don't know the meaning of some words.'

After having undergone the SRSD writing instruction, she appeared to take more responsibility for her learning and achieving the goals that she had set for herself. Regarding her distal goals, she expressed that all were important to her and that included introduction, thesis statement, body paragraph, conclusion and topic sentence. Her persistence and determination to succeed was evident when she expressed that she needed, 'to always remember what I want especially about my goals and always practice better to achieve my goals.'

However, there were certain obstacles that she needed to overcome in learning to write and this appeared to be common to most ESL students in the study. These obstacles include laziness and inadequacy in vocabulary and grammar. To overcome these problems, she planned to utilise the SRL strategies of seeking information from an English dictionary and the Internet, and seeking social assistance from lecturers, friends and even family. She also planned to have a time table to manage time better and not be so influenced by some of her friends as she indicated during the interview session. Here she had applied the strategies of planning and environmental structuring. Like most of the students in the study, her confidence seemed to be wavering every now and then. As self-efficacy is task specific (Wang & Pape, 2004), these changes in the confidence level or self-efficacy is rather expected as the tasks referred to vary from time to time depending on the goals set by the student. She was able to evaluate her goals and identify what she had achieved and what she still needed to work on. Having done so, she was able to revise her goals and list the goals she had not achieved together with new ones. The problem that

appeared to confront her as well as other students was lack of confidence or low self-efficacy. This problem can prevent students from doing what it takes, that is employing the necessary strategies to achieve their goals. This is noted in her own words:

> 'Because I think I still not confident of achieving my goals. What I mean is I still need to do and learn more how to achieve my goals perfectly…I need to make a lot of improvement about my writing skills. Because I think I have to learn more and may be sometimes I am afraid to make mistakes.
>
> Need changes in my life I should be a confidence hardworking person to achieve my goals'

Perhaps, if she were more specific in her goal setting, she would not feel so overwhelmed by the idea of achieving her goals. Examples of her non-specific goals are as follows: *(1) Make a better essay and (2) Try to find so many articles and then make it as a reference (3) Try to make my essay one of the interesting essay.* However, she was also able to set specific goals; for example, *improve my thesis statement and body* [paragraph] *sentences.* Also, she revealed that self-regulation of writing was only employed when the instructor told her to do so. This means that this notion of self-regulation has not been fully appreciated and internalised in this student. Perhaps, better results would have been achieved if the SRSD writing instruction were extended over a longer period of time with these ESL students, especially when it involved academic writing with all its complexities.

Gauging Jess's self-reflections and goal setting, it appears that the SRSD has indeed affected the way this student perceived writing. She wrote,

'Great, now I can write my essay better than earlier in the semester. I can find the mistakes when I write.'

She has learnt the necessary cognitive strategies pertaining to writing and is confident about some of them, namely planning and outlining, and writing the introduction as well as the conclusion. She also employed various SRL strategies to regulate her writing. However, certain cognitive as well as SRL strategies such as those pertaining to grammar, vocabulary, elaboration of main ideas, goal setting and self-regulation have not been fully assimilated by the student. Otherwise, the cognitive strategies learnt coupled with a subsequent increase in self-efficacy has affected the student's ability to be a self-regulated writer. This finding is supported by Wong (2005) who noted that an increase in self-efficacy encouraged greater use of strategies. Jess was able to maintain the strategies learnt during the EAP final examination that was held three weeks after the SRSD writing instruction and obtained an A- for the course. As for the transfer of strategies learnt, this student revealed that she felt that goal setting was good and that it should be applied for other courses because then 'I know what I want to achieve and I can make it as a spirit [target] in my life and study to make improvement from the goals… because from my goals I can achieve what I want' This goal setting strategy which is promoted by the SRSD intervention has indeed influenced certain students for the better to the point of applying it in other learning contexts.

<u>Hazmi</u>

Another student, Hazmi indicated that he had learnt the following cognitive strategies but appeared to encounter some problems with sentence construction and vocabulary. He is a typical example of a low-proficiency ESL student in this study whose notion of good writing involves using correct English and high-sounding words. In his self-reflection, he wrote:

> 'I've learnt on how to organize my writing, how to paraphrase my sentences. I've learnt how to produce strong thesis statement, nice introduction and also a conclusion. The method of teaching is good. The problem is I've not enough time to complete all my work. The exercise is quite a lot. Sometimes I'm not finishing my work. I'll try all my best to done the homework that I've get I've learn on how to done an outline. I'm also sometimes can't think to make a good sentences. Sometimes I'm asking my friend on how to make a sentences. I am just a little bit confident on doing an introduction and some of my vocabulary but I'm not so sure on how to do it.'

Table 4.9   Hazmi's performance profile

Measures	SILL	Perceived Self-Regulatory efficacy	Pre and Post Instruction Writing	Final Examination Grade	
Pretest	3.22	3.333	2.69	Previous semester	A-
Posttest	2.92	4.722	2.5	Present semester	B

Hazmi's performance profile in Table 4.9 shows that his post SILL mean score of 2.92 was lower than his pre SILL mean score of 3.22. This indicates an inadequate use of learning strategies. Although he might have acquired some cognitive strategies for academic writing, other strategies were still lacking. According to Hazmi, he was able to write better due to

the planning and organisation strategies he had learnt. He stated, 'Now I write the point first and then I found that is more easier to write an essay. The writing is well organised. I achieve this because of the outline that I have done.' This student had problems with sentence structure and vocabulary that seemed to hamper his ability to write despite having obtained an A- for the proficiency course in the previous semester. It appears that he was unable to transfer what he had learnt previously to the current course, which involved academic writing.

Besides inadequacies in the use of some cognitive strategies, he also indicated that he was unable to cope with homework due to lack of time. This hinted that he also lacked in the use of metacognitive strategies that would enable him to self-regulate his writing and learning. Although his self-efficacy improved following the SRSD writing instruction, it was not enough to sustain him in his efforts at overcoming his shortcomings. In fact as suggested by Biedenbach (2004), there is a possibility that he might have given an inaccurate self-assessment of his perceived self-regulatory efficacy due to his incompetent knowledge of strategies. Citing Kruger and Dunning (1999), Biedenbach supports the notion that a lack of metacognitive strategies in students can prevent them from giving an accurate self-assessment of their capability or self-confidence.

In his self-reflection, Hazmi also admitted that his laziness hampered him from achieving his goals. This seemed to suggest that he was unable to employ the affective strategies effectively in dealing with his emotions and motivation as postulated by Ramirez (1986, cited in McDonough, 2001)

and Magno (2010). In his proximal goal setting, he rated his confidence level in achieving his goals as six out of a scale of one to ten, saying that 'I think my writing not good'. Then later, he gave himself a five within the same scale for future assignments with practically the same goals that is constructing sentences neatly, elaborating in the body paragraph and writing a well-organised essay because in expressing his views, he indicated, 'It is hard for me to achieve this confident level.' Regarding his goals, Hazmi commented:

'Goals, it is a something that can make I feel I want to achieve something…in order to improve we have to set goals and try our best to achieve it.
I'll try to practice more & read more article [as] I am not so good in writing and I have a problem to construct a sentences… I'm not so good in communicating to other and I'm not good in order to use the internet.
[I want to] write a proper sentences using a good words [but] I'm not really sure on how to use the words and its meaning.'

Affective strategies pertaining to having a positive attitude (Green & Oxford, 1995; Shen & Song, 2008) and lowering one's anxiety (Ariza, 2002; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) are all important in the case of ESL students such as Hazmi who appear to be affected by negative emotions that can hamper their learning (Hismanoglu, 2000).

This study has revealed that the SRSD writing instruction has a significant positive effect on student's use of affective strategies. However, the qualitative findings in the study suggest that there is a need for additional research to determine if SRSD can improve other aspects of student engagement in writing and learning such as resourcefulness, initiative, and

persistence in one's learning (Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005). Such findings may facilitate an attitudinal change and increase motivation, thus promoting autonomous learning. Also as proposed by Belmont, Butterfield, and Ferretti (1982), cited in Pressley & Harris (2008), there is a need to promote the use of strategies of coping with failure or frustration in the SRSD strategy intervention for academic writing as it is believed this would increase maintenance and transfer of strategies. This student scored a B for his final examination for the EAP course whereas in the previous semester he had obtained an A- for an English proficiency course. Perhaps, if he were able to better regulate his strategies through transferring what he had learnt previously, there would have been some improvement in his performance.

To sum up, it can be said that the SRSD strategy training develops students' cognition and metacognition that result in a better understanding and appreciation of their course. This, together with training in setting learning goals, ensures that students learn to be more responsible for their learning, be actively involved in initiating plans and executing learning activities, and engage in frequent self-assessment as well as monitoring of their learning; in other words, be more autonomous in their learning as suggested by Holec (1981) and Little (2003). Although significant changes in strategy use do take place, students' display of autonomy leaves much to be desired as there needs to be a change in their mindset or attitude and self-efficacy as well as motivation. Ponton, Derrick, Hall, Rhea, and Carr (2005) postulate that self-efficacy has a mediating effect on motivation as learners will only engage in activities which they perceive as efficacious

enough to be successful. This factor plays a significant role in students'

learning and in the case of ESL learners, the issue is further complicated

by factors such as age, culture or ethnicity, proficiency level, gender,

learning styles and academic major (Cong, 2005; El-Dib, 2004; Green &

Oxford, 1995; McMullen, 2009; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford &

Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Rosna Awang Hashim & Sharifah

Azizah Syed Sahil, 1994; Zhou, 2010).

4.4   What are the distinctive features of an SRSD model for teaching academic writing to low-proficiency Malay ESL learners?

The SRSD model that was applied to the teaching of academic writing to low-

proficiency Malay ESL learners in this study was adapted from Harris and

Graham (1996, 1999). The model was incorporated into the writing instruction for

the BEL311 (English for Academic Purposes) course where the writing

component already adopted a process writing approach recommended by the

course developer at the university. For the writing component of the BEL 311

course, the items taught in both the treatment and the control group followed the

scheme of work set by the English department, the students in the treatment and

control groups were required to work collaboratively with their respective partners

to generate and organise information from several sources and write a short term

paper of 450 to 700 words. Besides that, they were required to write an expository

essay of 300 to 400 words synthesising information from two given articles in

their final examination.

The writing instruction, therefore, for both treatment and control groups focused

on teaching these students the various aspects of academic writing such as

organising their writing guided by a good thesis statement and relevant topic sentences that are supported by information researched from various sources which are cited in the write-up with proper acknowledgement. As the process approach was adopted for the course, students were also taught to plan their essay using a formal outline guided by samples of the various patterns of writing or genres presented in their textbook and then move on to writing the draft, followed by evaluating and revising the draft before submitting their final draft as their term paper. Thus, in this study, the treatment group was instructed using the SRSD and the process writing approach while the control group was instructed using only the process writing approach. The subsequent subsections highlight how the SRSD model was adapted to teach academic writing to low-proficiency Malay ESL learners.

4.4.1 Developing Background Knowledge

In stage one of the SRSD instruction that involved establishing background information, the instructor encouraged students to consider the nature or characteristics of academic writing, the task at hand, the audience and purpose as well as the writing process that they would be employing. The purpose of this stage was basically to activate students' knowledge of academic writing and review their writing abilities. In view of this, the discussion centred on the components of a piece of academic writing such as the thesis statement in the introductory paragraph, topic sentences and the supporting sentences in the body paragraphs, the concluding paragraph with the restatement of the thesis statement or summary and the use of paraphrase and in-text citations and references. Where the writing process was concerned, the discussion on background knowledge dealt with the

recursive stages of the writing process denoted by the mnemonics, *POWeR*: Prewriting, Organising, Writing a rough draft, evaluating and **R**evising and rewriting. The prewriting stage and its various methods of generating information such as brainstorming or listing, mapping or clustering, and free writing, conducting literature search using the Internet and the library database, framing research questions to provide focus when doing research for the academic writing task.

It became apparent that the students were worried about their new course as they were not familiar with academic writing and its requirements. Also based on the pre-instruction assignment they submitted, it was apparent that they did not spend much time on planning before writing. Some of the students interviewed indicated that they spent about 15 to 20 minutes planning while some did not plan at all. One student, Zahar, said that he 'planned the assignment in his head. It has been a habit before, I never write rough outline. I just think about what is culture and its influence and I write some essay I do straight away…No rough essay, the rough outline...I don't make outline. All is in my mind.' Some of the students revealed that they had problems doing online research as they could not get the relevant material. As one student, Irwan, put it: 'Yes, first I surfed the Internet to find the materials but I not too good to search information from the Internet so it take time. When I want to search the specific thing like the Internet on the culture, the specific information doesn't come out.' Students such as Irwan were in fact, looking for an article that was similar to the topic given. Another student, Zahar indicated that he went to the online forums for information. Another student did not do any research as

she thought the information had to be her own and not from other sources.

Students were also new to the concept of using in-text citation and had problems with paraphrasing. For instance, Irwan revealed that 'English language is too wide some of the words I do not even know the meaning. I got so much trouble if it came to paraphrase, what can you do if you do not understand.' Zulfah, on the other hand, indicated: 'Furthermore, I also learnt to do paraphrasing and outline. This is new to me so it is interesting but sometimes difficult to find citation.' To sum up, in developing background knowledge, the discussion centred on many aspects of writing and this drew varied responses from students. The discussion was done over a period of four weeks beginning in week one and overlapped with stage two that involves discussing the strategies. The aspects of writing that were covered in stage one are as follows:

- Task, audience and purpose

- Nature or characteristics of academic writing

- The writing process

- Reviewing their initial writing abilities

- Framing research questions

- Library database and Internet search

- Identifying of key ideas in the source text

- Paraphrasing and acknowledgement of sources

- Writing the thesis statement and topic sentences

- Planning and outlining

- Types of writing (A detailed discussion of each type, however, was

done from week 7 to 11 according to the schedule for the writing instruction. Refer to Appendix J).

4.4.2 Discussing the Strategies

Stage two of the SRSD instruction that involved discussing the strategies was closely linked to stage one. So in order to facilitate the discussion, the instructor combined the discussion on the strategies together with the attempt at establishing some background knowledge on the strategies involved. This practice of combining the stages in the SRSD model was an accepted practice in the SRSD approach advocated by Harris and Graham (1996) as presented in Figure 2.3 of Chapter Two. The materials and exercises in the EAP textbook (Michael et al., 2010) prescribed for this course were used for this purpose. In conjunction with these academic strategies, the instructor also introduced the strategies for self-regulation such as goal setting, self-instruction, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement. This was necessary as the aim of SRSD is to enable students to internalise the cognitive or academic strategies and self-regulated strategies so that they can read and write independently (Graham, 2006a; Johnson, Graham, & Harris, 1997).

A mini lecture on goal setting was conducted and this was followed by a discussion on the importance of goal setting. Students were then given the goal setting forms (Appendices G1 and G2) to set their goals and were told that these would be reviewed during their goal setting interview with the instructor along with a discussion of their first written assignment that is their pre-instruction essay. The interview and the goal setting sheets

revealed that students appeared to have problems with goal setting, as they were not used to this concept of setting goals. They did not know how to set specific goals and made statements like improving their grammar in their essays. It appeared that these ESL students were very concerned about improving their grammar, even more than their concern for their vocabulary and other aspects of writing. As one student, Nisa, indicated, 'I also have a problems with my grammar and sometimes with my vocabulary' while another student, Fazli, indicated, 'I manage to write a thesis statement, but the grammar are weak.' His classmate, Izam, likewise, revealed that he was 'not confident to write using good grammar and vocabulary.' He also added, 'More focus on repairing students' grammar and vocabulary should be done. In order for a student to write a good essay, he or she should have a good English language skills.' Grammar has always been a concern for ESL students where writing is concerned (Fadi Maher Saleh Al-Khasawneh, 2010). This, for instance was revealed in the goal setting interview with Zahar:

Researcher:	OK so...let's look at your goals. Is this your goal for this semester? You want to focus on grammar. Specifically what aspect of grammar?
Zahar:	My grammar is terrible.
Researcher:	OK, what areas of your grammar are you concerned about?
Zahar:	About sentence.
Researcher:	Sentence structure?
Zahar:	Yes, the continuous tense and all that.
Researcher:	So you have problems with continuous tense.
Zahar:	I'm kind of confused.

Researcher: Confused. Why?

Zahar: Sometimes it looks the same.

