

May 2018

# A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

Mohammed Almazloun  
*The University of Western Ontario*

Supervisor  
Dr. Bird, Steve  
*The University of Western Ontario*

Graduate Program in Education

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Doctor of Philosophy

© Mohammed Almazloun 2018

Follow this and additional works at: <https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd>

 Part of the [Adult and Continuing Education and Teaching Commons](#), [Curriculum and Instruction Commons](#), [Educational Methods Commons](#), and the [Language and Literacy Education Commons](#)

---

## Recommended Citation

Almazloun, Mohammed, "A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use" (2018). *Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository*. 5355.  
<https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/5355>

## **Abstract**

This convergent mixed methods study aimed to find out how a self-regulated learning (SRL) instructional intervention could impact the Palestinian students' second language (L2) writing and strategy use. L2 writers face common writing challenges, including but not limited to a lack of competences, effective writing approach, proactive planning, motivation, and self-efficacy (Hammad, 2016). Helping the students to overcome their challenges, improve their L2 writing, and become self-regulated writers was an expected outcome of the study. The study was informed by the social cognitive theory of SRL that views successful writers as proactive and self-regulated learners. In the quantitative part, a quasi-experimental design with writing pre-tests and post-tests was used to compare changes to the writing scores of 32 SRL students with the writing scores of 34 students in a control group. In the qualitative part, the study utilized interviews, diary studies, and observation to explore the students' experiences with SRL instruction to find out if it helped them develop and use SRL strategies that would impact their L2 writing.

The findings showed that the students who received SRL instruction significantly outperformed those who received regular instruction. The study suggested that SRL instruction was effective for improving students' writing achievement. SRL instruction was also relevant to help the students alleviate their writing challenges and enhance their SRL strategy use. It helped them become more active and self-regulated learners who would contribute to their academic success. Their improved motivation, self-identities (self-efficacy, self-concept, self-esteem), autonomy, and empowerment were among several influences that contributed to their learning.

The study suggested that teachers should engage their learners in constructive learning environments where they feel safe, take risks, exchange roles and experiences, make decisions, and enjoy constructive feedback. The employment of teaching methods should depend on addressing L2 learners' needs rather than on following a certain approach *per se*. While modelling and direct instruction proved to be effective for enhancing learning, facilitation and dialogue could contribute to more successful learning.

Keywords: Self-regulated learning, Self-regulatory processes, Feedback loop, Self-efficacy, Strategy instruction, Agency, Empowerment

## **Dedications**

To my late mother who was always longing to see my success, but could not witness such success.

To my wonderful father who has always empowered me with his ongoing love, support, and inspiration.

To my late brother, Ramy, who sacrificed his life for the sake of freeing our home land.

To my wife who has always been with me with love, support, and encouragement and has been patient until I make my dreams come true.

To my children who waited impatiently to attend their father's convocation.

To my dear brothers and sisters who wish me all the best to accomplish my ambitions.

## **Acknowledgment**

All praise and thanks are due to Allah, The Gracious The Almighty, who directed me to the right path and made it easy to complete this thesis. I find myself obliged to deliver my sincere gratitude and appreciation to those who deserve them for the continuous inspiration, support, guidance, contribution, and facilitation they generously gave me, without which I could not reach this accomplishment.

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Steve Bird, for the time, efforts, guidance, and support he provided me with throughout the various phases of writing my PhD thesis. My sincere gratitude is expanded for his continuous and constructive feedback, encouragement, and future inspiration. His direction and facilitation during my proposal and thesis writing were significantly helpful as they informed, inspired, and empowered me to stay motivated and resolve emergent issues. His feedback on the quantitative strand of my thesis was amazingly constructive and meaningful.

I also feel grateful to my thesis supervisory committee member, Dr. Shelley Taylor, for reading my proposal, providing insightful feedback, and suggesting future steps. Her significant support was present during the entire phases of writing my thesis as she provided me with meaningful and in-depth comments and walked me through the qualitative strand of the thesis.

I'd like also to thank my thesis examination team, Dr. Augusto Riveros-Barrera, Julie Byrd Clark, Dr. Joyce Bruhn de Garavito, and Dr. Khaled Barkaoui for their insightful feedback they gave me during the thesis defense. My thanks are extended to all my friends and colleagues who inspired me, supported me in spirit, and wished me the best during my PhD journey.

Special thanks, gratitude, appreciation, and love are forwarded to my extended family. I wish my mother, Fatima (May Allah Bless Her), was alive to witness my accomplishment and success. She was always longing to see this moment of pride. I always pray to Allah to keep my father, Zakaria, in good state of health and faith. My father has continuously encouraged and supported me to achieve my life goals including my PhD degree. He has always supported me spiritually, morally, and financially despite the obstacles and the thousands of miles separating us. My siblings have been always a big support to me wishing me the best in my life and academic career, thanks to all of them.

I, finally, communicate my final profound thanks, affectionate gratitude, and overwhelming love to my wife, May, who truly deserves them for all the support, understanding, commitment, advice, and love she bestowed upon me. May has been always with me hand in hand throughout all ups and downs and happy and hard times. My love and thanks are also due to my beloved children, Amr, Asal, Mariam, Zakaria, Ramy, and Ibrahim for being the beat of my heart and hope of my life.

## Table of Contents

Abstract .....	i
Dedication .....	iii
Acknowledgements .....	iv
Table of Contents .....	vi
List of Figures .....	ix
List of Tables .....	x
List of Appendices .....	xi
Chapter One: Introduction .....	1
1.1 Motivation for the Study .....	2
1.2 Contextual Background .....	3
1.3 Statement of the Problem .....	10
1.4 Research Gap .....	12
1.5 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions .....	14
1.6 Key Definitions .....	15
1.7 Overview of the Dissertation Chapters .....	16
Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework and Literature Review .....	17
Theoretical Framework .....	17
2.1 SRL .....	17
2.1.1 Operant Viewpoint of SRL .....	19
2.1.2 Phenomenological Viewpoint of SRL.....	19
2.1.3 Cognitive Viewpoint of SRL .....	22
2.1.4 Volitional Viewpoint of SRL .....	22
2.1.5 Sociocultural Viewpoint of SRL .....	24
2.1.6 Constructivist Viewpoint of SRL .....	25
2.1.7 The Social Cognitive Theory of SRL .....	26
2.1.7.1 Tenets of the Social Cognitive Theory .....	28
2.1.7.2 Learners' Agency in SRL .....	32
2.2 Cyclical Model of SRL .....	38
2.2.1 Levels of SRL Development .....	38
2.2.2 Phases of the Cyclical Model of SRL .....	41
2.2.3 SRL and L2 Writing .....	45
2.2.4 Deliberation on SRL .....	47
Literature Review .....	50
2.3 The Writing Process .....	50
2.3.1 The Product Approach .....	51
2.3.2 Process Approaches .....	52
2.3.3 Genre Approaches .....	57
2.3.4 SRL Approach to Writing .....	60
2.4 Empirical Research on SRL of Writing .....	61
2.4.1 SRL Research on Writing .....	62
2.4.2 Research on L2 Writing .....	64
2.5 Summary of Chapter Two .....	69

Chapter Three: Methodology .....	70
3.1 Introduction .....	70
3.2 Research Design .....	72
3.3 Quantitative Strand .....	73
3.3.1 Participants and Sampling .....	74
3.3.2 Data Collection, Analysis, and Instrument .....	78
3.3.2.1 Pre-Test and Post-Test of IELTS Writing - Task 2 .....	78
3.3.2.2 IELTS Writing Task 2 Test .....	81
3.3.2.3 Classroom Instructional Material .....	83
3.4 Qualitative strand .....	89
3.4.1 The Participants .....	91
3.4.2 Data Collection and Analysis .....	92
3.4.2.1 Semi-Structured Interview .....	92
3.4.2.3 Diary Studies .....	93
3.4.2.4 Observation .....	94
3.4.3 Data analysis .....	95
3.5 Procedures of Analyzing Concurrent Quantitative and Qualitative Data .....	95
3.6 Summary of Chapter Three .....	99
 Chapter Four: Findings .....	 101
4.1 Results of Research Question 1 .....	101
4.1.1 Descriptive Results of The Written Essays .....	101
4.1.2 Independent Samples <i>t</i> -test .....	103
4.2 Results of Research Question 2.....	104
4.2.1 Description of Learning Contexts .....	105
4.2.1.1 Control Classroom .....	105
4.2.1.2 Experimental Classroom .....	108
4.2.2 Change to Students Use of SRL Strategies .....	114
4.2.2.1 Forethought Phase .....	114
4.2.2.2 Performance Phase .....	137
4.2.2.3 Self-Reflection Phase .....	148
4.2.3 Themes .....	168
4.2.3.1 Shared Responsibility .....	169
4.2.3.2 Rapport .....	172
4.2.3.3 Agency .....	174
4.2.3.4 Learning Potentials .....	176
4.2.3.5 Dealing with Resources .....	184
4.2.4 Summary of Chapter Four .....	191
 Chapter Five: Discussion .....	 197
5.1 Overview of the Study .....	197
5.2 Merging Mixed Methods Findings .....	198
5.2.1 Summary of Results of Research Question 1 .....	199
5.2.2 Summary of Results of Research Question 2 .....	199
5.2.3 Effectiveness of SRL Instruction .....	203



5.3 Learners' Beliefs of Improvement .....	207
5.3.1 Development of SRL Strategies .....	209
5.3.2 Improved Competence .....	217
5.3.3 Learner Autonomy .....	223
5.4 Implications for Theory .....	226
5.4.1 Centeredness in the Classroom .....	226
5.4.2 Students Empowerment .....	232
5.4.3 Motivation .....	236
5.5 Implications for Practice .....	242
5.5.1 Promoting SRL strategies .....	243
5.5.2 Incorporating social influences .....	244
5.5.3 Constructing learner-needs-oriented teaching methods .....	244
5.5.4 Enhancing Students' Motivation .....	245
5.5.5 Building a Constructive Learning Environment .....	245
5.5.6 Enhancing Learner Autonomy .....	246
5.5.7 Creating Opportunities for Multiple Sources of Feedback .....	247
5.5.8 Incorporating Technology in the Writing Process .....	247
5.6 Limitation of the Study and Future Research Directions .....	248
5.7 Conclusion .....	250
References .....	256
Appendices .....	292
Curriculum Vitae .....	332

## List of Figures

Figure 4.1 IELTS Writing Mean Scores of Groups Over Time .....	103
--	-----

## List of Tables

Table 3.1 Age and Distribution of Participants .....	75
Table 3.2 Descriptive Statistics: Means, Standard Deviations, Change Score .....	79
Table 3.3 Pre-Test Inter-Rater Reliability Between Raters Measured by Pearson's $r$ .....	81
Table 3.4 Post-Test Inter-Rater Reliability Between Raters Measured by Pearson's $r$ .....	81
Table 3.5 The participants .....	92
Table 3.6 Overview of the Research Procedure .....	100
Table 4.1 Overall Results of Written Essays Between Groups Over Time .....	102
Table 4.2 Independent Samples $T$ -Test of Gain Writing Scores of Post-Test .....	104

## **List of Appendices**

Appendix A: Ethical Approval for Actual Study .....	293
Appendix B: Letter of Information and Consent – Students in the Self-Regulated Approach Class .....	294
Appendix C: Letter of Information and Consent – Student in the Traditional Approach Class .....	299
Appendix D: Letter of Information and Consent – Teacher .....	304
Appendix E: Pre-test IELTS Writing Task 2 Test .....	309
Appendix F: Post-test IELTS Writing Task 2 Test .....	310
Appendix G: IELTS Task 2 Writing Assessment Criteria .....	311
Appendix H: Explicit Teaching Resources .....	313
Appendix I: Classroom SRL Instructional Activities .....	314
Appendix J: Students Interview .....	329
Appendix K: Teachers Interview .....	331

## Chapter One: Introduction

This convergent mixed methods research study aimed to find out how a SRL instructional intervention could impact the Palestinian undergraduate students' L2 writing and strategy use. Research showed that L2 writers face common challenges including, limited competences, lack of effective approach, lack of proactive planning, and low motivation and self-efficacy (Dastjerdi & Samian, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Hamad, 2007; Hammad, 2015; Hammad, 2016; Kara, 2013; Mojica, 2010). Writing effectively and becoming a SRL writer were recognized as a complex and multifaceted process that required reciprocal interaction among various personal, behavioral, and environmental factors (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). It is suggested that employing a SRL approach to writing could help L2 writers alleviate their writing challenges and improve their L2 writing and strategy use (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004; Graham & Harris, 2009).

SRL witnessed a widely growing attention among L2 researchers because of its significant contribution to academic achievement and strategy use (Andrade & Evans, 2013). SRL is defined as “deliberate planning, monitoring, and regulating of cognitive, behavioral, and affective or motivational processes toward completion of an academic task” (Hadwin, 2008, p. 175). From a social cognitive theory, SRL advocates triadic interplay among personal, behavioral, and environmental self-regulatory processes that learners use when they perform a task. Personal processes include cognitive beliefs, motivational, and affective states. While behavioral processes include physical activities, environmental processes include physical and social setting (Zimmerman, 2013).

SRL maintained a cumulative prominence due to its grounding roots in interrelated connotations in language learning such as language learning strategy,

metacognitive learning, and strategic competence (Wenden, 1998, 2002). Research on SRL confirmed well-established contributions to writing in terms of better writing quality and SRL strategy use (Graham & Harris, 2009; MacArthur & Philippakos, 2013; Matsuhashi & Gordon, 1985). SRL was credited for improving academic achievements (McCaslin & Hickey, 2001) and better-controlled problematic behavioral and cognitive issues (Durlak, Furnham & Lampman, 1991). These well-established findings incited my interest to employ SRL approach in this research in the Palestinian L2 writing context.

### **1.1 Motivation for the Study**

Coming to this research was driven by two interrelated impetuses: practice and research. At the practical level, my motivation for the study stemmed from my twofold experience as a former L2 university student and, later, as an L2 instructor who suffered in both situations. As a student, I encountered many L2 writing challenges that affected my writing. Later, when I became an instructor of English as a foreign language at postsecondary institutes, I observed my students struggling to write in English (for more details, see below). That experience created a need to research the Palestinian students' challenges and potential innovations in L2 writing contexts. Such research could benefit from drawing on my personal experience as a former L2 learner and as an instructor in Palestinian institutes.

At the research level, the study contributes knowledge to obtain better understanding of the best ways of learning and teaching L2 writing. Although the literature is dense with research on L2 writing, it is still wise to think that not all L2 learning-related questions and gaps have been addressed. Given that L2 teaching and learning contexts are different, the guidelines in the literature might not give relevant

answers to my intended questions (Dörnyei, 2007). The learning diversity created a good reason to accomplish my study to inspire “more effective teachers [as] research contributes to more effective teaching, not by offering definitive answers to pedagogical questions, but rather by providing new insights into the teaching and learning process” (McKay, 2006, p. I). Nevertheless, it is wise to advance this proposed L2 writing-related research by building on results of previous research as research is always in progress (Dörnyei, 2007).

## **1.2 Contextual Background**

The students in my study were L2 learners who studied English as a foreign language and were enrolled in the Department of English & Literature at a Palestinian university. They were required to take two writing courses as part of the requirements for the degree in Bachelor of Art, English & Literature. Writing (I) ENGL 1325 provides the students with an introduction to writing with special attention to the sentence and paragraph level. It also aims to assist them to handle “a large selection of useful sentence structures, and awareness of stylistic differences between alternative ways of saying, more or less, the same thing. The topic sentence and types of paragraphs are also taken into consideration” (university prospectus, p., 290). The second writing course, Writing (II) ENGL 2325, is a “further detailed course in writing skills at the sentence and paragraph levels. It is designed in order to enable students to successfully deal with a large selection of useful patterns and structures” (p. 291).

While the two courses seem to focus solely on the writing product in terms of “knowledge about the structure of language” (Badger & White, 2000), I hold a strong belief that learners need not only to improve their linguistic competence. They also need

to improve writing knowledge, approach of writing, and SRL strategies to produce good written texts (Santangelo, Harris & Graham, 2007). “Becoming an adept writer involves more than knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, it depends on high levels of personal regulation because writing activities are usually self-planned, self-initiated, and self-sustained” (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 73). Recognizing its complexity, I acknowledge that L2 writing is “a process of discovery which involves brainstorming, multiple drafting, feedback practices, revision, and final editing” (Zhang, 2008, p. 96). I also believe that students have to be active agents in the writing process and that teachers have to draw on their learners’ prior learning, current proficiencies and future needs. Instructors should be explicit about the content, significance and expectations of their instruction. Moreover, enhancing the students’ skills and competence depends highly on the reciprocal interaction between instructors and students in a supported developmental environment (Hyland, 2007).

Acknowledging the complexity of the writing process and the challenges that L2 writers face (Dastjerdi & Samian, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Hamad, 2007; Hammad, 2015; Hammad, 2016; Kara, 2013; Mojica, 2010), I reflected on my own experience below. During my undergraduate study, many of my classmates and I struggled to write good academic essays. Lack of writing knowledge, approach of writing, advance planning, generating content, revising, transcribing, persistence and self-efficacy have been found the most common challenges that students face in writing (Santangelo et al., 2007). Such challenges were ascribed to factors related to learners, instructors, learning environment, and learning and instructional resources. Some of my personal-related challenges and other research-based challenges are presented below.



We, as students, did not establish a good conception of being learning agents with certain responsibilities towards achieving our goals and our learning in the Department of English at the university level. We were not aware of what was expected from us as current students at that time or as prospective contributors to the community. There was a lack of awareness of the essence of writing, its rationality, and writing process among the students. We also lacked competence that could be properly defined in this context as “the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions” (The Council of Europe, 2001, p. 9). We lacked what Canale and Swain (1980) proposed as linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence that involve knowledge, including but not limited to language, with proper use of this knowledge in context (Hymes, 1972). Accordingly, we did not make use of relevant knowledge (Harris, Santangelo & Graham, 2010) required to perform writing task analysis, self-motivation, self-control, self-observation, self-judgment or self-reaction (Zimmerman, 2011). We were more reactive than proactive self-regulators and we suffered from low motivation to writing due to those challenges.

Part of the problem could be due to not emphasizing the importance of strategy use and SRL or teaching them by instructors. Moreover, instructors’ feedback and response might not have been enough to provide scaffolding to support our learning needs due to large classes and time constrains. Although teacher feedback, group review, peer reviews, and self-assessment are found to be beneficial to improve the students’ writing (Karabenick, 2011), our instructors might not have addressed them relevantly. Seeking help from the teacher or other peers was rarely applied in our writing classroom. Although we had realized that seeking help could have promoted our writing and strategy

use, that strategy was not in good use due to the typical perception that only low achievers would seek help. We were not instructed on how to determine if we could feel the problem, need help, seek help, why to seek help, and from whom to seek help (Zimmerman, 2011). Our awareness was not triggered regarding the importance of help-seeking strategy.

As an L2 instructor in postsecondary institutes in Palestine, I could realize the magnitude of challenges that my students had. Citing my experience would help me to identify and reflect on the pedagogical practices that I suffered from during my teaching experience. Low motivation toward writing represented the most remarkable challenge among many students. They had insufficient self-efficacy which is defined as “people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). I emphasize the importance of self-efficacy because research has proved that self-efficacy has a crucial impact on academic performance. Writing self-efficacy has positive correlation with students’ achievement goals and self-evaluative standards (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). It affects students’ expended efforts, persistence, and interest (Pajares, 1996b). Students’ low self-efficacy could be attributed to lack of mastery experience (poor writing), vicarious experiences (no modeling), forms of persuasion (no reassurance by instructors), and physiological indexes such as apprehension and anxiety (Schunk, & Usher, 2011).

Many students also lacked self-direction toward their learning, including but not limited to setting goals, self-monitoring their learning, and self-reflecting on their progress. They relied heavily on their instructors in a teacher-centered learning environment. They hardly had personal initiatives to make improvements in their poor

cognitive, motivational, and behavioral resources. That drawback might have been blamed on both students and instructors.

The learning environment worsened the problem due to physical environmental constraints such as classroom sizes, furniture supplies, classroom structure, technological equipment, and power supplies. Some writing classes and other L2-related classes in that university exceeded 80 students which represented a challenge for learning in such large classes. Moreover, the classroom lacked proper furnishing due to lack of relevant furniture which left the choice for organizing the classroom desks and tables in the traditional row-structure manner. There was severe lack of technological equipment such as computers, LCD projectors and other modern technologically and digitally-assisted devices. Power supplies played an essential part in worsening the learning context as power was available, sometimes, only 4 hours a day, more or less. Such challenges led to poor and deficient employment of learning opportunities that students might benefit from. The students could not set up the right place or time to plan, write, or revise.

These learning environment-related challenges, classroom sizes, furniture supplies, classroom structure, technological equipment, and power supplies, were closely related to the deteriorated political situation in the Gaza strip where my study took place. As the Gaza Strip lies under the Israeli occupation, Israel enforced closure, siege, sanction, and collective punishment against the Gaza Strip, represented by the “full control of all movement of people and goods to and from Gaza by sea, air and land” (United Nations Country Team in the occupied Palestinian territory, 2017, p. 7). That control negatively influenced the Gazans’ general life aspects as the Israeli Government “announced a number of new sanctions and restrictions on the access and movement of

people and goods, ultimately amounting to a blockade by sea, air and land” (p. 7). Those sanctions and restrictions played the biggest part of hardening the mission of properly building a relevant learning environment that the students should enjoy during their study because “provision of basic services, including health and education, has continued to decline, as the needs for... classrooms... and teachers... have not been met” (p. 3). Financial aids and revenues assumed to provide educational and instructional support and create physical space for good learning were badly affected because of the Israeli collective punishments that included all life aspects.

The Israeli collective punishment also led to high rates of unemployment which consequently affected negatively the students’ admission into universities due inability to pay tuition fees because of poor job opportunities and low family income (United Nations Country Team in the occupied Palestinian territory, 2017). Many enrolled students had to withdraw for the same reasons. As the university depends partially on students’ tuition fees to pay for its various services and facilities, shortage of finance influenced the proper creation of learning and instructional resources at the university. Writing support services at the university were not available for financial shortage. No training courses, workshops, or one-on-one sessions on writing were available. The dearth of writing centers and student success centers in the Palestinian universities increased students’ challenges and left them unassisted.

Few research studies were conducted to identify challenges that the Palestinian undergraduate students might face regarding L2 writing and strategy use. The lack of linguistic competence represented a major problem for the students as they had issues with grammatical and lexical errors, L1 language interference, and cohesive devices

(Hammad, 2016). Although the students could be aware that they made errors, they were not aware of the number of error types they committed (Mourtaga, 2004).

Academic writing complications were also predominant among the students as they found it challenging to produce a text with full components, well-organized format, and appropriate citation. These challenges were attributed to shortage of academic resources, curricular issues, instructors' capability of teaching, and university regulations (Abou Shaban, 2003). They also complained against not receiving feedback from their instructors (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010, Hammad, 2015; Hammad, 2016).

Writing practice was a substantial problem that most students suffered from due to lack of time devoted to writing in English in the classroom (Hammad, 2016; Mourtaga 2010). They did not employ enough relevant writing strategies which affected the level of selecting, implementing and evaluating learning strategies. That short learning was attributed to ignorance of utilizing explicit strategy instruction. As a result, the students produced poor written essays (Hammad, 2013).

The students' understanding of writing was flawed as they perceived it only as speech recording with most emphasis made on the sentence level. Harris et al. (2010) criticized this knowledge-telling model because it could make the students rely solely on retrieving content from memory. The students did not have relevant conceptualization of what writing could mean to the writer and the audience, nor did they understand the purpose of writing (Abd Al- Raheem, 2011). In this regard, Zimmerman and Moylan (2009) warned that students may run into metacognitive deficiencies. Moreover, Harris et al. (2010) emphasized the role that declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge could play when successfully applied and coordinated.

The affective variable was another factor that played a crucial role in facilitating or hindering students' writing. When properly employed, affective elements such as self-esteem, contribute to students' second language learning (Schumann, 1998). Many students reported that they suffered from apprehension issues during the writing class (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010). They felt depressed and frustrated to receive inappropriate response from their instructors when they committed writing errors. They might have been mocked by their instructors and classmates for their bad handwriting which increased their stress. It was found that less skilled L2 students felt more writing apprehension than more skilled students. In addition, male students had more writing apprehension than female students (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010). The students might have been in a risk of running into a "fear of the writing process that outweighs the projected gain from the ability to write" (Thompson, 1980, p. 121). For example, some students dropped courses when they felt that their efforts were not valued to avoid embarrassment. Consequently, the students' writing performance could be negatively affected due to writing apprehension (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010; Atay & Kurt, 2006; Cheng, Horwitz & Shallert, 1999).

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

Producing good writing pieces and becoming self-regulated writers require the development of SRL strategies along with writing competence and expertise. Developing SRL strategies and writing competence and expertise represented an essential challenge for the Palestinian writers. They faced difficulties to acquire, utilize, and manage expert writers' strategies and competences. These challenges included limited knowledge of writing, a lack of an effective writing approach, a lack of proactive planning, low

motivation and self-efficacy. Moreover, the Palestinian students received instruction that did not help them to develop L2 writing knowledge, skills, and SRL strategies or to address their learning needs (Santangelo et al., 2007). That approach enhanced instructors' authority, overlooked learner autonomy, and lowered the students' motivation to learn. There existed a need to employ a more relevant instructional approach that could help the students achieve more academic success, become strategic learners, and feel more self-efficacious (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004; Zimmerman & Schunk 2011).

Utilizing SRL instruction in this study assumed that employing a SRL approach would “develop active [writers] who are confident, resourceful, diligent, and seek help when needed” (Andrade, & Evans, 2013, p. 17). Addressing the students' L2 writing challenges from a SRL perspective stemmed from the well-established contributions to pedagogy and curriculum (Zimmerman & Schunk 2011). Nevertheless, despite the fact that SRL has gained a widespread research interest with significant contribution to improving students' achievement and strategy use (Zimmerman & Schunk 2011), it is still fairly new to the field of L2 learning. Although many studies have examined and explored its impact on academic achievement, there has been very little research on L2 writing (Andrade, & Evans, 2013), particularly in the Palestinian context.

My review of the literature revealed a dearth of research on L2 writing as the number of the studies conducted within SRL is remarkably limited. More importantly, most of the research was confined to identify writing challenges without carrying out empirical efforts to overcome such challenges or improve students' writing (Abou Shaban, 2003; Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010; Hamad, 2016; Mourtaga, 2010). It was also

noticed that most of the research has focused on the linguistic competence in writing. Although there are few studies that focused on non-linguistic factors in writing (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010; Al-Shaer, 2014), less research has studied SRL or strategy use.

#### **1.4 Research Gap**

I searched Palestinian related journals, magazines, and universities libraries databases for a chance to find related publications. I also searched the ProQuest Education Journals, ERIC, PsycINFO, Google, Google Scholar, and Summon through Western Libraries for research studies, articles, and any other related publications. My review of the literature revealed that none of the existing studies employed a full model of SRL in L2 writing in the Palestinian context in specific (Hammad, 2016) and elsewhere in general (Andrade, & Evans, 2013). Rather, they investigated isolated sub-processes of SRL strategies such as self-efficacy (Hetthong & Teo, 2013), goal setting (Kato, 2009), and self-monitoring (Creswell, 2000). Massey (2009) maintained that one sub-process, without internalizing multiple SRL processes, could not support SRL as a whole. Rather, we should examine these processes simultaneously. Despite the well-established contributions of SRL to writing (MacArthur & Philippakos, 2013; Graham & Harris, 2009; Matsuhashi & Gordon, 1985), that work has placed focus on the outcomes in terms of process and product gains. Little research has attempted to explore the teacher-learner relations and roles in the L2 classroom (Harris, Graham & Mason, 2006; MacArthur & Philippakos, 2013; Schunk & Swartz, 1993a, 1993b; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1999, 2002).

The study aspired to generate a standpoint that could help to clarify the nature of the teacher-learner relationship in a SRL-based classroom. It is argued that while



“teaching SRL may seem to empower students to exercise their agency ... it actually serves as an instrument to encourage complicity, compliance, and obedience” (Vassallo, 2013, p. 60). It is valuable to explore the unresolved deliberation of the teacher-directed SRL instruction as of whether SRL dictates student compliance and complicity or promotes autonomy and independency. It is also essential to elaborate on whether SRL associated with agency might be allied to compliance and/or resistance to teacher authority and instruction.

By helping resolve this deliberation, the findings of the study could assist teachers who justify teaching their students SRL strategies as a tool of academic success to make informed decisions. Consequently, making informed decisions can help them to shape their understanding of themselves, their students, and teaching responsibilities and to map out appropriate pedagogical practices engendered from relevant theorizing. There should exist an insightful understanding to the agentic self-regulation of students with active engagement in their learning activity. Learning in a secure learning environment where learners are supported by mindful teachers who undertake supportive roles enables L2 writers to self-plan, self-initiate, and self-sustain their writing activities (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Research into teacher-learner relations and roles in SRL instructional programs has been so limited that the results were inconclusive. Results inconclusiveness blurred the agentic role undertaken by learners when they engage in learning activities. There has been a gap in research where investigations have primarily attended to classroom contexts without referring to learners' experience as of what they actually do (Perry & Rahim, 2011). There is a need to sightsee the learner in a context with careful

consideration to the mutual and bidirectional influence that each exerts on the other. The study presumed to use relevant tools to spotlight the students learning in real tasks and time as part of its data collection techniques.

### **1.5 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions**

The purpose of the study was to find out how a SRL instructional intervention impacted the Palestinian undergraduate students' L2 writing and strategy use. The study was theoretically inspired by the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and was practically informed by the cyclical model of SRL (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997; Zimmerman, 2011, Zimmerman, 2013).

By employing SRL instruction, the study hoped to reduce the gap between novice and expert writers. Novice writers are different from expert writers in the sense that the novices have shortcomings. These shortcomings include limited knowledge of writing, ineffective writing approach, disengagement from advance planning, difficulty generating content, and limited time and efforts spent on writing tasks (Santangelo et al., 2007). Reducing the gap could help to ease the challenges of the L2 writers' who "fail to apply knowledge, do only enough work to get by, and persist with the same behaviors regardless of outcomes". It could also develop successful writers who produce clear and accurate written texts by using SRL strategies throughout the writing process (Andrade & Evan, 2013, p. 12).

The study aspired to explore the relationships between the teacher and students, clarifying if SRL could empower students as agents evolved from their engagement in their writing experience. The study sought to provide an insight on aspects of agency that learners exercise over their learning by consciously controlling and regulating their

thoughts, actions, emotions, and abilities to make choices. That insight could help to identify the type of responsibilities that both teachers and learners should undertake to initiate, maintain, and evaluate L2 learning opportunities. Those opportunities could happen through meaningful interaction and negotiation processes under the mandate of the cyclical model of SRL. This type of responsibilities might be difficult to identify without creating a guideline on the nature of the relationship between the teacher and students as the main players in the L2 learning process.

Following Creswell and Clark's (2011) guideline for writing research questions in convergent mixed methods research, the study's research questions are stated independently. The first question was addressed quantitatively while the second questions was addressed qualitatively.

RQ1. Did the IELTS writing score differ significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention?"

RQ2. How did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students' development of SRL strategies and writing?

## **1.6 Key Definitions**

- L1: Acronym for one's first or native language.
- L2: This acronym has been used to refer to any additional language (second, third, fourth, or higher) learned beyond the L1, whether this occurs in a foreign language context, in which English is not the medium of daily communication, or a second language context, in which the language being learned is the commonly spoken language (Oxford, 2007, p. 2).

- L2 writers: Individuals who learn to write an additional language beyond their L1.
- Learner autonomy: “The ability to take charge of one's learning” (Holec, 1981, P. 3).
- Self-efficacy: “People's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391).
- Strategy: “any organized, purposeful and regulated line of action chosen by an individual to carry out a task which he or she sets for himself or herself or with which he or she is confronted” (CEFR 2001, 10).
- SRL: “deliberate planning, monitoring, and regulating of cognitive, behavioral, and affective or motivational processes toward completion of an academic task” (Hadwin, 2008, p. 175).

### **1.7 Overview of the Dissertation Chapters**

This doctoral dissertation is divided into five chapters. In Chapter One, I discussed my motivation to carry out this research study which stemmed from research and practice. I provided contextual background about the learning context in which the study took place. L2 writers' challenges with writing were presented. The statement of the problem was identified to pedagogically help L2 writers to improve their writing and theoretically to resolve the deliberation over the teacher-directness in SRL classroom. Identifying the research gap and reflecting on the problem, I presented the purpose of the study along with the two research questions. Some key definitions were presented at the end of the chapter.

In chapter Two, I presented the theoretical framework that discussed the main SRL theory underpinning my study. The cyclical model of SRL informing the

pedagogical application of the instructional intervention was discussed too. I also presented literature review of various writing approaches that influenced L2 writing and related previous studies on L2 writing through SRL perspective. In Chapter Three, I discussed the methodological considerations underpinning my study, research design, and methods of data collection and analysis. In Chapter Four, I reported the results of the two research questions across the quantitative and qualitative strands of this mixed methods study. In Chapter Six, I provided an overview of the research results which helped to discuss the findings in both quantitative and qualitative strands synthetically. I also provided theoretical and pedagogical implications that can contribute to advancement of knowledge and skill. Limitations and future research directions were suggested as well.

## **Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework and Literature Review**

This chapter consists of two parts. The first part presents the theoretical framework of the study, elaborating on the SRL processes, various SRL perspectives, and educational contributions. It also discusses the underlying features of the social cognitive theory of SRL in more detail along with the cyclical model of SRL. The second part provides a literature review of the major writing approaches that influenced L2 writing, influential empirical research that investigated L2 writing through SRL.

### **Theoretical Framework**

#### **2.1 SRL**

The development of SRL was tracked back to the 1960s and 1970s with diversity of theoretical origins. The application of these theories was conducive to substantial research and development of practices in various domains and contexts. More specifically, SRL flourished in the educational field, improving understanding of how learners regulate their behaviors (Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000). The significance of these contributions was endorsed by meta-analysis research findings that learners academically perform more effectively when they used SRL strategies but perform poorly when they did not use them (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988). SRL assisted learners with different proficiency levels to improve their achievement effectively (Schunk, 1984). SRL proved to resolve academic concerns related to academic achievement when students struggled at schools. It helped to alleviate underachievement and procrastination issues that resulted in poor learning and performance and high levels of dissatisfaction (Schmitz & Wiese, 2006). Research also established that students supported with SRL strategy intervention not only gained more academic performance

but also developed strategic behavior and motivation (Dignath, Buettner & Langfeldt, 2008).

SRL involves “processes whereby learners personally activate and sustain cognition, affects and behaviors that are systematically oriented towards the attainment of personal goals” (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011, p. 1). During SRL, several metacognitive processes such as planning, setting goals, and evaluation are deployed to draw on their understanding of learning tasks, and to modify plans, goals, strategies, and efforts (Azevedo & Witherspoon, 2011). Metacognitive monitoring plays an essential role in identifying the discrepancy between learners’ current achievement and their desired states (Hadwin, Jarvela & Miller, 2011).

SRL emerged from several theoretical perspectives such as the operant theory, phenomenological theory, social cognitive theory, cognitive models, volitional-based SRL theory, sociocultural theory, and constructivist theories. Despite this diverse emergence, there are mutual grounds on which these theories rely. First, SRL requires the “purposive use of specific processes, strategies, or responses, by students to improve their academic achievement” (Zimmerman, 2001, p. 5). Second, SRL involves a cyclical process of feedback in which students engage in monitoring how effective their learning strategies are and how they use a variety of ways to respond to this feedback. Third, the motivation of selecting certain SRL strategies and how students select them is a conjoint feature of SRL theoretical perspectives. Fourth, students need extra time to prepare, need to attend to tasks, and need effort with sufficiently attractive outcomes to self-regulate their academic learning (Zimmerman, 2001). On the other hand, there are differences

among these SRL theories in the ways they conceptualize and reflect on the theoretical and practical principles.

### **2.1.1 Operant Viewpoint of SRL**

The operant theory emphasizes that students' behaviors are controlled by external factors (Skinner, 1974). Students' behaviors can alter the environment and their behaviors when they are engaged in self-control, impulsivity, or commitment. Self-control involves postponing an immediate reward for the sake of getting a greater one at a later time. Impulsivity is to select an immediate smaller reward over a delayed and greater alternative. Commitment guarantees a larger delayed reinforcement by excluding the choice between the immediate smaller and delayed larger alternative. The main SRL strategies used according to the operant theory are self-monitoring, self-instruction, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement (Mace, Belfore & Hutchinson, 2001). The operant theory is credited for providing powerful tools to arrange one's learning environment consistent with long-term contexts. This can be done by providing self-instruction that guides learners to the delayed rewards, self-reinforcement (coffee break after accomplishing a task), and self-recording devices that link current accomplishments to long term reinforcers. However, this approach is criticized for its sole emphasis on the external factors (reinforcers) as the main motivations for learners.

### **2.1.2 Phenomenological Viewpoint of SRL**

From the viewpoint of the phenomenological theory, the self is "playing a key role in generating hypotheses, interpretations, predictions, and in the processing and organization of information" (McCombs, 2001). SRL is derived from the importance of self-perceptions, forming distinctive identity that influences academic learning and



achievement. Students are motivated to learn by means of developing their self-system defined as “cognitive structures that provide reference mechanisms and to a set of sub-functions for the perception, evaluation, and regulation of behavior” (Bandura, 1978, p. 248). Self-system maintains consistency to personality when people observe, symbolize, and evaluate their behaviors in accordance with their anticipated future consequences. Self-esteem and self-concept are seen as covert processes that students need to establish in order to develop their self-system (Zimmerman, 2001). Self-esteem is “a global evaluation reflecting our view of our accomplishments and capabilities, our values, our bodies, other’s responses to us, and events, or occasions, our possessions” (Tesser, 2000, p. 142). Self-concept is defined as the individuals’ “beliefs and perceptions of their ability to direct and control their cognition, affects, motivation, and behavior in learning situations” (McCombs, 2001, p. 86).

Self-identities as a key component of learners’ self-system account for learners’ perception of learning and the long-term motivation that explain their effective learning. Learners’ perception of learning tasks is evaluated in accordance with their sense of identity such as a scholar, an athlete, or a leader (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). For, example, research showed that some learners rejected an academic identity for themselves when they received adverse feedback from teachers and other social sources. Instead, they undertook counterproductive identities that, when formed, affected their goals and learning methods. Undertaking nonacademic identities was often conducive to disengagement from academic learning (Paris, Byrnes & Paris, 2001). Despite the importance of self-identities, there are debates over the definition, measurement, and validation of self-identities. The variation in defining self-identities resulted in employing

different measurement methods which eventually rendered discrepant findings (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).

### **2.1.3 Cognitive Viewpoint of SRL**

Cognitive models of SRL advocate that frequently teaching students how to use cognitive strategies enhances and leads to higher levels of learning. Cognitive theorists posit that knowledge has a key role in learning, forming implicit cognition in which individuals learn without needing to control details of how it unfolds (Zimmerman, 2011). Learners require continuous effort to self-regulate (Winne, 2011). SRL performance is gauged and enhanced by self-evaluative standards, self-monitoring, standards-based performance outcomes, and adjustment. “Negative discrepancies between feedback and self-evaluative standards compel learners to continue their efforts... until the discrepancies are resolved” (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001, p. 294). However, not advocated in the cognitive models, the effectiveness of feedback can be augmented by combining both positive and negative control reactions. Searching, monitoring, assembling, rehearsing, and translating are some recommended strategies used in the cognitive models to enable learners to self-regulate (Winne, 2001). Although using these strategies can be transferred to other learning contexts, students struggle to remember them, to generalize them to new tasks, and to use them instinctively when being in authentic contexts (Zimmerman, 2011).

### **2.1.4 Volitional Viewpoint of SRL**

Volitional-based SRL theory emphasizes the “post-decisional, self-regulatory processes that energize the maintenance and enactment of intended actions” (Kuhl, 1985, p. 90). Volitional processes take place after a learner takes a decision to learn or to

accomplish an academic task. They aim to protect the intention to learn after motivational processes (self-efficacy, value, and interest) promote the intention to do so (Corno, 2001). “Motivational processes mediate the formation of decisions and promote decision, whereas volitional processes mediate the enactment of those decisions and protect them” (Zimmerman, 2001, p. 23). When students operate within various situational (classroom settings, teachers’ actions... etc.) and personal constraints (motives, goals... etc.), their ability to maintain concentration against confronting obstacles is seen as volitional aptitude (Corno, 2001). For example, to stay engaged cognitively, students can restructure the environment by studying in a library, for instance, instead of a noisy dormitory to remove distractions (Kuhl, 2000).

Kuhl (1985) identifies two categories of volitional control: covert processes of self-control and overt processes of self-control. The covert processes consist of cognition control (attention, encoding, and information processing control), emotion control, and motivation control (incentive escalation, attribution, instruction). The overt processes comprise control of the task situation (task control and setting control) and control of others in the task setting (peer and teacher control).

Volitional theory gains an influential importance through the emphasis made on the essential role of enabling learners to resist distraction temptation (movie, coffee...etc.) and to strengthen their persistence. Restructuring the learning environment is a helpful technique to remove distractions. However, separating motivational processes from volitional ones and eliminating the motivational processes have not rendered proven productivity of students’ persistence (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).

### **2.1.5 Sociocultural Viewpoint of SRL**

The sociocultural view of SRL posits that learners develop SRL as an outcome of their transformation of cognitive and social skills (Diaz, Neal & Amaya-Williams, 1990) by the use of language as a key tool that enables them to control their thoughts and actions (Zimmerman, 2011). SRL is developed through two influential processes. 1- In the inter-psychological process learners are engaged in social interactions that help them initiate cultural mediators to control their environment, to influence others, and to eventually regulate their cognition and behaviors. 2- In the intra-psychological process, learners internalize external operations by using external mediators that become part of their internal organization (Diaz, Neal, & Amaya-Williams, 1990).

Private speech emerges as a result of reciprocal interactions which starts as overt verbalization (think aloud) to regulate thought and behavior. Then it turns to covert, internal, which emerges at any challenging time for learners (Vygotsky, 1986). The zone of proximal development, “the difference between what a learner cannot do alone yet can do with help from a teacher or more capable peer” (McCaslin & Hickey, 2001), has been utilized in many educational practices. Assistance from others is provided as needed by learners and then can be withdrawn gradually when a learner can independently accomplish a task. To enhance learners’ SRL, self-verbalization training should be provided to scaffold their development of SRL (Zimmerman, 2011).

Self-verbalization from the sociocultural viewpoint has endowed pedagogical benefits for engaging learners as community members in constructive activities (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001) such as planning, organizing, monitoring and self-reflecting. Effective instruction contributes to SRL by promoting classroom interaction

with negotiated meaning and agency as teachers can understand their students' needs through the use of speech (Özdemir, 2011). Educational implications, however, diverge due to the different interpretations that researchers have encountered through the sociocultural theory. On the one hand, contrasting academic interventions occur in which one stream emphasizes self-verbalization as a cognitive behavioral regulatory strategy. On the other hand, another stream underlines dialogue as a constructive regulatory strategy (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).

### **2.1.6 Constructivist Viewpoint of SRL**

Constructivist theorists argue that “learning is situated in social and historical contexts that shape content and processes of thinking” (Paris, et al., 2001, p. 255). Experience is imparted to novice learners through practical activities in the local community. Constructing one's own self depends on the interplay between the individual and the surrounding groups in a way that integrates cognitive and motivational factors to practice control over their learning (Vassallo, 2013). Self-identities represent an essential construct that learners seek to establish by developing theories regarding self-competence, agency and control, schooling and academic tasks. Self-competence refers to learners' ability to self-regulate. Agency and control relate to learners' interpretation of success and failure. Schooling and academic tasks are concerned with learners' beliefs about task characteristics (Zimmerman, 2001).

Although self-identities maintain a fundamental component of the constructivist theory, there was a discrepancy in the theorists' views of conceptualizing and enacting SRL process. Cognitive constructivists emphasize the cognitive conflict (discovery learning) and social conflict (confronting students with debating views) as a means of

motivation to learning (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). Social constructivists adopt the situated cognition perspective to motivate learners. Situated cognition perspective proposes that “intelligent behavior arises from the dynamic coupling between intelligent subject and its environment rather than only from the agent's mind (brain, control system) itself” (Roth & Jornet, 2013p. 264). Social constructivists argue that elaborative questioning and cooperative learning assists learners to improve their learning. They emphasize the substantive role of goal orientation, perceived self-competence, agency and control, tasks orientation, and strategies orientation for learners in order to self-regulate (Paris, et al, 2001). The discrepancy between the cognitive constructivists and social constructivists resulted in different implications for practice. For example, cognitive constructivists stressed the advantage of discovery learning and social conflict that that involves confronting students with debating views. However, social constructivists recommended that students should learn in authentic contexts by establishing social communities of learners. Collaboration in such communities is favored over conflict.

### **2.1.7 The Social Cognitive Theory of SRL**

The social cognitive theory is discussed in more details in this section as it represents the main theoretical framework of the study. SRL, in the social cognitive perspective, is defined as “self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals” (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 14). SRL is enacted by the interplay among three influences of self-regulation: *personal, behavioral, and environmental influences*. *Personal influences* include cognition, emotion, motivation (Zimmerman, 2013). Personal influences involve covert self-

regulatory processes pertaining to cognitive strategies (setting learning goals), motivational strategies (increasing self-efficacy), or affective strategies (reducing anxiety). *Behavioral influences* include overt motoric activities such as keeping a record of how many paragraphs were written in a given period of time. *Environmental influences* include physical and social setting such as selecting a quiet place (library) to write in (Zimmerman, & Risemberg, 1997).

The interplay among the three influences is conceived as an internal process operating and influenced by social interaction when learners perform tasks (Bandura, 1986). “Each of these triadic forms of self-regulation interact via a cyclic feedback loop through which writers self-monitor and self-react to feedback about the effectiveness of specific self-regulatory techniques or processes” (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 73). This leads to continuing successful strategies and modifying or changing non-successful ones (Zimmerman, 2000). For example, a student’s personal perception of efficacy does not determine his response to perform a learning task without environmental stimuli such as encouragement from the teacher and enactive outcomes such as obtaining feedback on a previous successful task. The student’s self-regulative response (self-recording) has an impact on the environmental processes in which a document can be created on the personal processes such as perceptions of self-efficacy. Accordingly, the student’s behavior is generated out of self-generated and external sources of influences (Zimmerman, 1989).

Each form of self-regulation has relative importance during the task performance which is determined upon three bases: personal efforts to self-regulate, outcomes of behavioral performance, and changes in environmental context. For example, a student

who is asked to write an essay might start the writing process by setting daily output goals to enhance her writing effectiveness. To enhance her progress, she could keep a diary of what she has written every day or seek feedback on her essay from another student (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

### **2.1.7.1 Tenets of the Social Cognitive Theory**

*Triadic reciprocity* is a key feature of the social cognitive theory in which “SRL is not determined merely by personal processes; these processes are assumed to be influenced by environmental and behavioral events in reciprocal fashion” (Zimmerman, 1989, p. 330). The reciprocity of these factors is assumed to be changeable, and thus, they need to be monitored (Zimmerman, 2000) because monitoring prompts changes in students’ strategies, cognitions, affects, and behaviors (Schunk & Usher, 2011).

*Self-efficacy* beliefs, as “people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391) have influential impacts on students’ motivation, achievement, and self-regulation (Schunk & Usher, 2011). Students’ choice of tasks, persistence, efforts, and achievement (Schunk, 1995) “modify their efficacy belief ... on which [p]rogress indicators convey to students that they are capable of performing well, which enhances self-efficacy for continual learning” (Schunk, 2001, p. 127). Sources of self-efficacy, through which students can interpret information about their capabilities of accomplishing tasks, include enactive learning (students’ actual performances), vicarious learning (observed or modeled experience), forms of persuasion, and physiological indexes (worry, apprehension...etc.), and value of learning (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 2001; Schunk & Usher, 2011). Research revealed positive impacts of self-efficacy in L2



learning contexts. Self-efficacy was associated with higher student achievement as demonstrated by course grades (Hsieh, 2008; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006, 2007). Self-efficacy was predictive to student learning achievement as learners with strong self-efficacy were reported to promote higher interest in L2 learning, build more positive attitudes, and establish integrative orientation (Hsieh, 2008).

*Modeling*, as “cognitive, affective, and behavioral changes that derive from observing models” (Schunk, 2001, p. 128), plays an essential part in the pedagogical practices endorsed by the social cognitive theory (Vassallo, 2013). Models could be real or symbolic individuals who show and demonstrate behaviors, verbalizations, and other experiences when learners engage in doing or performing learning tasks. In schools, teachers and students can act as models to share these experiences by means of illustration and vicarious reinforcement that help to develop students’ strategies and to improve their self-efficacy. Fostering self-regulatory processes can be achieved through modeling by acquiring new behaviors, consolidating or fading behavior, and performing previous learning (Schunk, 2001). Research revealed that modeling facilitated rapid learning, significant transfer to untrained tasks, and significant retention over time (Zimmerman & Rosenthal, 1974a). Modeling enabled learners to induce abstract concepts facilitated through cognitive models and generalize them to unfamiliar tasks (Zimmerman & Lanaro, 1974). In Zimmerman and Koussa’s (1979) study, modeling increased learners’ (as observers) personal choice of learning tasks and enhanced their motivation.

*Sub-processes*, including self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction are assumed to interact reciprocally with each other (Bandura, 1986). *Self-observation* can

inform students about their progress toward their goals when they operate within specific conditions. Self-observation represents valuable information for learners to establish a program of change. It can also motivate behavioral changes when students keep record of their actions that guide them to recognize relevant behaviors (Schunk, 2001). Research findings demonstrated that students who used self-observation strategies such as record-keeping used higher repertoire and diversity of SRL strategies. Self-observation helped those students effectively use their time and motivated them to spend extra time studying (Lan, 1998).

*Self-judgment* is a process through which students can compare their current performance with their goals. Self-judgment can be influenced by several factors such as the type of standards, goal properties, importance of goal orientation and attribution. Standards can be fixed or normative. Fixed standards refer to the goals that a learner sets to achieve, such as completing six workbook pages in 30 minutes. This goal represents an absolute standard that the learner can gauge his progress in accordance with. Normative standards are related to observing models (a teacher) in which learners make social comparison with others that allows them to evaluate their performances. A student, for example, might compare her work on an assignment with a peer to determine who accomplishes it first (Schunk, 1996a).

Goals are also influential through their properties that include specificity, proximity, and goal orientation and attribution. For example, setting a goal with specific performance standards promotes self-efficacy as it is easier to gauge progress. Proximal goals motivate learners more than distal goals as it is easier to gauge progress toward proximal goals. The difficulty level of goals plays an essential role in students'

motivation. Students tend to be more motivated when they work on goals that are not too difficult or too easy. Challenging but attainable goals are optimal to motivate the students' learning (Bandura, 1988).

Goal orientation is interdependent with the learners' valuing of their goals (Bandura, 1997). Learners who hold little value and interest in performing a task, may not assess their performance. Receiving positive feedback on their performance, learners can enhance their goals importance by setting specific goals and regularly judging their progress (Bandura, 1997; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Goal attribution is also crucial to learners' motivation and learning. The causes of outcomes that can be successes or difficulties can be associated with ability, effort, and task difficulty (Weiner, 2004). For example, learners who attribute their accomplishment to the teacher's help might feel less self-efficacious because they think they could not succeed on their own. Learners feel more self-efficacious when they attribute their successes to their personal efforts than when attributing them to others. Exerting higher efforts than needed to accomplish a task might also result in less self-efficacy than when minimal efforts are required. Learners' age also plays an important role in motivation and learning. As learners grow up, their ability attributions exert a more important influence on expectancies while their efforts attributions exert less importance (Schunk, 2001).

*Self-reaction* refers to how students respond to their self-judgment of goals progress. While positive evaluation of goal achievement leads to more efficacy beliefs toward learning, negative evaluation does not necessarily decrease students' motivation. Students can maintain their motivation when they have good self-efficacy beliefs about their capability to accomplish tasks (Schunk, 2001).

*Domain-specificity* means that SRL depends on the context in which learners can be engaged in SRL differently in different domains. (Schunk, 2001). The specificity of SRL is manifested in Zimmerman and Risemberg's (1997) conceptual framework that identified six psychological dimensions in which a learner can use self-regulatory processes. *Motive* addresses the question of why learners learn as the main drive for learning. Goal settings, self-consequencing (arranging rewards or punishment for achievement), and self-efficacy are key processes used to initiate and maintain motivation. *Methods of learning* entail the use of a variety of general-domain (planning, self-monitoring, and reviewing) and specific-domain (rehearsal, summarizing, and brainstorming) strategies to enhance learning. Considering *time* factors leads to developing appropriate time management strategies, and avoiding causes and effects of procrastination. *Performance* necessitates that learners engage in a feedback loop that helps them create proper awareness about their learning progress, identifying any discrepancy between their goals and current achievement. This involves the use of self-observation and self-verbalization strategies. *Physical and social environment* dimensions require that learners restructure their learning environment to better suit achieving their learning goals and that they should engage in an active interaction with others to seek help when needed.

#### **2.1.7.2 Learners' Agency in SRL**

Self-regulating one's thought, behaviors, and emotion denotes that learners have an agency over their learning (Zimmerman, 2013). "Agency refers to acts done intentionally.... Intention is a representation of a future course of action to be performed" (Bandura, 2001, p. 6). Learners are presumed to be proactive and creative individuals

who not only react to their surroundings and environment, but also plan, perform, and reflect on their experiences (Bandura, 2008). Agency is manifested through the active character of learners who engage in interaction during learning tasks, resulting in the “construction and reorganization of knowledge structures internal to the learner”. Agency also underlines the learners’ embeddedness in sociocultural practices of teaching and learning that constitute them as a learner. (Martine, 2004, p. 135).

Learners’ agency is enacted by employing processes of planning, controlling, and reflecting upon their actions which are considered as key processes of SRL. Agency inhabits forethought as learners set goals, set outcomes expectations, and determine methods of implementation, through which they self-motivate and self-guide their behaviors (Bandura, 1986). Learners have an agentic role to initiate and maintain certain levels of learning or accomplishing tasks. SRL is an intentional and goal directed process through which learners guide their learning and commit themselves to accomplish certain tasks based on the standards they set to assess their learning. Learners deliberately analyze the learning context, set and manage goals, appropriately select and assess strategies, and evaluate learning progress (Bandura, 1986).

