



**ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY**

**GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

**DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**THE EFFECTS OF COGNITIVE STRATEGY TRAINING ON 8<sup>th</sup>  
GRADE LEARNERS' WRITING ANXIETY AND WRITING  
ACHIEVEMENT**

**Adem DEMİR**

**Supervisor**

**Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA**

**MASTER'S THESIS**

**May, 2019**

## COPYRIGHT STATEMENT

Within the framework of the provisions of the Additional Paragraph 40 of the Higher Education Law No. 2547 (Annex: 22/2 / 2018-7100 / 10) “*Unless the decision of confidentiality is taken by the authorized institutions and organisations, master theses are opened to access to electronic media by the Higher Education Council National Thesis Center*”.

Researchers can not use, publish, distribute or copy all or part of theses for commercial or financial gain without permission of the author. Researchers using the National Thesis Center Web Page make use of the theses within the framework of scientific ethics and citation rules.

### AUTHOR

Name : Adem

Surname : DEMİR

Department : English Language Education

Signature :

Submission Date : 21/05/2019

### THESIS

Turkish: Bilişsel Strateji Öğretiminin 8. Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Yazma Kaygısı ve Yazma Başarıları Üzerindeki Etkileri

English: The Effects of Cognitive Strategy Training on 8<sup>th</sup> Grade Learners’ Writing Anxiety and Writing Achievement

## **ETHICAL STATEMENT**

I declare that I have complied with the scientific and ethical principles in the process of writing thesis and I have indicated all the sources that I use in the bibliography in accordance with the principles of giving references and all statements except these sections belong to me.

Name, Surname: Adem DEMİR

Signature :

## APPROVAL

This study prepared by Adem DEMİR “The Effects of Cognitive Strategy Training on 8<sup>th</sup> Grade Learners’ Writing Anxiety and Writing Achievement” was approved by consensus by the jury below as a thesis for Master of Arts Degree in English Language Education by Department of Foreign Language Education in Ondokuz Mayıs University.

**Supervisor:** Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA  
English Language Education, Ondokuz Mayıs University .....

**Head :** Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA  
English Language Education, Ondokuz Mayıs University .....

**Member:** Assoc. Prof. Dr. Emrah EKMEKÇİ  
English Language Education, Ondokuz Mayıs University .....

**Member:** Assist. Prof. Dr. Adnan YILMAZ  
English Language Education, Sinop University .....

I confirm that this thesis fulfills the requirements for being an MA thesis in the English Language Teaching Program, Department of Educational Sciences.

Date: 21/05/2019

Prof. Dr. Ali ERARSLAN

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

*To my beloved family*



## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I could not complete my thesis without the support of people around me. I gratefully thank to my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA for her guidance and support.

My special thanks go to Emre AK and Koray KAÇAR who encouraged me throughout my thesis. They contributed much with their thoughtful insights and helpful feedback to the study. I am also grateful to Assoc. Prof. Dr. İsmail GELEN, who helped me form the frame of my study.

I want to declare my sincere and deepest thanks to my dearest wife Hatice and my son Ömer Halis DEMİR for their understanding, patience and invaluable support. I would also thank to my sister Rukiye, who taught me to be always positive and decisive and my brother Mustafa for his love and encouragement.

**BİLİŞSEL STRATEJİ ÖĞRETİMİNİN 8. SINIF  
ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN YAZMA KAYGILARI VE YAZMA  
BAŞARILARI ÜZERİNE ETKİLERİ**

**Yüksek Lisans Tezi**

**Adem DEMİR**

**ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ**

**EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**Mayıs, 2019**

**ÖZ**

Yazma becerisi dil öğrenme sürecinde üretimsel bir beceri olmasından dolayı ve hem duyuşsal hem de bilişsel faktörlerin etkileriyle İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenmekte olan öğrencilere zorluklar yükleyen bir dil becerisidir. Yazma becerisi doğası gereği çok yönlü ve karmaşık bir süreç sonunda kazanılan bir beceridir. Bu süreç alınacak bir takım etkili önlem, teknik ve yöntemlerle kolaylaştırılabilir. Bu açıdan, strateji öğretimi en önemli ve en etkili yöntemlerden biridir. Bu çalışmanın amacı da bilişsel strateji öğretiminin Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce yazma başarısı ve yazma kaygısı üzerindeki etkilerini ve bu etkilerin öğrencilerin cinsiyetlerine göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğini araştırmaktır. Deneysel araştırma modeli ile tasarlanmış bu çalışma Sivas'ta bir devlet ortaokulunda okuyan sekizinci sınıf öğrencileri üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Okulda iki tane sekizinci sınıf olduğundan dolayı deney ve kontrol grubunu belirlemek için her iki sınıftaki öğrencilere yazma yeterliliklerini ölçmeyi amaçlayan Yazma Becerileri Testi (Writing Comprehension Test) uygulanmıştır. Bu test benzer bir çalışmadan (Petekçioğlu, 2011) uyarlanmıştır. Uygulanan test sonucunda her iki sınıfın da yazma yetkinliği açısından birbirlerine benzer oldukları gözlemlenmiştir. 14 erkek ve 17 kızdan oluşan 8 A sınıfındaki öğrenciler deney grubu olarak belirlenirken, 13 erkek ve 19 kızdan oluşan 8 B sınıfındaki öğrenciler ise kontrol grubu olarak atanmıştır ve toplamda 63 öğrenci bu çalışmada yer almıştır. Bu çalışma 2017-2018 Eğitim Öğretim yılının bahar döneminde yürütülmüştür. Araştırmacı tarafından O'Malley ve Chamot'un (1990) dil öğrenme stratejileri sınıflandırmasından alınan kaynak tarama, organize

etme, çıkarma, görselleştirme, çıkarsama, not alma ve özetleme gibi bilişsel stratejileri süreç temelli yazma yaklaşımı içerisinde entegre edilerek 9 haftalık bir program oluşturulmuştur. Bu programı uygulamadan önce öğrencilerin yazma kaygılarını belirlemek üzere Daly ve Miller'ın (1975) Zorbaz ve Özbay (2011) tarafından uyarlanan Yazma Kaygısı Ölçeği (Writing Anxiety Test) her iki gruptaki öğrencilere uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca öğrencilerin yazma başarısını belirlemek amacıyla araştırmacı tarafından belirlenen tartışmacı bir yazma etkinliği gerçekleştirilmiştir. Dokuz hafta boyunca deney grubundaki öğrenciler bilişsel strateji öğretimine tabi tutulurken kontrol grubundakiler ise ürün temelli yazma eğitimine devam etmişlerdir. Strateji eğitimi sonunda bilişsel strateji öğretiminin öğrencilerin yazma kaygıları üzerine olası etkilerini belirlemek için aynı yazma kaygısı ölçeği tekrar uygulanmıştır. Aynı şekilde, bilişsel strateji öğretiminin öğrencilerin yazma başarıları üzerine etkilerini belirlemek için ise öğretimden önceki tartışmacı yazma etkinliğine benzer bir sınav daha yapılmıştır. Araştırmacı tarafından tartışmacı yazma sınavlarını değerlendirmeleri için farklı bir okulda çalışan iki İngilizce öğretmenine Akpınar'ın (2007) çalışmasından alınan Makale Puanlama Kriterleri (Essay Grading Criteria) tanıtılmıştır ve bu sınavların puanlanması istenmiştir. Elde edilen veriler SPSS 25.0 yoluyla istatistiksel açıdan analiz edilmiştir. Bilişsel strateji eğitiminin öğrencilerin yazma başarısı ve yazma kaygıları üzerindeki etkilerini saptamak amacıyla T testi uygulanmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlar deney grubundaki öğrencilerin yazma başarılarının kontrol grubundakilere oranla daha yüksek olduğunu ve bu öğrencilerin yazma kaygılarının ilk test skorlarına oranla daha düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerin yazma başarılarının ölçüldüğü ön ve son test puanları arasında istatistiksel bir fark bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca kontrol grubu öğrencilerinin yazma kaygıları da ön ve son test puanları karşılaştırıldığında istatistiksel olarak önemli bir fark göstermemektedir. Kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında ise yazma başarısı ve yazma kaygısı bakımından istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler : Yazma Kaygısı, Yazma Başarısı, Bilişsel Strateji Eğitimi**

**Sayfa Sayısı : 130**

**Danışman : Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA**



**THE EFFECTS OF COGNITIVE STRATEGY TRAINING ON 8<sup>th</sup>  
GRADE LEARNERS' WRITING ANXIETY AND WRITING  
ACHIEVEMENT**

**MA Thesis**

**Adem DEMİR**

**ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY**

**GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

**May, 2019**

**ABSTRACT**

As writing is a productive skill and with its both cognitive and affective aspects, it is a language skill which imposes great difficulties on the learners who learn English as a foreign language. Due to its nature, writing is a skill that acquired after a multifaceted and complex process. This process is made easier through a variety of effective arrangement, technique and methods. In this respect, strategy training is one of the most important and effective methods. The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of cognitive strategies on the learners' writing achievement and writing anxiety and to find out whether these effects vary according to the learners' gender or not. This study which was designed through experimental design was administered to the 8th grade learners in a secondary school in Sivas. Since there were two eighth grade classrooms in the school, Writing Comprehension Test for measuring the writing proficiency of the learners was employed to the learners in order to determine the experimental and control groups. This test was adapted from a similar study (Petekçioğlu, 2011). After the administration of the test, it was noticed that both classes were similar in terms of writing proficiency. While 8A which was classroom composed of 14 males and 17 females was determined as experimental, 8B composed of 13 males and 19 females was assigned to control group and a total of 63 learners participated in the study. The current study was carried out in the spring semester season of 2017-2018 Education Year. 9 weeks of programme was developed through the integration of the cognitive strategies such as resourcing, organizing, deduction, imagery, inference, note-taking and summarizing from

O'Malley and Chamot's classification (1991) into a process-based writing instruction by the researcher. Before the treatment, Daly and Miller's Writing Anxiety Test which was adapted to Turkish by Zorbaz and Özbay (2011) was employed to the learners in both groups to determine their writing anxiety. Moreover, an argumentative writing task which was decided by the researcher was administered to the learners in order to find out their level of writing achievement. While the learners in experimental group were exposed to the cognitive strategies, the learners in the control group kept on product-based writing activities. After the instruction, the same writing anxiety test was employed to find out the possible effects of cognitive strategy training on the learners' writing anxiety again. Likewise, a similar argumentative essay like the one administered before the treatment was also employed to reveal the effects of cognitive strategy training on the learners' writing achievement. Two different EFL teachers from the different schools were introduced to the Essay Grading Criteria which was taken from Akpınar (2007) and the teachers were expected to score these essays by the researcher. The obtained data were statistically analyzed through SPSS 25. T tests were used to determine the effects of the cognitive strategy training on the learners writing anxiety and writing achievement. The results showed that the writing achievement of the learners in the experimental group was higher than the learners' writing achievement of control group. Writing anxiety of the learners in the experimental group was lower than their pre-test scores. Further, no statistically significant difference was found when the pre and post-test scores for the writing anxiety of the learners were compared in control groups. There were found no statistically significant difference between the males and females in terms of writing achievement and writing anxiety.

**Key Words** : **Writing Anxiety, Writing Achievement, Cognitive Strategy Training, EFL**

**Number of Pages** : **130**

**Advisor** : **Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>COPYRIGHT STATEMENT</b> .....	Hata! Yer işareti tanımlanmamış.
<b>ETHICAL STATEMENT</b> .....	Hata! Yer işareti tanımlanmamış.
<b>APPROVAL</b> .....	Hata! Yer işareti tanımlanmamış.
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	Hata! Yer işareti tanımlanmamış.
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b> .....	Hata! Yer işareti tanımlanmamış.
<b>I. INTRODUCTION</b> .....	Hata! Yer işareti tanımlanmamış.
<b>1.1 Statement of the Problem</b> .....	<b>3</b>
<b>1.2 Purpose of the Study</b> .....	<b>7</b>
<b>1.3 Significance of the Study</b> .....	<b>8</b>
<b>1.4 Limitations</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>1.5 Definitions of Terms</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>2.1 Introduction</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>2.2 Approaches to Writing</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>2.2.1 Product/Text-based Approach</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>2.2.2 Process Approach</b> .....	<b>15</b>
<b>2.2.3 Genre Approach</b> .....	<b>21</b>
<b>2.3 Language Learning Strategies</b> .....	<b>22</b>
<b>2.3.1 Classification of the Language Learning Strategies</b> .....	<b>25</b>
<b>2.3.2 Research on Language Learning Strategies</b> .....	<b>31</b>
<b>2.4 Cognitive Strategies in the O'Malley and Chamot's Classification</b> .....	<b>35</b>
<b>2.4.1 Resourcing</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>2.4.2 Organizing</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>2.4.3 Deduction</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>2.4.4 Imagery</b> .....	<b>37</b>
<b>2.4.5 Elaboration</b> .....	<b>37</b>
<b>2.4.6 Inference</b> .....	<b>37</b>
<b>2.4.7 Note-Taking</b> .....	<b>37</b>
<b>2.4.8 Summarizing</b> .....	<b>38</b>
<b>2.5 Foreign language Writing Strategies</b> .....	<b>39</b>
<b>2.5.1 Research on Writing Strategies</b> .....	<b>42</b>

2.6 Anxiety.....	46
2.6.1 Writing Anxiety .....	48
2.6.2 Research on Writing Anxiety .....	50
2.7 Research on Writing Strategies, Writing Anxiety and Writing Achievement.....	51
2.8 Strategy Training... ..	53
2.8.1 Seperate versus Integrated Instruction.....	54
2.8.2 Direct versus Embedded Instruction .....	55
2.8.3 Research on Strategy Training .....	58
CHAPTER 3 .....	60
III. METHODOLOGY .....	60
3.1 Overall Design .....	60
3.2 Research Questions .....	62
3.3 Participants .....	63
3.4 Data Collection Instruments .....	64
3.4.1 Essay Tasks .....	64
3.4.2 The Writing Anxiety Test.....	65
3.5 Data Collection Procedure .....	66
3.5.1 Pre-test .....	67
3.5.2 Cognitive Strategy Instruction.....	67
3.5.3 Post-test .....	80
3.6 Data Analyses.....	80
CHAPTER 4 .....	83
IV. RESULTS .....	83
4.1 Analyses of the Data Collection Tools in terms of Reliability .....	84
4.2 Analyses of the Results in terms of Writing Anxiety of the Students on the Pre-test .....	84
4.3 Analyses of the Results in terms of Writing Achievements of the Students After the Cognitive Strategy Training .....	85
4.4 Analyses of the Results in terms of Writing Anxiety of the Students After the Cognitive Strategy Training .....	86
4.5 Comparison of the Writing Anxiety Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups .....	87
4.6 Comparison of the Writing Achievement Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups .....	88
4.7 Results on the Reliability of the Raters .....	89
4.8 Results on the Difference between the Gender of the Learners and Writing Anxiety and Writing Achievement.....	90

<b>CHAPTER 5 .....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>V. CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION, and RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>5.1 Conclusion and Discussion .....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>5.2 Pedagogical Implications .....</b>	<b>97</b>
<b>5.2.1 Recommendations for Further Studies .....</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>110</b>



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Students in Experimental and Control Groups.....	83
Table 2: Reliability Estimates of the Data Collection Tools.....	84
Table 3: The Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Both Groups Resulted from the Writing Anxiety Scale.....	85
Table 4: The Pre and Post-test Results of the Groups in the Wring Essays.....	86
Table 5: The Pre and Post-test Results of the Groups.....	87
Table 6: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Scores of the Writing Anxiety Scale.	88
Table 7: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Scores of the Writing Tasks .....	89
Table 8: Difference between the Males and Females in terms of Writing Anxiety...	90
Table 9: Difference between the Males and Females in terms of Writing Achievement .....	91



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Flower and Hayes Composing Process Model (1981) .....	16
Figure 2: Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990) .....	26
Figure 3: O'Malley and Chamot's Classification .....	28
Figure 4: Classification of all Three Researchers .....	30
Figure 5: Leki's Categories of Writing Strategy .....	40
Figure 6: Sasaki's Categories of Writing Strategy .....	41
Figure 7: Strategy Training Programmes by the Researchers .....	54



## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

EFL English as a Foreign Language

WAT Writing Anxiety Test

LLS Language Learning Strategies

MEB Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı





# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

As we live in the age of information, individuals and communities attempt to reach the knowledge constantly. In the sense of globalization, communication between different societies in our world is very important. Nowadays, communication is achieved through the media as well as with the help of computers. The common language of this global communication is English. As a result of the economic and technological developments, English has become a "world language" which has been used as a first or second language in almost all of the countries for decades (Barlett, 2017). It is predicted that 400 million people speak English as a mother tongue and there are 450 million people who use English as a second or foreign language in the world (Manchon, 2001). It has become the language of science, aviation, tourism, diplomacy and engineering. The rapid increase in the communication channels urges people who work in all parts of the society such as business, politics and science to learn English as a foreign language. As in all over the world, the public interest in learning English in Turkey increases every day (Acat & Demiral, 2002).

Recently, with the increase of the necessity and importance of foreign language learning along with individuals' personal efforts; governments have paid more attention to the process of organizing their educational policies. Before 2014, learners were provided with the foreign language education in the fourth grade of the primary schools but today pupils start learning English in the second grade. In 2014, all of the high schools except for the technical and science ones were converted to the Anatolian high schools in which the number of the English lesson hours increased and another foreign language such as German or French started to be taught along with English. In addition, as it is obligatory, foreign language education starting from the second grade of the primary school continues up to the higher education.

According to the Ministry of National Education's Regulation on Foreign Language Education and Teaching (2013), the aim of the foreign language education in formal, non-formal and distance education institutions is to help learners communicate with the target language through the authentic use of the language in an interactive context and develop positive attitudes towards foreign language learning. Additionally, as motivation plays a key role in learners' success, the purpose of the curriculum is to make English learning funnier and more interesting considering the various needs and different developmental levels of learners (Chen, 2011).

As for the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers who are regarded as one of the indispensable parts of the language teaching, they have had many different problems originating from the complex nature of the language teaching, chosen techniques, methods or materials, and physical environments in and outside of the classrooms for many years. Tribble (1996) suggests a detailed list of the areas in which EFL teachers have difficulties. These problems cover such areas: classroom management, appropriate school materials, assessment techniques, heavy teaching load and large classroom sizes (Tribble, 1996). Furthermore, learners may have different foreign language proficiency at the end of the instruction process even if they are taught in the same circumstances (Cohen, 1990). A considerable amount of research in the literature has examined the different variables that affect students cognitively and affectively (Horwitz, 2001). Studies show that learning style/strategy, intelligence, age, aptitude, motivation and attitude are some of the factors influencing the foreign language learning success (Oxford, 1990). Brown (2001) reports that individual differences belong to a person's cognitive and affective domain. As Dornyei (2007) emphasizes, individual differences are the certain characteristics of learners that differ them from others and are considered to be the most distinctive predictors of language learning achievement. As Hettich (1994) notes, personal factors which are categorized as cognitive and affective are learner-oriented and refer to the ways in which learners engage with the task of language learning. Cognitive factors are intelligence, language aptitude, and learning strategies (Leki, 2002). Some researchers hold that cognitive style is innate, enduring and difficult to change and is also one of the significant factors determining the difference in learning strategies (Tighe, 1987). Affective factors involve language

anxiety, motivation, attitude and willingness to communicate and define the items which effect the interpretation of input and the production of output under the control of affective filters that were hypothesized by Krashen (Karim & Latif, 2018). During the learning process, some learners are quicker in learning and understanding the forms, structures, different and practical uses of language patterns while others have difficulty in conceiving and internalizing the nature of the target language. This situation supports the notion that there are not only cognitive factors but also individual characteristics that play important roles in language learning process (Silva, 1990). According to Gardner (1985), individual differences such as intelligence, self-confidence, attitudes, motivation, language anxiety, language aptitude and language learning strategies are the most significant factors that are related to the language learning.

### **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

Writing is a tool used to represent the language through the sign and symbols. It is the job of leaving a trail to stones, coats, air, metal, leaf or paper through primitive or advanced means of the language instruments such as the alphabet and the punctuation marks developed by the human being in order to express emotions, thoughts, events, desires, dreams and observations (Topuzkanamış, 2014). It is also the adaptation job of individuals' written products to make meaningful for both themselves and others. Besides, having a connotation of this product is the most important feature of this activity (Smith, 1984). Thanks to writing, people meet their needs of communication with life and human beings, and share existence (Sadiku, 2015). While some people achieve this through conversation, others do it by writing. Thus, the transmission of the civilization, thought and culture which is considered as the sum of the all the productions of human beings in the world. In this respect, people have been writing their life, experiences, feelings and so forth throughout the history (Yancey, 2009).

There are difficulties for students and teachers within the process of learning both the first and foreign language writing. Writing is a productive language skill that requires competence just like other language skills (speaking, listening and reading) (Hedge, 2005). The problems that learners have with expressing their feelings and thoughts through writing make writing harder to improve than the other language skills and

cause a serious obstacle in the development of this skill (Cook, 1996). This is due to the psychological, linguistic and cognitive problems experienced during the writing process (Öztürk, 2012). EFL learners have difficulty in expressing their thoughts in a foreign language and compose a piece of writing for different purposes in a well-organized paragraph. Thus, it is be inferred that writing is one of the most challenging skills for EFL learners (De Silva, 2015; Harmer, 2007; Hedge, 2005; Wenden, 1991). There are many reasons for this situation but the complexity of writing and its various demands such as linguistic and discursive components (cohesion and coherence) make writing a difficult skill to master (Hyland, 2003). In this respect, being competent in grammar or vocabulary is not sufficient to write effectively as the learners should think beyond the structure and they have to be taught and informed about how to blend their linguistic knowledge and sub-skills of writing by using the appropriate writing strategies (Leki, 2002). Furthermore, there is an increasing need for the improvement of EFL teachers' evaluation techniques and methods (Harmer, 1998). Many of the EFL teachers prefer summative evaluation mostly and ignore using other forms of assessment techniques. They also tend to favor the accuracy and the correct use of vocabulary as the chief criteria of writing a good composition (Volante & Fazio, 2007). In addition, large size of the classrooms, complex and incomprehensible writing rubrics make the situation harder for learners (Al-Jarf, 2011). It is also argued that EFL teachers in primary and secondary schools are incompetent at teaching writing skills and they do not have adequate understanding the concept of process writing (Badger & White, 2000; Brown, 2001, Graham & Sandmel, 2011).