Also, some of these students revealed that they did not have any goals or plans for their future. In fact, they were taking the course as they could not do anything else based on their performance in their Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM) examination (equivalent to a high school diploma or "O" Levels), which is a public examination that all secondary school students had to sit for before they moved on to college or high school in Malaysia. Farah, for instance wanted to take up Interior Decoration but did not qualify and so ended up majoring in Vocals as that was all she could do in the Diploma in Music programme she was offered. She could not play any musical instruments and had to start with the basics. Despite the lack of familiarity with goal setting, some students indicated at the interview that setting goals gave them a 'target' to achieve, it helped them 'to focus' and 'directed them' as they carried on with their writing. This finding concurred with a study by Berry and Mason (2010) where adult students commented that the self-regulatory aspects of the SRSD instruction, such as goal setting and positive self-statements, helped them stay focused when writing. In this study, students like Jess, Nisa and Irwan also indicated that they started setting goals for their other courses, a practice that was new to them. This indicated that there was some generalisation of the strategy learned by these students. On the whole, however, students tended to forget about setting goals before they wrote and also re-evaluating these goals after they had finished their writing.

At the post-instruction interview, some remarked that they did not set any goals before they attempted the writing section of the final examination that semester whereas others had goals but they were quite general such as getting an A for the paper. A possible reason for this could be that they were too anxious about the examination to think of using this strategy and the other reason could be that they had not become accustomed to using this strategy. As Fazli pointed out, 'I feel not very interested in setting goals for my writing because I prefer to go straight to the outline'. However, when asked whether there was a need to set goals for the other courses that he was taking, he responded in the affirmative, giving the following reason, 'Of course, because it helps me to keep focus on the subject and get a satisfying and successful results. He went on to say that goals were important because 'it help us to keep the essay on a right track.'

The field notes kept throughout the study also indicated that the students were not comfortable with the idea of using self-statements or self-instructions. This is because they were required to overtly employ these strategies until they were internalised. As most low-proficiency ESL learners tend to be passive learners, their deployment of strategies is usually unobservable (Tunku Mohaini Tunku Mohtar, 1991). Furthermore, as many factors such as general learning styles, nature of the assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning, level of motivation and purpose for learning the language, age, sex, personality traits, nationality, and ethnicity appear to influence general pattern of language learning and strategy choice, (Magno, 2010; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993; Shakarami Alireza & Mardziah H. Abdullah, 2010),

it is possible that certain strategies work well for a particular group or an individual, but not so with another.

Perhaps, if the writing instruction was carried out for a longer period of time, this practice might catch on to the students. The students, however, were very positive about the planning and outlining that they had learned. One student, Sham over a telephone interview reported that he had spent so much time on planning the essay for the final examination that he had only 20 minutes to write the entire essay in a three-hour paper consisting of writing an academic essay and answering questions based on two reading passages. This student scored 15.5 marks out of 20 for the essay and went on to obtain an A- for the examination whereas in the previous semester's examination, he had obtained a B+ for his English course.

The following outlines the strategies that were discussed during the writing instruction that adopted the SRSD model. These items were discussed and modelled, and done collaboratively with the students over a period of five weeks from week two to week six (Refer to Appendix J).

Prewriting
Brainstorming/listing
Clustering/mapping
Free writing
Framing research questions
Setting goals
Library database and Internet search
Identifying of key ideas in the source text

Organising the information
Scrutinising sample(s) of the relevant genre(s)
Writing thesis statement and topic sentences
Outlining with notation

Writing the first draft
>> *Paraphrasing*
>> *In-text citations*
>> *Documentation*

Evaluating
>> *Assessing the goals*
>> *Assessing academic essay*
>> *Self and Peer review*

Revising and rewriting
>> *Checking for meaning*
>> *Use of self-evaluation checklists*
>> *Rewriting and proofreading*
>> *Grammar*
>> *Other mechanics for writing*

What has become evident during the SRSD writing instruction is that instruction must be explicit and strategies should not be bypassed in the process by assuming that students are aware of these strategies. As one student, Izam, commented:

> 'For me, the method of teaching has helped me understand better about academic writing. This method of teaching is easy to understand and follow.'

4.4.3 Modelling the Strategies

Stage three of the SRSD instruction was done simultaneously with stage two. The instructor modelled the strategies discussed by 'thinking aloud' as she employed the strategies. She even got the whole class to collaborate in the modelling process by calling for volunteers. It was necessary to use the LCD and the institution's WIFI system as information had to be gathered from the Internet and library databases.

On the whole, this stage proved to be interesting as there was more participation from the students and they learned from each other. At this stage, the instructor also introduced students to self-instructions and self-reinforcements that were self-verbalisations to promote self-regulation. These self-statements were intended to get students to become more reflective and self-monitoring. They were amused by the antics of the instructor and this also helped to ease some of the tension that the students felt as they were exposed to the strategies. Although the students were encouraged to apply these self-statements and to come up with some of their own, they were reluctant as they felt shy and the idea of expressing their thoughts overtly was not a practice that their culture encouraged. They were then told that although they were not receptive to the idea of expressing themselves overtly, they should do so covertly.

4.4.4 Memorising and Evaluating Outcomes and Strategic Planning

This stage required the instructor to recapitulate what had been done so far. Mnemonics such as *POWeR* for the stages in the writing process and *TREE* for the expository essays were introduced to help students who had problems remembering the various strategies. As the students in this study were young adults who were normally achieving students, the use of mnemonics was reduced. Moreover, the nature of their writing, that is academic writing, is too complex and varied for the use of mnemonics. Such a practice may require students to remember too many mnemonics and this may compound their writing problem. The SILL results in fact suggest that there is no significant difference in the utilisation of memory strategies following the SRSD writing instruction. Other means such as

consultations were also provided for students who had problems learning the strategies. Mini lessons were given with guided practice for these students. For the strategies of self-monitoring and goal setting, it appeared that students needed more time to internalise the use of these strategies of self-regulation although some students indicated in the second interview held after their final examination that goal setting was useful as it helped them to focus.

The nature of SRSD instruction in this study was time-based and not criterion-based as was typical of SRSD instruction. This was similar to the adaption made to a study by Reynolds and Perin (2009) who found that criterion-based instruction was not feasible in the whole-class setting. The results of the students' perceived self-regulated efficacy for writing indicated no significant change in the self-regulated strategies of 'goal setting' and 'self-evaluation'; however, there appeared to be a significant improvement in 'keeping records and monitoring'. Students were also asked to reflect on the strategies they had learnt and the way their writing was going. According to Cotterall (2000), self-reflection or self-assessment is necessary, as students need to evaluate and monitor their learning as well as their strategic plan for the future. She postulates that a strategy training that included these elements not only fosters students' efficiency of learning and using their L2, but it also promotes self-direction or self-regulation of their language learning process and learner independence, regardless of the given task.

4.4.5 Guided Practice

In Stage Five, the students were guided through their writing by the teacher and material prompts such as checklists and examples or models provided in the textbook. They were instructed to work in groups and apply the strategies in their writing through the support provided (Appendix M). Having done so, they then exchanged their collaborative work or writing with another group to obtain feedback. Each group then assessed the writing performance by using prompts such as checklists for revising, editing and proofreading, as well as guides for peer evaluation provided in their textbook (Appendices M, N, & O). Peer review was first modelled by getting the whole class to evaluate a particular outline or draft of a paragraph or essay using the LCD and the checklists. This stage which involved students doing peer work was well-received as they did not feel as stressed as they would have been if they were to work alone on an essay. These students were always complaining about having little time for anything as they had more electives to take this semester for music and some art project to complete, or some musical showcase or test to prepare for which demanded a lot of their time. As Fazli indicated:'…this semester I have lots of assignment to do, so I didn't do a exercise for my grammar. I only do the assignment if it is needed.'

4.4.6 Independent Practice

The sixth and final stage in the SRSD instruction promoted independent performance. Students were encouraged to work independently and where needed support was provided by the instructor and their peers. They were also encouraged to self-evaluate their writing using the self-evaluation

checklists provided in their EAP textbook (Appendices N & P) and refer to an English dictionary and online sources for clarification on word usage and relevant information. In this study, although the students expressed confidence in certain aspects of writing such as outlining and paraphrasing, they preferred to work as a group. This was supported by the findings of the background questionnaire where in the treatment group (N=33), 14 (42.4%) students preferred pair work and 10 (30.3%) preferred group work. It could be that culturally these students were more social-oriented or communal in their way of life. However, looking at their responses in the SILL, the treatment group did not indicate any significant change in the use of the social strategies. Their perceived self-efficacy at posttest, however, showed a significant improvement in the aspect of 'seeking social assistance' after having undergone the SRSD writing instruction. Also when it came to working alone on a writing assignment, only 6 (18.2%) students indicated 'always' while 12 (36.4%) indicated 'most of the time' and 15 (45.5%) indicated 'sometimes' for the treatment group. This could be because they were still lacking in confidence in certain aspects of writing. There was generally a strong concern over their lack of grammar that appeared to hamper their writing process as well as their effort at self-regulation.

4.4.7 Aspects of the SRSD That Need To Be Adapted To Teach Low-proficiency Malay ESL Learners

Having taken the students in the treatment group through the 12-week period of SRSD writing instruction, it has become apparent that some elements of the original model worked well while others did not. Factors

such as general learning styles, nature of the assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning, level of motivation and purpose for learning the language, age, sex, personality traits, nationality, and ethnicity of this particular group of subjects may have a bearing on the effectiveness of this original model. Based on field notes kept by the researcher throughout the duration of the study, certain changes need to be made to the original SRSD model (Figure 2.3) by Harris and Graham (1996) in order to develop the strategies for teaching academic writing to low-proficiency adult ESL learners.

As the SRSD instruction in this study is concerned with teaching adult ESL students, stage one (Developing background knowledge) and stage two (Discussing the strategy) of the original model should be combined to form the first stage of instruction for these ESL students. Since these stages are closely connected, combining the stages would then facilitate the activation of students' knowledge about academic writing and provide an active review of their writing ability and the cognitive strategies of writing and self-regulation.

Explicit instruction in writing strategies is still very much needed in the case of low-proficiency ESL learners, and this should be done through modelling the use of the strategy. This cognitive modelling, which is actually stage three (Modelling the strategy) in the original model, involves modelled explanations and demonstrations that employ the thinking aloud technique. The stage together with stage four (Memorising the strategy) is presented as the second stage in the present study.

Modelling the strategy should be viewed as a necessary part of strategy instruction as learning by observation has proven to be more effective than direct instruction or step-by-step instruction. As one student, Zulfah, revealed:

'I personally think that the method of teaching this academic writing is easy to understand. From the very first beginning, I know where the purpose of research question, finding articles on the website also the way of writing citation is heading. This basic step by step teaching technique is acceptable in all stages of learning.'

Stage four (Memorising the strategy), together with stage three (Modelling the strategy), makes up the second stage, in this SRSD model for academic writing. Memorising the strategy is just as important as the earlier stages when it comes to training ESL students in academic writing. Unlike the original model that caters for children with LD, the use of mnemonics, however, may be reduced or even omitted, as adult students tend to grasp what is taught much better than younger students with LD. There was very little use of mnemonics in this study as the working memory of low-proficiency ESL students needs to process a lot of information at the tertiary level and using mnemonics may serve to hinder rather than facilitate their writing, specifically academic writing. However, in the case of low-proficiency ESL learners, mnemonics should not be entirely excluded as these devices can facilitate memorization. This study employed the mnemonics *POWeR* and *TREE* with regard to the writing process and expository writing

Thus, in teaching academic writing to low-proficiency adult ESL students, it would be best to fuse together stages one (Developing background knowledge) and two (Discussing the strategy) of the original SRSD model and teach this in combination with the second stage that comprises stage three (Modelling the strategy) and stage four (Memorising the strategy) of the original model. In other words, the first four stages of the original model are combined in planning the lessons in this strategy instruction for effectiveness in delivery. This proposed change to the model is reflected in Figure 4.5.

A feature that was incorporated into the SRSD instruction that needs to be emphasised at this point of instruction is setting goal and its monitoring. Despite being not fully utilised by some students, this strategy has several benefits as it helps students embark on the path to self-regulation and taking charge of their own learning. One student, Amman, in the treatment group indicated that goal setting 'is important because we need motivation'. Indeed, motivation appears to be the very element that students are lacking that may make a difference in their strategy use in ESL learning, in particular academic writing.

The third stage in the SRSD model for academic writing involves stage five of the original SRSD model, which is supporting the strategy. This stage is very crucial in the development of self-regulation. As such, effort should be made to study the ESL students' cultural traits and learning styles as these can have a bearing on the way they respond to this stage of strategy instruction. The Malay ESL students in this study appeared to

favour teacher-student collaborative practice together with corrective feedback during modelling. They also responded well to peer collaboration and evaluation in the guided practice. This was because it was less stressful and less intimidating when they worked in groups learning from one another. The prompts in the form of checklists, examples and models found in their recommended textbook also helped to raise their awareness of monitoring and evaluation. This is evident in Fazli's feedback when he mentioned that:

> 'After a couple of weeks, doing the exercise together and do the draft on our written assignment, I feel confident to write an essay in academic writing format because the lecturer show us to correct an error on our draft. Otherwise, I feel confident to write the topic statement and topic sentence which is the important part of an essay.'

These ESL learners responded very well to positive feedback and praises as this provided the motivation they needed very much for independent practice. This seems to support Oxford's (1994) notion that motivation had an effect on strategy use among L2 learners as well as their self-efficacy.

Besides giving and receiving positive feedback, these students also engaged in evaluating and monitoring their writing performance. To facilitate this, they were provided with checklists and, peer evaluation sheet. They were also encouraged to write self-reflections for this purpose as it provided them with an opportunity to gauge their learning and plan their next strategic move. This task made them think more critically about what they can and cannot do where writing is concerned.

The fourth and last stage in this SRSD model for academic model involves independent performance. In the original SRSD model, this is actually stage six where students were encouraged to work independently. They were encouraged to self-evaluate and monitor their writing using the self-evaluation sheet and the various checklists provided in their EAP textbook (Appendices N & P) as well as refer to available resources such as English dictionaries and online sources in the process of completing their writing task. In this study, the ESL students preferred to work as a group although some of them had expressed confidence in certain aspects of writing such as outlining and paraphrasing. Some made significant improvement in their writing and this was partly due to the confidence they gained from having achieved the goals that they had set. This increase in self-efficacy or confidence in their capability motivated them to strive harder for further improvement in their writing. Generally, however, it appeared that the ESL students needed more exposure to this SRSD instruction before it could take effect and produce significant changes in their attitude and approach to writing. It has become evident that self-regulation is possible if students engage in self-reflection and practise setting goals for the tasks they need to accomplish. Teachers play an important role in fostering the writing strategies and SRL strategies in these students and supporting them with positive feedback.

Owing to its flexibility and recursive nature, the stages in the SRSD model can be combined and reordered, or even omitted depending on the needs of the students and the instructors. In this study, the original six stages had been combined to facilitate the teaching and learning of adult ESL learners

by reducing the stages of strategy instruction to only four stages. This was necessary as the instruction was directed at normally achieving adult learners and not at children with LD, for whom the model was initially devised. As instruction was not criterion-based but time-based, it was crucial that the strategy was learnt in the shortest time possible. The instruction could progress from one stage to the other in a linear fashion, but as the process can be recursive, the instructor may revert to any previous stage in order to facilitate the learning of a particular strategy. For the low-proficiency Malay students, it appears that modelling of strategies and collaborative work between teacher and student, as well as collaborative work among peers are effective. They are also appreciative of the props used in teaching them and the feedback given. Since this model can be adapted to the needs of the students, the instructor may wish to focus on certain stages while omitting the others. The four stages in the SRSD model that are employed in teaching academic writing are presented in Figure 4.5, with arrows indicating the possible combination of the stages that instructors may wish to employ when teaching academic writing to their students. This combination is subject to the duration for each lesson and the competence of the students.