Self-reactiveness is an essential part of learners’ agency as they not only plan or make choices, but they self-regulate the execution of their actions as well. Learners are agents of their actions as they can self-examine their functioning upon self and normative standards by engaging in a self-reflective process to evaluate their motivation, values, course of thoughts, actions, and affect (Bandura, 2001). It is suggested that agency and self-regulation are a bidirectional process in which exercising agency enables one to self-regulate and, vice versa, self-regulating leads one to exercising agency (Vassallo, 2013).

Agency is also significant through its contribution to learner autonomy that concerns learners' capacity to take control and charge of their learning (Benson, 2007). Autonomy can be defined as the "freedom and ability to manage one's own affairs, which entails the right to make decisions" (Scharle & Szabo, 2000, p. 4). Agency is not only a point of origin that leads to the development of autonomy, but also a starting point for strategic learning (Gao & Zhang, 2011; Little, 2007). Learners' abilities to control their learning can be embodied through the decisions they take to set goals, apply relevant methods and techniques, monitoring their progress, and evaluating outcomes (Holec, 1981). Self-regulated learners who assign significance and relevance to things and events and strategically plan, perform, and evaluate their behaviors likely develop learner autonomy (Ehrman, 2002). SRL, as conducive to learner autonomy, can be manifested in learners' management of beliefs, emotions, and strategies. L2 researchers claimed that learner autonomy "improves the quality of language learning... prepares individuals for life-long learning, that it is a human right, and that it allows learners to make best use of learning opportunities in and out of the classroom" (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012, p. 3). Managing these factors is related to the development of self-efficacy of learners which is emphasized as a feature of autonomous learning and SRL (Bandura 1997; Oxford, 2015; Zimmerman, 2000).

Research showed that learners' awareness of their agency and their self-efficacy beliefs about their capability of exercising it is central to their management of learning and regulation of their emotional responses (Bown, 2009). Bown found that learners' perception of themselves as active agents was an indication that they were effective self-regulators. Those learners were able to shape and construct their learning experiences and

their motivational and affective responses by exercising agency through numerous strategies. Gao (2010) found that balancing interaction of agency and context helped learners to select and use a variety of strategies in different contexts. Gao stressed that the learners' motive and belief system were crucial to enhancing their agency. To enhance learners' agency and autonomy, Oxford (2017) suggested the employment of different pedagogical guidelines, including: self-awareness, environmental contingencies awareness, thought processes and learning strategies. Employing these guidelines facilitates the learners' self-investigation process by using tools such as journals, graphs, logs, computer technology, and a repertoire of learning strategies (Vassallo, 2013). Opportunities given to learners to exercise choice and control over learning activities are a key feature in the process of developing SRL (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). Rendering choice and control to learners in the classroom contributes to students empowerment.

On the one hand, empowerment concerns learners' "capacity to understand behavior-outcome relationships within given contexts and their belief that they have the capability to enact the behaviors necessary for such desired outcomes" (Yowell & Smylie, 1999, p. 478). Empowerment assumes that learners undertake active and purposeful learning roles, show loyalty to learning, express their opinions and interests, and bear responsibility for their learning through self-control and autonomy. They also feel self-confident as they engage in self-evaluating and self-reflecting on their performances and tasks (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). Learners enjoy opportunities to express their emotion and manipulate activities, inviting SRL by controlling their emotion and getting engaged in the learning context (Shanker, 2010).

On the other hand, teachers' efforts to empower students enable them to exercise control over their lives (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). Teachers seek to empower their students to take on transformative roles by planning, designing, and evaluating curricular and instructional resources relevant to them (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). Teachers act as facilitators (Perry, VandeKamp, Mercer & Nordby, 2002) by undertaking cooperative, tolerant, and knowledgeable characters (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010).

These agentic roles addressed by the social cognitive theory represent an energetic impetus in the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach where L2 learners are the focus of the classroom instruction. Learners engage in communicative activities where they share ideas and opinions, negotiate meaning, interact with teacher and peers, and are responsible for their own learning (Anton, 1999). Providing communication tasks can "involve the learner in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning" (Nunan, 1989, p. 10). Thus, allowing learners to exercise an active role during learning is ultimately effective (Bourke 1996). True learning occurs when learners take an initiative to perform a learning activity rather than when input is transmitted to them by the teacher or the textbook (Van Lier, 2008). In exercising an agentic role, learners have "the ability to assign relevance and significance to things and events" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 143).

Assuming that SRL is associated with agency raises a question concerning teachers who teach academic SRL strategies to their students, justifying these pedagogical decisions upon student empowerment. "[T]eaching SRL may seem to empower students to exercise their agency, but it actually serves as an instrument to



encourage complicity, compliance, and obedience” (Vassallo, 2013, p. 60). Thus, SRL becomes a disputable matter between those who view SRL as a process that resembles and enables compliance and those who see it as resistance. This issue of dispute is under exploration by the current study in which the discussion of the study provided insights from the participants’ feedback (see Chapter Five).

On the one hand, theorists who associated self-regulation with compliance, argued that:

Self-regulation ‘is the ability to comply with a request, to initiate and cease activities according to situational demands, to modulate the intensity, frequency, and duration of verbal and motor acts in social and educational settings, to postpone acting upon a desired object or goal, and to generate socially approved behavior (as cited in Kopp, 1982, pp. 199-200).

On the other hand, abiding by surrounding environment norms and expectations by refraining, desires, interests, thoughts and behaviors to accomplish academic and social goals is not antithetic to agency and self-regulation (Shanker, 2010). Self-regulation and agency can mean resistance to environment norms and practices in a non-neutral and value-free settings such as schools. Vassallo (2013) cited an example of how working-class and black students exercised agency over their thoughts and behaviors. They displayed resistance to middle-class culture schooling that determined knowledge, skills, and disposition. They resisted in different ways by constructing oppositional cultures and oppositional frames of reference by which they tended to preserve their identities, values, dignity, and humanity through dropping out and minimizing learning efforts.

## 2.2 Cyclical Model of SRL

The study was underpinned by the cyclical model of SRL (Zimmerman, 2010, 2013). This model is inspired by the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). In this model, a cyclical personal feedback loop provides information about individual's performance or outcome to make adaptations to the behavior, cognition or environment (Schunk, 2001; Zimmerman, 1989, 2000; Zimmerman, 2011; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). This feedback might come from personal (motivational, behavioral, or physiological), social (teachers, peers, or parents), or environmental (learning context) sources. The feedback loop is enacted when learners proactively plan and initiate learning endeavors and use self-generated feedback to self-regulate (Zimmerman, 2000).

### 2.2.1 Levels of SRL Development

The cyclical model of SRL incorporates four levels for SRL skills to develop: observational, emulative, self-control, and self-regulation levels (Zimmerman, 2000). The first two levels signify primarily social sources of regulatory skill learning, while the last two levels represent a shift toward a self-source to learn. At the first, *observational*, level, learners induce the main feature of a strategy by watching a social model learn or perform. They get the correct form of the skill from the model's description and performance. Accompanied self-regulatory processes such as motivational orientation and performance standards are also conveyed by the model and, thus, learners' motivation to learn can be "greatly enhanced by positive vicarious consequences to the model" (e.g., an audience's applause for a speaker) (Zimmerman, 2013, p. 140). The second, *emulative*, level of SRL skill refers to the moment when learners duplicate or attain the general form of a model's response to a task. Rather than copying the exact

actions of the model, learners emulate the model's general pattern or style of functioning. The model's guidance, feedback, and social reinforcement help learners improve their accuracy and motivation and enable them to approximate the model's general form or style as an indication of achieving the emulative level. Exposure to a model facilitates the acquisition of the use of a skill and requires less when compared to dependence on one's own. Extensive and deliberate practice on one's own, often structured by teachers, enhances learners' performance and self-observation.

When learners master the use of a skill in structured settings in the absence of the model, they attain the third self-control level. A "learner's use of a skill depends on representational standards of a model's performance (e.g., covert images or verbal recollections of a teacher's performance) rather than an overt social referent" (Bandura & Jeffery, as cited in Zimmerman, 2000, p. 30). Students self-reinforcement is determined by learners' success to match that covert standard during practice efforts. At the final, self-regulated, level, learners can make systematic adaptation to their performance to suit changing personal and contextual conditions through which they can manipulate and adapt the use of strategies with little or no reliance on their model. Self-efficacy perception is essential to sustain motivation. At this level, learners perform the skill with "minimal process monitoring, and the learners' attention can be shifted toward performance outcomes without detrimental consequences" (Zimmerman, 2013, p. 141). Self-regulatory development starts with high reliance on social guidance before scaffolding can be withdrawn systematically as learners move toward acquiring the self-regulatory skill. However, the social resources continue to provide support for the learners, but on a self-initiated basis (Zimmerman, 2013).

Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1997, 2002) examined how learners undergo the four developmental levels of SRL featuring observation, emulation, self-control, and self-regulation. Modeling intended for the observational level and social feedback intended for the emulative level as the two primary sources of regulation were compared. The learners were asked to rewrite wordy sentences in a non-redundant form. *Error free modeling* and *coping modeling* were utilized in the study as the main two forms of modeling in the experimental groups. The error free modeling was introduced without missing any steps and the coping modeling skipped a number of steps during efforts to learn. The findings of the study showed that the students in the error free modeling and the coping modeling groups outperformed those who relied only on verbal description and performance outcomes to learn. SRL strategies of self-monitoring and self-correcting actions of the coping model were learned vicariously. The social feedback during enacting learning improved the writing skills for both modeling groups, but was not sufficient for learners without modeling. Modeling groups demonstrated higher levels of self-motivation than did the no modeling group. The study proved that engaging learners in high-quality observational learning before trying to enact learning is beneficial.

To test how sequential the self-control and self-regulation developmental levels take place, Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1999) recruited two groups. *Process goals group* emphasized a 3-step method to combine sentences during the self-control level. *Outcome goals group* in the self-regulated level focused on minimizing the number of words in the combined sentence. By shifting goals sequentially from process to outcome goals, the learners performed better than those who were process only or goals only oriented. The goals group changed the self-monitoring methods when they shifted goals. The findings

of the study confirmed the view of the SRL developmental levels with regard to learners' goals shifting. Learners engage in goals shifting from process goals to outcome goals. Moreover, self-motivation increased after shifting to outcomes goals.

### **2.2.2 Phases of the Cyclical Model of SRL**

The cyclical model of SRL involves three phases: *forethought* phase, *performance* phase, and *self-reflection* phase that incorporate causal relations between SRL processes and key motivational beliefs, and learning outcomes. From the viewpoint of this model, “*proactive* [originally italicized] learners are distinguished by their high-quality forethought and performance phase processes. By contrast, *reactive* [originally italicized] learners rely on postperformance self-reflections to learn, such as by discovery learning, but this post hoc focus is hypothesized to diminish these learners' effectiveness” (Zimmerman, 2013, p. 143).

1- The *forethought* phase “refers to learning processes and sources of motivation that precede efforts to learn and influence students' preparation and willingness to self-regulate their learning” (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 301). In this phase, learners plan and activate motivational beliefs, values, and goals before they act as part of thinking about upcoming academic tasks. Two major categories make up this phase. 1- *Task analysis* refers to how learners deconstruct a learning task into smaller constitutive parts and construct relevant strategies. Task analysis has two essential parts: goal setting which refers to specifying outcomes learners plan to attain (Locke & Lathan, 2002) and *strategic planning* as a process of constructing advantageous learning methods relevant to tasks and environmental settings (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). 2- *Self-motivation beliefs* category comprises self-efficacy, outcome expectations, task interest/value and

goal orientation (Zimmerman, 2000). Each of the motivational sources is linked to the goal setting and strategic planning in which they can predict learners' goals and strategic choices (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Motivational beliefs processes such as high self-efficacy are important for engaging learners in difficult learning tasks which lead to successful accomplishment of the tasks. These processes affect the second performance phase that takes place during the task.

2- In the *performance* phase, learners engage in the actual learning activities and enact processes that occur during learning efforts. The performance phase of SRL consists of two major categories with several processes included in each category: *self-control* and *self-observation*. These processes are intended to monitor both motivation and performance in an attempt to control them (Wigfield, Klauda & Camria, 2011). A variety of task-specific and general strategies are used by learners as part of the first category of *self-control* methods. While task strategy involves developing a systematic process to address specific components such as creating steps to do a task, other general self-control strategies are used to enhance learners' academic or non-academic learning and performances. Volitional strategies involving students to control internal processes such as emotion and thinking can enable students to manage the affective and motivational aspects of their learning and performance (Corno, 2001). Self-instruction is a strategy that involves engaging learners in self-verbalization of overt or covert description of proceeding into a task. Imagery involves creating mental images that assists learning and retention. Time management enables learners to accomplish tasks on schedule, and to monitor their learning progress. Environmental structuring refers to how learners arrange their learning environment to render effective learning and performance.

Seeking help entails that learners solicit help from teachers, parents, or peers when needed. Interest enhancement helps learners turn their tasks into attractive and challenging ones. In self-consequences, learners set rewarding and punishing contingencies for themselves (Wigfield, et al., 2011; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009).

*Self-observation* plays a central role that enables learners to self-control their performance, using two forms of self-observation: metacognitive monitoring and self-recording. While metacognitive monitoring represents an informal mental tracking of learners' performance processes and outcomes, self-recording involves creating formal records of these processes and outcomes (spelling errors graphs) as well as surrounding conditions such as distractions (Wigfield, et al., 2011; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). "Records can capture personal information at the point it occurs, structure it to be most meaningful, preserve its accuracy without need for intrusive rehearsal, and provide a longer data base for discerning evidence of progress" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 20). A feedback loop binder can be created to assist L2 students to effectively observe their writing through which they can track and respond to teachers' feedback that will help them diagnose patterns of strengths and weaknesses. The feedback loop binder can also involve a monitoring form that students use to measure their progress based on their self-identified strengths and weaknesses.

3- The *self-reflection* phase processes are intended to optimize learners' reaction to their outcomes after efforts have been placed in the learning process. This phase influences the forethought processes and beliefs about successive efforts which eventually completes a self-regulatory cycle (Zimmerman, 2013). Self-reflection involves two categories: *self-judgment* and *self-reaction* (Bandura, 1986). *Self-evaluation* is a key

form of self-judgment, involving the comparison that learners make between their current performance and their proposed standards (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). Four distinctive types of criteria are used when learners self-evaluate themselves: mastery performance, previous performance, normative (Bandura, 1986; Zimmerman, 2000; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009) and collaborative (Zimmerman, 2000). *Causal attribution* is another important form of self-judgment essential for understanding cycles of SRL. Causal attribution refers to learners' beliefs about the causes of failure as whether failure is attributed to their limited ability, insufficient efforts, or use of strategies (Zimmerman, 2000; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). Some recommended practices involve asking L2 students to write a record of achievement where they comment on their self-assessment of writing and future progress plan before teachers add their assessment, responding to students' commenting, and giving a grade (Harmer, 2007). Self-evaluation can also involve creating a comment categorization where students track their mistakes, study their teachers' comments on their writing, and then summarize this feedback from these resources in categorized columns of, for example, content organization, and form. Finally, they select a strategy relevant to overcoming weaknesses and enhancing strengths (Andrade & Evans, 2013).

The second category of self-reflection phase, self-reaction, involves two components: self-satisfaction and adaptive inferences. *Self-satisfaction*, "cognitive and affective reaction to one's self-judgment" (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 304), is very important because when learners feel satisfied with successful actions, they pursue the course of those actions, but avoid courses of actions that lead to dissatisfaction and negative effects (Bandura, 1986). Self-satisfaction, based on learners' adopted goals,



helps learners guide their actions and to self-motivate as a result of self-evaluation reactions to behavioral outcomes. *Adaptive inferences* assist learners to draw conclusions about the best alternatives for modifying their SRL approach during their efforts to learn or perform. Adaptive inferences are important as they provide learners with directions of new and better SRL forms. On the other hand, defensive inferences, which aim to protect learners from future dissatisfaction and aversive affect by avoiding further efforts to learn, undermine successful adaptation (Zimmerman, 2000). Learners resort to self-handicapping strategies such as helplessness, procrastination, task avoidance, cognitive disengagement, and apathy (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994).

### **2.2.3 SRL and L2 Writing**

In a SRL-based L2 learning context, L2 writers enhance their awareness of the expectations for writing, identifying the reason behind learning to write as their motivation increases. L2 writers spend more time and exert more efforts to write effectively. Having a clear purpose, conceptualization about an audience, real interests in writing topics, and engagement in authentic communication **helps** L2 learners invest in writing (Andrade & Evans, 2013). Learners' unique interests, styles, needs, and goals should be met in the design of instructional contexts (Savignon, 1991). Learners can feel secure and unthreatened in an encouraging learning environment with less teacher-authoritarian position (Taylor, 1983). Teachers in this regard are not the only managers of classroom performance; learners can take part as well (Allwright, 1984). Teachers have an essential role in initiating and sustaining students' motivation and appropriating students' beliefs about writing. Hence, the teacher is a motivator; a source of information, suggestions, and guidance; and a source of feedback (Harmer, 2004).

Teachers' role in L2 classrooms has been an issue of debate as to whether a teacher-centered or a learner-centered approach should be pursued (De la Sablonnière, Taylor & Sadykova, 2009). L2 teachers raise the question of which approach is appropriate to L2 production and development of communicative skills. This question has been centered on the exclusivity of approach use rather than on the inclusivity. Each approach supporters assume certain roles for the teacher and learners and assume various benefits and costs. For example, facilitation is seen as the best role to be assumed by the teacher through giving learners more room of choice, control, and influence over assessments in a learner-centered context (Perry, et al., 2002). Learners in such a learning environment have the opportunity to express their emotion and manipulate activities, inviting SRL by controlling their emotion and getting engaged in the learning context (Shanker, 2010). Understanding the learning process represents the basic element of informing teachers' practices, aiming to promote the students' motivation, learning, and achievement. There is more focus on individual learners' needs, interests, talents, backgrounds, capacities and experiences (McCombs & Whisler, 1997).

In teacher-centered instruction, teachers are displayed as transmitters of knowledge where teachers' work relies on their learners' abilities, skills and efforts. The emphasis is on the students' achievement as the forefront of the curriculum (McDonald, 2002). Teachers adopt explicit instruction to teach learners task specific strategies for the purpose of mastering higher levels of cognitive processes related to language skills and SRL strategies (Duffy & Roehler, 1982; Harris et al., 2011). Teachers' content knowledge is posited to assist learners to make connection in a situation, where minor efforts are expended to identify learners and their learning styles (Brown, 2003).

Accountability issues are essential standards that teachers strive to meet which could often be at the cost of the students' learning needs (McDonald, 2002). Reflecting on this deliberation, Crookes and Lehner (1998) posit a compromise of teacher-student negotiation where a dialogue requires participants to facilitate novel directions in the instructional context. Teachers are required to listen to their students and facilitate handling their learning challenges with the involvement of the class.

#### **2.2.4 Deliberation on SRL**

There was contention on whether all writing occasions require a high degree of self-regulation. Graham and Harris (1997) questioned the role of SRL in some writing occasions. They claimed that "writers' approach to compositions minimizes the role of self-regulation, not all writing occasions require a high degree of self-regulation or effort, and self-regulatory processes are not always evident in the composing of professional writers" (p. 104). Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997, p. 116) responded to Graham and Harris' (1997) contention, arguing that "evidence of impoverished writing quality due to low levels of self-regulation demonstrates the latter's importance rather than its marginality to success in writing"

Graham and Harris (1997) also contended that writers resort to low levels of self-regulation when they work on less cognitively demanding tasks. Such tasks are familiar to the writers or related to their personal life experiences in which these tasks can be done through the 'writing-as-remembering' technique (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987). Thus, little attention is directed at self-regulated process which leads to minimizing the role of planning, revising, and other self-regulation processes (Graham & Harris, 1997). However, Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997, p. 116) maintained that writers self-

evaluative standards for writing tasks can be affected by social environmental factors, such as requiring papers on familiar topics. These affected standards may eliminate the need for planning and recursive interplay. When writers operate within the self-regulated level to accomplish a task upon their goals, they do not diminish self-regulation, but they work according to the situational feedback or personal needs (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Panadero and Alonso-Tapia (2104) contended that the cyclical model of SRL did not explicitly state emotional processes in the forethought phase which Kuhl (1994, 2000) considered as crucial elements for students to regulate. Failing to regulate ones' emotions, thoughts, and behaviors make students doubt their abilities to accomplish tasks. Nevertheless, not adding emotion as a detailed element in the model might be due to the difficulty in precisely measuring the motivational effects of emotions. Unlike self-efficacy which gave precise predictions (Pajares & Valiante, 1997; Schunk, 1990), efforts to physiologically measure it rendered poor predictions of behaviors (Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2014).

Time management in the cyclical model of SRL was also under discussion as the model does not provide sufficient elements of time management strategies (Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2104). Research shows that time management comprises more complex strategies than the strategies proposed in the cyclical model of SRL which have crucial roles in the academic success and achievement (Van Der Meer, Jansen, & Torenbeek, 2010). The concern raised by Panadero and Alonso-Tapia (2104) is captured in Zimmerman's (1997) conceptual dimensions of academic self-regulation as self-regulated students make frequent and effective use of time. Creating awareness and training

students on time management techniques, such as creating weekly time management charts and monitoring their use of time management plan, is a key element of SRL (Zimmerman, 1997).

Teacher-directedness is another issue of deliberation. On the one hand, Martin (2004), maintains that the cyclical model of SRL features a structured and teacher-directed approach that relies on teaching students cognitive and behavioral SRL strategies and self-efficacy. This suggests that the teacher-model with direct guidance will encourage learners to acquire relevant skills through the guidance, feedback, and social reinforcement given by teachers. The cyclical model of SRL underlines the importance of SRL development as a substantial instructional goal and that SRL processes are explicitly taught to novice writers (Graham & Harris, 1997). On the other hand, the cyclical model of SRL exhibits self-regulation of writing as “self-initiated thoughts, feelings, and actions that writers use to attain various literary goals” (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 76). This view is in line with Pavlenko and Lantolf’s (2000) claims that one’s agency represents the base upon which ultimate attainment in second language learning relies. Agency is “crucial at the point where the individuals must not just start memorizing a dozen new words and expressions but have to decide on whether to initiate a long, painful, inexhaustive and, for some, never-ending process of self-translation” (Pavlenko & Lantolf’s, 2000, pp. 169-170).

### **Literature Review**

The literature review draws on theory and research, presenting relevant theoretical perspectives and research findings on writing. It makes connection between these

theoretical perspectives and relevant research findings by presenting empirical research studies that help to inform the study.

### **2.3 The Writing Process**

The writing process has been conceptualized as a dynamic, “conscious and self-directed activity, involving the intelligent use of a variety of mental operations and skills to satisfy the writer’s goals and meet the needs of the reader” (Lienemann, Graham & Reid, 2006, p. 458; Harris, et al, 2006). As a culturally powerful tool of communication, knowledge refining and extension, artistic, political, spiritual, and self-expression (Santangelo et al., 2007), writing is shaped by social action and interaction in and through contexts (Hyland, 2007). In addition, writing is a complex task whose “development depends in large part on changes that occur in [learners’] strategic behavior, knowledge, and motivation” (Graham, Harris & Mason, 2005). Developing writing competence and expertise might take place over a long period of time in which it utilizes several teaching and learning strategies and skills. By recognizing the significance and complexity of writing, researchers postulate that writing is a recursive, strategic, and multi-dimensional process (Harris, Graham, MacArthur, Reid & Mason, 2011).

The complexity of the writing process and developing its skills and ability has been found challenging for both first language (L1) writers (Hopman & Glynn, 1989; Santangelo et al., 2007) and L2 writers. This complexity occurs as a result of limited knowledge of writing, lack of an effective writing approach, lack of proactive planning, and deficiency in motivation (Dastjerdi & Samian, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Hammad, 2016; Kara, 2013; Mojica, 2010). While L1 writing pedagogy has influenced L2 writing theory and practice (Andrade & Evans, 2013), L2 writers face more

challenges that impede their writing quality. The lack of linguistic competence, writing strategy use, and emotional comfort are some of the common challenges that confront the L2 writers (Hammad, 2013, 2016).

Worldwide, there are various L1 writing approaches that have been introduced and applied to address writers' learning needs, to alleviate their challenges, and to develop potential skills: product approach, process approaches, and genre approaches. These approaches have major influences on L2 writing pedagogy and practice (Andrade & Evans, 2013). The following section discusses the major approaches to writing including: the product approach, the process approach, the genre approaches, and the SRL approach.

### **2.3.1 The Product Approach**

In the 1980s, a writing approach known as the "product approach" considered learning as assisted imitation as students work in response to a stimulus given by the teacher. The product approach operated from the behaviorist theory which viewed learning as a mechanical process and habit formation (VanPatten & Williams, 2007). This approach emphasizes the linguistic knowledge (vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices) and the imitation of input that teachers provide to learners. However, the approach was criticized for placing no emphasis on the processes of writing (Badger & White, 2000). Moreover, it did not contribute to developing learners' linguistic and personal potentials (Prodromou, 1995).

Research showed that employing the product approach in the classroom did not improve learners' proficiency or writing accuracy. Semke (1984) examined the impact of correcting learners' writing errors on their writing by using different methods of

correction: correcting all errors, combining comments and corrections, and coding errors for student. The study results showed no significant impact of these correction methods on the learners' language proficiency or writing accuracy. Moreover, the learners' provided negative feedback about these methods. In another study, (Lalande, 1982), the learners perceived an error coding method they received in the classroom to correct their writing errors as unattractive for them. Although the learners created a list of their errors which helped them to improve their mechanical precision, this approach did not account for learners' feeling about writing or about the impact of valuing content.

### **2.3.2 Process Approach**

In reaction to the product approach, the process approach places more importance on the linguistic skills of planning, drafting, and revision through which teachers assist the development of learners' writing skills. This approach also places great focus on the role of cognitive processes employed by the students to develop their writing competence (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1980; Flower & Hayes, 1984). Rohman (1965, p. 106) emphasized writing as a process of three stages in which continuous changes occur. "Different things happen at different stages in the process of putting thoughts into words and words onto paper". The writing process starts with pre-writing stage as a crucial element to successful writing, occurring later. Pre-writing stage functions as a discovery phase that facilitates planning. Composition stage requires writing a draft which is followed by the final stage of rewriting. Rewriting involve writers in editing and revising the written texts. The three stages of writing typically involve a sequence of steps including thinking, planning, writing, revising, editing, and



evaluating (Rohman, 1965). The choice of these steps can be determined in accordance with the level of learners and the purpose of writing (Seow, 2002).

Flower and Hayes (1980) contended that writing is not a linear or sequential process. Writers, instead, tend to write recursively in accordance with their planning. Writing is as a recursive process that occurs at any time during writing through three processes of planning, translation, and reviewing. Planning involves generating information, setting goals for the composition, and organizing retrieved information from memory. Translating involves converting plans and ideas into texts. Reviewing entails evaluating and revising translated text. Writing adheres to three resources related to: the writer's task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing process and revision. The writer's task environment includes rhetorical problems, writing assignments and tools and other external sources. The writer's long-term memory involves topic knowledge, the audience, plans, and rules of linguistic forms. Planning, translating, and reviewing are captured as cognitive processes but not stages in the writing process. These processes operate through a monitoring system that functions to allow interaction between the processes and the long-term memory. This helps to control the sequencing and enactment of these writing processes, including, but not limited to decisions on generated content, and needs for revision.

The development of ideas during writing relies on the strategic control over the retrieval of content to satisfy rhetorical goals (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). Novice writers approach and finish writing tasks differently. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) proposed that novice writers tend to produce texts by direct retrieval of knowledge from long-term memory. Their antecedent sentence stimulates the generation of the next one.

Novice writers do not make much use of a considerable amount of planning, revising, and other self-regulation, but they use minimal metacognitive control. However, expert writers deal with writing tasks by employing a knowledge-transforming strategy. Expert writers create a mental representation of a task, analyze, and set goals to enable them to better generate and to evaluate the writing content. Writing from Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) perspective involves a problem-solving process that promotes writers' reflective thoughts, elaborate plans, careful revision, and reader's attentiveness toward achieving their communicative goals. Two key strategy elements are important to improve student writing: rhetorical strategies and self-regulation. Rhetorical strategies are methods used by writers to develop the plot and sequence of a writing passage. Self-regulatory strategies involve taking control over writers' cognitive behavior.

Research established significant impacts of employing the process approach on improving learners' writing (Al-Shaer, 2014; De La Paz & Graham, 2002; Graham & Harris, 1989; Kellogg, 1988; MacArthur & Lembo, 2009; Olson & Land, 2007). In a longitudinal study by Olson and Land (2007), a writing instructional intervention involved teaching secondary English language learners an extensive set of cognitive strategies. The model used in the study consisted of eight major categories of strategies: planning and goal setting, tapping prior knowledge, asking questions and making prediction, constructing the gist, monitoring, revising meaning, reflecting and relating, and evaluating. The findings showed that the students who received the treatment not only improved their writing across time, but also outperformed those who did not receive the treatment after the intervention. The study emphasized the importance of providing learners with a variety of strategies through explicit teaching, modeling, and guided

practice to enable them to write about challenging texts. The students felt comfortable to be “exposed to a rigorous curriculum by trained teachers and were being held to high expectation” (p. 293). Moreover, the students’ perceived growth of competence helped them build their confidence, boost their motivation to succeed, and increase their academic self-efficacy. The students realized that their writing quality and skills during the intervention increased in comparison with previous achievements.

Kellogg (1988) examined the effectiveness of an outline strategy compared to a rough-drafting strategy. Using an outline strategy, the learners were asked to generate and organize their ideas for the writing task before they paid their attention to translation and revision. By using the rough-drafting strategy, the learners started to translate the text without monitoring its expressiveness to the draft revision after writing. The study findings showed that the learners who used the outline strategy did less planning during the text production as they completed the greatest part of planning prior to writing. In the rough draft condition, the learners reduced revision during the initial draft and postponed it. The findings also showed that using the outline strategy featured higher quality of final drafts.

The process approach encompasses employing SRL strategies. For example, Rohman’s (1965) perspective embedded a little amount of self-regulation when writers decompose writing into sub-processes that can be taught and can be self-regulated separately. SRL processes are also viewed as essential key elements of the writing process to understand the process in Flower and Hayes’s (1980) and Bereiter and Scardamalia’s (1987) models. This enables writers to promote a skill out of their own efforts. Writers use these processes to let them self-discover new linguistic forms which

eventually contribute to the development of their cognitive system. The distinct features of novice vs expert writers are made clear in these two models in terms of the amount and appropriate use of SRL strategies in writing. Contrary to novice writers, experts set writing goals, monitor their progress, and revise writing products (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1980; Flower & Hayes, 1984). On the other hand, writing from these perspectives focuses only on the role of cognitive processes employed by students to develop their writing competence.

Although the process approach significantly contributed to learners' writing and learning experiences, it was criticized by advocates of the genre approach for not incorporating external sociocultural factors in the writing process. These external sociocultural factors contextualize and situate writing as a social practice by identifying the purpose of writing, audience, social setting and others (Hyland, 2007). The process approach does not acknowledge the "social authority of powerful text forms" (Hyland, 2007, p. 151). It places more emphasis on skills, including planning, drafting, and reviewing than on linguistic knowledge of grammar and text structure (Badger & White, 2000). Writers are left to discover the complexities of language mechanism and recurring text structures by themselves through experimentation and exploration. This would leave them thrown back on their culture specific discourse conventions (Christie, 1999). These conventions remain opaque for writers without teachers' efforts to draw their students' conscious awareness to language forms and patterns of use (Paltridge, 2007). The genre approach of writing was an attempt to fill a gap in "response to the still widespread emphasis on a planning-writing-reviewing framework which focuses learners on

strategies for writing rather than on the linguistic resources they need to express themselves effectively” (Hyland, 2004, p. 150).

### **2.3.3 Genre Approach**

The genre approach emphasizes the knowledge of language and the ties between writing and social purposes. Writing, in the genre approach, is developed by the analysis and imitation of input. Proponents of the genre approach view writing as predominantly linguistic with an emphasis on the social contexts variation where writing is produced (Badger & White, 2000). Writing is regarded as a social activity driven by the need to write as oriented by explicit outcomes and expectations (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). Writing in different contexts considers the purpose, subject matter, relationship between the writer and audience, and patterns of organization. The genre approach is different from the cognitive approach which endorse the same process of writing regardless of content and audience (Badger & White, 2000).

Genre-based instruction is culture-specific in which students’ individual differences require that teachers incorporate into their instruction diverse ways of using language in certain cultures. At the early learning stage, teachers strive to develop students’ awareness of writing genres by providing explicit explanation of the contextual dimension. Such awareness assists the students to interconnect the distinctive use of the language to diverse genres (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). Genre instruction offers teachers the opportunity to provide learners with explicit and systematic explanations of utilizing writing for communication. It also enables students to “exploit the expressive potential of society’s discourse structures, pull together language, content, and contexts” (Hyland, 2004, p. 150).

Dudley-Evans (1997) identified three stages of writing: introducing and analyzing a genre model (letter), manipulating relevant language forms through exercise, and producing short texts. Callaghan and Rothery (1998) suggested a teaching and learning cycle that consists of three phases to provide student with explicit and organizational structures for several writing purposes. In a modelling phase, teachers seek to develop students' conscious awareness of the recursive features of linguistic patterns through direct instruction. This serves to help students understand and reproduce the target conventional patterns of the texts. In the other two phases: joint negotiation and independent phases, the teacher minimizes intervention to increase the students' roles and to boost their autonomy to make their own meaning by determining their choice of the texts.

Employing the genre approach in the classroom rendered positive impacts on learners' writing (Bae, 2012; Henry & Roseberry, 1998). Henry and Roseberry (1998) investigated the impact of genre approach on the students' writing. They used short tourist information texts in two academic classes as the participants were divided into a group that received genre-based instructions and a group without treatment. Three weeks later, the participants in the two groups were asked to do a writing task. The study findings showed that the genre group significantly outperformed the non-genre group. By using the knowledge of the typical structure of the content, the learners in the genre group found it easier and more effective to arrange their ideas that enabled them to achieve their communicative goals and to produce more well-organized writing. Learners' awareness of the rhetorical structure and the linguistic features were more assisted and increased by genre instructions

To examine the effectiveness of genre-based instruction on Korean L2 students' writing ability and their perception change toward L2 writing, Bae (2012) administered five sessions of writing instruction for 595 students over five weeks. The students were divided into two groups in which the experimental group received writing instruction using a diary genre. They were also provided with 13 writing samples to analyze, identify their characters, and construct diary texts with peers. The control group received no explicit writing instruction. All students were asked to write diary entries that were rated upon content, organization, and language use. The findings showed that the students in the experimental group significantly improved their performance in each category. Analyzing data obtained from questionnaires and interview indicated that the genre instruction positively influenced the students' attitudes and perceptions toward L2 writing.

Despite the well-established impact of genre approach on students' writing and perceptions, the genre approach was criticized for undervaluing the significance of skills and processes which writers use to produce writing. The genre approach captures few processes of modelling and task analysis and SRL levels of emulation, self-control, and self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2000). However, they do not account for how students undertake roles of building agentic and proactive character in the writing process. This implies a passive role of the writer in an imitative process that requires consciously applying rules by students under the mandate of the teacher (Badger & White, 2000). Accordingly, students' self-expression and creativity are inhibited through the conformity and prescriptivism endorsed by genre instruction (Dixon, 1987).

### **2.3.4 SRL Approach to Writing**

The SRL approach presumes an integrative approach to writing with the avoidance of exclusive application of one single writing approach. The SRL approach incorporates complementary elements that each single writing approach contributes to improve writing performance and knowledge (Harris et al., 2011; Oxford, 2017). It acknowledges “the interdependencies among textual products, cognitive processes, and sociocultural dimensions of writing” (Kern, 2000, p. 187).

The SRL approach recognizes the contributions of the cognitive approach that has established positive progresses through goal-setting and decision-making processes. These processes enhance students’ thinking. They provide students with heuristics needed to generate ideas and plan strategies (Graham, et al., 2005), to construct writing pieces (Yeh, 1998), to monitor their progress (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987), and to review writing products (Flower & Hayes, 1984). The SRL approach conceives of writers as proactive self-regulators who engage in goal setting, self-instruction, self-reinforcement, and self-monitoring. Enacting these processes plays an essential role in developing writers’ competence (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). To attain goals set, self-regulated learners operate in advance by generating and implementing strategic plans (Zimmerman, 2000).

The SRL approach also acknowledges the sociocultural influences that the genre approach endorses, viewing writing as a social activity in which writers engage in “goal-oriented social processes” (Martin, 1993, p. 142). In this context, writers are engaged in developing their awareness of writing organizational patterns, and handling real world writing that improves their attitudes and desires to learn the language (Swami, 2008).



Students are involved in deconstructing authentic texts (Rothery, 1996) and identifying recursive features of linguistic patterns of genres (Callaghan & Rothery 1988).

The writing classroom, from the social cognitive perspective, stresses the significance of explicit description and teaching of cognitive processes with emphasis on genre conventional practices. Teachers can facilitate their students' writing performance by modelling thinking related to attitudinal posturing and mental construction of the social context. Such facilitation should illustrate the roles of the writer and the reader and the value of the reader's discourse community. The cognitive strategies that are expected to be used by the writers to realize the literate practices are modelled too (Flower, 1994). Research revealed encouraging results for social cognitive intervention in writing in which the incorporation of cognitive strategies and genre practices helped students to produce better writing texts. The teacher explicitly taught the students the defining genre features of texts as the students engaged in identifying beliefs, statement, and supporting reasons. Students were taught mental strategies of generating ideas and helped with setting goals and self-monitoring (Graham et al., 2005).

#### **2.4 Empirical Research on SRL of Writing**

As SRL gained widespread interest in various educational settings backed with numerous research studies, it became obvious that the use of SRL strategies is essential to promote learners' academic success with relevant orientation towards attaining personal goals (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). Although the literature is dense with studies that explored potential impacts of SRL strategies on various domains (mathematics science, sports, music...etc.), the following discussion will be focused on writing as the target of this study. This part is divided into two sections where the first section will elaborate on

studies that examined writing in general without specifying L1 or L2 writing context. The second section will draw on studies conducted in L2 writing context.

#### **2.4.1 SRL Research on Writing**

Schunk and Swartz (1993a) sought to examine the impact of SRL strategy instruction of goals setting, progress feedback, self-evaluations strategy use and self-efficacy on elementary school students' paragraph writing. Randomly sampled into four experimental product goal, process goal, process plus progress feedback, or general goal groups, the students were pre-tested and post-tested to compare their performance before and after the intervention. The results showed that the process goal with feedback group outperformed the other groups on achievement and self-efficacy with six-week maintenance and generalization across descriptive, informative, narrative, and narrative descriptive paragraphs. Page-Voth and Graham (1999) examined the effects of goal setting on the essays of elementary students with writing and learning disabilities. The goal setting group was intended to increase the number of arguments, counterarguments or both in comparison with no goals group. The goal setting group produced longer, more supporting reasons, and qualitatively better essays than did the no goals group. It was also found that strategy use enhanced goal-response performance, but goal setting did not influence students' writing self-efficacy.

The self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) model introduced by Graham and Harris (2005) and Harris and Graham (1996) set the scene for several studies that investigated impacts of SRL on struggling writers' development of writing processes (planning, editing, and revising), knowledge and self-regulatory processes (goal setting, self-monitoring, self-instruction, and self-reinforcement), and motivation. This model

utilizes six stages of instruction: develop and activate background knowledge, discuss it, modeling, memorize it, support it, and independent performance (Harris et al., 2011). It also has five characteristics: explicit teaching of SRL strategies procedures, interactive learning, individualized instruction, criterion-based instruction, and ongoing process (Graham, Harris & Troia, 1988).

The model proved to improve learners' genre elements, quality of writing, knowledge of writing, approach to writing and self-efficacy (De La Paz & Graham, 2002; Graham & Harris, 1989, 2000; Harris et al., 2006; Reid & Lienemann, 2006). For example, Harris et al. (2006) examined how to promote writing, knowledge, and motivation of second-grade struggling writers by employing a SRL strategy instructional model which focused on planning and writing stories and persuasive essays. To facilitate maintenance and generalization effects of the model, the researchers incorporated a peer support component into the model to be tested. The findings showed that the learners displayed stronger performance and knowledge of instructed genres story and persuasive writing as well as uninstructed genres of narrative and informative writing which were positively affected by the instructional model. Learners' performance was also enhanced by the peer support through which SRL instruction was amplified.

In their study, MacArthur and Philippakos (2013) used self-regulated strategy instruction to develop and evaluate curriculum for developmental writing classes in community colleges. Strategies for planning, drafting, and revising compositions along with text organizational knowledge were taught to college students to guide their planning and self-evaluation. Writing achievement and motivation enhancement were reported as substantial gains resulted from the SRL instructional intervention. Other

research work emphasized positive and influential roles of SRL strategies in improving writing quality, SRL strategies, motivation and self-efficacy, and metacognition awareness (Graham, 2006; Graham & Harris, 2003; Graham & Perrin, 2006).

#### **2.4.2 Research on L2 Writing**

In an attempt to foster self-regulation in L2 writing through a systematic integration of self-regulatory mechanisms into a course framework, Ruan (2005) explored and reported on students' metacognitive writing knowledge and self-regulatory strategies in a process-oriented self-regulated writing program. The program aimed to develop students' autonomy and to help them to create positive attitudes towards writing and towards themselves as writers. The program required the students to write five self-regulated writing tasks and encouraged them to identify topics, plan, draft, exchange peer feedback, and self-revise. Using a qualitative research data collection method, the researcher asked fifty-one Chinese L2 undergraduate students to write weekly learning journals and to keep them during their participation in the writing program, ending with a range of four to sixteen entries. The data were content analyzed by coding themes and then identifying recurring themes, composing three taxonomies of metacognitive knowledge: person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategic knowledge.

The findings of the study suggested that, at the person knowledge level, the students' participation in the process-oriented self-regulatory writing program assisted them to reconstruct their L2 metacognitive knowledge. Giving the students choices and control over writing topics, procedures, and interests increased their class involvement and motivation. The program also helped the students to build self-efficacy toward writing. At the task knowledge level, the students were able to increase their writing

knowledge and self-regulatory processes related to essay writing scores. They could conceptualize writing as a process of regulating their cognitive resources to identify and solve a problem by getting a sense of the audience and purpose, thesis statement and supporting details, and logical organization. Acquiring strategic knowledge assisted the students to perceive self-revision as a significant aspect of self-regulation where they can self-evaluate and self-revise their tasks performance. It also helped them to understand themselves as active cognitive agents who have causal roles in their cognitive activities.

Jiangkui and Yuanxing (2011) sought to test a self-regulated model, consisting of motivational beliefs, motivational self-regulation, strategy use and performance in EFL writing. Using self-efficacy for EFL writing scale, a goal orientation scale, a motivational awareness scale, and a motivational regulatory strategy scale, the study revealed that the self-regulated model was validated and supported using path analysis. In the study, students' motivational beliefs that contain self-efficacy, mastery-outcome goals affected their motivational regulation. Moreover, motivational awareness and the use of motivational regulatory strategies had influence on their use of cognitive writing strategies. Finally, students' cognitive writing strategy use and mastery-outcome goals directly influenced their writing strategy scale.

Aiming to enhance intermediate students' L2 writing skills, Ahmadi, Ketabi, and Rabiee (2012) utilized explicit meta-cognitive learning strategies instruction to investigate its effects on students' writing skills and performance. They identified 24 learners in an English language institution as intermediate achievers upon completing an Oxford Placement test and placed them into an experimental group and a control group. The students in the experimental group were explicitly instructed on the use of meta-

cognitive language learning strategies, but the control group did not receive any special treatment. The students' writing entry level was measured by asking both groups to write a pre-test writing essay. The intervention involved providing the experimental group with explicit instruction that lasted for a whole term on meta-cognitive strategies, composed of five stages: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. After the intervention, the students' writing scores were assessed by a post-test of a 100 word informative essay. The writing scores of both groups were compared before and after the intervention and between groups. The results of the study showed a positive relationship between meta-cognitive strategy use and EFL writing achievement. Explicit instruction was found effective to those intermediate language learners when they used the meta-cognitive strategies consciously. The students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group after receiving the metacognitive strategies instruction with regard to writing scores.

Jalaluddin, Yamat and Yunus (2013) explored the effects of self-efficacy on the development of learners' writing skills and writing self-efficacy. Data were collected through multiple essay-writing, observation, questionnaire, and interview to assess the learners' writing proficiency based on the Malaysian Examination Syndicate of the Education Ministry and school-based assessment. Levels of writing self-efficacy were intended to be assessed using a self-efficacy scale. The study showed that the participants responded positively to their teacher's feedback, and made several types of changes to their essays. The findings also revealed that learners' self-efficacy was affected and increased by their teacher's assistance. However, learners' self-efficacy decreased when they failed to do a task, attributing failure to ability.

Mohseniasl (2014) conducted a study to explore the impact of explicit writing strategy instruction and prewriting strategies on writing apprehension and promoting writing performance. She compared the writing apprehension and performance of Iranian L2 undergraduate students in two experimental groups who received the explicit writing strategy instruction intervention with those in a control group. The intervention involved explicitly teaching students prewriting strategies such as brainstorming, concept mapping and free writing. The *Writing Apprehension Test* was used to measure students writing apprehension before and after the intervention. The TOEFL proficiency test was administered to assign the students proficiency entry level which indicated no significant difference among the three groups. The students were asked to write one expository essay before the intervention and one after it in a forty minute-timeline. To ensure reliability, students' writing was rated by two raters upon five aspects of writing: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. The results of the study indicated that providing students with explicit writing strategy instruction was effective in alleviating the level of writing apprehension in the two experimental groups. The intervention also optimized students' writing achievement as they outperformed those in the control group. Explicit writing strategy instruction could mobilize students' thinking and help them understand the indispensable cognitive and affective processes of writing.

Mansoor and Seifodin (2015) utilized the *Self-Regulated Strategy Development* (SRSD) model of writing developed by Graham and Harris (2005) and Harris and Graham (1996) to investigate its effects on L2 students writing scores and writing motivation. The model emphasizes explicit instruction to develop writing skills and combines powerful writing strategies with strategies for self-regulation. It consists of six

stages of instruction to be taught and discussed by teachers and students: develop and activate background knowledge, discuss it, modeling, memorize it, support it, and independent performance. The study recruited sixty Iranian EFL intermediate students who were divided into two groups and pre-tested upon their English proficiency. An independent test revealed no significant differences between their writing scores. An experimental group received **POW + TREE** self-regulatory strategies based on the six-phase instruction. POW is an acronym for *Pick an idea, Organize my notes, and Write and say*. TREE is an acronym for *Topic, Reasons and Counter Reasons, Explanations, and Ending*. A control group received regular instruction. The students were given prompts to write two essays for pre-test and post-test. The inter-rater reliability of rating the essays were approved as of 0.88 between two raters. A motivation questionnaire was used to measure students' motivation before and after the intervention.

The results of the study revealed that the students in the experimental group who received the self-regulatory strategies instruction improved their persuasive writing and outperformed those in the control group. Students' motivation towards the foreign language writing in the experimental group, compared with the control group, increased and turned out to be fostered as a corollary of SRSD intervention. Moreover, the study pointed out that while most of the previous studies on the SRSD model proved positive effects on writing produced by young learners or learners with disabilities, it "broadens the scope of such research line to teach writing to foreign language learners [as it] supports and highlight the efficacy of SRSD instructional program to teach writing to pre-intermediate EFL learners" (p. 39).



## 2.5 Summary of Chapter Two

Chapter Two presents the theoretical framework in the first part and the literature review in the second part. In the first part, a brief discussion about the different theoretical theories of SRL was provided which aimed to look into the primary focus of each perspective. The social cognitive theory as the main theory underpinning this study was discussed in more details. The social cognitive theory emphasizes the reciprocal interplay among personal, behavioral, and environmental factors that lead to human functioning and development of SRL. SRL development depends on various pillars of triadic reciprocity, self-efficacy beliefs, modeling and vicarious learning, sub-processes, and domain-specific learning. Agency and learning autonomy are key elements of individuals' learning in which self-regulated learners practice control over their thoughts, actions, and behaviors. The cyclical model of SRL was also discussed as the underlying model that informed the application of the SRL instructional intervention. The cyclical model of SRL entails that learners go through four developmental levels to develop SRL. There are three phases of forethought, performance, and self-reflection that incorporate causal relations among SRL processes, key motivational beliefs, and learning outcomes.

In the second part, a review of the literature related theoretical propositions and pedagogical practical was presented. The literature review provided related discussion of past and current writing approaches (product, process, genre, and SRL) that influenced L2 writing. Findings of relevant research that connects SRL theory with practice was discussed through research studies that were conducted.

## Chapter Three: Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the methodological framework, based on the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, and the research questions. Moreover, a rationale of using the convergent mixed methods design to carry out this study is provided in this chapter. Detailed description and explanation are also provided on the research design, participants, the instruments, and the data collection and analysis procedures. The discussion comprises two strands of the mixed methods research: quantitative and qualitative. Using a quasi-experimental research design, the first strand involved the employment of an instructional intervention based on the cyclical model of SRL inspired by the social cognitive theory. The second strand involved interviewing eight L2 undergraduate students and two participant teachers. The study also required the students to write diary studies to obtain more information and insights about their learning experiences. Moreover, the study involved observing the students and the participant teachers in the classrooms as well.

As stated earlier, this convergent mixed methods research study aimed to find out how the SRL instructional intervention impacted L2 learners' writing and strategy use in an L2 writing course. To best serve the purpose of the study, the research questions were stated independently in this convergent mixed methods study as recommended by Creswell and Clark (2011). The first question was addressed quantitatively while the second and third questions were addressed qualitatively:

RQ1. Did the IELTS writing score differ significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention?

RQ2. How did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students' development of SRL strategies and writing?

The mixed methods research approach informed by the *pragmatist* worldview constitutes a good fit to my study due to its relevance to appropriately address the research problem, purpose, and research questions (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The mixed methods research combines a structural framework that gives accurate measures of L2 written products and provides techniques of getting into the depth of the personal experience of the learners to better give significant contextual interpretation (Dörnyei, 2007). Both objectivity and subjectivity are valued and the quantitative and qualitative methods are incorporated in the pragmatist worldviews of research (Creswell & Clark, 2011). This approach provides researchers with insights that generate “important understandings and discernments through the juxtaposition of different lenses, perspectives, and stances’ (Greene, 2005, p. 208).

Drawing a connection between mixed methods research and pragmatism is relevant to my study and conducive to meaningful research outcomes. First, the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches can be made in one study. Thus, speaking to this point, my study incorporated both approaches to make use of their strengths. Second, the primary significance of the study is given to the research questions that give rise to the philosophical worldviews and methods (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a). Accordingly, I started to form the structure and the course of the study based on

the problem of the study and challenges that the Palestinian students face in writing (Abou Shaban, 2003; Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010; Hammad, 2014; Mourtaga, 2010), guiding and guided by the research questions. Although it is not intended to create dichotomy, in the quantitative strand, an objective distance between me and the participants was maintained when collecting and analyzing data. Nonetheless, in the qualitative strand, I adopted a professional close relationship with the participants who are loaded with socially and culturally constructed values of learning (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

### **3.2 Research Design**

The study is underpinned by the convergent mixed methods research design that seeks to “obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse, 1991, p. 122). This design enables researchers to combine strengths of the quantitative and qualitative approaches and to avoid weaknesses resulting from sampling and details (Patton, 1990). I used “concurrent timing to implement the quantitative and qualitative strands... prioritize[d] the methods equally, and [kept] the strands independent during analysis and then mixe[d] the results during the overall interpretation” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 70, 71). Informed by the guidelines of a convergent mixed methods research design, I was involved in the following: (a) I collected both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently but separately. The design accounted for equal importance for each strand and without dependence of a data set on the other. (b) I analyzed the two data sets separately and independently using typical quantitative and qualitative procedures. (c) I interpreted how the two data sets converged which helped me to make meaning out of their outcomes to better accomplish the purpose of the study (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

The relevance of this design rests on its capability to improve the usefulness of my research data and to produce a full picture when information from complementary data sets or sources are combined. It helps to avoid biases resulting from the use of a single method by compensating certain strengths and weaknesses associated with specific methods (Denscombe, 2008).

### **3.3 Quantitative Strand**

The quasi-experimental design of quantitative research was used to answer the first research question. It served to determine whether the IELTS writing scores differed significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention? Having used the quasi-experimental design since the 18<sup>th</sup> century, researchers accomplished several tasks in which they have evaluated the effectiveness of instructional interventions implemented by educators (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002). In the quantitative part, there are two variables. (a) The dependent variable is the outcome and value that constitutes part of my study results (Miller, 1998). The dependent variable is the writing scores of the L2 undergraduate students assessed upon the IELTS four writing criteria for task 2, including: task response, coherence and cohesion, lexical coherence, and grammatical range accuracy (British Council, 2015) at 2 time intervals (pre- and post-test). The independent variable is the instructional intervention with two levels: SRL instructional intervention and regular instruction. The independent variable relates to the variation in the dependent variable of students' writing scores (Miller, 1998).

### 3.3.1 Participants and Sampling

The participants in the study were female L2 English learners who were born in one of the cities in the Gaza Strip, Palestine. All of them shared the same racial, ethnic, religious, and educational backgrounds and came from the same geographical area. They spoke Arabic as their first language at home and outside home boundaries. Arabic is the only official language of the Palestinian National Authority where the participants lived. The participants were considered L2 learners as they studied English as a foreign language. English is not commonly used in everyday-life situations or in public offices except in some non-governmental organizations funded internationally.

The participants started to study English voluntarily in kindergarten. However, English was an obligatory subject in the public school. All students had to study English as a foreign language, starting from Grade 1 through Grade 12 as mandated by the Ministry of Education. So, they studied English in the public school for nearly twelve years. In the first four primary grades, Grade 1 through Grade 4, students had to take three 45-minute English classes a week. In Grade 5 through 12, they had to take six 45-minute English classes a week.

After the participants had completed high school at the age of eighteen, they joined the Department of English Language & Literature at a Palestinian university. All of them were second-year undergraduate students. Although the students studied some English-content courses such as literary courses (short stories, drama, novel, and poetry) and linguistics courses (syntax, phonetics, semantics, and morphology), they still study English as a foreign language. They studied grammar and communicative language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) as a foreign language. At the time of the study,

they were registered in one of the two writing courses, Writing (II) ENGL 2325. They had to finish that course as part of fulfilling the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts - English Language & Literature.