Writing has started to shift from the beginning of 1970s. The idea of writing as a process has gained importance against the notion of writing as a product. In the product-oriented approach, producing a text through imitating a writing model is a routine and it is not possible for a student to use skills such as creativity or discovery as writing is based on pre-defined norms and coherence with formal characteristics (Pasand & Haghi, 2013). Effective writing is not a skill that is acquired in a short period of time; but, it is a developmental phenomenon and achieved or improved through the use of a number of devices. According to the process-oriented approach, writing is not regarded as an action that starts and ends with a short period of time, but it is achieved in a process with the consistent use of many related skills (Hedge,

2005). In this process, it is important for the students to improve cognitive skills such as planning, organizing, revising and making connection between the paragraphs to be able to apply the steps of the process writing and to use the writing skill to produce satisfactory texts (Leki, 2002). Thus, writing should be taught within a process to improve the writing ability of the target group (Chen, 2011). Moreover, learners should be given various and encouraging writing practices and these activities should be evaluated and modified through analyzing the mistakes in the process in order to reach the determined objectives in the writing activities (Sasaki, 2000). As the learners take the responsibility of their writing skills by editing, reviewing and revising, they may improve their writing skills easier and become more effective writers (Barlett, 2017). Therefore, the process-based writing approach is compatible with the English Course Curriculum of Ministry Education which urges learners to have basic skills of 21<sup>st</sup> century such as correct and proper use of the language, critical and creative thinking, problem solving, and using research information technology. Although the process-based writing has been an important approach in foreign language teaching settings since 1970s, it is argued that majority of the EFL teachers still insist on using this kind of teaching method and materials and it is not used by them as desired (Hasan & Akhand, 2010).

It is evidently true that there are a number of problems that EFL learners have to deal with within the learning process, as writing is a skill that is difficult to master. Writing anxiety is one of the main factors that have a significant effect on the writing process (Daly, 1978). Anxiety is defined as a student's reaction to a specific situation in a certain time and it is a complex and multi-dimensional issue (Cheng, 2002). For many years, foreign language teachers and researchers have been aware that language learning is a stressful event for some students and some studies have been carried out in foreign language learning settings to improve the learners' language skills (MacIntyre & Gardner 1991). Besides, numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between foreign language anxiety and language learning, especially four basic skills (Babanovic, 2016; Brown, 2001; Cheng, 2002; Cook, 1996; Wenden, 1991). Additionally, many researchers stated that anxiety has a negative effect on the development of students' writing skills (Hettich, 1994; Reeves, 1997; Riasati, 2011). Mohite's (2014) research reveals that while the majority of the learners with low level of language proficiency feel

pressure when they write and speak English in the classroom, the successful learners who have positive attitudes towards English lesson are found to be less anxious about the use of language in verbal and written communication.

Writing anxiety is also one of the key factors that affect the writing desires of individuals and their success in writing activities. One of the ways of improving the quality of teaching writing is to create a condition and learning environment in which learners write confidently (Smith, 1984). Writing anxiety may cause a situation in which the learners may avoid writing in some cases that require writing (Faigley, Daly & Witte, 1981; Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Writing anxiety is a state of anxiety or fear of writing faced at the task of writing and it is one of the factors that block creating a suitable learning environment for learners (Mohseniasl, 2014). Many researchers have investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and writing skill (Bacon, 1992; Graham & Harris, 2003; Reeves, 1997). Finding of these studies is that foreign language anxiety hinders the achievement and developments of the learners writing abilities. Horwitz (2001) indicates that there is a negative correlation between students' level of writing anxiety levels and achievement in foreign languages. Moreover, writing anxiety is related to the willingness of the learners towards writing or to avoid writing (Daly, 1978). It is stated that this reaction to writing has negative effects on the writing achievement of the learners and their attitudes towards the target language (Zheng, 2008). Horwitz (2001) states that students who are anxious about writing do not like the activities that require writing and they may even perceive writing as a punishment. The learners who have anxiety about writing may also have some negative feelings such as sadness, anger, fear, or various cramps during writing activities (Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Reeves (1997) argues that low or high level of writing anxiety is harmful and it needs to be kept moderately. The low concern of the students during a writing activity indicates that the general stimulus of an individual is low and this may be thought as one of the reason for failure (Mohseniasl, 2014). Conversely, high level of writing anxiety is also a reason for failure or avoidance for writing performance as it results in excessive stress and fear (Hettich, 1994). Therefore, Horwitz (2001) suggests that writing anxiety may be felt before and during the writing activities but it should be kept at a moderate level. Many scholars found in their research that high level of writing anxiety affects students' writing negatively but the learners who have an

optimum level of writing anxiety write better and more comprehensible texts (Daly, 1978; Faigley et al., 1981; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Smith, 1984; Zheng, 2008). Thus, it is necessary to know the nature of writing anxiety, occurrence time and its possible effects on the writing process and to find alternative techniques and methods to keep the level of writing anxiety at optimum level (Bobanovic, 2016).

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

The aim of present study is to explore the effects of cognitive strategy training on EFL learners' writing anxiety and their writing achievements and to find out whether there exists a significant relationship between the gender, writing anxiety and writing achievement after the treatment. The participants of the study are 63 EFL learners who have been studying English for 7 years in a secondary school in Sivas.

In Turkey, it is clear that numerous studies have been conducted to identify the ways of improving learners' writing skills by using different kinds of techniques and methods (Bobanovic, 2016; Horwitz, 2001; Smith, 1984). However, language learning strategies and their effects on learners' writing anxiety or writing achievement were investigated through a limited number of the studies that were mostly administered to university students. However, limited research has been conducted about the writing strategies and it is easily reported that most of the studies deal with finding out types of the language learning strategies that the learners adopt. Additionally, these studies were carried out in university settings with had intermediate or advanced students.

There are numerous studies that investigate the relationship between anxiety and achievement. In these studies, it is reported that there exists a meaningful relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language achievement (Horwitz, 2001; Reeves, 1997; Shih, 2005; Teichman & Poris, 1989; Wu, 2010). With respect to the findings of these studies, it is stated that foreign language anxiety influences writing achievement negatively. Ganschow and Sparks (1996) investigated the effects of foreign language anxiety on language learning achievement and the attitudes developed against foreign language learning among women. According to the results of this study, students' level of anxiety affected their success, attitudes and behaviors towards foreign language learning. Moreover, some researchers state that facilitating anxiety contributes to the learners' writing

achievement in language learning (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Horwitz, 2001; McLeod, 1987).

The number of the research that explores the possible effects of cognitive strategy instruction on the Turkish EFL learners' writing performances and their writing anxiety is limited. Thus, the aim of the current study is to fill the gap in the literature by conducting an experimental study in order to reveal whether cognitive strategy training contributes to the improvement of the secondary school students' writing achievement and affect their writing anxiety.

### **1.3 Significance of the Study**

The principal aim of education, in the broadest sense, is to prepare a person for life. Therefore, all educational settings and tools should be designed to serve this purpose. In particular, the goal of English language teaching for learners is to help master the four language skills since the development of all language skills is an important and inevitable requirement for a successful learning process (Brown, 2001). Knowing a foreign language is one of the most important means by which people follow the innovations all around the world and get involved in the global communities (Gaber, 2003).

Nowadays, finding immediate solutions to problems is more important than anything else (Shih, 2005). Since it is in every part of the life, the situation is the same in communication. As creating a text is a job of organizing ideas in a certain form, writing is directly related to thinking (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). It is clear that a person with good writing skills can discover the weak and strong points or rational ties in any communication environment easily (Hyland, 2003). People with good writing skills are expected to be disciplined and planned in the steps that they take in their future life (Hou, 2011). Additionally, learners' strategic behavior is crucial for better writing in the process of writing a passage (Kroll, 2001).

Writing is based on expressing one's own ideas and perspectives rather than imitating one's thoughts or viewpoints (Oxford, 1990). This forces learners to follow various strategies and using these learning strategies in the writing process is considered as an important factor which has positive effects on the writing success (Manchon, 2001). Learning strategies are important for ensuring active, autonomous participation of learners in the learning process and play an important role in



ensuring communicative competence in the language learning environment (Oxford 1990). According to Chamot (1999), studying the learning strategies should be one of the main areas of research in the field of second language teaching and these studies are important for contributing to the success of the language learners. Griffiths (2004) states that the positive effect of the language learning strategies on the learning process is very exciting and teachers benefit from the research results related to language learning strategies in order to develop strategy awareness in their classrooms. As Woodrow (2005) states that one of the basic issues that answers the question of how a good foreign language student should be is to recognize and use foreign language learning strategies. In this respect, to raise self-awareness and self-assessment on the writing process, students should be encouraged by their teachers to recognize and utilize the language learning strategies to be efficient learners in every type of an educational setting (De Silva, 2015). Language learning strategies are also used to develop the writing performances of the learners (Babanovic, 2016). These learning strategies which are utilized for solving problems that emerge during the processes of writing activities may be at both cognitive and metacognitive levels (Oxford, 1990). In the process of writing, the information in the mind is transferred to the language center to be presented via the language and the sentences are checked for correctness (Rogers, 2010). The transfer of the ideas is called cognitive strategies and the monitor of this transfer process is called metacognitive strategies (Collins, 2000). Moreover, learning strategies increase the learner's self-confidence as well as helping to improve the language skills (Wenden, 1991). Successful students use many strategies either consciously or unconsciously. As in the teaching of other language skills, learning strategies are also be used to develop writing. Griffiths (2004) argues that despite the plenty of research on the language learning strategies in the literature, learners are not informed, trained and practiced about the language learning strategies adequately. Therefore, one of the significant purposes of conducting this study is to discover the influence of certain cognitive strategies on developing Turkish EFL learners' writing proficiency and help them write better compositions in their foreign language classrooms.

#### **1.4 Limitations**

The current study is limited to;

1. The current study was conducted just in the spring semester of 2017-2018 Education Year in a secondary school with two groups,
2. The argumentative essays were administered to assess the learners' writing achievement. Different tools are employed to find out the writing performance of them.
3. The Turkish adaptation of Written Anxiety Test was used to determine the writing anxiety level of the learners. Some other tools like interview may be employed to reinforce the investigation.

#### **1.5 Definitions of the Terms**

The crucial terms related to the current study are presented below.

**Language Learning Strategies** are the actions and processes that are consciously used by learners to guide them determine how to learn better a second or foreign language (Oxford, 1990).

**Cognitive Strategies** are the ways of facilitating language material for learners by reasoning, analyzing, synthesizing, outlining and summarizing to provide them with logical and sustainable knowledge (Oxford, 1990).

**Writing Anxiety** is a reaction developed by the writer and arouses in the form of sadness, anger and fear in the case of a given writing task, exam or writing activity made in the class. Writing anxiety is related to the willingness of learners to write or to tend to avoid writing (Faigley et al., 1981).

## CHAPTER TWO

### II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Introduction

Writing plays a key role in many aspects of our daily lives. Writing is the last of the four basic language skill chains (Ferris, 2001). It is a productive skill which is argued as one of the most important skill that learners have to master in foreign language teaching (Barlett, 2017). People share not only their ideas and feelings but also they defend their opinions through reasoning, debating and summarizing (White & Arndt, 1991).

Writing is a way of communication which occurs between the author and reader through a piece of passage. Starting in the 1970s, a significant change began to take place in the perspective of teaching writing (Chien, 2008). It was noticed that the prototype of teaching writing did not correspond to the real pedagogical needs of the learners (Zamel, 1985). The studies in L1 writing triggered scholars to research the nature of writing in a foreign language (Tabrizi & Rajaei, 2016). Learning how to compose an accurate and a coherent form implies an extraordinary exertion in L1 and L2 because there have been various problems stem from the teaching methods, selected materials, learners or teachers (Raimes, 1991). Thus, the researchers realized that writing was not a language skill that could be improved just with the introduction of new grammar rules and giving a task (Williams, 2012). Instead, it is an issue of a process that requires a deliberate and purposeful effort (Karim and Latif, 2018). Moreover, writing is a skill which is not acquired naturally but it is learned as a result of implementation within an instructional setting (Hedge, 2005). Therefore, the scholars have started to pay more attention to the writer themselves and what they do during the writing tasks (Seow, 2002).

Writing is a complex cognitive activity that requires a number of processes and strategies. Cognitive, metacognitive and affective variables determine the learners' competencies in four language skills (Silva, 1990). Successful writers use the cognitive items to monitor, improve and control their writing process (Chien, 2008).

It is a complicated process that requires a plenty of cognitive and metacognitive procedures such as planning, outlining, drafting, or clustering (Wenden, 1987). This process also causes a cognitive overload on the writers, as they deal with the thoughts in their mind, rhetorical goals and language structure simultaneously in order to get their messages across appropriately (Kroll, 2001). Writing in a foreign language is much more difficult task than writing in L1 because of the learners' limited structural and vocabulary knowledge in addition to the lack of organizational concept in a composition (Mohite, 2014).

Writing anxiety and negative attitudes towards writing are one of the most common problems that make writing more difficult to master for learners. The emotional states that writing anxiety creates lead learners to develop a negative attitude towards writing tasks and writing in general (Smith, 1984). Zhang (2008) states that there are many other reasons such as low self-confidence, fear of failure, negative feedback, poor linguistic knowledge and wrong strategy use. In addition, the complexity of this skill affects the success and motivation of the students in their learning processes (Perl, 1994). Students who are not able to express their thoughts and feelings through writing develop a negative reaction to learning the target language (Chou, 2002). Thus, the rules of a well-organized written product are usually ignored by the students and this situation prevents learners from the achievement of the educational goals (Ashworth, 1992). It is a difficult and time-consuming process to acquire writing skill in the foreign language learning process (Rogers, 2010). The studies on this issue show that although it is difficult for the students to write in both L1 and L2, the interest, motivation and success of learners is fostered through different types of methods, techniques, strategies, and activities (Takou, 2007).

In general, students assume writing as a difficult skill to master. This may be due to the fact that the expectation of the language teacher from the learners may not be reasonable (Shih, 2005). For instance, expecting from the learners to create a well-organized text or compositions within a specified period of time without considering their foreign language level, capacity and awareness is one of the most common mistakes of foreign language teachers (Brown, 2001).

## **2.2 Approaches to Writing**

Writing is central to our personal experiences and social identities. It has a complex and multifaceted nature. It is an improved version of the original idea. As human beings write and rewrite, they approach to the target meaning more accurately and more sincerely (Zamel, 1985). Zsigmond (2015) emphasizes that writing is an important tool to remember and organize the information we have acquired. Students acquire not only their knowledge through writing, but they also receive information, share learned knowledge and realize what they have learnt. (Tompkins, 1990). In other words, writing is one of the most powerful tools to show learners what they know. In this respect, as Tompkins (1990) states, writing is a cognitive activity that allows learners to inquire and establish relationships with higher order thinking skills through transferring our ideas, thoughts and feelings.

Writing is a versatile, complicated and difficult process that requires many sub-skills. A reason for this situation is that it is difficult to create an essay without associating how to write the text, the reason of writing or the type of the target audience together with many cognitive and linguistic aspects (White & Arndt, 1991). According to Onozawa (2010), writing is challenging not just for learners; it is also difficult for inexperienced EFL teachers.

Writing has a distinctive place in communication. A person may convey different messages to nearby or distant, familiar or unfamiliar readers through writing (Tribble, 1996). Whether in the form of paper pens or by e-mail or with the most advanced technology, this type of communication is very important in the modern world (Pasand & Haghi, 2013). Writing is a skill that should be developed through the support and encouragement of learners in the language learning process (Zhang, 2008). As writing is initially achieved through the help of intentional and systematic teaching in classroom settings, it gains more importance for the scholars to find the most appropriate ways of teaching writing (Kasper, 1997). In this respect, if the literature on teaching writing is overviewed, three main approaches which have their own different strengths and weaknesses come to minds. These approaches are mainly categorized as process, product and genre approach (Pasand & Haghi, 2013).

### **2.2.1 Product/Text-based Approach**

The product approach is a traditional approach that promotes learners to produce essays regarding a sample model. In the EFL literature, the product approach is concerned chiefly with the result in the composition and it was the main writing approach accepted by the scholars until the 1970s (Perl, 1994). In this approach, students are usually provided with a schema that outlines a sample of discourse organization and then the learners are intended to organize the linguistic forms and produce similar texts to the samples (Takou, 2007). At the end of the writing task, the composition is controlled and edited in terms of content and structure (Ferris, 2001). It is also argued that in this approach, there is a considerable effect of structuralism that prioritizes the logical design of words, sentences and clauses within a composition (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). Besides, writing a text is thought as an independent item from the reader, writer, and setting (Shaughnessy, 1977). In other words, the chief aim of writing in this approach is to communicate just by getting the message across, so the meaning may be analyzed easily by anyone without knowing the writer or context (Raimes, 1991). As the compositions of the students are thought as independent from the reader and context, the focal point of the texts is the appropriate use of vocabulary, structures and understanding of the language system (Gomez, 1996). Since the accuracy is the most important criterion of the evaluation for the compositions, the teacher who provides the guidance for the structures and system of the language rules becomes indispensable factor in the classrooms (Perl, 1994). Researchers criticize this approach for the argument that product-oriented approach attributes a high importance to assessment of the texts and ignores other significant elements of writing such as the goal, reader and process in which compositions are created (Ferris, 2001). The product approach is based on the text and the writing product. According to this approach, individuals write mainly their thoughts and ideas by imitating a sample written product (Rusinovci, 2015). After gathering the necessary information for writing, the cause-effect relation is processed on the paper through the use of proving and comparison (Nunan, 1999). This approach attaches importance to the information in the article. Therefore, the roles of the teacher and the learner have been determined as the evaluator and the person being evaluated respectively (Tangpermpoon, 2008). The evaluation of the

text is based on language knowledge, vocabulary usage and technical factors like structure (Seow, 2002).

In this approach, the teacher gives a topic to students and they write what they know about it. The teacher collects the products after completing the writing task. In fact, learners give the first draft texts (Kroll, 1990). Since these texts are considered to be completed by both the student and the teacher, there is no evaluation of the meaning related to the issues such as the relationship between ideas, organization of the ideas, or the effectiveness of the entry (Hedge, 2005). Teachers are not involved in the writing process and they do not have any interference with how to start and write to the writers before or during writing (Hassan & Akhand, 2010). After evaluation of learners' texts, teachers warn the students to use the words correctly or to write better chapters for the next time (Badger & White, 2000). In this respect, even if this situation leads the students to be careful in the mentioned issues, the semantics and meaning bonds which are also important features of a well-organized written product and constitute the deep structure of the text are ignored (Silva, 1990). Barnett (1989) states that the product approach deals with the correction of mistakes mainly and it is not very effective in increasing the learners' writing achievement.

### **2.2.2 Process Approach**

As a result of the shift from the product to process-oriented approach, some models for the process writing such as Bereiter and Scardamalia (1988) and Flower and Hayes (1981) were raised by the scholars and these models were among the preliminary and approved ones for L2 writing settings. In Flower and Hayes model (1981), writing is viewed as a non-linear, fundamental and productive process whereby the learners explore and reevaluate their thoughts as they struggle to perceive the meaning (Zamel, 1985). According to this model (see figure 1), writing is a recursive and implies three main processes (planning, translating, and revising) that meets the stages of pre-writing, writing and post-writing.