Aspects of the SRSD model that are proposed for the teaching of academic writing to low-proficiency ESL learners are presented in Figure 4.5

First Stage: Activation of Background knowledge and Discussion of the Strategy
- *Background knowledge*
- *Review of writing ability*
- *Stages of the writing process (POWeR)*
  1. Prewriting-
     a) *Brainstorming/listing*
     b) *Clustering/mapping*
     c) *Free writing*
     d) *Framing research questions*
     e) *Setting goals*
     f) *Library database and Internet search*
     g) *Identifying of key ideas in the source text*
  2. *Organising the information-*
     a) *Outlining*
     b) *Using notation*
  3. *Writing a rough draft-*
     a) *Paraphrasing*
     b) *In-text citations*
     c) *Documentation*
  4. *Evaluating-*
     a) *Assessing the goals*
     b) *Assessing academic essay*
     c) *Self and Peer review*
     d) *Self-Reflection*
  5. *Revising and rewriting-*
     a) *Checking for meaning*
     b) *Use of self-evaluation checklists*
     c) *Rewriting and proofreading*
     d) *Grammar*
     e) *Other mechanics for writing*
- *Strategies of self-regulation-*
     a) *Goal setting*
     b) *Self-monitoring*
     c) *Self-evaluation*
     d) *Covert Self-instruction*
     e) *Covert Self-reinforcement*

Second Stage: Modelling and Memorising the strategies (This needs to be reinforced through consultations if necessary)

Third Stage: Supporting the strategies (Also provide peer evaluation checklists where necessary as props to support collaborative work)
     a) *Positive feedback*
     b) *Self-Reflection*

Fourth Stage: Performing independently (Also provide self-evaluation checklists as props for support when needed)
     a) *Positive feedback*
     b) *Self-Reflection*

*Arrows indicate possible combinations of the strategy stages for lesson planning; stages are recursive and may be reordered, or combined according to students' and teachers' needs

Figure 4.5   Adaptation of the SRSD Model for the teaching of academic writing to low-proficiency ESL learners

4.5   Summary

The findings reveal that SRSD based writing instruction has a significant positive effect on all four components of the writing skills of the low-proficiency ESL learners as well as their overall use of the language learning strategies. The most frequent use of learning strategies in this ESL academic writing class was the affective strategies, and this was followed by the cognitive strategies and then the metacognitive. The SRSD model also appears to positively affect the self-efficacy of the learners in the treatment. However, what was unexpected is that the control group likewise indicated a significant change in the overall perceived self-regulatory efficacy for writing. In terms of the 10 categories of self-regulated learning significant changes were found in organising and transforming strategies, reviewing records, keeping records and monitoring and lastly, seeking social assistance for the treatment group.

Finally, it was also found that certain strategies proposed in the model worked better than others and this was probably due to factors such as general learning styles, nature of the assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning, level of motivation and purpose for learning the language, age, sex, personality traits, nationality, and ethnicity appear to influence general pattern of language learning and strategy choice (Magno, 2010; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993; Shakarami Alireza & Mardziah H. Abdullah, 2010).

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.0   Introduction

This chapter, which concludes the present study, revisits the findings and relates these findings to implications for the teaching of academic writing to ESL learners. The limitations of the study are also highlighted and this is tied to the recommendations proposed for future studies in the area of self-regulation and language learning strategies.

5.1   Summary of the Study

The desire to examine effective writing instruction for the teaching of academic writing to Malay ESL students at Malaysian public universities shaped the present study. Malaysian ESL students with a less than adequate command of English struggle with self-confidence and fail to realise their fullest potential in their academic endeavours (Ahmad Khamis, Noran Fauziah Yaakub, Azemi Shaari, Mohd Zailani Mohd Yusoff, 2002, cited in Maria Chong Abdullah, Habibah Elias, Rahil Mahyuddin, & Jegak Uli, 2009). With this observation in mind, the researcher explored the potential of Harris and Graham's (1996; 1999) SRSD model as a possible means of aiding this group of students with their academic writing skills.

A group of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners were taken though a 12-week programme to investigate how self-regulation and language learning strategies needed for academic writing could be taught by adapting the SRSD model into the process writing-based EAP curriculum. The performance of these students was

compared to other students pursuing the same academic writing course through a conventional mode of instruction that only involved process writing (as described in Chapter Three). This involved analysing the data collected using various instruments such as the pre and post instruction written assignments, the two questionnaires, namely the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing Scale (UPSREWS) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990), interviews, background questionnaire, goal setting sheets and students' self-reflections.

From the analysis of the data, there is an indication of a positive relationship between students' writing performance, self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies as well as language learning strategies, and the SRSD writing course. The main findings of this study are revisited for drawing conclusions in the following section.

5.2   Conclusions

In this section, the findings of the research questions are revisited with the aim of drawing appropriate conclusions in relation to Malay ESL students' writing performance, self-efficacy and self-regulation of strategies including those related to language learning in an academic writing context following the SRSD writing instruction.

5.2.1   What are the differences in the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners who have completed a writing course based on the SRSD model in comparison to the control group?

This section addresses the first research question that examines the differences in the writing skills of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners

who have completed a writing course based on the SRSD model compared to the control group that followed only the process writing approach.

The overall IELTS writing scores for the pretest and posttest that were conducted reveal significant change in the treatment group while the control group did not demonstrate any significant change in the writing scores. Furthermore, the findings of the paired-sample t-test revealed that the SRSD based writing instruction had a significant positive effect on the performance of the treatment group with significant changes in the writing of the low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in this group in all four subskills or components of the IELTS Academic Writing Scale that is *task response* which deals with how accurately the task is addressed, *coherence and cohesion* which involves how organized one's writing is, *lexical resource* which refers to the range of one's vocabulary and lastly, *grammatical range and accuracy* which examines the correctness of one's grammar and other mechanics of writing. The control group that was instructed based only on the process writing approach demonstrated a significant positive change in *task response* and *coherence and cohesion* but this change was not as significant as that of the treatment group, where the p-value was 0.000. In fact, the p-value was 0.000 for all four IELTS writing components in the treatment group.

The results suggest that the SRSD writing instruction has indeed helped students improve their writing skills by introducing them to a method of learning involving modelling, observation and imitation that trains them in writing strategies, such as 'planning' which is indirectly assessed in *task*

response and 'organisation' or outlining that is assessed in *coherence and cohesion*. Evidence to support the effectiveness of the SRSD writing instruction is also provided in students' self-reflections and interview responses. Students in the treatment group indicated that they had improved in planning and outlining, something which they had never given adequate thought to in the past classroom writing activities. Also, they expressed that they were more confident about writing the introduction and body paragraphs as well as the conclusion after undergoing the SRSD instruction.

Students in the treatment group who were in the third semester stated that in the previous two semesters, their writing instruction focused mainly on grammar and other mechanics of writing such as spelling and punctuation although an examination of the curriculum indicated that the writing instruction specified was the process writing approach. This suggests that writing strategies such as planning and organising were given little emphasis in previous language courses that the students engaged themselves in.

As a matter of fact, aspects of writing that are of great concern to ESL students include grammar and vocabulary. This concern was voiced by students during the goal setting interview where they expressed having problems with tenses and unfamiliar words. This concern for writing in correct English, which stems from the kind of training they had received in the past, appears to supersede other requirements in writing such as development of ideas and organisation. This preoccupation with grammar

and vocabulary has proven to be an obstacle in writing activities as it affects students' confidence or self-efficacy in relation to a given writing task even before they embark on it. ESL students with poor language proficiency tend to feel inadequate and ill-equipped to write. For them, good writing is correct writing and this was beyond what they perceived themselves to be capable of. This should explain their lack of interest and engagement in writing. This calls for teachers to re-evaluate their approach in writing instruction and the emphasis they placed on certain aspects of writing, particularly grammar and vocabulary. It is thus imperative that teachers focus on strategies related to planning and organisation which would facilitate writing, and not overly emphasise grammar and vocabulary which would hinder students from engaging in writing.

With the SRSD writing instruction, students are able to re-evaluate their priorities and capabilities where writing is concerned. Their focus has switched to the development and organisation of relevant ideas as well as the evaluation of these ideas ─ an approach that students in the study found to be new. As a result, students have become more sensitised to the importance of planning and organising their writing, which entails the inclusion of an appropriate thesis statement, relevant ideas and support for these ideas as well as the need for paraphrasing and acknowledgement of information taken from other sources. Through the modelling and collaborative instruction in the SRSD model, students have come to realise how to employ certain strategies when searching for information or relevant literature, and revising as well as editing their work.

In spite of this switch in focus, the need to improve grammar, as well as vocabulary seems to be even greater following the SRSD writing instruction; hence, the improvement in the latter two components of the IELTS grading scale, namely *lexical resource* and *grammatical range and accuracy* . This is probably because of the nature of the SRSD writing instruction that involves goal setting, self-monitoring as well as self-evaluation and the teaching of strategies through modelling and collaboration.

After the SRSD intervention, students gained a better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses and what they need to do to improve their writing ability. They listed the need to improve grammar and vocabulary among their goals and were able to self-regulate and monitor their learning by working independently to improve their grammar and vocabulary and other aspects of writing. At tertiary level, the onus is on them to seek further improvement in their writing. Some students in the study, however, seemed to lack persistence in their endeavour as they lacked confidence and felt overwhelmed by what they needed to achieve. This calls for a change in the mindset of students and increased effort and persistence in fulfilling the requirements of their EAP course and attaining their goals. What is apparent in this study of low-proficiency ESL students is that some of these students have not overcome the defeatist attitude that Shaughnessy (1977) identified as a challenge for teachers to address. Perhaps, teachers need to allocate some time for instruction on grammar and vocabulary related to academic English in view of these language skills being a hurdle that many feel really helpless to overcome. Instruction

on these language skills, however, should be incorporated into the writing they do as teaching these skills in isolation has had little effect on improving their writing ability (Freedman & Daiute, 2001, cited in The National Commission on Writing, 2003).

Through the explicit strategy instruction involved in the SRSD approach, students have come to understand the strategies involved in academic writing and appreciate the fact that they are not working alone as they are able to consult the writing instructor and their more capable peers when in doubt. This collaborative learning seems effective in promoting strategy use among students and fostering confidence among them. Furthermore, through group work and pair work [as it is a course requirement that each of them produced a joint term paper with their partner], they are able to put into practice the strategies they have learnt and also evaluate the writing based on the evaluation checklists provided as well as the feedback they have received from their peers and their instructor. However, the success of this collaboration depends on students' interpersonal skills, sense of responsibility and motivation, as well as the application of the cognitive writing strategies and self-regulation.

These results seem to suggest that employing the SRSD model in a writing course, may maximise the beneficial effects of the process writing approach to teaching academic writing. Strategies related to planning and organising, as well as revising and editing the writing through the SRSD instruction seem to heighten students' awareness of the requirements of a well-written essay to a certain extent and at the same time, promote self-

efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies among students.

5.2.2 How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the perceived self-efficacy for writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their learning strategies in comparison to the control group?

This section addresses the second research question that looks at the effects of the writing course based on the SRSD model on the perceived self-efficacy for writing of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in comparison to the effects of the conventional method using the process writing approach on the self-efficacy of the control group.

As self-efficacy has been said to be task specific, the UPSREW scale was developed to assess the perceived self-regulated efficacy for writing of students in their academic writing course. This scale, which measures students' perceived self-efficacy to regulate their writing, also examines the students' self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies based on the categories postulated by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) derived from the social cognitive perspective.

5.2.2.1 Impact of the SRSD Model on Perceived Self-efficacy

The paired sample t-test results indicated that the SRSD model had a positive effect on the perceived self-regulatory efficacy for writing in the case of learners in the treatment group. At the start of the study, most of the students in this treatment group had low self-efficacy for academic writing but after having undergone the SRSD writing instruction, students indicated a significant improvement in their self-efficacy. However, it was also found that self-efficacy demonstrated by the control group was higher

than that of the treatment group at both the beginning and the end of the 12-week instruction period. An improvement in perceived self-efficacy after any form of strategy instruction has to be anticipated. In view of this, students in the control group who had been taught based on the process writing approach would naturally feel that they have gained new knowledge and skills in academic writing at the end of their course. While acknowledging that they possessed higher self-efficacy at the end of their course, students in the treatment group were more guarded or cautious in their self-evaluation, possibly because the course modelled after SRSD provided them with a more realistic view of their capability in using the strategies. Students in the treatment group were made aware about their strengths and weaknesses resulting from the writing instruction that focused not only on writing strategies but also on self-regulated learning strategies such as goal setting, self-monitoring and self-evaluation.

A comparison of the results of the pre- and posttests for writing clearly indicates that there is a significant improvement in writing in the treatment group. The data revealed that very few (only three students) in the treatment group failed to improve their scores in the writing posttest compared to 13 students in the control group. Hence, it may be concluded that the higher self-efficacy resulting from the SRSD writing instruction indicated a better or more realistic calibration of their writing self-efficacy as this was confirmed by the students' improved performance in academic writing. However, this was not the case with the control group that only underwent a process writing approach in the EAP course. This appears to concur with Gracia and Fidalgo's (2008) study which suggests that

accuracy in the calibration of students' self-efficacy is influenced by the type of intervention they undergo.

The higher self-efficacy reported by students in the control group did not match with their writing performance as the analysis revealed no significant improvement in the overall performance for writing. This miscalibration in self-efficacy has been reported in other studies (Garcia & Fidalgo, 2008; Graham & Harris, 1989b; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, & Page-Voth, 1992; Graham, Schwartz, & MacArthur, 1993; Klassen, 2002; 2007; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992) where students tend to have a problem assessing their level of self-efficacy and this is more apparent among students with low language proficiency and learning disabilities. In fact, according to White and Baird (1991, cited in Lee, 2002) strategy instruction without instruction on self-regulation, may result in students' overestimating the quality of what they have learnt as they may be unaware of the extent of their learning deficiencies. Pajares and Schunk (2001) posit that students' self-efficacy beliefs are affected by the kind of instruction they are provided with and as such can influence their development and utilisation of academic competencies. The findings in this study point to the same conclusion. Without instruction on self-regulation as provided by the SRSD model, it appears that students in the control group were not able to assess their self-efficacy accurately so that it reflected their actual abilities in the writing task.

Also, evident in the present study is that students' response to strategy instruction is affected by the kind of instruction they received in the past. It

is likely that some of the Malay ESL students were not able to fully appreciate the benefits of goal setting and planning under the SRSD writing instruction as they felt discouraged and lacked confidence resulting from the excessive emphasis given to grammar and vocabulary and producing correct English in their previous writing instruction classroom.

5.2.2.2 Impact of the SRSD Model on Perceived Self-Regulation

The present study builds on the findings of previous research (Lee, 2002) by offering new insights into students' reported use of self-regulated learning strategies in an ESL tertiary level classroom. Although the treatment group only indicated significant improvement in four categories of SRL strategies, that is 'organising and transforming', 'reviewing records', 'keeping records and monitoring' and 'seeking social assistance', there was evidence from interviews and students' self-reflections suggesting that these low-proficiency students did use other SRL strategies to regulate their studies including writing when the need arose. The significant use of the four SRL strategies mentioned in the present study may be the reason for the significant improvement in writing in terms of planning or generation of ideas, organisation, vocabulary and the mechanics of writing.

The findings thus provide some new insights into self-regulatory efficacy for writing and the use of SRL strategies among ESL learners, who belonged to a mono-ethnic group of Asians, comprising Malays. This study thus contributes to new knowledge as very little research has been done on writing although considerable research has been devoted to the

study of self-efficacy in other educational settings involving mainly students from Western cultures (Klassen, 2004).

This study supports the notion that there may be a reciprocal relation between students' self-efficacy for writing and writing self-regulation as research suggests that writers will maintain self-regulation if SRL strategies enhance their beliefs of self-efficacy (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman, 1985, cited in Zimmerman and Risemberg, 1997). In this study, for instance, students were encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning by identifying areas that needed improvement and setting proximal or short-term goals to improve the identified areas of weaknesses. When students attained their set goals, it resulted in an increase in self-efficacy for that particular area of writing for which the goals were set. Thus, students achieved self-regulation through their goal attainment; which in turn resulted in an increase in self-efficacy. However, if students failed to achieve their goals, it could lead to low self-efficacy, and therefore low self-regulation. The relationship between SRL strategies and self-efficacy is also bidirectional as students with no confidence or a low self-efficacy for a certain aspect of writing would refrain from utilising certain SRL strategies such as goal setting, and engaging in any related activity that would prove to be futile to them, and vice versa.

It can be concluded that the SRSD instruction promoted the use of SRL strategies, especially those that high achieving students in previous studies made significant use of. The study found that the SRSD instruction could indeed encourage students to take charge of their learning process by

training them to set and monitor achievable goals. Even when goals are not achieved, the SRSD instruction may provide some training for students to evaluate what they have achieved so far and what behaviour could be altered in order to realise their goals. In this study, it has become apparent that goal setting is an important SRL strategy that needs more time for it to be internalised among ESL learners, specifically in the case of low-proficiency students. Probably the curriculum designers and educators should incorporate this aspect of self-regulated learning strategies at all levels of education starting at the elementary level.

Perhaps, with further SRSD instruction together with intensified efforts at promoting self-efficacy through mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and physiological or emotive arousals (Bandura, 1997; Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005), students' self-efficacy can be further improved and they would be in a better position to self-monitor and self-evaluate as well as adapt themselves in order to become effective writers. The SRSD instruction will thus be able to foster strategies that would enable learners to engage in autonomous learning by equipping them with ability which according to Littlewood (1996), involves knowledge and the necessary skills or strategies for implementing appropriate choices in one's learning, and willingness that is determined by having the motivation and the confidence to be responsible for the choices made.