145 sophomore female undergraduate students enrolled in two Writing (II) ENGL 2325 classes participated in this study. The two classes were randomly assigned as one experimental group that consists of 73 students and one control group that consists of 72 students. All of the 145 students consented to participate in the study. However, the participants who completed the study by writing the pre-test and post-test IELTS writing tasks were only 66. There were 32 in the experimental group and 34 in the control group. The average age of the students is 19.77, ranging from 19 to 32. (see Table 3.1). Descriptively, the mean of the students age in the experimental group was 19.78 ( $SD = .79$ ). The mean of the students' age in the control group was 19.76 ( $SD = 2.29$ ). By running an independent samples  $t$ -test, I determined that there was no significant difference in students age between the experimental and control groups ( $p = .969 > .05$ ,  $t = .039$ ,  $df = 64$ ).

Table 3.1

*Age and Distribution of Participants*

	<i>n</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Experimental Group	32	19.00	22.00	19.78	.79
Control Group	34	19.00	32.00	19.76	2.29
Total	66			19.77	

The students writing proficiency level was determined by sitting to a pre-test IELTS writing task - 2 test in which they obtained a mean score of 59.75 equivalent to

5.5 at the ELTS band scores. There was no significant difference in the pre-test IELTS writing scores between the two groups (see section 3.3.2.1 pre-test and post-test IELTS writing - task 2).

Convenience sampling was used as the best to serve the purposes of this study due to the practicality and availability of a relatively large group of learners. Moreover, the convenience sampling is the most common sample types that L2 researchers use in research where they select the target population for the purpose of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). Using the quasi-experimental design, the two classes were randomly assigned to an experimental and a control group. While the experimental group received a SRL instructional intervention, the control group proceeded with no special intervention (see section, 3.3.2.3 classroom instruction).

To avoid having non-equivalent groups, Kerlinger (1970) suggests using samples from the same population. I recruited the two groups from the same university where they were enrolled in the Department of English and from similar study level which contributed to make the two groups possibly alike. Almost all the students shared the same racial, religious, and ethnical backgrounds and came from the same geographical area. To avoid selection bias that might affect the groups to which participants were assigned (Slavin, 2007), all the students in the two groups wrote a pre-test essay to be taken as a baseline for their writing scores. The next section (3.3.2.1 pre-test and post-test IELTS writing - task 2) provided statistical data in which there was no significant difference in the writing proficiency levels between the two groups.

The procedures for sampling and recruiting the students involved sending a request letter to the Office of Academic Affairs at the target university. I sought to get an



approval of conducting the study on the target sample of this study in that university after I obtained ethical approval from the Research Ethics Board at the University of Western Ontario (see Appendix A). The letter described and explained the rationale, purpose, procedures, inclusion/exclusion criteria, publication related issues, compensation, voluntary nature of participation, confidentiality of data, consenting procedures, possible risk (if any), and possible benefits of the study. After getting an approval from the Office of Academic Affairs, another request letter was sent to the head of the Department of English Language & Literature to inform him about the decision made by the Office of Academic Affairs. The letter involved inviting him to facilitate recruiting the students and ease conducting the study in his department. The head of Department of English Language & Literature approved conducting the study.

Informing the students about the study and inviting them to participate was done through the following procedures: I asked the head of the Department of English Language & Literature to send an email to the students at the time of registration, informing the students about the study, the availability of the control and experimental groups classes, and the voluntary nature of participation. The students were also advised that if they would not be willing to participate in the experiment, they had the option to enroll in the control group that had the regular instruction. In the first class, an oral announcement had been made in the classroom before the students were provided with the letter of information and consent that informed them about the purpose and nature of the study. They, then, signed the consent to participate in the study (see Appendices B & C). The students were also advised that they could withdraw and move to the control

group at any time during the study without incurring consequences if they no longer felt interested in continuing to participate.

Two teachers, who gave the writing courses at the Department of English Language & Literature, also participated in the study (see Appendix D). The teacher of the experimental group was given the pseudonym, Sam, while the teacher of the control group was given the pseudonym, Adam. Sam was a Palestinian ESL instructor working at a local university at the Department of English Language & Literature. He had a Master of Education degree from a local university. Sam had taught English as a second language for more than eleven years at the same university, in addition to seven year-experience at a public school. Adam was a Palestinian ESL instructor working at the same department at the same local university. He had Master and Doctoral degrees in Education at universities in the U.S.A.. Adam had taught English as a second language for more than 24 years at the university of my study.

### **3.3.2 Data Collection, Analysis, and Instrument**

#### **3.3.2.1 Pre-Test and Post-Test IELTS Writing - Task 2**

The quasi-experimental design of quantitative research informed the data collection process in the quantitative strand. It involved administering a writing pre-test and post-test for the students in the experimental and control groups. Each student in the two groups wrote one IELTS essay - task 2 as a pre-test at the beginning of the writing semester and one essay as a post-test at the end of the writing semester. Results obtained from the pre-test IELTS writing task 2 served two purposes. First, the pre-test was used to assign a writing score baseline. Second, running an independent-samples *t*-test, determined that there was no statistically significant difference in the writing scores of

the students between the two groups before the intervention at the beginning of the course to avoid bias (see Table 3.2).

Descriptively, the mean of the pre-test writing scores of the students in the experimental group was 58.93 ( $SD = 9.66$ ). The mean of writing score of the students in the control group was 60.58 ( $SD = 9.92$ ). Running the independent samples  $t$ -test, I found no significant difference in the writing scores between the students in the experimental and control groups ( $p = .496, > .05, t = -.68, df = 64$ ). This means that the experimental and control groups were equivalent in their L2 writing proficiency.

Table 3.2

*Descriptive Statistics: Means, Standard Deviations, Change Score*

Group	Pre-test			Post-test		Gain score	
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Expr. group	32	58.93	9.66	71.81	7.15	12.87	9.20
Control group	34	60.58	9.92	68.26	6.24	7.67	10.81

#### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Scores	Equal variances assumed	1.159	.286	-.684	64	.496	-1.65	2.41	-6.47	3.16
	Equal variances not assumed			-.685	63.921	.496	-1.65	2.41	-6.46	3.16

The post-test served two purposes. First, it served to calculate the gain score by computing the difference between the pretest and posttest writing scores for each person across the two groups. Gain score answers the question of whether “the two groups differ in terms of their mean change over time” (Fitzmaurice, Laird & Ware, 2004, p. 124). Gain score was used for its useful, reliable, and unbiased estimate of true change (Chiou & Spreng, 1996; Rogosa & Willett, 1983; Zimmerman & Williams, 1998). Second, the post-test helped to administer an independent-samples *t*-test, using the gain writing scores of the experimental and control groups. Running the independent-samples *t*-test served to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the writing scores between the students in the experimental and the control group after the instructional intervention (see Chapter Four, section 4.1.2, independent samples *t*-test). The gain scores were computed so that each participant's change in scores from pre-test to post-test could be compared between the experimental and control groups (see table 3.2).

Two experienced IELTS raters marked the students’ pre-test and post-test written essays to ensure inter-rater reliability (Weigle, 2002). To ensure adequate performance results needed to conduct accurate statistical measures, I asked the raters to convert the IELTS-based band score of 9 into a 100-based score. Tables 3.3 and 3.4 show the results of Pearson’s correlation coefficient which was used to measure the inter-rater reliability between Rater 1 and Rater 2.

There was a fairly strong and positive correlation between the mark results of Rater 1 and Rater 2,  $r = .84$ ,  $n = 66$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . at the pre-test. This indicates that the results of the marks of Rater 1 and Rater 2 share 70.8 percent of their variation in common (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3

*Pre-Test Inter-Rater Reliability Between Raters Measured by Pearson's  $r$*

		Rater 1	Rater 1
Rater 1	Pearson correlation	1	.842**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	$n$	66	66
Rater 2	Pearson correlation	.842**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	$n$	66	66

There was a fairly strong and positive correlation between the marks results of Rater 1 and Rater 2,  $r = .86$ ,  $n = 66$ ,  $p < 0.05$  at the post-test. This indicates that the marks results of Rater 1 and Rater 2 share 74.6 percent of their variation in common (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4

*Post-Test Inter-Rater Reliability Between Raters Measured by Pearson's  $r$*

		Rater 1	Rater 1
Rater 1	Pearson correlation	1	.864**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	$n$	66	66
Rater 2	Pearson correlation	.864**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	$n$	66	66

### 3.3.2.2 IELTS Writing Task 2 Test

The IELTS writing task 2 test was used to determine the extent to which the SRL instructional intervention influenced the writing scores of the students in the quantitative strand. The IELTS writing task 2 required the students to “give an opinion on a subject or propose a solution to a problem” (Lougheed, 2008, p. 66). They were required to write

not less than 250 words in 40 minutes (see appendices E for pre-test & F for post-test writing task 2). The students' writing was assessed based on the IELTS four writing criteria for task 2: task response, coherence and cohesion, lexical coherence, and grammatical range accuracy (see appendix G for the IELTS Task 2 writing assessment criteria).

I chose to use the IELTS writing task 2 for the following reasons: First, IELTS has been accepted worldwide as a reliable means of assessment of L2 English proficiency (Charge & Taylor, 1997). Second, research revealed that there is a significant and positive relationship between L2 students' IELTS measured scores and their performance measured by university GPA (Feast, 2002; Yen & Kuzma, 2009). Third, IELTS proficiency test is highly demanded by the Palestinian students to get a scholarship, to study, and to work around the world. This demand would likely motivate the students to genuinely do the writing tasks as part of their learning and current or future preparation to the test.

The writing task 2 has been chosen over task 1 because writing task 2 is more complicated and challenging for writers than writing task 1. Writing task 2 requires the students to make arguments and support their opinions rather than just describe something as in task 1. In task 2, the students should take a stance and support it which requires them to be aware of topic knowledge (Crowhurst, 1990) and to select appropriate meanings to fulfil the stance support moves. These processes are crucial to students' success in writing essays which represents a challenging task for L2 writers (Schleppegrell, 2004). Selecting task 2 serves the purpose of this study in the sense that

self-regulation is crucial when the students perform challenging tasks which are difficult and complex enough to self-regulate (Greene & Azevedo, 2009; Perry & Winne, 2006).

### **3.3.2.3 Classroom Instructional Material**

The study involved carrying out a classroom SRL instructional intervention during a four-month semester based on the cyclical model of SRL (Zimmerman, 1989, 2000; Zimmerman, 2011; Zimmerman, 2013). Providing students with explicit instruction on SRL strategies is a key element of the SRL cyclical model that seeks to enhance the students' use of SRL strategies and academic achievement (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). The SRL instructional intervention endorsed the importance of SRL development as a significant instructional goal by teaching SRL processes explicitly to novice writers (Graham & Harris, 1997).

In the study, Sam, the instructor of the experimental group, employed explicit instruction to teach the students task specific strategies to master higher levels of cognitive, motivational, and behavioral processes related to writing skills and SRL strategies. When writers are explicitly and systematically taught strategies for a specific task, their achievement develops significantly (Harris et al., 2011). The teacher was explicit about the content, significance, and expectations of instruction. Reciprocal interaction between the teacher and students was expected to help enhance the students' skills and competence in this assisted developmental environment (Hyland, 2007).

Sam explicitly taught SRL, its key processes, and the three phases of forethought, performance, and self-reflection during the third, fourth, and fifth classes that took 50 minutes each. After that, Sam placed more focus on each phase, engaging the students in

active classroom activities. Each phase required six 50-minute classes. Thus, there were 21 SRL-based lessons in total given in the experimental group classroom.

I provided professional development for Sam to enable him to teach the experimental class using SRL instruction. Adam, the instructor of the control group, was advised to give regular instruction without changes (see Chapter Four). The professional development took place throughout three 50-minute sessions. Before we met in the first session, I had provided Sam with a SRL chapter, *Motivational Sources and Outcomes of SRL and Performance*, (Zimmerman, 2011) and a list of 18 classroom activities (see below) ahead of time to read.

In the first session, I introduced and explained SRL using Zimmerman's (2011) chapter that provides definition of SRL and discussion of the theoretical framework underlying SRL. It also introduces self-regulatory categories (personal, behavioral, and environmental) in which learners can utilize a combination of strategies from these categories. The three phases and key processes of the cyclical model of SRL (Zimmerman, 2011) were also discussed. As mentioned earlier in Chapter Two, the cyclical model of SRL consists of the following:

(A) Forethought phase has two major processes of

- a. task analysis (goal setting and strategic planning)
- b. self-motivation beliefs (self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, task interest/value, and goal orientation).



(B) Performance phase has two major processes of

- a. self-control (task strategies, volition strategies, self-instruction, imagery, time management, environmental structure, help-seeking, interest enhancement, and self-sequence)
- b. self-observation (metacognitive monitoring and self-recording)

(C) Self-reflection phase has two major processes of

- a. self-judgment (self-evaluation and causal attribution)
- b. self-reaction (self-satisfaction/affect and adaptive/defensive).

Although the three phases could occur at any order as they interact reciprocally, the instruction started with the forethought phase as it resonated more for the students to start planning their strategies and to self-motivate at an early stage (Zimmerman, 2011). I advised Sam that he would explicitly teach SRL to the SRL group using a variety of classroom tools. Lecturing, case studies, videos, and PowerPoint presentation (see Appendix H) were used to facilitate the students' understanding of the SRL.

In the second and third sessions, I introduced and explained 18 classroom activities, nine in each session, which I provided Sam with earlier (see appendix I). I modeled one activity in each session and advised Sam that I could model any other activities upon his need. Sam did not show interest in further modeling. Before coming to the end of the second and third sessions, I asked Sam to perform two activities in each of those sessions upon his choice to make sure that Sam could implement SRL instruction. I advised Sam that he would employ those classroom activities to teach the three SRL phases and help the students employ them when they perform writing tasks. At the end of each of the three sessions, we discussed any issues that arose regarding the

implementation of SRL instruction such as challenges of time, classroom setting, feedback provision, authentic materials, individualized instruction ... etc.

Eighteen SRL-informed classroom activities were selected from Andrade and Evans's (2013) framework, *Principles and Practices for Response in Second Language Writing: Developing Self-Regulated Learner*. Reviewing related L2 teaching literature and informed by theory and research, Andrade and Evans (2013), recommended employing those SRL activities to help intermediate and advanced L2 learners become self-regulated writers. I created a list of all 90 classroom activities in Andrade and Evans's (2013) framework and presented it to ten ESL instructors with at least a master degree and at least ten years teaching experience. I asked them to select 18 activities that they thought would help students become self-regulated writers. I gathered the most 18 selected activities and disclosed it to the same instructors to obtain their feedback on the list.

There were three suggestions from three instructors. One instructor suggested adding writing challenges to the accuracy goals activity to include other goals such as fluency goals (activity two). Another instructor suggested modifying the guided questions activity to address the analysis of writing tasks (activity three). A third instructor suggested modifying the real audience activity to include a journal dialogue that he believed was very important (activity four). After consulting with the other instructors who agreed on the suggestions, I modified the list and the content upon the instructors' suggestions. The instructors accepted the final list of activities without further modifications and recommended them for the intervention.

Sam, the instructor of the experimental group, employed 18 classroom activities seeking to enhance the students' use of SRL strategies and academic achievement (see appendix I). These activities included the following:

- 1- Determining motivation for writing: The activity was a 10-item survey that the students completed to identify their motivation for writing.
- 2- Writing goals. The activity involved the students in identifying their frequently occurring challenges and setting specific goals to overcome these challenges.
- 3- Task analysis guided questions: The activity required the students to engage in analyzing writing tasks by answering questions that identified the purpose of the task, the message to be conveyed, and the audience to be addressed. It also involved the students in evaluating their knowledge and identifying sources of obtaining further knowledge about target topics. The activity engaged the students in analyzing the genre of writing tasks and selecting relevant strategies to accomplish them.
- 4- Real audience (dialogue journal): The activity engaged the students in exploring reasons for writing as well as generating ideas for content by pairing the students in the classroom and writing dialogue journals.
- 5- Physical environment inventory: The activity aimed to help the students identify their relevant writing space.
- 6- Task timeline cover sheet: The activity aimed to help the students manage their time and avoid procrastination by breaking writing tasks into doable pieces within specific timeline. It consisted of a task title, a description, a final deadline, and a timeline for subtasks.

- 7- Help-seeking analysis: The activity sought to help the students identify uses of the social environment, time, and reasons for seeking help. The activity required the students to study a sample flow-chart and create a similar one that would suit their situations.
- 8- Grammar correction marks: The activity provided the students with a sample grammar error symbol system aiming to help them mark their errors by themselves.
- 9- Error tally sheet: The tally sheet consisted of assignment number and grammar error symbols (activity 8) which aimed to help the students tally the number of each type of errors on their writing assignment throughout the course.
- 10- Learner feedback sheet: The activity featured a checklist of form and content elements which the students were asked to check the given boxes after completing each item. The activity sought to help the students fulfil required writing components before submitting their assignments.
- 11- Teacher feedback/scoring sheet: The activity included a scoring scale that engaged the students in identifying their strengths and weaknesses in writing areas. The students needed to select the most relevant scores ranging from 1 as ineffective through 4 as effective.
- 12- Preference survey: The activity sought to help the students understand the teacher's feedback in order to develop better response to that feedback. It required them to answer questions about the teacher's feedback on previous assignments.
- 13- Positive and negative self-talk: The activity provided the students with a sample self-talk that displayed one positive and one negative self-talks. The activity sought to help the students practice positive self-verbalization and avoid defeating thoughts.

- The students were required to do the activity individually before they worked in pairs to analyze the self-talk.
- 14- Strengths and weakness analysis: The activity aimed to help the students summarize and analyze feedback by categorizing the feedback obtained from the teacher and peers. The students could start to see patterns of strengths and weakness after completing several assignments throughout the course.
- 15- Monitoring performance, part 1: The activity required the students to identify and write their strengths and weakness in various writing-related areas including motive, methods, time, physical and social environments.
- 16- Monitoring performance, part 2: The activity was built on part 1 (activity 15) in which it involved the students in strategically planning and setting goals according to their identified strengths and weakness.
- 17- Monitoring performance, part 3: The activity was built on part 1 and 2 (activity 15 & 16) in which the students engaged in identifying relevant strategies to accomplish their writing goals.
- 18- Self-Evaluation: The activity aimed to help the students evaluate their progress by tracking teacher and peers feedback on their assignment over the course, categorizing it, and identifying strengths and weakness in form, content, and organization.

### **3.4 Qualitative strand**

As stated earlier, the reason for using the mixed methods research is the need “to uncover information and perspectives, increase corroboration of the data, and render less biased and more accurate conclusion” (Reams & Twale, 2008, p. 13). By using quantitative measures and qualitative exploration, the study yielded better data accuracy,

fuller picture of the L2 writing process under SRL instruction, stronger analysis development built on original data, and more convenient sampling (Denscombe, 2008). In this study, the mixed methods research served a complementary function where “qualitative and quantitative methods are used to measure overlapping but also different facets of a phenomenon, yielding an enriched understanding by illustrating, clarifying, or elaborating on certain aspects ... to produce a fuller portrait of the social world” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 164).

To adequately utilize the triangulation of data, described by Greene (2005) as the “multiple ways of seeing and hearing” (p. 20), the study involved both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative strand helped to obtain “understanding or meaning of phenomenon, formed through participants and their subjective views [that] make up this worldview. When participants provide their understandings, they speak from meanings shaped by social interaction with others and from their own personal histories” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 40). The qualitative research method was used to address the second research questions, “how did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students’ development of SRL strategies and writing?”

Semi-structured interviews and diary studies were used to give “voices to participants, and probe issues that lie beneath the surface of presenting behaviors and actions” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, p. 219). Furthermore, “everything happening in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction” [which] is the “fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy” (Allwright, 1984, p. 156). The study sought to explore how the participants could actively construct their own meaning based on their experience with SRL intervention toward improving their L2 writing. This

meaning was explored from the perspectives of the participants and through their lens. In addition to the interviews and diary studies, observation was used as a tool to observe the participants in the classroom which represented a natural and social setting to the students (Cohen et al., 2007).

### **3.4.1 The Participants**

Eight students in the qualitative strand were recruited from the quantitative strand sample who were assigned to the control and experimental groups and who were enrolled in the Department of English. The criteria for the participant selection was based on the availability of the participants and their interest in participation. The reason for selecting the students from the same sample is related to the purpose of the study to corroborate and relate two sets of findings about a topic. The purpose of this study was to find out how the SRL instructional intervention would impact the students' L2 writing and SRL strategy use. For this reason, selecting participants from the same sample gave an insightful understanding of the students improvement of their writing and SRL strategy development. The sample involved four students from each group, totaling eight. The two participant teachers participated in the qualitative strand of the study as well.

Table 3.5 provides a brief background about the eight participants. The names in the table are all pseudonyms that I assigned to the participants in consultation with them.

Table 3.5

*The participants*

Group	Pseudonym	Age	University level	Pre-test score %100	Post-test score%100
Experimental group	Sarah	20.00	2.00	50.00	69.00
	Dian	20.00	2.00	58.00	74.00
	Maria	20.00	2.00	53.00	70.00
	Sally	19.00	2.00	51.00	75.00
Control group	Haya	19.00	2.00	50.00	72.00
	Susan	19.00	2.00	51.00	68.00
	Angie	19.00	2.00	54.00	67.00
	Tamara	19.00	2.00	60.00	74.00

**3.4.2 Data Collection and Analysis****3.4.2.1 Semi-structured interview**

Using interviews in qualitative research helps researchers access “people’s perceptions, definitions of situations and constructions of reality” (Punch, 2009, p. 144). Interviews could provide in-depth responses about the participants’ experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge (Patton, 2002). Given the three types of interviews (unstructured, structured and semi-structured), I chose to conduct semi-structured interviews that mediate the unstructured and structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews provide elaboration on issues sought by exploratory techniques that combine pre-prepared guiding questions with an open-ended format. The interviewer guides and directs the interview, but at the same time, seeks more elaboration from the interviewee to “respond to the situation at hand, to the merging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas” (Merriam, 1998, p. 76).



The two participant teachers and four students from each group were interviewed. I conducted two thirty-minute interviews with the students and the teachers throughout the semester. The first interview was held after the students did the pre-test (second class) to obtain an insight on their experience with writing. The interview also helped to gain an understanding of the students' employment of SRL strategies to start and finish writing tasks. The second interview was conducted after the students wrote the post-test at the end of the semester to record any changes to the students' use of SRL strategies. Although the interviews did not involve all the students in the control and experimental groups, the collected data was helpful to account for any changes to the students' writing scores and SRL use.

To get a fuller picture of the students' experience in the SRL instructional intervention, I interviewed the two participant teachers two times following the same order of interviewing the students. Interviewing the teacher concurrently along with the students helped me to get a teacher-student oriented view of the students' changes to their writing and SRL strategy use. The interviews comprised predetermined questions about the students' writing challenges, SRL strategy knowledge and use, and student-teacher relations (see appendices J & K). There were also opportunities for the students and teachers to elaborate more on their progress throughout the semester.

### **3.4.2.3 Diary studies**

The study involved the eight participants in writing diary studies about their experience with the SRL instructional intervention in the experimental and control groups. Diaries are an important method to foster self-monitoring which is a key element of self-regulation (Zimmerman & Paulsen, 1995). In addition, they “serve as an

instrument for measuring learning processes over a period of time” (Schmitz, Klug & Schmidt, 2011, p. 256). The students were asked to write two diary entries, keeping records of their daily learning activities and strategy use towards improving their L2 writing. Diary studies enabled me to capture the particulars of their experience which might not be possible by using the interviews.

Unlike structured diaries with specified items to be answered or followed, the students were asked to write unstructured diaries and to record several items related to their learning experiences. The students were given the choice to use any of the traditional paper and pencil diaries or electronic device-assisted diaries such as computers, cell phones, or tablets (Dörnyei, 2007). I showed the students some diary samples to help them to write well-organized, coherent and sufficient diaries. Studying the students’ diaries, I was able to obtain the students’ inner feeling and experience with the SRL knowledge and practice. I was also able to monitor any progress on their writing and strategy use, and to detect small enhancement in the students’ learning (Schmitz et al., 2011).

#### **3.4.2.4 Observation**

I used unstructured observation as a tool of data collection for its significance to “observe the participants in their natural settings... social settings and ... behavior in them” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 465). Observation enabled me to watch closely how the students interacted with each other and with their teachers as observation “covers events in real time” (Yin, 2003, p. 86). It allowed me to gain access and to spend time with the students and their teachers to explore the students’ experience across the writing course. Observing the participants entailed taking notes as important sources of data (O’Reilly,

2005). Taking notes included the time, date, location, and relevant activities to my research question. As being unstructured, observation in this study was limited to what I found significant to exploring the students' learning experience in the classroom. I observed the participants two times. The first observation took place during an entire class after the pre-test was administered at the beginning of the semester. The second observation took place during an entire period just before the post-test was administered at the end of the semester.

### **3.4.3 Data analysis**

The qualitative data obtained from the interviews, diary studies, and observation were analyzed following Creswell and Clark's (2011) guidelines of qualitative data analysis within a concurrent mixed methods research approach. Using this approach, I sought to "find constructs, themes, and patterns that can be used to describe and explain the phenomenon being studied". (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007, p. 466). The significance of this process rests on the essence and meaning of the students' lived learning experience which I intend to transform into meaningful findings (Patton, 2002). In doing so, I was able to obtain understanding of the students' detailed experience to elicit relevant themes in their learning experience (Van Manen, 1990). The next section involves more details about data analysis of qualitative data through an integrated framework of analyzing mixed methods data.

### **3.5 Procedures of analyzing concurrent quantitative and qualitative data**

The study was guided by the six steps recommended by Creswell and Clark (2011) to analyze quantitative and qualitative data. First, preparing data for quantitative data analysis involved converting the raw data obtained from the results of the writing

pre-tests and post-tests data into numeric values for each student. It also included cleaning data errors by deleting data of students who did not do the two tests. 145 students consented to participate in the study, but 66 students completed both the pre-test and post-test. Assigning relevant variables and inserting the data into the SPSS program were done within preparing data for quantitative analysis. These processes were essential for running the relevant statistical tests to find out if there were statistical differences in the writing scores between the control and experimental groups. Preparing data for qualitative data analysis involved transcribing the interviews and storing transcribed data into Word Processing files. It also involved organizing data from interviews, diary studies, and observation chronologically.

Second, *exploring the quantitative data* involved me in conducting a statistical descriptive analysis of the prepared data. This analysis included finding means, standard deviation of the pre-tests and post-tests of writing scores, and gain score to determine resultant trends in the collected data. Exploring the data in the qualitative strand involved reading all obtained data from interviews, diary studies, and observation to develop a broad understanding of the context. This process embraced writing initial thoughts in the margins of the transcribed documents, diary studies, and observation that helped me to form the codes and themes.

Third, *analyzing the quantitative data* involved running an independent-samples *t*-test using the gain writing scores of the experimental and control groups. The independent-samples *t*-test served to compare the gain score of the students in the experimental group with those in the control group to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between them after the instructional intervention.

Analyzing the qualitative data involved coding the transcripts obtained from the interviews, diary studies, and observation by breaking them into smaller units and assigning labels to these units. I used an integrative approach of deductive and inductive coding to do the coding process (Braun & Clarke, 2006). By utilizing the deductive approach, which is theory-driven, I used the SRL strategy cyclical model as the coding framework to identify units of discourse that the participants articulated, fitting the data into the pre-existing SRL model (Zimmerman, 2011). Findings obtained from this coding were helpful to explore the participants' changes to use SRL strategies. Using the inductive coding, which is data-driven, enabled me to identify subthemes out of the participants' experiences which were not built in the SRL model but essential in L2 learning contexts. The analysis involved classifying the codes and subthemes into themes relevant to L2 writing experience and SRL strategy use.

Fourth, *representing the quantitative* data analysis involved writing result summaries of the conducted statistical tests displayed in statements and tables. Representing the qualitative data analysis included citing quotes from the data sources to show specific evidence of themes and to provide different individual perspectives on an event. Fifth, *interpreting* the results entails making meaning of the findings. This required “stepping back from the detailed results and advancing their larger meaning in view of the research problems, questions in [the] study, the existing literature, and perhaps personal experience” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 209). At that stage, I utilized both the quantitative and qualitative data to corroborate the meaning made out of the findings.

Sixth, *validating* the data contributed to the quality of good research which was achieved in this study by considering issues of validity and reliability. Validity across the

quantitative and qualitative parts in the study was achieved by selecting quantitative and qualitative samples from the same population. Separating data collection procedures also contributed to the validity of the study. In the quantitative part, validity was achieved by determining the relevant sampling, selecting the two classes of participants from a likely similar context, and randomly assigning the classes into control and experimental groups to avoid selection bias. Controlling variables other than the SRL intervention was considered during the four-month experiment by training the participant teacher of the experimental group on teaching the students upon the SRL model. The teacher of the control group was advised to give the regular instruction. The IELTS writing task 2 test used in the study to assess the students' performance was credited for validity and reliability (Feast, 2002; Yen & Kuzma, 2009) which would add to the good quality of the study.

*Validating data* in the qualitative part is conducive to the worth or the truth value of the study underpinned by the trustworthiness factors to meet the guidelines of research quality (Guba, 1981). Although quantitative researchers tend to use the concepts *validity and reliability*, Lincoln and Guba (1985) preferred the concept *trustworthiness* over validity and reliability to stay distant from conventional views of validity and reliability. The study benefited from Lincoln and Guba's (1985) framework of qualitative research trustworthiness that comprises four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. *Credibility* was achieved by representing accurate descriptions elicited from the participants and interpretation to yield meaningful insight of the students' learning experience in the classroom (Sandelowski, 1986). Triangulation of data collection (interviews, diary studies, and observation) contributed to the credibility of the

study. Member checking was also employed to ensure the students' intentionality, to make data correction, to provide the students with an opportunity to expand on their experience, to summarize, and to ensure analysis adequacy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Although the purpose of the qualitative part of the study is to obtain a meaningful insight into the students experience to help understand any changes, it is not intended to generalize the finding to other contexts. However, *transferability* can be feasible in this study as readers are provided with detailed and sufficient information. They could capture the meaning of the findings that can be transferable to other contexts since readers can assess transferability potentials of these findings. *Dependability* involved maintaining a consistent way of conducting the study across time, researchers, and analysis techniques. The process of deriving data was assumed to be explicit and with regular repetition. Keeping an audit trail that recorded detailed chronological research activities, any influences on data collection and analysis, emerging themes and categories helped me to establish dependability of the study (Gasson, 2004). *Confirmability* assures "that the integrity of findings lies in the data and that the researcher must adequately tie together the data, analytic processes, and findings in such a way that the reader is able to confirm the adequacy of the findings" (Morrow, 2005, p. 252). By triangulating data collection and analysis methods and member checking, I was able to confirm the adequacy of the findings.

### **3.6 Summary of Chapter Three**

This chapter discussed the underpinning of the methodical considerations of using a convergent mixed methods research approach. The decision of using this research approach stemmed from its relevance to address the problem and achieve the purpose of

the study by using relevant methods of data collection and analysis. The quasi-experimental design of quantitative research was found relevant to answer research question 1, “did the IELTS writing score differ significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention?”. This design involved administering a writing pre-test and post-test for the students in the experimental and control groups.

The qualitative part involved the use of semi-structured interviews, diary studies, and observation to collect data on the students’ experience with the ARL instruction. This data set was essential to answer research question 2, “how did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students’ development of SRL strategies and writing?”. Data analysis involved transcribing the interviews, coding the data, and creating subthemes and themes that would help to gain an understanding of the students’ development of writing and strategy use. Table 3.6 presents an overview of the research procedure.

Table 3.6

*Overview of the Research Procedure*

	Before the start of the course	Week 1	Week 2-10	Week 11
Quantitative strand	Participant teacher SRL training sessions	-Consent form -Pre-test IELTS writing 2 test	SRL instructional intervention	Post-test IELTS writing 2 test
Qualitative strand		Interview 1		Interview 2
			Observation	
		Diary study 1		Diary study 2



## Chapter Four: Results

This chapter presents the findings of the study by reporting the answers of the two research questions of the study. Answering the two research questions facilitated achieving the purpose of the study that aimed to find out how the SRL instructional intervention impacted the Palestinian undergraduate students' L2 writing and strategy use in an L2 writing course.

### 4.1 Results of Research Question 1

*Did the IELTS writing score differ significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention?*

Answering research question 1 involved conducting a statistical analysis of the quantitative data. A descriptive statistical analysis involved calculating means, standard deviations of the pre-tests and post-tests writing scores, and gain score of the experimental and control groups to determine resultant trends in the collected data. An independent samples *t*-test, using the gain scores of the experimental and control groups, was administered to compare the students' performance in the experimental group with those in the control group. This served to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in their performance after the instructional intervention. The statistical results were represented using tables. To facilitate understanding the data, explanations of these results were also displayed in statements.

#### 4.1.1 Descriptive Results of The IELTS Writing Task - 2

Table 4.1 shows an analysis of the writing outcomes for the experimental and control groups at the two different testing periods (pre-test and post-test). The mean scores refer to the mean percentage writing scores. The analysis shows that the

experimental group had a mean score of 58.93 while the control group had a mean score of 60.58. The mean score of the experimental group changed from 58.93 in the pre-test to 71.81 in the post-test. The mean score of the control group changed from 60.58 to 68.26. The range of the writing scores across time for the two groups is reported as follows: (a) The minimum scores were 39 in the experimental group and 38 in the control group on the pre-tests. The maximum scores were 80 in the experimental group and 77 in the control group on the pre-tests. (b) The minimum scores were 45 in the experimental group and 48 in the control group on the post-tests. The maximum scores were 81 in the experimental group and 81 in the control group in the post-tests.

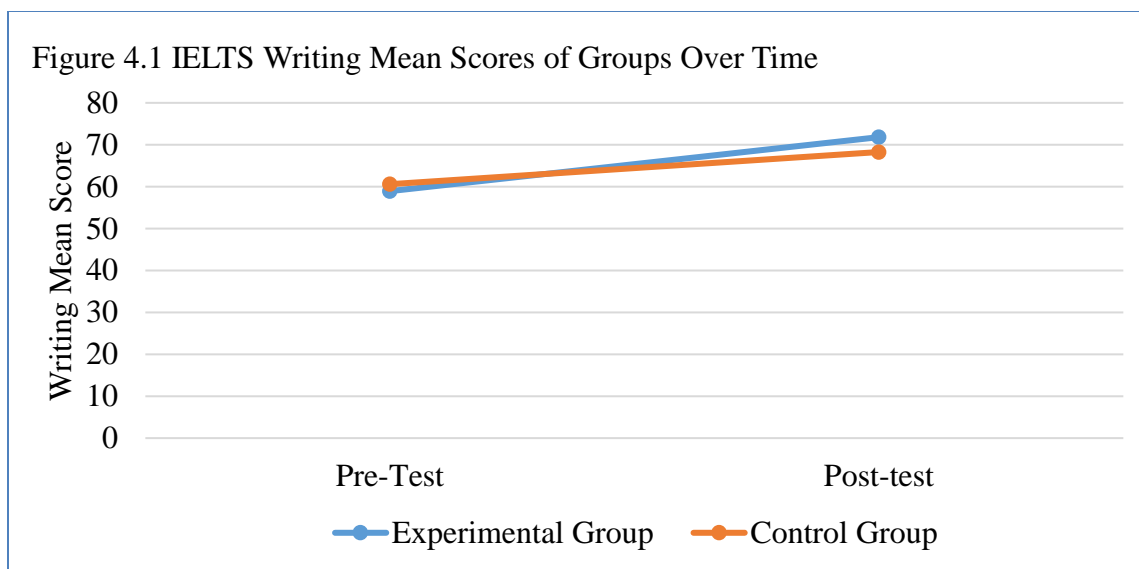
The gain score, as explained in Chapter Three, was calculated by computing the difference between the pre-test and post-test writing scores for each student in each group. The gain score was computed to compare the students mean change in scores from pre-test to post-test between the experimental and control groups. Table 4.1 shows that the experimental group had a mean gain score of 12.87 while the control group had a mean score of 7.67.

Table 4.1

*Overall Results of Written Essays Between Groups Over Time*

Group	Pre-test					Post-test				Gain score	
	<i>n</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Experimental group	32	39.00	80.00	58.93	9.66	45.00	81.00	71.81	7.15	12.87	9.20
Control group	34	38.00	77.00	60.58	9.92	48.00	81.00	68.26	6.24	7.67	10.81

Figure 1 provides a visual representation of the mean writing scores for the pre-test and post-test for each group.



#### 4.1.2 Independent samples *t*-test

This section displays the results of conducting the independent samples *t*-test to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the writing performance between the experimental and control groups after the intervention. Determining that the data was normally distributed and the variances between the two groups are equal, the independent samples *t*-test would render relevant results. Table 4.2 displays the analysis of the results.

Descriptively, the mean gain score of the students in the experimental group was 12.87 ( $SD = 9.20$ ). The mean the gain score of the students in the control group was 7.67 ( $SD = 10.81$ ). It was determined that there was a significant difference in relation to the gain scores between the students in the experimental and control groups ( $p = .040, <.05, t = 2.096, df = 64$ ). This means that the students in the experimental group significantly outperformed those in the control group. The effect size of the difference was moderate ( $r = 0.518$ ).

Table 4.2

*Independent Samples T-Test of Gain Writing Scores of Post-Test*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for equality of means						
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2- tailed)</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post- Test Scores	Equal variances assumed	.606	.439	2.096	64	.04	5.19	2.47	.24	10.15
	Equal variances not assumed			2.10	63.39	.039	5.19	2.46	.26	10.12

By comparing the mean gain score of the students in the experimental group with that in the control groups, the results of the independent *t*-test indicated that SRL instruction significantly helped the students improve their writing performance. This means that SRL instruction had positive influence manifested through the significant outperformance of the students in the experimental group after receiving SRL instruction over those in the control group.

#### **4.2 Results of Research Question 2**

*How did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students development of SRL strategies and writing?*

Answering research question 2 involved listening to the students' voices and reading their inner thoughts about SRL instruction during the L2 writing course. The study sought to find out if the students developed and used SRL strategies, that might

have helped them improve their writing performance, by accounting for any changes to their strategy use. It also aspired to explore the relationships between the teacher and students, clarifying if SRL could empower students as agents evolved from their engagement in their writing experience. To adequately find out how SRL instruction influenced the students development of SRL strategies and writing, first, I provided descriptions of the observed learning contexts in the two classrooms. This served to give an image about the nature of instruction and interaction between the teachers and students in the two classrooms. Second, I presented the participants' perceived changes to their use of SRL strategies based on the interviews and diary studies and supported by my observation. Third, I presented five themes that emerged from the participants' experiences with SRL instruction based on the interviews, diary studies, and observation.

#### **4.2.1 Description of Learning Contexts**

##### **4.2.1.1 Control Classroom**

###### *Focus of the writing course*

The writing course focused on the structure of the sentence and the paragraph with emphasis on teaching types of sentences, paragraphs, and essays. This focus was informed by the course description documented in the university prospectus at the target university. The writing course aimed to be a “further detailed course in writing skills at the sentence and paragraph levels. It is designed to enable students to successfully deal with a large selection of useful patterns and structures” (university prospectus p. 291).

The required textbook, *Writing to Communicate*, 2 (Boardman & Frydenberg, 2008), addressed the sentence level in which it included types of sentences such as the thesis statement, topic sentence, supporting sentence, and concluding sentence. Paragraph

focus, in the textbook, included the introductory paragraph, body paragraph, and concluding paragraph. Characteristics of coherence, cohesion, and unity were also included in the textbook. It also addressed several types of academic essays such as process essays, classification essays, persuasion essays, and comparison and contrast essays. Each chapter in the textbook consisted of the same sections of focus: *Vocabulary Builder*, *Writing Focus*, *Structure and Mechanics*, and *Writing to Communicate*. In addition to the textbook, a pamphlet, *Essay Types*, collected by one of the ESL instructors provided descriptive essays, narrative essays, examples essays, cause and effect essays, definition essays, division and classification, and argumentative essays.

#### *Teaching and learning in the classroom*

Adam, the teacher of the control group, used to stay close to a table on a higher-level stage in front of the students. After greeting the students, he started the lesson by voicing out the learning objectives for the class. Adam asked the students to open certain pages in the required textbook and follow him. He started lecturing as he considered lecturing the major teaching method in the class where he explained the focal points in the writing chapter orally. His explanation depended on the textbook as a main source of learning.

During lecturing, Adam referred the students to key points in the textbook to read silently. He sometimes asked volunteering students to read out aloud or read out himself from the textbook where relevant to the topic being explained. The students usually listened to the teacher's explanation and in the same time followed the textbook as directed by the teacher. A few students asked questions, specially, when Adam inquired if

the students could follow his explanation. There were some students who took notes and wrote them down on their notebooks.

When the theoretical part of the lesson was explained, Adam asked the students to work on some of the practice exercises in the textbook. The students read over the exercises silently. Adam, then, asked volunteering students to read out their answers. If a student gave a correct answer, Adam approved it and moved on to the next question in the exercise. If a student gave a wrong answer, Adam gave direct correction. Some students who answered the questions in the class with relatively the same students who asked and answered questions. Other students participated less.

It was obvious that the students did not have many opportunities to interact with Adam or to interact with each other through means of interaction such as getting involved in discussion or working collaboratively in pairs or groups. The students sometimes made requests to accommodate certain learning issues such as asking for more time to work on the exercise or choose a topic of their own. However, Adam apologized due to shortage of the course time and the heavy load of the textbook requirements.

Adam moved on to next pages and exercises following the textbook, lecturing, and asking the students to read or do the exercises on the textbook for the rest of the class. The students listened to the teacher, followed his explanation in the textbook, and did the exercises when required by the teacher. To close up the class, Adam referred the students to certain exercises in the textbook and asked them to do these exercises as homework for the next class. He explained that he would check the homework next class, read it, and put his signature on the students' homework notebook if the written work was properly done.

In a next class, Adam started the class by reading the students' writing assignments that he asked them to write on special notebooks. He read, wrote few words on the students' writing notebook, and signed the students' writing notebooks. Adam sometimes made some oral comments in which he complained on some individual students whose assignments were checked by the teacher. He reminded them of what he taught them in previous classes and blamed them for not considering these teaching tips in their writing. The homework-checking process lasted for about fifteen minutes. After finishing the homework-check process, Adam revised very briefly the topic and content covered in the last class by giving a quick reminder of what was studied last class without giving details. He delivered the new lesson in a similar way as he voiced out the learning objectives, lectured, explained the topic of interest, asked the student to do exercises in the textbook and read out their answers, and assigned homework for the next class.

#### **4.2.1.2 Experimental Classroom**

##### *Focus of the writing course*

The curricular focus of the writing course of the experimental group, as described in the course outline, was the same as the curricular focus of the control group. The same textbook and pamphlet used in the control group were used in the experimental group. However, for the sake of this research study, Sam, the teacher of the experimental group, in coordination with me, adopted a SRL approach to teach writing to the experimental group. As explained earlier in this study (Chapter One & Two), SRL instruction was assumed to help the students overcome writing challenges, improve their L2 writing, and become self-regulated writers. In SRL instruction, SRL was explicitly introduced and defined and the three phases of the cyclical model of SRL were taught: forethought



phase, performance phase, and self-reflection phase. SRL instruction in the experimental classroom involved employing SRL classroom activities that were discussed in Chapter Three (see Appendix I).

*Teaching and learning in the classroom*

Sam used to stand close to his table in front of the students. After greeting the students, he asked several writing-related questions to break ice. As the students gave different answers, Sam did not approve or disapprove any answers. However, he made general feedback on the students' answers and prompted them to comment if they had any. Few students voiced their opinions.

Sam asked the students about their personal goals that they set for the current class. He prompted the students to say their names before they answered questions so that he and the students would know the names of each other. At the beginning, the students looked hesitant, but afterward, they felt enthusiastic and willing to read out their goals. Depending on the class's topic of interest, the students' goals varied and included a variety of writing matters such as sentence structure and type, punctuation, cohesion, paragraph composition ...etc. Sam wrote some of the students' answers on the whiteboard, commented on some and asked the students to share their experiences orally. Sam complimented the students for their goals and encouraged them to work hard to achieve them.

Sam identified the learning goals of the class which included an essential part of SRL and wrote them on the whiteboard. He explicitly taught a number of SRL strategies related to the class's focus such as setting specific goals to write a good topic sentence, selecting a good place and time to write one complete paragraph ...etc. Sam used

handouts, discussion, and groupwork to facilitate the students' learning of SRL and its strategies. He explained that the students' work on the handouts could help them learn various writing and SRL strategies.

When distributing the handouts, Sam asked the students to work in groups or in pairs. Each group or pair discussed the points of interest for a certain time which the teacher assigned for each activity. When the time of discussion was up, Sam asked the students to share their answers with the whole class. He allowed other students to comment on each other's answers. Sam used the students' answers as a milieu for more in-depth discussion of the topic under study in the textbook and wrote significant points on the whiteboard. He referred the students to certain pages in the textbook, explained target points explicitly, and asked individual students to give out examples or to apply various rules. Sam encouraged other students to comment or give different opinions. When a certain theoretical part of the lesson was explained, he asked the students to work on some of the practice exercises in the textbook. He gave them clear instruction and demonstrated the first item in each exercise. Sam gave the students specific time and announced how long they should spend on the exercises. When the time was up, Sam selected students to read out their answers. If an answer was correct, Sam approved it and moved on to the next question in the exercise. If a student's answer was wrong, the teacher responded in several ways to facilitate feedback which included direct correction, clarification, peer correction and others.

Sam made use of handouts, authentic materials such as magazines, newsletters, and newspapers to facilitate the lesson. He also used the whiteboard to draw graphic organizers such as paragraph outlines, T-charts, Venn diagrams, flow charts, and spider-

grams to show how ideas are connected and flowed. Those graphic organizers were used by the teacher to emphasize and explain the relationship between several components of effective writing such as linguistic competence, writing strategies, types of essays, and SRL strategies. It was obvious that Sam had hard times using the overhead projector to play videos and display PowerPoint slides and other internet content using his own laptop due to the lack of an overhead projector and computer in the classroom. He had to supply and set up these devices every time he used them.

On many occasions, the students were asked to practice writing pieces pertaining to, for instance, thesis statement, topic sentence, introductory paragraphs, concluding paragraph ...etc. Sam gave the students the choice to select topics of their interest beside the topics in the textbooks. Following the teacher's guidance, the students had a chance to seek help from others who could be the teacher himself or any student in the class. After finishing writing, the students were advised to share their writing with a partner who felt happy to read and give feedback. The students exchanged their writing experiences and reported that they felt happy to share and assess others' writing.

It was clear that the students enjoyed opportunities to interact with the teacher and with their classmates through several ways such as asking and answering questions, whole classroom discussion, working in pairs and groups, seeking help from the teacher and colleagues, and peer-assessing their writing. Interaction made an essential component of the teaching methods in the classroom. The teacher emphasized that interaction and collaborative work were investment of time to promote the students' SRL, and thus to improve their writing performance.

Before the class ended, Sam asked the students to examine if their goals for the class were met. He asked them for their opinions if they had achieved all their expected goals and if there was something that needed to be completed. If some students did not feel that they met their goals, they were encouraged to work on their goals at home and bring that issue to the teacher's attention the next class. The students were encouraged to bring in new goals related to the next class's items of interest. Sam referred the students to certain exercises in the textbook and asked them to do these exercises as homework for the next class. He gave them the choice to select topics of their interest to write about in accordance with the class's theme under study. He explained that the students could seek help from anyone who could be a classmate, a family member, a friend teacher, or others to complete the tasks. He encouraged them to use a self-evaluation sheet to assess their writing accuracy and fluency, writing strategies, types of sentences and paragraphs, and SRL strategies. Sam asked the students to bring in two hard copies of their written homework the next class: one to be used for peer feedback and class discussion at the beginning of the next class and the other one to be submitted to the teacher for the teacher's feedback.

In a next class, Sam started by checking homework and assignments given in the previous class by asking the students to share and read their partners' writing assignments or homework and to give feedback. He asked the students to share ideas about their written essays with peers. Sam recommended that the students could write a brief feedback for each other pointing out what was done correctly and what needed further improvements. Sam assigned certain time for the students to finish that work.

When the assigned time was finished, Sam asked the students to give their opinions about their partners' writing. The students voiced their opinions and the teacher made comments when possible or raised some questions. He asked one volunteer student to read out her written text and asked the students to give any relevant feedback. Sam encouraged the students to keep their written essays and their partners' feedback on a portfolio they already discussed. He reminded the students to hand in their other copy of the written homework and promised to bring them back with his written feedback next class.

After finishing the homework, Sam revised the topic and content covered in the last class and reflected on the students' written texts. He identified the learning objectives of the class and moved on to the personal goals which the students set for the class and asked if anyone was still struggling meeting her previous goals. He provided recommendation when necessary. He discussed with the students their different personal goals and ways of achieving them. Sam continued to deliver the lesson in a similar way of teaching as described above.

#### **4.2.2 Change to Participants Use of SRL Strategies**

Description of the changes to the participants SRL strategy use was based on analyzing the interviews and diary studies data from both groups at the beginning and at the end of the course. Throughout the description, aspects of commonalities and distinctions are noticed between the two groups at large. Identifying differences in the groups use of the SRL strategies helped to signify better development and use of SRL strategies. As previously discussed in Chapter Three, I used a deductive theory-driven approach of coding to identify units of discourse that fitted the data into the pre-existing

SRL cyclical model (Zimmerman, 2011). This approach served to find out if SRL instruction helped the participants develop and use SRL strategies. Identifying changes to their SRL strategies were informed by Zimmerman's (2011) cyclical model of SRL that consisted of three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. The data obtained from the participants' diary studies and interviews rendered the following findings.

#### **4.2.2.1 Forethought Phase**

##### **Task analysis**

Goal setting represents a major category of task analysis strategies. Research studies suggested that participants who set proximal goals alongside with distal goals accomplished better performance than participants who set distal goals alone (Weldon & Yun, 2000). Proximal goals are the preliminary levels of performance that individuals work on to achieve distal goals which are the ultimate performance to be accomplished (Bandura & Simon, 1977).

##### *Experimental group*

Sarah did not use to have or to set specific and proximal goals to achieve her long-term goal as to improve her writing at the beginning of the course. The goals she mentioned at the beginning of the course involved establishing a writing team who would teach the world how to accept peoples' differences and conveying her society's humane message to the world. These goals were very broad and distal goals. However, later in the course, she could set specific goals for the writing course and for her personal life. She stated, "this activity enriches my experience to ... put specific goals before my lecture, and I put specific goals before my writing. This helps me to be specific in

writing”. Sarah also mentioned that when she had a complete writing task, she started the task with setting goals for that task.

Having set her specific goals, Sarah moved on to strategically plan the next step of achieving these goals. Strategic planning refers to the process in which learners are involved in “choosing or constructing advantageous learning methods that are appropriate for the task and the environment setting.” (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 301). There was a clear change in Sarah’s strategic planning between the beginning and the end of the course. On the one hand, Sarah expressed her frustration at the beginning of the course about opportunities to plan her work by saying, “I don’t feel that our doctors or the university provide us with a good environment or help us to put goals or plans”. On the other hand, she could make a strategic plan later in the course in which she started a writing task by asking specific questions related to the writing task. She could create outlines for the written assignments in order to be specific in conveying the ideas. She also thought about which place and time would be suitable to write, “we have to know the reason of our sitting to write”. Those strategies helped her to generate ideas and information and to omit irrelevant sentences.

Dian, at the beginning of the course, mentioned that she used to set general and distal goals. She posited that she aimed to become a good writer by following her teacher’s rules and to write in accordance with what the teacher wanted. In doing so, she hoped to get a good mark on her written assignments. She also set a goal to write about the suffering that she and her people suffer in Gaza, Palestine due to the Israeli occupation and collective punishment they encounter. She stated:

“I am going to write about my everyday hopes and challenges that surround me and my people to deliver a humanity message about the miserable situation we have in Gaza. I could write for foreign magazines explaining our suffering and trying to get peoples’ attention to what happens in our country.

Later in the course, Dian mentioned that she could better understand the process of writing and set writing goals by asking why and who she should write to. Accordingly, she valued setting goals and dedicating more time to think analytically about them. She emphasized that evaluating her specific accomplishment using her planned strategies should be based on the goals she set to achieve.

The general and distal goals that Dian used to have at the beginning of the course did not seem to prompt her to make strategic planning. Dian did not provide any information about planning her writing. Instead, she mentioned that she only followed her teacher’s rules as she stated, “I want to write according to what the teacher wants so I get a good mark”. Contrary to the beginning of the course, Dian started to enact her strategic planning during the course as she planned her writing process before starting to write. She planned to write, compose, and exchange her written work with another student according to her planning. She thought that she could think about what strategy would fit her writing. Thus, she found the right way to plan, write, and evaluate. While planning her writing, Dian talked to herself and drew outlines for the essay which she considered a good technique to learn and save time and material. She planned to manage her time to avoid procrastination and to observe her progress in writing. She aspired to translate her



planned strategies into doable actions and to evaluate their efficiency to decide if she would use them again in other assignments.

Like Sarah and Dian, Maria had similar broad and distal goals at the beginning of the course. She wanted to write good essays and to become a good writer. However, she did not know how to achieve them as she contemplated, “when I want to achieve it, I do not know how to do this”. Later in the course, Maria started to set specific goals. She stated, “now when I have a complete writing task, I know and I start setting a good goal for this task .... Achieving these goals request me to plan my work”. By articulating this, Maria believed that she could achieve her goals by good planning for her personal goals followed by the right implementation; unlike at the beginning of the course when she had no strategic planning.

Maria clarified that she conducted an analysis to find and select relevant strategies to achieve her writing goals for a task. First, she planned to accomplish a writing task by making use of the three writing phases: pre-writing phase, writing phase, and reviewing phase. Second, for each phase, she selected the relevant strategies that she thought would accomplish that phase. Some of the strategies that she used as part of her strategic planning were: brainstorming ideas, filtering them, making outlines, selecting relevant vocabulary and grammatical patterns, selecting a place and time to write, scheduling her assignment timeline, consulting with friends about her writing, and talking to herself privately or aloud to stay motivated to achieve her goals.

Sally reported that she used to set oral and improvised goals without careful organization or following up on her goals at the beginning of the course. She articulated that she wanted “to do well on that assignment and get a good mark”. During the course

after she was taught how to set relevant goals, Sally realized that setting goals was helpful to organize and to evaluate her writing. So, she started to write a goal for each period in the course. She thought, by doing this, her writing improved and, thus, she got high marks. Sally expressed her confidence with setting her goals as she stated, “now I can set a goal, work on it until I achieve it and I know that I achieved it because I did what”.