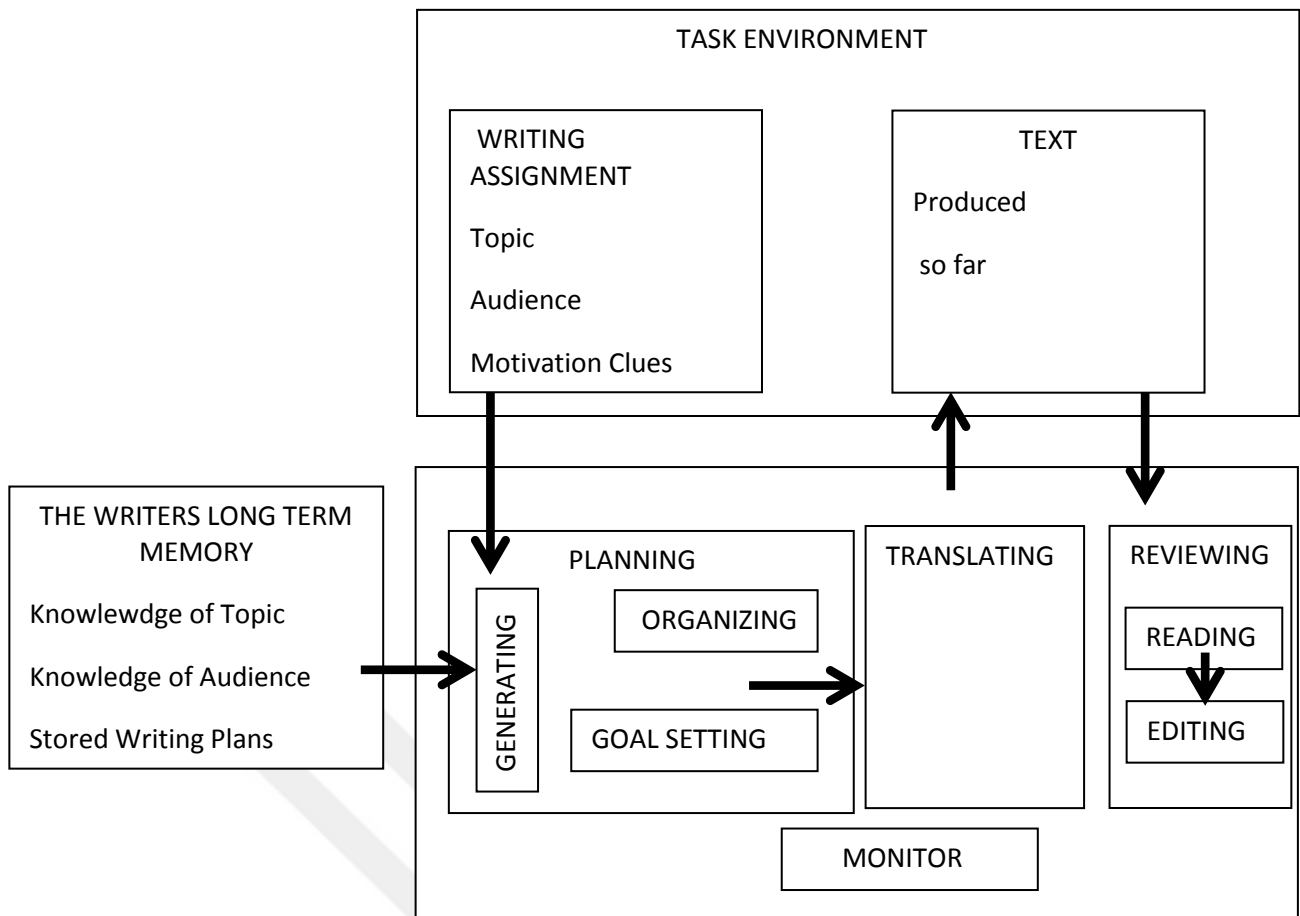


Figure 1: Flower and Hayes Composing Process Model (1981)

In this model, the learners monitor the process which enables them to assess their development before moving to another stage. Further, the writing environment which involves subject, reader, prompts and strategies is an influential factor to create a good text (Zamel, 1985). Additionally, it is demanded that the writers tell their ideas in each process through a think- aloud protocol while they are studying (Rodrigues, 1985).

Although this model had a great impact on the L1 and L2 writing studies, Flower and Hayes Model was criticized for paying undue attention to the mental processes and neglecting the social impacts in the writing activities (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1988). Another criticism for the model is that it uses think-aloud protocols which are criticized for not recording the writing process completely and overcharging the short term memory as the major method (Zamel, 1985). Raimes (1991) criticized think aloud data for providing artificial and unsatisfactory information for the complex cognitive processes of writing.

In the beginning of the 1970s, the idea of teaching writing shifted from the product-oriented to the process approach. Namely, the instruction started to involve systematically written texts rather than simple sentence level forms (Emig, 1971).



Process writing is an approach that encourages learners to be more creative and to produce original written texts rather than imitating a model (Perl, 1994). The process-based writing aims to raise the awareness of teachers and learners on the planning, organizing, reviewing and editing stages (Ashman & Conway, 1993). In process-based approach, writing is seen as the discovery of the language and thought along with the renewal of the language (Gocer, 2011). This approach focuses on sub-skills of writing through different processes that occur before, during and after writing (Perl, 1994). Furthermore, the teacher is obliged to guide and support the learner in the writing process (Petric & Czarl, 2003). The teacher must be a model for the student in terms of writing technique at first. In other words, the teacher does not tell how to write to the student, s/he writes himself (Barnett, 1989).

The process writing is an approach that recognizes the writing as a process by separating this process to the various stages, not just by creating a text. According to Chen (2011), writing is not a personal activity which should be started and finished within a limited time period by writing thoughts, ideas and examples randomly. Instead, process writing is an approach that requires learners to share their ideas with others in the process of editing, drafting, reviewing, correcting and publishing ideas during the writing process (Rusinvoci, 2015).

The process approach is not just about the product, but about the process. In order to produce a good and qualified essay, many mental processes have to be handled carefully (Bartlett, 2017). Besides, in the process of writing, learners should use high-level of thinking skills such as preparing for writing in advance, transferring ideas to the reader and organizing the writing (Bruning & Horn, 2000). When a learner starts to write and finishes the writing without doing any other activity, it is not actually a written product; it is an advanced draft. It is inevitable that it has many deficiencies and mistakes because learners face with the situations or events that prevent them from writing better in the process (Hassan & Akhand, 2010). The product approach is not effective for overcoming the problems caused by these situations and events. However, the process approach aims at avoiding these situations and events as it focuses not only on the product, but also attaches importance to the planning of students' writing, organization of the ideas, revising, editing and peer correction (Applebee, Langer & Mullis 1986).

There are four basic stages (planning, drafting, revising, and editing) in Seow's process writing model and these stages are in non-sequential order. However, Steele's Process Approach Model (2004) comprises of eight stages. Brainstorming is the first step in which the learners start to the process by generating ideas. Next, there is a planning stage that requires learners to create a frame for their ideas. Then, the learners prepare some graphics such as spider grams or mind maps to organize their ideas. This is the mind mapping stage. In the drafting stage, learners write their first drafts. Stage five is peer feedback. In this stage, the learners change their first drafts with their peers. They read, evaluate and give feedbacks to the drafts. This helps the learners to be aware of the fact that the texts are written to be read. Editing is the sixth stage. The learners take their drafts from their peers and make the necessary changes according to the feedback. Stage seven is final draft. The learners write their final draft in this stage. Final drafts are evaluated and the learners are provided feedback by their teachers.

The process writing is an educational model that has been studied in the literature both in the literary and descriptive writing types. Tomkins (1990) states that writing process is a map of the way that students think about what they are doing, involve and direct the process from beginning to finish. While learners are dealing with the writing process, they also develop problem solving skills through using different strategies (Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006). Knowledge and experience of the teacher's writing process will help the pupils to improve their writing skills in the learning environment and teach them using different and appropriate strategies to make the process more comprehensible (Onozawa, 2010). Oshima and Hogue (1991) noted that the process approach in writing instruction which was replaced by product approach in the early of 1970s emphasized the significance of process that the students experienced in writing and the other components of writing such as planning, drafting, reviewing and editing.

A good text in process approach requires an interaction among the writer, text and reader. In this respect, teacher is a facilitator rather than a judge and the learner has the role of an assistant who cares to write better in the process of transferring his/her thoughts to the paper (Barnett, 1989). Raimes (1991) notes that the teacher meets the needs of the students from the beginning of the topic choice to the publication of the

written products and emphasizes the importance of taking the responsibility for their writing tasks.

Writing process gains its basic quality with the discovery. Writing is a discovery process that takes place with the interaction of the content and the dynamic structure of the language (Takou, 2007). This process requires some stages such as drafting, reviewing and revising and these stages constantly interact with each other to discover meaning (Mohite, 2014). Onozawa (2010) points out that there are five stages in process-based writing to reach an effective written text. These stages include: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing and publishing. In the preparation phase before writing, selection of topic, the goal of writing, target group and type of writing, putting out and organization of the related ideas are done (Dujisik, 2008). In the pre-writing stage, the author finds and arranges the ideas that will be used in the writing activity. At this stage, it is often difficult to place and organize the ideas on paper logically (Barnett, 1989). As Bae (2011) notes that pre-writing is a step which allows students to think about the subject of their creativity and how they should approach the issue. Drafting is the step in which the students concentrate on transferring their thoughts on paper (Mohite, 2014). At this stage, the learners are asked to review their work in the pre-writing stage and to write about their subjects. The students are reminded that the manuscripts they write are not the last shape of their composition, therefore they should not worry and they will be able to make any changes on drafts in the following stages (Tompkins, 1990). Drafting is the phase of the process-based writing in which the students write and rewrite a text considering that this text is not the last version of their compositions (Widodo, 2006). It is the phase in which the written product is looked over with its structural elements. Revising is the step in which the essays are examined in order to understand how the desired meaning is given effectively (Seow, 2002). At this stage, it is aimed to determine the points that are unnecessary, incomplete or incomprehensible and the topic is reviewed based on the main and supporting ideas (Gaber, 2003). In revising phase, the text is re-read and shared with friends or teachers and it is rewritten after the received feedbacks (Hedge, 2005). In the editing stage, the structure, linguistic usage and the appropriateness of the spelling are taken as basis (Mohite, 2014). Editing is the stage in which the learners deal with the problems such as spelling, punctuation, grammar and use (Seow, 2002). It is stated that it would be beneficial

for the learner to make the correction both by the learner and by someone else, as the learner spend too much time on the paper, it is a normal that the leaners may not realize their mistakes in the text (Reeves, 1997). Furthermore, the learners proofread the logical mistakes among the paragraphs and sentences. In the stage of publishing, the product is presented with real life and it becomes available for others to read (Silva, 1990). It is the last stage that students share with their listeners by reading them aloud, printed and exhibit them in a digital environment (Widodo, 2006). Tompkins (1990) states that the aim of publishing is to share and announce learners' written products.

White and Arndt, (1991) state that the following steps are followed in the process writing approach within a group work:

- Formation of groups,
- Deciding topics,
- Gathering information and ideas about issues to be written,
- Display of information and ideas,
- Organizing ideas,
- Writing of the first draft,
- Revising correcting the ideas,
- Writing of the second draft,
- Editing the language and punctuation,
- Final drafting,
- Presentation of the text and getting feedback.

Consequently, as the process approach takes the sub-skills of writing into consideration and highlights what the writer does in the process of writing, it enables learners to develop writing skill considerably. Despite the criticism and negative sides, process approach has been the chief subject matter of the studies both in teaching first and second language writing (Gomez, 1996). Many of the studies that tried to get an understanding of process writing started with the investigation of L1 writing and its nature. There is a need to do much more study that address process-based writing in L2 writing in order to understand the contribution of process writing and the strategies used this process (Takou, 2007).

### 2.2.3 Genre Approach

Genre approach is used relatively less in teaching foreign language writing and it advocates the different philosophy from the process approach emerged in the 1970s. This approach focuses on the context considerably and to the reason why the written text is produced (Badger & White, 2000). In this respect, as the purpose of the writing, type of the writing and reader in each writing task are different. Additionally, the language and strategy to achieve this purpose change according to the situation (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). The genre approach has emerged as a reaction to the process-oriented writing and has been practiced by many researchers especially in academic writing (Badger & White, 2000).

The genre approach improves the learners' awareness to the textural structures. The teacher creates basic images about the appropriate use of language structures to the different genres by explaining the contextual dimension explicitly (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). In the genre approach, writing is described as the configuration to certain conventions to arrange belief for certain social goals (Hyland, 2002, p. 16).

A significant number of researchers have admitted that there are many functions of genre approach. Paltridge (2001) asserts that genre approach helps the learners recognize the writing as an instrument which is directed in many different ways. In this approach, it is intended that the learners should appreciate the different organizations of the information within a text through analyzing the various kinds of passages (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). As Paltridge (2001) states that if the teachers let the foreign language learners to discover the systematization of the language structures on the various genres on their own, it is a strong possibility that the learners turn to the usage of their first language and cultures. As a result, they will write contextually inadequate or poor educational texts (Dirgeyasa, 2014). Instead, the teachers have to monitor the process and be ready to give immediate feedbacks to the learners (Kim & Kim, 2005). In addition, it is emphasized in this approach that the cultural and social contexts have effects on the language use and they must be explored (Rusinovci, 2015). Genre approach urges learners to deal with authentic written texts and contributes to improve positive attitudes towards the EFL teaching (Kim & Kim, 2005).

Many researchers state that there are several phases which have to be followed in the type of genre writing. According to Dirgeyasa (2014), the main three steps of genre

writing are composed of modeling, deconstruction and language understanding. Firstly, the learners are assigned to write a specific genre by the teacher in the modeling step. This genre is analyzed by the learners and teachers to be familiar with the nature of the genre regarding its structure, linguistic properties and communicative target. Then, in the second step, the learners are expected to endeavor with the texts by writing, rewriting and modifying according to the certain features of the genre. As a final, by utilizing their own understanding, the learners create their own texts on the intended genre (Paltridge, 2001).

The genre approach is a kind of mixed approach between process and product approach. Since genre approach urges learners to start writing from easy steps to the difficult ones, this approach is especially appropriate to the learners who have low motivation and writing skill (Dirgeyasa, 2014). Further, it helps learners to practice within an autonomous learning environment (Henry & Roseberry, 1998).

### **2.3 Language Learning Strategies**

LLS (Language Learning Strategies) are described by different scholars through various definitions. Oxford (1990) defines LLS as the specific techniques the students employ to improve their language skills within an EFL setting. Oxford (1990) proposes a definition of LLSs that is both comprehensible and acceptable by the scholars. LLS are multi-faceted actions or behaviors that are utilized by students to make learning quicker and internalize the information sustainably (Oxford, 1990). Cook (1996) defines these strategies as the action or behaviors that influence and manage the learning process in EFL classrooms. According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), LLS are the whole process of gathering, storing and using of the foreign language knowledge to achieve the learning task easier. Chen (2011) describes LLS as the techniques and methods that learners use to facilitate learning.

LLS are assumed as the learning processes that the students perform consciously. LLS are particular procedures, steps or methods that learners utilize to develop their skills in learning foreign languages (Oxford, 1999). Weinstein, Husman, and Dierking (2000) describe LLS as the strategies involving ideas, behaviors, beliefs or emotions that facilitate the acquisition, understanding or transfer of new knowledge or skills to situations. In other words, the methods, behaviors and thoughts that the learners use to facilitate the learning of the learners are described language learning

strategies (LLS). These strategies help the internalization, retention, retrieval or use of the learned foreign language knowledge (Griffiths, 2004).

Oxford (1990) states the functions of the LLS as follows:

- They allow learners to participate more in the learning process.
- 2. They expand the duties of the language teachers.
- 3. They help solve the problems experienced in the learning process.
- 4. They are not just cognitive but they have many other characteristics.
- They can be taught.
- They are flexible and can be used in place of each other for different purposes in different situations.
- They are influenced by many factors.

The characteristics of successful learners and the importance of individual differences in the language learning process have been analyzed and investigated by the scholars in the field of language teaching. Many studies have emphasized the crucial role of individual traits in foreign language teaching (Ehrman & Oxford 2003; Oxford, 1990). Language learning strategies are among the main learning characteristics that affect success in language learning (Cohen, 1990; Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Özgür, 2003). Learning strategies are important in terms of ensuring active, autonomous participation of learners in the learning process and play an important role in providing communicative competence in the language learning context (Oxford, 1990). According to Gaber (2003), the difference between the different use of the LLS by the skillful learners and the less-skilled learners indicates the importance of language learning strategies as a strong variable that determine the success or failure in language learning. The use some certain LLS is among the fundamental reasons that respond to the question of how a good foreign language student should be (Woodrow, 2005). A considerable amount of research which investigates the relationship between these LLS and language learning success support this idea. In these studies, it has been detected that the active usage of LLS by the students has a positive effect on the language learning process (Hu & Chen, 2007).

Oxford (1990) states that LLS should be used together rather than individually and they should be appropriate to the preferences of the learners in order to be effective and valid. In 1990s, O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990) and Wenden (1991) reinforced the recognition of LLS in the field of second language teaching through their articles, studies and books. First studies on LLS began with the research for the characteristics of successful learners in the 1970s (Rubin, 1975; Shih, 2005; Silva, 1990). In these studies, it was observed that LLS played an important role on learners' language learning achievement along with the aptitude and motivation.

It is a well-known fact that learning a foreign language is a difficult process for the learners as there are many various difficulties including the individual ones in this process. In a teaching and learning setting, the techniques used by the teacher or the quality of the teaching material may not be influential on the learner (Onozawa, 2010). Desire, effort and endeavor of the learners are needed to reach the goal. For this reason, factors concerning the foreign language learning process have been explored and different methods, techniques and strategies have been developed to minimize the effects of these factors (Tompkins, 1990). The 1970s and 1980s were the years when the learner features became the focus of the interest (Williams, 2012). Since then, the influence of individual characteristics on learning has become an issue which has been emphasized by the researchers. Developments in the human rights, democratization and changes in the social life led to the individualization of learning through consideration of the interests, abilities and preferences of the individual in this process (Manchon, 2001). In this respect, the individual characteristics of the learners in the learning process have been investigated and different studies have been conducted to determine the characteristics of a good language learner (Narton & Toohy, 2004).



### **2.3.1 Classification of the Language Learning Strategies**

Several classifications and theoretical definitions have been made by the scholars to identify and understand the LLS better (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Leki, 1995; Pitonee & Ardestani; 2017; Rubin, 1975; Wenden, 1987). In these classifications, it is inferred that they all have similar characteristics and there are not big differences among them. According to Rodrigues (1985), though there are different classifications of the learning strategies, they imply almost the same roles and descriptions. These strategies include some methods and techniques to help the student in learning the process.

#### ***2.3.1.1 Oxford's Classification***

Oxford (1990) affirm that LLS are categorized into two groups; direct and indirect learning strategies. Oxford's (1990) classification has been formed by six subcategories under two basic ones. The two main categories are direct and indirect learning strategies. Sub-categories involve memory strategies (allowing information to be sent to memory for long periods of time and being remembered for communication purposes), cognitive strategies (they are the strategies that permit students to plan, organize, focus and evaluate their own learning), affective strategies (they are used to generate and deliver messages to the target audience), compensation strategies (they are used to eliminate the lack of knowledge when language becomes obsolete) metacognitive strategies (they are the strategies that facilitate students' control on their emotions, motivations and attitudes toward learning), and social strategies (strategies that help establish interactions in verbal communication) (Oxford, 1990).

<b>Direct Strategies</b>
Memory strategies, placing new words into correct grouping, semantic mapping, using keywords.
Cognitive strategies such as repeating, practicing, naturalistically, transferring.
Compensation strategies such as using linguistic clues, getting help, selecting topic, adjusting or, approximating the message.
<b>Indirect Strategies</b>
Metacognitive strategies such as paying attention, organizing, setting goals and objectives, seeking practice opportunities.
Affective strategies such as for lowering anxiety, making positive statements, taking risks, using a checklist
Social strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with others, developing cultural understanding.

Figure 2: Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 31)

#### 2.3.1.1.1 Direct Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) lists the strategies that directly influence learning under this heading and in three sub-headings.

**Memory Strategies:** The task of memory strategies is to assist learners in re-organizing their new acquired knowledge and manage this information when it is needed (Oxford 1990). This type of strategies helps students to keep the information in the long term memory and remember the information for communicative purposes (Oxford, 1990).

**Cognitive Strategies:** Cognitive strategies allow students to comprehend and use the target language in several various settings (Oxford, 1990). In general, these strategies are used to understand the learning material through analysis and synthesis. These strategies are strongly concerned with the activities in the classroom and require direct engagement of the teaching materials (Oxford, 1990). In addition, cognitive strategies contribute learners to create and strengthen the associations between the new and available information (Oxford, 1990). The model in the learner's mind is used by the learner to review the information, receive and communicate messages on the target language (Oxford, 1989).

Compensation strategies: These strategies help learners use language despite their lack of knowledge and allow them to cope with difficult situations that prevent communication (Oxford, 1989). Compensation strategies are used to deal with the mistakes during the use of the language learned by the learner or the problems caused by the acquisition of the missing information during learning (Oxford, 1990).

#### *2.3.1.1.1 Indirect Learning Strategies*

Oxford (1990) classifies the strategies which influence the learning indirectly under three subcategories.

Metacognitive Strategies: They are the strategies that keep learners fresh before, during and after a learning activity and they are always in the center of learning (Oxford, 1990). Metacognitive strategies are used by individuals to control how much the learning is accomplished after it has been achieved (Oxford, 1989).

Affective Strategies: These strategies hold emotional stability and provide positive influence on learning before, during and after the learning activity (Oxford, 1990). They are the strategies that make the students take the control their attitudes, feelings and motivation towards learning (Oxford, 1989).

Social Strategies: Social strategies facilitate students to socialize during and after learning (Oxford, 1990). It facilitates learning and helps in monitoring the degree of the learning after the process (Oxford, 1989). Social strategies are used to provide interaction and verbal communication. Communication is one of the main aims of language learning and it is at the center of this strategy (Oxford, 1990).

#### *2.3.1.2 O'Malley and Chamot's Classification*

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) explained LLS in three basic categories: cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies. Successful students use the following strategies in language learning process (O'Malley, 1990).

- Starting from what they have learned before, they make deductions for general understanding.
- They can find alternative ways to communicate.
- They aren't afraid of making mistakes and don't hesitate to communicate.
- They are aware of the nature of the language and find patterns and clues.

- They create opportunities to talk to people and practice what they learn.
- They observe the language use of others.
- They attempt to find clues in order to understand linguistic structure as well as the contextual features.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) designed the following chart of the strategies.