5.2.3 How does a writing course based on the SRSD model affect the learning strategies employed by low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in their ability to develop and self-regulate their writing in comparison to the control group?

This section addresses the third research question that investigates how the SRSD writing course affects the learning strategies of low-proficiency Malay ESL learners as compared to the effects of the conventional method using the process writing approach on the learning strategies of the control group in their ability to develop and regulate their writing

There was a significant change in the SILL score for the overall learning strategies of the treatment group compared to the control group. The findings of the paired-sample t-tests revealed that the SRSD based writing instruction had an impact on the learning strategies of the low-proficiency Malay ESL learners as significant positive changes were evident in the cognitive, metacognitive and affective language learning strategies of these Malay learners in the treatment group. The SILL analysis of language learning strategies indicated that the utilisation of metacognitive and compensatory strategies was the highest among these students while memory strategies the lowest.

The changes in the language learning strategies that are evident in the treatment group suggest that the SRSD strategy instruction involving planning, setting goals, self-monitoring and self-evaluation of students' writing as well as their goals, and exposing them to practices such as evaluating their own capability or confidence to accomplish certain aspects of a given task has succeeded to a certain extent. This confirms the notion

that low-proficiency writers can be trained to become better writers although the results may not appear to be that great but evidence in the study has proven this to be significant. This may pave the way for learner autonomy in the near future provided this SRSD instruction is employed in other areas of language learning and problem solving such as reading comprehension and mathematics.

Research has provided evidence that successful learners who have a developed sense of metacognitive awareness have the ability to become autonomous language learners (Hauck, 2005, cited in Coskun, 2010) while those without become less successful language learners as they lack the ability to select appropriate strategies. The utilisation of these language learning strategies, however, needs to be supported by having a high level of self-efficacy. This may be made possible by developing the students' affective strategies, which according to Magno (2010), deal with the emotional requirements of students such as having confidence to complete a task. The SRSD intervention appears to meet this requirement to a certain extent with goal setting, self-instruction and self-reinforcement as its main elements. However, in the case of the Malay ESL students in the present study, the impact or application of these elements was not significant probably due to the nature of previous ESL instruction and cultural factors such as attitude towards the TL community and bias towards one's L1 as well as personal factors such as shyness, low self-beliefs and motivation.

A comparison of the control and treatment groups suggests that compensatory strategies are valuable to students in both groups in this study that involves low-proficiency Malay students who are shy and anxious, and lack confidence when it comes to writing. These compensatory strategies that appeared to have a very high post mean score in both these groups are used to compensate for missing knowledge and are thus very important to ESL students whose knowledge of the skills in the target language is inadequate. These strategies are probably important for most ESL learners as previous research has indicated that these strategies are commonly used by Asians such as the Orientals (Cong, 2005; Magno, 2010; Mochizuki, 1999; Ok, 2003; Zhou, 2010) and unsuccessful learners who rely on these strategies when having problems learning their target language (Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008).

The finding also indicates a significant change in the affective strategies for both groups. This suggests that strategy training, whether it involves the SRSD model or the process writing approach has a significant effect in the use of certain strategy or strategies, in this case affective strategies. These strategies are related to students' behaviour as they deal with emotional and motivational problems (Ramirez, 1986, cited in McDonough, 2001). This may involve developing a positive attitude towards a task or learning situation (Green & Oxford, 1995) and being able to deal with anxiety (Oxford, 1990) through self-encouragement and self-reward (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). It is possible that through the SRSD strategy instruction, students can be taught to make good use of these strategies focusing more on their feelings and social interactions in

learning the L2. The courses undertaken by the students may also influence the utilisation of these affective strategies. The students in the study are majoring in art and design, and music, which could have an influence on the use of affective and compensatory strategies. This study also contributes to existing body of research involving social and affective strategies which Oxford (1990) observed to be sparse where L2 research is concerned.

Social strategies appear to be under-utilised by students in both groups. This finding is supported by other studies involving L2 learners (Cong, 2005; Magno, 2010). Unlike compensatory strategies, which are ranked first and second in the treatment and control groups, respectively, social strategies appear to be fourth in ranking in terms of post mean score where strategy use is concerned. However, there is indication that the use of these strategies has increased from medium use of strategy to high usage following the SRSD strategy instruction as well as the process writing approach. In this study, the SRSD writing instruction called for modelling of cognitive strategies and peer support. Such an approach will be more effective if social strategies are given some importance and greater utilisation of these strategies is encouraged among students. Research has indicated that successful learners tend to deploy both affective and social strategies unlike the unsuccessful ones who seldom applied these strategies (Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008). With right strategy training, these students may be in a better position to regulate their emotions effectively thus increasing their self-efficacy when learning the language. Social strategies also facilitate collaboration with peers in problem-solving

activities as they share information, evaluate a learning task, model or enact together a language activity, as well as obtain feedback on oral or written performance (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). All this serves to improve the L2 proficiency of students.

The use of memory strategies also appear to be under-utilised by the low-proficiency Malay students in this study as it is not significant in both groups. This finding which corresponds to strategy studies cited in Magno (2010) where it was found that these strategies were the least utilised in acquiring L2 proficiency suggests that there is a need to re-examine how these strategies can be effectively utilised by students to promote the learning of vocabulary related to academic English. Lee and Oxford (2008) have postulated that rote memory and repetition could promote successful memorisation among Asian students so writing instructors need to promote the use of these strategies among ESL students, particularly in learning grammar and vocabulary related to academic writing.

Successful use of learning strategies gives rise to a high level of self-efficacy as students perceive themselves as successful learners motivated by the positive learning outcomes they have achieved (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986). The level of self-efficacy is found to increase as strategies are administered successfully in a task and this successful outcome in turn reinforces the motivation of the learners (Macaro, 2006). In fact, self-efficacy has a mediating effect on motivation as a learner or agent will only engage in an activity which he feels efficacious to be successful (Ponton, Derrick, Hall,

Rhea, & Carr, 2005). Macaro (2006) postulates that effective use of strategy is essential to motivation. Strategy use and successful outcomes thus may result in increased motivation in students, which in turn may influence strategy choice and self-efficacy to complete tasks and improve performance (Biedenbach, 2004; Yin, 2008). However, in order to achieve this, students need to be provided with specific instruction and this instruction could be based on the SRSD model.

It can be concluded that the SRSD writing instruction develops learners who are self-regulated, strategic and motivated from a social cognitive perspective. Through this instruction, self-regulated learners are able to employ more metacognitive, cognitive and affective strategies to learn and are motivated to a certain extent by a belief in their own capabilities that encourages or drives them to implement actions to attain their academic goals, in this case their goals for writing. The process writing approach on the other hand appeared to have a significant effect on only the use of affective strategies by students in the control group. In terms of order of usage of strategies in this group, there is no notable change except for metacognitive strategies ranking third in the posttest, exchanging in position with cognitive strategies, which now ranks second.

In sum, it is apparent that the treatment group relied more on the metacognitive, cognitive and affective learning strategies than did the control group. Being low-proficiency students, they should also employ more social and memory strategies.

5.2.4 What are the distinctive features of an SRSD model for teaching academic writing to low-proficiency Malay ESL learners?

This section addresses the fourth research question concerning the distinctive characteristics of the SRSD model that can be utilised in providing strategy training for low-proficiency Malay ESL learners in academic writing.

Modelling of strategies as proposed by the SRSD model that is based on the socio-cognitive perspective in language learning, with its endorsement of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement, has once again been proven to be effective in developing the strategies of learners; in this case, it concerns Malay ESL students engaged in learning academic writing. Besides that, in-class collaboration between the writing instructor and students in learning the strategies and applying them in writing has come to be a productive approach that is welcomed by the young adult Malay ESL learners. This approach encourages peer collaboration and increases student participation in activities. It creates a non-threatening environment for students to be actively involved in demonstrating to their peers what they have learnt and sharing experiences and knowledge that promotes writing and self-efficacy for writing.

Among the strategies learnt, however, certain strategies that promote self-regulation such as goal setting and self-instruction were not well-received or appreciated by the students. It appears that goal setting is a new strategy for many of these students and as such, more time is needed to make them more receptive to the idea of setting goals and monitoring them. Some

students, in fact, have indicated that they find goal setting useful as it gives them some focus or direction in their learning and sets a target for them to achieve. Others shy away from goal setting as they lack confidence and do not anticipate a positive outcome of their goal setting.

As the ESL students involved were Malay students, overt behaviour such as self-statements in the form of self-instructions and self-reinforcements did not have any impact on them. This seems to support the notion that strategy use is influenced by cultural or ethnic background. The students were generally shy and reserved, especially when it involved learning and using English. They felt inadequate and lacked confidence in their ability to communicate in English. Thus, they were not comfortable with the idea of overtly expressing their thoughts as they write.

Overall, the results suggest that students with low motivation and low writing ability can improve their writing and acquire a more positive attitude towards it as well as take charge of their learning by adopting effective self-regulated learning strategies such as goal setting, self-monitoring and self-evaluation as well as language learning strategies such as metacognitive, cognitive and affective strategies, encouraged through the explicit strategy instruction that this model supports. They need to be informed of the use of these SRL strategies and be encouraged to use them more effectively. It is, therefore, imperative that teachers make every effort to help their students understand and believe that they can learn the skills and strategies needed to produce writing that can be defined as academic writing.

The SRSD writing instruction adopted for this process based academic writing course has proven itself to be effective in the treatment group compared to academic writing instruction that only employed the process-writing approach, as in the case of the control group. However, it has become apparent that instruction based on the SRSD model should be criterion based as it is meant to be if it is to be fully appreciated. In reality, however, such an idealistic situation is usually not possible. In which case, a time-based approach such as the one adopted in this study appears to be necessary where a classroom setting is involved. The instructor, therefore, has to work within the time constraints imposed by the scheme of work for the EAP course in the instruction. One way to overcome this shortcoming is to provide consultations whenever the need arises and to encourage peer feedback and collaboration. Four contact hours per week with the instructor meeting the students only twice a week is insufficient for this intervention as it involves academic writing. Increased frequency of meeting if not more contact hours should be considered in planning and implementing this writing programme for academic writing, especially if it involves low-proficiency students.

5.3   Implications of Findings

This section outlines the implications of the findings for a select group of individuals and organisation that may directly benefit from the application of the framework used in the present study.

5.3.1 Implication for Teachers and Curriculum Designers

Writing being a complex cognitive activity can be a significant challenge for students, particularly ESL students with low proficiency in English (Fauziah Hassan & Nita Fauzee Selamat, 2002; Yah Awg Nik, Hamzah, & Rafidee bin Hasbollah, 2010). Writing instruction, therefore, needs to include instruction on both cognitive writing strategies and self-regulated learning strategies. In this matter, the study promotes the SRSD writing instruction, which provides explicit strategy instruction that incorporates both types of strategies. The SRSD model may just be the solution that administrators, curriculum planners and teachers need as they strive towards providing an educational system that is learner-centred and effective in developing autonomous learners.

The findings of this study concerning the benefits of peer interaction in terms of giving feedback as well as serving as a source of motivation and point of reference or resource in promoting independent learning among students should be taken into consideration when designing any writing programme for ESL students. Efforts need to be made to encourage learner-centred writing classrooms by promoting social strategies which research has indicated is poorly utilised in the ESL or L2 context.. This is especially necessary in teaching writing which most of the time has been treated as an activity where the writer works alone. Social strategies involve the learner and the people as well the environment the learner comes into contact with (Magno, 2010). These strategies also facilitate collaboration with peers in problem-solving activities, sharing of information, evaluation of a learning task, modelling or enacting together a

language activity (which helps to reinforce one's learning), as well as obtaining feedback on oral or written performance (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Besides social strategies, it is necessary that strategy training should ensure that learners are given sufficient training to deploy affective strategies effectively in their language learning. The SRSD writing instruction seems to promote a significant use of this type of strategy by means of self-instruction or self-reinforcement. However, use of these strategies of self-regulation may need to be modified according to the cultural or ethnic background of the students in the ESL classroom as these variables are found to affect the learning process of students (Lee & Oxford, 2008; Shmais, 2003).

SRSD has been found to be an effective instructional model for improving the writing performance (Graham & Harris, 2003; Graham & Perin, 2007c), writing knowledge (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005) and motivation (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006). The study suggests that SRSD strategy instruction should be incorporated into the process writing approach that has been proven to be effective in teaching writing, as the results indicate that the SRSD instruction has significant effect on students' writing performance, self-efficacy and their use of learning strategies. The nature of the SRSD instruction, however, may have to be time based and not criterion based although the latter would be the better approach to teaching low-proficiency students. If the SRSD model is to be applied to a whole-class setting, a time-based approach may be more

feasible due to the constraints imposed by the syllabus. However, more contact time needs to be allocated in the curriculum if this approach is to be adopted.

It has become evident that instructional strategies such as modelling, strategy training and goal setting in the SRSD mode can enhance students' competence. The SRL strategy component that is not so apparent in the process writing approach as in the SRSD instruction may be the reason for this significant difference. In fact, Harris and Graham (1996) have emphasised the need for incorporating SRL components into classroom instruction on the grounds that maintenance and generalization of strategy use will be affected if students are not given explicit instruction in developing these components. It is, therefore, necessary that curriculum designers and teachers ensure training in SRL strategies as these strategies promote maintenance and generalization of strategy that encourages students to become more autonomous or self-directed in their learning, applying the strategies learnt in other learning contexts and being responsible for their learning. Training in SRL strategies also improves self-efficacy, another important element in establishing learner autonomy as it enables learners to face challenges by undertaking certain difficult tasks and persisting in completing them.

One way to promote self-regulation is through problem or project based learning (PBL) which involves project work as in the case of students in this study who were taking an academic writing course. PBL supports SRL as it places the responsibility on the students to select an authentic topic

for research project, to gather the relevant information, to coordinate the people and the work that the project entails, to achieve the goals or objectives of the project, and to monitor understanding. Students should be encouraged to work in pairs or groups and monitor as well as self-assess their work from time to time. They also need to be taught to provide feedback on their progress but this should not be too frequent. This aspect of self-assessment that is important in SRL can be promoted through the practice of self-reflection and peer feedback with scaffolding provided by teachers' giving feedback on students' progress. Some verbal persuasion should also be applied to persuade students that they are capable and can acquire the skills that they need.

As the SRSD instruction is designed to be flexible catering to the instructional needs of students (Harris & Graham, 1996), some stages of the SRSD model such as developing background knowledge or memorizing the strategy, may not be required for certain students. This mode of instruction, therefore, allows teachers more flexibility in applying the model in various teaching conditions, especially in the case of ESL students who are from various cultures or ethnic groups with varying attitudes and behaviour towards learning. Nevertheless, the onus is on the teachers to ensure that they continue monitoring the students' use of the strategies that have been taught. Strategies like goal setting, planning and organising one's writing, self-monitoring and self-evaluation, revising the writing, as well as self-reinforcement take some time to be internalised and effectively used. In the case of employing mnemonics such as *TREE*, *DARE* or *PLAN&WRITE* in teaching certain genres, several studies have

found that some students required a review of the strategies that they have learnt, as they could not remember the sequence of the strategy (Sexton, Harris, & Graham, 1998). Therefore, it is left to the teacher to determine whether introducing the mnemonics would facilitate or hinder students' writing. In this study, there was very little use of mnemonics because the low-proficiency ESL students' working memory has a lot more information to process at the tertiary level compared to a native speaker, and this may compound the problems they face in writing, specifically academic writing.

From a motivational perspective, learners should be made to realise how they are able to fulfil proximal course goals and complete their programmes successfully while from a distal perspective, they are made to realise how they can empower themselves through lifelong learning (Ponton, Derrick, Confessore, & Rhea, 2005). The onus is on the teachers to ensure that they continue fostering and monitoring the students' use of this goal setting strategy so that it becomes internalised in students with its constant utilisation.

According to Wang and Pape (2004), teaching students different cognitive and self-regulatory strategies is necessary to improve their performance in academic tasks; however, Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) suggest that improving students' self-efficacy beliefs may lead to an increase in the use of these strategies. Although students may not be successful in one aspect of their studies and they may perform well in another and this success serves as a booster to their self-efficacy which is task specific. This

enhanced self-efficacy from mastery of experience will encourage students to put in more effort and aim for success in similar if not more challenging academic contexts in the future.

However, teachers in the language classroom, or any classroom for the matter, need to be cautious of students displaying a high degree of confidence or self-efficacy, as this may not indicate capability or awareness of the requirements of a task. In reality, it may be the reverse as they may actually be experiencing problems with task-analysis and self-awareness (Bandura & Schunk, 1981).