The strategic planning that Sally started to make during the course was clear when she compared a previous experience in a writing course with her current experience. She stated, “I learnt how to start the issue, the process of writing. Before that, we just had our pens write on the paper without like nice planning. Now I can plan the things”. She could analyze the writing task before writing the task and could write those thoughts and ideas on a list. She, then, chose from that list what would be good for her writing. She wrote, “the planning process which the teacher taught us to do to arrange and organize our thoughts is important ... [as] I began to understand why we write .... After planning, I can now write, based on my plan”.

Setting goals was one of the issues that the students struggled with in the writing course as Sam, the teacher of the experimental group, described at the beginning of the course. Although he mentioned that only few students might have set goals while many of the others did not set goals, those who set goals had general but not specific goals “like becoming good writers, write good assignments”. Sam also mentioned that the students did not have a lot to do with strategic planning as they did not “understand why they are in the course” and simply relied on him to tell them what to do. They used to do “course assignments, and use the textbook activities”. Later in the course, Sam expressed his

happiness that more of his students “started to set goals. They started to understand why they are in the class and what they are doing”. However, Sam did not state or describe any goals that the students set. Sam implied that setting goals informed the students’ strategic planning as they could “analyze the task, select proper strategies, manage their time, set goals, encourage themselves to write, seek help from others, give feedback”.

#### *Control group*

Haya reported, at the beginning of the course, that she set general goals to become a good creative writer in the future and to publish her articles and written work in newspapers and magazines. However, it was not clear if she could break those goals into proximal and more specific writing goals. Later in the course, Haya emphasized the same goals which she set at the beginning of the course, without clarifying how she might break them into more specific and proximal goals.

Having those general goals might have blurred Haya’s strategic planning which was not clearly noticeable in the data she provided. On the one hand, Haya read books and used the internet in an attempt to get tips on how a piece of written work can be accomplished. She subscribed to an online course which she found beneficial for writing a story. On the other hand, Haya did not seem to plan these strategies or other strategies ahead of a task or an assignment. Rather, she seemed to use them in an improvising manner. She did not elaborate on what specific strategies she planned to use or how to use them either. Moreover, later in the course, she did not mention if she could overcome her challenge of organizing her thoughts, starting, and finishing the process of writing to make a good piece of written work.

Like Haya, Susan set her long-term goals as to become a fiction writer who might not need “to be very clear and very direct” in writing. However, she did not mention any thoughts about proximal goals. Later in the course, she added that she wanted “to be a professional writer and maybe a writing-skill teacher” because she wanted “to improve the strategies ... teachers use ... with the coming generations”. In line with setting distal goals, Susan stated that she did not use specific strategies to write except writing multiple drafts and getting feedback from the teacher. But because the teacher’s feedback was not sufficient, she decided to use online courses which she mentioned that she never finished any. She also decided to use sample written work to improve her writing. Like in Haya’s case, using these strategies did not seem to be planned ahead of a specific writing task, but they were used in an improvising manner. Susan’s approach of unplanned strategies of learning continued throughout the course as she did not reveal any changes to the way she planned her strategies.

Angie’s case was not very different from the cases of Haya and Susan when she set distal and broad goals to become a novelist. It was obvious that she set distal goals, but not proximal goals. She stated, “I am setting some goals. I want to write journal in a magazine or write a short story”. During the course, Angie did not show any indication of managing her goals. Even when she mentioned that she aimed to improve her writing, her goals were still broad as she clarified, “I have to improve myself”.

Having had such a broad goal, Angie gave ambiguous information about her strategic planning at the beginning of the course when she wrote, “I compensate this by looking at other writers’ writing to see how they started and they are doing with a similar writing task”. No other specification was offered to explain how she benefited from other

writers in terms of planning strategies. Moreover, during the course, Angie seemed to have a challenge with strategic planning as she got confused when she had a complex essay to write. Thus, she spent “a lot of time figuring out where to start and where to finish”. This confusion made her feel less smart, frustrated, and not willing to accomplish the writing task. To resolve this issue, she searched for similar writing, short stories, and novels to see “how the writer did and try to emulate”. She also used to “go to the teacher’s office to ask the teacher”. In addition to this, Angie resorted to her colleagues for consultation and searched for previous similar written work to get informed about writing. Despite all her efforts, Angie did not seem to make reliable and well-defined strategic planning.

Like Haya, Susan, and Angie, Tamara had a similar experience at the beginning of the course with setting distal and broad goals as she aimed to work in the writing field such as newspapers. There was not any reported information about proximal goals that Tamara might have set. Moreover, later in the course, Tamara continued to set broad and distal goals as she stated, “I can reach my goals of being a very famous writer”. Although she stated that she improved her goals throughout the writing course, she did not elaborate on what was specifically achieved or how.

With regard to strategic planning, Tamara reported at the beginning of the course that she used to follow the textbook for steps of writing an accurate essay. She also used the internet to read research and articles about the topic she would write about. She gathered a lot of information and started writing on her own. Later in the course, Tamara continued to follow the teacher’s rules and when she forgot a rule, she flipped over the pages of the textbook to look it up. Moreover, she went to the university library to read

and to learn how novels and other written work were written, but she did not feel comfortable with that experience. She recommended that the teacher could “bring in some authentic and real-life written samples ... [to] study these samples and know how they were written. The teacher can analyse these and tell ... the different stages of writing”. She also thought it would have been better if she had joined a course to learn how writing could be accomplished well. Although it might appear that Tamara utilized more strategies than Haya, Susan, and Angie, these strategies did not seem to adequately serve the process of planning strategically within the writing process that she should go through.

Adam, the teacher of the control group considered setting goals as one of the problems that he “could not get rid of”. He made it clear that very few of the students “set goals for themselves. The majority no”. For those who set goals, Adam mentioned that “they want to get high marks. He also mentioned that the students lacked good strategic planning as “they do not know how or where to do things .... They follow my instruction, do their homework and wait for my judgment”. The students considered Adam as “the only resource for learning”. Later in the course, Adam still doubted if “a big number of them ended up setting goals, maybe because they are not aware of this”. That persisting issue of setting goals might have resulted in poor strategic planning. Adam mentioned that while high achieving-students continued to follow his instruction, use google to search for language items and repeat previous course assignments, the lower students, still depended on him”.

### **Self-Motivation Beliefs**

“The initiation and continuation use of ... task analysis depends on students’ motivational feelings/beliefs about effectiveness of these goals, their strategic planning, and their personal skill in implementing them” (Zimmerman’s, 2011, p. 57). Self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, task interests/values, and goal orientation are key sources of self-motivation which are linked to goal setting and strategic planning (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009).

#### *Experimental Group*

At the beginning of the writing course, Sarah was not very clear on her self-efficacy as to achieve her goal to improve her writing competence. Self-efficacy refers to “expectancies about personal capabilities to organize and execute courses of actions” (Zimmerman, 2011). Sarah did not elaborate on her capability if she could achieve her goals despite having diverse values and interests in writing. She was interested in writing as “a kind of catharsis from bad feeling and [as] an effective way to convey ... thoughts”. She also showed strong interest in writing in Arabic, but not in English, as to convey her Gazan people’s humane messages of being under Israeli occupation, poverty, and sanction to the world. Moreover, she expressed her interest in establishing a writing team who would teach the world how to accept peoples’ differences.

Sarah constructed her own learning strategies of rehearsing her speaking, sharing conversation with classmates, reading books out loud, and writing down new vocabulary, through which she expected to improve her writing. Sarah’s expectation to achieve her promised goals came as a result of improving her writing which presupposed her goals of establishing her writing team and conveying her human rights message. For Sarah,

conveying a human rights message, and establishing a writing team represented an important utility value which refers to “the functional value of a task” (Zimmerman, 2011, p. 51). In addition, Sarah’s goal of improving her writing competence represented an attainment value, that is, “students’ perception of competence on a particular task [as] this value is linked often to students’ sense of identity” (52).

Sarah’s interests, values and outcome expectancies were related to her goal orientation. Goal orientation involves “learners’ beliefs or feelings about the purpose of learning” (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 302). Sarah combined two types of goal orientation. *Learning goal orientation* refers to one’s intention to improve competence via learning (Zimmerman, 2011). This goal orientation was obvious through her desire to improve her writing. *Performance goal orientation* refers to the increase of competence via comparison with others which was embodied in her intention to convey a message and to establish a writing team.

While research studies suggested that there is a positive relation among the four key sources of self-motivation (self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, task interests/values, and goal orientation, Sarah’s self-efficacy did not seem to be influenced by the other sources (Bandura, 1997; Wolters, Yu & Pintrich, 1996). Moreover, the impact of these sources of self-motivation was not obvious in Sarah’s self-motivation strategies in previous writing course experience. This shortage might be related to the teacher’s ineffective teaching methods which Sarah described as “very normal and unmotivating” to her. Lack of classroom interaction, insufficient feedback from the teacher, and boredom were enough reasons for Sarah not to feel motivated or use strategies to self-motive.



Later in the course, Sarah could develop more self-motivation strategies. She found the teacher's SRL activities helpful to discover her goals and set specific personal and writing goals which she found as an effective way to increase her motivation. Moreover, she treated herself with a gift when she finished a written task appropriately. Discovering and setting specific goals enabled her to self-observe her progress, thus, to perform better which in turn made her self-efficacious. Sarah's interest in writing in English compared to no interest at the beginning of the course was obvious as she stated, "I feel that I'm interested in writing and I feel that writing empties my feelings and ideas". This statement revealed that Sarah initiated an intrinsic value in addition to her previous attainment and utility values. Her intrinsic value reflected the enjoyment she gained from engaging in the writing tasks (Zimmerman, 2011).

Sarah had a firm expectation to accomplish her planned outcomes after she started a different approach to writing. She believed that by planning, implementing and evaluating the writing SRL strategies she learnt in the course, she enhanced her self-motivation and improved her writing competence. Thus, she could establish her imagined team and convey her country's messages. Sarah attributed the use of more self-motivation strategies to the change of the teacher's teaching methods. She stated, "the teacher started to add new techniques... I have felt that I can motivate myself to write a good writing text .... The activities full of motivations and actions help me to put a good outline for my assignments". Sarah continued to hold learning-orientated goals as to become a good writer which presupposed the performance oriented goals to convey a message and to establish a writing team.

Dian was slightly different from Sarah at the beginning of the course in the sense that she had good beliefs that she could achieve her goals in the writing course. Although she did not express an interest in writing in general, she felt interested in writing good assignments to get high marks. She believed that by following her teacher's rules and instructions, preparing well for the test, memorizing vocabulary, understanding the textbook, and reminding her self of assignments before deadlines, she could motivate herself to write. Moreover, she expected that using these strategies would accomplish her intended outcomes of writing good essays and getting high marks; thus, she could achieve her goals. Dian's interest in writing good assignments, getting high marks, and becoming a good writer signified an attainment value for her in which she valued doing well at the writing tasks that made her feel self-satisfied. It is obvious that Dian's goal was a performance oriented goal as she showed enthusiasm to complete her writing tasks properly and to get good marks. This was clear in her statement, "my goal is to write good assignments for this course ... so I get a good mark".

Dian had some changes to her self-motivation strategies later in the course. Her self-efficacy to achieve her goals increased as she gained more writing-related knowledge, used relevant strategies of being a responsible learner, set more reliable goals, and managed sources of feedback. This increased self-efficacy and use of the relevant strategies apparently elevated her outcome expectancies that included chatting "with a foreigner, finding a job in an international organization, getting a good rank in the IELTS or the TOEFL". These outcome expectancies changed Dian's attitude in which she became interested in writing.

It also became obvious that Dian's goal orientation moved beyond performance orientation, as she widened the scope of her goals. She was "confident that by writing, we can achieve many purposes in life which gives me more fuel to improve writing as a tool ... I want to make use of the writing class" (performance orientation) and "become a good writer" (learning orientation). In general, Dian optimized her self-motivation as she stated, "I felt more motivated than ever.... After we learnt some strategies of organizing ourselves like the self-regulated learning, I think motivation is something good to start and finish the assignment". Dian's appreciation of SRL strategies, which she learned and used to become a good writer, reinforced her attainment value. Moreover, her viewing of writing as a tool to achieve purposes in life represented a utility value.

In Maria's case, there was a dearth of indications about her self-motivation strategies at the beginning of the course. Although she expressed her self-efficacy that she could write good essays and achieve her long-term goal to become a good writer, she seemed to be concerned about getting a good mark. She also felt uncertain about how to achieve her goals. Moreover, she did not elaborate on strategies of self-motivation. She expressed her interest in becoming a good writer, but seemed to be uncertain if finding a good model, who could demonstrate a writing task, would motivate her to achieve that goal. She expected that by reading newspapers, magazines, stories of success, and other internet materials, she could acquire more vocabulary and write better sentences which might help her to accomplish her goals. Maria held an attainment value as to write good essays, get good marks, and to become a good writer. It was noticed that Maria adhered to learning oriented goals as she wanted to write good essays and to become a good

writer, but at the same time, she wanted to get good marks as a performance oriented goal.

Maria's self-efficacy increased clearly later in the course as she stated, "I believe I can achieve my goals ... It is like  $1 + 1 = 2$ " as she wanted to write good essays and become a good writer. She attributed this increase to her recent developed awareness and improvement of the writing quality, knowledge, approach, and SRL strategy use, thanks to the teacher's new teaching methods, activities and SRL-handouts. Maria's newly developed awareness and use of SRL strategies enhanced her outcome expectancy of improving her writing quality and becoming a good writer. She made it clear that "If you have a goal and learnt how to achieve it then you will achieve it". Having become more knowledgeable, independent, and self-efficacious, Maria became more interested in writing.

Maria seemed to create the value of writing as a private space to communicate her emotion, thoughts, and desires. Thus, she combined an intrinsic value of enjoying writing with an attainment value to write good essays, to get high marks, and perceive herself as a good writer. Maria expanded the scope of her learning goal orientation of writing a good essay and becoming a good writer to include the enjoyment of her private space of emotion, thoughts, and desires. She also continued to hold a performance goal orientation to get high marks as she stated, "I also want to get a high mark". To further self-motivate, Maria got involved in setting specific goals, reminding herself of her goals, reassuring herself that she could achieve her goals, remembering her desire to get a high mark, and talking to herself privately and aloud.

Sally's self-efficacy was obvious in her statement, "I will feel sure I can achieve that goal" at the beginning of the course. She meant by that goal "to do well on that assignment and get a good mark". Her self-efficacy emerged from her efforts of learning a lot of vocabulary and correct grammar that would help her to write an essay. Yet, these efforts and self-efficacy did not enable Sally to create any interest in writing as she stated "to be honest with you, I am not that sure. Like, writing is not very fun for me. I do not know if I will like it, maybe because it is not... in my heart and I do not use it many times". Sally attributed this lack of interest to the many challenges she faced in the classroom such as boredom, lack of classroom interaction, shortage of feedback, and others. This sense of frustration did not help Sally to feel motivated to write as she thought it was difficult. She was concerned when she stated:

We lose motivation when we do not have a good reason to write. It is only following the text book with its boring or ambiguous themes that we have to write about. I do not feel like we have our own space to write in and put our thoughts and feeling in. It is only what we are asked to do even if you do not like it or do not feel interested in.

Sally's outcome expectancy was subordinate to her efforts of memorizing a lot of vocabulary, learning more grammatical issues and rules, and practicing them in her spare time. Although Sally's interest in writing was missing, she worked on writing for its attainment value as to get a good mark and to do well on assignments. These goals represented performance orientated goals.

Later in the course, Sally felt 100% sure that she would achieve her goals which indicated that her self-efficacy reached higher levels of certainty. The sources of Sally's

self-efficacy went beyond just learning a lot of vocabulary and correct grammar that would help her to write good essays. They included trying and using new strategies that she had never known or used before. Sally posited, “because we tried some strategies and when I found them help, give me more marks and the teacher is happy with my writing, now, so I can feel that if I follow using the strategies, I can achieve my goals”. Sally’s satisfaction with the new strategies gave rise to a dramatic change to her interest.

Sally’s self-efficacy and her newly changed interest in writing encouraged her to further motivate herself. She tracked her progress on her goals and assignments and continued to remind herself of her goals. She also compared her performance with low achieving students to celebrate her progress and with higher achieving students to stimulate her motivation to do better. Sally thought that SRL instruction, her new awareness, and constructing and using new strategies were crucial to expect future writing improvement and high marks which enabled her to motivate herself. Sally’s outcomes became clearer to expect as she hoped not only to get a good mark out of her good performance in writing, but also to write for fun, to write for a purpose, to seek help, and to share experiences.

Like Maria, Sally synthesized learning goal orientation as she wanted to do well on her assignments with performance goal orientation to get good marks. With her high self-efficacy, new interest in writing, and clearer outcome expectancies, Sally enhanced her attainment value which she already enjoyed as to get a good mark and to do well on assignments. “Write for fun” and “share experiences” represented an intrinsic value that Sally enjoyed in addition to the utility value that she constructed to write for a purpose and to seek help.

Sam, at the beginning of the course, mentioned that the majority of the students had strong self-efficacy that they could do well in the course. However, he believed that they needed to motivate themselves without which, “they could not proceed ... their only motivation is marks, comparing marks with each other and with their past marks”. Later in the course, Sam emphasized that his students had “stronger beliefs more than at the beginning of the semester”. Moreover, their interest and motivation towards writing increased.

#### *Control group*

At the beginning of the course, Haya was sure that she could achieve her goals to become a good writer and to publish articles in newspapers. However, she found accomplishing certain types of writing challenging which might hinder achieving her goals due to lack of previous experience. Nevertheless, she felt that motivation and inspiration were key elements of writing that she had to create. To motivate herself, she used to elicit some inspiration when she looked out the window of her parents’ car while driving which she found important. Yet, Haya felt concerned that her interest in writing would decrease if the current course would be like the last course she attended when she lacked interest due to the teacher’s approach of teaching.

Haya’s outcome expectancy to become a good writer and to publish articles in newspapers seemed to be poorly addressed when she explained how she would achieve her goals. She was hesitant to reveal that using resources such as books and novels would enable her to gain more knowledge relevant to improving her writing. On the one hand, writing for Haya represented an important utility value as to publish articles in newspapers and to convey her messages. On the other hand, aspiring to become a good

writer signified an attainment value. Haya's goal to become a good writer tended to be a learning oriented goal while her goal to publish articles in newspapers tended to be performance oriented goal.

Later in the writing course, Haya held good self-efficacy to achieve her writing goals to become a good writer and to publish articles in newspapers. She could also maintain her interest in writing and started to plan to have an online blog in spite of her concern at the beginning of the course that her interest would decrease. She motivated herself to sustain her interest and self-efficacy by reading because she thought that motivation would originate by reading and encountering certain experiences. Haya's outcome expectancies did not change as she continued to commit to reading books and novels to eventually publish articles in newspapers which represented a utility value for Haya. She also sustained an attainment value of writing as she aspired to become a good writer. Thus, Haya's value system did not change since the beginning of the course which was also consistent with maintaining the same goal orientation throughout the course. As her goals did not change, she was determined, first, to become a good writer which represented a learning oriented goal and, second, to publish articles in newspapers as a performance oriented goal.

At the beginning of the course, Susan was concerned that she might not be able to improve her writing skills by the end of the course based on similar experiences she had before. However, she felt confident that one day she would achieve her long-term goals to become a fiction writer because she worked hard. Susan's anticipated self-efficacy to become a fiction writer emerged from her comparison with a previous experience in the



university. At that time, she “was not able to write even a paragraph correctly”, but early in the current course, she could “write a paragraph and write an essay”.

Susan’s interest in writing fiction was related to her perception that writing fiction might be accomplished in an indirect way without a need for the writer to be clear and direct. In addition to her self-efficacy and interest, she felt that she needed self-motivation. She tried to motivate herself and to maintain her self-efficacy and interest by taking online courses that she never finished any. Susan explained that she constructed her outcome expectancy by following the teacher’s instruction and writing multiple drafts as her effort to become a fiction writer. Becoming a fiction writer represented an attainment and utility value for Susan and her goal could be seen as both a learning and performance oriented goal.

Later in the course, Susan articulated her self-efficacy as “I am a hard worker. I always work hard for my purposes, for my goals, for my hopes. So, I think I finish what I am looking to one day”. In addition to her long-term goal to become a fiction writer, Susan added another area of interest in becoming “a professional writer and maybe a writing-skill teacher”. She expected that by using internet resources; practicing free writing; and sharing with friends, she would maintain her self-efficacy and motivate herself which would enable her to reach her outcomes. By doing this, she expected to meet her long-term outcome expectancy to improve strategies that teachers should use when they teach new generations. Accordingly, Susan expanded her writing values to incorporate the utility value of improving strategies to her existent attainment and utility value of becoming a fiction writer. Consequently, her performance goal orientation was expanded to include improving strategies and becoming a fiction writer. Moreover, she

added a new learning oriented goal to become a professional writer in addition to her existent learning oriented goal to become a fiction writer.

Angie was sure that she would achieve her long-term goal of becoming a novelist when the course started. Her interest in creative writing inspired her to write a short story which she wished she could finish. Angie found it essential to motivate herself and she did so by reading about other writers' experiences with writing to get a clue on how they wrote the beginning of a written text. By studying what she was taking at university, using the internet, and reading books, she expected to achieve her goal of becoming a novelist. The goal of becoming a novelist represented an attainment and a utility value for Angie with a learning goal orientation.

Although Angie's self-efficacy did not decrease later in the course, she felt confused about her ability to achieve her goals. On one hand, she expressed an enthusiasm when she stated, "I am sure I will because I am working on it .... I feel now that I am nearer to achieve my goals of writing novels and stories and publish some of them". On the other hand, she felt frustrated as she spent a lot of time figuring out how to start and finish an essay. She wrote:

In a situation like this I feel like I do not want to write at all and feel frustrated. Sometimes I feel like I am not smart to do that writing. And feel like I cannot achieve the purpose of the writing. It happens also with my colleagues.

However, Angie felt that she was still interested in writing as she had a goal to achieve. She revealed her outcome expectancy to publish articles, stories, and novels in a magazine as she became interested in the idea of publishing her written products. By

listening, reading, and practicing writing, Angie believed she would fulfill her outcomes. She also realized the importance of self-motivation as she articulated, “I need some motivation from myself and from others to write. I remind myself that I have to do something, I have a goal to achieve. So, that motivates me in some way to write”. A utility value of publishing in a magazine was added to Angie’s value system in addition to her existent attainment and utility value of becoming a novelist. This addition to Angie’s interests, outcome expectancy, and values allowed a performance oriented goal of publishing in a magazine to occur along with the learning oriented goal of becoming a novelist which had already existed.

Although Tamara displayed good self-efficacy and interest in working in the writing field such as for newspapers, she did not provide clear explanations on sources or outcomes of such beliefs and feelings. Her interest in writing was exhibited only via a vague expression, “I like writing more than reading” without further elaboration. Thus, potential indication of self-motivation seemed to be broad and undeclared, “if there is an event, if there is something in our country moves on, this motivates me to write”. Her outcome expectancy was identified by using the internet and reading a lot of related research and essays to achieve her goals. The only value of writing that could be inferred from Tamar’s discourse was a utility value in which she would work in the writing field like a newspaper. Accordingly, her writing goal would be considered a performance oriented goal.

Different from Haya, Susan, and Angie, Tamara changed her beliefs about her ability to achieve her writing goal later in the course. Her self-efficacy decreased, which might be attributed to her new interest in non-academic writing such as stories and

novels. She stated that she wanted to become a very famous writer. Her new interest in writing stories and novels was not accommodated because creative writing was not part of the current writing courses which represented a challenge to Tamara. She felt that she needed “to read more and more stories, and more novels” to motivate herself to achieve the recent creative writing related-goal. Despite Tamara’s recent interest in non-academic writing, she did not lose her interest in writing in general. She stated, “I feel it is a way that anybody can share his ideas his feelings rather than speaking, for example”. She also felt that she needed to construct self-motivation strategies more than before to enable her to meet her goals as the context was getting harder.

Tamara’s outcome expectancy became slightly clearer later in the course as she found the library a good source of reading about how stories and novels were written in an attempt to write good ones. She also sought help from her older sister to provide her with feedback on her writing, through which Tamara felt self-motivated. Tamara added the value of becoming a very famous writer to her value system. Although her utility value of working in the writing field was not articulated in her discourse, she revealed that writing represented a good medium to share ideas and feelings which embodied another utility value. The new change to Tamara’s interest and value featured a change to her goal orientation. Her goals incorporated performance goal orientation to share ideas and feelings and a learning goal orientation to become a very famous writer.

Adam did not believe that most of his students had strong self-efficacy at the beginning of the course. Moreover, he felt that many of them liked getting high marks more than anything else. He also thought that his students’ interest in writing was subordinate to their achievement. Adam stated, “when they get low marks, they feel

unpleasant .... When they have good marks, you feel that they become interested and vice versa”. Adam believed that his students needed to strongly motivate themselves to participate in the class and do the course assignments. Later in the course, Adam continued to believe that many of his students were more interested in getting good marks than anything else. Their motivation towards marks, as Adam reported, increased their self-efficacy to do better. Adam explained that their self-efficacy and expectancy to get high marks stemmed from their beliefs that they did what the teacher “asked for in the assignment in terms of accuracy and good product”. Adam also attributed his students’ increased interest in writing to their writing improvement which made them “feel more convenient and thus interested”.

#### **4.2.2.2 Performance Phase**

##### **Self-Control**

The self-control category in the cyclical model includes several strategies that learners can use when performing a learning task: task strategies, volition strategies, self-instruction, imagery, time management, environmental structure, help-seeking, interest enhancement, and self-sequences (Zimmerman, & Moylan, 2009).

##### *Experimental group*

At the beginning of the course, Sarah mentioned that she used several self-control strategies through which she tried to control herself and to avoid distraction. She used the strategies that were mentioned earlier in the self-motivation section, including rehearsing her speaking, sharing conversation with classmates, reading books out loud, and writing down new vocabulary as strategies of performance. Later in the course, Sarah stated that in addition to these strategies, she could manage her time and structure her learning

environment. She not only selected the right place and time she felt comfortable with, but also knew the reason of selecting such time and place. This gave Sarah a good feeling to write outlines for her assignments by answering questions like “why I will write this? what is the main topic?”, which helped her to generate ideas and omit irrelevant ideas. Sarah seemed to use a self-sequence strategy as she articulated, “sometimes, I promise myself if I finished this writing perfectly, I will dedicate or give myself a prize or present”. Sarah felt that she could master and practice the writing skills better.

Dian’s self-control strategies, as reported at the beginning of the course, included following her teacher’s rules and instructions, preparing well for the test, memorizing vocabulary, understanding the textbook, and reminding her self of assignments before deadlines. She used to read “the chapters and articles of the course, try to memorize their words and understand the topic”. However, she could develop and use more strategies by the end of the course. In the following statement, she described the strategies she used when performing her writing tasks:

How you translate these plans into doable action was greatly amazing. I now can think about what strategy will fit my writing, use it, evaluate its efficiency ... I can manage my time to avoid procrastination .... During writing, ask questions and seek for help when we think we need help .... I also talk to myself when planning, or applying or when I struggle doing something in writing. Sometimes I draw outlines for the essay.

In this quote, Dian made the connection between the forethought phase and performance phase clear when she stated, “how you translate these plans into doable action was greatly amazing”. These doable actions included time management through which she

could avoid procrastination. Doable actions also involved constructing help-seeking strategies which enabled Dian to ask questions and to ask for help when she realized she needed scaffolding. Dian also used a self-instruction strategy to talk to herself when planning and performing a task or when she had a challenging issue in writing to improve her writing (Schunk, 1984).

An imagery strategy was also obvious in Dian's repertoire as she drew essay outlines in her mind which rendered a lot of ideas. Imagery "involves forming mental pictures to assist learning and retention, such as converting textual information into visual tree diagram, low charts, and concept webs. According to Zimmerman and Moylan (2009, p. 302), "these graphical representations enable students to retrieve stored information in non-verbal images". Moreover, Dian used effective task strategies through which she could learn and consolidate her "grammatical and vocabulary knowledge by teaching [herself] how to learn them by [herself] and be responsible for that learning". To do so, she used code-sheets "for grammatical, punctuation, and spelling or vocabulary items to use when learning or checking ... language-related products". Hence, Dian addressed an essential issue in SRL when she expressed her satisfaction with her new approach to learning, "I realized that a student can teach herself if she knows the way to do this ... You are the teacher yourself now and know what to do and how to do it".

Maria mentioned that she used a few strategies of self-control at the beginning of the course. The use of these strategies was clear in her statement, "I try to read newspaper, magazines, stories of success and other internet materials to increase my vocabulary store and to have a correct form of writing sentences". Later, Maria realized that she could develop more self-control strategies than before as she stated, "I feel I have

more control of my study and can do things more easily and confidently .... I can use good and relevant strategies”. One of the task strategies she felt she could master was learning vocabulary and grammar on her own by using checklists and special notebooks to organize these language items. It was “not only how to acquire grammatical rules and vocabulary, but also how to get the relevant strategy to acquire them by yourself .... I can find other resources to learn new vocabulary, grammar and about writing too”.

Maria’s writing skills became better as she could plan, write, and review her written texts by herself. She could draw an outline for the essay, address a reader, seek help from her friends, and ask questions. Maria managed her time and worked on schedules instead of putting off her assignments until the last two days of the due date. She could also write in a place she felt comfortable in. Moreover, Maria realized the importance of volition strategies to maintain her motivation during the writing process. She stated:

I keep telling myself that your goal has to be done and you need to tell yourself that you did it and that I also want to get a high mark. Talking to myself to stay motivated or sometimes to demonstrate next steps and strategies whether privately or aloud keeps me focused and determined.

It was clear that Maria used a self-instruction strategy as she talked to herself privately and aloud and used her outcome expectancy of getting a high mark to maintain her motivation.

Sally considered learning a lot of vocabulary and correct grammar as helpful strategies that would help her to write an essay as she reported at the beginning of the course. She stated that she was “memorizing a lot of vocabulary and learn[ing] more



grammatical issues, rules and practice them”. Yet, at the end of the course, Sally described the biggest change during the current course as a change in the way she tackled writing before:

I learnt how to start the issue, the process of writing. Before that, we just had our pens write on the paper without like nice planning. Now I can plan the things ... and then put them in a list, then I choose from that list what is good for my writing .... After planning, I can now write according to my plan .... I think I can do something better now.

Although Sally mentioned that she started to plan and use a lot of strategies to perform in accordance with that plan, she explained only what she could remember in terms of her self-control strategies, “we learnt a lot of things, like strategies, like maybe I forgot them now”. She managed her time and selected a place to write as she stated, “I found choosing a place is good for writing, so I go to the library now because the quiet because it is quiet there. I also manage my time”. Sally could also use volition strategies to keep herself motivated by remembering the goals she aspired to achieve, by using relevant strategies, and by monitoring herself and writing.

Sam did not give detailed information about self-control strategies that his students used at the beginning of the course. He mentioned that they used writing models to follow and did the textbook activities. Later in the course, Sam indicated that his students had remarkable change as they could “arrange for their learning, they know how to produce good writing”. Sam believed that his students gained “a good and satisfactory repertoire of different strategies to use when they write”. He described some of these strategies that his students used as “they can analyze the task, select proper strategies,

manage their time, set goals, encourage themselves to write, seek help from others, give feedback”.

*Control group*

Haya did not seem to elaborate on strategies of self-control she might have constructed whether at the beginning or at the end of the course. She started and continued to consider reading books and using the internet as task strategies she used to get tips on how a piece of written work can be accomplished, “I use different books. I read from different books and nowadays I use internet”. She planned to start a new blog. She also used to write multiple drafts to check how she progress across the drafts.

Like Haya, Susan provided a little information to describe her self-control strategies at the beginning of the course. The strategies she used at the beginning of the course were following her teacher’s instruction and writing multiple drafts. Later in the course she thought that by reading about good writers, writing multiple drafts, and practicing writing without stopping, she could improve her writing. She explained, “not stop writing and not stop reading because the key for a good writing is to be a good reader. I think it is two things that I really I want to continue do to improve my skill”. Susan considered writing in several places a good idea, but it was not clear if she already practiced writing in these several places.

Angie provided broad information about the self-control strategies she used at the beginning of the course. One of the strategies she vaguely described was studying what she was taking in university. Like Haya, Angie read books, read about other writers’ experiences to get clues on the writing process, and used the internet. Angie continued to use similar strategies as she found listening, reading, and practicing writing a good way

to learn from. She stated, “we do not know unless we read and when we see other writers, other poem, poets who write and the writing, we learn something from them”. Angie wrote multiple drafts to check her progress by comparing these drafts.

Tamara used few self-control strategies at the beginning of the course such as using the internet, reading a lot of related research and essays to achieve her goals. Later in the course, she found the library a good source to read about how writers wrote their stories and novels so that she could write good ones in a similar way. She also sought help from her older sister to provide her with feedback on her writing. However, Tamara found it difficult to manage her reading time, “I feel like it is not very encouraging to go yourself to find time and go to read”.

Adam thought that his students considered him “as the only resource for learning”. They followed his instruction, did homework, and waited for his feedback. He did not elaborate on specific strategies that his students used at the beginning of the course. Later in the course, Adam mentioned that few students who set goals read books to consolidate their grammar and vocabulary. They also used google to look up language items and words. “Some of them read and repeated the assignments of the previous course Writing I to gain more benefit”.

### **Self-Observation**

“Self-observation plays such a central role in students’ efforts to self-control their performance”. Two key forms of categories, *metacognitive monitoring* and *self-recording*, make up self-observation. While metacognitive monitoring involves “informal mental tracking of one’s performance processes and outcomes ... self-recording refers to

creating formal records of learning processes or outcomes” (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 303).

*Experimental group*

Sarah acknowledged the importance of self-observing her performance at the beginning of the course as she stated, “I think we have to monitor our behavior in this way, and I have to observe my improvement in writing. And after that, we can ask others to monitor us in writing”. Despite her acknowledgement, Sarah did not provide any explanation about what strategies or how she administered self-observation. However, later in the course, Sarah felt confident that she developed and used good strategies of self-observation which she considered a step to get a higher level of achievement and to achieve her goals. The use of these strategies was obvious in her statement, “so you can notice your progression... I can observe how I did in the first assignment and how I did in the second, so by this observing I can achieve my goals”.

One of the strategies that Sarah constructed to observe her work was comparing previous assignments with current ones to identify problems. Using this strategy enabled her to identify her progress across the assignments. She also created a multi-column table for her assignments with rubrics that helped her to locate and identify points under examination. This strategy helped Sarah to “discover the common mistakes to overcome them in the next assignments”. Moreover, she created other tables and charts to locate certain linguistic components in writing essays that she intended to improve. She clarified that point in this statement, “grammar and vocabulary are important core in writing and we have to observe our learning and use of them”.

Dian occasionally self-observed her work, focusing most of her efforts on comparing her previous assignments with the recent ones, as she mentioned at the beginning of the course. This was clear in her statement, “I do this occasionally because we do not have much writing as I said. Only the assignment which I compare the previous with the present mark and if there is any feedback from the teacher”. Later in the course, she realized that self-observing her work was helpful despite the time it took. Self-observation was helpful to watch her work and get informed about her progress. It enabled Dian to make right estimation of the time needed to accomplish writing tasks. She could keep track of her grammatical and vocabulary progress and to identify possible mistakes, hoping to fix them. She employed self-observation to check her essays organization as well.

At the beginning of the course, Maria showed some confusion about strategies of self-observing her writing. On the one hand, she considered reviewing her paper before submitting it to the teacher as a strategy of self-observation. On the other hand, she lacked awareness about tracking her place and time of writing. She explained, “I always look at my papers before and after I submit them .... I never looked at tracking my time or place. It just did not come up to my mind”. However, later in the course, Maria appreciated more strategies of self-observing her work as these strategies saved her time and effort and ensured proper accomplishment, sense of independency, and responsibility. She stated:

I found a lot of benefits for tracking my performance and where I write. I found it save my time and effort as well as it gives me a kind of warrantee that my work will conform to the standards I put for yourself. Tracking also

give me a sense of independency and responsibility when you follow up with my work.

Maria created a tally sheet and a checklist to make sure she was using her planned strategies well. She also checked if she was using appropriate and enough time to finish her assignment. Moreover, Maria compared her previous assignments with the current ones to track any potential improvement during the course. This strategy helped her to decide the next work to be done in terms of remedial work or moving ahead. Maria felt the benefits of this strategy as she stated, “I now can tell out of these strategies that I am moving but what is more important is that I know that I am moving”.

Sally noticed the change to her goals since the beginning of the course. As she used to set oral and improvised goals at the beginning of the course, she did not pay careful attention, consider organization, or pursue following up on them. She used to only compare her previous marks with the recent ones. But, later in the course, more self-observation strategies were clearly reported in Sally’s statement:

I use certain organizing-sheets to guarantee I am using the strategies of the planning stage in terms of the task goal, planned strategies, time, space, and for sure my motivation. I also use specific sheets the teacher gave to draw a chart line of my progress throughout the course.

Like Maria, Sally used tally sheets and checklists to self-observe her performance through which she could track her goals, planned strategies, time, place, motivation, and general progress.

At the beginning of the course, Sam did not elaborate on how his students use self-observation strategies. The only thing he mentioned about his students’ self-

observation was “only following marks, progress”. Later in the course, Sam was happy that his students could make connection between self-observation, goals and motivation. Their goals and motivation assisted the students to “get themselves writing portfolios”. Sam was content that some of his students showed him their lists of their gained marks over the semester.

#### *Control group*

When Haya started the current writing course, she considered keeping track of her writing important “to see whether it's developing, improving or not”. This feeling lasted until the end of the course as she stated, keeping track “is very important because in this way I know if I am improving or not. If I am still in the same place I was before or I am getting better”. However, she did not elaborate on strategies that she used to self-observe her work.

Susan’s self-observation strategies were not obvious at the beginning of the course. Although, at the end of the course, she linked her writing improvement to keeping track of her place of writing such as in the university, at home, and in the library, no other clues were given by Susan to explore whether she used any strategies of self-observation.

Angie mentioned that she kept track of her writing performance, place of writing, and time of writing as a strategy of self-observation at the beginning of the course. She also reported that she compared her previous written assignments with recent ones. Later in the course, she stated that she did not keep track of her writing performance, place of writing, and time of writing very often. There seemed to be some confusion when Angie was asked about her use of self-observation strategies as she answered, “not always” and then completed her statement, “but I have to follow what I write ... see what I have

written, what progress I have made, how I was and how I became”. Nevertheless, no additional information was revealed about what strategies of self-observation she was using.

At the beginning of the course, Tamara found it important to self-observe her work as she could tell how long it might take to write an assignment, “I see how does it take of time and for example, yesterday it took me 2 hours to write one assignment after reading and gathering information”. No other information was given to elaborate on other strategies. Later in the course, Tamara continued to hold similar perspective about self-observation as she stated, “it is very important to, for example, as I said, to follow up my writing, if it really improved or if it is still the same”. However, she did not explain what strategies or how she self-observed her work.

At the beginning of the course, Adam mentioned that his students might have looked “at their assignment sheets, compare[d] them with each other and with their classmates and come to a conclusion about their performance”. At the end of the course, Adam did not feel satisfied with his students’ use of self-observation strategies as he stated that “they should by now make some tracks of their work because we are at the end of the semester”. Adam did not describe any strategies that his students used or should use.

#### **4.2.2.3 Self-Reflection Phase**

“During this phase students judge their work and formulate reasons for their results. While justifying their success or failure, they experience positive or negative emotions depending on their attributional style. These emotions will influence their motivation and regulation” (Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2104, p. 456). The self-reflection



phase consists of two major categories: (a) Self-judgment involves self-evaluation and causal attribution; (b) Self-reaction involves self-satisfaction/affects and adaptive/defensive inferences.

### *Self-Judgment*

Self-judgment refers to “self-evaluating one’s learning performance and attributing causal significance to the outcomes” (Zimmerman, 2011, p. 58). Self-evaluation as a key form of self-judgment entails learners comparing their performance to a standard or goal (Zimmerman, 2013). Causal attribution refers to “beliefs about the causal implications of personal outcomes such as one’s fixed ability, effort, and use of strategies” (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 304).

### *Experimental group*

At the beginning of the class, Sarah addressed the evaluation strategies by stating, “in writing skills there are some strategies... which tell me that my improvement in English is well”. However, she did not clearly explain what strategies she used except getting feedback from her teacher. When she was asked about her friends as a source of evaluation, she replied, “I believe in sharing my writing with my friends and to get their feedback from them”. Yet, it was not clear if she just mentioned this as her part of beliefs, or she already translated those beliefs into actions and sought evaluation from her friends. Being evaluated on her performance, Sarah attributed her progress to her own efforts as she planned to improve her speaking skills, read books, and wrote down new vocabulary. However, she did not seem to be consistent when expressing the casual attribution to her failure as it went through an adverse direction when she failed a task. This was clear

when she stated, “sometimes I feel frustrated when I fail, and sometimes I say this is my ability to write, when I say this I know that I’m frustrated”.

Later in the course, Sarah seemed to clearly realize the importance of self-evaluation, stating, “it’s important to evaluate or to see your performance and how it is good or not”. Unlike at the beginning of the course, she started to steadily use several strategies to evaluate her performance, including self-assessment, peer assessment and teacher’s assessment. By carrying out self-assessment, she obtained feedback through which she could tell if she did well or not before she submitted her written work. She checked and handled her grammatical mistakes and vocabulary limitation by herself and could overcome the challenge of writing accurate and fluent sentences. She also compared her previous assignments with current ones, clarifying “when I see my last or previous assignment, what the problems were in the first assignment and the second assignment. So, it helps me to know if I’m good or not”. The multi-column table and the charts she created helped her not only to self-observe her performance, but also to self-evaluate her learning. More importantly, Sarah could engage in a holistic process of writing through which she could perceive writing as a recursive process that could occur at any time during writing through processes of planning, translation, and reviewing (Flower & Hayes, 1980). This perception was clear in her statement, “I put the outline, and I start to write a good topic sentence and the rest of the paragraph. Then, I check my mistakes and write the second draft. After that, I get in the process of giving feedback”.

Peer-assessment was another effective strategy that Sarah used to self-evaluate her learning. The teacher’s activity on self-evaluation helped Sarah obtain feedback from her classmates by sharing their assignments to gain constructive criticism. She admired

those activities as she stated, “It helped me to accept other criticisms. So, it added to my experience the concept of constructive criticism”. The teacher’s feedback was also an essential element of Sarah’s self-evaluation, “there are a lot of ways which can help me to know if I did well or not by the evaluation or feedback from teacher”. Using the three types of assessments, Sarah gained an improved understanding about her learning process to write better than at the beginning of the course. She appreciated the teacher’s activities and handouts which enabled her to master the writing skills.

Sarah’s use of the strategies she constructed, including but not limited to self-evaluation, enabled her to precisely attribute her progress to her efforts but not to her ability. Realizing that potential performance is related to controllable strategies, “their use can protect learners against negative self-reaction and can foster an adaptive course of subsequent learning” (Zimmerman, 2011). In this regard, Sarah stated:

I think it is an important step to improve your skills in writhing by knowing your weakness and how this weakness is not because you have low intelligence level but because you did not focus, you did not spend enough time to write, and you did not select the correct strategy to organize your writing. I feel safe now because in the past I thought when I get a low mark that I am not intelligent and worried so much about this. I could know now that I am clever but can get low mark when not doing well.

At the beginning of the course, Dian reported that she only compared her previous marks of assignments with current ones as a strategy of self-evaluation. This sole technique was obvious in her statement, “only the assignment which I compare the previous with the present mark”. She also considered the teacher’s feedback as the main

source of evaluating her writing performance even though that feedback was not effective. Dian did not reveal any other information about other strategies of self-evaluation. Although self-evaluation and causal attribution are interdependent (Zimmerman, 2011), causal attribution to Dian's potential achievement was not very clear as she used a dearth of self-evaluation strategies which rendered little information about her subsequent findings.

Dian had a dramatic change to her self-evaluation strategies after she obtained a holistic understanding of the writing process. Dian's self-evaluation involved the use of self-assessment as she used the teacher's sheets and activities to assess the relevance of her vocabulary, grammar, organization, coherence, and cohesion. Using self-assessment strategies enabled Dian to overcome a lot of writing challenges because she started to write based on relevant knowledge and skills she did not get before. Moreover, Dian realized the importance of planning before writing which served as a standard upon which she would evaluate her achievement. She wrote, "when you plan for the task before you write, it means that you could measure the extent of success that you can achieve through this analysis ... as you planned and according to the goal you drew for yourself". These strategies helped Dian not only to check for accuracy and fluency, but also to give herself a mark before she submitted it to the teacher.

Dian's self-evaluation was not exclusive to writing achievement; it also involved self-evaluating the efficiency of her selected and used strategies. She explained, "I now can think about what strategy will fit my writing, use it, evaluate its efficiency, and decide if you will use it again in other assignments". Doing so, Dian thought she became the teacher of herself as she knew what to do and how to do it.

Peer-assessment also added to Dian's knowledge and skills when she shared her assignments with her friends for feedback before she submitted them to the teacher. By sharing her written work with other friends, Dian gained feedback about her writing quality, the mark she might deserve, and ways of rewriting her essays:

Then I give my paper to a colleague to read before I submit it to the teacher. I take her feedback, read it, and see if I agree or no. If I agree I make the relevant changes. By this, I can say that I added a lot to my knowledge and skills of writing because I now can know how my writing looks like, why it deserves this or that mark and how to fix the things.

Although the teacher's assessment was an essential source of evaluation that Dian was interested in at the beginning of the course, it seemed that she did not mention it as a main source of evaluation. This might be attributed to her new development and use of relevant strategies that enabled her to do without heavy reliance on the teacher, as she stated, "you are the teacher yourself now and know what to do and how to do it. You can even give yourself a mark, I mean you know your mark". This statement indicated that Dian developed a sense of independence that enabled her to use more tools of evaluation only sought from the teacher.

This independency helped Dian not only to self-evaluate her writing and writing-related efforts, but also to understand why she accomplished a certain level of achievement. Dian was certain that her achievement was subordinate to her use of certain strategies:

I even could tell why I did this achievement which could be related to my planning, efforts, time, and implementation, but not to my only intelligence

.... As I said if you know how to do your work, you will have better results if you do not you will not. I think with hard work and relevant work you get what you planned for.

Maria did not report any use of self-evaluation strategies at the beginning of the course. Her sole source of evaluating her writing work was “the teacher’s mark”. She considered the teacher’s mark as an indication of good or poor achievement. She felt frustrated as she could not get high marks which she perceived as “not doing greatly in the writing courses”. Like Dian, Maria’s dearth of using self-evaluation strategies made it unclear to elaborate on causal attribution.

Later in the course, Maria’s development of new strategies of self-evaluation was obvious as she explained three sources of evaluation: self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher’s assessment. She stated, “when I finish writing, I do the last stage ‘review’. I read it myself to review or proofread, and then I can give it to another student to read it for me and give me her feedback”. Maria used self-assessment to assess organization, coherence, cohesion, and unity in her written assignments by utilizing rubric-based sheets which she learnt to use in the course. Maria also used her own findings and feedback obtained from administering self-observation strategies to self-evaluate her performance during the course. Obtaining feedback from her tally sheets, checklists, time evaluation, and assignment comparison enabled Maria to draw a full portrait for her progress during the course as she stated. She explained, “I now can tell out of these strategies that I am moving [forwards], but is what is more important is that I know that I am moving [forwards]”. She looked into her progress on language improvement, organization, coherence, cohesion, and unity, which eventually improved her writing quality. Self-

assessment helped Maria to become an independent learner as she stated, “I feel like I am self-assisted and that I could do my homework or assignments with less help from others. I think now I can find other resources to learn new vocabulary, grammar and about writing too”.

Peer-assessment was essential to Maria’s evaluation of her writing work as she gave her written assignments to her friends for feedback. Maria considered this strategy as unique, stating, “this is a unique technique when we help and give feedback to each other which also compensates for the teacher’s feedback until he gives us his feedback. I learn a lot from friend”. In this statement, on the one hand, the teacher’s feedback would be seen as an important source of evaluation as Maria indicated that she looked forwards to obtaining his feedback after getting her friends’ feedback. On the other hand, she perceived her friends feedback as more detailed and timely feedback which the teacher might not have provided them with as she stated:

some of these strategies compensate what the teacher may not be able to give us like detailed and sometimes timely feedback. We feel interested to know how our writing now immediately after I wrote it. I send it to my friend and asked her to give me the feedback very quickly because I cannot wait.

Maria attributed her achievement to her use of relevant strategies that involved setting personal and writing goals and learning how to achieve these goals. She also relied on her back-up plan to enact remedial work, in case she could not accomplish her intended outcomes.

Sally, like Dian, used only one strategy as a source of self-evaluation, “only compare my mark with the previous one. I know if I did ... well”. There was no other information revealed about other self-evaluation strategies she used or about her causal attribution. Later in the course, Sally used various strategies of self-evaluation. As self-assessment, she appreciated how she could self-assess her writing work, stating, “we can ourselves look at our work and do the evaluation on our own”. Sally, for example, used sheets with a code system to self-evaluate her grammar and vocabulary. She also compared “the previous writings or essays with the current one and [drew] a line or [made] a conclusion about ... progress or weakness”.

In addition to using self-assessment strategies, Sally relied on feedback obtained from her friends as peer-assessment and from her teacher. Sally appreciated the teacher’s better feedback which provided not only comments on accuracy matters, but also comments on her strategies and her audience. Sally reported that thanks to the use of SRL strategies she learnt during the course, she could identify her challenges and overcome them. She stated, “I can figure our challenges that might face me. Now I can set a goal, work on it until I achieve it and I know that I achieved it because I did what”. Sally’s awareness of the causes of her improvement was obvious. She reported that her potential achievement was subordinated to using relevant strategies, including but not limited to self-evaluation strategies. She explained, “when evaluating my writing by myself and my friends, and when I get a low mark, I know it is not for my ability or intelligence but for the time and work I spent on the writing essay”.

Sam believed that the “mark and the feedback” provided by him to his students were the main evaluation tool as his students thought at the beginning of the course. Sam



did not mention any self-evaluation strategies that his students used. Sam thought that his students attributed their low achievement to him as he said, “they blame me in the first place for bad marks. Some of them approach me to understand why they get that level”.

Later in the course, Sam articulated a number of strategies that his students used to evaluate their progress as he stated, “now they have various ways. Their peers, relatives. Model writing and from me of course”. The portfolios that they started for self-observation were used to self-evaluate their progress. Sam thought that many of his students started to develop better awareness about causes of their success and failure. He said, “they know now that they get low mark because they did not put enough in their task”.

#### *Control group*

At the beginning of the course, Haya looked back at an article she wrote two years ago to self-evaluate her progress. She wrote, “I found an article ... I wrote about 2 years before and when I looked at it, it just hit me because there's so many things that I wanted to change”. She also mentioned that she followed specific rules of writing that she “checked up to see whether it's a good piece of writing or not”. Yet, Haya expressed a sense of frustration at the beginning of the course as she did not receive effective feedback from her teacher or friends. Her frustration might be clear in her statement, “I think we have a lot of things to share and look at each other's' papers or work. The teacher does not give us the chance to work together and see how we do”. There was no information provided about Haya's causal attribution regarding her writing performance or progress throughout the course.

Later in the course, Haya's major source of evaluation was the teacher's feedback as he first read her assignments and then put his signature on them. Haya did not display any other information about self-assessment through which she could assess her writing quality or strategies she used during writing her assignments. Haya revealed that by working hard and by practicing writing, she could get better at writing which referred to the causal attribution of her writing performance and progress.

Susan used to compare her written assignments of the last semester with her current ones to self-evaluate her writing quality as she mentioned at the beginning of the course. She wrote, "when I go back to my previous pieces of writing and look that this is wrong, so I really get interest that I improved my writing". In addition to using this strategy, Susan relied on her teacher's feedback that she obtained after writing multiple drafts. She also perceived the mark on exams as an indication of writing improvement, clarifying, "I take high marks in my exams, so I think it is really can be an evidence, strong evidence my writing is something good and excellent". However, there was no disclosed information about why she achieved her certain level of accomplishment. Later in the course, there was not any noticeable changes to Susan's self-evaluation strategies as she continued to use the same strategies she used before. However, she attributed her improvement and getting high marks to hard work and continuous reading of articles and books.

Similar to Susan, Angie compared her previously written assignments with her current ones to self-evaluate her writing quality as she mentioned at the beginning of the course. She stated, "I watch my writing then make a comparison with what I've written before, then I will see that I am in progress". She also used her teacher's feedback as

another evaluation tool. Angie did not provide any information about causal attribution. Similar to Susan, Angie did not enact any changes to her self-evaluation strategies later in the course. In addition to using her teacher's feedback as a tool of evaluation, she continued to make comparison between her previous and current written work. Unfortunately, although Angie was thinking that sharing her written assignments with her brother and colleagues might help as peer-assesses, she could not find this strategy applicable due to their lack of writing proficiency and criteria. Like at the beginning of the course, no information about causal attribution was revealed.

Tamara mentioned at the beginning of the course that she used to review her written assignment to avoid fragments and incorrect structure. Although this strategy could be seen as part of self-evaluation, Tamara did not explain what strategies she used or how she accomplished the review of her assignments. In addition to self-reviewing her assignments, she shared her written texts with her colleagues for feedback. As a result, she felt she did a great job. Although Tamara was looking for the teacher's signature on her assignments, she did not mention his feedback as a source of evaluation. Tamara did not show any indication of causal attribution regarding her writing performance or strategies.

Later in the course, although Tamara did not articulate or state that she continued to self-review her written work, she emphasized the role of peer-assessment as a source of evaluation. She mentioned that she could obtain feedback from her sister and her colleagues. She said, "to show my sister. My sister studied English literature, the same as me and she finished. So, when I finish writing ... I get her to see and read my writing ... she tells me your writing is good". When she shared her assignments with her colleagues,

she thought, “working with others like my colleagues is a good makeup” for the teacher’s feedback who could not give detailed feedback for each student due to shortage of time. Nevertheless, Tamara was concerned about the quality of the feedback her colleagues’ might provide. As such, Tamara was interested in the teacher’s feedback as she could obtain comments on structure, types of sentences, and relevance of ideas. Like at the beginning of the course, Tamara did not show any indication of causal attribution regarding her writing performance or strategies

Adam believed that his students used his “judgment or evaluation of their essays” as the main evaluation of their progress at the beginning of the course. Adam did not provide any information about self-evaluation strategies that his students used. He believed that not all of his students understood the causes of their low achievement as some of them blamed teachers for such low achievement while others thought they had low abilities. Adam explained, “low students think we teachers do not do enough .... They keep blaming us for low achievement. Some of them have beliefs that they are of low ability to do better than this maybe because of their internal abilities”. However, Adam mentioned that other students believed that they gained high achievement “by their hard work and study and their intelligence”.