Preliminary Classification of Learning Strategies

Generic Strategy Classification	Representative Strategies	Definitions
	Selective Attention	Focusing on special aspects of learning tasks, as planning to listen for key words or phrases
	Planning	Planning for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.
	Monitoring	Reviewing attention to a task, comprehension of information that should be remembered, or production while it is occurring.
	Evaluation	Checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity.
Cognitive Strategies	Rehearsal	Repeating the names of items or objects to be remembered.
	Organisation	Grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic attributes.
	Inference	Using information in text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.
	Summarizing	Intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained.
	Deducing	Applying rules to the understanding of language.
	Imagery	Using visual images to understand and remember new verbal information.
	Transfer	Using known linguistic information to facilitate a new task.
	Elaboration	Linking ideas contained in new information or integrating new ideas with known info.
	Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, or get feedback.
	Questioning for Clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation or examples.
	Self-talk	Using mental redirection of thinking to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful.

Figure 3: Classification of O'Malley and Chamot

Metacognitive Strategies: Metacognitive strategies include planning, monitoring and evaluating the cognitive activities. These strategies correspond to mental planning of the activities to be done, follow up to what extent they are completed and finally evaluation of the structures concerned with the high level thinking skills of the students (Graham & Harris, 2003).

Cognitive Strategies: Cognitive strategies include the processing implications of the language in mind. Applications such as repetition and grouping of words, taking notes, summarizing, making inferences about the meanings of unfamiliar words and using various visuals to remember and associating new learning with previously learned ones are examined under this category (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Social Strategies: Social strategies are used to develop the communication skills and practice of knowledge acquired through metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Students who use social strategies try to clarify by asking questions to their classmates or teachers and prefer the activities such as internal conversation that enable them to participate in activities such as group work that requires cooperation (Brown, 2001).

### ***2.3.1.2 Rubin's Classification***

As Oxford's taxonomy is based on Rubin's classification, it has been referenced several times in the literature of LLS. While classifying the strategies, Rubin (1975) set out from his previous studies on successful students. Rubin (1975) classified these strategies according to their contributions to learning process under two different categories. These are the strategies that contribute to learning directly and indirectly. In order to understand how these strategies help learning, the strategies in the first group such as clarification, verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning and practice which prepare the students to communicate with the target group have to be analyzed (Rubin, 1975). These are the strategies that are primarily used in learning the basic language skills and contribute to learning directly (Rubin, 1987). In the second group, there are communication-based strategies that help the learners use what they have learnt (Rubin, 1987). The students are eager to create opportunities to practice their newly learned information and set various tasks for achieving it (Rubin, 1981).

The classification of Rubin (1981) was influential in determining the line of research but was not acceptable sufficiently as it was merely based on the perspective of the successful students (Oxford, 1990). For this reason, there is a need to clarify a theoretical background by utilizing the research conducted in the field of LLS (Oxford, 1990).

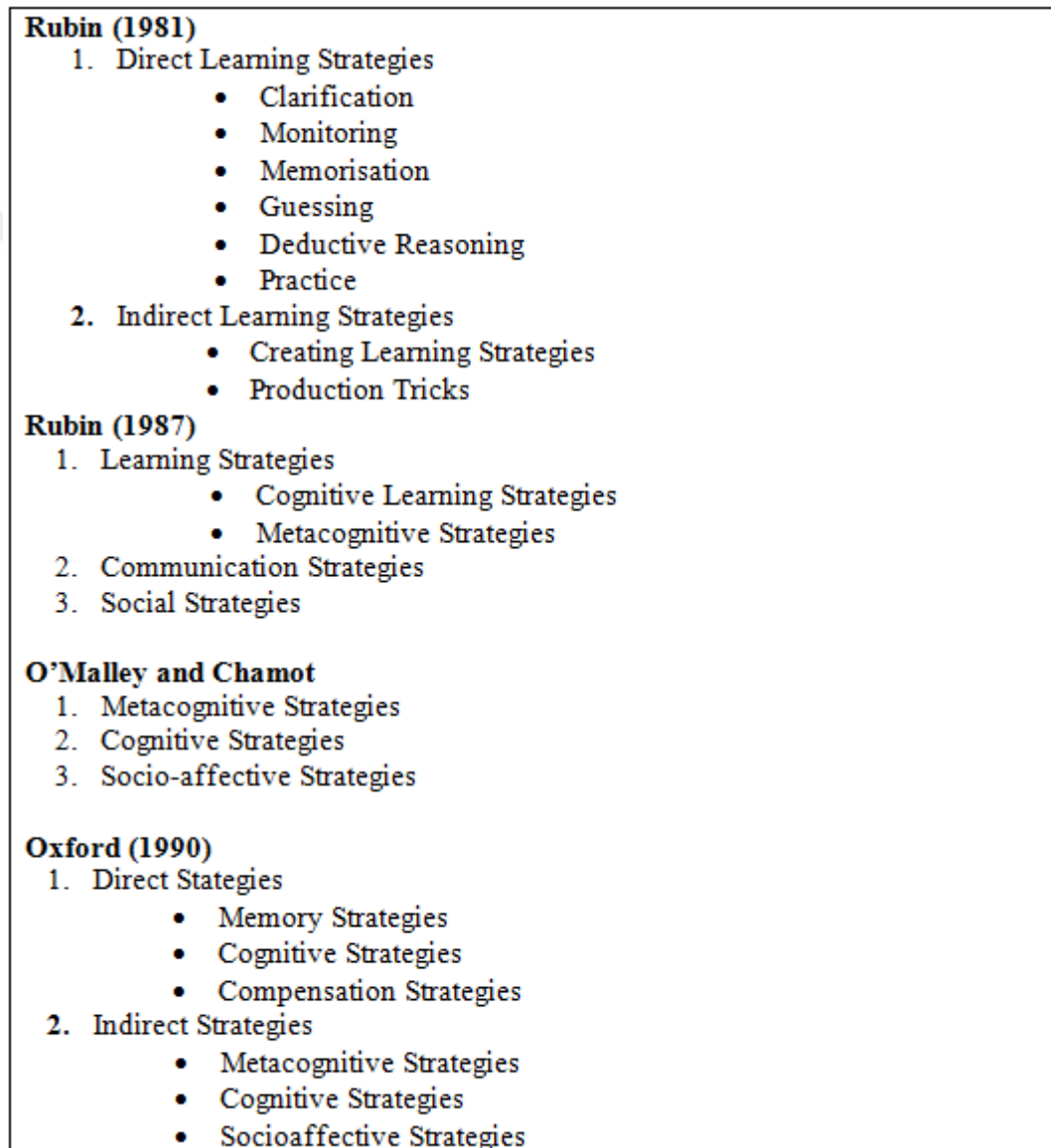


Figure 4: Classification of the three Researchers

### ***2.3.1.3 Stern's Classification***

Stern (1992) put forward the notion that 'good language learners' achieve different tasks that help them to be successful at their language learning process. Stern (1992) listed 5 learning strategies which are used by the proficient language learners. These strategies are presented below as:

1. Management and Planning Strategies
2. Cognitive Strategies
3. Communicative - Experiential Strategies
4. Interpersonal Strategies
5. Affective Strategies

Active Planning Strategies: Strategies including setting goals and organizing various language learning procedures.

Explicit Learning Strategies: Strategies utilized for the learning directly.

Social learning Strategies: Strategies including conveying the message across in a foreign language in classroom.

Affective Strategies: Strategies including eliminating the undesired situations and reducing anxiety to facilitate learning.

### **2.3.2 Research on Language Learning Strategies**

Over the years, several techniques and methods focusing on the various aspects of language learning have been used in EFL literature. These methods and techniques influenced the EFL programs and EFL settings have been improved and rearranged accordingly (Widodo, 2006). It is a well-known fact that the best language learners employ different strategies to make their learning more effective (Oxford, 1990). Griffiths (2003) explored the relationship between learners' achievement in English lesson and language learning strategies. The research was composed of three stages and conducted in a secondary school in New Zealand. In the first part, the LLS questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990) determined the learning strategies employed by the pupils and the connection between the LLS usage of the learners and their success. In the second part, whether there was a relation between the use of strategy and the student characteristics (country, gender, age) was investigated and the students who used individual learning strategies were interviewed. In the third

part, a program for the teaching of the language learning strategies was carried out and a scale for learning strategies was prepared by the researcher. Then, this scale was employed to find out whether there were differences between the LLS and learners' achievement. According to the results of the first part, there existed a meaningful relationship between the use LLS and language learning achievement. Moreover, the use of LLS varied in accordance with the nationality. It was clear that successful learners increased the frequency of the LLS usage. The results of the research also showed that there was harmony between the teachers and the learners in terms of learning / teaching situations.

Özgür (2003) investigated the relationship between university students' strategies for foreign language learning achievement, gender, school type and attitudes towards English language learning. A total of 153 students from the Preparatory school of Baskent University participated in the study and the data were assessed through Oxford's Learning Strategies Scale and Aiken's attitude scale by the researcher. According to the obtained results from the analysis of the data, the most frequent LLS employed by the university learners are metacognitive strategies. In terms of gender, it was found that the females use the different learning strategies more than the males. There was no significant relationship between the type of school and the duration of English learning and strategy use. A meaningful relationship was found between the use of social strategies and language learning achievement of the students.

Chou (2002) explored the LLS employed by learners in Taiwanese Technology and Vocational High School to reveal the relation between the LLS use, motivation and language competence. The data was obtained from 474 students who participated in the study through the responses of learners to the language learning strategy scale, motivation scale and personal information. According to the findings, Taiwanese students were moderate strategy users and they used cognitive strategies more frequent than other types of strategies. Later, social and meta-cognitive strategies were the most common strategies among Taiwanese learners. The least used strategies were the memory strategies. Additionally, it was noticed that the research found a significant relationship between learners' LLS use, achievement and



motivation. Moreover, it was reported that successful students employ more LLS than the less-skilled learners.

Clark, Scarino and Brownell (1994) investigated the influence of the strategy use on the foreign language learning achievement in his research. The necessary data was gathered through the scale of the LLS designed by Oxford (1990), observations recorded on the audio cassette and class observation. The findings affirmed that there existed significant a relationship between the LLS uage and the success in learning a foreign language. It was also detected that while the proficient learners tend to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies, the learners with lower language abilities did not utilized language learning strategies.

Kaçar and Zengin (2009) investigated the impact of learners' strategy use on their achievement in a study conducted with college preparatory students. Experimental study design was employed in the study and a strategy training program was administered to the learners during the 6 weeks. According to the findings of the research, there was a meaningful relationship between the learners' achievement and the learning strategies used by them.

Sadi and Othman (2012) reported an action-research study on language learning strategies in tertiary education at a Colombian university. The purpose of the research was to improve learners' writing achievement through using language learning strategies, cognitive academic EFL approach and task-oriented EFL teaching. The participants were 33 pre-service language teachers in the university. Survey, a focus group, journals and performance tests were uses to collect data. The results of the research evidenced that the learners made progress in writing, speaking, grammar, vocabulary. Finally, explicit strategy training contributed to the learners' language learning strategies and performance.

Meyer (2015) implemented as study in order to reveal the usage LLS of German students. Thing-aloud protocols were used to gather data in the study. This method was chosen to have a better comprehension of the LLS usage on the various kinds of tasks. The results showed that German learners utilized metacognitive and cognitive strategies according to their needs within the learning process. Although there was a significant relationship between the LLS use and the EFL learning skill, strategy use was less closely linked to the level of language proficiency.

Tseng and Seidmann (2011) carried out a research to determine the LLS employed by advanced EFL students in Taiwan and to reveal how they employ LLSs in a variety of tasks and with different English subskills. 28 graduate EFL learners were the participants of the research. As data gathering tools, SILL (The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning), a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview were adopted. Obtained results indicated that the learners have adopted a variety of LLSs. They used metacognitive strategies more frequently than the cognitive and social strategies. It was stated that they planned and monitored the learning tasks efficiently thanks to their language strategy use. The findings also revealed that the learners developed specific strategies for different English sub skills and implemented these strategies to their tasks in the learning settings. In terms of differences with regard to gender, the research found no statistically significant difference on the LLS usage between the females and males.

The purpose of Chilkiewicz's study (2015) was to reveal which language learning strategies, in the theory by Oxford (1990) were the most popular among the primary school learners in Poland. A total of 100 learners from Primary School in Maszewo were the participants. The results indicated that grouping some words according to their meaning, association of eyesight and mechanical techniques of memorizing were the most common strategies for remembering and retrieving new information. According to the researcher, learners' choice stemmed from their visual dominant intelligences. Exercises in a natural way with a strict communicative aim, usage of different techniques which allow understanding text easier and faster, deduction thinking and underlining the most important information were the most used strategies related to the understanding and production. Finally, the results showed that the learners tried the ways of communicating even if they did not know the exact form or structure. They used synonyms or description and gestures or mimic strategies to fill the lack of the relevant knowledge.

Tabanlıoğlu (2003) aimed to identify the language learning strategies and learner styles and to find out whether there were differences in the learning style and strategy preferences of the learners in terms of their gender. The participants of the study were 60 intermediate level EFL learners from Bahcesehir University. Their ages ranged between 17 and 21. The researcher employed a questionnaire for

determining their learner style and one for the language learning strategies. Moreover, think aloud protocols were used to investigate the cognitive and metacognitive strategies students used. The findings with respect to the relationship between learning styles and strategies demonstrated that visual styles were closely related to the affective strategies; auditory styles had significant relationships with memory, cognitive, affective, and social strategies; there was a significant relationship between the individual learning style and compensation strategies. Finally, none of the learning styles had a significant relationship with metacognitive strategies.

#### **2.4 Cognitive Strategies in the O'Malley and Chamot's Classification**

Cognitive strategies are defined as the mental processes that the students employ while they are learning a new language. Thanks to these strategies, the learners choose the convenient information and eliminate the unnecessary and irrelevant one (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In addition, cognitive strategies help the learners to make connections among the structures, organization, language use and production (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Thus, the learners have to be introduced with the cognitive strategies and taught how to use these strategies effectively in a foreign language learning setting (Oxford, 1990).

Cognitive strategies are considered as a learning method by learners to comprehend the linguistic input and create meaning. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that cognitive strategies are the procedures that refer to the mental organizations of the activities such as practicing and analyzing. In addition, these strategies urge learners to grasp, comprehend and formulate new language using various technique and methods. In this respect, guessing meaning of a word from a reading passage, receiving input and using specific actions to fulfill a task are among the significant features of the cognitive strategies (Kasper, 1997). Oxford (1990) states that foreign language learners use cognitive strategies much more than the other strategies. As the ages of the students change, cognitive strategies become more and more important for the learners. Adults tend to use these strategies more than the younger learners (Meyer, 2015).

The cognitive view of learning affirms the notion that learners take the responsibility of their own learning process and control this process to achieve their goals in different ways. In this respect, learners should be equipped with different strategies

to make serious contributions to their learning process instead of being mechanical translators and passive receivers of the knowledge in the learning environments (Chamot, 1999).

In the current study, O'Malley and Chamot's cognitive strategy classification was chosen by the researcher as it was more comprehensible and detailed than other classifications. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) referred 10 main cognitive learning strategies that contribute to the language learning directly:

#### **2.4.1 Resourcing**

In this strategy, the learners explore the necessary information for the topic that they are going to write about by using different materials such as encyclopedias, dictionaries, reference books (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In this strategy, the learners have to benefit from the written sources to have a better understanding of an issue and produce meaningful sentence and passages. This strategy helps to the learners from beginning to the end of the writing process (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

#### **2.4.2 Organizing**

Organizing is the categorization and arrangement of vocabulary, phrases, structures, ideas or thoughts regarding their meanings or features (O'Malley & Chamot (1990). This strategy is used by learners to eliminate the unnecessary forms, words or information and to create an outline for the essay (Meyer, 2015). Further, the learners determine, evaluate and classify the obtained information in the resourcing stage to support their thesis statements (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

#### **2.4.3 Deduction**

Deduction strategy is conducting rules to comprehend and generate samples in a foreign language or compound principles based on language study (O'Malley & Chamot (1990). Deduction requires the investigation of all possibilities and elimination of the ones that does not contribute to the thesis statement of the essay (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Leading a thesis statement is an example for the use of deduction strategy in writing and it may be followed by the supporting sentences and examples.

#### **2.4.4 Imagery**

This strategy involves the introduction and use of mental or certain images to recognize and retain an issue clearly (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Oxford (1990) states that imagery is an appropriate strategy to internalise the vocabulary, forms, structures and ideas. This strategy is a literary device that helps the learners to produce meaningful and powerful expressions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). It creates a picture by using different techniques such as metaphors, similes or personification in the learners' minds to make the text more appealing and effective.

#### **2.4.5 Elaboration**

Elaboration is linking new ideas to the previous knowledge and creating meaningful relations between the sentences and paragraphs (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). According to Gunning (1996), elaboration is the process of making the written forms clearer for the readers. Additionally, elaboration also implies the fostering of the connection between the writing product and the reader's previous knowledge of the subject (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Keshavarz and Mobarra (2003) state that elaboration strategy provides the foreign language learners authentic and native-like materials and makes great contributions to the development of the language use. Using various words, phrases and connotations in an essay does not guarantee a qualified paper. The learners should create meaning between the paragraphs and provide a holistic description or argumentation of an issue (Leki, 2002).

#### **2.4.6 Inference**

Inferencing refers to the strategy that the learners use their background information to infer the connotation of different components, anticipate the results and cover the omitted information in a situation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). The learners adopt this strategy to resume the sentences or paragraphs by using the possible ideas and approaches.

#### **2.4.7 Note-Taking**

Note-taking strategy requires writing down the ideas, key words or sentences through the abbreviations, phrases and graphics before or during a writing activity. It helps learners to limit their thoughts and make a frame of the topic they are going to write about (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). This strategy contributes to the active

involvement of the learners to the process, organization and formation of the ideas within a text (Hassan & Akhan, 2010).

#### **2.4.8 Summarizing**

Summarizing is creating a verbal, written or mental summary of a text or passage after a reading or a listening activity. This strategy helps learners to analyze and assess the original passage better (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Besides, the process of summarizing enables students to grasp the original text better and give a feedback to both themselves and their teachers (Gulcat & Ozağaç, 2004).

To sum up, as Cohen (1990) asserts, learning strategy studies have been popular since the 1970s and it is obvious that these strategies facilitate language learning if the learners are aware of the various strategies and choose the appropriate ones during the language tasks in the learning settings. Although the different methods have been used for investigating the learning strategies, the results are controversial and there is a need for further research to gain a deeper insight into this issue (Zsigmond, 2015). In the current study, cognitive strategies from the O'Malley and Chamot's classification were elicited and implemented to a training program. This study aims to explore the contribution of the cognitive strategy training to the secondary school learners in EFL classrooms with a particular focus on writing skill. The current study's emphasis was on writing as limited research were conducted to reveal the possible effects of learning strategies on improving this skill. In Turkey, the Ministry of Education has published a framework for English language teaching programs and this frame involves teaching foreign language through the language learning strategies (MEB, 2013). Despite a mass of theoretical knowledge in the field, there are limited systematically structured studies based on the effectiveness of the strategies in the learning contexts.

In the current study, cognitive strategies from the O'Malley and Chamot's classification were implemented to a training program and each strategy was allocated to the lessons in accordance with the steps of the process approach to strengthen the learners' writing skill. The program was also designed according to the English curriculum and proficiency levels of the learners. Based on the writing objectives of the curriculum, the researcher helped learners introduce the premises of process approach, the ways of using cognitive strategies and production of the

argumentative essays within the program in the second term of 2017- 2018 school years.

## **2.5 Foreign Language Writing Strategies**

Writing strategies are the methods and techniques that the writers use to write more organized and qualified texts. Writing strategies refer to the actions and procedures employed by learners to control the management of goals in the writing task, to utilize the capacity of human beings' cognitive resources and to overcome the problems arise within the process (Manchon, 2001). Graham and Sandmel (2011) assert that they are the cognitive strategies which help learners organize and transfer the ideas into written forms and overcome the problems emerged in the process. According to Mohsenialsl (2014), writing strategies improve the learners' writing skills through contributing to their creative thinking and allow them to organize the ideas logically and review development of the paragraphs during the writing process. Learners use writing strategies for more cognitive tasks such as planning, drafting, reviewing and editing. These cognitive processes guide the learners to write more effectively when they are supported with various writing strategies (Santoro, 2011).

Writing strategies play a crucial role in the development of written expression skills. Good writing is not achieved by accident. Learners have to use an intentional and established way of thinking which is called strategy to write more influential texts (Mathews, 2010). The choice of the word "strategy" rather than tactic or method is due to the problem-oriented nature of the strategy (Oxford, 1990). The aim of using the word "strategy" is to increase the success of a work. In other words, strategy is used to do something either easier or faster. In this respect, strategies are regarded as an instrument to do a job with little effort in a good manner (Rogers, 2010). As the learners who use the strategies on their learning processes tend to be successful, strategy use is one of the factors to guess the achievement of the learners (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). Strategies also require consciousness and effort. It may not be possible for learners to raise awareness if these strategies are employed properly and embedded to the language tasks tightly (Grainger, 2008).