5.3.2 Implication for Ministry of Education, School Administrators and Teacher Trainers

Researchers in the field of self-beliefs such as self-efficacy and self-concept are in agreement that social-comparative school practices that support standardized, normative assessments that encourage students to compare their achievement with that of their peers should not be practised as it harms the self-beliefs of students who are less academically inclined (Pajares & Schunk, 2001). As Albert Bandura puts it, such practices are viewed as "instructional experiences into education in inefficacy" (Bandura, 1997, p. 175). This is an area that administrators and policy makers may want to give some serious thought to where language learning is concerned. Is it really necessary to have normative assessments for all language skills at every stage of the ESL students' academic career? As the English language is to be used for facilitating learning and communication, particularly through the mode of writing; perhaps, the

need to enhance self-efficacy should outweigh the need to evaluate students through normative assessments. There is a real need to add the thrill to language learning with the hope that this would promote the will and the skill needed for students' academic success.

Pajares and Schunk (2001) in citing William James (1896/1958) support his views that teachers need to face the challenge of training students' self-regulatory practices to be as automatic and habitual as soon as possible. To achieve this, teachers need to encourage the habit of finishing assignments within the given deadlines, focusing on studies when other things seem more interesting, concentrating on academic work and overcoming distractions, accessing appropriate resources to gather information, managing time and homework, and ensuring a place where they can study without distractions. As most teachers are new to this concept of SRL strategies, there is a need for teacher trainers to instruct teacher trainees and in-service teachers on these strategies so that they are equipped to develop these SRL strategies in students.

5.4   Limitations

Although the investigation in this study which explored the multifaceted effects of the SRSD model on the self-efficacy, language learning strategies and writing performance of ESL students in academic writing was strong in many respects such as the various instruments used to ensure validity and reliability, there are limitations inherent in the design and implementation of the study.

Firstly, as this study was conducted within the quasi-experimental framework, the treatment sample consisting of 33 students and the control group of 33 students was small and may not allow for the generalisability of the findings. Furthermore, as the study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the SRSD model in training students with low English proficiency in academic writing, students of high and average proficiency were excluded from the sample. This adds another limit to the generalisability of the findings.

Secondly, the generalisability of the data may also have been compromised due to bias that may have resulted from a single instructor, the researcher herself, providing the instruction to the groups in the treatment condition and collecting data from these groups. As instructors vary in their effectiveness and this was the researcher's own study, it is impossible to know whether the results were due to the strategy instruction or some other aspect of her instruction.

Thirdly, the study focused only on a mono-ethnic group of students that was composed of Malays who were taking courses in art and design, and music. This is mainly because this university has a policy of only accepting *Bumiputra* students of which the Malays are the majority. As such, the study did not consider the effects of employing the SRSD model in teaching writing to students of different ethnic and social backgrounds as would have been the case in a typical ESL classroom in Malaysia. Expanding the sampling to other ethnic groups would add another dimension to this study as this would enable one to determine whether differences in students' ethnic background has any impact on the way the students respond to this method of strategy instruction in writing. This clearly points to a limitation that needs to be addressed in future research.

As this study involves strategy training and ESL writing, there is a possibility that the SRSD model and its influence on strategy use may produce results that vary according to different cultural or educational groups. In fact, factors such as general learning styles, nature of the assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning, level of motivation and purpose for learning the language, age, sex, personality traits, nationality, and ethnicity of the subjects may have a bearing on the effectiveness and outcome of this SRSD model.

Furthermore, the evaluation of writing in the current study was restricted to only the cause-effect pattern of essays although other genres such as comparison-contrast and problem-solution or argumentation had been discussed in the course. Only one pattern or genre of writing was utilized in both the pre- and post instruction written assignments in an effort to maintain some consistency in evaluation. Therefore, this sets a limit to understanding the impact of the SRSD on the strengths or weaknesses of students as they engage in academic writing. The pattern or genre of writing may have a bearing on a student's performance, especially as students may find some genres easier to deal with in writing compared to others (Kegley, 1986; Sabariah M. D. Rashid & Shameem Rafik-Galea, 2007). Research on L1 and ESL writing has indicated, for instance, that students prefer narrative, descriptive, and expository writing to persuasive or argumentative writing (Kegley, 1986; Sabariah M. D. Rashid & Shameem Rafik-Galea, 2007; Zuraidah Ali & Melor Md Yunus, 2004).

Also on the issue of evaluation of students' writing is the limitation posed by the nature of the written assignment which was not timed nor confined to a specific venue. In keeping with the requirements for academic writing which was based on

the process writing approach, students were not administered a timed, direct writing test as this went against the very nature of academic writing. Silva and Brice (2004, cited in Hu, 2007) opine that such a test 'underpredict[s] ESL students' abilities to write under natural conditions, holding them back, in some cases repeatedly… [and] may not give full play to L2 writers' writing abilities' (p.77). However, as the test is a take home test, there is a possibility that the essays submitted by the students may not be a product of individual effort but cooperative effort among friends or fellow classmates. Looking at this from another perspective, this take home test provides a means of assessing students in another dimension, that is, their use of the SRL strategies such as goal setting, seeking information, seeking social assistance, and keeping records and monitoring.

Additionally, the paired sample t-tests that have been used in studies on self-efficacy and self-regulation as well as language learning strategies (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Katz, 2001) may have skewed the results of this study which used a small sample that was not randomly selected. Future studies, therefore, should address this issue by employing ANCOVA, comparing the posttests while controlling for pretest differences in the statistical analysis, on subjects that are randomly sampled.

Also, there is no provision made in the IELTS grading scale for Academic English to assess whatever prewriting strategies the students may have used for the pre-instruction as well as the post instruction writing assignments. The evaluation of the prewriting strategies is thus very subjective based on what the students informed the researcher during the interview and what some of them remembered

to submit. As such, the researcher can only determine or gauge the use of these prewriting strategies indirectly by looking at the content (task fulfilment) and organisation (cohesion and coherence) of the pre- and post instruction written assignments. The use of these strategies should be reflected in these two components of the writing assessment to some extent.

Lastly, the study employed self-reporting methodologies such as self-reflections, interviews, and questionnaires. This form of assessment is rather subjective and confounding. A key problem in studies examining strategy use and self-efficacy is the question of how reliable students' verbal reports of their cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies, as well as their capabilities are. The information that is reported may not necessarily reflect the students' actual performance. In fact, at times there may be a mismatch between what is reported and what is actually done. It could be that some strategies have reached the point of automaticity in the students that they are not conscious of employing them. Also, there is a possibility that the students may have misunderstood the questions in the survey which are expressed in English. Being low-proficiency ESL learners who lacked confidence, they might not have sought clarification for any doubts that arose with regard to the questions even when given the opportunity to do so. However, according to Brown (1987, cited in Shapley, 1993), learners are in a better position to provide a self-report as they possess substantial cognitive knowledge about themselves as learners and the learning context that is assumed to be stable.

5.5   Recommendations for Further Research

To increase our understanding of how students learn various language skills and strategies and transfer these to other fields of study, more SRSD research that promotes maintenance and generalisation of strategies involving both quantitative and qualitative methods is necessary. This would provide greater insights into the language teaching and learning processes that play a significant role in the overall development of students as autonomous learners.

As writing is crucial for both academic and professional careers, more research involving SRSD writing instruction is needed, with focus on ESL students at different level of education, that is primary, secondary and tertiary. At tertiary level, the research on SRSD should investigate the writing performance of students from different disciplines. This research could also investigate the impact of SRSD instruction on ESL students' application of self-regulation when given take home writing assignments and in-class writing tests.

To promote the generalisability of the findings, it is suggested that more quantitative research on the impact of SRSD on ESL students' writing involving a bigger sample size that is randomly selected be carried out using statistical analyses such as the ANCOVA. However, these studies need to incorporate qualitative data so as to provide deeper insights into the students' response to the intervention.

Other language skills that need to be investigated through the SRSD intervention are grammar, reading and vocabulary. This is necessary, as among the challenges faced by ESL writers in their academic writing course is their inadequacy in

grammar and vocabulary as well as problems in comprehending the reading materials.

As this study involves strategy training and ESL writing, there is a possibility that the SRSD model and its influence on strategy use may produce different findings for different cultural or educational groups. Factors such as general learning styles, nature of the assigned task, degree of awareness or level of language learning, level of motivation and purpose for learning the language, age, sex, personality traits, nationality, and ethnicity of the subjects may have a bearing on the effectiveness of this original model and need to be investigated further. As research on the effects of SRSD intervention in other cultures and languages is lacking, it is timely that more effort is made to fill the gap in this field of investigation. The research in this study involves low-proficiency ESL Malay learners. It would be interesting to examine the effects of SRSD instruction in a regular classroom involving students of mixed ability. Additionally, it would be useful to note the effects of this model on ESL learners who are from different cultural or ethnic background.

Another observation that warrants further investigation is the language used in the self-statements or self-talks employed in the SRSD instruction. It would be interesting to investigate whether verbalising their thoughts in their L1 instead of the L2 that they are currently learning facilitates or interferes with the ESL students' acquisition of L2

A related issue that merits investigation is that pertaining to gender differences in ESL students' responses to strategy training in SRSD. This is necessary, as it will

provide some insights that may solve the current imbalance in student ratio in terms of gender, where the female students seem to dominate in institutions of higher learning. Perhaps, this investigation should begin by looking at ESL students at the lower levels of education, such as primary and secondary.

Another aspect that needs to be investigated in SRSD research on academic writing at tertiary level is a method to evaluate its effectiveness in the various stages of the writing process that is planning, goal setting and revision. Also, as writing performance of students may vary according to different genres, it would be useful to examine the effectiveness of the SRSD model in teaching different genres to ESL students.

Although substantial research has been devoted to the study of self-efficacy in academic settings, most of these studies involve students in the West (Klassen, 2004). As such, researchers need to augment this body of research by investigating the self-efficacy of students from other cultures and its effect in different tasks as self-efficacy is task-specific. There is also a need to devise a more reliable means of assessing self-efficacy as measures have at times been unreliable resulting in a miscalibration of the learners' self-efficacy.

Similarly, more research is required on self-regulation as well as strategy instruction to promote both SRL and language learning strategies among ESL students from other cultures and in different educational settings. The research instruments used should take into consideration the students' level of proficiency in English and perhaps even include questionnaires that have been translated into the students' L1 to facilitate students' understanding during data collection.

Research is needed to investigate how the SRL strategy of goal setting in particular can be inculcated in students as it is proven to be vital for the self-regulation of one's learning that can in turn promote learner autonomy (Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998; Bandura, 1986; Zimmerman, 2002)

5.6 Summary

ESL students need to possess appropriate will, skill and self-regulation in order to be effective learners (Rachal, Daigle, & Rachal, 2007). It is assumed that students who enter college or university do so with some exposure to as well as understanding of what is required of an engaged student. They are assumed to have a repertoire of effective learning behaviour as they have been exposed to increasing educational experience. However, many students do not develop effective learning strategies unless they receive explicit instruction and the opportunity to apply these skills (Rachal, Daigle, & Rachal, 2007). This situation calls for an approach to writing instruction that would provide a more supportive teaching and learning environment that would ultimately produce students who are more self-directed or autonomous.

From a social cognitive perspective, self-regulated or autonomous learners employ metacognitive processes to learn, they are motivated by a belief in their own capabilities and they implement actions or strategies to attain academic goals. It appears that the SRSD model used in providing strategy instruction in a writing course that employs the process writing approach may be the answer as it has resulted in significant positive changes in terms of writing skills, self-efficacy and self-regulation as well as language learning strategies. However, there appears to be certain issues in the area of self-efficacy and self-regulation that future research

needs to address so that these concepts of self-belief and self-regulation can be effectively promoted among students so that they are motivated and persist in their quest to achieve academic success regardless of the challenges they may have to face. Although there is a need for further research, the present study adds to existing body of research that proves that a well-developed strategy instruction can have an augmentative effect on the development of Malay ESL learners' writing skills, language learning strategies and self-efficacy.

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Appendix A: Pre- and Post-Instruction Written Assignments

Pre-Instruction Written Assignment

Prepare a typed essay of about 350 words on the following topic:

The Internet and Its Influence on Our Culture

Put in your best effort, applying all that you know about good essay writing.

Please note that you also have to hand in **ALL** pre-writing work that you have done in the course of doing this essay.

Your deadline for submission is one week from the date on which this assignment was given.

Post-Instruction Written Assignment

Prepare a typed essay of about 350 words on the following topic:

Mobile Phone and Its Influence on Our Society Today

Put in your best effort, applying all that you know about good essay writing.

Please note that you also have to hand in **ALL** pre-writing work that you have done in the course of doing this essay.

Your deadline for submission is one week from the date on which this assignment was given.

Appendix B: IELTS Task 2 Writing Band Descriptors (Public Version)

Band	Task Response	Coherance and Cohesion	Lexical Resourse	Grammmatical Range and Accuracy
9	•fully addresses all parts of the task •presents a fully developed position in answer to the question with relevant, fully extended and well supported ideas	•uses cohesion in such a way that it attracts no attention •skilfully manages paragraphing	•uses a wide range of vocabulary with very natural and sophisticated control of lexical features; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'	•uses a wide range of structures with full flexibility and accuracy; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'
8	•sufficiently addresses all parts of the task •presents a well-developed response to the question with relevant, extended and supported ideas	•sequences information and ideas logically •manages all aspects of cohesion well •uses paragraphing sufficiently and appropriately	•uses a wide range of vocabulary fluently and flexibly to convey precise meanings •skilfully uses uncommon lexical items but there may be occasional inaccuracies in word choice and collocation •produces rare errors in spelling and/or word formation	•uses a wide range of structures •the majority of sentences are error-free •makes only very occasional errors or inappropriacies
7	•addresses all parts of the task •presents a clear position throughout the response •presents, extends and supports main ideas, but there may be a tendency to over-generalise and/or supporting ideas may lack focus	•logically organises information and ideas; there is clear progression throughout •uses a range of cohesive devices appropriately although there may be some under-/over-use •presents a clear central topic within each paragraph	•uses a sufficient range of vocabulary to allow some flexibility and precision •uses less common lexical items with some awareness of style and collocation •may produce occasional errors in word choice, spelling and/or word formation	•uses a variety of complex structures •produces frequent error-free sentences •has good control of grammar and punctuation but may make a few errors
6	•addresses all parts of the task although some parts may be more fully covered than others •presents a relevant position although the conclusions may become unclear or repetitive •presents relevant main ideas but some may be inadequately developed/unclear	•arranges information and ideas coherently and there is a clear overall progression •uses cohesive devices effectively, but cohesion within and/or between sentences may be faulty or mechanical •may not always use referencing clearly or appropriately •uses paragraphing, but not always logically	•uses an adequate range of vocabulary for the task •attempts to use less common vocabulary but with some inaccuracy •makes some errors in spelling and/or word formation, but they do not impede communication	•uses a mix of simple and complex sentence forms •makes some errors in grammar and punctuation but they rarely reduce communication
5	•addresses the task only partially; the format may be inappropriate in places •expresses a position but the development is not always clear and there may be no conclusions drawn •presents some main ideas but these are limited and not sufficiently developed; there may be irrelevant detail	•presents information with some organisation but there may be a lack of overall progression •makes inadequate, inaccurate or over-use of cohesive devices •may be repetitive because of lack of referencing and substitution •may not write in paragraphs, or paragraphing may be inadequate	•uses a limited range of vocabulary, but this is minimally adequate for the task •may make noticeable errors in spelling and/or word formation that may cause some difficulty for the reader	•uses only a limited range of structures •attempts complex sentences but these tend to be less accurate than simple sentences •may make frequent grammatical errors and punctuation may be faulty; errors can cause some difficulty for the reader
4	•responds to the task only in a minimal way or the answer is tangential; the format may be inappropriate •presents a position but this is unclear •presents some main ideas but these are difficult to identify and may be repetitive, irrelevant or not well supported	•presents information and ideas but these are not arranged coherently and there is no clear progression in the response •uses some basic cohesive devices but these may be inaccurate or repetitive •may not write in paragraphs or their use may be confusing	•uses only basic vocabulary which may be used repetitively or which may be inappropriate for the task •has limited control of word formation and/or spelling; errors may cause strain for the reader	•uses only a very limited range of structures with only rare use of subordinate clauses •some structures are accurate but errors predominate, and punctuation is often faulty
3	•does not adequately address any part of the task •does not express a clear position •presents few ideas, which are largely undeveloped or irrelevant	•does not organise ideas logically •may use a very limited range of cohesive devices, and those used may not indicate a logical relationship between ideas	•uses only a very limited range of words and expressions with very limited control of word formation and/or spelling •errors may severely distort the message	•attempts sentence forms but errors in grammar and punctuation predominate and distort the meaning
2	•barely responds to the task •does not express a position •may attempt to present one or two ideas but there is no development	•has very little control of organisational features	•uses an extremely limited range of vocabulary; essentially no control of word formation and/or spelling	•cannot use sentence forms except in memorised phrases
1	•answer is completely unrelated to the task	•fails to communicate any message	•can only use a few isolated words	•cannot use sentence forms at all
0	•does not attend •does not attempt the task in any way •writes a totally memorised response			

Appendix C:

Questionnaire on the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability

This questionnaire is for the purpose of getting some insights into the use of English and the writing done by Malaysian students studying English as a second language. As all information will be treated as confidential, please give your frank and honest response in completing this questionnaire, being as detailed as you can. Your co-operation in this matter is much appreciated.