Later in the course, Adam believed that his students continued to depend on him as “the biggest source of assessment”. He mentioned that he marked their papers and gave them comments and marks which they used to evaluate their progress. Adam did not address any self-evaluation strategies that his students used. He thought that his students attributed their good achievement to “more exposure to readings and assignments and by harder study”.

### *Self-Reaction*

Self-reaction is the second key category of self-reflection with two forms: self-satisfaction and adaptive/defensive decisions. Self-satisfaction refers to “cognitive and affective reactions to one’s self-judgement” (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p. 304). Self-reaction incorporates adaptive decisions as “students’ willingness to engage in further cycles of learning by continuing their use of strategy or by modifying it ... By contrast, defensive decisions avoid further efforts to learn in order to shield a student from future dissatisfaction and aversive affect” (p. 304).

### *Experimental group*

At the beginning of the course, Sarah reported that she was somewhat satisfied with her writing performance and strategies. Although there is a close association between causal attribution and self-satisfaction (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994), this association was confused in Sarah’s case. On the one hand, she attributed her satisfaction to her strategies of self-observation and self-control which helped her to stay focused. On the other hand, she attributed her failure to her ability, “I feel frustrated when I fail, and sometimes I say this is my ability to write. When I say this, I know that I’m frustrated”. One of the adaptive and defensive decisions that Sarah planned to modify was related to her writing draft strategy. This would involve writing multiple drafts in the future, instead of writing only one draft. She clarified, “I have to write the writing assignment more than one time. I don’t know why we used to write just the first draft, and to show it to our teacher. Unfortunately, our teachers accept this behavior”.

Later in the course, Sarah expressed solid satisfaction with her performance. She explained that one cause of her satisfaction was the use of the SRL approach through

which the teacher facilitated several learning activities to make a proactive learner. That new experience created new writing knowledge, writing approach, and SRL strategy use. Thus, it helped her to be specific and direct which eventually enabled her to write more effectively. She also attributed her satisfaction to her new awareness of causes of her achievement by noticing, observing, and evaluation her work. Sarah improved her writing draft strategy which she mentioned at the beginning of the course as part of her adaptive/defensive decisions. She wrote more than a first draft as she stated, “then, I check my mistakes and write the second draft”. She also had emergent adaptive decisions to add more supportive details to her essays.

Dian articulated at the beginning of the course that she got satisfied with her good marks which she attained by studying and preparation for exams and assignments. Dina was not very clear on adaptive or defensive decisions she might take in future assignments when she answered a question about her future work. She looked uncertain when she answered, “I do not know. I think grammar is required. More accurate use of vocabulary is also important”. It was not clear what thoughts or actions could be initiated for future performance.

Like Sarah, Dian’s self-satisfaction increased dramatically as she captured several benefits during the writing course, thanks to the SRL approach. Dian stated:

The self-confidence you get over time as you make progress in writing and the way you address writing .... I feel like I can write even for myself. Working on your own makes you feel you are efficient and can finish the job without much help from others.

Dian explained clearly the cause of her self-satisfaction by stating, “if you know how to do your work, you will have better results if you do not you will not. I think with hard work and relevant work you get what you planned for”. Unlike at the beginning of the course when Dian focused solely on marks, she seemed to demonstrate better understanding about what caused success and failure, thus she could construct relevant strategies to accomplish success. Moreover, she backed this accomplished success by her adaptive decision to consolidate her self-evaluation strategies through which she could obtain more self-feedback and peer-feedback on her future assignments.

Unlike Sarah and Dian, Maria, at the beginning of the course, expressed clear dissatisfaction with her performance because she realized she wanted to improve her performance and increase her good work. Maria seemed to be confused about why she felt dissatisfied. On the one hand, she referred to the teacher’s methods of teaching as the main cause of her dissatisfaction as she stated, “the way or the teaching methods he used were not pleasant to us. Boredom was the voice in the classroom. The teacher did not use modern techniques to make students feel happy and enjoying the writing course”. On the other hand, she was uncertain about who caused this dissatisfaction by stating, “I wonder if we are the cause of these problems or the teachers who are responsible for our learning and who should have the capacity to fix or make the things work”. Like Dian, Maria planned to incorporate “more accuracy and fluency of the writing piece”, but it was not obvious what adaptive or defensive strategies she was planning to use.

Later in the course, Maria clearly expressed her satisfaction with her performance. She obtained that good satisfaction because she became an independent learner and relied on herself. Similar to Sarah and Dian, Maria realized that she gained various benefits

during the writing course by taking advantage of the SRL approach. Maria described the good results of the SRL approach by stating, “my writing achievement is much better now in terms of organization, content, coherence and cohesion, and delivering a message”. Maria’s satisfaction with her performance would not have occurred without “hard working, teacher’s support, peer collaboration, ... personal goals and planning followed by the right implementation”. Her satisfaction was also attributed to her feeling of being safe when she said, “I also feel that I am safe when I do not [achieve] my proposed [goals] because I have a backup plan to do better next time”. Maria’s backup plan indicated that she would make adaptive decisions if she did not get her intended outcomes. Moreover, for future betterment, Maria indicated that she would want to write for a realistic purpose due to lack of authentic audience and do more writing practice.

Like Dian, Sally’s satisfaction was subordinated to getting a high mark as she mentioned at the beginning of the course, “If the mark is good, then yes, I’ll feel happy”. Sally attributed any potential satisfaction to getting good marks which she could obtain by memorizing a lot of words and grammatical rules and by reading a lot. Her adaptive decisions included spending more time on vocabulary, grammar, and writing practice.

Later in the course, Sally expressed her strong satisfaction with her performance because she could get what she wanted. She explained, “as I said you took what you want ‘the mark’. You improved your writing. You are better than a lot of other students. And I think something good is that you can depend on yourself to do the things”. Like Sarah, Dian, and Maria, Sally also attributed her satisfaction to learning new SRL strategy. Sally’s newly learnt SRL strategies enabled her to evaluate her strategies which she planned and used during the writing process. She appreciated the importance of making



adaptive decisions as she stated, “if one of them did not work well for your goal, then you have to change it. Like, how can you know that what you are doing is correct?”. As part of her adaptive decisions, she planned to spend more free time on practicing writing to help her to effectively “plan, compose and review”.

Sam, at the beginning of the course, mentioned that his students’ satisfaction was dependent on their achievement as “they mostly look at the mark they get. If it is good, then they can be satisfied, otherwise no”. The students asked Sam to use more writing models, “slow down in the course, [and] give more detailed feedback”. Later in the course, Sam emphasized that his students felt satisfied as they could “get feedback and understand their weakness and strength”. The students admired Sam’s techniques and strategies. Sam explained, “they say they are new and different. They even like my way of giving them more freedom of selection of topics, strategies, and peers”. However, the students recommended that Sam should make use of more technology, real audience, and more individualized work.

#### *Control group*

Although, at the beginning of the course, Haya expressed her satisfaction with her performance, she felt frustrated about obtaining effective feedback and how her papers and assignments were evaluated. Yet, she mentioned that she obtained her satisfaction by just looking at her piece of writing and thinking it was good because she simply followed certain rules. As part of the adaptive strategies she might take in the future, Haya assumed that she needed to figure out the best ways to introduce her ideas appropriately in future assignments. Later in the course, Haya mentioned that she felt satisfied with her performance as she obtained better feedback from the teacher which helped her to be

clear on her writing even though that feedback was still insufficient. Haya did not seem to display clearly any adaptive or defensive decisions for future assignments except by following the teacher's instruction which could be inferred in this statement, "I have to follow the tips, the rules that our teacher gave us".

Like Haya, Susan reported that she was satisfied with her performance because she liked her way of writing even though she did not get her intended level of performance. As part of her adaptive decisions, Susan displayed strong determination to continue what she was doing as not to "stop writing and not to stop reading because the key for a good writing is to be a good reader".

Susan continued to be satisfied with her performance during the course despite her feeling that such satisfaction did not fulfill her desire because she wanted to get a higher level of performance. Nevertheless, she expressed her satisfaction with what she described as the many new things she learnt about academic writing which helped her to improve her writing. She said, "I am satisfied because I think that I notice the improvement in my writing. What I was writing before and what I am writing today is completely different. And yes, there is improvement. So, this satisfies me". For adaptive strategies, as Susan felt that she struggled with writing types of sentences and writing organization issues, she planned to search for more information to understand these issues.

At the beginning of the course, Angie felt self-satisfied because she could "see development in [her] writing". However, she reported that she still needed more development to get her target satisfaction. Nevertheless, she associated her satisfaction with the mark, stating, "I feel relaxed when I take a good mark but I feel frustrated when

I get a low mark”. Her adaptive decisions involved doing more reading and writing in accordance with her teacher’s feedback. Later in the course, Angie held cautious level of satisfaction with her performance as she became better at writing than at the beginning of the course. However, she thought she still needed to do more work. She explained, “satisfied but not that satisfaction. Because I need more, a lot of practicing, still need a lot of practicing”. For adaptive strategies, Angie continued to do what she planned at the beginning of the course that involved doing more reading and writing in accordance with her teacher’s feedback on grammatical rules, organization, coherence, and cohesion. Moreover, she planned to obtain feedback from friends who might be capable enough to give such relevant feedback.

Tamara expressed her self-satisfaction at the beginning of the course as she reported that her self-satisfaction emerged from the hard job she did which involved reading a lot and gaining a lot of information. Doing such a hard job was driven by her desire to write. There was no clear information disclosed about her planned adaptive or defensive decisions as she commented ambiguously on this issue, “maybe, if there is a lot of information, or some like irrelevant sentences in my writing next time I will rewrite it better way”. Unlike Haya, Susan, and Angie, Tamara changed her mind about her self-satisfaction later in the course. She said, “I feel like not very much satisfied. I really need to be improved more”. She attributed her dissatisfaction with her performance to stress and pressure she had at exam times which made her think that she could not write well. Like at the beginning of the course, Tamara did not have a clear idea about her adaptive or defensive decisions. She explained broadly that reading before writing would be a good choice as an adaptive decision.

At the beginning of the course, Adam described his students' satisfaction according to their achievement which determined their self-satisfaction. Adam explained that "good achievers feel satisfied while the low achievers feel unsatisfied". Adam revealed that the students recommended that he should spend more time on explaining writing elements and provide previous writing samples to follow. Instead of writing on topics required in the textbook which did not relate to their interest, the students desired to select and write on topics related to their real life. They also asked for more detailed comments on their papers. Later in the course, Adam felt that his students' satisfaction increased due to their improvement over the course. Adam explained, "I think their satisfaction level increased by the increase of their performance and marks". Adam, posited that his students continued to ask for more explanation time and helpful feedback. Adam also mentioned that they liked if the teacher used PowerPoint slides.

#### **4.2.3 Themes**

Analyzing the participants' discourse about SRL instruction provided an essential source of insight that helped me to construct related themes that emerged from the participants' experiences in the SRL context. Data analysis revealed five major themes that emerged from the interviews, diary studies, and observation. The emergent themes illustrated below depended on the participants' reported beliefs and perceptions manifested in the interviews and diary studies which captured covert cognitive, motivational, and emotional processes. Observing the classrooms played a supportive role in capturing overt behavioral and environmental processes.

As previously mentioned in Chapter Three, generating themes involved using an inductive approach of coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The inductive data-driven coding

was used to identify units of discourse and codes relevant to L2 writing and SRL strategy use. By employing the integrative coding approach, several subthemes were identified based on frequency, overlapping of words, and relevance to the context. By making connection, classifying, and grouping the emergent subthemes, I could generate the five themes discussed below. These themes are: shared responsibility, rapport, agency, learning potential, and dealing with resources.

#### **4.2.3.1 Shared Responsibility**

Shared responsibility between the teacher and the students was manifested through the distributed roles that both of them undertook during SRL instruction. The participants mentioned that they had different experiences regarding the roles they and their teacher assumed when they received SRL instruction. Dian made clear the difference between SRL instruction and the regular instruction she received earlier, “the teacher’s way of teaching changes completely from a teacher giving everything and students receiving everything to a teacher making use of many things we have.” Maria extended this perspective to the participants’ role as she reported, “we felt that we are not only listeners and receivers of knowledge but we are producers to our learning. We are active not passive”.

Distributed roles were captured by Sally as she stated, “he is not doing all the work. He has made us do most of the work by giving us the directions we need; he demonstrated things, did one example with us, and helped us to start the process”. Sarah also complimented the teacher’s role and her role in the classroom as she wrote, “I can say that I’m not just a listener in my class, but am an active student and I love to participate in every class. I, now, I interact with my teachers and students in discussions”.

Sam assume that teaching the students SRL strategies helped them construct their own learning. He said, “I used to give them a variety of strategies and taught them to select the relevant one to the right task. Later, I think they could develop their own strategies”.

The observed roles of the teacher and the students in the classroom were interdependent with the bases of SRL instruction in which it created more space for the participants to undertake an active role. This interdependency was illustrated through the participants’ perception of the new experience of SRL instruction. For example, Sally perceived her role within the SRL approach of teaching writing as follows, “when we learn, we should be part of our learning, asking questions, answering questions, asked for our opinions, getting our writing valued”.

The shared responsibility was also manifested through the students involvement in the classroom that was boosted when the participants received SRL instruction. Classroom involvement took several aspects that the participants underwent. For example, Sarah described the teacher’s use of teaching activities that motivated the students to participate in the class, “although [it] was amazing, at the beginning, they didn’t participate well with it. Maybe they were not used to this kind of activity. But later in the term, they were more involved, maybe, they loved it. Dian also expressed a similar perspective:

The teacher then gave us a sheet in which it included questions related to writing .... Then he asked us to work in pairs or groups ... in order to share our answers.... He became asking questions to make discussion about the day’s lesson and topic.

Maria also clarified how the interaction was taking place in the classroom as she reported, “in most of the activities, we talked to other students whether in pairs or groups to answer questions and to do the exercise in the book or even when the teacher asks external questions. This technique is really helpful”.

The participants could gain academic and non-academic benefits out of the classroom involvement. For example, for Sarah, interaction “built a good atmosphere for friendships. Second, it improved the conversation skills. It helped... to accept other criticisms. Also, the activity helps ... to discover ... mistakes”. More benefits such as exchange of experience, feedback, and self-confidence were captured by Dian:

Working together is one of the best things the teacher is doing in the class because in this way we exchanged opinions, check for each other's mistakes, feel more safe when answering a question or an item in the exercise... [he] encourages the students to interact with what they know.

Maria also described the benefits she obtained through interaction as boredom relief, peer-learning, and activating prior knowledge. She reported, “first we do not get bored in the class... second, we learn from each other, we compare our answers or work, third, we feel that we have a lot of things and now we are making them work”. Like Sarah and Maria, Sally believed that she gained positive benefits out of interaction:

I feel now that I have to do a lot when I write and to engage myself in the work with motivation and excitement.... The most thing I like is when the teacher asks us to find a partner to share our writings with. I feel excited and wait to read or hear from my partner about my writing.... I can feel

that the class is more friendly now when every student is asking a question or answering a question or reading out her written assignment.

#### **4.2.3.2 Rapport**

Teacher-student rapport was part of the students' perception of good learning in the classroom. As both the teacher and the students spent a relatively long time during the teaching and learning process, teacher-student rapport can be done when the teacher assesses and delivers the curriculum (McLaughlin & Talber, 2001). In related studies, teachers emphasized that academic matters alongside with a culture of caring promote optimal learning (Shann, 1999).

During the SRL intervention, Sarah valued the teacher's efforts of creating a good atmosphere of friendship in the classroom when he designed and administered activities to be done in pairs or groups, "it was the first time we interacted with my classmates. So, it built a good atmosphere for friendships". Sarah developed this recognition of the relationship after she encountered a different experience with some teachers who did not recognize the students' errors. Without trust and respect, relationship could not be developed. Such relationship takes a fluid and constantly evolving manner to develop (McLaughlin & Talber, 2001). Sarah added, "what is more important about this new approach is the teachers' openness, flexibility, and responsiveness. The teacher is dealing with a completely different manner. We could notice that the teacher is caring about our learning authentically not by just talk".

Dian voiced a similar opinion about the social relationship and atmosphere created in the classroom and how the distance among them was shortened during SRL instruction:



Writing in this class is also amazing because of the friendly atmosphere the teacher created. He welcomes any questions, deals positively with mistakes and never punishes for them, moves around the class to provide help when working on activities, encourages the students to interact with what they know, and has a shorter distance between us than we used to have in other classes.

This favored situation was absent when Dian received regular instruction during past experiences, “the interaction between the teacher-students and students-students is badly limited. The involvement of the students is very little.... There was a real distance between us and the teacher with his authority very high in the classroom”. Maria also captured this positive atmosphere in SRL instruction as she could combine following the teacher’s rules and creating novice things related to her learning. She stated, “we feel even that the distance between us and the teacher is shortened. This gives us the feeling that while we follow the rules, we can also come up with new things and the teacher praises our innovation”.

Not different from Sarah, Dian, and Maria, Sally admired the way the teacher was acting during SRL instruction as he undertook multiple roles in the classroom, “the teacher is speaking (explaining, lecturing) but listening to us. He facilitates; he orchestrates, he demonstrates, he works as a social counterpart; he gives feedback”. She also grasped how the teacher changed his manner of reaction to the students’ learning and errors:

I can feel that the class is more friendly now when every student is asking a question or answering a question or reading out her written assignment. I

found the teacher encouraging us that errors are not a bad indication of weakness; it is a good sign of learning. We felt like we won't be laughed at when we read something or answer a question wrong.

#### **4.2.3.3 Agency**

As discussed earlier in Chapter Two, agency “refers to acts done intentionally” (Bandura, 2001, p. 6) and can be enacted by employing processes of planning, controlling, and reflecting upon one's actions which are considered key processes of SRL (Bandura, 1986). Learners play an essential role in their learning as agents who “actively engage in constructing the terms and conditions of their own learning” (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001, p. 145). The participants showed discrepancies in their experiences and perspectives about practicing agency during their learning which affected their learning potential as one group received SRL instruction while the other received regular instruction. The participants perceived their agentic learning roles more positively when they received SRL instruction. Sarah noticed a difference in the way the teacher dealt with the students.

Drawing on the planning and controlling elements of agency, which Bandura emphasized (1986), Sarah enjoyed a good opportunity to develop and use learning strategies upon her interest to achieve her goals without feeling enforced to do so. She mentioned that the teacher “always said that following these strategies will help [them] achieve [their] goals... and nobody can enforce [them] to do them .... The teacher gave [them] more flexibility to choose topics to write about”. Reflecting upon her actions (Bandura, 1896), Sarah used her self-planned outlines to inform and evaluate her progress, “I put the outline, and I start to write a good topic sentence and the rest of the

paragraph. Then, I check my mistakes and write the second draft. After that, I get in the process of giving feedback”.

Similar to Sarah’s experience, Dian also valued planning her writing work, taking control of choice, and reflecting on her progress and actions:

I can plan before starting my writing, I can write and compose according to my planning, and finally, I can evaluate my own writing by myself.... When you plan for the task before you write, it means that you could measure the extent of success ... as you planned and according to the goal you drew for yourself.

Moreover, Dian’s practice of controlling her learning was clear in this statement, “with the teacher’s guidance, freedom to choose the topic, and primary discussion about it, I feel like I am writing not only for the mark .... I have my own choice of ideas to be flowed into the paper”.

Maria felt more motivated and interested in the writing course as she could celebrate an agentic learning role represented by her ability to plan and control her learning. She explained, “if you have a goal and learnt how to achieve it then you will achieve it... I can use good and relevant strategies”. She rejoiced the “space that the teacher gave to use through discussion, asking and answering questions, and free selection of topics”. Undertaking relevant responsibilities of learning was captured by Maria’s self-reflection on her pursued work, “I can now tell out of these strategies that I am moving, but what is more important is that I know that I am moving”. She also created back-up plans to do remedial work to complete unaccomplished goals.

Like Sarah, Dian, and Maria, Sally rejoiced the agentic role she could take manifested in the independency she could achieve as she took responsibility of her own learning, selected her own topics, and chose her audience. She explained, “I think something good is that you can depend on yourself to do the things.... You can write whatever you want, and nobody like, will interrupt your thinking.... I can write on what I want”. Sally’s reflection on her planned and implemented itinerary was obviously established in her statement, “I can figure our challenges that might face me. Now I can set a goal, work on it until I achieve it and I know that I achieved it because I did what”.

Sam described how the students felt impressed when they started to learn new SRL strategies and decided to use them which, according to Sam, helped them make a difference in their writing. Sam stated, “as they started to learn and use new strategies and these strategies made a difference in their writing they got impressed and decided to use them”.

#### **4.2.3.4 Learning Potentials**

As the theme of learning potentials occurred frequently in the data and featured meaningful insights related to the participants’ learning experiences, I found it crucial to display this theme out of their shared or diverse perceptions about the instruction they encountered. It was obvious throughout the data analysis that there were unique experiences related to what the learners could develop and gain out of the instruction given in the SRL learning context. The participants who received SRL instruction explained several learning benefits and outcomes out of what they perceived as effective instruction during the SRL intervention. Their perceived recognition of the SRL effectiveness stemmed from their observation that they could develop better writing

competence and performance, writing approach, and SRL strategy use than before. The findings revealed three subcategories that emerged as indications of the learning potentials during the participants' experiences with SRL instruction: informed learning, development of learning practices and academic accomplishment.

### *Informed learning*

Informed learning was a key element that the participants emphasized by highlighting the evolution of their self-awareness during SRL instruction. The participants' mentioned that they started to notice and pay attention to their learning when the teacher introduced the SRL approach to writing. The teacher's employment of several teaching methods and activities helped the participants to create and increase their self-awareness as the participants reported. The participants learnt, through that instruction, that they would partake in their own learning; improve their writing knowledge, skills, and quality; enable them to write for a purpose; and improve their SRL strategy use. The participants felt that they did not learn or know about those information and strategies before. Afterwards, they realized that they started to develop their own self-awareness out of the new experience. Such self-awareness motivated them to change their perspectives about writing and to inform their learning process. That change of perspective, in turn, helped them to promote their motivation and interest in developing their writing. Their self-awareness contributed to regulate their learning by promoting their writing knowledge and constructing relevant strategies to plan, compose, and review their writing as part of their learning practices that eventually enabled them to improve their academic writing.

The participants reported that they could develop a good sense of awareness that helped them to form a positive perspective about their learning. For example, Sally's admiration of the new experience with SRL instruction was heightened by the metacognitive knowledge she learnt and implemented during the new learning experience which she did not know before:

I find it surprising that we did not have the chance to know this before this experiment.... Nobody told us this and I did not read it in the books which I read.... But now, I know what to do and why should it be done this way and I can figure our challenges that might face me.... All of this makes me change my opinion about writing which I did not feel myself like it before.

Like Sally, Sarah felt happy with her discovery about herself and what she could do. She attributed that development to learning "how to learn" techniques during SRL instruction that she did not know before. She clarified, "the teacher started to add new techniques, which I didn't know about... I felt happy because I know myself well.... I could now know that I am clever.... I can know my writing quality or performance by myself".

Dian also recognized the importance of discovering herself that enhanced her self-efficacy, motivation, and entitlement to be a good writer. She wrote, "the overview provoked my awareness and emphasized that everyone can write appropriately. I think we knew very little about this... After the class of the overview, at home, I thought back about what was said". Maria expressed her excitement that she could develop a good sense of awareness that helped her start and finish a writing task appropriately with a clear idea about her progress. She wrote, "I am so happy that things changed.... We

started to know how we should start and finish an assignment.... I know and I start setting a good goal for [the writing] task”.

Informed learning was also manifested through the participants’ judgment of their success and failure. Thus, it protected them from running into learning apprehension and frustration. Sarah explained how self-awareness enabled her to change her perspective about the causes of her failure by attributing failure to lack or irrelevant use of strategies rather than to her intelligence. She explained, “this weakness is not because you have low intelligence level but because... you did not select the correct strategy to organize your writing... in the past I thought when I get a low mark that I am not intelligent”

Like Sarah, Dian described her competence of self-judging her progress as a result of becoming an informed learner who acted upon relevant knowledge. She stated, “I can now know how my writing looks like, why it deserves this or that mark and how to fix the things. I even could tell why I did this achievement ... but not to my only intelligence”. Sally reported that informed learning was also conducive to identifying her goals, motivation to achieve them, use of relevant strategies, and evaluation of her performance. She explained, “now I think I can know to [stay] motivated and sure about my writing by the goals, relevant strategies we use, monitoring myself and writing, when evaluating my writing by myself and my friends”

Informed learning, amplified by SRL instruction, had also a crucial influence on the participants’ understanding and conceptualization of writing as they explained below. They believed that the newly developed self-awareness helped them develop better writing knowledge and more comprehensive conception about writing than within regular instruction. The new conception, they thought, boosted their motivation and interest in

writing. For example, Maria illustrated her new perception about the core of writing which emphasized not only the mark, but also the social communication, knowledge dissemination, personal comfort, and potential for life success:

I started to be interested when I understood the real essence of it rather than just the mark.... What also motivates me is how the teacher involved us in valuing writing as an assisting tool of surviving at the university level and maybe in the future in the marketplace. These benefits give us a push to do better and write better.

Sally described her new understanding of writing as not only grammar and vocabulary, but also as a social practice. She explained, “It is not only grammar and vocabulary... writing was a lot more ... we write because we want to achieve something through writing; writing is indeed a social practice... writing is also accuracy and fluency”.

A similar conception was established by Dian whose self-awareness enabled her to perceive writing “not only... from a language perspective, but also from a social perspective”. Dian embodied that understanding by employing self-questioning about the purpose and audience of her written texts:

I think I can understand the process of writing more than in the past by asking myself some questions about why we write and if there is a person will read our writing. Also, I am confident that by writing we can achieve many purposes in life which give me more fuel to improve writing as a tool.

Sam cited how his students had better self-awareness which he thought enhanced informing their learning. He thought that his teaching of SRL strategies to his students helped them “understand why they are in the class and what they are



doing.... What is more remarkable is that they can arrange for their learning, they know how to produce good writing”. Sam was confident that SRL instruction helped his students “develop their own strategies... they are having a good and satisfactory repertoire of different strategies to use when they write”.

*Development of learning practices*

The positive cognitive, motivational, and affective perspectives that the participants developed toward writing enabled them to develop better learning practices that helped them to improve their writing. These learning practices were appreciated by the participants who made use of them to improve their approach of writing, and consequently their writing performance. Sarah elaborated on how SRL instruction helped her to master the writing skills, "by some activities which were given by, I can feel that I can master and practice the writing skills better. So, these activities as I mentioned help me to master the skills”.

Like Sarah, Dian explained how she could make advantage of the learning strategies she learnt during the SRL intervention to develop her approach of writing as she explained, “we studied how to make use of some strategies that aim to make us good writers.... I can select and use these strategies by myself and know which ones are better for me and for the writing assignment”. Maria Also expressed her comfort with understanding the essence of writing that assisted her to develop a set of strategies required for accomplishing writing appropriately:

We felt comfortable that we have a plenty of strategies to use in writing....

I can use good and relevant strategies.... Mastering the art of writing in

terms of strategies I use, product I finish and joy I find makes me feel interested.

The participants' perceptions of development of their learning practices incorporated the development of key writing processes such as planning, composing, and reviewing. Dian's explained, "I can write accurately and fluently because I can plan before starting my writing, I can write and compose according to my planning, and finally, I can evaluate my own writing by myself or exchange with a student". Sally also clarified how she developed a framework of accomplishing a writing task by means of planning, composing, and reviewing, She wrote, "now I can plan... put them in a list, then I choose from that list what is good for my writing.... After planning, I can now write, based on, according to my plan and then do the revision... many times". Like Dian and Sally, Maria made connection between the improvement of her writing skills and her use of relevant writing processes, "my writing skills is better because I can draw an outline for the essay before I write. We learnt how to plan, how to write and how to review".

#### *Academic development*

The participants indicated that SRL instruction assisted them to develop higher levels of writing scores. They also mentioned that their writing development included writing grammatically correct sentences with better repertoire of vocabulary which manifested development of their linguistic competence. For example, Maria described her development of the linguistic competence as follows, "my linguistic store has increased a lot. Now I could use more vocabulary than before. I could write a good sentence with correct grammar and connectors". Sarah also explained the enrichment of her grammar

and vocabulary which enabled her to write better, “now I can overcome the problems in grammatical mistakes, and I mentioned the limitation of vocabulary. Now I have a group of vocabulary which can help me to write better”. Like Maria and Sarah, Dian articulated her ability to produce correct sentences with relevant vocabulary, “now we could know how to use the relevant words in the text and how to use the correct grammar to make good sentences and paragraphs”.

The participants did not only write grammatically correct sentences with relevant vocabulary, but also developed tools to evaluate their linguistic usage. For example, Sally articulated her ability to evaluate grammar and vocabulary, “now you can know if your grammar is correct, if your vocabulary is relevant”. The participants mastered using certain strategies to learn, observe, and evaluate their linguistic elements and written products. For instance, Dian developed and used sheets “with code for grammatical, punctuation, and spelling or vocabulary items to use when learning or checking language-related products”. Maria also clarified some of the strategies she used, “I think now I can find other resources to learn new vocabulary, grammar and about writing too.... Like organize my vocabulary and grammar learning. I use checklists, special notebook for important language items”.

The participants could also produce more organized, coherent, and cohesive essays with sufficient content and clear messages. Maria expressed a sense of self-concept because of her better achievement and her developed skills to evaluate her writing quality, “my writing achievement is much better now in terms of organization, content, coherence and cohesion, and delivering a message”. She also revealed that she

used rubric-based sheets to evaluate her work as she stated, “to help us check our grammar and vocabulary, to check the unity, coherence and cohesion of the essay”. Dian went beyond accomplishing her writing with relevant grammar, vocabulary, organization, coherence, cohesion, and clear message as she could use tools to assess the components of her writing. She illustrated how she used what she learnt from her teacher to assess these components, “when I finish writing or composing, I use the sheets the teacher gave us to assess my writing. I look at the grammar, vocabulary relevancy, organization, coherence, content...etc. I check my writing against these and correct if necessary”.

Sally revealed that she felt happy that she could achieve her goals to get higher marks and to write better, “I am very happy because I get higher marks now and I can write better”. Sarah also expressed her satisfaction with the teacher’s activities in the classroom because they enabled her to gain several academic benefits. One of these activities helped her to improve her conversational skills which Sarah believed as essential to improve her writing quality. She stated, “I think that was a successful activity because it achieved several goals. One of them, ... it improved the conversation skills... because I feel that writing skills is based on speaking”.

#### **4.2.3.5 Dealing with Resources**

One of the persistent themes that the findings of the study revealed was related to the resources that both the students and the teacher enjoyed or lacked. Although the participants acknowledged benefiting from some resources available in their learning context, they also complained about lacking other basic resources. The teacher also lacked essential resources. The lack or scarcity of those resources represented remarkable

challenges that the participants faced in the writing course whether before or during the SRL intervention. The findings displayed five subcategories related to the availability or scarcity of resources during the study: time, individualized support, authentic learning, technology, and feedback.

### *Time*

The time factor was an essential element that the participants encountered as a promising, but in the same time, as a challenging experience. On the one hand, they could manage their time after they learnt strategies of time management to self-control their writing and to avoid procrastination. Part of her planning and performing strategies, Dian managed her time as she stated, “I can manage my time to avoid procrastination”. Like Dian, Sarah had a similar experience with planning her time to write, “now I can decide the place and the time of writing”. Maria also elaborated on her new strategies of managing her time to avoid procrastination and to observe her learning time, “I am managing my time instead of just leaving it to the chance and until the last two days.... I created a tally sheet and checklist to make sure I am using... appropriate and enough time to finish my assignment”.

On the other hand, the participants indicated that time represented a challenge when they had to finish their assignments. Maria expressed her frustration with the short time given to finish so many assignments, “I think the time is still a problem because we are overwhelmed with a lot of other subjects and assignments. The teacher is also busy and does not have much time to look longer at our papers”. Dian attributed the reasons of facing time-related challenges to the overloaded course, “we do not have enough time with him to ask questions.... He can’t play with the time because the course is crowded”.

Sally also required more time to practice free writing that would help to improve her writing, “it might be more and free time spent on practicing writing that can make me handle and control writing in a stronger way”.

#### *Individualized support*

The participants expressed their discomfort with the lack of one-on-one support whether in the class or within the university facilities. For example, Sally lacked the opportunity to get one-on-one support from her teacher due to the large size class. She explained, “I think more one-on-one work on the students is also needed because sometimes my challenge is different from another students’ challenge. The teacher has office hours but this is not enough for a big size class with many students”.

#### *Authentic learning*

Although some participants indicated that the teacher facilitated their learning by creating authentic learning context, they believed they still needed more authenticity to boost interest, motivation, and real purpose to practice writing. On the one hand, Maria reported that she did not have a chance to learn within an authentic learning context, “we do not have much authentic opportunities to write for a real audience”. She recommended that the teacher could help to create authentic and realistic writing environment which is essential for her learning. On the other hand, they considered the authentic learning context which the teacher created in the class as encouraging. Sarah wrote, “he brings to the class authentic writing material that connects us with our life.... These topics are more appealing to us than what is in the textbook. And we were encouraged to write.... about our personal suffering and hopes”.

Dian also complimented how the teacher could bring life and authenticity in the classroom by making use of partnership with other students:

The teacher also told us that any student in the class can be your reader who will tell you about your writing.... The teacher told us that we can agree on the topic we want to write about just to make the writing real and authentic and with real purpose. This also a good technique that I liked because I wanted to practice writing as if I was in a real situation.

The above statements showed that Dian transformed her conception of writing to include not only a writer-oriented perspective, but also a reader-oriented perspective which created a sense of real-life practice.

Maria also had similar development when she realized the importance of having her voice heard by a reader as she stated, “because there is a reader who reads my essay. When my friend reads my essay and tells me what she thinks I feel that someone hears my voice”. Like Dian and Maria, Sally became interested in addressing her readers by answering a question like, “do you think your reader can understand this point?”.

### *Technology*

The participants revealed that they did not enjoy a chance to use technology during the SRL intervention due to lack of technological resources such as the computer, the internet, LCD projectors, and other resources. Sally expressed her need to use technology because it could help her to look at other writers’ experiences, “what we still need to do is using the technology in teaching because the internet can show a lot of writing samples, steps and strategies, and can show us great writers’ experience so that we learn from them”. For more attractive and engaging class, Sarah recommended that

her teacher should incorporate technology in the teaching, “if [the teacher] enters using the Power Point Program. I think it would be attractive more”. Dian also recommended that although the teacher should not be blamed for the lack of those resources, he could give them “internet websites or links which are relevant to our writing progress”. Maria had a similar recommendation for the teacher to “make use of internet resources” to make up the lack of resources as he “does not have resources outside the classroom. His time is limited and the learning resources are also little”.

### *Feedback*

The participants exhibited significant attention to feedback as they encountered different experiences when they dealt with it. It was obvious that the participants could experience better quantity and quality of feedback when they received SRL instruction. For example, Sally could notice the difference in obtaining feedback between previous experiences and during SRL instruction as she clarified, “the teacher is giving more feedback now.... Even the feedback is different when he did not only focus on the accuracy matters but he comments on the strategies we used when we wrote this assignment”. In addition to obtaining more and better feedback, Sally could also develop strategies for obtaining feedback from several sources which enabled her to overcome some of her writing challenges and to evaluate her prospective accomplishment:

First, I can now assess my writing by myself.... Now you can know if your grammar is correct, if your vocabulary is relevant or if it is organized in the essay. Second. I can give it to my friend whose her first language is English. And finally, the teacher’s mark is the crucial element.



In previous experiences, Dian did not feel comfortable when she had no idea about her writing quality or improvement as her teachers did not give “real feedback because it happened on the spot within very short time and he had to do this with the big number of the students in the classroom”. Dian realized that feedback was, “the basic of the writing improvement; without feedback... students will be lost and not focused”. During SRL instruction, Dian appreciated the mastery of using several sources of feedback within SRL instruction instead of relying only on the teacher’s feedback in previous experiences which involved signing their homework. Dian’s new strategy of obtaining feedback included self-assessment, peer-feedback and teacher feedback:

When I finish writing or composing, I use the sheets the teacher gave us to assess my writing. I look at the grammar, vocabulary relevancy, organization, coherence, content...etc. I check my writing against these and correct if necessary. Then I give my paper to a colleague to read before I submit it to the teacher. I take her feedback, read it, and see if I agree or no.

Like Dian, Sarah, before SRL, used to obtain feedback only from the teacher who did not give an “obvious feedback. He just puts his signature on [her] assignment... the student feels frustrated because there is no feedback”. However, during SRL instruction, Sarah could develop a considerable experience with feedback related to her capability of obtaining it from several sources, “feedback from teacher, feedback from friends, and feedback from the assignment sheet”. Sarah not only received feedback from the teacher, but also developed new strategies of obtaining feedback from other sources as she explained, “my teacher taught us several ways for doing a self-feedback before we submit

it... It could be by sharing my assignment with my classmate, by asking my teacher and any expert one in this field, or alone”.

Like Sarah and Dian, Maria felt proud that she learnt many ways of obtaining feedback, “the teacher’s feedback, the self-assessment we do by ourselves, and our peer assessment which we had a good chance to do in this class”. Maria’s strategy of obtaining feedback also involved changing her perspective about per-assessment which she “thought it was a waste of time or useless before this time. But [she] learnt strategies of how to make this helpful and fruitful, [she] realized its importance”.

Although the participants showed higher levels of satisfaction with feedback in SRL instruction than in previous experiences, some of them indicated that they needed more constructive feedback from the teacher. As mentioned previously, time represented a challenge to the participants to accomplish certain writing tasks. Maria considered the limitation of the teacher’s time as a cause of not obtaining detailed feedback from the teacher. She explained, “I think the time is a still a problem because we are overwhelmed with a lot of other subjects and assignments. The teacher is also busy and does not have much time to look longer at our papers”. Although she acknowledged that the teacher was not to blame, she recommended that “more feedback is also required though the teacher is very busy”. Sally also realized the importance of obtaining more feedback from the teacher:

I also still need more feedback, like feedback from the teacher to tell me what is correct and what is wrong. It is true that the teacher makes us work together and give marks for each other, but it is not enough for me... the most important is more and longer feedback”.

#### 4.2.4 Summary of Chapter Four

To find out how SRL instruction impacted L2 learners' writing and strategy use, I used a convergent mixed methods study to answer the two research questions. To quantitatively determine if the IELTS writing scores differed significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive it, I used a pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental design. The findings showed that the students who received SRL instruction significantly outperformed those who received the regular instruction with a moderate effect size.

The findings of the qualitative data answering research questions 2 showed that the participants who received SRL instruction reported that they could develop and use better repertoires of SRL strategies than those who received the regular instruction. At the beginning of the course, the participants in the control group reported similar experiences to those in the experimental group regarding the use of task analysis strategies. However, that experience differed later in the course. The development and use of those strategies were obvious through the comparison that the participants reported between the beginning and the end of the writing course. They were also obvious through the comparison reported between the participants in the experimental and control groups.

The results for the task analysis category, which is the first part of the forethought phase, showed that the participants in the control group reported poor indication of setting specific and proximal goals. Those participants also lacked relevant information and skills to plan strategically. They could not define and select related strategies to planning their writing tasks that might help them to facilitate the writing process and eventually to overcome related challenges. On the other hand, the findings revealed that

the participants in the experimental group set goals at the beginning of the course that appeared to be distal goals, which alone would render less performance than when proximal and distal goals are integrated (Weldon & Yun, 2000). Whereas the goals they set during the course turned to be proximal and specific toward achieving distal goals which self-regulator students set (Zimmerman, 2011). Moreover, they could develop and use a better repertoire of self-control strategies during the writing course than at the beginning.

The participants in both groups indicated that they used relatively similar self-motivation strategies, that involved self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, task interest, and goal orientation at the beginning of the course. However, there were some differences across the four motivational processes at the end of the course. Some participants in the control group reported that they could not maintain or develop good self-efficacy due to their discomfort with the teaching methods employed in the class. The participants in the experimental group could develop better self-motivation strategies, emphasizing self-efficacy.

The participants in both groups reported that they could either maintain and develop their interests in writing, or develop new writing interests, except Tamara, as the course proceeded. They, except Haya, clarified their outcome expectancies more clearly than at the beginning of the course. Moreover, the participants manifested the writing value differently as they combined more than a type of value that involved attainment value, intrinsic value, utility value, and cost value. Their value system changed as the participants changed or added other values to their existent values. More importantly, the participants' value system was closely related to their goal orientation in which the latter

was clearly influenced by the development or change of their values. Their goal orientation featured both learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation.

In the second phase, the findings showed discrepancies between the two groups' perceived changes to their self-control performance. While the participants in the experimental group reported that they could develop and use more and better self-control strategies than at the beginning of the course, those in the control group did not show indication of remarkable changes. During SRL instruction, the participants developed and used different writing-specific strategies and general strategies, including volition, self-instruction, imagery, time management, environmental structuring, help-seeking, and self-consequences strategies. Nevertheless, the participants showed different experiences in terms of the growth of the quantity and quality of strategies they used. The findings also showed that not all the participants used the same performance strategies that other participants used. Some participants, for example, used self-instruction strategies, but others did not. The development and use of self-observation were found discrepant among the participants in SRL instruction. They could construct more and better metacognitive and self-recording strategies in comparison to the beginning of the course and to the participants in the control group.

In the third phase, self-reflection, the participants reported that they developed more and better strategies during SRL instruction. Their ability to use self-judgement strategies was remarkable as they stated that they developed and used more and better strategies of evaluating their writing and learning strategies than at the beginning of the course. They also reported more mindful causal attribution of their success or failure.

Whereas, the participants in the control group continued to use similar and few strategies of self-evaluation and causal attribution during the course.

The findings revealed that the participants described some differences in self-reaction. When receiving the SRL strategies, their self-satisfaction increased to higher levels than at the beginning of the course. The increase of their self-satisfaction resulted from the self-awareness they developed which enabled them to improve their writing knowledge, writing approach, writing scores, and SRL strategy use. They could also develop more effective adaptive and defensive strategies out of their new experience with SRL instruction. Yet, the participants in the control group showed various levels of self-satisfaction, ranging from not satisfied to satisfied. Their satisfaction was mainly focused on their performance. They also seemed to have poor or broad knowledge about the adaptive and defensive strategies as they revealed very little or ambiguous information which did not help to envision any clear remedial plan.

The findings of the qualitative data on research questions 2, also showed that the SRL participants displayed more positive perceptions about their experiences with SRL instruction than with regular instruction. During SRL instruction, they enjoyed a greater space to participate in their learning within a shared responsibility learning environment that balanced the teacher's and their roles. In that environment, Sam, the teacher of the SRL group, employed an instructional approach in which he manipulated several methods of teaching, including but not limited to direct instruction, modelling, class discussion, and collaborative work. During SRL instruction, the teacher maintained a balanced role that enabled the participants to engage in the classroom activities, work

collaboratively, exchange learning experiences, and enjoy a close relationship with their teacher.

The participants had an opportunity to practice their agency by planning, controlling, and reflecting upon their actions. They enjoyed a freedom of selecting and constructing their learning strategies and writing topics. While they expressed their satisfaction with the teacher's instruction, they did not feel compelled to follow the teacher's direction, rules, and strategies as he taught them to select what would work for them. They believed that the explicit teaching created more paths for them to construct their own learning, to be independent, and to be proactive learners.

The participants recognized the significance of SRL instruction which enabled them to create and promote higher levels of self-awareness. Self-awareness helped them to identify personal and writing goals, promote positive perspectives about writing, increase motivation, and write appropriately. Achieving a good level of self-awareness was considered by the participants as a presupposition to develop better writing knowledge, writing approach, SRL strategies, and writing performance.

The participants reported that they could feel real benefits out of SRL instruction, featuring enhanced learning practices and academic achievements. They appreciated the impact of SRL instruction on developing and using more and better learning practices. Those enhanced practices involved the acquisition and mastery of new writing skills and SRL strategies which enabled them to start and finish writing tasks appropriately. They also recognized the influence of the newly developed practices on improving their academic achievements that involved writing accurate and fluent sentences, paragraphs,

and essays. In addition, they recognized the mastery of planning, performing, and reflecting on their writing knowledge and approach.

The participants exhibited unsatisfactory feeling toward their experiences with resources available in the class or at the university level. Dealing with time, they indicated that although they could manage their time, they found the time factor challenging due to the short time given in comparison to the overload of the course. The large size of the class alongside with the short time represented another challenge which resulted in less feedback from the teacher and lack of individualized support. Although the participants appreciated their enhanced strategies of obtaining feedback from several sources during SRL instruction, they believed that more feedback from the teacher was still needed and essential. Moreover, the use of technology, internet, and PowerPoint slides was also recommended to be incorporated in the classroom instruction that would facilitate the participants' learning. The participants also indicated that although the teacher did his best to create authentic learning context by pairing the students and finding a reader, they still needed to learn in an authentic or real-life context. They believed that learning in an authentic context would promote their interest, motivation, and real purpose to practice writing.



## **Chapter Five: Discussion**

Chapter 5 provides discussion, considering the study results, related literature, and the theoretical framework. The discussion draws connection between the two research questions. It also interrelates the impact of SRL instruction on the students' writing alongside with reflecting on their experiences with developing and using SRL strategies. Throughout the discussion, a synthesis involves revisiting the quantitative and qualitative data findings and interpreting them to suggest relevant implications. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and suggests directions for future writing research.

### **5.1 Overview of the Study**

The study aimed to find out how a SRL instruction intervention impacted L2 learners' writing and strategy use in an L2 writing course. The study used a convergent mixed methods research design to answer two research questions. Research question 1, "did the IELTS writing score differ significantly between the students who received SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention?" was answered quantitatively. A pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental design was used to determine any significant differences in the IELTS writing scores between the students in the experimental group and control group. Research question 2, "how did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students' development of SRL strategies and writing?" was answered qualitatively. Interviews, diary studies, and observation were utilized to obtain insightful understanding of the students' L2 experience formed through their subjective views. Analyzing the qualitative data involved creating codes and subthemes which were then grouped into themes.

## 5.2 Merging Mixed Methods Findings

Merging the findings of the qualitative and quantitative data helped to draw a meaningful and comprehensive portrait of the impact of SRL instruction on the students' writing and strategy use. The results from the quantitative and qualitative strands are revisited during this discussion to facilitate the generation of relevant implications. By synthesizing the findings of the qualitative and quantitative data, I discussed my observation on employing the convergent mixed methods approach in this study. I also discuss the suggested effectiveness of SRL instruction as an implication for merging the quantitative and qualitative findings.

The purpose of using the mixed methods approach was to “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse, 1991, p. 122) by combining a structural framework that gives accurate measures of data and techniques of getting into the depth of personal experience of learners to give significant contextual interpretation (Dörnyei, 2007). Merging data from the quantitative and qualitative strands helped me present a meaningful and comprehensive picture of the participants' entry and exit levels of achievement and SRL strategy use. First, by using a structural framework of a pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental design, I was able to give accurate statistical measures of the students writing achievement in the experimental and control groups over two periods of time. The following paragraph provides a summary of the results of research question that was answered quantitatively.

### **5.2.1 Summary of Results of Research Question 1**

*Did the IELTS writing score differ significantly between the students who received the SRL instructional intervention and those who did not receive the intervention?*

To answer this question, a pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental design was employed to compare the IELTS writing scores of the experimental and control groups. An independent-samples *t*-test determined that there was a significant difference in relation to the gain writing scores between the students in the experimental and control groups ( $p = .040, <.05, t = 2.096, df = 64$ ). As the mean of the gain score of the students in the experimental group, 12.87 ( $SD = 9.20$ ), was higher than that of the control group, 7.67 ( $SD = 10.81$ ), the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group. The effect size of the difference was moderate ( $r = 0.518$ ).

Second, by using techniques of getting into the depth of personal experience of the learners, I was able to explore the participants' experiences with SRL instruction and give contextual interpretation. The following paragraph provides a summary of the results of research question 2 that was answered qualitatively.

### **5.2.2 Summary of Results of Research Question 2**

*How did the SRL instructional intervention influence the students' development of SRL strategies and writing?*

To answer this question, I collected qualitative data using interviews, diary studies, and observation. Analyzing the qualitative data involved using an integrative approach of deductive and inductive coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006) that helped me identify units of discourse, codes, and subthemes relevant to L2 writing and SRL strategy use. Analyzing the codes and subthemes helped me to, first, identify the participants'

changes to their SRL strategy use and, second, to generate relevant themes presented in Chapter Four. Moreover, observing the two classrooms played a supportive role in which it was helpful to draw portraits of the two classroom learning contexts that contributed to the trustworthiness of the findings by triangulating data which rendered convergent results.

Answering research question 2 showed that the participants who received SRL instruction reported that they could develop and use better repertoires of SRL strategies than those who received regular instruction. The development and use of more and better strategies were perceived by the participants to take place across the three phases of SRL: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. The participants reported that they developed more positive perceptions about their experiences during SRL instruction than regular instruction. During SRL instruction, they reported that they enjoyed opportunities to participate in the class, practicing agency and taking control of their learning in a classroom that encouraged shared responsibility between the teacher and students. Self-awareness was perceived by the participants as an essential contribution to inform their learning as they believed it presupposed the development of relevant learning practices and academic achievement. Although the participants developed positive perceptions about SRL instruction, they exhibited indications of dissatisfaction with resources that were not available in the class and the university. The shortage of time, large size of the class, insufficient feedback from several sources, lack of technology and internet use, and insufficient authentic learning represented areas of complaints by the participants.

Merging the two sets of data assisted me to derive relevant implications by generating meaningful insights into the potential impact of SRL instruction on the

students' L2 writing and strategy use. Using the mixed methods approach was significant for the validity and trustworthiness of the study findings (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008). I used it for triangulation and complementary reasons. First, I applied methodological triangulation by using quantitative and qualitative methods. Second, I applied data triangulation by using various data sources: pre-test/post-test, interviews, diary studies, and observation.

As for a complementary reason, I assumed that the findings of the qualitative strand would help me illustrate the findings of the quantitative strand. By employing methodological triangulation, I provided a quantitative image of the students' entry level of achievement before examining potential impacts of SRL instruction on their achievement. After the intervention, I could draw a different image of the students' development at the exit level as the findings revealed a significant difference between the two groups' performances (see above & Chapter Four). The complementary component was achieved by presenting results of the qualitative data that helped to illustrate how SRL instruction influenced the participants' significant development of writing that was examined quantitatively. Moreover, the qualitative data provided a platform to explore the participants' perceived changes, development and use of strategy that were crucial to their writing improvement as they reported.

As for triangulation, I was able to provide a meaningful account of the students' experiences during SRL instruction that helped me illustrate why they significantly outperformed those in the control group. During the execution of the study, I made several observations about the triangulation of data in the qualitative strand. Conducting observation was helpful to capture overt behavioral and environmental processes. I used

observation to describe what teaching and learning looked like in the two classrooms. I also made sure that the two teachers were doing their jobs as planned; The SRL teacher used SRL instruction and the control group teacher employed regular instruction. It was noticed that there was no possibility of eliminating any SRL in the control group as the teacher's instruction might have included little SRL during his past teaching experience. However, SRL instruction, employed by SRL teacher, was mainly focused on SRL with explicit teaching of SRL and planned use of SRL activities, which made a noticeable difference between the two types of instruction.

The interviews and diary studies helped me capture, in addition to overt processes, covert processes such as students' cognitive, motivational, and affective processes that observation could not have captured. I noticed that the diary studies written by the participants rendered deeper and more courageous thoughts, emotions, and motivations than did the interviews. Writing the diary studies, the students were not under pressures of time, spontaneous conversation, and confronting an interviewer. The diary studies rendered complementary and harmonious data that supported the participants' data from the interviews. No noticeable contradiction was found among data obtained from the diary studies and interviews. Moreover, data from the observation about overt SRL supported data from the interviews and diary studies, revealing participants' involvement in the class, collaborative learning, help-seeking...etc.

Merging the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that the findings of both strands were convergent. While data from the qualitative strand illustrated data from the quantitative strand, both methods complemented each other and provided a meaningful account of the impact of SRL on the students' writing and SRL strategy use (see next

section). Merging the two sets of data facilitated drawing relevant implications of the study results, suggesting that SRL instruction was effective for the students improvement.

### **5.2.3 Effectiveness of SRL Instruction**

The proposition for the effectiveness of SRL instruction is embraced by merging the quantitative and qualitative data. Answering research question 1 provided statistical evidence for the effectiveness of SRL instruction for the students' writing achievement. Statistical evidence determined that the SRL students gained significantly higher IELTS writing scores than did their counterparts in the control group at the post-test (see above & Chapter Four). Supporting the effectiveness of the instruction also involved using the students' qualitative anecdotes to reflect on their perceived writing improvement. The qualitative data helped to support the statistical results obtained from quantitative data regarding the effectiveness of SRL instruction for the students' writing achievement.

#### *Improved writing achievement*

The findings of the study suggested that SRL instruction was effective for improving the students' writing achievement. Statistical measures, using an independent samples *t*-test and gain score test, determined that the students who received SRL instruction significantly outperformed those who received the regular instruction (see above). These measures suggested that SRL instruction was more effective than the regular instruction for enhancing the students' writing achievement.

The suggested effectiveness of SRL instruction was also corroborated through the participants' reflection on the positive impact of SRL instruction on their writing achievement. Data analysis of the qualitative data indicated that there were positive perceptions about the effectiveness of SRL instruction for their writing achievement. The

findings suggested that receiving SRL instruction helped the participants learn new writing and SRL strategies that helped them to master the writing process during SRL instruction. By learning new writing and SRL strategies and mastering the writing process, the participants could improve their writing achievement which was supported statistically by significantly higher writing scores.