It has been reported that some researchers implied different sub-categorizes within the writing strategies. Rubin (1981) studied writing strategies under two main categories, pre-writing strategies, draft strategies and categorized clustering, listing,

drafting under these categories. In her study on five EFL tertiary education learners, Leki (1995) found that the participants used 10 categories of writing strategy. These categories are presented in the following chart:

<b>Writing Strategies</b>	<b>Sub-Strategies</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Clarifying	Talking to the teacher to understand assignment better	Undertaking to determine and imitate what it is that English teachers would do with the task assigned
Focussing	Rereading the assignment several times, writing out the essay exam question at the top of the essay	Concentrating on the writing task in both narrow and broad ways
Relying on past writing experiences	Revisiting a past experience to accomplish a task	Referring at one time or another to past writing experiences in the effort to accomplish the current task
Taking advantage of L1 culture	Using the strategy that is known from previous knowledge used by others	Using knowledge to compensate for other linguistic disadvantages
Using current experience or feedback to adjust strategies	Using the feedback from own work or other classmates received from the teacher	Using feedback or current experience from previous assignments
Looking for models	Looking for models for assignment	Finding models in books, articles as format or template to use
Using current or past ESL writing training	Using strategy taught in the previous writing class	Using strategies taught in the previous writing class
Accommodating teachers' demands	Meeting the teachers requirements	Meeting the teachers requirements
Resisting teachers demands	Resisting the assignment by ignoring the criteria given by the researcher	Resisting the assignment by ignoring the criteria given by the researcher
Managing competing demands	Managing course loads, managing work load	Juggling the various loads the student is responsible for in order to accomplish given tasks

Figure 5: Leki's Categories of Writing Strategy

Sasaki (2000) aimed to explore Japanese EFL learners' writing strategies and stated 10 writing strategies as follows: planning, retrieving, generating ideas, verbalizing, translating, rereading, evaluating and others such as resting, questioning. Figure 7 demonstrates the writing strategies, the sub-strategies and their definitions (Sasaki, 2000, pp. 289–291).



<b>Writing Strategies</b>	<b>Sub-Strategies</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Planning	Global planning Thematic planning Local planning Organising	Detailed planning of overall organization Less detailed planning of overall organization Planning what to write next Organising the generated ideas
Retrieving	Plan retrieving Information retrieving	Retrieving the already constructed plan Retrieving appropriate information from long term memory
Generating ideas	Naturally generated Description generated	Generating an idea without any stimulus Generating an idea related to the previous description
Verbalising	Verbalising a preposition Rhetorical refining Sense of readers	Verbalising the content the writer intends to write Refining the rhetorical aspects of an expression Adjusting expressions for readers
Translating	Translating Rereading	Translating the generated idea into L2 Rereading the already produced sentence
Evaluating	L2 proficiency evaluation Local text evaluation General text evaluation	Evaluating one's own L2 proficiency  Evaluating part of generated idea Evaluating the generated text in general
Others	Resting Questining Impossible to categorise	Resting Asikng the researcher a question Impossible to categorise

Figure 6: Sasaki's Categories of Writing Strategy

The writing strategies used by good and poor writers differ in many ways. Poor writers usually try to write the entire content or text before making a plan or drafting it (Shih, 2005). Good writers tend to use pre-writing strategies more than the less-skilled learners (Sasaki, 2000). In addition, the good writers assume writing not only as the process of transmission of the ideas but also the process of discovering and developing new ideas about the main idea (Petric & Czarl, 2003). According to Graham (2003), good writers are strategic writers and they use a variety of strategies in order to develop and support the writing process. These strategies generally include the stages of planning, writing, evaluation and reviewing. Students with poor writing skills do not write with an approach that includes these steps (Dujisik, 2008). In this respect, it is very important to teach these strategies to the students for a qualified written product and it may not seem possible for poor writers to generate organized compositions on their own without well-designed strategy training (Karim & Latif, 2018).

In general, writing strategies are defined as cognitive, metacognitive processing or processing sequences that work in a text to solve any problems faced by a person and they are generally discussed within language learning strategies. These strategies are the processes of solving the problems that emerge during writing a text may be at both the cognitive and the metacognitive level (Mohite, 2014). If the brain is imagined as a computer, cognitive strategies are like programs that do business (Rogers, 2010). At the time of writing, the information in the mind is transferred to the language center to be presented through the language and it is checked whether the written sentences are correct (Teichman & Poris, 1989). Transmission of thoughts into cognition is the cognitive process and control of this transfer process is the metacognitive process (Collins, 2000).

In conclusion, writing is a multi-faceted process and requires the involvement of a complex set of resources such as linguistic and content knowledge and strategic awareness. The learners who are aware of their own learning process and control it effectively become more successful (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). It is also emphasized that peer collaboration contributes to development of the learners' writing strategy use and their strategic awareness (Mohite, 2014). The studies revealed that taking the responsibility and activating their cognitive processes enable learners to develop better organizational skills (Sadiku, 2015).

### **2.5.1 Research on Writing Strategies**

Over the last few decades, a wealth of research on writing strategies has been conducted. Mutar and Nimehchisalem (2017) investigated the effects of the proficiency levels of the Iraqi high school learners on their writing strategy use and the difference between the males and females in terms of writing strategy usage. 132 learners from Karkh's district of Baghdad were the participants and they were employed a writing strategy use questionnaire adapted from Petrić and Czárí's (2003) as data collection tool. The results demonstrated that a small part of the learners used the writing strategies in their writing tasks. Besides, it was noted that the high and low proficient learners' frequency of the writing strategy use was almost similar. The findings of the research indicated that females inclined to employ writing strategies more than the male students.

Abdul-Rahman (2011) aimed to explore the differences and similarities between the native and non-native learners' writing strategy use. The study also aimed to find the differences between these groups in terms of their nationalities, age, gender, proficiency and length of living in the UK. The native learners were born and educated in Britain and the non-native ones Chinese and Libyan learners who live in at the same country. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches. A structured questionnaire and an interview were used to 302 learners in higher education for collecting information. Furthermore, twelve British, Chinese and Libyan learners who were chosen randomly answered the questions in semi-structured interviews. The results indicated that the native and non-native learners tended to utilize similar writing strategies despite some differences. Additionally, the results showed that the proficiency, cultural and individual differences were more important than gender and nationality when determining the writing strategy use.

The purpose of Gupta's study (2006) was to find out the effects of attitude and motivations of undergraduate EFL learners on their writing strategy use. As data collection use, attitude and motivation, writing ability, writing strategy use questionnaire, proficiency test and interviews were administered. According the results of the study, the learners with strong motivation had also high level of enjoyment and positive attitudes towards writing. Moreover, it was noted that the highly motivated learners who get early support and feedback, practiced writing frequently and made adequate effort tended to employ writing strategies more than their counterparts.

In their study, Soltani and Kheirzadeh (2017) aimed to examine the relationship between the writing strategies and attitudes of the Iranian EFL learners towards reading-to-write and write-only tasks. The study also aimed to explore the different choices of writing strategy use in writing- only groups and reading- to- write. Moreover, the study investigated the attitudes and beliefs of the EFL learners about reading-to-write. The participants of the study were the 34 EFL students from a high school of Isfahan, Iran. In the study, writing an essay, interviews and an academic writing strategy questionnaire were used to collect data. The results of the MONOVA analysis indicated that Iranian EFL learners did not show difference in reading-to-write and write-only groups in terms of writing strategy use. Further, the

findings of the t-tests asserted that the learners in reading-to-write group were more successful than their counterparts. Finally, the attitudes of the learners in reading-to-write group were positive as they reported that reading contributed to their writing positively.

Yapıcı (2009) aimed to explore the preferences of English teaching students' writing strategies. A self-reporting was used as a data collection tool and retrospective semi-structured interviews were conducted. As a self-reporting tool, the writing strategies survey was applied to 35 second grade students. In addition, interviews were carried out with 15 students through a semi-structured interview form. The findings of the research showed that second grade learners in English language teaching use writing strategies partially when they are writing essays. It was also noticed that the participants used the writing strategies most at the time of writing and at the reviewing stage.

Byrer (1986) investigated the effects of teaching pre-writing strategies on the sentences written by 12 first grade students who had learning disabilities. As a result of the research, the sentence length of the learners increased by 50%. Only 17% of the students could write the sentences at grade 12 and 42% wrote clauses that were lower level of grade 12. Only 1 of the students could write sentences and phrases at university level. This was because of the reason that the necessary support wasn't provided with the learners. According to results of the study, the learners' internal motivation was crucial for the effectiveness of the strategy training.

Hou (2011) investigated the writing strategies of the third grade learners in China through a quantitative method to collect information. The purpose of the study was to identify the differences between the proficient and less proficient students' writing strategy choices. The researcher found that while nearly all of the less proficient learners tended to pay more attention to the structures and words in their compositions and they were unaware of using resourcing and communication strategies; it was noted that the more proficient learners employed different cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

Hu and Chen (2007) conducted a research on writing strategies of the senior high school of EFL learners in China. The findings revealed that students used much more

strategies in while-writing strategies when compared to the pre-writing and revising stages and there was a difference between the proficient and less proficient learners in terms of strategy use. Additionally, he argued that EFL learners were affected by attitude, lack of confidence and teaching methodology.

In his study investigating the reviewing and editing strategies of the learners, Sommers (1980) found that less-proficient students only corrected and deleted the words or replaced them with their synonyms but the successful ones paid more attention to the weaknesses of connection between the main idea and the supporting ideas.

Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) surveyed the effects of the teaching of writing strategies on descriptive writing skills in his work with African-American university students with learning disabilities. The researcher taught writing strategies to the experimental group and the product-based writing strategies to the control group. Additionally, self-efficacy levels of the learners in both groups were measured. Written compositions were evaluated by using graded scoring criteria. According to the results, the experimental group made a progress on the development of the supporting sentences more than the control group, but no significant difference was reported between the both groups in terms of self-efficacy.

Sadi and Otman (2012) tried to find out the writing strategies that the Iranian EFL learners employed. The study also investigated whether there was a difference between the proficient and poor writers of English in terms of the writing strategy use. In the study, essay, stimulated recalls, interviews and think aloud protocols were employed on three proficient and three less proficient EFL writers through writing an argumentative task. The results of the study indicated that good and poor writers tended to use different writing strategies. While the good writers employed planning, drafting and revising, the poor ones used rereading, L1 use, repetition and rehearsing.

## **2.6 Anxiety**

Anxiety is one of the factors that the learners have to struggle with in the learning settings. Anxiety is an undesirable emotional state or a situation that is known by intuitive feeling of tension, apprehension, worry and by the stimulating or arousal of autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, 1983). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) define anxiety as an emotional state in which people feel unease, instability and tension by the reason of a conventional danger. The concept of anxiety was firstly used in psychology in the first half of the 20th century and the first studies were carried out at the end of the 1940s (Cheng, 2002). In EFL literature, anxiety has been defined by several scholars. In psychology, Freud was the first scholar who used the word anxiety and defined it as a concept. He studied the causes of anxiety and led other psychologists through his work on anxiety (Horwitz, 2001). According to Spielberger (1983), anxiety is an unpleasant feeling that is experienced at any time and place. It has several types and theoretical description. As Zheng (2008) posits it is one of the most controversial psychological issues and has lots of in common with different fields. In general, the term “anxiety” has been categorized into three groups which are mentioned as a trait, state and situation-specific anxiety (McIntyre & Gardner, 1991). If a person has a tendency to be anxious in different situations and differs from other people with this feature, this is called as trait anxiety. This type of anxiety is directly related to the personality of a person (Spielberger, 1983). State anxiety is nervousness or tension at a particular moment in response to some outside stimulus (Smith, 1984). State anxiety differs from the trait anxiety in terms of individuality that occurs within a specific condition. In this respect, it is argued that social factors play an important role in state anxiety compared with trait anxiety (Teichman & Poris, 1989). The third type is situation-specific anxiety. It is a personal predisposition or tendency to become anxious in one type of situation, that is, a trait of anxiety applied to a particular context (Reeves, 1997). In this type of anxiety, it is accepted that different conditions have different effects on arousing anxiety (Wu, 2010).

One of the main factors that have a great effect on the process of EFL teaching is anxiety for the target language. As a result of negative attitudes towards target language, anxiety arises and this affects foreign language learning negatively (Zheng, 2008). Foreign language anxiety is closely related to the various factors that affects language learning such as negative perceptions, beliefs and behaviors of the

individual (Horwitz, 2001). These factors are relevant to the individuals and are associated with situations such as negative feelings towards learning a language, previous experiences with the target language or dislike of the learning environment (Horwitz, 2001). Although there are various reasons for foreign language anxiety, negative effect of the poor performances of students in the classroom is a major one (Cheng, 2002).

Foreign language anxiety or “language anxiety” is the kind of anxiety that the learners experience during the language learning process. Horwitz (1986) avers that language anxiety is one of the most possible feelings that may occur in a L2 learning environment. MacIntyre & Gardner (1991) assume that in the learning a foreign language environment, there is a strong possibility for the appearance of negative feelings and worry. This kind of emotion is thought in the category of situation-specific anxiety and related to the L2 learning contexts. Riazi (1997) proposes that the difficulties that the learners have in the process of learning a new language stem from the affective factors. Krashen (1981) denotes these factors as “the affective filter” in language acquisition. According to him, if affective factors are active in a learning environment, cognition of the learners is blocked and learning is restricted because of the filter on input. Although different types of scales are used to evaluate the different types of anxieties, some other variables interfere with the learning and acquisition and the role of anxiety on foreign language learning changes (Horwitz, 2001). For instance, a number of studies indicate that there exists a negative correlation between the EFL learning and anxiety (Cheng, 2002; Cornwell & McKay, 1999; Daly, 1978; Erkan, & Saban, 2011). A vast amount of research has supported the idea that anxiety is determining factor of the language learning achievement. Positive correlation was observed between anxiety and achievement in numerous studies (Gardner 1985; Hettich, 1994; Maturanec, 2015; Yvonne & Gurnam, 2013). Thus the findings of these studies do not confirm the effect of anxiety on the learning foreign language achievement.

### **2.6.1 Writing Anxiety**

According to the major claim made by the scholars that writing anxiety is one of the various types of the anxiety. It is a reaction developed against writing by the writer and arises in the form of sadness, anger and fear for the given writing task or writing activity in the class (Teichman & Poris, 1989). Writing anxiety is related to the

willingness of learners to write or to tend to avoid writing (Faigley et al., 1981). It has been found that this reaction against writing has negative effects on the quality of writing, writing success and willingness to write (Hettich, 1994, Matthews, 2010). Daly (1978) asserts that students who are anxious about writing do not want to participate in the writing tasks or they even perceive writing as a punishment.

Writing anxiety is described as a situation and learner characteristic regarding the general tendency or avoidance towards writing. Daly and Miller (1975) were one of the first scholars who investigated the writing anxiety and its potential effects on different learner levels and designed a scale (Writing Apprehension Test) which is the most used instrument by the researchers in the literature to measure the level of writing anxiety of the students.

Writing anxiety is defined as the negative feeling that one feels during a writing action. The learners who experience this feeling may feel uncomfortable or terrible and consider writing as a punishment (Teichman & Poris, 1989). Writing anxiety interrupts the writing activity at any moment (McLeod, 1987). Writing anxiety is more likely to occur in an educational setting especially during the assessment of the teacher. Not only the evaluation of the teacher causes anxiety but also different factors in the class lead to the writing anxiety. According to Rankin-Brown (2006), students avoid writing because of three reasons: the feeling of being unsuccessful, teacher's behaviors and friends' judgment.

Writing anxiety is the tendency of individuals to avoid writing or lack of willingness to writing (Faigley et al., 1981). In the studies related to writing anxiety, it has been identified that there are negative effects of this reaction on the learning achievement and this feeling causes avoidance towards writing or unwillingness to write (Hettich, 1994, Zheng, 2008).

Reeves (1997) summarized the characteristics of the students who have high level of writing anxiety. These characteristics are as follows:

1. They tend to choose a profession that requires little or no writing.
2. They tend to avoid the courses that need writing every day.
3. They write little outside the classroom.
4. They are not good examples of writing at home, at school and in social life.



5. They get low marks for oral competence, reading comprehension and writing exams.
6. Their motivation is too low.

Writing anxiety is a factor that affects writing success. Smith (1984) states that the learners who suffer from a moderate level of writing apprehension write better texts than the students with high level of writing apprehension. The reason of this situation is that as the learners are busy with questions such as "How should I write?", "How can I start?", "What should I write?", they have problems focusing on the topic and organizing their ideas. Additionally, the students also feel writing anxiety if they think that the topic they are going to write about is complex and difficult (Reeves, 1997).

Writing anxiety is defined as a general avoidance of tasks or situations that may require writing. The learners are afraid of being evaluated with their final written product and have difficulty in focusing on the writing task. As Tighe (1987) aptly put it, anxiety is more common in writing than other skills. Writing anxiety affects the learners in all stages of writing and it may cause the individual to avoid writing (Wu, 2010). If the learners hesitate to write, it becomes challenging to overcome this feeling and improve their writing (Horwit & Cope, 1986). According to Daly (1978), the positive attitude towards writing depends on the successful development of writing skills and permanence in writing. The lack of stability in writing and the difficulties associated with the development of writing skills in the teaching process may lead to the development of negative attitudes toward writing (Hettich, 1994). The negative attitude towards writing in the individual affects the writing achievement over time and creates writing anxiety in the individual (Reeves, 1997). Daly and Miller (1975) posit that individuals' failure to write results in a high level of writing anxiety over time. Shawish and Atea (2010) aver that the negative feelings which the students experience in a writing process have been defined by various terms such as apprehension, writer block or writing anxiety.

Writing anxiety that emerges during L2 writing is considered as the most common type and it has been investigated by many researchers. There exists a considerable amount of research that investigate writing and other skills of language over a few decades. Leki (2002) proposes that since the learners spend more time to think about

the correct words, structure and organization, they assume that writing is more anxiety provoking skill than the others. Although there are limited studies on writing anxiety in the field of related literature, the researchers all agree that writing anxiety is an important variable in foreign language learning settings (Zheng, 2008).

## **2.5 Research on Writing Anxiety**

Writing anxiety causes the avoidance for the learners to writing and affects the learners' active participation of them in writing activities. More recent studies have focused on the possible relations between the writing anxiety and different variables in language learning contexts (Wu, 2010).

Daly (1978) carried out a study to explore the effects of writing anxiety on the writing performance with ESL learners in USA. In the study, writing assignments and a questionnaire were used to collect data. The results showed that the learners who had high level of writing anxiety during writing tended to write poor compositions in terms of organization, length and vocabulary. Furthermore, the researcher concluded that there was a relationship between the type of writing task and writing anxiety. Students who wrote argumentative essays had less writing anxiety levels than the ones wrote narrative compositions as the learners tended to avoid giving information about their feelings and lives.

Fergusson (2011) explored the relationship between the writing anxiety and writing achievements of secondary school learners through an experimental study. Before the process-based writing instruction which lasted 20 weeks, Daly and Miller's Writing Apprehension Questionnaire (1975) was administered to the learners as pre and posttests. Moreover, the learners were assigned narrative, expository and descriptive types of writing tasks in order to determine the writing achievement. After the analyses of data, it was concluded that writing strategy training had a great effect on reducing the writing anxiety level of the learners and helped developing the proficiencies of the learners on all types of writing in experimental group.

DeDeyn (2011) investigated the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance with 33 international undergraduate students of advanced English proficiency enrolled in an introductory university writing course. In the study, Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was administrated to the

learners to reveal their writing anxiety and essays tasks were employed to the students to evaluate the writing performance of the learners. According to the results, there was no significant relationship between the writing anxiety and writing performance. Students who had high level of writing anxiety improved their performance on writing tasks. Thus, these conflicting results neither supported, nor contradicted the hypothesis that writing anxiety and writing performance were inversely related.

Tighe (1987) found that students with high writing anxiety had lower level of self-confidence and these learners were poor writers. In addition, it was found that writing anxiety restricted the development of the writing skills and the learners with high level of writing anxiety became unsuccessful in the foreign language classroom. It was also stated that high level of writing anxiety affect the students' writing negatively and students with low level writing anxiety perform better in writing and they write more qualified compositions.

### **2.7 Research on Writing Strategies, Writing Anxiety and Writing Achievement**

Asmari (2013) aimed to address the possible effects of the writing strategies on reducing the writing anxiety and investigate the role of writing strategies on the writing achievement of the learners. The study was also designed to reveal the relations among the writing strategies, writing anxiety and writing achievement. The study was conducted on 198 (68 males and 130 females) EFL university learners. As data collection tool, Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SWAI) and Writing Strategies Inventory were used. In addition, interviews were conducted to understand the writing strategy use of the learners. To explore the information gathered from these tools, the researcher used t-tests, correlation and ANOVA to reveal the relationships between the usage of writing strategies, writing anxiety and writing achievement. According to the findings of the research, the writing anxiety levels of the Saudi undergraduate learners were strongly related to their writing achievement. Furthermore, the learners with low writing anxiety used more various writing strategies than the ones who had high anxiety levels. As a final report, it was found that there was a significant negative correlation between the writing achievement and writing anxiety.

Ashworth (1992) explored the effects of writing strategies on students' writing achievement and critical thinking skills in the study with nursing learners. Pre-test, post-test and experiment-control group pattern was used in the study. The learners in the experimental group were trained writing strategies and the learners in the control group were instructed with the product-oriented approach. In order to evaluate the achievement of the learners, the researcher developed language performance tests and Cornell Critical Thinking Test Level Z was used to control critical thinking skills. As a result of the research, writing achievement of the learners in experimental group was found to be statistically higher than the learners' achievement in the control group. In terms of critical thinking, the experimental group did not score a higher score in the post-test than the control group and the difference was not statistically significant.

Khosravi, Ghoorchaei and Mofrad (2017) studied the effects of writing strategies on the self-efficacy beliefs of the learners and the relationship between the use of writing strategies and writing skills of the learners. A self-efficacy belief questionnaire, writing strategies questionnaire and an IELTS writing task were employed to the 120 EFL learners in Iran Language Institute in Gorgan, Iran. The results pointed out that the relationship between the writing strategy use and the self-efficacy of the students was positive and significant. Additionally, the result also revealed that there was a significant relationship between the self-efficacy of the learners and their writing abilities. Thus, it is assumed that if the learners' self-efficacy increases, it will also affect the writing abilities of the learners and the writing abilities of them improve accordingly. Likewise, the development of the writing skills contributed to the increase of the self-efficacy beliefs of the Iranian EFL students in the study.