Note: This questionnaire is adapted from the questionnaire on The Needs of Intermediate and Advanced ESL Students in Malaysia prepared by Morais (2000) for her writing research on postgraduate students.

Instruction: Complete this questionnaire by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes or writing your responses in the space provided.

Name: _____

1.   Age: _____   2.   Sex: _____

3.   Hometown: _____ which is ☐ rural   ☐ urban

4.   Mother tongue: _____

5.   Family background: (a) Father's occupation: _____

(b) Mother's occupation: _____

6.   Language(s) used most widely at home: _____

7.   Language(s) used most widely outside home: _____

8.   Medium of instruction: (a)   Primary: _____

(b)   Secondary: _____

(c)   College: _____

9.   How often do you communicate socially in English?

☐   Always   ☐   Occasionally

☐   Frequently   ☐   Never

☐   Sometimes

10. When communicating in English, which mode do you prefer?

☐ Oral

☐ Written

☐ Both, oral and written

11. How confident are you when speaking in English?

☐ Very confident

☐ Confident

☐ Somewhat confident

☐ Not confident at all

12. How confident are you when writing in English?

☐ Very confident

☐ Confident

☐ Somewhat confident

☐ Not confident at all

13. Previous Education:

Name of Secondary School/College	Level of education achieved	Grade(s) scored in English

14. Muet score: _____

15. Grades scored in the UiTM English courses: BEL120 _____ BEL260 _____

16. Up to this point in time, have the writing activities for English at college been useful?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Give your reasons and examples of writing to support your view:

_____

_____

17. Please specify the nature of your previous working experience if any.

_____

_____

18. Referring to Q.17, was English important in your work?

☐ Yes ☐ No

19. Referring to Q.17, for what purpose(s), did you use English in your work?

_____

_____

20. On a scale of 0 (not at all important) to 5 (very important), how important is English in the programme that you are taking? Please circle your response.

    0   1   2   3   4   5
Not at all   very
Important   important

21. On a scale of 0 (not at all important) to 5 (very important), how important is writing in English in the programme that you are taking? Please circle your response.

    0   1   2   3   4   5
Not at all   very
Important   important

22. How do you feel about writing in English?

_____

_____

23. What are the problem(s) that you encounter when writing in English?

_____

_____

24. How do you deal with the problem(s) with writing in English?

_____

_____

_____

25. How do you feel about your writing assignments, which are done in English? (Usefulness, time given, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

26. How often do you work alone on a writing assignment?

☐ Always   ☐ Once in a while

☐ Most of the time   ☐ Never

☐ Sometimes

27. How do you prefer to work on a writing assignment?

    ☐   I prefer to work alone.

    ☐   I prefer to work with a partner.

    ☐   I prefer to work with a group of students.

Reasons:

_____

_____

28. When do you enjoy writing in English? Give reasons and examples of writing that you enjoy doing.

_____

_____

_____

29. Do you feel writing in English is necessary for your future?

    ☐   Yes   ☐   No

30. What do you do when you are asked to do a writing assignment in English? Please describe **in detail** how **you** would go about doing this.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

31. What kinds of writing instruction / support have you received? Please give details.

_____

_____

_____

32. Do computers help you in doing your writing assignments in English?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Reasons:

_____

_____

_____

33. What do you do when you have problems with your writing assignments?

_____

_____

_____

34 What are the topics that you would like to write about if given a choice? Please list as many as you can.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

35. What sort of help do you need to enable you to reduce if not overcome the problems you have with writing assignments in English? Please complete the following table being as detailed as possible.

PROBLEMS WITH WRITING	TYPE OF HELP NEEDED

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Appendix D1:

Interview Protocol During the Goal Setting Conference with Student

1. How did you feel about the essay that you were given?
2. Did you do any planning?
3. How long did it take you to do the planning?
4. Did you do any research?
5. What kind of research did you do? How long did it take?
6. How long did it take you write this paper?
7. Tell me something about your family.
8. Do you have group discussion in English/study together?
9. What are your goals for this semester?
10. What are the problems that you face with writing?
11. What would you do to solve these problems?
12. What are your goals for the written assignment that you have submitted?
13. How confident are you of achieving these goals?

Appendix D2:

Interview Protocol at the End of the Semester after the Strategy Training

1. How did you find the final examination for your English course this semester?
2. Did you set any goals for this paper?
3. Is setting goals something new for you this semester?
4. Do you monitor your writing?
5. How do you go about monitoring your writing?
6. What did you do when writing the essay?
7. Did you have time to check your writing?
8. How confident are you about your writing in the final paper?
9. How much do you think you got for your writing in the final examination?
10. What grade do you think you got for your English course this semester?
11. How do you feel about your writing this semester compared to last semester?
12. What more do you think you need to do to improve your writing?
13. How do you think we can help our students with their writing?

Appendix E1:   Self-Reflections 1

Name of Student: Group:

Student's Self-Reflections 1

1   What have you learnt so far about academic writing?

2   What are you confident of doing as far as academic writing is concerned?

3   What do you think about the method of teaching?

4   What more can be done?

5   What more do you need to do?

Appendix E2:   Self-Reflections 2

Name of Student: Group:

Student's Self-Reflections 2

    1   What do you do now when you have to write an essay? Elaborate

    2   Do you regulate your writing? What are you reasons?

    3   What strategy/strategies do you use in your writing?

    4   How have your strategy/strategies (tactic or approach) changed compared to what you did earlier in the semester?

    5   What do you feel about setting goals for writing?

    6   What about the other courses that you are taking? Do you feel the need to set goals for these courses? Please state your reasons.

    7   Do you think goals are important? Please state your reasons.

8   What are the goals that you have achieved? Why is this possible?

9   What are the goals that you have not achieved? Why is this not possible?

10   Do you know how to solve your problems? What do you need to do?

11   What do you plan to achieve in your writing course?

12   On a scale from **0 (not at all confident) to 10 (highly confident)**, please rate the overall level of your confidence in achieving these goals.
(Circle any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your level of confidence.)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓
Not at all confident					Moderately confident					Highly confident
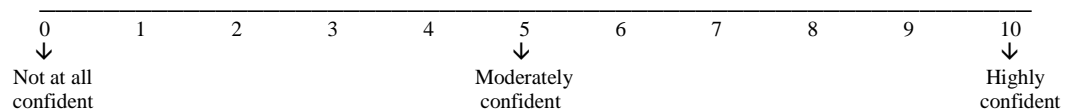
13   What's your next move?

Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing Scale

Name: Sex:
Age: Course:

This questionnaire is designed to provide us with a better understanding of the problems students encounter with writing. The information you provide will be treated as strictly confidential.

Directions:
On a scale from **0 (cannot do at all) to 10 (highly certain that I can do)**, please rate how confident you are that you can perform each of the tasks described below by circling the appropriate number next to each statement.

You may use any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your degree of confidence.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain that I can do					Highly certain that I can do

Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing Scale

1	When given a specific writing assignment, I can come up with a suitable topic in a short time.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
2	I can start writing with no difficulty.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
3	I can construct a good opening sentence quickly.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
4	I can come up with an unusual opening paragraph to capture readers' interest.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
5	I can write a brief but informative overview (that is a comprehensive thesis statement) that will prepare readers well for the main thesis of my paper.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

You may use any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your degree of confidence.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain that I can do					Highly certain that I can do

6   I can use my first attempts at writing (that is my freewriting and first draft) to refine my ideas on a topic.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

7   I can adjust my style of writing to suit the needs of any audience.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

8   I can find a way to concentrate on my writing even when there are many distractions around me.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

9   When I have a pressing deadline on a paper, I can manage my time efficiently.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

10   I can meet the writing standards of an evaluator or examiner who is very demanding.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

11   I can come up with examples quickly to illustrate an important point.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

12   I can rewrite my wordy or confusing sentences clearly.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

13   When I need to make a subtle or an abstract idea more imaginable, I can use words to illustrate or describe this idea more clearly.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

14   I can locate and use appropriate reference sources when I need to document an important point.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

15   I can write very effective transitional sentences that link the idea in one paragraph to an idea in another paragraph so that readers can follow the flow of my argument.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

16   I can refocus my concentration on writing when I find myself thinking of other things.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

17   When I write on a lengthy topic, I can create a good outline for my paper.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

You may use any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your degree of confidence.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain that I can do					Highly certai that I can

›

18   When I want to persuade a reader about a point, I can come up with a convincing quote from an authority from reference sources.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

19   When I get stuck writing a paper, I can find ways to overcome the problem.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

20   I can find ways to motivate myself to write a paper even when the topic holds little interest for me.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

21   When I have written a long or complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

22   I can revise a first draft of any paper so that it is shorter and better organized.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

23   I can find other people who will give critical feedback on early drafts of my paper.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

24   When my paper is written on a complicated topic, I can come up with a short informative title.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

25   I can use the Internet to locate appropriate online sources of information for my writing assignment.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

26   I can express what I really think in my writing.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

27   I can express in my own words the information that is taken from reference sources.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

28   I can write sentences (simple, compound and complex sentences) with proper punctuation and grammar.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

29   I can rearrange the sentences within a paragraph so that there is a smooth flow in the discussion and the main idea is clearly expressed.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

You may use any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your degree of confidence.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓

Cannot do at all   Moderately certain that I can do   Highly certain that I can do

30   I can work in small groups to discuss ideas and do revision to my writing.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

31   I can write a well-organized and well-sequenced paper that has a good introduction, body, and conclusion.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

32   I can write paragraphs with details that support the topic sentences or main ideas.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

33   I can give proper documentation and acknowledgement to my sources of information through in-text citations and references.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

34   I can pass my writing test without any problem.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

35   I can do well on my writing test and score an A.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

36   If the assignment calls for 1000 words, I can write just about that many.   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix G1:   Distal Goal Setting Sheet

Name:
Group:
Course:

GOALS FOR THE SEMESTER

1. List 5 specific areas in your writing which you have to focus on and improve
    this
    semester:

    a)

    b)

    c)

    d)

    e)

2. What steps will you take to achieve the goals that you have listed above?

3. Which of the 5 goals are more important to you?

4. What are the barriers or obstacles, both personal (internal) or external, that you
    believe can prevent you from achieving these 5 goals?

5. How do you intend to overcome these barriers or obstacles to your goals?

6. Whom can you approach for help or assistance in your attempt at achieving your goals?

7. On a scale from **0 (not at all confident) to 10 (highly confident)**, please rate the overall level of your confidence in achieving your goals.
   (Circle any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your level of confidence.)

_____

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

↓   ↓   ↓

Not at all   Moderately   Highly
confident   confident   confident
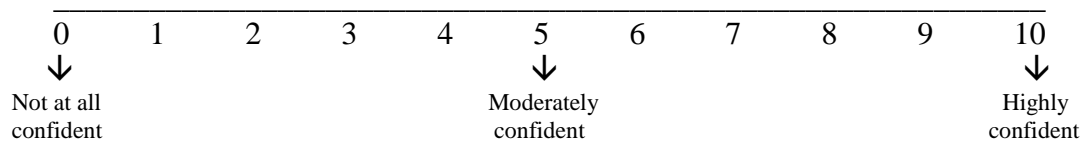
Why do you rate yourself in this way?

8. Of the 5 goals listed earlier, which are the ones that you are most confident of achieving?

9. Of the 5 goals listed earlier, which are the ones that you are least confident of achieving?

Adapted from:
Biedenbach, S. B. (2004). *Surviving the academy through process and practice:*
    The impact of using a self-regulated strategy development approach for
    teaching college-level basic writers

**Appendix G2:   Proximal Goal Setting Sheet**

Name:
Group:
Course:

PROXIMAL GOALS FOR WRITING

1. What are the goals that you had set for this written assignment? List 2 or 3 specific goals.

2. Are you satisfied with the topic assigned for this written assignment?
    ☐Yes ☐No

    State your reason(s) for saying this?

3. On a scale from **0 (not at all satisfied) to 10 (highly satisfied)**, please evaluate your goal accomplishment for this written assignment.
    (Circle any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your level of satisfaction.)

    _____

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓

    Not at all   Moderately   Highly
    satisfied   satisfied   satisfied
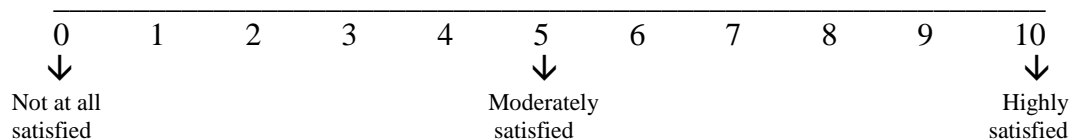
    Why do you rate yourself in this way?

4. What are the reasons for achieving or not achieving your goals for this written assignment?

5. List 2 or 3 specific goals that you would like to achieve in the next written assignment:

6. What steps will you take to achieve the goals that you have listed for the next written assignment?

7. What are the barriers or obstacles, both personal (internal) or external, that can prevent you from achieving these goals?

8. How do you intend to overcome these barriers or obstacles to your goals?

9. Whom can you approach for help or assistance to achieve your goals?

10. On a scale from **0 (not at all confident) to 10 (highly confident)**, please rate the overall level of your confidence in achieving these goals.
(Circle any number between 0 and 10 in the scale given below to indicate your level of confidence.)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
↓					↓					↓
Not at all confident					Moderately confident					Highly confident
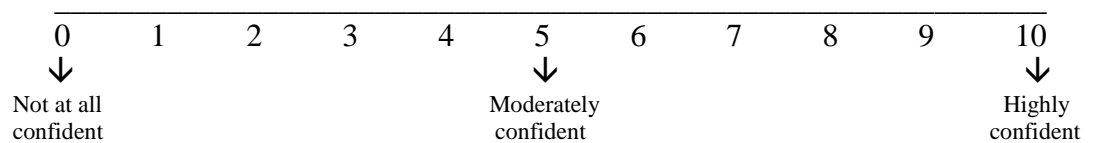
Why do you rate yourself in this way?

Adapted from:
Biedenbach, S. B. (2004). *Surviving the academy through process and practice: The impact of using a self-regulated strategy development approach for teaching college-level basic writers*

Appendix H: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Name: Sex:
Age: Course:
English Group:

This form of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. It is designed to gather information about how you go about learning that language. The information you provide will be treated as strictly confidential.

Directions:
You will find statements about learning English. Please read each one and tick (✓) your **response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5)** in the appropriate box that tells how true the statement is in terms of what you do when you are learning the language.

What do the responses mean?

1 = Never or almost never true of me	means that the statement is very rarely true of you.
2 = Usually not true of me	means that the statement is true less than half the time.
3 = Somewhat true of me	means that the statement is true of you about half the time.
4 = Usually true of me	means that the statement is true more than half the time.
5 = Always or almost always true of me	means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Answer the survey in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. It usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete this survey, which consists of six sections (A, B, C, D, E and F). If you have any questions, let the teacher or instructor know immediately.

1 = Never or almost never true of me	means that the statement is very rarely true of you
2 = Usually not true of me	means that the statement is true less than half the time
3 = Somewhat true of me	means that the statement is true of you about half the time
4 = Usually true of me	means that the statement is true more than half the time
5 = Always or almost always true of me	means that the statement is true of you almost always

Part A		1	2	3	4	5
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7	I physically act out new English words.					
8	I review English lessons often.					
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					

Part B		1	2	3	4	5
10	I say or write new English words several times.					
11	I try to talk like native English speakers, that is like the English.					
12	I practise the sounds of English.					
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.					
14	I start conversations in English.					
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16	I read for pleasure in English.					
17	I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.					
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20	I try to find patterns in English.					
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					

1 = Never or almost never true of me		means that the statement is very rarely true of you				
2 = Usually not true of me		means that the statement is true less than half the time				
3 = Somewhat true of me		means that the statement is true of you about half the time				
4 = Usually true of me		means that the statement is true more than half the time				
5 = Always or almost always true of me		means that the statement is true of you almost always				

Part C		1	2	3	4	5
24	I make guesses to understand unfamiliar English words.					
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
27	I read English without looking up every new word.					
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					

Part D		1	2	3	4	5
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.					
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.					
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
38	I think about my progress in learning English.					