The suggested improvement was obvious through the participants' anecdotes during SRL instruction. Sarah, for example, appreciated receiving SRL instruction as she could notice a difference, "I see a big difference in the writing course, and I am happy for being exposed to the self-regulated learning for giving me some effective techniques to avoid writing problems and be better in writing". Sarah's writing improvement was supported by the analysis of the quantitative data which displayed the difference in her writing score between the beginning and the end of the writing course. Sarah's baseline writing score was 50 which increased to 69 at the end of the course. Dian also complimented the SRL instruction delivered by the teacher which opened new horizon for learning and improvement, "I felt that the teacher's explicit direction of the class and explaining the things in a simple and clear manner opens horizons for our writing to improve". Dian's improvement was obvious through the gain score she obtained during the SRL intervention. Her writing score at the entry level was 58 and increased to 74 at the end of the intervention.

Like Sarah and Dian, Maria's experience with SRL instruction was pleasant as it positively influenced her writing performance, "thanks to the teacher's new way of teaching and the straightforward directions we receive... I managed to add a lot of skills, knowledge and experience to myself. I believe the experiment... succeeded and gave



good results at my level”. Maria praised the SRL straightforward instruction due to its impact on her learning and writing performance. The quantitative data analysis supported what Maria called ‘good results’ by the increase in her writing score from 53 to 70. Sally also expressed her satisfaction with SRL instruction because she learnt new strategies which, eventually, contributed to improve her writing and to get higher marks, “we tried some strategies... so I can feel that if I follow using the strategies, I can achieve my goals.... I am very happy because I get higher marks now and I can write better”. The findings showed that Sally got 75 at the end of the writing course in comparison to 51 at the beginning of the course.

The suggested effectiveness of the explicit SRL instruction was in line with the findings of Olson and Land’s (2007) longitudinal study. Their study involved teaching cognitive strategies explicitly to secondary English language learners. Explicit teaching of cognitive strategies and providing declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge of practice were found effective to the learners’ writing improvement. Modeling and guided practice enabled them to write about challenging texts. Ahmadi, et al. (2012) found that explicit meta-cognitive learning strategies instruction improved significantly the students’ writing. Ahmadi, et al. (2012) emphasized that meta-cognitive learning strategies are paramount in L2 learning in general and in improving L2 writing skills in particular.

Mansoor and Seifodin’s (2015) study also revealed significant improvement in the students’ writing as a result of using Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) program. The study interpreted the effectiveness of the program in terms of optimal time, length, number of essay parts and, overall quality of persuasive essays. Zimmerman &

Risemberg (1997) considered SRSD as an “extensively utilized self-regulated strategy package” which could intersect with the SRL cyclical model. In the two models, students learn how to set goals, monitor their progress, use a writing-specific mnemonic strategy, self-evaluate their progress. Both models engage the students in learning the SRL strategies by using explicit instruction, modeling, and practice (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2002).

Utilizing the cyclical model of SRL, Cleary and Zimmerman (2004) implemented a Self-Regulation Empowerment Program (SREP) to enable students to become more active and self-regulated learners. By assessing and teaching problem-solving along with self-regulation processes, the study concluded that SREP was effective not only for improving writing, but also for general learning achievement and motivation. MacArthur and Philippakos (2013) investigated the impact of teaching cognitive strategies combined with text organizational knowledge on college students’ writing and motivation. The study rendered positive writing achievement and motivation enhancement.

Block and Pressley’s (2002) analysis of previous research rendered a remarkable endorsement of explicitly teaching cognitive and metacognitive strategies to learners. Their observation was in a great part similar to Zimmerman’s (2000) conception of the levels of SRL. Block and Pressley (2002) presumed that explicitly teaching cognitive and metacognitive strategies should involve modeling, scaffolding, guided practice, and independent use of strategies. Teaching these strategies helped learners to develop their abilities to select, implement and evaluate relevant strategies. Schunk and Swartz (1993a) suggested positive impact of SRL strategy instruction on students’ paragraph writing. Explicit instruction of goal setting, progress feedback, self-evaluation, and self-efficacy

was found effective as the students improved their writing achievement compared to no treatment group.

### **5.3 Learners' Beliefs of Improvement**

The participants' beliefs about their writing improvement and SRL strategy development and use was central to the findings of the qualitative data. Finding out how SRL instruction impacted the students' writing and SRL strategy use involved exploring the participants' experiences with SRL instruction based on their perceptions and beliefs. Analyzing the participants' anecdotes, the findings of the qualitative data suggested positive changes to the participants' personal, behavioral, and environmental processes during SRL instruction. The participants' anecdotes were captured by interviews and diary studies that they produced based on their personal and subjective beliefs. The study suggested that the participants' beliefs had an essential role in their learning as they reported they developed insightful meaning about the writing concept, writing processes, their own abilities, and the use of relevant strategies. They reported that their developed beliefs facilitated their learning. The participants' beliefs as presented in the findings in Chapter Four embraced self-efficacy, self-concept, and self-esteem.

Self-efficacy played an important role in enhancing the participants' learning as Schunk and Usher (2011) confirmed its influential impacts on students' motivation, achievement, and self-regulation. Sarah, for example, developed more positive beliefs about enhancing her motivation to write good texts, "have felt that I can motivate myself to write a good writing text". The power of self-efficacy was also clear in Maria's statement, not only regarding motivation, but also her behavior, "I believe I can achieve my goals ... It is like  $1 + 1 = 2$ ... If you have a goal and learnt how to achieve it then you

will achieve it". It was also obvious that the participants' employment of new strategies, efforts, achievement, and self-satisfaction modified their efficacy beliefs after they received progress indicators, conveying to them that they could perform well, "which enhanced self-efficacy for continual learning" (Schunk, 2001, p. 127). The modification of self-efficacy beliefs was obvious in Sally's statements, "because we tried some strategies and when I found them help, give me more marks and the teacher is happy with my writing, now, so I can feel that if I follow using the strategies, I can achieve my goals".

The participants' anecdotes suggested that self-concept had a powerful effect on the participants' learning. Self-concept, as it embraces individuals' "perceptions of their ability to direct and control their cognition, affects, motivation, and behavior in learning situations" (McCombs, 2001, p. 86), suggested a facilitative role in the participants' learning. Dian, for example, explained how her self-concept enhanced work results as she wrote, "I even could tell why I did this achievement which could be related to my planning, efforts, time, and implementation.... As I said if you know how to do your work, you will have better results". Sally also appreciated how developing self-concept helped her identify her challenges and overcome them as she clarified, "I can figure our challenges that might face me. Now I can set a goal, work on it until I achieve it and I know that I achieved it because I did what".

Self-esteem was noticeable in the participants' anecdotes during SRL instruction. Sara, for example expressed her satisfaction with her motivation and feedback as she said, "I felt happy because I know myself well with motivation and feedback". Sally was also happy with her achievement and her position among her other classmates as she

explained, “as I said you took what you want ‘the mark’. You improved your writing. You are better than a lot of other students”.

The participants’ anecdotes reflected their beliefs of improvement that was captured throughout their experiences during SRL instruction. Their perceived improvement involved development of SRL strategies, improved competence, and learner autonomy.

### **5.3.1 Development of SRL Strategies**

The findings of the qualitative data displayed various changes to the participants’ development and use of SRL strategies that occurred across time. The participants reported that they developed and used more and better strategies during SRL instruction. The differences in SRL changes were more discernable in the experimental group than in the control group. The participants indicated that they developed and used better repertoires of SRL strategies during SRL instruction than during regular instruction. Developing their SRL strategies involved the construction of planning, performance, and self-reflection strategies to, eventually, accomplish their writing goals. The development of the SRL strategies took place across the three main categories of self-regulatory influences that Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) proposed: environmental processes, behavioral processes, and personal processes.

The participants reported that they could develop strategies to self-regulate the physical and social environment. Not only could they manage the place and time to accomplish writing tasks, but they could also monitor “the effects of varying environmental conditions and controlling those conditions strategically” (Zimmerman, 2013, p. 137). Moreover, they could seek help from the teacher, peers and family

members when they realized that they needed help. The participants could also develop strategies to self-regulate their behavioral processes and overt physical activities by self-observing their performance and adapting it strategically. They self-observed their performance by using code-sheets, tables and charts to track their linguistic competence and strategy use. They adapted their performance in accordance with the feedback obtained from self-observation.

To self-regulate their covert cognitive and affective states as personal processes, the participants intentionally developed strategies to observe and adapt their thoughts and feeling when they had writing tasks to accomplish. Cognitively, they realized the importance of analyzing a writing task before they started to write. To help them analyze tasks appropriately, they set goals by specifying the outcomes that they expected to achieve. They could also plan their writing strategically by selecting and creating advantageous learning methods relevant to the target tasks and the environmental setting (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). Affectively, the participants attended to their motivational feeling as they realized that achieving their goals and performing their plans depended on their motivation. The participants boosted their self-motivation by attending to their writing self-efficacy, outcomes expectancies, values, and goal orientation.

#### *Changes across SRL phases*

The interdependency of the three self-regulated processes was clear through the participants' experiences during SRL instructional context. To better capture this interdependency, the discussion reflects on the changes to the participants' SRL strategies across the three phases of the SRL cyclical model. Zimmerman's (2000) model addressed the causal relations between SRL processes, key motivational beliefs, and learning

outcomes through three phases of forethought, performance, and self-reflection. Each phase witnessed observable changes to the participants' SRL strategies. These changes collectively indicated that the participants developed strategies through which they could self-regulate their cognition, affect, behaviors, and physical as well as social environment during writing. Zimmerman (2000) posits that SRL entails self-generating thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, involving proper planning and cyclical adaptation in accordance with performance feedback to achieve personal goals.

The participants displayed several examples that captured the interdependency of the SRL strategies across the three phases. For example, Dian made clear connection through her statement, "planning is not everything... How you translate these plans into doable action was greatly amazing. I now can think about what strategy will fit my writing, use it, evaluate its efficiency, and decide if you will use it again". Sally also exhibited her understanding of the entire process of writing that included interdependently planning, performing, and evaluating her work, "after planning, I can now write according to my plan and then do the revision". Like Dian and Sally, Maria developed her SRL approach to writing, "I have to plan for the writing before I even write the essay.... I am using my planned strategies well... I can also assess my writing".

Across the three SRL phases, the participants displayed an interdependent relation among the SRL strategies in which early developed strategies facilitated the development of later strategies. For example, data analysis showed that the participants started to analyze writing tasks by setting goals and then strategically planned relevant strategies to achieve these goals. Part of planning tasks, the participants intentionally strove to motivate themselves by reminding themselves of their goals and enhancing their beliefs

that they could achieve them appropriately. They also oversaw the consequences of achieving certain learning outcomes and thought about the values of writing appropriately, integrating both learning and performance oriented goals.

The participants, later, performed these strategies according to the plans they made. Although performing these strategies involved the use of different strategies from a participant to another, they all used common self-control and self-observation strategies such as time management, environmental structuring, help-seeking, and self-recording strategies. Finally, the participants self-reflected on the use of these strategies by means of self-judgement. They self-evaluated their writing and strategy use and attributed their success and failure to appropriacy or inappropriacy of strategy use rather than to their abilities. Self-judging their writing products and processes enabled them to attain good levels of satisfaction which eventually assisted them to decide on potential adaptive and defensive strategies. Maria, for instance, described the way she started to construct her strategies which reflected harmonious and incremental development of SRL strategies across the three phases:

I start setting a good goal for this task, I analyze it in a way that helps me to find the relevant strategies to achieve it.... I think about the topic, makes myself feel motivated about it to achieve the goal, have the feeling that I will finish it correctly... I can also write in the place I feel comfortable in, and the right time as well.... I consult my friends and colleagues... I can also assess my writing.

Sam corroborated the participants' perceived changes by mentioning that his students could "arrange for their learning, they know how to produce good writing"



during SRL instruction. He expressed his happiness that they “started to set goals... understand why they are in the class and what they are doing... I believe that they are having a good and satisfactory repertoire of different strategies to use when they write”. Sam elaborated on the changes to his students’ SRL strategy use across the three phases, “now they can analyze the task, select proper strategies, manage their time, set goals, encourage themselves to write, seek help from others, give feedback”.

The changes to SRL strategies across the three phases were also interdependent in the sense that any changes in the forethought, for instance, incurred changes during the performance phase. Emergent changes, in turn, affected the self-reflection phase. Commenting on the development of her SRL strategies, Maria, for example, explained that obtaining feedback and assessing her writing work rendered changes to the strategies she used for a certain task, “this helps me to see and decide the next work to do to either make remedy or promote my work to the high level.... I think these strategies increased our interest and motivation subconsciously”. This interdependency is central to the social cognitive theory of SRL which inspired the cyclical model of SRL. From the social cognitive perspective “self-regulatory processes interact reciprocally during writing via an enactive feedback loop. This loop is composed of a cyclic process in which writers monitor the effectiveness of their self-regulatory strategies and self-react to the ensuing feedback” (Zimmerman, 1997, p. 77). Self-reacting to resultant feedback might involve continuing successful strategies or adjusting ineffective ones. The participants' increased interest and motivation signified that self-regulatory cycle was complete when forethought beliefs and behaviors were influenced by self-reflection processes during further learning. (Zimmerman, 2000).

*Levels of SRL development*

The participants' feedback indicated that the development of their SRL strategies across the three phases was facilitated by social sources and self-oriented sources. While the social sources involved observation and emulation, the self-oriented sources involved self-control and self-regulation. This denotes that the development of the SRL strategies followed Zimmerman's (2000) framework of the four levels of SRL development. Yet, the findings could not confirm if the participants developed all strategies within the same trajectory of SRL levels due to the limited data, scope of the study, and diversity of strategies. Nor could they confirm if the participants developed the same number of strategies. The indication that they went through the trajectory of the levels of SRL development was construed from the participants' perception about their development of the SRL strategies.

At the observational level, the teacher modeled certain writing elements such as topic sentences, thesis statement, and others. He also modelled the use of strategies such as setting goals, managing time, and others. The participants found those modeling very helpful as they observed modelled behaviors, verbalizations, and other experiences (Schunk, 2001). Reflecting on the emulative level, the participants duplicated his modeling to attain the general form of his response to a task (Zimmerman, 2000). They also sought his guidance, feedback, and social reinforcement that helped them to improve their accuracy and motivation. Emulative level was embodied in the students' capacity to appropriately construct a strategy, to share it with the class, and finally to get feedback from the teacher or peers. Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1997, 2002) displayed significant findings about the impact of modeling (intended for observation) and social feedback

(intended for emulation) on students' writing. By modeling and providing social feedback, learners who were provided with modeling and social feedback outperformed those who did not receive them. Treatment groups demonstrated higher levels of self-motivation and SRL than did the control groups.

The participants, by practice, shifted to utilize self-oriented sources of self-control and self-regulation (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). At the self-control level, the participants started to perform and evaluate the use of their strategies on their own. They felt confident that they started to rely on themselves to self-control after observing and emulating the teacher's and modeling to start and finish tasks in the teacher's absence. At the final stage of self-regulation, the participants indicated that they could adapt certain strategies with little or absence of reliance on the teacher. They systematically adapted their performance in accordance with the personal and contextual conditions. For, example, they reported that they could start and finish writing tasks on their own. By planning, performing, and evaluating various strategies, they could improve their achievement and strategy use, not only in the writing course, but also in other classes.

The participants initiated SRL by high reliance on extensive social guidance in the first two stages, they shifted to systematically withdraw scaffolding at the later stages. Nevertheless, as they moved toward acquiring the self-regulatory skills, they continued to receive support from those social resources upon their needs (Zimmerman, 2013). Social sources at the first stages involved the teacher, other peers, writing experts, and family members. Continuing to receive support was central to developing the participants' SRL

in which they sought feedback from those social sources on their learning products and processes.

Support from social sources enabled the participants to notice the distance between their actual developmental and level of potential development. SRL, from the sociocultural perspective (Vygotsky, 1978), initiates and develops within social interactions between more experienced individuals and novice learners. The teacher as the more experienced individual provided support to learners within their zone of proximal development (ZPD) on tasks they could not perform on their own. ZPD refers to “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). It was hard to determine if that support was provided to the participants within the participants’ ZPD due to the large class and shortage of individualized scaffold.

Nevertheless, the participants’ reception of support and feedback from the teacher and other social sources was conducive to noticing the gap between what they produced and the target level of achievement. Noticing the gap helped them to utilize relevant adaptive and defensive activities that contributed to improve their writing and strategy use. They, upon conclusions they drew, continued to use or modify successful strategies and stopped using other non-successful ones. (Zimmerman, 2000). It was not clear either if the ZPD oriented assistance was indicative to the participants’ developmental potential. Lantof and Thorne (2007, p. 210) proposed that “what one can do today with assistance is indicative of what one will be able to do independently in the future.... ZPD-oriented

assessment provides a nuance determination of both development achieved and developmental potential”.

### **5.3.2 Improved Competence**

The qualitative findings suggested that the development of the participants’ SRL strategies was conducive to consolidating their communicative competences. They indicated that the higher scores they obtained were interrelated with developing better repertoires of SRL strategies that enabled them to improve their competences in writing. The participants’ perceived competence corresponded with Canale and Swain’s (1980) framework of the four competences. In Canale and Swain’s (1980) framework, the communicative competence consists of linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

#### *Improved Linguistic Competence*

Linguistic competence represents the mastery of language that includes lexical, phonological and syntactic knowledge (Canale, 1983). For the purpose of this study, data analysis highlighted the development of better lexical and syntactic knowledge that helped the participants to produce better writing texts from their perspectives. That development records another indication for the effectiveness of SRL instruction. The effectiveness of SRL instruction was assumed through the participants’ anecdotes, reflecting their perception of developing a better repertoire of linguistic knowledge. The participants indicated that they developed stronger linguistic competence that appropriately enabled them to produce more accurate writing texts.

The participants’ newly developed linguistic competence comprised vocabulary and grammar relevant to what the product approach of writing emphasizes (Badger &

White, 2000). Sarah, for example, acknowledged how she could overcome her linguistic competence problem after she received SRL instruction, “now I can overcome the problems in grammatical mistakes.... Now I have a group of words and vocabulary and words which can help me to write better”. Dian also articulated her struggle with vocabulary and grammar at the beginning of the course as she revealed, “in the beginning of the class I struggled to write good essays because we did not have enough language features to use them in writing. I mean our words selection and grammar were not used in a good way”. However, at the end of the course, she could overcome that challenge by learning the usage of relevant vocabulary and grammar as she reported, “but now we could know how to use the relevant words in the text and how to use the correct grammar to make good sentences and paragraphs”. Like Sarah and Dian, Maria reported similar improvement of linguistic competence, “my linguistic store has increased a lot. Now I could use more vocabulary than before. I could write a good sentence with correct grammar and connectors”.

#### *Improved Sociolinguistic Competence*

Sociolinguistic competence “addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction” (Canale, 1983, p. 7). Major features of the sociolinguistic competence were manifested through the participants’ anecdotes which suggested positive contribution to the effectiveness of SRL instruction. The participants appreciated how external sociocultural factors contextualized and situated writing as a social practice as proposed by the genre approach (Hyland, 2007). Contextualizing and situating writing as a social practice were

undertaken by the teacher who strove to develop students' awareness of writing genres by providing explicit explanation of the contextual dimension. The participants reported that the teacher's practice assisted them to interconnect the distinctive use of the language to diverse genres (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). For example, Dian appreciated that the teacher asked several "provocative questions about writing such as 'what is writing?, why do we write?, how do we write? what types of writing are there? ...' ". Dian found that technique helpful which promoted her motivation to write for a purpose. She explained, "having this feeling, I think that I am going to write about my everyday hopes and challenges that surround me and my people.... I thought I could write for foreign magazines explaining our suffering".

The technique of asking provocative questions was also valued by Sarah as it boosted her motivation and helped her facilitate "the process of generating the ideas and to omit the irrelevant sentences". In the same vein, Sally was surprised that she did not learn that writing should be more than just grammar and vocabulary before the experiment. Rather, it is also "a social practice... accuracy and fluency like grammar, vocabulary, organization, flow, coherence, cohesion and a message". That newly developed conception about writing enabled her to "achieve something" such as writing for fun, for a purpose, to seek help, to share experiences".

Manifesting writing as a social practice does not disparage the linguistic knowledge as a predominant component of writing as emphasized by the participants. They valued the importance of the linguistic knowledge and the ties between writing and social purposes during writing as they analyzed and followed the teacher's instruction (Badger & White, 2000). Sarah, for example, complimented the teacher's use of tables

and charts that displayed linguistic components in essay writing and how to learn and enhance their usage. Sarah commented that the “activity shows that grammar and vocabulary are important core in writing and we have to observe our learning and use of them”. Dian also realized the importance of the linguistic knowledge and social purposes as she reported, “stronger linguistic and vocabulary component is needed all the time not only if I have a problem. Writing needs special skills to do with making use of the language items such as vocabulary, grammar, culture, and organization”.

The integration of language and social purposes were also acknowledged by Maria as she learnt “not only how to acquire grammatical rules and vocabulary, but also how to get the relevant strategy to acquire them... think about the best grammatical pattern to use and vocabulary to select”. For Sally, “vocabulary is good for writing, and, knowing grammar to have like a strong essay... vocabulary and grammar is important to write rich, I mean good essay”.

Identifying the purpose of writing, audience, and social setting (Hyland, 2007) was paramount during the participants’ writing experience as a social practice. For example, Dian elaborated on the diverse purposes of her writing that could be “social, academic, business, debates”. She admired addressing specific audience by acknowledging that “any student in the class can be your reader .... I can consider my friend as a reader who gives me her opinion on my ideas... to make the writing real and authentic and with real purpose”. Sally also expressed her appreciation of writing for several purposes, “we write for fun, write for a purpose, write to seek help, write to share experiences and so on”.



In the same vein, Maria appreciated that a reader could read and comment on her writing, “I also learnt to write because there is a reader who reads my essay. When my friend reads my essay and tells me what she thinks, I feel that someone hears my voice”. Maria respected the teacher’s technique of self-questioning when he asked them to check if their audience can understand their written message by asking similar questions to “do you think your reader can understand this point?”. These anecdotes emphasize the proposition that writing is a social activity driven by the need to write as oriented by the writers’ explicit outcomes and expectations (Henry & Roseberry, 1998).

#### *Improved discourse competence*

Discourse competence “concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meaning to achieve a unified spoken or written text” (Canale, 1983, p. 9). Cohesion and coherence create unity throughout a text by structurally linking utterances, using cohesive devices and semantically relating different meanings in a text, considering coherence issues (1983). Reflecting on their perception of improved discourse competence, the participants proclaimed that SRL instruction helped them to improve their writing unity by enhancing elements of coherence and cohesion.

Maria, for example, found the self-assisted strategies helpful to enhance her writing quality pertaining to language, organization, unity, coherence, and cohesion. More importantly, she realized self-checking “the unity, coherence and cohesion of the essay” by using rubric-based sheets was helpful. She felt comfortable with the new self-assessment strategies that enabled her to self-judge her writing quality, “my writing achievement is much better now in terms of organization, content, coherence and cohesion, and delivering a message”. Like Maria, Dian had a similar experience with

using the teacher's hand-outs to check "the grammar, vocabulary relevancy, organization, coherence, content" after she finished composing. Sally also felt excited to discover that writing should comprise several components of "accuracy and fluency like grammar, vocabulary, organization, flow, coherence, cohesion and a message".

*Improved strategic competence*

Strategic competence is the "mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons: (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence; and (b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Canale, 1983, p. 10). In L2 context, strategic competence refers to "the ability to use a variety of communicative strategies" (Hyland, 2003, p. 32). The participants' anecdotes drew a connection between the improvement of their strategic competence and their developed SRL strategies. Sarah, for example, appreciated learning and using new effective self-regulated learning strategies "to avoid writing problems and be better in writing". Self-monitoring strategy, for instance, was one of the strategies she used "to discover the common mistakes to overcome them in the next assignment". Dian also appreciated the mastery of "a plenty of strategies and alternatives [and] that everyone can write appropriately if they chose the relevant strategies to start, proceed, and finish... strategies are not only helpful for this class but for the other classes as well".

Maria expressed her comfort with mastering many strategies to use in writing as she stated, "I feel like I am a self-assisted and that I could do my homework or assignments with less help from others. I think now I can find other resources to learn

new vocabulary, grammar and about writing too”. As part of using self-evaluation strategies, Maria compared previous assignments with new ones to identify any potential improvement. She emphasized that self-evaluation “helps to decide the next work to do to either make remedy or promote [her] work to a higher level”. Moreover, Sally used similar strategies to evaluate potential relevance of certain strategies before using them, “I evaluate... to think about the strategy before we take it... to be sure it will work to the assignment we write... we write well when we use relevant and different strategies”.

Sam emphasized that his students developed better writing competence during SRL instruction. He noticed the difference in their competence as he articulated, “I can tell that my students moved forward to a good writing level. They can now write good topic sentences, introductory and concluding paragraphs, maintain good coherence, cohesion and unity”. He mentioned that seeking help from peers and relatives and using writing models might have helped them improve their writing competence, “now they have various ways. Their peers, relatives, model writing, and from me... they get feedback and understand their weakness and strength. They know now that they get low mark because they did not put enough in their task”.

### **5.3.3 Learner Autonomy**

The findings suggested that the development of the SRL strategies across the three self-regulatory influences and the three SRL phases was conducive to developing the participants’ learning autonomy based on their anecdotes. Reflecting on their experiences, the participants reported interrelated strategies to descriptors associated with autonomy, including but not limited to: decision-making, control, self-direction, self-awareness, active learning, motivation, goal setting, time management, and self-

assessment (Andrade & Evans, 2013). As such, the participants' anecdotes provided further indication of effectiveness of SRL instruction represented by enhancing their learning autonomy. Their learning autonomy was embodied by the development and use of strategies during SRL instruction which enabled them to improve their writing.

Maria, for example, realized that by developing and using better self-control strategies, she became independent, "I feel now I am independent and can rely on myself when doing my work. Also, I feel I have more control of my study and can do things more easily and confidently.... Freedom to write about what you desire". She also appreciated self-observing her work which enhanced her sense of independency, and responsibility, "tracking also give me a sense of independency and responsibility when I follow up with my work". Moreover, navigating self-assessment strategies helped Maria to become an autonomous learner as she stated, "I feel like I am self-assisted and that I could do my homework or assignments with less help from others".

Dian noticed her reduced reliance on the teacher after she developed and used relevant learning strategies, "you are the teacher yourself now and know what to do and how to do it. You can even give yourself a mark, I mean you know your mark". Self-independence and agency was also clear in Sally's statement as she took responsibility of her own learning, selected her own topics, and chose her audience, "you can depend on yourself to do the things.... You can write whatever you want... we write for each other and reply to each other.... I can write on what I want".

Autonomy reflected interdependence between the teacher and learners as learners needed support and guidance from the teacher (White, 2003) who provided them with formal instruction. "Learners do not develop autonomy simply by being placed in

situations where they have no other choice... nor does autonomy entail complete independence or a lack of support. Instead, it reflects a state of interdependence between the teacher and learners” (Andrade & Evans, 2013, p. 17). Sam mentioned that he strove to enhance his students self-reliance by teaching them to make use of relevant strategies. He mentioned that he used to teach them a “variety of strategies and taught them to select the relevant one to the right task. Later, they could develop their own strategies.... They realized that my way of instruction is to help them improve their skills”.

Developing autonomy would require orchestrating the work between the participants and the teacher. The participants reported that the teacher not only taught them SRL strategies, but also gave them the choice to select relevant strategies and provided them with feedback that enabled them to promote autonomy. Using such strategies was endorsed by Borg & Al-Busaidi (2012) whose study recommended the teachers to properly utilize classroom management, teaching methods, learning assessment, diverse tasks, topics, instructional materials, and course objectives. Moreover, a range of abilities, commonly seen as indicators of learner autonomy, such as learning independently and cooperatively, self-evaluation, self-monitoring, self-awareness should be undertaken by learners to promote their autonomy.

Constructing an interdependent relationship between the teacher and the students entails undertaking relevant roles by the teacher and the students in the classroom. Despite prolonged debates over the teachers’ and students’ roles, there has been agreement on the importance of assigning relevant roles to each of them (Perry, et al., 2002). In the current study, the participants respected the teacher’s balanced instruction that involved undertaking various roles. Their feedback on the teacher’s role

corresponded with Harmer's (2004) proposition that the teacher can be a motivator; a source of information, suggestion, and guidance; and a source of feedback. They also admired the roles they commenced as they took responsibility of their learning, worked independently, took decisions, initiated activities, self-monitored, and self-evaluated their work. They also had the opportunity to enhance their motivation, express their emotion, and manipulate activities in a safe learning environment that invited SRL (Shanker, 2010).

## **5.4 Implications for Theory**

This section provides theoretical implications that draws on related theoretical propositions to generate meaningful insights. Such insights are helpful and conducive to shape relevant pedagogical implications in the following section.

### **5.4.1 Centeredness in the Classroom**

The acknowledged interdependent teacher-learner relationship leads to discuss Martin's (2004) contention about teacher-directness of SRL instruction. Martin claims that the cyclical model of SRL "assumed a structured, teacher-directed approach to the facilitation of student cognitive and behavioral strategies of self-regulation and self-efficacy in particular task environments" (p. 142). This contention has been related to debates over the benefits and costs of teacher/learner-centered instructional approaches.

Centeredness in the classroom was found as a major element ensued from the participants' data. There have been two key approaches associated with centeredness in the classroom: teacher-centered instruction and learner-centered instruction. On the one hand, the teacher-centered instruction primarily focuses on academic achievement, content instruction, student engagement, teacher monitoring, and providing corrective

feedback (Duffy & Roehler, 1982; McDonald, 2002). On the other hand, learner-centered instruction advocates more focus on the process of learning. It emphasizes the consideration of individual learners' needs, interests, talents, backgrounds, capacities and experiences. It also assumes that promoting the students' motivation, learning, and achievement is subject to understanding the learning process that informs any teaching practices (McCombs & Whisler, 1997).

Although the issue of instruction centeredness has been strongly controversial within research (De la Sablonnière, et al., 2009), the purpose of discussing the findings is not to favor one approach over the other. Rather, it aims to transparently display the participants' diverse and shared experiences and perceptions about their experience with SRL instruction. Operating from a pragmatic worldview, my discussion of the approach appropriateness is based on insights that generate "important understandings and discernments through the juxtaposition of different lenses, perspectives, and stances" (Greene, 2005, p. 208). Instead of polarizing the participants' preferences and desires with a single approach, I strove to "uncover information and perspectives, increase corroboration of the data, and render less biased and more accurate conclusion" (Reams & Twale, 2008, p. 13). Analyzing data from the classroom observation, interviews and diary studies revealed complementary roles that both the teacher and students undertook. The boundaries between the teacher-centered and the learner-centered approach were not as important as the interrelation of the teacher's and the students' role in the classroom.

On the one hand, the teacher's SRL instruction included key elements of the teacher-centred instruction. Observing the classroom revealed that Sam employed "presentation, demonstration, drill and practice, posing of numerous factual questions,

and immediate feedback and correction” (Schug, 2003, p. 94). He instructed the students explicitly and transmitted knowledge to help them master higher levels of processes and to enhance their achievement as he clarified in the class (Harris et al., 2011; McDonald, 2002). The teacher-model encouraged learners to acquire relevant skills through his guidance, feedback, and social reinforcement (Martin, 2004). On the other hand, the teacher’s SRL instruction, as I observed, included key elements of the learner-centered instruction such as hands-on activities and cooperative work (Schug, 2003). His instruction involved class facilitation by giving learners more choice, control, and influence over assessments (Perry, et al., 2002). He strove “to make sense of what they are learning by relating it to prior knowledge and by discussing it with others” (Brophy, 1999, p. 49).

Integrating aspects from both instructional approaches in SRL instruction was acknowledged by the participants who realized the importance of such integration. For example, Maria reported that the teacher incorporated aspects from both approaches as she stated, “the teacher is... teaching, and explaining but in the same time, he involves us in the class and discussion using our previous knowledge to guide us into current and future learning opportunities”. She embodied the complementary role of the teacher and students that enabled them to be active and responsible for their learning, “we are not only listeners and receivers of knowledge but we are producers to our learning. We are active not passive”. Sarah also expressed the same interest of being more than just a listener as she stated, “I’m not just a listener at my class, but am an active student”. Moreover, Sally described how the teacher undertook several roles in the classroom which enabled them to promote their levels of motivation, encourage learning, and



enhance achievement (McCombs & Whisler, 1997). She posited that “the teacher is speaking (explaining, lecturing) but listening.... He facilitates, he orchestrates, he demonstrates, he works as a social counterpart, he gives feedback”.

The participants’ anecdotes substantiated Rogers and Freiberg’s (1999) proposition of shared leadership, community building, and balanced needs of teachers and students to appropriately meet students’ learning needs. That positive relationship contributed to make them feel safe and secure and to improve their self-confidence. Dian, for example, described the positive relationship that featured a “friendly atmosphere the teacher created. He welcomes any questions, deals positively with mistakes and never punishes for them, moves around the class to provide help... encourages the students to interact... and has a shorter distance”. She appreciated the way the teacher and students exchanged roles, “working together is one of the best things the teacher is doing in the class because in this way we exchanged opinions... feel more safe... and use our previous knowledge and skills which makes us feel more comfortable and confident”. Maria also admired the safe learning environment she had as she stated, “[I] can do things more easily and confidently. I also feel that I am safe”. My observation of the SRL classroom supported the participants’ anecdotes as Sam undertook a balanced role along with his students in the classroom (see Chapter Four).

It would become clear that SRL instruction comprised not only teacher-directed instruction, but also learner-centered orientation. Nevertheless, as the SRL model included essential aspects of teacher-directed instruction (Martin, 2004), that inclusion did not ruin, but contributed to the effectiveness of the instruction. Employing elements of teacher-directed instruction was noticeably recognized by the participants who

emphasised the impacts of such elements on their learning experience. Maria, for instance, recognized the teacher's adoption of straightforward directions as she wrote, "thanks to the teacher's... straightforward directions... in the classroom, I managed to add a lot of skills, knowledge and experience to myself". She also highlighted the importance of learning from a more experienced person, "I feel happy with his way of guidance and directing and feel it is important to learn how to learn from the teachers who are more experienced than us". Sarah also praised the aspects of the teacher-directed instruction that helped her to create self-awareness, self-satisfaction and improved writing, "it is direct and specific.... These activities help me to be specific and direct, and it [informs] me how I can write in a good way. So, I feel this thing reflects on me that I feel that I'm satisfied".

Amidst the contention on whether the SRL model is a manifestation of teacher-directness or a self-initiated thoughts, feelings, and actions process, its application reflected a synthesis of both theorizing. Underpinned by the social cognitive theory, the SRL model views learners as proactive self-regulators who engage in goal setting, self-instruction, self-reinforcement, and self-monitoring (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). Similarly, the social cognitive theory exhibits SRL as an intentional and goal directed process through which learners guide their learning and commit themselves to accomplish certain tasks based on the standards they set to assess their learning. Learners deliberately analyze the learning context, set and manage goals, appropriately select and assess strategies, and evaluate learning progress (Bandura, 1986).

However, becoming a self-regulated writer, learners should not be left to discover the complexities by themselves through experimentation and exploration (Christie, 1999).

Without teachers' efforts to draw their students' conscious awareness (Paltridge, 2007) and to instruct them, learners could face challenges such as knowledge of writing, approach of writing, advance planning, generating content, revising, transcribing, persistence and self-efficacy (Santangelo et al., 2007). Such awareness and instruction can enhance students' thinking by providing students with heuristics required to generate ideas and plan strategies (Graham, et al., 2005).

“Self-regulatory skills are acquired through social modeling, social guidance and feedback, and social collaboration” (McInerney, 2011, p. 443). Instruction that involves modeling, scaffolding, guided practice, and independent use of strategies helps learners to develop their abilities to select, implement and evaluate relevant strategies (Block & Pressley, 2002). Mastering such strategies enables learners to construct writing pieces (Yeh, 1998), to monitor their progress (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987), to review writing products (Flower & Hayes, 1984), and to self-regulate (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). In so doing, students can “exploit the expressive potential of society’s discourse structures, pull together language, content, and contexts, while offering teachers a means of presenting students with explicit and systematic explanations of the ways writing works to communicate” (Hyland, 2004, p. 150).

The discussion above is corroborated by the participants' feedback about SRL instruction. It initially created their awareness, provided them with SRL strategies, and finally enabled them to self-regulate their learning. The participants reported that by receiving SRL instruction, they could start and finish writing tasks easily and confidently. They felt self-assisted and did their assignments with less help from others. They took responsibility of their own learning, selected their own topics, chose their audience,

found external learning resources, and used evaluation tools. Moreover, the participants emphasized that SRL instruction helped them to self-initiate learning activities in other classes where they did not explicitly learn such strategies.

#### **5.4.2 Students Empowerment**

Deliberations over teacher/learner centeredness have been also associated with whether a given approach (SRL, for instance) would empower or disempower “students to exercise their agency..., [serve] as an instrument to encourage complicity, compliance, and obedience” (Vassallo, 2013, p. 60). The discussion above suggests that employing SRL instruction was conducive to the students empowerment at two domains: compliance and resistance.

On the one hand, the participants indicated that their compliance to follow the teacher’s instruction and to abide by the class norms and expectations was intentional and purposeful. Refraining their desires, interests, thoughts and behaviors to achieve their academic and social goals was not antithetic to their agency and self-regulation either (Shanker, 2010). They expressed their consent to the way they handled the teacher’s SRL instruction. Sarah, for example, mentioned that following the teacher’s instruction was helpful, but not coercive. She explained, “following these strategies will help you achieve your goals... nobody can enforce you to do them but yourself. If you feel they are helpful for your life, then do them”. Moreover, students empowerment was not exclusive to blind compliance. Maria explained that although she followed the rules, she had opportunities of innovation for which she had been praised, “while we follow the rules, we can also come up with new things and the teacher praises our innovation”.

Sam believed his students did not feel compelled to follow and use the strategies he taught them. He clarified, “I think they are happy more than compelled. As they started to learn and use new strategies and these strategies made a difference in their writing they got impressed and decided to use them”. Sam explained that the participants realized the advantage of learning SRL strategies, the reason why they did not feel compelled, “they did not feel compelled maybe because they realized that my way of instruction is to help them improve their skills. They are fine with this. They even express their satisfaction by complimenting the use of these strategies”.

Students empowerment also entailed that learners could assume an active and purposeful learning engagement, express opinions and interests, show loyalty and responsibility for learning. (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). Dian alluded how the teacher’s instruction empowered her to “navigate the sea of learning and writing” by mastering “a plenty of strategies and alternatives”. With the teacher’s “guidance, freedom to choose the topic, and primary discussion about it, I feel like I am writing not only for the mark but because I have something in my mind and heart to express it. I have my own choice”. Sally also posited that her compliance to follow the teacher’s strategies was subject to the appropriateness of these strategies to her goals accomplishment, “we tried some strategies and when I found them helpful... I can feel that if I follow using the strategies, I can achieve my goals. And even I think [I] improved writing in this course”.

On the other hand, aspects of resistance were obvious throughout the participants’ experience. They resisted certain environment norms and practices which they believed were not helpful. For example, they resisted the large class with more than 70 students that might have hindering effects on their learning. For them, a large class meant less

feedback from the teacher as he would not have enough time to provide them with enough and individualized feedback. Moreover, the short time assigned to the writing course was one essential element that the participants complained about when they compared it with the work load they had to accomplish. Short time alongside with class size affected class interaction as their chance to ask questions would be limited. They also criticized the lack of technology and online resources during the instruction.

Moreover, empowerment was reflected not only through resisting certain norms and practices, but also through suggesting and pursuing alternatives to compensate for the deficiency or lack of appropriate norms and practices. They employed self-control, self-observation, and self-reaction strategies to overcome challenges they faced during the writing process. The participants' resistance to these norms and practices was informed by the goals they planned to achieve. They thought that if they had followed relevant strategies, they would have achieved the goals they had set. The participants' empowerment embodied Yowell and Smylie's (1999) proposition of empowerment the "students' capacity to understand behavior-outcome relationships within given contexts and their belief that they have the capability to enact the behaviors necessary for such desired outcomes" (p. 478).

Generating a standpoint that might assist teachers to make informed decisions was informed by the participants' everyday lives, social practices, and troubles they had due to political and socioeconomic issues. Their experiences were more important than the structure and categorization of irrelevant conceptual abstraction (James 1979a). Suggesting that the SRL cyclical model of instruction contributed to empower the participants was underpinned by the "understanding or meaning of phenomenon, formed

through participants and their subjective views, [that] make up this worldview (Creswell, & Clark, 2011, p. 40). SRL instruction empowered the participants at two domains: compliance and resistance. Interpreting the participants' feedback suggested that SRL instruction encouraged a mindful compliance to promote their commitment to academic advancement. Nevertheless, it also promoted their autonomy and independency by making use of various and relevant strategies. The students' compliance alongside with their resistance to certain aspects of the instruction rendered meaningful insights that would help to inform the teachers' decisions.

Appropriately informed decisions would help teachers to understand themselves, their students, and teaching tasks, enabling them to select relevant pedagogical practices. They should refrain from polarizing approaches because that could be meaningless and fruitless (Ercikan & Roth, 2006). Instead, mindful teachers should create and promote secure learning environments and give convenient roles to enable L2 writers to self-plan, self-initiate, and self-sustain their writing activities (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Undertaking such informed decisions requires the teacher to undertake the role of a facilitator who seeks to empower students to take on transformative roles (Perry, et al., 2002). By negotiating learners' needs and requirements, planning, designing, and evaluating curricular and instructional resources relevant to learners, the students would be assisted to develop transformative roles. In such a learning context, teachers are required to listen to their students and facilitate handling their learning challenges with the involvement of the class. Moreover, teachers need to be cooperative, tolerant, and knowledgeable (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). Having secured these features would render constructive "instruction that is responsive, collaborative, problem-centered, and

democratic in which both students and the instructor decide how, what, and when learning occurs” (Dupin-Bryant, 2004, p.42).

### **5.4.3 Motivation**

The participants’ improvement in the areas discussed above reflected their exertion of certain amounts of motivation. Motivation represented an essential factor that influenced their learning experience. Amongst the presence of various definitions and strategies associated with motivation in education, the participants displayed manifold arrays of motivation relevant to L2 learning experiences. The discussion reflects on participants’ feedback on their initiated and promoted motivational influences they encountered during their learning. The participants reported that they encountered noticeable changes to influential elements of SRL, including commitment to academic goals, self-efficacy, and learning strategies. Their reported outcomes were similar to previous research findings that showed a close relationship between motivation, academic achievement, and SRL strategies development (Zimmerman (2011).

Reflecting on the SRL motivational influences, the participants revealed that their motivation was central to developing their SRL and general improvement during the writing course. Their feedback reflected the four motivational influences required to self-regulate their learning: self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, task interest/value, and goal orientation (Zimmerman, 2011). The participants’ perception of their increased motivation was noticeable when they conducted a comparison of their motivation between the beginning and the end of the course. At the beginning of the course, their awareness of the SRL strategies, writing knowledge, and writing process were poor which influenced the lucidity and strength of their motivation. Although they suffered



from ambiguity of writing conception; broadness of goals; and absence of strategic planning, performance, and reflection, most of them had certain amounts of motivation.

The participants' increased motivation at the end of the course featured stronger self-efficacy to achieve more organized, proximal, and distal goals. Their self-efficacy influenced their motivation in the forethought phase to set goals and to select strategies as well as managing time and self-monitoring in the performance phase (Bandura, 1997). They clearly stated strong self-efficacy to become responsible learners and good writers who could write good essays.

Outcome expectancies also played a major role in enhancing their motivation of forethought planning and constructing their strategies (Shell, Murphy & Bruning, 1989) which helped them to improve writing. Although the participants shared similar outcome expectancies such as getting good marks, writing good essays, and enjoying writing, they reflected idiosyncratic outcome expectancies. Some of these idiosyncratic expectancies involved chatting with foreigners, getting a good score in the IELTS or the TOEFL, and finding a job in an international organization, as Dian hoped. Establishing working teams was one of Sarah's expected outcomes. The participants' outcome expectancies reflected one of Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) factors of motivation to learn a second language. Outcome expectancies in this regard represented the extrinsic rewards that the learners expect to gain as a result of learning a second language. The findings also showed that the participants' outcome expectancies were related to their self-efficacy (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). Obtaining strong self-efficacy, for example, to write and use the language properly facilitated their expectancies to chat with a native speaker or to find a job in an international organization.

Task interests and values were strongly present as a source of motivation that reflected the participants' current and future potentials. The participants' anecdotes about their interests and values of writing displayed their liking of writing because of its inherent properties (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). Writing represented a point of interest to the participants for its four values: attainment value, intrinsic value, utility value, and cost value (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). The findings revealed that interests and values of writing had existed when the participants started the course. However, at the end of the course, the participants indicated that they could write for more and various values. Consequently, the participants' acquisition of new interests and values entailed making different decisions of constructing learning strategies and setting goals as previous research also suggested (Ainley, Corrigan & Richardson, 2005). That being said, by expanding their conception about writing, their interest and values increased. Such development influenced their learning direction that involved reconsidering their goals and ways of achievement.

The fourth source of motivation was based on the participants' goal orientation when they set their goals. The participants' goal orientation comprised two types of orientation: learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation. Learning goal orientation reflected their "purpose of personal development and growth that guides achievement-related behavior and task-engagement" (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007, p.151). Performance goal orientation concerned their demonstration of competence and gaining approvals in comparison to others (Dweck & Legget, 1988). The findings showed that the participants combined learning oriented goals along with performance oriented goals at the end of the course.

Some of the motivational influences featured in the study findings corroborate Gardner and Lambert's (1959) proposition of integrative and instrumental orientation toward learning a second language. Integrative orientation concerns the reason that L2 learners learn a second language to identify with L1 community speakers. Instrumental orientation refers to the "utilitarian value of linguistic achievement" when an L2 learner learns a second language (p. 267). Although the participants did not show many signs of integrative orientation to identify with native speakers of English, they assumed strong and noticeable instrumental orientation. That orientation was reflected through their desires, for example, to find jobs in international organizations, to get good scores in language proficiency tests, to establish a working team, and to achieve purposes in life.

While the motivational influences might not be fully reflected through the integrative and instrumental orientation, the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational framework (Deci & Ryan, 2000) cast more insights on the findings. Whereas intrinsic motivation signifies "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable..." extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 55). The participants' enjoyment of writing, desires to write good essays and aspiration to become good writers elucidated their intrinsic motivation for writing. Their extrinsic motivation was obvious as to find a job in international organizations, to get good scores in language proficiency tests, to establish a working team, and to achieve purposes in life.

The participants' motivational influences can be also interpreted from Dörnyei's (1994) proposition of the three different levels of motivation: language level, learner level, learning situation level. First, the participants showed an appealing need as of how

to write based on a mindful conceptualization of writing, recently given by the teacher, which reflected the language level of motivation. They did not feel motivated to keep on studying only grammar and vocabulary. Rather, they had strong motivation to expand on wider aspects of writing such as writing as a social practice, addressing audience, appropriate communication via writing, expert-like writing, and cognitive and metacognitive mastery. Language level gave rise to the participants' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in which it drew directions for their goals and language choice upon their interests and valuing of writing.

Second, learner level involved the participants' personal traits and cognitive processes which manifested their need for achievement and self-confidence. Their need for achievement was also interrelated with their outcomes expectancies, interests, valuing of writing, and goal orientation. Their self-confidence encompassed dealing with "aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions about past experiences, and self-efficacy" (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 279). These elements had been properly handled by the participants as they progressed through SRL instruction. They could manage their writing anxiety, perceived competence, attribution, and self-efficacy by initially creating self-awareness about their capacities, writing tasks, and writing process. Having created such awareness helped them to decide on next steps of planning, performing, and reflecting on their learning. With good self-efficacy, the participants reported that they navigated through their learning easily and confidently which eventually increased their self-satisfaction about their achieved tasks. Self-efficacy and self-satisfaction as interrelated elements represented a key element that they undertook to regulate their emotion toward writing. This suggests that the SRL model dynamically enacted emotional processes not

only in the forethought phase, but also in the self-reflection phase. As the emotional processes are crucial for students to regulate (Kuhl, 1994; 2000), the SRL approach involves them in the “deliberate planning, monitoring, and regulating of cognitive, behavioral, and affective or motivational processes toward completion of an academic task” (Hadwin, 2008, p. 175).

Third, the learning situation level involves intrinsic and extrinsic motivational conditions in three areas. First, course-specific motivational components involved the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks. While the participants perceived those elements as highly daunting at the beginning of the course, they gained a high degree of self-satisfaction that boosted their motivation at the end of the course. Their increased motivation was linked to interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). The participants emphasized that their interest in writing increased as a result of receiving SRL instruction which made the course more interesting. During the course, the teacher used new teaching methods, provided teaching materials, and generated learning tasks that created a mindful application of the given syllabus. Doing so, the participants felt that the course became more relevant to them in terms of their existent challenges, prior knowledge and skills, learning engagement, their need for writing, and potential opportunities. Identifying the relevance of course and understanding the course expectations enabled them to revisit and enhance their expectancies of success and achievement. Interrelatedly, they generated good self-efficacy that they could achieve their writing and personal goals which was conducive to self-satisfaction.

Second, teacher specific motivational components represented a major issue for the students in past learning experiences. However, during SRL instruction, they were motivated to meet an empathetic, congruent, and accepting teacher who could understand their learning needs to appropriately address them. The participants noticed the difference in the teacher's authority type as he involved them in their learning, facilitated rather than dictated, and encouraged learner autonomy. They also appreciated his socialization of their motivation by modelling, task presentation, and feedback. Third, group specific motivational components entailed assisting the students to establish relevant goal orientations and to evaluate their progress during the course. Negotiating and establishing the classroom norms and reward system from the start enabled the students to enhance their learning by observing and abiding by them. The teacher also eased creating group cohesion by highlighting the importance of utilizing social surroundings. The students had the opportunity to learn and work collaboratively in pairs and in groups which promoted the students' involvement in their learning (Dörnyei, 1994.)

### **5.5 Implications for Practice**

Writing is a complex and dynamic process that develops over a long period of time by changing learners' strategic behavior, knowledge, and motivation (Harris et al., 2011). Employing SRL instruction helped the students make such changes that enabled them to alleviate their writing challenges, improve their writing achievement, and enhance their SRL strategy use. SRL development features a "complex, multifaceted process that integrates key motivational variables and self-processes" (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004, p. 538). The study findings suggested that helping the students to

become more active and self-regulated learners by teaching them SRL strategies contributed to their writing achievement and strategy development and use.

To help the students improve their writing achievement and SRL strategy use, not only instructors, but also students are encouraged to collaboratively contribute to students success. It is hoped that the current study will help instructors, and educators to empower the students to become more self-sufficient and independent writers. To make the best of the study outcomes, the study suggests several guiding pedagogical practices that can contribute to improve the students' writing and strategy use

### **5.5.1 Promoting SRL strategies**

In the SRL model, instructors are encouraged to enhance their students empowerment, expand their repertoire of learning strategies, and enable them to employ relevant SRL strategies. Empowering the students entails that instructors enhance their students' self-efficacy, informing them that success is contingent to their effective use of relevant strategies (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). Promoting learners as proactive self-regulators requires instructors to engage them in processes of generating, implementing, and evaluating strategic plans (Zimmerman, 2000). Strategically planning writing can help the students to generate ideas (Graham, et al., 2005), to produce writing pieces (Yeh, 1998), to monitor their progress (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987), and to review writing products (Flower & Hayes, 1984). To effectively promote the students' SRL strategies instructors are invited to incorporate versatile pedagogical activities such as modelling, direct instruction, dialogue, and facilitation (Vassallo, 2013).

### **5.5.2 Incorporating social influences**

The incorporation of social influences is emphasized by the social cognitive theory, stressing the prominent role that specific contextual or situational variables play to empower a self-regulated writer (Bandura, 1997). Instructors should engage their students in developing their awareness of writing organizational patterns by handling real world writing that would motivate their attitudes and desires to write in the target language (Swami, 2008). Moreover, instructors are invited to manipulate their instruction to suit the diversity of language use in the students' given culture (Henry & Roseberry, 1998).

### **5.5.3 Constructing learner-needs-oriented teaching methods**

Instructors should construct the relevant teaching approach to address their students' learning needs. Decisions on what approach to employ should be free of following a certain doctrine-based approach *per se*. Identifying and addressing the students' needs help to determine "what needs to be taught... how to deliver instruction... and what environment are most conducive for (Vassallo, 2013, p. 48) best learning results. An appropriate decision on the relevant approach would help to compensate certain strengths and weaknesses associated with a single approach (Denscombe, 2008). An appropriate instructional approach should incorporate implicit and explicit pedagogical intervention that involves structuring learning environments as well as direct strategy instruction. This implies that instructors can employ means of learning facilitation and dialogue as well as explicit strategy instruction and modeling (Vassallo, 2013). Appropriate instruction "depends upon teachers engaging students as active collaborators in their own learning and development; modeling, dialogue, sharing,



and scaffolding are critical” (Sexton, Harris & Graham, 1998, p. 308). While there are debates over the benefits of explicit strategy instruction, SRL emphasizes that explicit instruction is provided in a such supportive manner based on individual students' needs (1998).

#### **5.5.4 Enhancing Students' Motivation**

Supportive instruction is conducive to motivation which plays a significant role in developing good writing and strategy use. Instructors should pay special attention to sustain students' existent motivation and/or increase their weak motivation (Harmer, 2007). They can select among several classroom practices that help to enhance students' motivation: assessing students' attitudes and needs, communicating high expectation for writing, selecting motivating materials and content, guiding learners at all stages of the writing process, serving as an audience, and creating a constructive learning environment (Andrade & Evans, 2013).

#### **5.5.5 Building a Constructive Learning Environment**

A constructive learning environment plays an essential role in facilitating the students' learning and enhancing their writing and strategy use. Improving writing and SRL strategy use as influenced by social action and interaction (Hyland, 2007) requires structuring a safe and relevant learning environment. “Collaboration, nonthreatening evaluations, self-evaluations, and opportunities for mastery are features of classroom environments” (Vassallo, 2013, p. 51).

Building such an environment involves creating a positive classroom environment where instructors provide healthy learning opportunities for students to learn productively. Learners feel safe, supported, motivated, and self-efficacious in this

environment. Instructors should provide learners with opportunities to take risks and make errors in a comfortable environment. In such an environment, learners enjoy opportunities for choice and control over their learning in the classroom.

Considering interpersonal factors is also important when receiving and giving feedback in a safe environment. Feedback might facilitate or hinder learning development. Accordingly, comments focusing on judging, evaluating, and criticizing should be minimized (Andrade & Evans, 2013). Learners' affective factors need to be considered because learners provide their best responses in an encouraging, supportive, and motivating classroom atmosphere (Krashen, 1985).