The aim of Topuzkanamış's study (2014) was to identify the effect of writing strategy training on the writing achievement and writing apprehension of the higher education learners. The study employed a quasi-experimental research design. The researcher used semi-structured interviews in the qualitative dimension of the study. As a quantitative method, writing apprehension scale and written expression evaluation scale were used as data collection tools. There were 26 in experimental and 24 learners in the control group. The results indicated that while the writing

strategy training fostered the writing achievement of the learners, it contributed to the decrease of the learners' writing apprehension.

Na and Yoon (2015) investigated the relationship between the writing strategy use, writing quality and the learners' use of the time on L2 writing. A total of 69 Korean undergraduate learners composed the participants of the study. Retrospective interviews, writing strategy questionnaire and writing assignments were employed for collecting data. Obtained data was measured according to the in-class and out-of-class conditions of the learners. The findings indicated that proficient and less-proficient learners differed in terms of writing strategy use depending on their time allotments. For instance, it was found that even less-proficient learners utilized metacognitive strategies more often in the untimed (out-of-the class) than in the timed (in-class) conditions. This situation revealed the role of contextual factors on the activation of the writing strategies. Besides, it was also noted that time was an important factor in predicting the writing quality.

Dumlija (2018) aimed to explore the relationship between the writing strategy use, writing anxiety and writing achievement in his master thesis. A total of 300 first, second and third grade 300 EFL learners were the participants and they were employed two questionnaires; Writing Strategy Inventory (WSI) and Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI). The findings indicated that the learners had moderate writing anxiety and used the writing strategies moderately. Moreover, as in previous studies, it was found that there was a negative correlation between writing achievement and writing anxiety. However, unlike other studies, the results indicated that a positive correlation existed between the writing strategy usage and writing anxiety. Conversely, a negative correlation was observed between the writing achievement and writing strategies.

## **2.8 Strategy Training**

Strategies are chosen by the learner intentionally and help students learn easier and faster. As the learners are forced to control a number of variables simultaneously, writing is considered as a complex cognitive activity and one of the problematic language skills (Karim & Latif, 2018). Thus, strategy use is crucial for mastering in writing skills (Yang, 1999). Many strategies such as goal setting, information gathering, free writing, brainstorming, exploring different aspects of the subject,

using previous knowledge, self-evaluation, discussion are used to write more qualified texts before and during the writing process (Leki, 2002; Shih, 2005; Soltani & Kheirzadeh, 2017). Implementing these learning strategies requires a number of principles by the language teachers.

As strategy-based instruction is a progressive, recursive and longstanding process, outline of a training program is not an easy task. Language teachers have to keep in their mind both the issues related to the language and the appropriate use of the strategies to help learners reach an acceptable language competence (Byrer, 1986). A wide range of studies have been carried out by scholars to clarify the practice of the strategy training and to provide clear implementation with the language teachers (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). The strategy training program in the current study was based on the recommendations put forward by Oxford (1990), Chamot and O'Malley (1990) and summarized in the Figure 8.

SOURCE	STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3	STAGE 4	STAGE 5
(O'Malley and Chamot, 1990)	Preperation	Presentation	Practice	Evaluation	Expansion
(Oxford, 1990)	Planning	Preperation	Conduction	Evaluation	Revision of the training
Cohen- SBI for Learners of a Second Language (1998)	Describing, modelling and giving examples of strategies	Eliciting additional examples from students	Leading discussions about strategies	Encouraging students to experiment strategies	Integrating strategies into every day class materials
McDough (2005)	Preview	Present	Model	Develop	

Figure 7: Strategy Training Program by the Researchers

O'Malley and Chamot (1990, pp. 152-153) suggest four approaches to strategy training: separate, integrated, direct and embedded instruction. Certain strategies may be employed separately within these approaches or an eclectic program, involving various strategies depending on the needs of the learners or educational settings may be adopted by the language teachers.

### **2.8.1 Separate versus Integrated Instruction**

The context of the strategy instruction changes depending on the content of the lessons. While the focus is solely on the teaching of the strategies in separate strategy instruction, integrated strategy training includes the strategy training connected to the other variables such as material and the methods for normal classroom instruction (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). According to Jones (1998), as the learners' concentration is on the learning the strategies, the students learn easier and more efficiently. O'Malley and Chamot (1987) posit that if the learners engage with the learning strategies within the other language tasks in the learning setting, they internalize the nature of the strategy and utilize them in the following lessons. In other words, the contextualization of the strategies through the different learning materials and methods help learners understand the ways of using the learning strategies better.

### **2.8.2 Direct versus Embedded Instruction**

In direct strategy instruction, the language teachers present the aim, definition and the use of the strategies directly. The learners are assumed to guess and grasp the reasons behind implementing learning strategies through the materials arranged to discover the use of the strategies in embedded instruction (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Palinscar and Brown (1986) suggest that the learners develop a meta-cognitive awareness if they taught the strategies explicitly. As the learners control their learning and need less explanation by the teachers, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) favor embedded strategy instruction for its practicality in the learning settings.

Strategy training requires some specific arrangements have to be done before the instruction. Oxford (1990, p. 204) propose a model for the training of LLSs:

- 1- Identify the learners' needs and allocated time.
- 2- Choose strategies well.
- 3- Plan the integration of strategy instruction.
- 4- Think motivational problems.
- 5- Prepare activities and materials.
- 6- Carry out a "completely informed training."
- 7- Assess the strategy instruction.

8- Review the strategy instruction.

In the first step, it is important to be aware of the learners' features such as their educational background, age, proficiency and aptitude. Besides, the time in which the learning strategies are instructed in accordance with the conditions of the learning context and learners' need should be determined (Oxford, 1990).

Considering the needs of the learners, the specific learning strategies are identified and adopted in the second step. Various strategies are introduced to the learners and they employ one or more strategies in an integrated way (Oxford, 1990).

The third step is about the establishment of the learning strategy instruction. As Oxford (1990) suggests, the training program should be designed to help learners practice the strategies within the learning environment through the authentic materials. This integration contributes to the transfer of the learning strategies to other learning tasks in the future.

Increasing of the motivation is the base in the fourth step. The language teacher may encourage learners through explaining benefits of the strategies in their language learning process or giving grades for their involvements in the activities. Furthermore, learning materials have to be chosen taking the learners' individual differences into consideration by the teachers (Oxford, 1990).

In the fifth step, the activities and related materials are prepared to be used in the classroom. The material and activities have to be consistent with the requirements of the chosen learning strategies (Oxford, 1990).

The type of the instruction should be determined by the practitioners in the sixth step. The language teachers decide to adopt embedded or direct strategy instruction considering the learners' features and learning setting's potentials (Oxford, 1990).

In the seventh step, the results of the strategy training in terms of its contribution to the learners' development are evaluated by the language teacher and learners. The views of the learners play a crucial role on the revision and reformulation of the strategy instruction process (Oxford, 1990).

In the last step, considering the assessment of the strategy instruction process by the learners, the language teacher realizes the efficacy of the strategy instruction and



revises the steps, materials and methods to raise the effectiveness of the learning process (Oxford, 1990).

Wenden (1991) listed the principles of strategy training as follows:

1. Strategy training should be informed to the learners: it is necessary for learners to learn how to use a strategy and adopt this knowledge to the new situations. When the learners learn these strategies, they will take the responsibility of their own learning process. Thus they should be able to comprehend and transfer the strategy on their own.
2. Strategy training should include self-regulation: Learner should decide which strategy to use after learning the strategies. As they are aware of their learning styles, they should make their own plans and determine their own strategies. They should be able to cope with the problems they experience during the learning process.
3. Strategy training should be employed within a context: It should be adapted to the field in which strategy training is being done. The different expression, terms or jargons have to be employed efficiently to increase usefulness of the strategy training.
4. Strategy training should be interactive: In strategy training the learners should be given opportunities to observe how the strategies are used. Observation of the learner may facilitate the learning. Teachers should also observe the learner and give feedback to them about what the learners have done.
5. Effective strategy instruction should be designed on the strategy knowledge of the learners: Teachers should be aware of which strategies the learners use. It would be possible for them to skip the training of the strategies the learners have already known. Otherwise, this situation may cause the displeasure of the learners.

### **2.8.3 Research on Strategy Training**

Mohseniasl (2014) examined the effects of writing strategy instruction on the writing achievement and writing anxiety of the learners. In the study, there were two experimental groups that were composed of 14 EFL learners and a control group consisting of 14 learners. The three groups were administered WAT (Writing

Anxiety Test and the learners were asked to write an expository essay before and after the writing strategy training. According to the results of the research, the strategy training greatly improved the writing performances of the learners in both experimental groups. Gamelin (1996) investigated the effects of cognitive strategy instruction on the writing quality of the learners. Participants of the study were 50 seven grade learners. 25 of the learners took part in the experimental group and they were taught five key elements of cognitive strategy training. Meanwhile, the learners in the control group carried on the writing activities based on the product-oriented approach. Obtained results indicated that the learners in experimental group showed a significant improvement on the quality of their written texts. However, the learners in control group had problems on providing the clarity for the essays and needed more practice for writing.

Pitnoee, Modaberi and Ardestani (2017) carried out a research to explore how the cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies contributed to Iranian intermediate learners' writing skills. In the study, there were a control and two experimental groups that were composed of the randomly assigned 70 learners. While one of the experimental groups was instructed by cognitive writing strategies, the other one was taught through the metacognitive strategies. The control group kept on learning through the product-based writing training. The findings showed that the strategy instruction was in favor of the learners in both experimental groups. The findings also supported that although there was found a significant difference on the writing achievements of the learners in both groups, the students in the metacognitive group outperformed the cognitive one in the quality of the writing.

Wischgoll (2016) designed a study to test whether cognitive strategy training improved the text quality of the learners and the learners in higher education benefited from the feedback differently. A total of 212 undergraduate and postgraduate learners were the participants of the study. After the treatment, the written texts of the learners were evaluated. The results of the research revealed that cognitive strategy training contributed to the academic writing skills of the learners. No significant relationship was found between the feedbacks provided by the researcher the text quality of the learners.

Pasand and Haghi (2013) aimed to explore the effects of cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction on the writing achievements of the 75 Iranian elementary learners. There were two experimental and one control group. While one of the experimental groups was trained cognitive strategies, the learners in the other experimental group practiced metacognitive strategies on their strategy training program that lasted ten weeks. The findings of the research proved that the learners in both experimental groups showed a significant progress on their writing skills. However, it was noted that the metacognitive group was superior to the cognitive one in terms writing achievement.

Byrer (1986) searched the effects of strategy instruction on the texts written by 12 university first grade students. The results of the research revealed that the strategy training contributed to the sentence length at 50%. Only 17% of students could write sentences that were consistent with the approximate level of the 12 grade learners. Just one of the learners could write qualified texts in accordance with university level learners. The reason for this situation could be that the necessary support was not provided to the learners. Another result of the study was that if the students did not have intrinsic motivation, the strategy training did not improve the learners' performance too much.

All in all, there have been different studies investigating the relationship among language learning strategies, writing achievement, writing anxiety and attitudes towards EFL writing. In the current study, it is expected that the use of O'Malley and Chamot's cognitive strategies within a training program gives the researcher valuable information about the effects of these strategies on EFL learners' writing achievement level and writing anxiety. As it is stated above, while strategy training contributes to EFL students' learning process from different perspectives in some studies, there are also research in which strategy training does not create any affect on learners. Thus, the current study is important for providing a sample in the related literature in Turkish EFL setting.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **III. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Overall Design**

For almost a century, many scholars have focused on both qualitative and quantitative research models. The current study is a mixed research design including both quantitative and qualitative models. According to Dörnyei (2007), quantitative research is a systematic method and involves accurate estimation and produces credible data that is generalized to different conditions. However, it is not possible to get a deep insight of learners' internal aspects. On the other hand, Johnsen and Christensen (2004) state that qualitative method provides researchers intensive study through small groups and helps them get a detailed description of learners' perspectives. Therefore, these two methods have both strengths and weaknesses which cause researchers to seek a new paradigm called mixed research. In the current study, quantitative and qualitative research methods have been adopted together. This method aims to clarify the issues in the research questions using both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2003).

The experimental model is a research model which is under the control of the researcher and the data are observed to discover cause and affect relationships between the variables (Büyüköztürk, 2007). It is not possible to control all variables in quasi-experimental design which is the most commonly used empirical test especially in the field of education. In this model, groups are formed as an experiment and a control group by neutral assignment (Balcı, 2001). As the quasi-experimental design was used in the study, the universe and sample were not selected; instead, the study groups were formed in accordance with the equality of groups. In the current study, the quasi-experimental design was employed to determine the effects of teaching cognitive strategies on the writing achievement and

writing anxiety through 9 weeks of planned instruction to the 8th grade EFL students.

The present study was conducted in 2017-2018 Education Year at a secondary state school in Sivas, Turkey. The research was administered to the 8<sup>th</sup> grade students who had been learning English for seven years. As there were two eighth grade classes in the school, an English Writing Comprehension Test developed by Petekçioğlu (2011) was distributed to the 63 students in the 8A and 8B classes in order to determine the experimental and control groups. In the beginning of the first week of the second term, the researcher graded the papers of the learners in two classrooms. At the end of the evaluation process, it was revealed that the learners' performances from the writing comprehension test in both classrooms were similar (see Table 1). While the learners in the 8A classroom were assigned to be experimental group, the learners in 8B were decided to be control group. There were 14 males and 17 females in the experimental group and 13 males and 19 females ranging from age 13-14 in the control group.

In the current study, the cognitive strategies that were elicited from the classification of O'Malley and Chamot's Classification (1990) were implemented to nine weeks of training program by the researcher. These strategies include resourcing, organizing, deduction, imagery, elaboration, inference, note-taking and summarizing.

The main goal of the current research is to investigate the effects of the cognitive strategy training on the writing anxiety and writing achievement of Turkish EFL learners. The study was a quasi-experimental research and there were two groups consisting of 31 students in experimental group and 32 students in the control group. Before the strategy instruction procedure, a lesson plan for 9 weeks was planned by the researcher and the learners were introduced to the process writing, cognitive strategies and the learners in experimental group practiced these strategies through various activities and materials during 9 weeks. While the learners in the experimental group were exposed to a cognitive strategy instruction, the learners in the control group kept on doing the activities on their course books and were provided with product-based instruction in which they were expected to imitate a model text focusing on the issues such as grammar, use and spelling in the learning setting. Before the cognitive strategy instruction, Writing Anxiety Test (Daly and

Miller, 1975) adapted to Turkish by Zorbaz and Özbay (2011) was employed to measure the writing anxiety levels of the learners in both groups (see Appendix 2). They were also assigned to an argumentative essay task to determine the writing achievement of the participants in both groups before and after the strategy training. The topics of the essays were chosen in line with the units on their English course books (see Appendix 3). Two English teachers from a another secondary school graded the learners' compositions to establish the reliability of scoring in agreement with the Essay Grading Criteria (see Appendix 5) which was adapted from Akpınar (2007). After the implementation of the cognitive strategy training by the researcher, another argumentative essay task was handed out to the learners in both groups (see Appendix 4). The essays of the learners were also evaluated by the same two raters in accordance with the guideline of the essay grading criteria. Additionally, WAT was delivered to the learners in both groups to reveal the effects of instruction on their writing anxiety. The pre and post-test results of the data collection instruments helped the researcher to compare the results of the experimental and control groups before and after the instruction. All the data gathered through the anxiety tests and essay tasks were analyzed by SPSS 25.

### **3.2 Research Questions**

The current paper tries to identify and investigate whether a significant difference exists between Turkish EFL learners' writing achievement and their writing anxiety before and after the cognitive strategy training. It also aims at revealing the difference between the males and females in terms of their writing achievement and writing anxiety. Having these purposes in mind, the following research questions were formulated by the researcher:

1. What is the students' available writing anxiety level both in control and experimental group?
2. Does the cognitive strategy training affect the writing achievements of the students in experimental group?
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the writing anxiety and cognitive strategy training?

4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the product-based writing instruction and writing anxiety of the learners?
5. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the writing achievement and product-based writing instruction?
6. Is there a significant relationship between the writing anxiety and gender of the learners in both control and experimental groups?
7. Is there a significant relationship between the writing achievement and gender of the learners in both control and experimental groups?
8. Is there a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of the post-test scores of writing anxiety?
9. Is there a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of the post-test scores of writing achievement?

### **3.3 Participants**

In order to investigate the research questions, 63 EFL learners in two classrooms attending a secondary state school in Sivas in 2017-2018 Education Year were chosen as the participants of the study. The participants of the study consisted of both males and females whose age range was from 13-14. As in all English courses in Turkey, the curriculum included compulsory EFL courses for the secondary school learners from second to eighth grades. They were expected to gain proficiency in describing a visual, filling a form, preparing an outline, reporting a chart, writing a paragraph, e-mail or journey entry and writing a topic sentence/thesis statement (English Language Curriculum, 2018). While there were 14 males and 17 females in the experimental group, there were 13 males and 19 females in the control group.

The study was conducted on the second term 2017-2018 Education Year in a secondary school in Sivas. The learners study English as a compulsory course lessons for four hours a week and they were provided extra two hours for the high schools entrance exams. Thus, there was no time limitation for both the researcher and learners to take part in this study.

### **3.4 Data Collection Instruments**

The Turkish adapted version of Writing Anxiety Test (Daly & Miller, 1975) by Zorbaz & Özbay (2011) was used to measure the writing anxiety of the learners before and after the cognitive strategy instruction. Furthermore, argumentative essay tasks designed by the researcher were employed to determine the writing achievement of the learners in the present study.

#### **3.4.1 Essay Tasks**

Students in both groups were assigned to write an argumentative writing before and after the cognitive strategy based instruction. The learners were administered to the similar tasks with the topics in their course books in order not to be influenced by other variables such as content, essay type or background knowledge. In addition, familiar topics were tried to be chosen in order not to affect the achievement of the learners. With the aim of determining the level of writing performance of the learners before and after the intervention, the students in both groups wrote argumentative essays. 60 minutes of time limit was set and the learners chose one of the topics that the researcher listed before the exam. For the first essays, the experimental and control group wrote on the following issues:

- 1) Is technology useful or not?
- 2) What should we do to be successful in our schools?
- 3) Which one is better, living in a village or city?

For the post-test, the learners wrote about the following topics:

- 1) What are the advantages and disadvantages of smart phones?
- 2) Being a child or an adult, which one do you prefer?
- 3) Does money bring happiness?

Essay Grading Criteria which was adapted from a similar study conducted by Akpınar (2007) was used to assess the quality of the learners' argumentative essays (see Appendix 5). The essay grading criteria consisted of two different parts. The first part was designed to emphasize "Structure and Content" and in the second part, it was intended to assess "Use of English". The first part involved 3 criteria; introduction (3 points), body (6 points) and the conclusion (1 point). The introduction part included background information and an effective thesis statement



with a controlling idea. The body required at least two paragraphs with a topic sentence consistent with the thesis statement and two supporting ideas. The conclusion included a restatement of the thesis statement with a final comment. The second part consisted of two criteria; grammar (5 points) and vocabulary (5 points). The length of the essays was scored for the text quality and measured by counting the how many words used in the written products. Focus on the topic, organization of the ideas and development of supporting ideas were also evaluated by the scorers in the rubric. Moreover, inappropriate use of tenses and punctuation were graded according to essay grading criteria. If the paragraphs or sentences were irrelevant to the topic, up to 10 points were deducted. If there were totally irrelevant topics or issues on the papers of the learners instead of the topics suggested by the researcher, the mark of 0 was given to the essays. Finally, 3 points were reduced if the essays were under 250 words or over 300 words.

To ensure an objective evaluation, the essays of the learners were measured by two English teachers working at another secondary school in Sivas. The raters were informed about the study and essay grading criteria by the researcher and they graded the learners' papers separately.

### **3.4.2 The Writing Anxiety Test (WAT)**

WAT was administered to the learners in both groups to determine the writing anxiety of the learners before the instruction. The same test was also employed to reveal the possible effects of the strategy training and product-based writing training on the learners' writing anxiety. As a research tool for measuring ESL/EFL writing anxiety, it is the first systematic and most widely used test to assess writing anxiety (Wu, 1992; Reeves, 1997; Horwitz 2001; Mohseniasl, 2014; Babanovic, 2016).

In the development of the test, a pool consisting of 64 items such as the evaluation of the writing texts by the peers, teachers, professional evaluators and self-evaluation of the students about writing was rendered. The apprehension test which was a five-point Likert type ranging from "I strongly agree" to "I strongly disagree" was distributed to 164 university students and a scale consisting of 26 items was formed under one factor. It was reported that the internal consistency of the test was .94 and the test-retest reliability was .92 (Daly, 1978, pp. 46-47). It was also found that the test was reliable when the related studies were conducted on adults, high school and primary school students (Cheng, 2002).

The writing anxiety test is composed of 26 items which are to be responded by using five-point format ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Minimum and maximum points that the learners get from WAT are 26 to 130. The scores below 59 exhibit high willingness to write without hesitation. Scores ranging 60-96 indicate moderate level of writing anxiety and the ones above 97 demonstrate high writing anxiety (Zorbaz & Özbay, 2011). The test takers are asked how much they agree with statements by marking a number representing their response to each statement using the following the Likert scale - strongly disagree = 1; disagree = 2; neutral = 3; agree = 4; strongly agree = 5.