Part E		1	2	3	4	5
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.					
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.					
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					

	1 = Never or almost never true of me	means that the statement is very rarely true of you
	2 = Usually not true of me	means that the statement is true less than half the time
	3 = Somewhat true of me	means that the statement is true of you about half the time
	4 = Usually true of me	means that the statement is true more than half the time
	5 = Always or almost always true of me	means that the statement is true of you almost always

Part F		1	2	3	4	5
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
47	I practise English with other students.					
48	I ask for help from English speakers.					
49	I ask questions in English.					
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

THE END

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Appendix I: IELTS Scores Expressed in Terms of Bands of Language Ability

Band 9 Expert User
Has full operational command of the language: appropriate, accurate and fluent with complete understanding.

Band 8 Very Good User
Has full operational command of the language with only occasional unsystematic inaccuracies. Misunderstandings may occur in unfamiliar situations. Handles complex detailed argumentation well.

Band 7 Good User
Has operational command of the language, though with occasional inaccuracies, and misunderstandings in some situations. Generally handles complex language well and understands detailed reasoning.

Band 6 Competent User
Has general effective command of the language despite some inaccuracies, and misunderstandings. Can use and understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations.

Band 5 Modest User
Has partial command of the language, coping with overall meaning in most situations, though is likely to make many mistakes. Should be able to handle basic communication in own field.

Band 4 Limited User
Basic competence is limited to familiar situations. Has frequent problems in understanding and expression. Is unable to use complex language.

Band 3 Extremely Limited User
Conveys and understands only general meaning in very familiar situations. Frequent breakdowns in communication occur.

Band 2 Intermittent User
No real communication is possible except for the most basic information using isolated words to meet immediate needs. Has great difficulty understanding spoken and written English.

Band 1 Non User
Essentially has no ability to use the language beyond possibly a few isolated words.

Band 0
Did not attempt the exam.

Adapted from
http://www.ielts.org/institutions/test_format_and_results/ielts_band_scores.aspx

Appendix J: Weekly Schedule for the Writing Instruction

WEEKLY SCHEDULE FOR THE WRITING INSTRUCTION		
Week	Hour	Instruction / Task

1	4	• Assigning of the Pre-instruction writing assignment topic–due in a week's time
		
		• Administration of the Questionnaire on the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability
		
		• Administration of the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale
		
		• Administration of Questionnaire on the ESL Student's Background and Writing Ability
		
		• Ice-breaking
		
		• Discussion on academic writing – task, audience and purpose
		          – characteristics of academic essay
		          – the writing process (*POWeR*)

2	4	• Initiating the goal setting program
		
		• Distribution of the distal goal sheet for the semester
		
		• Collection of the Pre-instruction assignment and the goal sheets
		
		• Continued discussion on the requirements of academic writing and the writing process (*POWeR*) and reviewing writing abilities
		
		• Unit 1 (Topic Selection)
		     – Open reading and keeping record of sources
		     – Brainstorming for ideas and free writing
		     – Instruction on searching the Internet and library database

3	4	• Unit 2 (Selection and Organisation of Information)
		
		  – Instruction on the first stage of the writing process (i.e. the pre-writing stage), and the strategies used in writing for planning and organising ideas.
		
		  – Framing research questions and creating rough outlines
		
		  – Paraphrasing and summarising
		
		  – Acknowledging sources of information
		
		• Completion of the distal goal sheet for the semester
		
		• Distribution and completion of proximal goal sheet for Pre-instruction assignment
		
		 *Consultation

4	4	• Unit 3 (Outlining)
		
		• Practice in writing an outline for a given topic
		
		  – Writing thesis statement and topic sentences
		
		  – Numbering and notation of supporting details
		
		  – Evaluating an outline using a checklist
		
		• Individual goal setting conference
		
		 *Consultation

5	4	• Unit 4 (Drafting)
		
		• Instruction on the second stage of the writing process (i.e. the actual writing stage) and the strategies used in drafting and reviewing
		
		  – Writing an introduction and a conclusion
		
		  – Writing a body paragraph and synthesising information
		
		  – Using in-text citations and documentation of sources

		• Practice in drafting and using cohesive devices
		• Individual goal setting conference (Continued)
		*Consultation
6	4	• Unit 5 (Revising, Editing and Proofreading)
		• Instruction on the third stage of the writing process (i.e. the revising stage) and the strategies used in revising and editing.
		• Instruction on grammar and the resources available.
		• Evaluating a draft using checklists for reviewing and also for editing and proofreading
		• Individual goal setting conference (Continued)
		*Consultation
7	4	• Unit 6 (Cause-Effect Essay)
		• Instruction on writing at essay level – expressing thesis statement, main ideas, giving examples, providing additional points, giving reasons or explanations (Using the mnemonics *TREE*)
		• Individual goal setting conference (Continued)
		• Writing the first self-reflection
		*Consultation
8	4	• Unit 7 (Problem-Solution Essay)
		• Instruction on writing at essay level – expressing thesis statement, main ideas, giving examples, providing additional points, giving reasons or explanations.
		• Individual goal setting conference (Continued)
		*Consultation

9	4	• Unit 8 (Comparison-Contrast Essay) • Instruction on writing at essay level – expressing thesis statement, main ideas, giving examples, providing additional points, giving reasons or explanations. *Consultation
10	4	• Unit 9 (Argumentative Essay) • Instruction on writing at essay level – expressing thesis statement, main ideas, giving examples, providing additional points, giving reasons or explanations. • Writing the second self-reflection *Consultation
11	4	• Unit 10 (Discussion Essay) • Instruction on writing at essay level – expressing thesis statement, main ideas, giving examples,, providing additional points, giving reasons or explanations. *Consultation
12	4	• Assigning of the Post-instruction writing assignment topic –due in a week's time • Administration of the Undergraduates' Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale • Administration of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

*Consultation is given as and when the need arises.

Appendix K: Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

	Categories of strategies	Definitions
1	Self-evaluation	Statements indicating student-initiated evaluations of the quality or progress of their work, e .g., "I check over my work to make sure I did it right."
2	Organising and transforming	Statements indicating student-initiated overt or covert rearrangement of instructional materials to improve learning, e.g., "I make an outline before I write my paper."
3	Goal-setting and planning	Statements indicating student setting of educational goals or subgoals and planning for sequencing, timing, and completing activities related to those goals, e.g., "First, I start studying two weeks before exams, and I pace myself."
4	Seeking information	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to secure further task information from nonsocial sources when undertaking an assignment, e .g., "Before beginning to write the paper, I go to the library to get as much information as possible concerning the topic."
5	Keeping records and monitoring	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to record events or results, e.g., "I took notes of the class discussion." "I kept a list of the words I got wrong."
6	Environmental structuring	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to select or arrange the physical setting t o make learning easier, e.g., "I isolate myself from anything that distracts me." "I turned off the radio so I can concentrate on what I am doing."
7	Self-consequences	Statements indicating student arrangement or imagination of rewards or punishment for success or failure, e.g., "If I do well on a test, I treat myself to a movie."
8	Rehearsing and memorizing	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to memorize material by overt or covert practice,e .g., "In preparing for a maths test, I keep writing the formula down until I remember it.
9-11	Seeking social assistance	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to solicit help from peers (9), teachers (10), and adults (11), e.g., "If I have problems with math assignments, I ask a friend to help."
12-14	Reviewing records	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to reread tests (12) notes (13), or textbooks (14) to prepare for class or further testing, e.g., "When preparing for a test, I review my notes."
15	Other	Statements indicating learning behavior that is initiated by other persons such as teachers or parents, and all unclear verbal responses, e.g., "I just do what the teacher says."

Source: Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1986). Development of a structured interview for assessing student's use of self-regulated learning strategies. American Educational Research Journal , 23, 614-628

Categories of Self-Regulated Learning Strategies Coded in the Undergraduates'
Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy for Writing (UPSREW) Scale

GOAL-SETTING & PLANNING

1 When given a specific writing assignment, I can come up with a suitable topic in a short time.

9 When I have a pressing deadline on a paper, I can manage my time efficiently

SELF-EVALUATION

2 I can start writing with no difficulty.

3 I can construct a good opening sentence quickly.

26 I can express what I really think in my writing.

28 I can write sentences (simple, compound and complex sentences) with proper punctuation and grammar.

34 I can pass my writing test without any problem.

35 I can do well on my writing test and score an A.

36 If the assignment calls for 1000 words, I can write just about that many

ORGANISING & TRANSFORMING

4 I can come up with an unusual opening paragraph to capture readers' interest.

5 I can write a brief but informative overview (that is a comprehensive thesis statement) that will prepare readers well for the main thesis of my paper.

6 I can use my first attempts at writing (that is my freewriting and first draft) to refine my ideas on a topic.

7 I can adjust my style of writing to suit the needs of any audience.

11 I can come up with examples quickly to illustrate an important point.

12 I can rewrite my wordy or confusing sentences clearly.

13 When I need to make a subtle or an abstract idea more imaginable, I can use words to illustrate or describe this idea more clearly.

15 I can write very effective transitional sentences that link the idea in one paragraph to an idea in another paragraph so that readers can follow the flow of my argument.

17 When I write on a lengthy topic, I can create a good outline for my paper.

19 When I get stuck writing a paper, I can find ways to overcome the problem.

22 I can revise a first draft of any paper so that it is shorter and better organized.

24 When my paper is written on a complicated topic, I can come up with a short informative title.

27 I can express in my own words the information that is taken from reference sources.

29 I can rearrange the sentences within a paragraph so that there is a smooth flow in the discussion and the main idea is clearly expressed.

31 I can write a well-organized and well-sequenced paper that has a good introduction, body, and conclusion.

32 I can write paragraphs with details that support the topic sentences or main ideas.

SEEKING INFORMATION

25 I can use the Internet to locate appropriate online sources of information for my writing assignment

KEEPING RECORDS & MONITORING

14 I can locate and use appropriate reference sources when I need to document an important point.

21 When I have written a long or complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors.

33 I can give proper documentation and acknowledgement to my sources of information through in-text citations and references.

ENVIRONMENTAL STRUCTURING

8 I can find a way to concentrate on my writing even when there are many distractions around me.

16 I can refocus my concentration on writing when I find myself thinking of other things.

SELF-CONSEQUENCES

20 I can find ways to motivate myself to write a paper even when the topic holds little interest for me.

SEEKING SOCIAL ASSISTANCE

23 I can find other people who will give critical feedback on early drafts of my paper.

30 I can work in small groups to discuss ideas and do revision to my writing.

REVIEWING RECORDS

18 When I want to persuade a reader about a point, I can come up with a convincing quote from an authority from reference sources.

OTHER

10 I can meet the writing standards of an evaluator or examiner who is very demanding.

Appendix M: Peer Evaluation Sheet for an Outline

NO	CRITERIA	Yes	No	COMMENTS/SUGGESTIONS
1	Does the outline have a suitable title?	☐	☐	
2	Is the outline properly numbered?	☐	☐	
3	Is the outline properly indented?	☐	☐	
4	Does the thesis statement meet the requirements of the writing task?	☐	☐	
5	Is the thesis statement clearly worded? Does it have a topic, an appropriate focus and a preview of ideas to be discussed in the body?	☐	☐	
6	Is each major section (A, B, C) of the outline related to the thesis statement in a logical way?	☐	☐	
7	Is there any main point/idea in the outline that should be included in the thesis statement?	☐	☐	
8	Are there two or three supporting points to develop each topic sentence (1, 2, 3)?	☐	☐	
9	Are there notations for the sources?	☐	☐	
10	Are there relevant examples and details for each supporting point (a, b, c)?	☐	☐	
11	What is the best part of the outline?			
12	Are there any suggestions to improve the outline?	☐	☐	

Source:

Michael, G. R. D., Dhillon, P. K., Haliza Hirza Jaffar, Umadevi, S., Roszanaliza Askandar, Nurzeti Ghafar, et al. (2010). *EAP crossing borders.* Petaling Jaya: Longman, Pearson.

Appendix N: Checklists for Revising and Proofreading

CHECKLIST FOR REVISING	
	Yes/No
Introductory Paragraph	
1 Does the opening of your paper grab the attention of your reader and make him/her want to continue reading?	_____
2 Have you made your purpose clear to the reader from the start, such as to explain, to describe, to compare or contrast or to persuade?	_____
3 Is your thesis statement clearly stated in the introductory paragraph?	_____
4 Is it emphasised, or strategically placed, so that your reader can readily identify your thesis statement?	_____
Body Paragraphs	
1 Does each of the paragraphs contain a clear topic sentence?	_____
2 Does each of the paragraphs contain supporting details that work as a cohesive unit to develop the topic sentence?	_____
3 Are there sufficient explanations, examples and/or facts to support the topic sentence of each paragraph?	_____
4 Is there evidence from research to support the topic sentence?	_____
5 Are there adequate in-text citations in the paragraphs?	_____
6 Are the sentences in the paragraphs in the right order?	_____
Concluding Paragraph	
1 Are there any new ideas included in the conclusion?	_____
2 Does the conclusion give your reader a sense of completion by relating to the introduction?	_____
3 Does the conclusion summarise the main points or restate the thesis statement?	_____
4 Does the conclusion give a final comment or remark that has an impact on your reader?	_____

After going through the checklist above and making the necessary changes to the content and organisation of the paper, you can proceed to edit and proofread your paper. You need to examine your sentences to make sure that each one is clear, concise and free of mistakes.

Practice 2

Using the following checklist, edit and proofread the revised draft accordingly.

CHECKLIST FOR EDITING AND PROOFREADING	Yes/No
1 Is formal language used throughout the paper?	_____
2 Is each sentence clear and complete?	_____
3 Is there any short, choppy sentence that can be improved by combining it with other sentences?	_____
4 Is there any long, awkward sentence that can be improved by breaking it down into shorter sentences?	_____
5 Is there adequate use of transitional signals throughout the paper?	_____
6 Are these transitional signals used correctly throughout the paper?	_____
7 Does each verb agree with its subject?	_____
8 Are all verb forms correct and consistent?	_____
9 Do pronouns refer clearly to the appropriate nouns?	_____
10 Do all modifying words and phrases refer clearly to the words they are intended to modify?	_____
11 Is each word in your paper appropriate and effective?	_____
12 Is each word spelled correctly?	_____
13 Is the punctuation correct?	_____

Source:

Michael, G. R. D., Dhillon, P. K., Haliza Hirza Jaffar, Umadevi, S., Roszanaliza Askandar, Nurzeti Ghafar, et al. (2010). *EAP crossing borders.* Petaling Jaya: Longman, Pearson.

Appendix O: Peer-Evaluation Checklist

Student's Name:
Group:
Date:
Topic:

No	Checklist	Yes/No	Comments
1	The writing holds the reader's interest.	Yes □ No □	
2	The writing is well-organised with introduction, body and conclusion.	Yes □ No □	
3	The thesis statement is clearly stated in the introduction.	Yes □ No □	
4	The topic sentences are well-supported.	Yes □ No □	
5	The conclusion clearly summarises the main idea or restates the main ideas	Yes □ No □	
6	The grammar is correct.	Yes □ No □	
7	The spelling is correct.	Yes □ No □	
8	The sentences and paragraphs are punctuated correctly.	Yes □ No □	
9	The sentences are clear and concise.	Yes □ No □	
10	The writing has a title, in-text-citations and references (if required)	Yes □ No □	
11	The writing is of the required length.	Yes □ No □	

12. What do you like about the writing?

_____

13. How can this writing be further improved?

_____

Source: Michael, G. R. D., Dhillon, P. K., Haliza Hirza Jaffar, Umadevi, S., Roszanaliza
        Askandar, Nurzeti Ghafar, et al. (2010). *EAP crossing borders.* Petaling Jaya:
        Longman, Pearson.

Appendix P: Self-Evaluation Checklist

NAME:

GROUP:

DATE:

TOPIC:

No	Checklist	Yes/No	Comments
1	Does your essay have all three parts: introduction, body and conclusion?	Yes □ No □	
	Does the introduction create interest to make your reader want to read on?	Yes □ No □	
	Does the essay have a clear thesis statement?	Yes □ No □	
2	Is each main idea clearly stated in a topic sentence?	Yes □ No □	
	Are the topic sentences adequately supported with specific details	Yes □ No □	
	Is the information taken from related articles, paraphrased and/or summarised?	Yes □ No □	
	Are the quotations taken (if any), correctly cited or acknowledged?	Yes □ No □	
	Are in-text citations correctly done?	Yes □ No □	
	Does each sentence flow smoothly to the next sentence?	Yes □ No □	
	Are there transition signals to show relationship among ideas?	Yes □ No □	
	Are the sentences clear and direct? Can they be understood on the first reading?	Yes □ No □	
	Are the sentences varied in length and structure?	Yes □ No □	
	Has the grammar been carefully checked?	Yes □ No □	
	Has the spelling been carefully checked?	Yes □ No □	
	Has the punctuation been carefully checked?	Yes □ No □	

| 3 | Does the essay have an effective conclusion--one that restates the thesis statement or summarises the main ideas? | Yes ☐   No ☐ | |
| 4 | Does the length of the essay conform to the requirements of the assignment?