Building a constructive learning environment also entails that instructors should encourage social collaboration. Instructors should provide students with opportunities to interact and collaborate with not only peers, but also themselves and other L2 learners in other learning contexts. Cooperative learning and interaction with other peers and expert writers offer learners opportunities to express ideas, thoughts, and emotions about their learning. "Giving and receiving ideas and clarification, providing task-related help and assistance, exchanging resources and providing constructive feedback" (Dörnyei, 1997, p. 484) enable learners to achieve their goals. Creating cooperative group-work, enhancing positive interdependence in groups (Kagan, 1994), and creating peer revision bodies assist learners to enhance collaboration as well (Suzuki, 2008).

### **5.5.6 Enhancing Learner Autonomy**

Encouraging learner autonomy and agency is central to enhancing learners' writing and strategy use. Both autonomy and agency have interdependent relations with strategy use in which they influence and are influenced by each other (Oxford, 2017).

Instructors can enhance learner autonomy and agency by allowing choice of material, changing teacher and learner roles, and developing learner network. Being conducive to SRL development, learner autonomy can be enhanced by establishing a supportive environment, encouraging risk-taking, and making constructive judgement and evaluations (Andrade & Evans, 2013).

### **5.5.7 Creating Opportunities for Multiple Sources of Feedback**

Promoting multiple sources of feedback plays a significant role in enhancing learners' writing and strategy use. Instructors should encourage their students to seek feedback from multiple sources such self-assessment, peer-assessment, and other-assessment (instructors, family members, and expert writers). Receiving feedback from multiple sources can serve various purposes. It treats writing as a communicative and social activity where the students send and receive messages. Dealing with writing as social activity, the students engage in "goal-oriented social processes" (Martin, 1993, p. 142) when readers act as real audience. Getting involved in a communicative and social activity enabled the students to collaborate effectively (Dörnyei, 1997). While peer-assessment and other-assessment feedback might not be very structured, instructors' feedback has to be specific and consistent. Specific and consistent feedback helps the students to effectively self-monitor and evaluate their learning strengths and weaknesses (Glass, 2014).

### **5.5.8 Incorporating Technology in The Writing Process**

Technology, including but not limited to internet-enhanced resources, represents a rich source of learning that augments the students' learning experience conducive to improving their writing and strategy use. The "affordances of technology can serve as

mediational tools to create shared understandings for learners in different learning modes” (Hsieh, 2017, p. 117). Instructors should choose amongst the diversity of technological tools that suit their students’ learning needs. They can employ several online activities. Social networking tools might involve the use of Skype and Facebook. Communication tools include email. Informational websites involve a variety of wikis. Language-learning forums and websites feature online dictionaries, Google Translate, and Thesaurus Dictionaries. Recreational websites such as YouTube provides audio/video displays (Hsieh, 2017). When effectively employed, these resources alongside with the instructor, peers, and other sources of assistance, provide the students with opportunities of learning. These activities not only promote engagement and participation through extensive practice, but also provide a safe public space for linguistic and content-oriented feedback (Kessler, 2013).

### **5.6 Limitation of the Study and Future Research Directions**

During the application of the SRL instructional intervention, several limitations were recorded. The discussion of these limitations is provided in this section. Directions for future research that might contribute to further research endeavors concerning potential impacts of SRL instruction on L2 writing and strategy use are also suggested.

First, the SRL instructional intervention took place during a four-month semester which might not be long enough for writing and SRL to develop. Harris et al. (2011) emphasize that developing competence in writing process takes a long time and that more time is needed for expertise to develop. Moreover, developing SRL strategies takes long time as a “complex, multifaceted process that integrates key motivational variables and self-processes” (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004, p. 538). Although the findings showed a

significant difference in the SRL students' writing achievement with moderate effect size, these findings might have showed only the beginning of their development process. For the same reason, while some participants reported that they could utilize the SRL strategies in other classes, it was beyond the scope of the study to evaluate the maintenance and generalization of the SRL strategies. Such limitations are due to the relatively short period of time of conducting the intervention which was over one semester. Future research is recommended to employ longer period of time to obtain fuller image of the students' development of writing and SRL.

Second, the study focused on the impact of SRL instruction on improving L2 writing. The study discussed such impact based on the quantitative results of the writing overall scores. However, the study did not provide detailed analysis for each of the writing criteria of the IELTS test: task response, coherence and cohesion, lexical coherence, and grammatical range accuracy criteria. Future studies might consider the impact of SRL instruction on each of these criteria thoroughly and distinctly.

Third, the sample of the qualitative part involves a small number of participants to explore their experiences with SRL in a specific sociocultural context. The findings are helpful to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants' experience with the development of writing and SRL strategies rather than generalize. The findings did not define, but qualitatively reported and illustrated the participants' development of SRL. Future studies might consider manipulating variables such as SRL constructs, writing tasks, proficiency levels, and educational settings to provide wider images of the development of L2 learning.

Fourth, the study did not seek to measure the SRL strategies. Rather, it sought to qualitatively explore the participants' learning experiences in light of the SRL cyclical model. Measuring the SRL strategies needs "highly specific or fine-grained forms of measurement targeting behaviors, cognition, or affective processes as they occur in real time across authentic context (Cleary, Callan, & Zimmerman, 2012, p. 4). Due to the exhaustiveness of the SRL model, defining, operationalizing, and measuring the SRL strategies falls beyond the scope of the study. Future studies might consider investigating certain constructs of interest and measure them.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

The motivation to conduct this study stemmed from the need to investigate and explore potential instructional approach that might contribute to the academic success of the Palestinian L2 learners. My firsthand experience as an L2 learner and L2 instructor, in addition to research (Hammad, 2015, 2016), showed that L2 writers face common challenges including, limited competences, lack of effective approach, lack of proactive planning, and low motivation and self-efficacy. This convergent mixed methods study aimed to find out how SRL instruction impacted the Palestinian students' L2 writing and strategy use. In the quantitative strand, it examined the impact of SRL instruction on the students' writing scores by using a quasi-experimental design. This served to determine if the IELTS writing scores differed significantly between the students who received SRL instruction and those who received regular instruction.

In the qualitative part, the study employed semi-structured interviews, diary studies, and observation to explore the students' experiences by giving voices to them and probing undiscovered influences that affected their behaviors and actions. The study

sought to explore how the participants constructed their own meaning during SRL instruction to improve their L2 writing. The qualitative part provided the students with opportunities to convey their perceptions and beliefs through which their constructed meaning was explored from their perspectives and through their lens (Cohen et al., 2007). By studying how SRL instruction might impact the students writing and strategy use, the study aspired to reduce the gap between novice and expert writers. I hoped to alleviate the students' challenges, improve their writing achievement, and enhance their SRL strategy use.

The results of the quantitative data showed that the students who received SRL instruction significantly outperformed those who received regular instruction with a moderate effect size. The SRL students significant outperformance was determined by significantly higher IELTS writing scores than the students in regular instruction. The results of the qualitative data showed that the students who received SRL instruction could develop and use better repertoires of SRL strategies than those who received regular instruction. That development was perceived by the participants to take place across the three phases of SRL: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. Self-awareness was perceived by the participants as an essential contribution to inform their leaning as they believed it presupposed the development of relevant learning practices and academic achievement. The participants reported that they developed more positive perceptions and beliefs about their experiences during SRL instruction than regular instruction which contributed to enhance their learning. The findings indicated that SRL instruction contributed to the students learning, developing, and using relevant writing

and SRL strategies. The study suggested that by relevantly using these strategies, they believed they could improve their writing.

The findings alluded that the students' academic accomplishments and SRL development were not to flourish without reciprocal interactions among the personal, behavioral, and environmental processes (Bandura, 1986). Those processes included self-initiated thoughts, feelings, and actions that the participants used to attain their imagined goals of improving their writing strategies and enhancing the quality of written texts. The participants could monitor the effectiveness of the SRL strategies they used by enacting a cyclic processes of feedback loop. They self-reacted to the obtained feedback by continuing, modifying, or changing any strategies according to its appropriateness (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Motivational processes such as self-efficacy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation played a central role that enabled the participants to start writing tasks in a mindful and confident manner. Feeling motivated, they proactively set goals, developed strategic plans, performed and evaluated them to attain those goals.

Students better involvement in the classroom, in which they effectively participated in class activities, stronger self-agency, and more control of their learning were perceived as influential elements on learning that the students enjoyed during SRL. The teacher, having balanced roles in the classroom, helped to build shared responsibility between him and the students in which the students appreciated learning in such environment. Incorporating aspects of teacher-centered instruction along with learners-centered instruction was suggested to be conducive to better learning. Modelling and direct instruction were crucial to provide the participants with knowledge and skills required to develop their writing and self-regulation. While modeling provided the



participants with opportunities to observe, emulate, self-control, and self-regulate, direct instruction featured intentional, explicit, and structured interaction. Although modelling and direct instruction represented essential elements of teacher-centered instruction, the study suggested that they were effective in facilitating the participants' learning.

Nevertheless, other pedagogical forms such as facilitation and dialogue should be utilized in the SRL approach to writing as they have influential impacts on learning

Merging the results of quantitative and qualitative data suggested that SRL instruction had effective impacts on students writing achievement and strategy use. The students perceived SRL instruction to help them alleviate their writing challenges and improve their writing achievement. Writing improvement was reflected not only through students significantly higher scores, but also through their perceived improvement of their linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences. Effectiveness of SRL instruction was also proposed for its impact on enhancing the students SRL strategy use. The students development of more and better repertoire of SRL strategies enabled them to become more active and self-regulated learners who contributed to their academic success.

SRL instruction helped the participants not only to improve their academic gains and SRL strategies, but also to become autonomous learners who empowered themselves. Becoming autonomous learners, they could select writing topics; construct, perform, and evaluate strategies; and accomplish tasks independently. Students empowerment was manifested by their compliance to what they deemed helpful and by their resistance to what they believed hindering their learning. Empowering the students to become self-

regulated learners could promote their motivation to learn; enhance strategic planning, performance, and self-reflection; and improve their academic achievement.

Although the participants reported that they developed positive perceptions about SRL instruction, they exhibited indications of dissatisfaction with resources that were not available in the class and the university. The shortage of time, large size of the class, insufficient feedback from several sources, lack of technology and internet use, and insufficient authentic learning represented areas of complaints by the participants.

The study recommended that L2 instructors should promote SRL strategies as part of the teaching and learning process by engaging the students in generating, implementing, and evaluating their own SRL strategies. Students' motivation to learn should be enhanced by proper planning and selection of classroom material and practices that enhanced the students' engagement in their learning. Moreover, instructors are invited to construct learning environments based on their learners' needs rather than on instructors' personal preferences. Building a constructive learning environment where students feel safe, protected, and supported would contribute to their learning success. Such learning environments could have influential impacts on enhancing students autonomy. Learner autonomy is recommended to be enhanced by allowing choice of material, balancing teachers and learners roles, encouraging risk-taking, and making constructive judgement and evaluations. The study also emphasized the importance of feedback and that constructive feedback could be obtained not only from teachers but also from other sources such as peers, relatives, and any other experts. Incorporating technology in the writing classroom was perceived as a crucial element that instructors should consider as well.

For future research directions, the study recommended that future studies might consider researching the maintenance and generalization of the SRL strategies over extended periods of time and into other classes. Future studies might also research manipulating variables such as SRL constructs, writing tasks, proficiency levels, and educational settings.

## References

- Abd Al-Raheem, M. (2011). The effectiveness of a suggested program for improving the academic writing skills of English department students at AlAqsa University in Gaza. (Unpublished PhD dissertation). Ain Shams University, Egypt.
- Abd Majid, F. (2007). SRL: Effective practices in ESL writing classes. *Journal of Language Studies*, 3, 115-128.
- Abou Shaban, S. (2003). Difficulties facing English majors in writing research papers at The Islamic University of Gaza. (Unpublished master thesis). The Islamic University of Gaza.
- Abu-Jarad, H. (2008). Palestinian EFL intermediate and advanced learners' perceptions about peer feedback in writing classes. *Journal of Al-Azhar University, Humanities, Sciences*, 10(1), 1-20.
- Abu Shawish, J., & Atea, M. (2010). *An investigation of Palestinian EFL majors' writing apprehension: Causes and remedies*. Paper presented at the First National Conference on Improving TEFL Methods and Practices at Palestinian Universities, Gaza, PA.
- Adas, D., & Bakir, A. (2013). Writing difficulties and new solutions: Blended learning as an approach to improve writing abilities. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Studies*, 3(9), 254-266.
- Ahmadi, K., Ketabi, S., & Rabiee, M. (2012). The effect of explicit instruction of meta cognitive learning strategies on promoting Iranian intermediate language learners' writing skill. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(5), 938-944.

- Ainley, M., Corrigan, M., & Richardson, N. (2005). Students, tasks and emotions: Identifying the contribution of emotions to students' reading of popular culture and popular science texts. *Learning and Instruction, 15*(5), 433-447.
- Allwright, R. (1984). Why don't learners learn what teachers teach? The interaction hypothesis. In D. Singleton & D. Little (Eds.), *Language learning in formal and informal contexts* (pp. 3-18). Dublin: Irish Association for Applied Linguistics.
- Allwright, R., (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics 5*, 156-171.
- Al-Shaer, I. (2014). Employing concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy to help EFL learners better generate argumentative compositions. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 8*(10), 1-29.
- Andrade, M., & Evans, N. (2013). *Principles and practices for response in second language writing: Developing self-regulated learners*. New York, NY: Routledge
- Anton, M. (1999). The discourse of a learner-centered classroom: Sociocultural perspectives on teacher-learner interaction in the second-language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(5), 303-318.
- Atay, D., & Kurt, G. (2006). Prospective teachers and L2 writing anxiety. *Asian EFL Journal, 8*(4), 100-118.
- Azevedo, R., & Witherspoon, M. (2011). SRL with hypermedia. In B.J. Zimmerman and D.H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 289-307). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). Process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal, 54*(2), 153-160.

- Bae, Hye Jeong. (2012). The effectiveness of genre-based L2 writing instruction on Korean middle school students' writing ability. *English Teaching*, 67(3), 147-180.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1978). The self system in reciprocal determinism. *American Psychologist*, 33, 344-358.
- Bandura, A. (1988). Self-regulation of motivation and action through goal systems. In V. Hamilton, G. H. Bower, & N. H. Frijda (Eds.), *Cognitive perspectives on emotion and motivation* (pp. 37-61). Dordrecht, The Netherlands, Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Bandura, A. (2008). Toward an agentic theory of the self. In: H. W. Marsh, R. G. Craven & D. M. McInerney (Eds.), *Self-processes, Learning, And Enabling Human Potential: Dynamic New Approaches* (pp. 15-49). NV : Information Age Publishing, Charlotte.
- Bandura, A., & Simon, K. (1977). The role of proximal intentions in self-regulation of refractory behavior. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*. 1, 177-193.
- Benson, P. (2007). State-of-the-art article: Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching* 40, 21-40.

- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1983). Levels of inquiry in writing research. In P. Rosenthal, S. Walmsley, & L. Tamor (Eds.), *Research in writing: Principles and methods* (pp. 3-25). New York, NY: Longman International.
- Bhaskar, R. (1979). *The possibility of naturalism: A philosophical critique of the contemporary human sciences*. Sussex: The Harvester Press.
- Block, C. C., & Pressley, M. (2002). *Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices*. New York, NY: Guilford.
- Boardman, G. & Frydenberg, L. (2008) *Writing to Communicate, 2: Paragraphs and Essays*. (3rd ed.). New York: Pearson, Longman.
- Boekaerts, M., Pintrich, P., & Zeidner, M. (2000). *Handbook of self-regulation* (Eds.). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT Journal*, 12, 1-45.
- Bourke, J. M. (1996). In praise of linguistic problem-solving. *RELC Journal*, 27(2), 12-29.
- Bown, J. (2009). Self-regulatory strategies and agency in self-instructed language learning: A situated view. *The Modern Language Journal* 93(4), 570-583.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3 (2), 77-101.
- British Council. (2015). Take an exam. Retrieved from <http://www.britishcouncil.ps/en/exam/ielts>

- Brophy, J. (1999). Perspectives of classroom management: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. In H. Freiberg (Ed.), *Beyond behaviorism: changing the classroom management paradigm* (43-56). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Brown, K. L. (2003). From teacher-centered to learner-centered curriculum: Improving learning in diverse classrooms, *Education* 124(1), 49-54.
- Callaghan, M., & Rothery, J. (1988). *Teaching factual writing: A genre based approach*. Marrickville, N.S.W.: DSP Literacy Project, Metropolitan East Region.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2-28). London, UK: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Charge, N., & Taylor, L. B. (1997). Recent developments in IELTS, *ELT Journal*, 51(4), 374-380.
- Cheng, Y. S., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning*, 49(3), 417-446.
- Chiou, J., & Spreng, R. A. (1996). The reliability of difference scores: A re-examination. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behaviour*, 9, 158-167.
- Christie, F. (1999). Genre theory and ESL teaching: A systemic functional perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(4), 759-763.



- Cleary, T. J., Callan, G. L., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2012). Assessing self-regulation as a cyclical, context-specific phenomenon: Overview and analysis of SRL microanalytic protocols. *Education Research International*, 2012, 1-19.
- Cleary, T. J., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2004). Self-regulation empowerment program: A school-based program to enhance self-regulated and self-motivated cycles of student learning. *Psychology in the Schools*, 41, 537-550.
- Cleary, T. J., Zimmerman, B. J., & Keating, T. (2006). Training physical education students to self-regulate during basketball free throw practice. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 77(2), 251-262.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge.
- Collett, P. (2014). Researching SRL and foreign language learning. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 5(4), 430-442.
- Corno, L. (2001). Volitional aspects of SRL. In B.J. Zimmerman and D.H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 191-225). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Council of Europe. (2001) *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Cresswell, A. (2000). Self-monitoring in student writing: developing learner responsibility, *ELT Journal*, 54(3), 235-244.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crookes, G., & Lehner, A. (1998). Aspects of process in an ESL critical pedagogy teacher education course. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(2), 319-328.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41, 469-512.
- Crowhurst, M. (1990). The development of persuasive/argumentative writing. In R. Beach, & S. Hynds (Eds.), *Developing discourse practices in adolescence and adulthood* (pp. 200–222). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Danoff, B., Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (1993). Incorporating strategy instruction within the writing process in the regular classroom: Effects on the writing of students with and without learning disabilities. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 25, 304-311.
- Dastjerdi, V. H., & Samian, H. S. (2011). Quality of Iranian EFL learners' argumentative essays: Cohesive devices in focus. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(2), 65-76.
- De La Paz, S., & Graham, S. (2002). Explicitly teaching strategies, skills and knowledge: Writing instruction in middle school classrooms. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94, 291-304.
- De la Sablonnière, R., Taylor, D. M., & Sadykova, N. (2009). Challenges of applying a student-centered approach to learning in the context of education in Kyrgyzstan. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 29, 628-624.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227-268.

- Denscombe, M. (2008). Communities of practice: A research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 2(3), 270 - 83.
- Denzin, N. K (2008). The new paradigm dialogs and qualitative inquiry. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 21(4), 315-325.
- Diaz, R.M., Neal, C.J., & Amaya-Williams, M. (1990). The social origins of self-regulation. In L. Moll (Ed.), *Vygotsky and education: Instructional implications and applications of sociocultural psychology* (pp. 127-155). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Dignath, C., Buettner, G., & Langfeldt, H. (2008). How can primary school students learn SRL strategies most effectively? A meta-analysis on self-regulation training programmes. *Educational Resource Review*, 3, 101-129.
- Dixon, J. (1987). The question of genres. In I. Reid (Ed.), *The place of genre in learning: Current debates* (pp. 9-21). Deakin, Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Donato, R., & McCormick, D. (1994). A sociocultural perspective on language learning strategies: The role of mediation, *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 453-64.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273-284.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1997). Psychological processing in cooperative language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 482-493.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

- Dudley-Evans, T. (1997). Genre models for the teaching of academic writing to second language speakers: advantages and disadvantages. In T. Miller (Ed.), *Functional approaches to written text: Classroom applications* (pp. 158-167). Washington DC: United States Information Agency.
- Duffy, G.G., & Roehler, L.F. (1982). Direct instruction of comprehension: What does it really mean? *Reading Horizons*, 23, 35-40.
- Dupin-Bryant, P. A. (2004). Teaching styles of interactive television instructors: A descriptive study. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Durlak, J. A., Furnham, T., & Lampman, C. (1991). Effectiveness of cognitive behavioral therapy for maladapting children - a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 110(2) 204-14.
- Dweck, C. S., & Legget, E. L. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review*, 95, 256-273.
- Ehrman, M.E. (2002). Understanding the learner at the superior-distinguished threshold. In Leaver, B.L., Shekhtman, B. (Eds.), *Developing professional-level language proficiency* (pp. 245-259). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ercikan, K., & Roth, W.-M. (2006). Constructing data. In C. Conrad & R. Serlin (Eds.), *SAGE Handbook for research in education: Engaging ideas and enriching inquiry* (pp. 451-475). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Erkan, Y. D., & Saban, A. (2011). Writing scores relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing: A Correlational study in Turkish tertiary-level EFL. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1), 164-191.

- Farrah, M. (2012). The impact of peer feedback on improving the writing skills among Hebron University students. *An-Najah University, Journal for Research-Humanities*, 26(1), 179- 210.
- Feast, V. (2002). The impact of IELTS scores on performance at university. *International Educational Journal*, 3(4), 70-85.
- Feilzer, M. Y. (2010). Doing mixed methods research pragmatically: Implications for the rediscovery of pragmatism as a research paradigm. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 4(1) 6-16.
- Fitzmaurice, G. M., Laird, N. M., & Ware, J. H. (2004). *Applied longitudinal analysis*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Flower, L. (1994). *The construction of negotiated meaning: A social cognitive theory of writing*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Flower, L., & Hayes, J. (1980). The dynamics of composing: making plans and juggling constraints. In Gregg, L. & Sternberg, E. (Eds.), *Cognitive process in writing* (pp. 31-50). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Flower, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1984). Images, plans and prose: The representation of meaning in writing. *Written Communication*, 1, 120-160.
- Flowerdew, L. (2000). Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing. *ELT journal* 54, 369-76.
- Gall, M.D., Gall, J.P., & Borg, W.R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th Eds.). Boston, New York and San Francisco: Pearson Education Inc.
- Gao, X. (2006). Has language learning strategy research come to an end? A response to Tseng et. al. *Applied Linguistics*, 28, 615-620.

- Gao, X. (2010). *Strategic language learning: The roles of agency and context*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Gao, X. S., & Zhang, L.J. (2011). Joining forces for synergy: Agency and metacognition as interrelated theoretical perspectives on learner autonomy. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation and autonomy: Exploring the links* (pp. 25-41). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Garcia, T., & Pintrich, P.R. (1994). Regulating motivation and cognition in the classroom: The role of self-schemas and self-regulatory strategies. In D. H. Schunk & B.J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self-regulation on learning and performance: Issues and applications* (pp.132-157). NJ, Hillsdale, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second–language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, 13(4), 266-272.
- Gasson, S. (2004). Rigor in grounded theory research: An interpretive perspective on generating theory from qualitative field studies. In M. E. Whitman & A. B. Woszczyński (Eds.), *The handbook of information systems research* (pp. 79-102). Hershey, PA: Idea Group.
- Glass, M. (2014). Teaching strategies to get the tone right: Making requests and gaining compliance. *TESL Canada Journal*, 30(7), 125-134.
- Graham, S. (2006). Strategy instruction and the teaching of writing. In C. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (pp. 187-207). New York, NY: Guilford.

- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (1989). A components analysis of cognitive strategy instruction: Effects on learning disabled students' compositions and self-efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 81*, 353-361.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (1997). Self-regulation and writing: Where do we go from here? *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 22*, 102-114.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2000). The role of self-regulation and transcription skills in writing and writing development. *Educational Psychologist, 35*, 3-12.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2003). Students with learning disabilities and the process of writing: A meta-analysis of SRSD studies. In L. Swanson, K. Harris, & S. Graham (Eds), *Handbook of learning disabilities* (pp. 383-402). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2005). *Writing better. Effective strategies for teaching students with learning difficulties*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2009). Almost 30 years of writing research: Making sense of it all with the wrath of Khan. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 24*(2), 58-68.
- Graham, S., Harris, K.R., & Mason, L. H. (2005). Improving the writing performance knowledge, and self-efficacy of struggling young writers: The effects of self-regulated strategy development. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30*, 207-241.
- Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Troia, G.A. (1998). Writing and self-regulation: Cases from the self-regulated strategy development model. In D. H. Schunk & B. J.

- Zimmerman (Eds.), *Developing self-regulated learners: From teaching to self-reflective practice* (pp. 20-41). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Graham, S., & Perrin, D. (2006). *Writing next: Effective strategies to improve writing of adolescents in middle and high schools*. Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellence in Education.
- Greene, J. C. (2005). The generative potential of mixed methods inquiry. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 28(2), 207-11.
- Greene, J. A., & Azevedo, R. (2008). A macro-level analysis of SRL processes and their relations to the acquisition of a sophisticated mental model of a complex system. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 34, 18-29.
- Grix, J. (2004). *The foundations of research*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquires. *Educational Resources Informational Center Annual Review Paper*, 29, 75-91.
- Hadwin, A.F. (2008). Self-regulated learning. In T.L. Good (Ed.), *21<sup>st</sup> century education: A reference handbook* (pp. 175-183). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hadwin, A.F., Järvelä, S., & Miller, M. (2011). Self-regulated, co-regulated, and socially-shared regulation of learning. In B.J. Zimmerman and D.H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 289-307). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hamad, S., Ali, U., & Salih, A. (2007). Difficulties second year students encounter in composition. *Journal of Tikrit University for the Humanities*, 14(11), 533-548.



- Hammad, A. E. (2013). Palestinian EFL university-level students' use of writing strategies in relation to their EFL writing scores. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 3(10), 214-223.
- Hammad, A. E. (2015). The effect of teacher direct written corrective feedback on Al-Aqsa University female students' performance in English essay. *An-Najah University Journal of Research-Humanities*, 29(6), 401-423.
- Hammad, A. E. (2016). Palestinian university students' problems with EFL essay writing in an instructional setting. In A. Ahmed & H. Abou abdelkader (Eds.), *Teaching EFL writing in the 21<sup>st</sup> century Arab world: Realities & challenges* (pp. 99-124). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Harmer, J. (2004). *How to teach writing*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English*. Essex, England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Essex, England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (1996). *Making the writing process work: Strategies for composition and self-regulation*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Harris, K. R., Graham, S., MacArthur, C. A., Reid, R., & Mason, L. (2011). SRL processes and children's writing. In B. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 187-202). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Harris, K., Graham, S., & Mason, L. H. (2002). POW plus TREE equals powerful opinion essays. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 34, 70-73.

- Harris, K. R., Graham, S., & Mason, L. (2006). Improving the writing, knowledge, and motivation of struggling young writers: Effects of self-regulated strategy development with and without peer support. *American Educational Research Journal, 43*, 295-340.
- Harris, K. R., Santangelo, T., & Graham, S. (2010). Metacognition and strategies instruction in writing. In H. S. Waters & W. Schneider (Eds.), *Metacognition, strategy use, and instruction* (pp. 226-256). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Henry, A., & Roseberry, R. L. (1998). An evaluation of a genre-based approach to the teaching of EAP/ESP Writing. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(1), 147-156.
- Hetthong, R., & Teo, A. (2013). Does writing self-efficacy correlate with and predict writing performance? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 2*(1), 157-167.
- Hinkel, E. (2004). *Teaching academic ESL writing: Practical techniques in vocabulary and grammar*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- Hopman, M., & Glynn, T. (1989). The effect of correspondence training on the rate and quality of written expression of four low achieving boys. *Educational Psychology, 9*, 197-213.
- Hsieh, P.-H. (2008). Why are college foreign language students' self-efficacy, attitude, and motivation so different? *International Education, 38*(1), 76-94.

- Hsieh, Y. C. (2017). A case study of the dynamics of scaffolding among ESL learners and online resources in collaborative learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 30,1-2, 115-132.
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(3), 148-164.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin Books.
- British Council. (2015). IELTS, Guide for teachers: Test format, scoring and preparing students for the test. Retrieved from <https://www.ielts.org/-/media/publications/guide-for-teachers/ielts-guide-for-teachers-2015-uk.ashx>
- Jalaluddin, I., Yamat, H., & Yunus, M. (2013). ESL writing self-efficacy: contribution to ESL: Writing skills development. *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 2(1), 37-47.
- James, W. (1956). Great men and their environment. In H. Frederick (Ed.), *The will to believe and other essays in popular philosophy: The works of William James*. New York, NY: Dover Publications.
- Jiangkui, Z., & Yuanxing, D. (2011). Self-regulation in Chinese college students' EFL writing. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 3(3), 6-13.
- Johnson, B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(14), 14-26.
- Kagan, S. (1994). *Cooperative learning*. San Clemente, California: Kagan Publishing.

- Kalantzis, M., & Cope, B. (2010). The teacher as designer: Pedagogy in the new media age. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, 7, 200–222.
- Kaplan, A., & Maehr, M. L. (2007). The contributions and prospects of goal orientation theory. *Educational Psychology Review*, 19, 141-184.
- Kara, S. (2013). Writing anxiety: A Case study on students' reasons for anxiety in writing process. *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences*, 3(1), 103-111.
- Karabenick, S. (2011). Methodological and assessment issues in research on help seeking. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 49-64). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kato, F. (2009). Student preferences: Goal-setting and self-assessment activities in a tertiary education environment. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(2), 177-199.
- Kellogg, R. (1988). Attentional overload and writing performance: Effects of rough draft and outline strategies. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition* 14, 355-365.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1970). *Foundations of behavioral research*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Kern, R. (2000). *Literacy and language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Kessler, G. (2013). Teaching ESL/EFL in a world of social media, mash-ups and hyper-collaboration. *TESOL Journal*, 4(4), 615-632.
- Khalil, A. (2005). Assessment of language learning strategies used by Palestinian EFL learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 108-117.

- Kobayashi, H., & Rinnert, C. (1996). Factors affecting composition evaluation in an EFL context: Cultural rhetorical pattern and reader's background. *Language Learning*, 46, 397-437.
- Kopp, C. B. (1982). Antecedents of self-regulation: A developmental perspective. *Developmental Psychology*, 18, 199-214.
- Kostouli, T. (2005). Making social meanings in contexts. In T. Kostouli (Ed.), *Writing in context(s). textual practices and learning processes in sociocultural settings* (pp.1-26). New York, NY: Springer.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London, UK: Longman.
- Kuhl, J. (1985). Volitional mediators of cognition-behavior consistency: Self-regulatory process and action versus state orientation. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 101–128). Berlin: Springer-Verlag.
- Kuhl, J. (1994). Action versus state orientation: Psychometric properties of the Action Control Scale. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Volition and personality: Action versus state orientation* (pp. 47-59). Seattle, WA: Hogrefey Huber.
- Kuhl, J. (2000). A functional-design approach to motivation and self-regulation. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 111-169). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Kuhn, T. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

- Lalande, J. F. (1982). Reducing composition errors: An Experiment. *Modern Language Journal*, 66, 140-149.
- Lan, W. Y. (1998). Teaching self-monitoring skills in statistics. In: D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning: from teaching to self-reflective practice* (pp. 86–105). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Pavlenko, A. (2001). Second language activity theory: Understanding second language learners as people. In M. P. Breen (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research* (pp. 141-158). London: Longman.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 693-701). N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Leki, I. (1992). *Understanding ESL writers: A guide for teachers*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers.
- Lienemann, T., Graham, S., Leader-Janssen, B., & Reid, R. (2006). Improving the writing scores of struggling writers in second grade. *Journal of Special Education*, 40, 66-78.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. A. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Little, D. (2007). Language learner autonomy: Some fundamental considerations revisited.” *Innovation in Language Teaching and Learning*, 1(1), 14-29.

- Locke, E. A., & Lathan, G. P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, *57*, 705-717.
- Lougheed, L. (2008). *Barron's students' #1 choice: IELTS International English Language Testing System*. New York, NY: Barron's Educational, Series, Inc.
- Macaro, E. (2006). Strategies for language learning and for language use: Revising the theoretical framework, *The Modern Language Journal*, *90*, 320-37.
- MacArthur, C. A., & Lembo, L. (2009). Strategy instruction in writing for adult literacy learners. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal* *22*, 9, 1021-1039.
- MacArthur, C. A., & Philippakos, Z. A. (2013). Self-regulated strategy instruction in developmental writing: A design research project. *Community College Review*, *41*(2), 176-195.
- Mace, F., Belfore, P., & Hutchinson, J. (2001). Operant theory and research on self-regulation. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 39-65). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Mansoor, F., & Seifodin, R. (2015). Applying self-regulated strategy development model of instruction to teach writing skill: Effects on writing scores and writing motivation of EFL learners. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education*, *4*(2), 29-42.
- Martin, J. (1993). A contextual theory of language. In B. Cope (Ed.), *The powers of literacy: A genre approach to teaching writing* (pp. 116-136). London: Falmer Press.

- Martin, J. (2004). SRL, social cognitive theory, and agency. *Educational Psychologist*, 39(2), 135-145.
- Massey, D. D. (2009). Self-regulated comprehension. In S. E. Israel & G. G. Duffy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 389-399). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Matsushashi, A., & Gordon, E. (1985). Revision, addition, and the power of unseen text. In S. Freedman (Ed.), *The acquisition of written language: Response and revision* (pp. 236-249). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- McCaslin, M., & Hickey, D. (2001). SRL and academic achievement: A Vygotskian view. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 227-252). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- McCombs, B. (2001). SRL and academic achievement: A phenomenological view. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 67-123). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- McCombs, B. L., & Whisler, J. S. (1997). *The learner-centered classroom and school: Strategies for increasing student motivation and achievement*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- McDonald, J. P. (2002). Teachers studying student work: Why and how? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84(2), 121-127.
- McKay, P. (2006). *Assessing young language learners*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.



- McLaughlin, M., & Talbert, J. (2001). *Professional communities and the work of high school teaching*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- McInerney, D. M. (2011). Culture and self-regulation in educational context: Assessing the relationship of cultural group to self-regulation. In B. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 422-446). New York, NY: Routledge
- Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Case study research in education: a qualitative approach* (2nd Ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miller, S. A. (1998). *Developmental research methods*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2006). A reevaluation of the role of anxiety: Self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(2), 276-295.
- Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: *Relation to achievement and motivation*. *Language Learning*, 57(3), 417-442.
- Mohseniasl, F. (2014). Examining the effect of strategy instruction on writing apprehension and writing achievement of EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4, 811-817.
- Mojica, L. (2010). An investigation on self-reported writing problems and actual writing deficiencies of EFL learners in the beginners' level. *TESOL Journal*, 2, 24-38.
- Morrow, S.L. (2005). Quality and trustworthiness in qualitative research in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52, 250-260.

- Morse, J. M. (1991). Strategies for sampling. In J. Morse (Ed.), *Qualitative nursing research: A contemporary dialogue* (pp. 117-131). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Mourtaga, K. (2004). Investigating writing problems among Palestinian students studying English as a foreign language. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Mississippi, USA.
- Mourtaga, K. (2010). *Poor writing in English: A case of the Palestinian EFL learners in Gaza Strip*. Paper presented at the first National Conference on Improving TEFL Methods and Practices at Palestinian Universities, Gaza, PA.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Olson, C. B., & Land, R. (2007). A cognitive strategies approach to reading and writing instruction for English language learners in secondary school. *Research in the Teaching of English, 41*, 269-303.
- O'Reilly, K. (2005) *Ethnographic methods*, London and New York: Routledge.
- Oxford, R. L (2007). Co-teaching English. Keynote presentation at the Second Annual Conference on Co-Teaching, Hsinchu City, Taiwan.
- Oxford, R. L. (2011). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies*. Pearson Education.
- Oxford, R. L. (2015). Expanded perspectives on autonomous learners. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 9*(1), 58-71.

- Oxford, R. L. (2016). Toward a psychology of well-being for language learners: The “EMPATHICS” vision. In P. MacIntyre, T. Gregersen, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive psychology in second language acquisition* (pp. 10-87). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Oxford, R. L. (2017). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Özdemir, I. (2011). SRL from a sociocultural perspective. *Education and Science*, 36(160), 298- 308.
- Page-Voth, V., & Graham, S (1999). Effects of goal setting and strategy use on the writing scores and self-efficacy of students with writing and learning problems. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 91(2), 230-240.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in achievement settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 543-578.
- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (1997). Influence of self-efficacy on elementary students’ writing. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 90, 353-360.
- Paltridge, B. (2007). Approaches to genre in ELT. In J. Cummins, & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 931-943). Springer US.
- Panadero, E., & Alonso-Tapia, J. (2014). How do students self-regulate? Review of Zimmerman’s cyclical model of SRL. *Anales De Psicología*, 30(2), 450-462.
- Paris, S., Byrnes, J., & Paris, A. (2001). Constructing theories, identity, and action of self-regulated learners. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 253-287). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Parks, S., & Raymond, P. M. (2004). Strategy use by non-native English speaking students in an MBA program: Not business as usual. *The Modern Language Journal* 88, 374-89.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Pavlenko, A., & Lantolf, J. (2000). Second language learning as participation and the (re)construction of selves. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 155-177). Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Pennycook, A. (1990). Towards a critical applied linguistics for the 1990's. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 1, 8-28.
- Pennycook, A. (2010). Critical and alternative directions in applied linguistics. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33(2), 1-18.
- Perry, N. E., & Rahim, A. (2011). Studying self-regulated learning in classrooms. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 122-136). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Perry, N. E., VandeKamp, K. O., Mercer, L. K., & Nordby, C. J. (2002). Investigating teacher student interactions that foster SRL. *Educational Psychologist*, 37, 5-15.
- Perry, N. E., & Winne, P. H. (2006). Learning from learning kits: Study traces of students' self-regulated engagements with computerized content. *Educational Psychology Review*, 18, 211-228.

- Dweck, C.S., & Leggett, Ellen (1988) A Social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality, *Psychological Review*, 95(2), 256-273.
- Prodromou, L. (1995). The backwash effect: from testing to teaching. *Language Testing*, 49(1), 13-25.
- Punch, K. F. (2009) *Introduction to research methods in education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Putnam, H. (1990). *Realism with a human face*. Cambridge, MA. and London: Harvard University Press.
- Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled writers do as they write: A classroom study of composing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 229-258.
- Reams, P., & Twale, D. (2008). The promise of mixed methods: Discovering conflicting realities in the data. *International Journal of Research and Method in Education*, 31(2), 133-142.
- Reid, R., & Lienemann, T. (2006). Self-regulated strategy development for written expression with students with attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Exceptional Children*, 73, 53-68
- Rogers, C., & Freiberg, J. (1994). *Freedom to learn*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Publishing.
- Rogosa, D. R., & Willett, J. B. (1983). Demonstrating the reliability of the difference score in the measurement of change. *Journal of Educational Measurement*, 20, 335-343.
- Rohman, G. (1965). Pre-writing: The stage of discovery in the writing process. *College Composition and Communication*, 16, 106-112.

- Roth, W.M., & Jornet, A. (2013). Situated cognition. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science*, 4(5), 463-78.
- Rothery, J. (1996). Making changes: Developing an educational linguistics. In R. Hasan, & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 86-123). London: Longman
- Ruan, Z. (2005). A metacognitive perspective on the growth of self-regulated EFL student writers. *Reading Working Papers in Linguistics*, 8, 175-202.
- Sandelowski, M. (1986). The problem of rigor in qualitative research. *Advances in Nursing Science*, 8, 27-37.
- Santangelo, T., Harris, K., & Graham, S. (2007). Self-regulated strategy development: A validated model to support students who struggle with writing. *Learning Disability: A Contemporary Journal*, 5(1), 1-20.
- Savignon, S. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 261-277.
- Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (1987). Knowledge telling and knowledge transforming in written composition. In S. Rosenberg (Ed.), *Advances in applied psycholinguistics, Volume 2: Reading, writing, and language learning* (pp. 142-175). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Scharle, Á., & Szabó, A. (2000). *Learner autonomy: A guide to developing learner responsibility*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling. A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Schmitz, B., Klug, J., & Schmidt, M. (2011). Assessing self-regulated learning using diary measures with university students. In B. Zimmerman & D. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 251-266). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Schmitz, B., & Wiese, B. S. (2006). New perspectives for the evaluation of training sessions in SRL: Time-series analyses of diary data. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 31*, 64-96.
- Schug, M. C. (2003). Teacher-centered instruction: The Rodney Dangerfield of social studies. In J. Leming, L. Ellington, & K. Porter (Eds.), *Where did social studies go wrong?* (pp. 94- 110). Dayton, OH: The Thomas B. Fordham Foundation.
- Schumann, J. H. (1998). *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language*. MA: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- Schunk, D. (1984). Sequential attributional feedback and children's achievement behavior. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*, 1159-1169.
- Schunk, D. H. (1990). Goal setting and self-efficacy during SRL. *Educational Psychologist, 25*, 71-86.
- Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy and education and instruction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 281-303). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Schunk, D. H. (1996a). Goal and self-evaluative influences during children's cognitive skill learning. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*, 359-382.

- Schunk, D. (2001). Social cognitive theory and SRL. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 125-151). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schunk, D. H., & Swartz, C. W. (1993a). Goals and progress feedback: Effects on self-efficacy and writing achievement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 18*, 337-354.
- Schunk, D. H., & Swartz, C. W. (1993b). Writing strategy instruction with gifted students: Effects of goals and feedback on self-efficacy and skills. *Roepers Review, 15*, 225-230.
- Schunk, D., & Usher, E. (2011). Assessing self-efficacy for SRL. In B. Zimmerman and D. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance*, (pp. 282–297). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (Eds.). (1997). Social origins of self-regulatory competence. *Educational Psychologist, 32*, 195-208.
- Semke, H. D. (1984). Effects of the red pen. *Foreign Language Annals, 17*, 195-202.
- Seow, A. (2002). The writing process and process writing'. Methodology in language teaching: *An anthology of current practice*, 315-320.
- Sexton, M., Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (1998). Self-regulated strategy development and the writing process: Effects on essay writing and attributions. *Exceptional Children, 64*(3), 295-311.
- Shadish, W., Cook, T., & Campbell, D. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston, Ma: Houghton Mifflin Company.



- Shanker, S. (2010). Self-regulation: Calm, alert, and learning. *Education Canada*, 50, 4-7.
- Shann, M. (1999). Academics and a culture of caring: The relationship between school achievement and prosocial and antisocial behaviors in four urban middle schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 10, 390-413.
- Shell, D. F., Murphy, C. C., & Bruning, R. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 91-100.
- Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Slavin, R. (2007). *Educational research in an age of accountability*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Suzuki, M. (2008) Japanese learners, self-revisions and peer revisions of their written compositions in English, *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(2), 209-233.
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Swami, J. A. (2008). Sensitizing ESL learners to genre. *TESL-EJ*, 13(3), 1-13.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003a). *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2008). Quality of Inferences in Mixed Methods Research. In M. Bergman (ed.), *Advances in Mixed Methods Research: Theories and Applications* (pp. 101-119). London, UK: Sage.

- Taylor, B. P. (1983). Teaching ESL: Incorporating a communicative, student-centered component. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 69-88.
- Tesser, A. (2000). On the confluence of self-esteem maintenance mechanisms. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4, 290-299.
- Thompson, M. O. (1980). *Classroom techniques for reducing writing anxiety: A study of several cases*. Paper presented at the annual conference on College Composition and Communication, Washington, D.C. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 188 661).
- Tseng, W., Dörnyei, Z., & Schmitt, N. (2006). A new approach to assessing strategic learning: The case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 27, 78-102.
- United Nations Country Team in the Occupied Palestinian territory. (2017). Gaza ten years later. Retrieved from:  
[https://unsco.unmissions.org/sites/default/files/gaza\\_10\\_years\\_later\\_-\\_11\\_july\\_2017.pdf](https://unsco.unmissions.org/sites/default/files/gaza_10_years_later_-_11_july_2017.pdf)
- University prospectus. The Islamic University of Gaza. Retrieved from:  
<http://www2.iugaza.edu.ps/prospective/directory/كلية%20الاداب.pdf>
- Van der Meer, Jansen, E., & Torenbeek, M. (2010). It's almost a mindset that teachers need to change: First-year students' need to be inducted into time management. *Studies in Higher Education*, 35(7), 777-791.
- Van Lier, L. (2008). Agency in the classroom. In J. P. Lantolf & M. E. Poehner (Eds), *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languages* (pp. 163–86). Oakville, CT: Equinox Press.

- Van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*: London, Ontario: Althouse Press
- VanPatten, B., & J. Williams (Eds.) (2007a). *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Vassallo, S. (2013). *SRL: An application of critical education psychology*. New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc.
- Veel, R. (2006). The Write it right project – linguistic modelling of secondary school and the workplace. In R. Whittaker, M. O'Donnell, & A. McCabe (Eds.), *Language and literacy. Functional approaches* (pp. 66–92). London: Continuum.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Weigle, S.C. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Weiner, B. (2004). Attribution theory revisited: Transforming cultural plurality into theoretical unity. In D. M. McInerney, & S. Van Etten (Eds.), *Big theories revisited* (pp. 13-29). Greenwich, CT.: Information Age Publishing.
- Weldon, E., & Yun, S. (2000). The effects of proximal and distal goals on goal level, strategy development, and group performance. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 36, 336 – 344.
- Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19, 515-37.
- Wenden, A. (2002). Learner development in language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 23, 32-55.

- White, C. (2003). *Language learning in distance education*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy-value theory of motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*, 68-81
- Wigfield, A., Klauda, S., & Camria, J. (2011). Influence on the development of academic self-regulatory processes. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 33-48). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Williams, G. (2004). Ontogenesis and grammatics: Functions of metalanguage in pedagogical discourse. In G. Williams, & A. Lukin (Eds.), *The development functional perspectives on species and individuals* (pp. 241–267). London: Continuum.
- Winne, P. (2001). SRL viewed from models of information processing. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 153-189). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Winne, P. (2011). A cognitive and metacognitive analysis of SRL. In B. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 15-32). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Wolters, C. A., Yu, S. L., & Pintrich, P. R. (1996). The relation between goal orientation and students' motivational beliefs and self-regulated learning. *Learning and Individual Differences, 8*(3), 211-238.

- Yeh, S. S. (1998). Empowering education: Teaching argumentative writing to cultural minority middle-school students. *Research in the Teaching of English, 33*, 49-83.
- Yen, D., & Kuzma, J. (2009) Higher IELTS score, higher academic performance? The validity of IELTS in predicting the academic performance of Chinese students. *Worcester Journal of Learning and Teaching, 3*, 1-7.
- Yin, R. K. (2003a). *Case study research, design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2003b). *Applications of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Yowell, C. M., & Smylie, M. A. (1999). Self-regulation in democratic communities. *The Elementary School Journal, 99*(5), 469-490.
- Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly, 17*(2), 165-187.
- Zhang, J. (2008). A comprehensive review of studies on second language writing. *HKBU Papers in Applied Language Studies, 12*, 89-123.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). A social cognitive view of SRL. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*, 297-306.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 81*, 329-339.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1990). SRL and academic achievement: An overview. *Educational Psychologist, 25*, 3-17.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 13-39). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

- Zimmerman, B. J. (2001). Theories of SRL and academic achievement: An overview and analysis. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 1-37). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2011). Motivational sources and outcomes of SRL and performance. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 49-64). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Zimmerman, B. (2013). From cognitive modeling to self-regulation: A social cognitive career path. *Educational Psychologist, 48*(3), 135–147.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal, 31*, 845–862.
- Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal-setting. *American Educational Research Journal, 29*, 663-676.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (1999). Acquiring writing revision skill: Shifting from process to outcome self-regulatory goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 1-10.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2002). Acquiring writing revision and self-regulatory skill through observation and emulation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*, 660-668.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Koussa, R. (1979). Social influences on children's toy preferences: Effects of model rewardingness and affect. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 4*, 55-66.

- Zimmerman, B. J., & Lanaro, P. (1974). Acquiring and retaining conservation of length through modeling and reversibility cues. *Merrill–Palmer Quarterly*, 20, 145-161.
- Zimmerman, B., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1988). Construct validation of a strategy model of student SRL. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 284-290.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Moylan, A. R. (2009). Self-regulation: Where metacognition and motivation intersect. In D. J. Hacker, J. Dunlosky & A. C. Graesser (Eds.), *Handbook of metacognition in education* (pp. 299-316). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Paulsen, A. S. (1995). Self-monitoring during collegiate studying: An invaluable tool for academic self-regulation. *New directions of Teaching and Learning*, 63, 13 - 27
- Zimmerman, B., & Risemberg, R. (1997). Becoming a self-regulated writer: A social cognitive perspective. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 22, 73-101.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Risemberg, R. (1997). Self-regulatory dimensions of academic learning and motivation. In G. D. Pyle (Ed), *Handbook of academic learning: Construction of knowledge* (pp. 105–125). San Diego, CA, Academic Press.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Rosenthal, T. L. (1974a). Conserving and retaining equalities and inequalities through observation and correction. *Developmental Psychology*, 10, 260–268.
- Zimmerman, B., & Schunk, D. (2001). Reflection on theories of SRL and academic achievement. In B.J. Zimmerman and D.H. Schunk (Eds.), *SRL and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 289-307). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Zimmerman, B., & Schunk, D. (2011). SRL and performance: An introduction and an overview. In B. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 187-202). New York, NY: Routledge.

Zimmerman, D. W., & Williams, R. H. (1998). Reliability of gain scores under realistic assumptions about properties of pre-test and post-test scores. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, *51*, 343-351.



## Appendix A: Ethical Approval for Actual Study



Research Ethics

Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board  
NMREB Delegated Initial Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Dr. Steve Bird  
Department & Institution: Education, Western University

NMREB File Number: 107352

Study Title: A MIXED METHODS STUDY: THE IMPACT OF SELF-REGULATED LEARNING ON L2 WRITING AND STRATEGY USE

Sponsor:

NMREB Initial Approval Date: December 23, 2015

NMREB Expiry Date: December 23, 2016

Documents Approved and/or Received for Information:

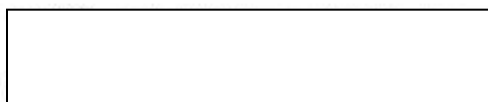
Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Recruitment Items	Appendix I: Request Letter Department of English - Teacher	2015/10/25
Recruitment Items	Appendix I Recruitment Advertisement - Teacher	2015/10/25
Western University Protocol		2015/11/25
Other	Appendix C: Classroom Observation	2015/11/25
Other	Appendix D: Interview - Student	2015/11/25
Other	Appendix E: Diary Studies	2015/11/25
Letter of Information & Consent	Teacher	2015/11/25
Letter of Information & Consent	Control Group	2015/11/25
Other	Appendix A IELTS	2015/10/25
Recruitment Items	Appendix G: Request Letter Academic Affairs Office	2015/11/25
Revised Letter of Information & Consent	Experimental Group	2015/11/25
Instruments	Appendix F: Interview - Teacher	2015/11/25
Recruitment Items	Appendix H: Recruitment Ad - Student	2015/11/25
Other	Appendix B classroom instructional intervention	2015/10/25

The Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board (NMREB) has reviewed and approved the above named study, as of the NMREB Initial Approval Date noted above.

NMREB approval for this study remains valid until the NMREB Expiry Date noted above, conditional to timely submission and acceptance of NMREB Continuing Ethics Review.

The Western University NMREB operates in compliance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA, 2004), and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario.

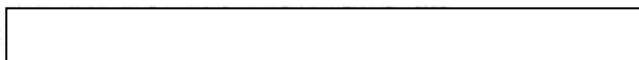
Members of the NMREB who are named as Investigators in research studies do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on such studies when they are presented to the REB.



for the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

Ethics Officer to Contact for Further Information: Erika Basile  Nicole Kaniki  Grace Kelly  Mina Mekhal  Vikki Tran

This is an official document. Please retain the original in your files.





## **Appendix B: Letter of Information and Consent – Students in the Self-Regulated Approach Class**

### **Project Title**

A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

### **Document Title**

Letter of Information and Consent – Students in the **Self-Regulated Approach Class**

### **Principal Investigator + Contact**

#### **Principal Investigator**

Dr. Steve Bird

[Redacted contact information]

#### **Co-Investigator**

Mr. Mohammed Almazloum,

[Redacted contact information]

### **1. Invitation to Participate**

#### **Introduction**

You are being invited to participate in this research study, *A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use*, because you are currently an undergraduate second language (L2) learner of English registered in a writing course at the Department of English at a Palestinian university.

### **2. Why is this study being done?**

The Palestinian L2 undergraduate learners of English face several challenges that affect their L2 writing and use of self-regulated learning strategies (SRL). The lack of linguistic competence (grammatical and lexical errors), first language interference, academic writing problems, shortage of feedback, writing strategy use, and writing apprehension are among the common challenges that hinder the students' writing quality. The purpose of this study is to alleviate the Palestinian second language (L2) undergraduate students' challenges to writing by pursuing a SRL approach to writing. The study will examine how a SRL instructional intervention will impact the students' L2 writing. It will also explore the students' experience about SRL strategy use and development in an L2 writing course.

### 3. How long will you be in this study?

It is expected that you will be in the study for four months during the entire writing course, Winter 2016. The course will start in February, 2016 and end in May, 2016. One part of the study will involve applying a SRL instructional intervention. The intervention will take place in each of the twenty four classes during four months. Each intervention will take approximately fifty minutes (total of 20 hours) during which you will be also observed four times during the course, in February, March, April, and May, 2016). You will dedicate another three months to the study if you wish to participate in four sixty-minute interviews in February, March, April, and May, 2016 and to write diary studies. The researcher will consult with you to ensure data credibility from June, 2016 to August, 2016.

### 4. What are the study procedures?

If you agree to participate in the first part of the study, you will be asked to write an IELTS writing essay: task 2 within forty minutes in the second class (pre-test) and a similar essay in the twenty-second class (post-test). You will receive the SRL intervention during which you will learn to write based on the SRL approach. According to this instruction, you will learn how to use writing SRL strategies such as setting writing goals, self-motivating, analyzing writing tasks, monitoring your writing performance, and self-reflecting. You will be also observed in the classroom by the researcher four times during the class time.