The adapted Turkish version of the Writing Anxiety Test by Zorbaz and Özbay (2011) was utilized in the current study. In their study, the validity and reliability of Daly and Miller' test (1975) were tried to be determined. A total of 450 secondary school learners in Ankara participated in the study and it was reported that the test was made up for factors: appreciation, evaluation, prejudice and evaluation anxiety. The estimated reliability of the test scores analyzed by Cronbach alpha was .90 (Zorbaz & Özbay, 2011). According to the reliability findings of the scale, total test correlations were over .3, the internal consistency obtained for the whole scale was .90 and for the sub-factors .84, .79, .68, .68. The findings indicate that the instrument is highly reliable (Zorbaz & Özbay, 2011). For the present study, the estimated reliability test was also checked. The findings for the pre-test were .89 and .79 for the posttest was reported.

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedure**

The researcher received permission from a secondary school and the Ministry of Education on the first week of February in order to implement the cognitive strategy instruction. After the administration of the English Writing Comprehension Test which was adapted from Petekçioğlu (2011), the results revealed that the learners' writing performances in both classrooms were similar. Thus, the learners in 8A were determined to be as experimental and the ones in 8B were assigned to control group.

### **3.5.1 Pre-test**

WAT was administered to the 8<sup>th</sup> grade learners as pre-test at the beginning of the second term. The completion of the questionnaires lasted about 45-50 minutes. After the administration of the anxiety questionnaire, the learners in both groups were also assigned to an argumentative essay on the topics that were selected previously by the researcher to find out the writing achievement level and organizational skills within a writing task. To determine the topics of the argumentative essays that the learners were asked to write as a pretest, the course book distributed by Ministry of Education named Spot On 8 was reviewed and the topics which were familiar to the males and females and did not require any technical knowledge were chosen. The learners wrote argumentative essays without taking any assistance from their teachers and peers in 60 minutes and were free to choose one of the following topics:

- 1 Is technology useful or not?
- 2 What should we do to be successful in our schools?
- 3 Which one is better, living in a village or city?

### **3.5.2 Cognitive Strategy Instruction**

The cognitive strategies resourcing, organizing, deduction, imagery, note-taking, elaboration, inference and summarizing which were elicited from the O'Malley and Chamot's classification (1990) were implemented to a training program by the researcher. In the experimental group, the cognitive strategy training was carried out for 9 weeks in the form of two lessons of 40 minutes. In each lesson, the learners were informed about process writing and one or two of the cognitive strategies through embedded instruction model in which the learners controlled their learning responsibilities and play an active role in the learning setting. The lessons were also designed according to the principles of the process approach. Further, in these lessons, the learners were introduced to the argumentative type of essays and encouraged to practice the process writing premises and the cognitive strategies through writing two different argumentative essays.

#### ***3.5.2.1 Cognitive Strategy Training for Experimental Group***

##### **Lesson 1**

**Subject:** Nature of Writing

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

**Objectives**

- To discuss why writing is important
- To improve the understanding of process writing

**Materials:** White board, Charts, Writing Text

**Cognitive Strategy:** Note-taking, Imagery

**Lesson steps**

1. The teacher and learners discussed the nature and importance of writing in foreign language learning and teacher reminded learners their writing experiences in the English courses.
2. The teacher explained the process writing and gave information about the strengths and weaknesses of this approach in comparison with the other approaches.
3. The teacher introduced the steps of the process writing in a more detailed way. Teacher introduced imagery strategy to the learners and explained how to create mental images to understand and remember the issues. He also encouraged learners to use note-taking strategy through writing down the ideas, key words or drawing a graphic to make a frame of the practice of process writing approach.
4. The teacher presented a sample essay and the teacher expected learners to analyse the parts of the essay considering the body structure of process writing model.

**Lesson 2**

**Subject:** Argumentative Writing

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

**Objectives:**

- To write an argumentative essay

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book, T- charts

**Techniques and Methods:** Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

**Cognitive Strategy:** Deduction

### **Lesson Steps**

1. The teacher reviewed the nature of writing, the structure and parts of the process writing approach.
2. The teacher explained the types of writing and gave information about how and why to use these types.
3. The teacher asked to the students the meaning of “argument” for schmata activation and then he described the use of this term in written and spoken language.
4. The teacher gave detailed information about argumentative writing and explained how to write in each paragraph of an argumentative text from beginning to end.
5. He introduced a chart to display the stages of an argumentative essay. Teacher handed out a sample argumentative text to make the students understand the nature of argumentative writing. Students read the passage and answered the questions at the end of the text.
6. The teacher drew a T-chart to the whiteboard and wanted students to deduct and write the opposite ideas in the texts. The teacher helped learners list the pros and cons of the issues discussed in the argumentative text.

### **Lesson 3**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

#### **Objectives:**

- To plan and write a writing passage.

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student’s Book, Charts and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Semantic Mapping, Conversational Drill, Question and Answer Drill,

**Cognitive Strategy:** Deduction, Note-taking

### **Lesson Steps**

1. The teacher and students reminded and reviewed the argumentative writing presented in the previous lesson.

2. The teacher instructed the functions of topic sentence, supporting sentence and concluding details within the argumentative texts.
3. The teacher distributed another argumentative essay and the learners tried to find topic, supporting and concluding sentences in that reading passage.
4. The the learners elicited these sentences from the text and wrote to the charts handed out by the teacher through using deducting and note-taking strategies.

#### **Lesson 4**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

#### **Objectives:**

- To organize a writing passage

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Charts and Posters

**Techniques and Methods:** Guessing, Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

**Cognitive Strategy:** Organization, Summarizing

#### **Lesson Steps**

1. The teacher and students reviewed argumentative writing and each strategy in the step of planning an argumentative text.
2. The teacher informed that they were in organization step of the essay and he explained what to do in this step again.
3. The teacher listed some topics that were appropriate for writing an argumentative essay. After introducing the topics, he wanted students to brainstorm and add extra topics.
4. Students were told that they were free to choose one of the topics suggested by the teacher or learners.
5. The teacher handed out a chart and wanted learners to organize their argumentative essays starting from their topic, supporting and concluding sentences on this chart.
6. While the learners were writing their sentences, teacher helped and gave suggestions to the learners.

7. The teacher also introduced summarizing strategy presenting a short reading passage in this lesson to help learners create a written summary of a text or passage after reading.
8. The learners were suggested that they would read about their topic from various resources such as books, internet or journals and be ready to discuss the topic in the next lesson. They were also reminded that they had to use summarizing strategy to make a frame of the subject and contribute to active involvement in the formation of their ideas in their argumentative essays.

### **Lesson 5**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

**Objectives:**

-To elaborate the ideas, sentences and paragraphs within an essay

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Charts and Lists

**Techniques and Methods:** Brainstorming, Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

**Cognitive Strategy:** Elaborating

#### **Lesson Steps**

1. The teacher controlled the learners' charts on which they wrote the topic, supporting and concluding sentences in the previous lesson.
2. The teacher informed that they were in the writing step of the argumentative essay and he explained the learners what to do in this step.
3. Students were reminded that they were going to expand their ideas and make meaningful relationships between the paragraphs.
4. The learners were also suggested that they had to make their essays clearer and create a holistic argumentation of an issue.

### **Lesson 6**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants: 31**

**Objectives:**

- To review and evaluate a writing passage.

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Posters, Charts and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Rewriting, Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill

**Cognitive Strategy:** Inference

**Lesson Steps**

1. The teacher stated that they were in the revising step and reminded the phases had to be followed in this step.
2. The teacher and learners discussed the functions of revising and teacher informed the learners about revising techniques to be used in the lesson.
3. The teacher wanted learners to exchange their essays with one of their friends. The learners reviewed the content and structures of the essays and shared their opinions about their peers' texts.
4. The teacher described the inference strategy to the learners to guess the meaning of the available items and fill in the missing information in the text. This strategy helped learners understand their friends' ideas on the essays, detect the missing form, word or information and give logical suggestions to their peers' papers.

**Lesson 7**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the participants: 31**

**Objectives:**

- To revise a written essay

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Charts and Lists

**Techniques and Methods:** Question and Answer Drill

**Cognitive Strategy:** Elaborating

**Lesson Steps**



1. The teacher declared that they were in the editing step and introduced the procedures they had to be followed in this step.
2. Before starting the editing step, learners were informed about a style guideline to use a variety of punctuation marks appropriately. Further, they were suggested that they had to use dictionaries when they hesitated about the spelling of the words.
3. The learners evaluated their peers' essay in terms of grammar, punctuation, spelling and sentence structure. While they judged the argumentative texts for content in the previous lesson, they scanned the essay for the correct use of language and accuracy.
4. After peer editing, the learners got back their essays, the learners were told that after correcting the grammatical, punctuation and spelling mistakes, they had to proofread their texts to make sure they did not miss any errors.

## **Lesson 8**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

### **Objectives:**

- Argumentative Writing and Review of the 8 weeks

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book,

**Techniques and Methods:** Brainstorming, Transformational Drill, Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

**Cognitive Strategy:** Resourcing, Summarizing, Imagery, Elaborating

### **Lesson Steps**

1. The learners submitted their argumentative essays to their teachers and some volunteers read their texts in the classroom.
2. The teacher told that they would write another argumentative text and made two groups in the class.
3. While the first group argued the advantages of smart phones and supported them, the second group opposed to the smart phones and they discussed about the disadvantages of the smart phones.

4. In the second lesson, learners started to plan and write their thesis statement, supporting sentences and concluding remarks.
5. The teacher assigned the essay as homework and the learners searched some extra information about their texts and wrote in a week.

## **Lesson 9**

**Subject:** Argumentative Essay, Writing Strategy

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 31

### **Objectives:**

- Sharing Drafts and Making a Poster

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book, Poster and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

**Cognitive Strategy:** Generating Ideas, Elaborating, Organizing, Deducting Summarizing

### **Lesson Steps**

1. As in their first argumentative essay, they shared their essays with one of their friends and reviewed and edited the texts in terms of content, structure, grammar, punctuation and spelling according to the style guideline.
2. In the first lesson, the learners made necessary correction on their essays and tried to prepare their texts for presentation in the class.
3. The teacher suggested that the learners who finished the editing step would prepare a poster for the presentation through the pictures, realia or other visuals.
4. Three learners were ready to present their argumentative texts on their posters and shared their ideas with their friends in the classroom.

#### ***3.5.2.2 Product-Based Writing Training for the Control Group***

In the present study, the learners in the control group received the product-based writing training through mainly the premises of Grammar Translation Method. In this method, the lessons were introduced through grammatical structures and vocabulary which the students had learnt. The teacher started the courses by

introducing a model text and translation was one of the major parts of a course. The previous knowledge of the learners and schemata activation are ignored in this approach. The focus is on the the use of correct grammar, forms or structures and words in the product-based writing approach (Seow, 2002). The courses are usually conducted in the learners' native language. Students learn the grammar rules deductively and practice the forms and structures translating sentences to the target language. Textbooks are the main materials and little attention is paid to the communicative aspects of the language (Gomez, 1996).

### **Lesson 1**

**Subject:** Writing Advertisement

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

#### **Objectives:**

To gain awareness of the kind of language used in advertisement

**Materials:** Advertisement Texts, Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book, Poster and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Question and Answer Drill,

#### **Lesson Steps**

1. Hand out A, B, C and D texts to the learners.
2. Learners search for their own gaps in the passage and create questions to find the answer for all gaps.
3. Make groups of A, B, C and D. Learners try to find out the answers of their peers.
4. Give the Analysis sheets to the learners. Remind that they study the three papers individually and then share their findings.
5. Hand out Writing Practice and allocate enough time for students to compose their own ads (15 minutes).

### **Lesson 2**

**Subject:** Writing a Fable

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

**Objectives:**

- To use verbs in direct speech and adverbs

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book,

**Techniques and Methods:** Question and Answer Drill, Translation

**Lesson Steps**

1. Teacher gives information about fables and hands out seven different fables to the seven groups in the class.
2. Each group reads, understands and memorize their fable.
3. Each group leader tells their fable to another group learners.
4. Students underline and explain the certain language structures taught in the previous lessons.
5. Student write a fable using the language forms practiced in the class.

**Lesson 3**

**Subject:** Invitation Card Writing

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

**Objectives:**

- To practice cause and effect structures

**Materials:** Model Essay, Cards, Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Charts and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Semantic Mapping, Conversational Drill

1. Introduce learners to cause and effect sentences written on the black board.
2. Express the students that they will read some sentences involving some various cause and effect phrases.
3. Hand out a model essay and make learners read and underline the cause and effect structures.
4. Give the learner a vocabulary list that can be used in similar texts.
5. Learners write a short invitation card and use these structures in their cards.

#### **Lesson 4**

**Subject:** Writing Story

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

#### **Objectives:**

- To write complex sentences

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Sample Stories

**Techniques and Methods:** Question and Answer Drill,

#### **Lesson Steps**

1. Teachers teaches the formation of the past tense sentences and writes different examples to the black board.
2. Hand out the story texts and give time for them to find out the past tense structures.
3. Give learners a chart to note down the past tense structures used in the passages.
4. Students write their own stories using the structures taught in the class.

#### **Lesson 5**

**Subject:** Writing Report

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

#### **Objectives:**

- To use comparison sentences within an essay

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Charts and Lists

**Techniques and Methods:** Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

#### **Lesson Steps**

1. Teacher hand out a sample report and gives information about the report explaining and underlining the comparison sentences.
2. Teacher gives another report and makes learners complete the missing parts using the comparison structures individually.

3. Teacher hands out a different information about the statistical data from different issues and make the learners write sample reports.

### **Lesson 6**

**Subject:** Writing Letter

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

**Objectives:**

- To use conjunctions in a writing passage.

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Posters, Charts and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Rewriting, Question and Answer Drill

**Lesson Steps**

1. Teacher explains the functions of the conjunctions and gives examples to the conjunctions with students.
2. Teacher hands out a model letter including the conjunctions and make learners underline the structures they have learnt.
3. Teacher hands out a jumbled letter and allocate time to fill in the gaps with the appropriate conjunctions.
4. Students decide a letter type and write their own letter using the structures they have practiced in the lesson.

### **Lesson 7**

**Subject:** Writing Dialogue

**Time:** 80

**Number of the participants:** 32

**Objectives:**

- To write short simple dialogues.

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot On 8 Student's Book, Charts and Lists

**Techniques and Methods:** Question and Answer Drill

**Lesson Steps**

1. Teacher introduces the nature of the formal and informal language and gives various examples to the learners.

2. Teacher brings sample comic stripes to make the learners understand and recognize the structure of the formal and informal form through dialogues.
3. Teacher elicits some forms and writes them to the black board.
4. Students write their own dialogues using these forms.

### **Lesson 8**

**Subject:** Narrative Writing

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

#### **Objectives:**

- To use transition words

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book,

**Techniques and Methods:** Transformational Drill, Semantic Mapping, Question and Answer Drill,

#### **Lesson Steps**

1. Teacher hands out a list of transition words and gives the meanings of these words.
2. Students read a sample narrative text and underline the words that teacher lists before reading.
3. Teacher and students explain the function of these forms in that narrative text and students take notes about these words.
4. Teacher forms four groups and each group writes their own narrative text using these transition words.

### **Lesson 9**

**Subject:** Writing a Short Story

**Time:** 80

**Number of the Participants:** 32

#### **Objectives:**

- To use the past tense structures and vocabulary taught in the course

**Materials:** Blackboard, Spot on 8 Students Book, Poster and Pictures

**Techniques and Methods:** Question and Answer Drill,

## **Lesson Steps**

1. Teacher reminds learners the past tense and wants sample sentences from them.
2. Teacher hands out a short version of the Ant and Crickets Story.
3. Teacher asks learners to find and explain the past tense structures.
4. Students choose a short story they have already known and translate it to English using past tense forms.

### **3.5.3 Post-test**

After the cognitive strategy training, writing anxiety test was employed to the learners in both groups to find out the possible effects of the cognitive strategy instruction on the writing anxiety of the students. The learners in both groups were also assigned to write another argumentative essay to explore the effect of strategy instruction on the learners' writing achievement. For the essays written by the learners as post-test, the following topics were chosen by the researcher:

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of smart phones?
2. Being a child or adult, which one do you prefer?
3. Does money bring happiness?

## **3.6 Data Analyses**

In this part, findings and their interpretations of the data that were obtained through essay tasks and anxiety tests are presented.

For the research question 1, Writing Apprehension Test was conducted to determine the level of writing anxiety that the students had before, during or after the writing activities. In the test, there were both negative and positive expressions and it was required to apply code reversing to the score of the learners. Additionally, descriptive statistic results were utilized to reveal the level of writing apprehension of the students.

For the second research question, an argumentative essay task was given to the learners in both groups before and after the treatment in order to determine the effects of cognitive strategy training on the learners' writing achievement and make comparison between the results of the learners in control group which were instructed through product-based writing. Two raters from another secondary school were determined by the researcher and an Essay Grading Criteria adapted from



Akpınar's (2007) study was introduced to them to use during the assessment. After the evaluation process, the average score of the essay tasks was established and used for the statistical analyses.

For the research questions 3, the researcher compared the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group through paired sample t-test to determine if there was an effect of strategy instruction on the writing anxiety of the learners.

For the research questions 4, the researcher compared the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group through paired sample t-test to find out if there was an effect of product-based writing training on the writing anxiety of the learners.

For the research question 5, the pre-test and post-test scores of the learners on the essay tasks were compared by using independent samples test to explore whether the product-based writing training improved the writing achievement of the learners in control group or not.

For the research question 6, the relationship between the writing anxiety and gender of the learners in both control and experimental groups was investigated. Independent sample test and descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest scores of the learners were compared to reveal the difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of writing anxiety.

For the research question 7, the relationship between the writing achievement and gender of the learners in both control and experimental groups was surveyed. Independent sample test and descriptive statistics of the pre-test and post-test scores of the learners taken from the results of the essay tasks were compared to reveal the difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of writing achievement.

For the research question 8, paired sample statistics and correlations were used to get an insight to the effects of the strategy and product-based writing strategies on the writing anxiety levels of the learners in both groups. Anxiety levels of the learners on writing in experimental and control groups were measured through the paired sample statistics and correlations.

For the last research question, the researcher tried to find out difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of writing achievements after the two different kinds of writing instruction carried out to the both groups. While the students in experimental group were provided with the 9 weeks of cognitive strategy

training on writing skill, the students in the control group were instructed through the product-based writing sessions which were based on the vocabulary teaching and translation practices. The learners in both groups were assigned argumentative essays in the same topics in order to determine the effects of the two different writing instructions on the writing achievement of the learners. In order to recognize the effects of the both instruction on the anxiety levels of the learners, independents sample t-test was administered to the scores of the both pre and post-tests of the both groups.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### IV. RESULTS

This part of the study deals with the results of the analyses that were obtained from the procedures mentioned in the previous chapters.

As the present study is a quasi-experimental design, there are two similar groups in terms of the characteristics being examined. In order to determine the experimental and control groups, an English Writing Comprehension Test developed by Petekçioğlu, (2011) was employed to the 63 learners attending the 8A and 8B classes in 2017-2018 Education Year. Mann Whitney U Test was administered to find out the writing performances of the learners in both classrooms. It is a non-parametric employed to compare two samples which are chosen from the same population and to test if the two samples are equal or not (Kasuya, 2001). Obtained results are presented at the Table 1.

Table 1: Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Students in Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean Rank	Sum Rank	Mean(x)	St. Dev. (Ss)
8A	31	20,63	485,50	43,29	12,24
8B	32	22,32	543,50	45,95	14,81

According to the results of the English Writing Comprehension Test, no significant difference was found between the two classes in terms of their writing performance. The learners in both classrooms had similar writing abilities. In addition, the findings of statistic were Z: -2.368 / Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed): ,522. It was revealed that there was no significant difference between the learners in both classrooms in terms of writing performance.

#### 4.1 Analyses of the Data Collection Tools in terms of Reliability.

Before and after the strategy training, Cronbach alpha reliability estimation was administered to the tests in order to find out the internal consistency reliability coefficients of the essay tasks and WAT.

Table 2: Reliability Estimates of the Data Collection Tools

		Cronbach alpha	Interrater reliability
	Pre-test	.84	
Writing Anxiety Test	Post-test	.79	
	Pre-test		.89
Essay Tasks	Post-test		.86

The reliability of the Writing Anxiety Test was surveyed. Table 2. indicates that the Cronbach alpha estimated .84 for the pretest and .79 for the posttest of the anxiety questionnaire. The interrater reliability test was used in order to determine the reliability coefficient for the essay tasks given as a pre-test and post-test. Before the strategy instruction, interrater reliability coefficient was found to be .89 and for the posttest results .84 was checked.

#### 4.2 Analyses of the Results in terms of Writing Anxiety of the Students on the Pre-test

The first research question aims to find out the writing anxiety levels of the students in both control and experimental groups before the instruction. Table 3 provides the mean scores of learners from the writing anxiety scale.

Table 3: The Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Both Groups Resulted from the Writing Anxiety Test

Group	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistics
Experimental	31	79	109	102	0,40
Control	32	87	111	107	0,58

As it is viewed in Table 3, the mean score of the writing anxiety in experimental group was 102 and 107 in the control group. According to the results, it is argued that the learners in both groups experience a high level of writing anxiety.

#### **4.3 Analyses of the Results in terms of Writing Achievements of the Students on the Pre-test and Post-test**

The learners wrote argumentative essays before and after the treatment about the topics decided by the researcher. Two raters graded the essays according to the essay grading criteria given by the researcher. The second research question aims to determine whether or not there is an effect of the cognitive writing strategy instruction on the writing achievement of the learners. Paired samples t-test was used to explore the difference between control group and experimental group before and after the intervention. As presented in the table 4, there exists a difference between the both groups regarding their writing performances before and after the cognitive strategy training.