Do the references follow the APA format?

Are the references complete? | Yes ☐   No ☐

Yes ☐   No ☐

Yes ☐   No ☐ | |

Source:

Michael, G. R. D., Dhillon, P. K., Haliza Hirza Jaffar, Umadevi, S., Roszanaliza Askandar, Nurzeti Ghafar, et al. (2010). *EAP crossing borders.* Petaling Jaya: Longman, Pearson.

Appendix Q: Sample of Students' Pre Instruction Essays

Zulfah's Pre Instruction Essay

The Internet and Its Influence on Our Culture

The internet has change a major way of living in humankind. From primary school student way up to a healthy grown citizen using the internet will always be included in their lives. On whatever purposes such as education, social networking, entertainment or even business has definitely influence the change on our culture positively.

The internet has influence education positively by making research a simple way to do. Those days when our parents were needed to seek knowledge by finding limited books from the library shelf was a culture for them. But now the internet is like a calculator for a mathematician, it does the thinking for you and it also shortens the time required.

Besides education social networking plays a big role in the internet. Since currently the social network website Facebook has 400 million active users, being online is the main reason why some people are addicted to the internet. This has changed our culture tremendously. Wishing cards for birthday, films of photos, and flyers of advertisement are now unnecessary. Just a statement on the website then the message will be spread.

Finally the internet has influenced our culture by making businesses possible. Culture of buying things on eBay are normal in the west coast but our culture for Malays selling clothes, denims, scarf, and accessories on blog boutique is a beginner for a business career.

In conclusion internet has many reasons to be used and it had influenced culture for the better way of living life.

Microsoft word count: 248 Words

Jess's Pre Instruction Essay

The Internet And It's Influence On Our Culture

Internet was really popular and famous in this world this day. Many of us know about internet and it uses but still have some problems about that. As we know, children for example, they learn so many fast about internet but unfortunately they use it for a bad things and not use it for their education. This is cause a worst effect especially for student in primary school and also for secondary school. But, internet also can help us to do so many good things in our daily life. It can make our work go on rapidly and of course it is more easier to settle down our work. This important technological nowdays spread very fast as fast as light. Over the past few years, the internet has become an economical and cultural phenomenon. Actually internet have it's influence on our culture whether it is good or bad.

First, we discuss about a good influence of internet in our culture. Maybe some of us did not realize about important of internet especially among "old" people. Actually internet has offered students a huge benefit and research services. Through the internet, students can enter the news and library sites and other facilities all over the world. Students also can do their work as soon as possible when they know how to use internet. They can find easily want they want and make their work become a good one. Maybe this is first step for students to be excellent in their studies although they learn more from internet. Today, government also encourage students from primary school to use internet in their school and find out about what they want to learn from the technology. From that, they can know something on the spot and they can also gain more knowledge about this world also. Other than that, teachers maybe can teach their student easily and they also can add a new information for their self and their students too.

Second, internet also can helps us to find a new friend from this whole world. This is not impossible because nowdays so many social web exists in this world such as the famous one, facebook, myspace and so on. For example, when we know someone from another country we can learn and find out their culture and language although we just ask them from internet.

Besides that, internet also have their bad influence in our culture and it can make our culture as a bad one. For example, internet can also become a dangerous yechnology especially for student under age. They can easily watch a sex video through the internet without know anything. They also waste their time on playing games and also waste their money to go to cyber café. Maybe some of us also easily trust some a fake news from internet and they can make another people panic when they know the stories.

Other than that, internet also can make children do their things alone and just stayed in their room and it can make they don't want to join or fulfill their time with their family anymore. This is one of courses why children now have no rude in their life.

In conclusion, internet have their bad and good influence in our culture. We as a consumer has to use internet as good as can. We also need to spread a good influence especially to all of us to know about internet.

Microsoft word count: 572 Words

Sham's Pre Instruction Essay

The Internet And It's Influence On Our Culture

Internet nowadays is very useful to every person in this world. Internet is a source of information that we need. In education, Internet is the main source for the student to get information. This is because Internet gives faster information. Not only in education line, there are lot of uses with Internet. Internet gives benefits and effects to people. Its influence our culture, neither good nor bad. What is the influence of Internet to our culture? We should know the influence of the Internet for better use of the Internet.

Internet influence our culture by making all things to do is fast and easy. For example, in business, people can make money with Internet by promoting their goods for sale. 'eBay' for example is one of business in Internet.

Besides that, Internet influence our culture by making Internet an Entertainment. Nowadays, teenagers are addicted to a webside called 'FaceBook'. 'FaceBook' can connect us to all the people in various places even celebrities. Not only 'FaceBook', there are a lot of webside that can connect us to people. Through Internet, our culture having a habit of connecting other people faster and easy.

Other than that, people are fluently speaking about information and updates of what happen to the world and country. Besides newspaper, internet shows a detail information on every cases happen in nation-wide.

When surfing the Internet,we can see different of presentations and layouts. Although sometimes Internet does not gives you a full information, there are more website to go through to search for information. The cultures of finding information with Internet increases because it is accurate and simple.

Therefore, Internet is very useful to our development in cultures. A lots of information that we can get and It is fast and easy. Thus, It is essential for you to only visit reliable websites. Use the Internet wisely.

Microsoft word count: 308 Words

Nisa's Pre Instruction Essay

The Internet and its influence on our culture

What people's understand about the using of the internet and it's influence on our culture? Nowadays, internet is the most popular network that connect all the country. Another media that we use to get information is newspapers, magazines, radio and television. The using of internet is the most widely in Malaysia. As internet gives the positive and negative influence, it is necessary that we know the influence as well on our culture.

Firstly, the function of internet is to access a wealth of information with just a click of the mouse. For example of the popular search engines is Google, Yahoo! Search and Bing. Besides that, throught the internet, the industry can advertise the product locally and internationally without having to spend a lot of money. Moreover, internet also encourage people to communicate to each other by webcam, chatting at the yahoo mail, facebook and any other social website. From that part, the communication skills among community can be improve.

Secondly, the internet gives the big influence on our culture. The usage of internet has spread among students in the primary school. This situation makes our community worried especially parents. Nowadays, they do not just search the internet to find information and academic research, some of them search for unuseful information such as video porn, gossip and wrong information involving politics.

Last but not least, create the blog in internet also can gives negative influence on our culture. It is because, there's a lot of trespassing can happen. And it will effect the embarrassment of someone who is blogging. It is not our culture to trespass personal possessions.

If we do not want the internet gives the big influence on our culture, we should make an effort to choose the right websites in order to get any useful information. Everyone must play a part in order to avoid the negative effect of internet in our culture.

Microsoft word count: 316 Words

Appendix R: Sample of Students' Post Instruction Essays

Zulfah's Post Instruction Essay

<u>The Mobile Phone and Its Influence on Our Society Today</u>

Mobile phones have become a major part of our lives. Today, it is being widely used all over the world. It has metamorphosis from being a luxury to necessity for some of us. Mobile phones are one of the things that we cannot do without, for one reason or another. We have come to depend on it, increasingly so, and in doing so it has become a need. Having mobile phones can prove to be very useful but it can also be said otherwise. It has indirectly influence negatively on our society today. Mobile phone has made society waste their money, increasing the amount of crime, and incapable for students to focus on their studies.

Mobile phone has made society waste their money because of too much spending on credit top-up. Some people especially love birds are obsessed with using the mobile phone until they have forgotten that they have spend so much amount of money just to reload their credit. For instance, if each time they reload their credit approximately about ten ringgit duration for five days, then it would be sixty ringgit a month. That could be considered a lot since they could used other alternative to contact each other such as by using the Instant Messenger (IM) for free.

Other than that, the use of mobile phone has made the number of crime rate increased. Thieves are aiming for mobile phones because it is expensive and the demand is high so they will do anything to get it. This act can lead to more criminal cases such as murder. Lives are been taken easily and cases are hardly to be solve. This situation has made individual worry to walking back home alone especially females.

Moreover mobile phone has made students incapable to focus on their studies. Too much calling or text messaging during their daily routine has made them abandon their studies. Even if they are studying they can hardly concentrate because their mind is focusing on something else rather than their examination. This can lead to something serious such as failing and kicked out from their school or university and end up jobless because their academic performance is low.

In conclusion, mobile phone has changed the society to wasting their money, made the rating number of crime increased and the students unfocused with their studies. Mobile phones are created to communicate easily but if it is used wrongly and the individual are careless to protect it, mobile phones could lead to many problems.

Microsoft word count: 417 Words

Jess's Post Instruction Essay

<u>The Mobile Phone and Its Influence on Society</u>

In this modern world , we can saw so many modern technology that created by people itself. It is not only time has been changing but technology as well. Technology has been growing at a rapid rate to accommodate the needs and desires of people in obtaining a simpler lifestyle. One of the greatest technologies today is the mobile phone. It has become a phenomenon and an addiction especially to youth and also children on this days. These devices can be seen out among people of all ages, all over the world. Many people consider that without mobile phone, they cannot imagine their life, both in terms of necessity and in terms of a fashion statement. Actually mobile phone has its negative influences such as can cause health problems, make people careless around surrounding and waste our time.

Firstly, the negative influence of the mobile phone on society is can cause health problems. Maybe some of us do not know about that and think that mobile phone is one of the safety technology, but it still have its weaknesses. The potential impact of the kind of electromagnetic fields generated by cellular phones on the human brain has received little attention until relatively recently, and it's probably still much too soon to pronounce on the possible adverse effects of long-term exposure (Javadi,2008). Excessive exposure to electromagnetic fields (EMF) could cause such undesirable effects as memory loss, Parkinson's and Alzheimer's diseases, and even brain tumours. Other than that, mobile phone use could affect the nerve cells responsible f or short-term memory, while a study carried out in the Nordic region linked excessive use of mobile phones with headaches and fatigue – symptoms which generally disappeared as soon as mobile phone use was discontinued (Adam,2007). Although it is a long term effect, but we still have to take a careful actions about this modern technology even its very important communication nowadays. It is not necessary anymore if this technology make people in trouble.

Another influence of mobile phone is it can make people careless what is going happen around them. This can be dangerous in certain situations, such as around building sites or particularly when driving a car. Sometimes some of us do not follow the instruction about the uses of the mobile phone at a certain places. They do whatever they want as long as it not create problem to them. Today we can see so many accidents because of mobile phone and still people not take it as a lesson in their life. In addition, people maybe careless to settle down their work and just concentrate use the mobile phone without think about their important thing that they should do. In this case student also can be a careless person if they just think about mobile phone 24 hours. They careless in their homework and it is very bad if they also bring their mobile phone in school.

The last influence of mobile phone is waste our time. Today we can see everywhere that people must hold on their mobile phone. It is not a new thing in our life anymore. Even students, youth and all ages use the mobile phone. But, the uses of mobile phone just wasting our time. For example students just waste their time on mobile phone and forgot about their studies and examination as well. They do not think carefully about their future and for them mobile phone is more important

for them. Moreover, mobile phone today more improved on their functions such as have MMS and can record videos too. So, students more interested on that and let their studies become worst.

In conclusion, people should realized about the negative influence of mobile phone such as can cause health problems, make people careless around surrounding and waste our time. Other than that, parents also should take a good initiative how to make their children do not obsessed about mobile phone and just let they think about study first.

Microsoft word count: 662 Words

Sham's Post Instruction Essay

<u>The Effects of Cell Phones to Our Culture</u>

Cellular phones have had a major impact on our lives and the way that we perform everyday tasks. Many of these changes are apparent, while others we may not even be aware of. Cell phone gives lots of benefits and disadvantages to our culture. In benefits, cell phones help us to keep in touch with families and friends, cell phones is multitasking gadget, and it also changes the sociability of a person to communicate to other people.

Cell phones have brought a whole new meaning to the term multitasking. Twenty years ago, it was not possible to talk to the office while you were at the grocery store picking up some necessary items. You could never have had a three-way business conference while you were fixing dinner or been able to deal with a business client from home while caring for a sick child. Cell phones have enabled us to do various tasks all at the same time.

Cell phones have also enabled families to keep in closer touch with each other. Children can contact you if they have missed their ride form soccer practice and your spouse can call while he is stuck in traffic to let you know that he is going to be late for supper. Teenagers are able to call to ask permission to go somewhere, and with GPS features that are now available on some cell phones, you are able to check to make sure that they are where they are suppose to be.

Many of these advantages we do not even notice. Have you ever arrived at the grocery store and realized that you have forgotten your grocery list? The first thing you would probably do is to call home and have one of your children read the list off to you. In the same situation in past years, you may have forgotten things or have had to drive all the way back home to get it. If your car breaks down, you automatically call for help instead of having to walk to find a pay phone. Cell phones have certainly made our lives much more convenient.

Cell phones have also changed the way that people interact with each other. When we call someone, we are actually calling the person and not a place. This enables us to be more spontaneous when making plans as you rarely get a busy signal and unlike a land line telephone, someone is always home. Cell phones also enable us to call if we

are going to be late for an appointment, although this has led to cell phone users running late more often than those who do not have cell phones. These users seem to have adopted the attitude that appointment times are not concrete and use their cell phones to renegotiate their arrival time.

One of the greatest disadvantages of the cellular phone is the fact that we do not talk to strangers when travelling anymore. In the past, several people waiting for a bus would engage in a conversation while they were waiting. People who travelled the same routes every day might develop friendships along the way. This situation does not happen anymore. Today when people are waiting for a bus, they just pull out their cell phones and speak with old friends, missing out on the opportunity to make new ones. In large cities, many people do not know their neighbours, even though they may have lived in the same neighbourhood for years. As a society, we are beginning to lose the face-to-face contact that was such an important part of our lives in the past.

Cell phones are a great asset in aiding in our everyday lives. Cell phone does give lots of benefits and disadvantages to our culture. It depends on how our culture to make use of cell phones in good ways. You should remember, however, to hang up every once in a while and pay attention to the world around you.

Microsoft word count: 661 Words

Nisa's Post Instruction Essay

The mobile phone and its influence on our society.

Mobile phone is also known as cellular phone or cell phone. It is an electronic device. The function of this electronic device is to connect the people all over the world. It's allowed the user to make or received any call or text messages. Nowadays, modern mobile phone can support any services such as internet access, gaming, email, Bluetooth, infrared, camera, MMS, 3g, Mp3 players, radio, recording and GPS. Mobile phone give influence on our health, social life as well as long term academic performance.

Mobile phone can influence human health. It is can affect our brains. It is cause by the electromagnetic waves alter that consist in the hand phone (Hyland, 2005). Besides that, it also cause disturbance in sleep, difficulty to concentrating, fatigue and headache, anxiety, nose bleeds in both adult and children. Researchers have found that radiation from mobile phone handsets damages areas of the brain associated with learning, memory and movement. The use of hand phones also relate to Alzheimer's disease and Cancer. New research has shown that people who more likely to use mobile phone tend to develop mouth cancer than those who do not talk on mobile phone at all. The wide range of frequencies in the electromagnetic spectrum can have biological effects from DNA that can damage in our brains.

Mobile phone can influence human social life and ethical behavior. Using mobile phone can make people lack of communication skills (Sheereen, 2009).They are unable to deal with real human interact because they more prefer to communicate with others through mobile phone (Rozumah, 2009). People who had lower level of self-esteem also always make mobile phone as a medium to communicate with others. (Rozumah, 2009). There are people that misused the service of the mobile phone and

not be in good manner. Some people secretly taking photos up women's skirts. Some of them download porn and nowadays youth can easily watch the pornography video and picture inside their advance cellphones.

Mobile phone can influence on youth's long-term academic performance. With the features of the mobile phone, youths easily more attracted and addicted to the mobile phone. (Sheereen, 2009). Youths are more interested to spend their time with mobile phone. They like to play a game, surf the internet or exchange picture with their friend using MMS or chatting with text messages. (Sheereen, 2009). While study they might used the hand phone at the same time. It will make them loss of concentration and didn't get what they have read (Sheereen, 2009). Youth will have the problem with their time management. They cannot manage their time wisely. They tend to spend most of their time to explore the hand phone and they will ignore their studies.

It is evidence that mobile phone has more negative influence compare to positive ones even though it is easy to get and can connect the people all over the world. Hand phone influence on human health, social life and also on youth's academic performance.

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