If you wish to participate in the other part of the study, you will be interviewed four times about your experience with the given instruction and asked to write four diary studies during the same four-month course. The four interviews will be audio recorded. You cannot take part in the qualitative part if you do not wish to be audio recorded. The interviews will be conducted in a study room in the library of the university. There will be only the two of us, you and the researcher, Mohammed. You will be also engaged in data confirmation with the researcher for another three months (June, 2016 to August, 2016) to ensure data credibility.

Although the questions of the interviews are only related to your experience with the instruction given during the class, answering the questions is entirely voluntary and you will decline to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable. You may also withdraw at any time during the interviews with no repercussions on your part.

### 5. What are the risks and harms of participating in this study?

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. However, as you are in the SRL approach class, you may get low writing achievement as a result of applying the SRL approach to writing. Your engagement in the SRL approach class might also affect negatively your SRL writing strategies, including but not limited to task analysis, self-motivation beliefs, self-control self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction.

### 6. What are the benefits?

The possible benefits to you may be your potential writing improvement and attitude that might occur as a result of applying the SRL approach to writing in comparison with the

traditional approach. Finding significant differences in achievement and attitudes between the two approaches will help to reflect on effective learning practices.

The possible benefits to society may be the potential enhancement of the teachers' roles in initiating and facilitating L2 learners' endeavors to learn by assuming interdependent teacher-student relations. This might render mutual responsibility in a secure, social, and productive learning environment. The benefits might also include assisting curriculum developers and evaluators to efficiently assess learners' needs and capabilities of learning to enable them to provide appropriate and feasible instructional resources.

#### **7. Can participants choose to leave the study?**

If you decide to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed please let the researcher know. If you decide to withdraw from the study, the information that was collected prior to your leaving the study will still be used. No new information will be collected without your permission. You can decline to answer any question.

#### **8. How will participants' information be kept confidential?**

Representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. While I do my best to protect your information there is no guarantee that I shall be able to do so. The inclusion of your telephone number, email address, and date of birth may allow someone to link the data and identify you. While I do our best to protect your information, there is no guarantee that I will be able to do so. If data is collected during the project which may be required to report by law, I have a duty to report. Your information will not be shared with anyone or organization other than me.

I shall will keep any personal information about you in a secure and confidential location for a minimum of five years. A list linking your study number with your name will be kept by me in a secure place, separate from your study file. Your name will not be used in any reports, publications, or presentations that may come from this study. Personal quotes from the interviews and diary studies will be used in the study. If you do not want me to use your personal quotes, you can still take part in the study.

#### **9. Are participants compensated to be in this study?**

You will not be compensated for your participation in this research.

#### **10. What are the Rights of Participants?**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time it will have no effect on your academic standing. I shall give you new information that is learned during the study that might affect your decision to stay in the study. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form.

**11. Whom do participants contact for questions?**

If you have questions about this research study please contact the principal investigator, Dr. Steve Bird at [REDACTED] or the co-investigator, Mohammed Almazloun by email at [REDACTED]

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [REDACTED], email:  
[REDACTED]

## Written Consent

### 1. Project Title

A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

### 2. Document Title

Letter of Information and Consent – Student

### 3. Principal Investigator + Contact

#### Principal Investigator

[REDACTED]

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent to participate in the interviews and the diary studies.

YES  NO

I consent to be audio-recorded during the interviews.

YES  NO

I consent to the use of personal, identifiable quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

I agree to have my name used in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

Participant's name (Please print): \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Person obtaining informed consent: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

You will be given a copy of this Letter of Information once it has been signed.



## Appendix C: Letter of Information and Consent – Student in the Traditional Approach Class

### Project Title

A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

### Document Title

Letter of Information and Consent – Student in the **Traditional Approach Class**

### Principal Investigator + Contact

#### Principal Investigator

Dr. Steve Bird

[Redacted contact information]

#### Co-Investigator

Mr. Mohammed Almazloum,

[Redacted contact information]

## 12. Invitation to Participate

### Introduction

You are being invited to participate in this research study, *A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use*, because you are currently an undergraduate second language (L2) learner of English registered in a writing course at the Department of English at a Palestinian university.

## 13. Why is this study being done?

The Palestinian L2 undergraduate learners of English face several challenges that affect their L2 writing and use of self-regulated learning strategies (SRL). The lack of linguistic competence (grammatical and lexical errors), first language interference, academic writing problems, shortage of feedback, writing strategy use, and writing apprehension are among the common challenges that hinder the students' writing quality. The purpose of this study is to alleviate the Palestinian second language (L2) undergraduate students' challenges to writing by pursuing a SRL approach to writing. The study will examine how a SRL

instructional intervention will impact the students' L2 writing. It will also explore the students' experience about SRL strategy use and development in an L2 writing course.

#### **14. How long will you be in this study?**

It is expected that you will be in the study for four months during the entire writing course, Winter 2016. The course will start in February, 2016 and end in May, 2016. One part of the study will involve applying a SRL instructional intervention. The intervention will take place in each of the twenty four classes during four months. Each intervention will take approximately fifty minutes (total of 20 hours) during which the students will be also observed four times during the course, in February, March, April, and May, 2016. You will dedicate another three months to the study if you wish to participate in four sixty-minute interviews in February, March, April, and May, 2016 and to write diary studies. The researcher will consult with you to ensure data credibility from June, 2016 to August, 2016.

#### **15. What are the study procedures?**

If you agree to participate in the first part of the study, you will be asked to write an IELTS writing essay: task 2 within forty minutes in the second class (pre-test) and a similar essay in the twenty-second class (post-test). You will receive the regular intervention during which you will learn to write based on your teacher's regular instruction. You will be also observed in the classroom by the researcher for four times during the class time.

If you wish to participate in the other part of the study, you will be interviewed four times about your experience with the given instruction and asked to write four diary studies during the same four-month course. The four interviews will be audio recorded. You cannot take part in the qualitative part if you do not wish to be audio recorded. The interviews will be conducted in a study room in the library of the university. There will be only the two of us, you and the researcher, Mohammed. You will be also engaged in data confirmation with the researcher for another three months (June, 2016 to August, 2016) to ensure data credibility.

Although the questions of the interviews are only related to your experience with the instruction given during the class, answering the questions is entirely voluntary and you will decline to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable. You may also withdraw at any time during the interviews with no repercussions on your part.

#### **16. What are the risks and harms of participating in this study?**

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in the study.

#### **17. What are the benefits?**

The possible benefits to you may be your potential enhancing of your reflective practice and strategy use as a result of writing diary studies and reflecting on the questions of the interview. The possible benefits to society may be the potential enhancement of the teachers' roles in initiating and facilitating L2 learners' endeavors to learn by assuming interdependent teacher-student relations. This might render mutual responsibility in a secure, social, and productive learning environment. The benefits might also include



assisting curriculum developers and evaluators to efficiently assess learners' needs and capabilities of learning to enable them to provide appropriate and feasible instructional resources.

#### **18. Can participants choose to leave the study?**

If you decide to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed please let the researcher know. If you decide to withdraw from the study, the information that was collected prior to your leaving the study will still be used. No new information will be collected without your permission. You can decline to answer any question.

#### **19. How will participants' information be kept confidential?**

Representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. While I do my best to protect your information there is no guarantee that I shall be able to do so. The inclusion of your telephone number, email address, and date of birth may allow someone to link the data and identify you. While I do our best to protect your information, there is no guarantee that I will be able to do so. If data is collected during the project which may be required to report by law, I have a duty to report. Your information will not be shared with anyone or organization other than me.

I shall will keep any personal information about you in a secure and confidential location for a minimum of five years. A list linking your study number with your name will be kept by me in a secure place, separate from your study file. Your name will not be used in any reports, publications, or presentations that may come from this study. Personal quotes from the interviews and diary studies will be used in the study. If you do not want me to use your personal quotes, you can still take part in the study.

#### **20. Are participants compensated to be in this study?**

You will not be compensated for your participation in this research.

#### **21. What are the Rights of Participants?**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time it will have no effect on your academic standing. I shall give you new information that is learned during the study that might affect your decision to stay in the study. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form.

#### **22. Whom do participants contact for questions?**

If you have questions about this research study please contact the principal investigator, Dr. Steve Bird at [REDACTED] or the co-investigator, Mohammed Almazloum by email at [REDACTED]

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]

## Written Consent

### 4. Project Title

A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

### 5. Document Title

Letter of Information and Consent – Student

### 6. Principal Investigator + Contact

#### Principal Investigator

Dr. Steve Bird

[REDACTED]

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent to participate in the interviews and the diary studies.

YES  NO

I consent to be audio-recorded during the interviews.

YES  NO

I consent to the use of personal, identifiable quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

I agree to have my name used in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

Participant's name (Please print): \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Person obtaining informed consent: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

You will be given a copy of this Letter of Information once it has been signed.



## Appendix D: Letter of Information and Consent – Teacher

### Project Title

A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

### Document Title

Letter of Information and Consent – Teacher

### Principal Investigator + Contact

#### Principal Investigator

Dr. Steve Bird



#### Co-Investigator

Mr. Mohammed Almazloun,



### 23. Invitation to Participate

#### Introduction

You are being invited to participate in this research study, *A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use*, because you are currently a teacher of a second language (L2) writing course at the Department of English at a Palestinian university. You teach undergraduate L2 learners of English registered in the writing course.

### 24. Why is this study being done?

The Palestinian second language (L2) undergraduate learners of English face several challenges that affect their L2 writing and use of self-regulated learning strategies (SRL). The lack of linguistic competence (grammatical and lexical errors), first language interference, academic writing problems, shortage of feedback, writing strategy use, and writing apprehension are among the common challenges that hinder the students' writing quality. The purpose of this study is to alleviate the Palestinian second language (L2) undergraduate students' challenges to writing by pursuing a SRL approach to writing. The study will examine how a SRL instructional intervention will impact the students' L2 writing. It will also explore the students' experience about SRL strategy use and development in an L2 writing course.

**25. How long will you be in this study?**

It is expected that you will be in the study for seven months, starting in January, 2016 and ending in August, 2016. During the writing course (February, 2016 to May, 2016), you will be teaching twenty four classes, fifty minutes each (total of 20 hours). You will spend another 20 hours preparing lessons and following up with the students. You will be observed four times during the course, in February, March, April, and May, 2016. Each observation will last for fifty minutes. You will also participate in four sixty-minute interviews in February, March, April, and May, 2016 of the writing course. The researcher will consult with you to ensure data credibility from June, 2016 to August, 2016.

**26. What are the study procedures?**

If you agree to participate in the study and sign up to the SRL approach class (experimental group), you will give the instructional intervention in the writing course, following the SRL approach to writing during the four-month Winter 2016 semester. You will be trained on how to plan, apply, and evaluate the writing course according to the SRL approach to writing for three 50-minute sessions before the classes start in January, 2016.

If you sign up to the traditional approach class (control group), you will give the instruction in the writing course, following your regular approach to writing during the four-month Winter 2016 semester. If you sign up to both experimental and control groups, you will give the SRL instructional intervention to the experimental group and the regular intervention to the control group. You will be trained to do that for three 50-minute sessions before the classes start in January, 2016. Whether you sign up to the experimental or control group or both, you will be observed in the classroom by the researcher for four times during the class time.

You will be interviewed four times about your experience with the instruction that you sign up to give during the same four-month course. You will be also engaged in data confirmation with the researcher for another three months (June, 2016 to August, 2016) to ensure data credibility. The four interviews will be audio recorded. You cannot take part in the study if you do not wish to be audio recorded. The interviews will be conducted in a study room in the library of the university. There will be only the two of us, you and the researcher, Mohammed. Although the questions of the interviews are only related to your experience with the instruction given during the class, answering the questions is entirely voluntary and you will decline to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable. You may also withdraw at any time during the interviews with no repercussions on your part.

**27. What are the risks and harms of participating in this study?**

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study.

### **28. What are the benefits?**

The possible benefits to you may be the reflective practice about your own teaching experience with regard to pedagogical practices which might raise your awareness about insights and appropriate teaching strategies. Advancing your understanding of your teaching is interconnected to understanding your learners' strategies of learning. Your engagement in the experimental group might also enhance your SRL strategies, including but not limited to task analysis, self-motivation beliefs, self-control self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction. The possible benefits to society may be the potential enhancement of the teachers' roles in initiating and facilitating L2 learners' endeavors to learn by assuming interdependent teacher-student relations. This might render mutual responsibility in a secure, social, and productive learning environment. The benefits might also include assisting curriculum developers and evaluators to efficiently assess learners' needs and capabilities of learning to enable them to provide appropriate and feasible instructional resources.

### **29. Can participants choose to leave the study?**

If you decide to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed please let the researcher know. If you decide to withdraw from the study, the information that was collected prior to your leaving the study will still be used. No new information will be collected without your permission. You can decline to answer any question.

### **30. How will participants' information be kept confidential?**

Representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. While I do my best to protect your information there is no guarantee that I shall be able to do so. The inclusion of your telephone number and email address may allow someone to link the data and identify you. While I do our best to protect your information, there is no guarantee that I will be able to do so. If data is collected during the project which may be required to report by law, I have a duty to report. Your information will not be shared with anyone or organization other than me.

I shall will keep any personal information about you in a secure and confidential location for a minimum of five years. A list linking your study number with your name will be kept by me in a secure place, separate from your study file. Your name will not be used in any reports, publications, or presentations that may come from this study. Personal quotes from the interviews will be used in the study. If you do not want me to use your personal quotes, you can still take part in the study.

### **31. Are participants compensated to be in this study?**

You will not be compensated for your participation in this research.

### **32. What are the Rights of Participants?**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study

at any time it will have no effect on your academic standing. I shall give you new information that is learned during the study that might affect your decision to stay in the study. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form.

### **33. Whom do participants contact for questions?**

If you have questions about this research study please contact the principal investigator, Dr. Steve Bird at [REDACTED] or the co-investigator, Mohammed Almazloun by email at [REDACTED]

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]

## Written Consent

### 7. Project Title

A Mixed Methods Study: The Impact of Self-Regulated Learning on L2 Writing and Strategy Use

### 8. Document Title

Letter of Information and Consent – Teacher

### 9. Principal Investigator + Contact

#### Principal Investigator

Dr. Steve Bird

[REDACTED]

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent to participate in the interviews and the diary studies.

YES  NO

I consent to be audio-recorded during the interviews.

YES  NO

I consent to the use of personal, identifiable quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

I agree to have my name used in the dissemination of this research.

YES  NO

Participant's name (Please print): \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Person obtaining informed consent: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Data: \_\_\_\_\_

You will be given a copy of this Letter of Information once it has been signed.



**Appendix E: Pre-test IELTS Writing Task 2 Test**

Borrowed from: Loughheed, L. (2008). *Barron's students' #1 choice: IELTS International English Language Testing System*. New York, NY: Barron's Educational, Series, Inc.

You should spend about 40 minutes on this task.

Write about the following topic:

***Children today spend more time watching television than they did in the past.***

***Describe some of the advantages and disadvantages of television for children.***

Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your own knowledge or experience.

Write at least 250 words

**Appendix F: Post-test IELTS Writing Task 2 Test**

Borrowed from: Loughheed, L. (2008). *Barron's students' #1 choice: IELTS International English Language Testing System*. New York, NY: Barron's Educational, Series, Inc.

You should spend about 40 minutes on this task.

Write about the following topic:

*More and more people are relying on the Internet as their major source of news and information.*

*What advantages does the Internet have for the average person? What disadvantages could it have now or in the future?*

Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your own knowledge or experience.

Write at least 250 words

## Appendix G: IELTS Task 2 Writing Assessment Criteria

IELTS Task 2 Writing assessment criteria (band descriptors – public version)		
Band	Task Response	Coherence and cohesion
9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fully addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>Presents a fully developed position in answer to the question with relevant, fully extended and well supported ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uses cohesion in such a way that it attracts no attention</li> <li>Skilfully manages paragraphing</li> </ul>
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sufficiently addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>Presents a well-developed response to the question with relevant, extended and supported ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sequences information and ideas logically</li> <li>Manages all aspects of cohesion well</li> <li>Uses paragraphing sufficiently and appropriately</li> </ul>
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>Presents a clear position throughout the response</li> <li>Presents, extends and supports main ideas, but there may be a tendency to over generalise and/or supporting ideas may lack focus</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Logically organises information and ideas; there is clear progression throughout</li> <li>Uses a range of cohesive devices appropriately although there may be some under-/over-use</li> <li>Presents a clear central topic within each paragraph</li> </ul>
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addresses all parts of the task although some parts may be more fully covered than others</li> <li>Presents a relevant position although the conclusions may become unclear or repetitive</li> <li>Presents relevant main ideas but some may be inadequately developed/unclear</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Arranges information and ideas coherently and there is a clear overall progression</li> <li>Uses cohesive devices effectively, but cohesion within and/or between sentences may be faulty or mechanical</li> <li>May not always use referencing clearly or appropriately</li> <li>Uses paragraphing, but not always logically</li> </ul>
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addresses the task only partially; the format may be inappropriate in places</li> <li>Expresses a position but the development is not always clear and there may be no conclusions drawn</li> <li>Presents some main ideas but these are limited and not sufficiently developed; there may be irrelevant detail</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Presents information with some organisation but there may be a lack of overall progression</li> <li>Makes inadequate, inaccurate or over-use of cohesive devices</li> <li>May be repetitive because of lack of referencing and substitution</li> <li>May not write in paragraphs, or paragraphing may be inadequate</li> </ul>
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Responds to the task only in a minimal way or the answer is tangential; the format may be inappropriate</li> <li>Presents a position but this is unclear</li> <li>Presents some main ideas but these are difficult to identify and may be repetitive, irrelevant or not well supported</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Presents information and ideas but these are not arranged coherently and there is no clear progression in the response</li> <li>Uses some basic cohesive devices but these may be inaccurate or repetitive</li> <li>May not write in paragraphs or their use may be confusing</li> </ul>
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Does not adequately address any part of the task</li> <li>Does not express a clear position</li> <li>Presents few ideas, which are largely undeveloped or irrelevant</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Does not organise ideas logically</li> <li>May use a very limited range of cohesive devices, and those used may not indicate a logical relationship between ideas</li> </ul>
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Barely responds to the task</li> <li>Does not express a position</li> <li>May attempt to present one or two ideas but there is no development</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Has very little control of organisational features</li> </ul>
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Answer is completely unrelated to the task</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fails to communicate any message</li> </ul>
0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Does not attend</li> <li>Does not attempt the task in any way</li> <li>Writes a totally memorised response</li> </ul>	

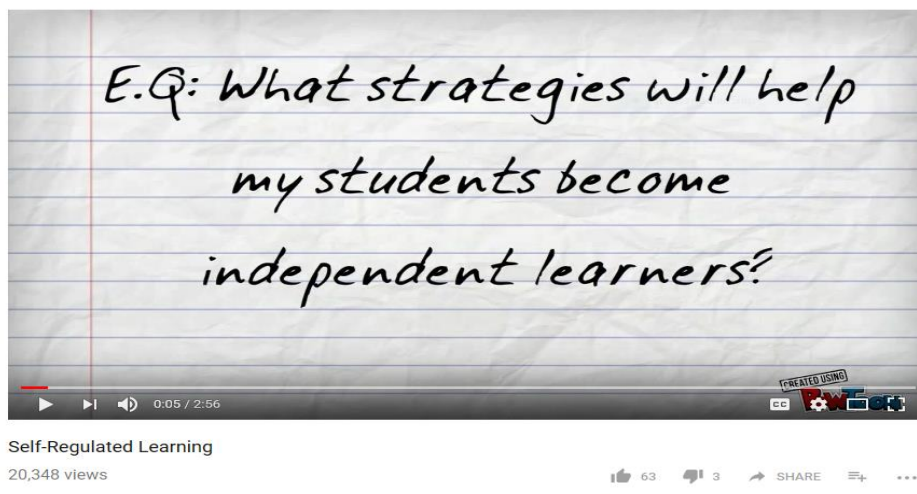
## Appendix G: IELTS Task 2 Writing Assessment Criteria

Lexical resource	Grammatical range and accuracy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a wide range of vocabulary with very natural and sophisticated control of lexical features; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a wide range of structures with full flexibility and accuracy; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a wide range of vocabulary fluently and flexibly to convey precise meanings</li> <li>• Skillfully uses uncommon lexical items but there may be occasional inaccuracies in word choice and collocation</li> <li>• Produces rare errors in spelling and/or word formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a wide range of structures</li> <li>• The majority of sentences are error-free</li> <li>• Makes only very occasional errors or inappropriateness</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a sufficient range of vocabulary to allow some flexibility and precision</li> <li>• Uses less common lexical items with some awareness of style and collocation</li> <li>• May produce occasional errors in word choice, spelling and/or word formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a variety of complex structures</li> <li>• Produces frequent error-free sentences</li> <li>• Has good control of grammar and punctuation but may make a few errors</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses an adequate range of vocabulary for the task</li> <li>• Attempts to use less common vocabulary but with some inaccuracy</li> <li>• Makes some errors in spelling and/or word formation, but they do not impede communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a mix of simple and complex sentence forms</li> <li>• Makes some errors in grammar and punctuation but they rarely reduce communication</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses a limited range of vocabulary, but this is minimally adequate for the task</li> <li>• May make noticeable errors in spelling and/or word formation that may cause some difficulty for the reader</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses only a limited range of structures</li> <li>• Attempts complex sentences but these tend to be less accurate than simple sentences</li> <li>• May make frequent grammatical errors and punctuation may be faulty; errors can cause some difficulty for the reader</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses only basic vocabulary which may be used repetitively or which may be inappropriate for the task</li> <li>• Has limited control of word formation and/or spelling; errors may cause strain for the reader</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses only a very limited range of structures with only rare use of subordinate clauses</li> <li>• Some structures are accurate but errors predominate, and punctuation is often faulty</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 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</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attempts sentence forms but errors in grammar and punctuation predominate and distort the meaning</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses an extremely limited range of vocabulary; essentially no control of word formation and/or spelling</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cannot use sentence forms except in memorised phrases</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can only use a few isolated words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cannot use sentence forms at all</li> </ul>

## Appendix H: Explicit Teaching Resources

### 1. Video

Edwards, L. (2013). *Self-regulated learning* [Video file]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3OQsT7w6MBM>



### 2. PowerPoint Presentation

Jansol, J. (2014). *Zimmerman's self-regulated Learning* [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from <https://www.slideshare.net/CasperWendy/selfregulated-learning-zimmerman>



### 3. Case study

A story of self-determined, self-directed & self-regulated learning [PDF document]. Retrieved from [www.normanjackson.co.uk/uploads/1/0/8/4/10842717/a\\_story\\_of\\_self-regulated\\_learning.pdf](http://www.normanjackson.co.uk/uploads/1/0/8/4/10842717/a_story_of_self-regulated_learning.pdf)

**Appendix I: Classroom SRL Instructional Activities (borrowed from Andrade and Evans (2013))**

**1. Determining Motivation for Writing**

Underline the choice that mostly applies to you in each statement.

1. Writing in English is important to me so that I can obtain a good-paying job.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
2. I enjoy writing in English.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
3. I need to learn to write in English to be successful at school.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
4. My parents expect me to learn good writing skills.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
5. I need to learn English writing to pass the TOEFL.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
6. I don't think I will do much writing in English in the future.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
7. Writing in English will help me communicate with native speakers.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
8. I prefer learning about and practicing writing more than other language skills, such as listening, speaking, and reading.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
9. Learning how to write in English will help me understand written texts in English.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
10. I feel proud when I work hard and receive praise on my writing assignments.					
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>

## 2. Writing Goals

Based on your writing this semester, individually, identify three grammar errors and three writing challenges that you frequently face and that you would like to focus on during the semester. Then, share your answers with a partner. Your tally sheet may be helpful to you in identifying the types of errors and challenges you face most often.

### Grammar errors

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....

### Writing challenges

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....

### 3. Task Analysis Guided questions

Answer the following questions based on your own experience, then discuss your answers with a partner.

Guided questions	Response
. What is your purpose for this writing task? . What message do you want to convey? . Who is your reader?	
. What do you know about the topic? . What do you need to know about the topic? . Where might you obtain additional information?	
. What organizational patterns will you use? . How will these patterns help communicate your message?	
. What strategies will you use to accomplish the writing task? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Pre-writing</li> <li>- Organization</li> <li>- Drafting</li> <li>- Revising</li> <li>- Editing</li> </ul>	
. What strategies will you use to check for clear communication of ideas and grammatical accuracy?	
. What areas of the writing process might you need help with? . Who is the best source of help?	



#### 4. Real audience (dialogue journal)

Find a student in your classroom who can serve as your audience to exchange roughly a 500-word dialogue journal about writing each week. Your partner will read and respond to your dialogue journal. The following questions might help you start to write a good dialogue journal:

- . What are your goals and motivation to writing?
- . What could you do best on your own without help from your teacher or classmates?
- . How could working with classmates assist you to become a better writer?
- . How do you decide if you need to seek help or proceed on your own?
- . How could your teacher best help you improve your writing? support in writing tasks
- . What are some challenges you faced in writing in which you sought help to solve it?
- . What are some challenges you faced in writing in which you solved it on your own?
- . How effective do you find the feedback obtained from others?

## 5. Physical Environment Inventory

Directions: Take this handout with you to the location where you typically do your writing. Rate each external element according to the definition listed in the second column and the rating scale found below the table. Total your ratings for the external elements, and write your total in the last row. The closer your total is to 40, the more suitable it is for quiet, uninterrupted writing.

Element	Description	Rating
View/sight	Some locations have views that are beautiful but distracting. Others have views onto busy streets or public spaces that can also be distracting. A writing location should not be overwhelmed by views out of windows or onto busy distracting walls or spaces.	
Sound/noise	Sound or noise levels are a common distraction. Things to consider are music, email, cell phones, and other people who use the same or a nearby space. Noise levels should be minimal. How quiet is your space?	
Lighting	Adequate lighting is a must. Some places can be poorly lit making it hard to see. Other concerns may be flickering lights, or even glaring lights. How suitable is the lighting in your writing location?	
Furniture	A good writing location should have comfortable appropriate furniture on which to study and write. At the least, you should have a comfortable chair and desk or table with adequate space for your work. How suitable is the furniture in your writing location?	
Cleanliness	Messy, untidy, dirty conditions can be very distracting to writing and concentration on learning tasks. How clean, organized, and tidy is your site?	
Materials	Being able to write without interruptions requires that you have all the needed materials with you such as paper, pencils, dictionaries, etc. Does your space have the necessary materials?	
Temperature	Extreme temperatures can be very distracting. In some instances the temperature can be controlled, in others it is fixed. How suitable is the temperature in your location for writing and learning tasks?	
Time of day	Any room can be quiet and free from distraction at one hour and noisy, busy and full of commotion at another hour. During the time of day when you typically use this location to write, how suitable is it for writing and concentrating on learning tasks?	
Comments:		
		Total

\*Rating scale:

1	2	3	4	5
very poor for writing performance		neither poor nor excellent, just acceptable		excellent for writing performance

## 6. Task Timeline Cover Sheet

**Assignment:** Natural disasters around the world

**Description:** *This is the kind of paper you will likely have to write once you begin your general undergraduate studies at the university. For this assignment you will first need to conduct some basic library research on the various types of natural disasters that occur around the world. You should select three destructive natural disasters and give a brief description of their causes and effects. It might be a good idea to include a specific example from recent history for each of the three types of disasters you write about.*

**Length:** 4–6 pages (approximately one introductory page, one page for each disaster, and a page to wrap up and conclude your findings)

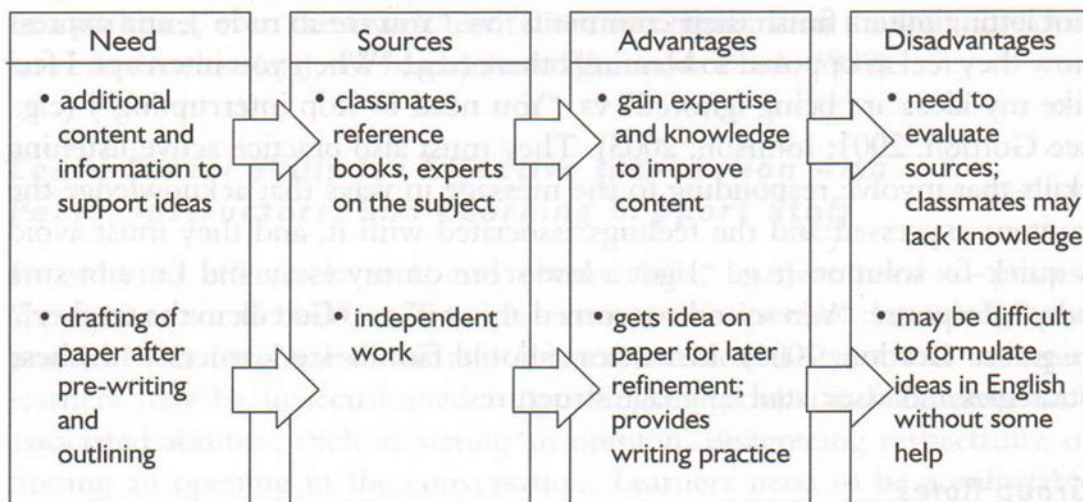
**Evaluation:** As usual, the essay-scoring rubric used in this class will be used to evaluate your work

**Due Date:** Wednesday March 13, at the beginning of class

Subtasks	Subtask description		Due date
	Estimated time required		
Research the topic			
Develop a thesis statement			
Outline key ideas/sections			
Write first draft			
Discuss draft with writing group			
Write second draft			
Revise			
Write final draft			
Submit final			March 13




## 7. Help-Seeking Analysis

Individually, read through the following flowchart to identify your potential needs, sources, advantages, and disadvantages of getting help from others. Then, discuss your findings with a partner.



## 8. Grammar Correction Marks

Read the following grammar symbol system that you might find helpful to self-diagnose your grammar errors in essays.

	omit	He needed books, papers and pens <del>and etc.</del>
	something missing	During class <del>fell</del> asleep.
inc.	incomplete sentence	(Because he wanted to go.) <sup>inc.</sup>
ro	run-on sentence	My friend was studying in his room <sup>ro</sup> from his desk he could see the tennis courts.
ss	sentence structure	(They brought the man who they <sup>ss</sup> him found.)
t	verb tense	He is <sup>t</sup> here since June.
vp	verb phrase	It was <sup>vp</sup> happened yesterday.
sv	subject-verb agreement	The three boys on the bus <sup>sv</sup> goes to town.
	word order	I saw <u>five times that movie</u> .
wf	word form	We enjoy to <sup>wf</sup> play tennis.
wc	word choice	It was raining, <sup>wc</sup> then I took my umbrella.
d	determiner	We climbed <sup>d</sup> mountain every day.
pp	preposition	She arrived <sup>pp</sup> at Honolulu yesterday.
spg	spelling	I go to class <sup>spg</sup> evreyday.
c	capitalization	The Aloha <sup>c</sup> center is closed for a week.
p	punctuation	What else could I say. <sup>p</sup>
s/pl	singular/plural	We have been here for six <sup>s/pl</sup> month.
c/nc	count/non-count noun	We need a lot of <sup>c/nc</sup> informations for the report.
?	meaning is not clear	(He borrowed <sup>?</sup> some smoke.)
awk	awkward wording	(He will have <sup>awk</sup> five years) on his next birthday.
¶	new paragraph	

## 9. Error Tally Sheet

Before submitting your written assignments, you need to fill in this form by tallying any grammatical errors you could identify in your written texts.

	Assignment #1	Assignment #2	Assignment #3	Assignment #4	Assignment #5	Assignment #6
e						
Λ						
inc						
ro						
ss						
t						
vp						
sv						
~						
wf						
wc						
d						
pp						
spg						
c						
p						
s/pl						
c/nc						
?						
awk						
¶						

## 10. Learner Feedback Sheet

Check the applicable box when you have completed the item

<i>Writing Feature</i>	<i>To Do—Check the box when you have completed the item</i>
Topic Sentence	<input type="checkbox"/> Write your topic sentence below.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Explain how the topic sentence helps narrow the topic.
Supporting Details	<input type="checkbox"/> List the examples, reasons, and facts in the paragraph.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Explain why you think you have enough support for the topic sentence.
Concluding Sentence	<input type="checkbox"/> Write your concluding sentence below.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Explain how the concluding sentence restates the topic sentence.
Paragraph Format	<input type="checkbox"/> Have a friend or classmate check that the first line of the paragraph is indented and that margins are used correctly.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Ask your friend or classmate to sign below.
Punctuation and Spelling	<input type="checkbox"/> Use the spell checker. Read each sentence carefully and look at your punctuation and spelling.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Write any words or sentences you have questions about below.
Sentence Structure and Verb Forms	<input type="checkbox"/> Use the grammar checker. Read each sentence carefully. Have a classmate read your paragraph and tell you about any sentences that are unclear. Revise those sentences.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Put the original and the revision of at least one sentence below.
Transition Words and Connectors	<input type="checkbox"/> Check that you have used correct transitions and correct punctuation.
	<input type="checkbox"/> Write an example of a sentence using a transition word below.

## 11. Teacher Feedback/Scoring Sheet

Circle the number that most likely applies to you

Topic Sentence—introduces the topic of the paragraph and has a controlling idea.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			
Supporting details—uses a sufficient number of examples, reasons, opinions.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			
Concluding sentence—restates the topic sentence.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			
Paragraph format—indents first line; uses margins correctly.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			
Punctuation and spelling—verify correct usage.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			
Sentence structure and verb forms—correctly used with few errors that interfere with meaning.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			
Transition words and connectors—correctly used.			
1	2	3	4
Ineffective			Effective
Comments:			



## 12. Preference Survey

---

On our first in-class essay, I marked all your grammar errors using symbols and asked you to identify the errors you would like to work on this term. I also asked you to revise the essay and make grammar corrections. I would like you to answer a few questions about this process.

- Do you find it helpful to have all your grammar errors marked? Why or why not?
- Does having all your errors marked help you understand the kinds of errors you make?
- Does having all your errors marked help you do better on your next writing assignment?

I evaluated your second essay using a scoring rubric with points for different aspects of your writing. How helpful was this form in giving you feedback about your essay and suggesting ways you can improve?

---

## 13. Positive and Negative Self-Talk

Individually, read through the two self-talks and answer the questions. Then share your answers with a partner.

*Joshua*

I'm terrible with grammar. I keep making the same mistakes over and over and I don't understand why. I've heard that university professors just care about your ideas anyway, especially if you're a nonnative speaker.

*Ariel*

On my last two papers, I made a lot of verb phrase errors. Looking at these errors, I can see a pattern. Maybe I should ask my teacher or find a tutor at the Writing Center who can explain what I'm doing wrong and suggest some grammar books for me to study.

*Discussion Questions*

1. How might the self-talk of these writers affect their success in improving their writing?
2. How could Joshua change his self-talk so that it leads to improvement?
3. What types of self-talk do you experience related to writing? What changes can you make so that your attitude is more positive?
4. Write in your journal about your understanding of self-talk. Give examples of your own self-talk related to writing and explain why you think this way. How can you replace negative self-talk with positive self-talk?

## 14. Strengths and weakness analysis

Directions: Each time you receive feedback from your teacher on a writing assignment, you should write the comments and suggestions in the appropriate category boxes. This information should then be used to help you improve your writing on subsequent tasks in this course.

Category/ Assignment	Assignment 1	Assignment 2	Assignment 3
Content	<i>My ideas seem to be best when I have a personal connection to the topic. I certainly am interested in this first topic. I need to be sure to do the pre readings this helped me get connected to the topic.</i>		
Organization	<i>In class, we talked about an introduction having 3 purposes: introduce the topic, catch the reader's attention, and present my thesis. I am not sure why the teacher thinks I did not do this. I need to get clarification.</i>		
Vocabulary	<i>I know my words are simple. Sometimes I feel like I am writing "baby language" My English vocabulary does not match what I am thinking.</i>		
Grammar	<i>Two areas of grammar stand out that need my attention: Sentences run on rampantly in nearly every paragraph  Sentences without subjects.</i>		
Mechanics	<i>I need to be more careful with spelling. And I know all final papers must be double spaced. I think I was too rushed finishing the paper.</i>		
Neatness	<i>The teacher is right. I rushed my paper. I had to write in by hand several last minute changes.</i>		

## 15. Monitoring performance, Part 1

### Part 1

Directions: Using the feedback you have received on the previous assignments, fill in the spaces in Part 1 with the strengths and weaknesses related to the various principles of motive, method, time, physical environment, and social environment. Information you have on your strengths and weaknesses analysis form will be helpful here.

Motive <b>Why</b>	Method <b>How</b>	Time <b>When</b>	Physical Environment <b>Where</b>	Social Environment <b>With whom</b>
1. What are my strengths and weaknesses?				
<i>I am not happy with the grade I earned on the last assignment. I want to study international business. I know good writing will be important.</i>	<i>I usually draft in my first language. Perhaps this is causing my grammar problems; my teacher thinks so.  I keep getting comments about run-on sentences, &amp; nonacademic vocabulary.</i>	<i>I have got to do something about starting early on an assignment. The teacher was right. I rushed the last assignment.</i>	<i>I think my writing space is fine. I am not distracted.</i>	<i>I have never talked to a tutor or asked for feedback from my peers; perhaps I should.</i>
2. What are my goals?				
3. What will I do to accomplish this?				
4. How did I do?				

## 16. Monitoring performance, Part 2

### Part 2

Directions: Based on the strengths and weaknesses you listed in Part 1, write specific goals for improvement in Part 2. You do not have to write a goal for each column—just those that need the most attention.

2. What are my goals?				
<i>I will raise my grade one full mark over the last paper.</i>	<i>Stop translating when I write.  Understand what a run-on sentence is.</i>	<i>Meet each deadline on this paper.</i>		<i>Get more comfortable sharing my writing with others</i>

## 17. Monitoring performance, Part 3

### Part 3

#### Directions:

Once you have set goals in Part 2, you should select specific strategies you will use to accomplish these goals.

3. What will I do to accomplish this?				
I will follow through on each of the goals listed in part 2 of this worksheet.	Work with a tutor to understand run-on sentences. Memorize one half of the Academic Word List in the next 10 weeks using spaced retrieval techniques. Work with my writing team in class on first draft to avoid translating.	I will use the Time-line coversheet the teacher gave us. Start using a 1,2,3;A,B,C system for my homework.		I will make an appointment with the tutor to discuss my 2nd draft. Attend the writing group I have been assigned to.

## 18. Self-Evaluation

Based on the feedback you obtained from various sources, use the following self-evaluation form to identify your content, form, and organization strengths and weaknesses in your writing assignment.

Assignment	Content Strengths	Content Weaknesses	Response / Strategy
#1	An attention-getting introduction.	Unsupported general statements in supporting paragraphs.	I will use more specific examples, facts, or statistics to support my ideas.
Assignment	Organization Strengths	Organization Weaknesses	Response / Strategy
#1	Thesis statement clearly identifies the topic and states an idea, opinion, or attitude about the topic.	Some sentences are off the topic in the supporting paragraphs.	I will ask my roommate to read my paragraphs to see if any sentences are off topic and ask him to explain why.
Assignment	Grammar Strengths	Grammar Weaknesses	Response / Strategy
#1	Vocabulary choices are appropriate and in the correct form.	Confusion about the simple past and past perfect.	I will look for clues in the sentence that show a specific time in the past.

## Appendix J: Students Interview

### Interview 1

- 1- How long have you learnt to write in English?
- 2- What kinds of writing have you learnt to write? How good are you at each kind, do you think?
- 3- Have you faced any challenges in writing? Can you talk about some of these challenges?
- 4- Do you have goals when studying for writing or goals to improve your writing skills in the future? (for example, making sure grammar and meaning are appropriate)
- 5- What strategies and resources do you use to achieve these goals?
- 6- How did you decide to use these resources and/or strategies when working on these goals?
- 7- How sure are you that you can achieve your goals?
- 8- Do you feel any benefits resulting from your efforts to improve your writing skill?
- 9- Do you feel interested in writing?
- 10- Do you feel that you need to motivate yourself to write? What strategies do you use?
- 11- Do you think it is important to keep track of your writing performance, place of writing, and time of writing?
- 12- How can you tell that you did well on a writing assignment?
- 13- Do you feel satisfied with that performance? Why/why not?
- 14- Why do you think you got that level?
- 15- What are the things that you need to do to perform better on a next assignment?
- 16- Do your teacher(s) address any of what you have mentioned earlier?
- 17- What do you recommend your teacher(s) should do to address more successful writing in the classroom?
- 18- If you had to choose one thing teachers should do when teaching writing, what would it be?

*Thank you for your time and participation in the study.*

## Interview 2

- 1- Now, after three months of being in a writing course, do you feel any changes to your writing skills in each kind of writing?
- 2- Do you still face any challenges in writing? Can you talk about some of these challenges?
- 3- Did you start setting goals for writing or goals to improve your writing skills in the future?
- 4- What strategies and resources do you use to achieve these goals?
- 5- How did you decide to use these resources and/or strategies when working on these goals?
- 6- How sure are you that you can achieve your goals?
- 7- Do you feel any benefits resulting from your efforts to improve your writing skill?
- 8- Do you feel interested in writing?
- 9- Do you feel that you need to motivate yourself to write? What strategies do you use?
- 10- Do you think it is important to keep track of your writing performance, place of writing, and time of writing?
- 11- How can you tell that you did well on a writing assignment?
- 12- Do you feel satisfied with that performance? Why/why not?
- 13- Why do you think you got that level?
- 14- What are the things that you need to do to perform better on a next assignment?
- 15- Do your teacher(s) address any of what you have mentioned earlier?
- 16- What do you recommend your teacher(s) should do to address more successful writing in the classroom?
- 17- If you had to choose one thing teachers should do when teaching writing, what would it be?

*Thank you for your time and participation in the study*

## Appendix K: Teachers Interview

### Interview 1

- 1- How long have you taught English writing courses?
- 2- What kinds of writing have you taught students to write? Do you prefer teaching one kind to another? If applicable, why?
- 3- Have you faced any challenges while teaching writing? Can you talk about some of these challenges?
- 4- Do you think your students have goals when studying for writing or goals to improve their writing skills in the future?
- 5- What strategies and resources do they use to achieve these goals?
- 6- How do you think they decide on use these resources and/or strategies when working on these goals?
- 7- Do you think they have beliefs that they can achieve their goals?
- 8- Do you think they feel any benefits resulting from their efforts to improve their writing skill?
- 9- How interested are they in writing, do you think?
- 10- Do you think they feel the need to motivate themselves to write? What strategies do they use?
- 11- Do you think they realize the importance of keeping track of their writing performance, place of writing, and time of writing? What kinds of activities do they do, if applicable?
- 12- How can they tell if they did well on a writing assignment?
- 13- Do you think they feel satisfied with that performance? Why/why not?
- 14- Do you think they understand why do they had that level?
- 15- What are the things they think they need to do to perform better on a next assignment?
- 16- What do they think about your strategies of addressing any of what you have mentioned earlier?
- 17- Do they recommend any changes to your way of teaching or approach to writing? What recommendations do they make that you should do to address more successful writing in the classroom?
- 18- If your students had to choose one thing you should do when teaching writing, what would it be?

*Thank you for your time and participation in the study.*

## Interview 2

- 1- Now, after three months of teaching this writing course, do you feel any changes to your writing skills in each kind of writing?
- 2- Do you still face any challenges while teaching writing? Can you talk about some of these challenges?
- 3- Do you think your students start setting goals when studying for writing or goals to improve their writing skills in the future?
- 4- What strategies and resources do they use to achieve these goals?
- 5- How do you think they decide on use these resources and/or strategies when working on these goals?
- 6- Do you think they have beliefs that they can achieve their goals?
- 7- Do you think they feel any benefits resulting from their efforts to improve their writing skill?
- 8- How interested are they in writing, do you think?
- 9- Do you think they feel the need to motivate themselves to write? What strategies do they use?
- 10- Do you think they realize the importance of keeping track of their writing performance, place of writing, and time of writing? What kinds of activities do they do, if applicable?
- 11- How can they tell if they did well on a writing assignment?
- 12- Do you think they feel satisfied with that performance? Why/why not?
- 13- Do you think they understand why do they had that level?
- 14- What are the things they think they need to do to perform better on a next assignment?
- 15- What do they think about your strategies of addressing any of what you have mentioned earlier?
- 16- Do they recommend any changes to your way of teaching or approach to writing? What recommendations do they make that you should do to address more successful writing in the classroom?
- 17- If your students had to choose one thing you should do when teaching writing, what would it be?

*Thank you for your time and participation in the study.*



## **Mohammed Z. R. Almazloum**

### **EDUCATION**

PhD, University of Western Ontario Applied Linguistics, Education	London, Canada 2018
MA, Linguistics & Language Studies, Carleton University Applied Linguistics & Discourse Studies	Ottawa, Canada 2013
M.Ed., Islamic University of Gaza Curricula & Methodology/English, Education	Gaza, Palestine 2007
B.Ed., Islamic University of Gaza English, Education	Gaza, Palestine 1997

### **CERTIFICATES**

- **TESL Ontario, Canada, OCELT** (Ontario Certified English Language Teacher), T180117
- **TESL Ontario, Canada, ICTEAL** (International Certificate in Teaching English as an Additional Language), T180117
- **Ontario College of Teachers**, Ontario Certified Teacher of English as a Second Language, Part 1 & 2 (Equiv.), RN: 611802
- **Office of Teacher Certification, Nova Scotia**, Advanced Teacher's Certificate - English (ATC1)
- **University of Western University**, Western Certificate in University Teaching and Learning
- **UNESCO**, Trainer of Trainers (TOT)
- **ICDL** (International Computer Driving License)

### **SUMMARY STATEMENT**

- Instructor at the Teacher Education program, University of Western Ontario
- Research Assistant, the University of Western Ontario
- Teaching Assistant: Writing Tutor, Carleton University
- ESL Instructor/Teacher
  - Dar Foundation
  - University College of Applied Sciences
  - English Language Institute
  - Palestine Secondary School
- Instructor of Education/English, the Islamic University of Gaza
- Practicum Supervisor, Pre-Service Teachers Department, the Islamic University of Gaza
- TOEFL, IELTS Trainer
- Trainer of Trainers (TOT), INEE, UNESCO, Save Children

- Certified Teacher, Ontario College of Teachers, RN: 611802 – English as a Second Language, Part 1 & 2 (Equiv.)
- Certified English Teacher, Advanced Teacher's Certificate (ATC1), Nova Scotia
- Western Certificate in University Teaching and Learning
- Trainer (TOT) of INEE (Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergency)
- Holder of International Computer Driving License
- Bilingual: Arabic/English

### **PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE**

Instructor, Teacher Education Program, Faculty of Education

University of Western Ontario (part-time)

Canada 2016-2017

- Co-designed course outlines for 'Supporting English Language Learners' at the Teacher Education Program – Faculty of Education
- Designed teaching materials
- Planned, prepared, and delivered lessons
- Designed and administered assessment and evaluation tools to assess and evaluate students' work
- Identified relevant intervention and mentoring strategies that enabled teacher-candidates to address ESL students' needs
- Reviewed prospective teacher-candidates' applications for university admission

ESL Instructor

Dar Foundation (part-time)

Canada 2016-2017

- Designed ESL teaching materials to beginner English language learners in CLB 3 level
- Planned, prepared, and delivered ESL lessons to learners
- Designed and administered assessment and evaluation tools to assess and evaluate learners' work

Research Assistant, Faculty of Education

University of Western Ontario (part-time)

Canada 2013 – now

- Assist in collecting research data
- Review journal articles
- Write literature review

Teaching Assistant: Writing Tutor, Library Services

Carleton University (part-time)

Canada 2011 - 2013

- Guide, revise, and give feedback on students' academic essays and theses
- Give training workshops on academic success, academic writing, and academic integrity
- Assist in developing training material relevant to academic success

Instructor of English as a Second Language

University College of Applied Sciences (full-time)

Palestine 2005-2010

- Taught several general and specialized ESL English courses: EAP, ESP (English for business, technology, nursing...etc.)
- Designed ESL teaching materials to university college courses
- Planned, prepared, and delivered lessons ESL university college students

- Delivered lessons through lectures, presentations, group-work, Hi/Low-tech-presentations, discussions, laboratory-based instruction, task/problem-based learning, and project assignments
- Designed and administered assessment and evaluation tools to assess and evaluate students' work
- Headed the English Language Unit
- Coordinate study days on achievements & challenges of learning & teaching English at UCAS
- Headed, designed, and administered English Electronic Competitions
- Presided English-related developmental workshops.
- Coordinated and co-designed applied English major programs
- Guided and supervised the design, implementation, and evaluation of course outlines and materials within the curriculum unit
- Headed the Languages Centre

#### Instructor: Education/English & Supervisor of Pre-Service ESL Teachers

Islamic University of Gaza (part-time)

Palestine 2006-2010

- Taught several ESL, English-major, and Education-related courses
- Designed teaching materials at the department of Curricula & Teaching Methods
- Planned, prepared, and delivered lessons
- Delivered lessons through lectures, presentations, group-work, Hi/Low-tech-presentations, discussions, laboratory-based instruction, task/problem-based learning, and project assignments
- Designed and administered assessment and evaluation tools to assess and evaluate students' work
- Supervised teacher candidates within the practicum program

#### ESL Instructor

English Language Institute (part-time)

Palestine 2007-2010

- Taught several general and specialized ESL English courses: EAP, ESP (English for business, technology, nursing...etc.)
- Designed ESL teaching materials to university college courses
- Planned, prepared, and delivered lessons ESL university college students
- Delivered lessons through lectures, presentations, group-work, Hi/Low-tech-presentations, discussions, laboratory-based instruction, task/problem-based learning, and project assignments
- Designed and administered assessment and evaluation tools to assess and evaluate students' work

#### A Teacher of English as a Second Language

Palestine Secondary School (full time)

Palestine 1998-2005

- Raised students' commitment to learning by designing enrichment teaching materials with integration to curriculum - based English courses to secondary students grades 10 – 12
- Adopted the learner-centeredness process in teaching through life-like situations, class discussion, presentation and other creative instructional techniques

- Consolidated students' learning using follow up activities such as homework, projects, and assignments.
- Considerably added to performance of students by establishing an English Students Club
- Gave training courses to new in-service teachers at Education Directorate and the Ministry of Education level
- Ran exam committee as head assistant in General Secondary Education Exams

### **COURSES TAUGHT**

Supporting English Language Learners; Reading I & II; Writing I, II, & Advance Writing; Listening and Speaking; Research Project; Teaching Methods/English I & II; Socio-Psycho-Linguistics; Grammar I & II; Academic Reading I; Academic Writing I; English for Business; English for Technology; English for Nursing; English for Social Studies; Foundation of Education, TEFL; Technology of Education...etc.

### **RECENT TAUGHT COURSES**

EDUC 1169 EDUC 5439 Supporting English Language Learners, UWO (Winter 2017)

Mean Score for Selected Questions out of 7

Displays enthusiasm	5.92
Well organized	5.84
Encourages participation	6.24
Responses clear and thorough	6.00
Available for consultation	6.12
Relates topics well	5.92
Grades work promptly	6.17
Effective as a university teacher	5.88
Average of Questions 1-14	5.84

### **VOLUNTARY WORK**

London Muslim Mosque

Canada 2015-2017

- Received the Syrian refugees who arrived in Canada from conflict areas in Syria and surrounding areas.
- Participated in conducting needs analysis for these inflicted families.
- Provided educational counselling to prospective students from these families.
- Made referral to service providing community centers to provide families and individuals with relevant services.

Al-Salah Benevolent Association

Palestine 1997-2010

- Participated in and Headed several humanitarian aid programs at Al-Salah Association to serve a variety of Gaza population, including: low income families, deprived children, students, single mothers ...etc. These services varied:
  - School backpacks
  - Shopping coupons
  - Students bursaries
  - Educational, social, and psychological counselling
  - Employment counselling

- War post-traumatic intervention
- Children and youth camps

Jerusalem Community Services Organization

- Head of programs committee at Jerusalem Community Services Organization Canada 2011-2013

## **TRAINING**

<b>Training</b>	<b>Organization</b>	<b>Date Completed</b>
• Conflict Management II: Conflict Resolution II: How to Achieve Win-Win Resolution	UWO	2018/03/01
• Conflict Management I: How Your Behavior Style Affects Conflict	UWO	2018/02/01
• Leveraging Your Teaching Skills for Future Careers	UWO	2018/01/30
• Foundations of Project Management I	MITACS	2018/12/05
• Skills of Communication	MITACS	2017/01/25
• Ethics of Teaching	UWO	2017/02/13
• Browsers, and smartphones, and clickers, oh my! Increase student engagements...	UWO	2017/01/28
• Teaching Writing as Ongoing Practice	UWO	2017/01/28
• Great Ideas for Teaching (GIFT)	UWO	2017/01/17
• Wrapping Up the Term - Marking and Proctoring Strategies	UWO	2016/11/25
• Navigating a Sea of e-Learning Tools	UWO	2016/11/25
• Threshold Concepts: Teaching Troublesome Knowledge in the Disciplines	UWO	2016/11/25
• Developing Research on Teaching Survey	UWO	2016/11/03
• Leadership in Higher Education: What does it take?	UWO	2016/11/03
• Getting It Done: Strategies for Finding Focus and Overcoming Procrastination in Graduate School	UWO	2016/10/06
• Western Certificate in University Teaching and Learning	UWO	2017/09/28
• Assessing Learning Online	UWO	2015/03/10
• Assessment Series: An Introduction to Constructing Rubrics	UWO	2014/11/13
• Teaching Assistant Training Program	UWO	2014/08/17
• Training of Trainers: INEE	UNESCO	2010/01/05

- English Summer Institute in cooperation with IUGAZA,  
the American Embassy at the Islamic University UNRWA, USA 1999/07/15  
Embassy
- Idea in Action Workshops British  
Council 1999/10/2, 9, 16

### **PROSPECTIVE PUBLICATIONS**

Almazloun, M. (Submitted). Pedagogical grammar: Learners' beliefs do matter.  
*International Journal of Applied Linguistics.*

### **CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS**

Almazloun, M. (2015). Developing Self-Regulation in L2 Writing: Book Review. Paper presented at CSSE. Ottawa, Canada.

Almazloun, M. (2015). Help me to plan and design an ESL course outline. Paper presented at the TESOL Kuwait conference. Kuwait, Kuwait.

Almazloun, M. (2015). The sociocultural theory: Building ESL learners' concepts repertoire. Paper presented at the TESOL Kuwait conference. Kuwait, Kuwait.

Almazloun, M. (2015). Mixed methods research: Pragmatism matters. Paper presented at the Symposium Jean-Paul Dionne, University of Ottawa. Ottawa, Canada.