Table 4: The Pre and Post-test Results of the Groups in the Writing Essays

	Control G. (n=32)		Experimental G. (n= 31)		t	df	p
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.			
Pre-test	11.79	4.70	11.21	5.07	.79	32	.08
Post-test	11.12	3.07	13,12	4.38	1.56	31	.00*

$p > .05$

The achievement of the learners on the argumentative essays was measured through the paired t-test. As Table 4 shows, a significant relationship was found between the writing achievement and strategy training ( $p < .05$ ). That is, the learners in the experimental group increased their writing performances more than their counterparts. Additionally, the fifth research question aimed to test whether there was a significant relationship between the writing achievement and product-based writing achievement of the learners in control group. As viewed in Table 4, no significant relationship was found between these two variables ( $p > .05$ ). There was even a slight decrease on the scores of the learners in the control group.

#### **4.4 Analyses of the Results in terms of Writing Anxiety of the Students after the Post-test**

The third research question aims at investigating the difference between the learners in experimental and control group in terms of writing anxiety on the post-test. Independent sample t-test was employed to find out the difference between the control and experimental groups. Table 5 demonstrates the related findings.

Table 5: The Pre and Post-test Results of the Groups

	Control G. (n=32)		Experimental G. (n= 31)		t	df	p
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.			
Pre-test	3.22	0.45	3.09	0.52	1.90	32	.07
Post-test	3.39	0.54	2.83	0.33	2.54	31	.03*

p>.05

In the fourth research question, the researcher attempts to reveal the possible effects of product-based writing instruction on the writing anxiety of the learners in the control group. The findings in Table 5. represent that there is an insignificant difference between the pre and post-test scores of the learners in control group (p>.05). It is assumed that there is no effect of the product-based writing instruction on the writing anxiety levels of the learners in the control group. However, there exists a significant relationship was found out between the strategy training and writing anxiety levels of the learners in experimental group (p<.0.5).

#### **4.5 Comparison of the Writing Anxiety Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups**

The eighth research question aims to find out the difference within the experimental and control groups in terms of the pre and post-test scores of the writing anxiety. The paired sample t-test was run to the scores of the pre and post-treatment scores of the groups. The findings of the t-test on writing anxiety are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Comparison of Pre and Post-test Scores of the Writing Anxiety Test

Group	Test	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	p
Experimental	Pre	3.46	0.62	31	1.14	.04*
	Post	2.12	0.33	31		
Control	Pre	3.55	0.42	32	1.78	.08
	Post	3.31	0.50	32		

p>.05

According to Table 6, the control group's pre and post-test scores the writing anxiety did not indicate a statistically difference ( $p>.05$ ). However, there was found a significant difference on the writing anxiety scores of the learners in experimental group ( $p<.05$ ).

#### **4.6 Comparison of the Writing Achievement Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups**

In the ninth research question, the researcher aimed to detect the difference within the experimental and control groups in terms of the pre and post-test scores of the writing achievement. Paired sample t-test was run to the scores of the pre and post-treatment of the groups. The results of the t-test on writing anxiety are presented in Table 7.



Table 7: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test scores of the Writing Tasks

Group	Test	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	p
Experimental	Pre	3.23	0.48	31	1.36	.00*
	Post	2.85	0.37	31		
Control	Pre	3.25	0.62	32	1.68	.08
	Post	3.08	0.56	32		

$p > 0.05$ .

The research found no significant difference between the pre and post-test scores of the learners in control group ( $p > 0.05$ ). However, the results of the analyses indicated that a significant change on the learners' writing achievement when compared to the control group ( $p < 0.05$ ).

#### 4.7 Results on the Reliability of the Raters

In order to determine the correlation of the scores given by the raters who graded the essays of the learners before and after the treatment to the both groups, a Cohen's Kappa test was run to the pre and post-test scores of the learners. Cohen's Kappa is used to measure interrater reliability if the raters are chosen deliberately (Sim, 2005). The Kappa statistic changes from 0 to 1 (Cohen, 1960).

- 0 = agreement equivalent to chance
- 0.1 – 0.20 = slight agreement
- 0.21 – 0.40 = fair agreement
- 0.41 – 0.60 = moderate agreement
- 0.61 – 0.80 = substantial agreement
- 0.81 – 0.99 = near perfect agreement
- 1 = perfect agreement

According to the pre-test results, 69.8 % was found from the Cohen's kappa test. It means that the result indicate substantial reliability between the two raters. A positive

ratio is observed between the two raters. The raters' evaluation of the pre-test shows that the scoring of the raters is consistent with each other.

Similarly, after the treatment, learners wrote other argumentative essays and they were also evaluated by the same raters. The same analysis was employed to the learners' essay tasks and 76.2 % was reported. The finding demonstrates that there exists significant reliability between the raters after post-test evaluation. Finally, this result between the two raters suggested that each rater followed the instructions carefully and graded the essays in accordance with the Essay Grading Criteria.

#### **4.8 Results on the Difference between the Males and Females in terms of Writing Anxiety and Writing Achievement**

Sixth research question aims to determine whether the writing anxiety level of the learners differs according to the gender of the learners. Table 10. shows the results of the independents sample t-test conducted before and after the treatment.

Table 8: Difference between the Males and Females in terms of Writing Anxiety in the Pre-test and Post-test

Group	Test	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	p
Pre-test	Male	28	12.26	0.43	1.36	.08
	Female	35	13.04	0.31		
Post-test	Male	28	13.98	0.69	1.68	.06
	Female	35	13.46	0.57		

$p > 0.05$ .

As it takes place within threshold, the findings in Table 10. demonstrate that there is no significant relationship between the gender of the learners and their writing anxiety levels ( $p > 0.05$ ). These finding point out that males and females have similar levels of writing anxiety. The seventh research question aims to explore whether there exists a significant relationship between the gender and writing achievement. The related findings are displayed in Table 11.

Table 9: Difference between the Males and Females in terms of Writing Achievement in the Post-test

Group	Test	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	p
Pre-test	Male	28	11.46	0.63	1.23	.07
	Female	35	12.11	0.54		
Post-test	Male	28	12.67	0.71	1.54	.08
	Female	35	13.02	0.57		

$p > 0.05$ .

Based on the research findings in Table 11, it is detected that there is no difference between the males and females' writing achievement ( $p > 0.05$ ). This result reveals that the eighth grade EFL learners' writing achievements do not differ according to their gender.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### V. CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION, and RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Conclusion and Discussion

The present study investigated the effects of cognitive strategy instruction on the writing anxiety and writing achievement of the 8<sup>th</sup> grade Turkish EFL learners. The study also explored the possible effects of cognitive strategy training on writing anxiety and writing achievement in accordance with the gender of the learners.

In the first research question of the study, the researcher attempted to find out whether the learners in the experimental and control groups suffer from writing anxiety during their writing activities. Writing Anxiety Test was administered to both groups before and after the treatment to find an answer to this question. The results indicated that the learners in both groups experienced a high level of writing anxiety. As it was reported in Zhang's study (2008), writing anxiety was one of the factors that affected the performances of the learners on EFL writing. The results gave credence to several studies that found a high level of writing anxiety experienced by EFL learners (Alnufaie & Grenfell, 2013; Huwari & Aziz, 2011; Latif, 2009; Sawalha, Chow & Foo, 2012). The writing anxiety experienced by Turkish EFL learners may stem from the learners' fear of writing, the lack of background knowledge for the topics of the tasks, linguistic difficulties or attitudes towards writing. Additionally, the frequency of the writing activities that the teacher assigns may also be the reason for this kind of anxiety.

In the second research question, it was aimed to reveal whether the cognitive strategy training contributes to the writing achievements of the learners in the experimental group. The researcher also tried to compare the findings of the second research question with the results of the learners in the control group. To this aim, the researcher planned a nine-week strategy training program and started to instruct the learners on the second week of the spring semester of 2017-2018 Education Year. The cognitive strategies elicited from the classification of Chamot and O'Malley

were implemented in the strategy training program. Besides, the samples of the essays written according to the premises of process writing approach were introduced to the learners in the experimental group during the nine weeks period. The learners did not only read or analyze the steps of process writing but they wrote two argumentative essays following each step in this approach. On the other hand, the learners in control group kept on having a writing instruction with their course books through product-based writing activities based mainly on the product-oriented approach. Before and after the cognitive strategy training, the learners were assigned to write argumentative essays in order to detect the effects of both types of instruction and compare the scores of the learners from the essay tasks. The essays were evaluated by the two different EFL teachers from different secondary schools in Sivas. The researcher prepared a short presentation of essay grading criteria adapted from Akpınar's study (2007) for the graders to explain how to grade the argumentative essays of the learners in both groups. With respect to the second and fifth research questions, the finding of present study represented that while the learners in experimental group made progress on their writing achievement after the nine weeks of writing strategy training, the learners' score in control group showed a slight decrease after the argumentative essay task that was employed as post-test. However, this finding was not consistent with Dumlija's study (2018). A significant negative correlation was found between writing achievement and cognitive strategy training. In that study, it was explained that the negative correlation between two variables may be a consequence of a methodological error. Likewise, in Graham and Sandmel's study (2011), it was found that there was no significant contribution of strategy training on the writing quality of the learners' paper and their motivation. The results of the current research are consisted with the several studies (Ashworth, 1992; Al Asmari, 2013; De Silva, 2015; Gamelin, 1996; Khosravi et al., 2017; Mohseniasl, 2014; Na & Yoon, 2015; Nooreiny & Mazlin, 2013; Pitenoe, et al., 2017; Tabrizi & Rajae, 2016; Wischgoll, 2016; Wong, 2015). The obtained results confirmed that though the cognitive strategy training had a great effect on the writing achievement of the learners in the experimental group, the learners' writing achievement in the control group did not show a significant difference. The success of the learners in experimental group may result from their metacognitive awareness which was acquired within the process of cognitive strategy training. It is assumed

that each strategy facilitates the learners' perception for the steps of a well-organised essay in an extended period of time. It has become clear that cognitive strategy training contributes to the increase of the learners' writing achievement more than the product-based writing practiced by the learners in the control group. The activation of the learners' cognition through the various strategies, techniques and materials helped the learners get engaged in the activities in the classroom. The implementation of the cognitive strategies to a process-based writing instruction also enabled learners to comprehend the function of each step in process writing and to be aware of the value of their peers' and teachers' feedbacks. Each step of process writing was supported by a cognitive strategy and this made learners to practice the steps thoroughly and efficiently. For instance, while the resourcing strategy polished the pre-writing activities by helping learners use previous knowledge and generating ideas, elaboration strategy made serious contribution to the writing stage through linking the thoughts, ideas and paragraphs each other.

In the fifth research question, it was tried to reveal whether there was a statistically significant difference in the writing achievement of the learners in the control group after the product-based writing instruction. The learners in the control group were assigned to an argumentative essay as a pre- and post-test before and after they received nine weeks of product-based writing instruction. In order to find out the influence of this type of writing instruction on the learners' writing achievement, the difference between the scores of these argumentative essays was analyzed. The results indicated that the average scores of the learners in the control group from the pre and the post-test argumentative essay were similar. The learners in this group were not provided with any cognitive strategy training but they were taught through the premises of the product-based writing instruction. Learners based their writing tasks on the translation of the texts written in their first language by using bilingual dictionaries. Thus, the teaching of the new vocabulary and the appropriate use of the forms and structures were the main criteria for the writing achievement in this kind of the writing instruction. The obtained results of the study indicated no significant difference between pre and post-test scores of the learners in control group in terms of writing achievement. The findings corroborate with the many other studies (Bae, 2011; Gaber, 2003; Hashemnezhad, 2012; Mohite, 2014; Sheir, Zahran & Koura,

2007). The reason for this finding may be that practicing and improving grammatical or vocabulary knowledge is thought to be more important than developing learners' writing skills in product-based EFL teaching setting. Moreover, as the Turkish learners rarely find opportunities to use English outside the classroom and seldom need to write in English in real life, the learners do not transfer the linguistic knowledge to the new situations. In addition, as EFL classrooms are mostly test-oriented due to the limited lesson hours and central high school entrance exams, learners are encouraged to memorise new words, forms and structure and solve tests to be successful in these types of exams. Therefore, the teaching of the productive skills such as speaking and writing is ignored by EFL teachers.

Similarly, the third and fourth research questions investigated the relationship between the cognitive strategy training and product-based writing instruction concerning the writing anxiety level of the learners. The researcher administered WAT to the learners in both groups before and after the treatment. According to the results, the strategy training had a significant impact on lowering the writing anxiety level of the learners in the experimental group. It may be argued that teaching of the cognitive strategies and process writing to the learners in the experimental group during the instruction helped the learners feel confident about what to do in each step and finish their tasks without hesitation to write an essay within a limited period of time. Furthermore, peer and teacher feedbacks played a crucial role in creating a friendly atmosphere which reduced the fears of learners by teacher's evaluation. These findings are parallel with similar studies examining the effects of strategy training on writing anxiety (DeDeyn, 2011; Pasand & Haghi, 2013; Smith, 1984; Tsiriotakis, Vasillaki, Spanditakis & Stavrou, 2016). The results of this study also confirm that several conclusions which support the effects writing anxiety on writing performance by acting as an affective filter (Zheng, 2008). Therefore, teaching cognitive strategies and process-oriented approaches has to be successfully implemented to foster the writing achievement and to reduce writing anxiety of the learners (Wu, 2010). In the fourth research question, it was intended to find out whether there was an effect of the product-based writing activities on the writing anxiety level of the learners in the control group. The results revealed that the research found no significant difference between the pre and posttest scores of the

learners in control group. These results are consistent with previous studies (Challob, Abu-Bakar & Latif, 2016; Öztürk, 2012; Reeves, 1997; Wu, 2010). The underlying reason for these findings may be the inadequate allocated time to complete writing tasks, the translation of the model texts and the lack of learners' motivation that cause learners to be more anxious during the writing tasks. The lack of learners' appropriate skills, the feature of the writing assignments and the teacher's reaction to the structural problems were also significant factors for the rise in the writing anxiety of the learners.

In the seventh research question, the relationship between the writing anxiety and gender of the learners in both the control and experimental groups was surveyed. In order to get an insight to this question, descriptive statistics of the pre-test and post-test scores of the learners were compared. According to the results, it was noted that males and females in both groups had similar levels of writing anxiety and there was no significant difference in terms of gender between the learners in both groups before and after the treatment. These findings are in conformity with the results of some studies that find no relation between gender and writing anxiety (Babanovic, 2016; Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Razak & Yassin 2018; Shawish & Atea, 2010). On the other hand, in some studies, it was reported that males had more writing anxiety than their counterparts (Akpınar, 2007; Öztürk, 2012; Zorbaz, 2010). Conversely, there are also different studies that find a higher level of writing anxiety level in favour of the females (Horwitz, 2001; Maturanec, 2015; Rodriguez, Delgado & Colon, 2009). In the case of the current study, there is no statistically significant difference between females and males in terms of writing anxiety. The reason for this contradictory finding might be the interfering conditions, other variables and socio-cultural differences. Further, the learners may suffer from state anxiety which is transitory and emerges in a particular situation. As Leki (2002) stated that the writing anxiety of the learners during the language classes was independent from the gender factor. Lastly, socio-cultural environment is strongly related to the anxiety of the learners (Karim, Forouhar & Nasrin, 2013). Since most of the learners in the current study come from similar socio-cultural backgrounds, no statistically significant difference was found in terms of gender.



In the eighth research question, the difference between both groups in terms of the writing anxiety was aimed to be detected. The researcher also intended to reveal whether the cognitive strategy training had an effect on reducing the writing anxiety levels of the learners in experimental group in comparison with the control group. The Writing Anxiety Test was employed to the learners to explore this research question. According to the results, while there is a significant decrease in the writing anxiety levels of the students in the experimental group, there has been noted no significant change in the control group in terms of writing anxiety. It is strongly possible that the product-based type of writing instruction is the main reason for this finding. If the pre-test scores of the both groups are analyzed, it is realized that the learners in the both groups had almost the same level of writing anxiety. However, after the treatment, a significant difference was noticed between the post-test score of the Writing Anxiety Test. On the contrary, there was observed a significant change in the learners' writing anxiety level in experimental group. As cognitive strategies facilitated the learners to engage with the writings tasks actively and helped them to process, transform and produce information effectively, the main reason of the decrease in the writing anxiety is cognitive strategy training. In addition, the learners felt themselves secure and concentrated only on the organization of the texts rather than the engaging with the appropriate use of the linguistic structures and grammatical rules. Moreover, the adaption and integration of cognitive strategies into the EFL classrooms helped the learners employ strategies for enhancing the process writing and enabled them to transfer these strategies to the following courses. All in all, cognitive strategies encouraged the learners to search for acquiring knowledge or different ideas about an issue, deducting the irrelevant sentences or paragraphs, inferencing the missing points within a text, elaborating the relationships between the ideas or passages and summarizing a text for evaluation. As Ehrman and Oxford (1990) state that cognitive strategies urge learners to overcome the writing difficulties and writing anxiety.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

The current study offers many pedagogical implications for teaching writing in EFL learning settings. The learners in experimental group outperformed the learners in the

control group in argumentative writing tasks and experienced less writing anxiety after the cognitive strategy training. The implementation of cognitive strategies to a process writing programme enabled learners to benefit from the various practices such as peer evaluation, resourcing or brainstorming and encouraged them to cooperate with their friends and to participate in the writing tasks actively. Based on the obtained results of the current study, it is recommended that cognitive strategies play a key role in the development of the students' writing achievement and these strategies should be practised within the design of the process writing approach in the EFL classrooms. To develop the Turkish EFL learners' writing ability, they should be allowed to produce texts eliminating the grammatical mistakes or lack of certain vocabulary knowledge. Learners have to be taught in a learning environment that is enriched with a variety of language learning strategies that foster their learning from different perspectives. As writing requires a certain amount of process, effort, adequate time, qualified material and different types of feedbacks, EFL teachers should also consider these variables before planning their teaching sessions. In addition, as writing is a challenging skill because of its nature, it is probable that the learners may feel tension or concern when they are expected to produce texts both in a foreign and their native language. Therefore, the learners should actively involve in the writing tasks using the cognitive strategies and engaging with the development of the texts in each step of the writing process to overcome their writing anxiety in the classroom. As the learners find opportunities to share their problems with their friends and teachers in all stages of writing activities and use self and peer assessment for their writing tasks, they feel themselves more relaxed and secure and develop less negative feelings to the writing activities in the class. As a final point, course books should be designed to include language learning strategies to make learners more independent and efficient EFL learners in and out of the classrooms.

### **5.2.1 Recommendations for Further Studies**

Based on the results of the current study, the following points are suggested for further research:

1. Further research may be conducted to larger samples. Larger samples help decrease the margin of error and offer researchers more data to analyse the variables.
2. If the cognitive strategy training is implemented to the regular course methodologies and employed in two semesters, the instruction may be more effective.
3. Further studies might be conducted to find out the possible effects of cognitive strategies on listening, speaking and reading skills.
4. There is a need for more studies on learners with different language proficiency to explore the effects of cognitive strategy training on writing anxiety and achievements of the learners.
5. Other studies are needed to examine the effects of meta-cognitive and social-affective strategies on the writing skills of the learners.

## REFERENCES

- Abdul-Rahman, S. S. (2011). *An Investigation into the English academic writing strategies employed by students of HE in the NE of England with particular reference to their nationalities and Gender*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation University of Sunderland UK.
- Acat, M. B., & Demiral, S. (2002). Türkiye’de yabancı dil öğreniminde motivasyon kaynakları ve sorunları. *Kuramdan Uygulamaya Eğitim Yönetimi*, 8 (31), 312-329.
- Akpınar, B. F. (2007). *The effects of process-oriented writing instruction on writer’s block, writing apprehension, attitudes towards writing instruction and writing performance*. Unpublished MA Thesis, Marmara University, İstanbul.
- Al Asmari, A. (2013). Investigation of writing strategies, writing apprehension, and writing achievement among Saudi EFL-major students, *International Education Studies*, 6(11), 130-143.
- Al-Jarf, R. (2011). Creating and sharing writing rubrics. *Asian EFL Journal*. Vol. 51 April 2011
- Alnufaie, M., & Grenfell, M. (2013). EFL writing apprehension: the macro or the micro?. *Journal of Arts and Humanities*. 2.
- Applebee, A. N., Langer, J. A., & Mullis, I. V. S. (1986). *The writing report card: writing achievement in American schools*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Ashman, A.F., & Conway, R. N. F (1993). *Using cognitive methods in the classroom*, London: Routledge.
- Ashworth, T. E. (1992). *Using writing-to-learn strategies in community college associate degree nursing programs*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Virginia.
- Bacon, S. (1992). The relationship between gender, comprehension, processing strategies, and cognitive and affective response in second language listening. *Modern Language Journal*, 76, 160-78.
- Bae J. (2011). *Teaching process writing for intermediate/advanced learners in South Korea*. Unpublished Master of Arts. University of Wisconsin, River Falls.
- Badger, R. G., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153-160.
- Balcı, A. (2001). *Sosyal bilimlerde araştırma: Yöntem, teknik ve ilkeler*. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.
- Baroudy, I. (2008). Discovering writing behaviors: Successful and unsuccessful writers. *International Journal of English Studies*, 8 (2), 43-63.
- Barnett, M. A. (1989). *More than meets the eye: foreign language reading: theory and practice*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bartlett, K. (2017). The use of L1 in L2 classrooms in Japan: A survey of university student preferences. *Kwansei Gakuin University Humanities Review*, 22(1), 71-80.
- Bazerman, C., & Paradis, J. (1991). *Textual dynamics of the professions*. Madison: Parodi 498 The University of Wisconsin Press
- Beardmore, H. B. (1982). *Bilingualism*. Tieto: Avon

- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1988). Cognitive operations in constructing main points in written composition. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 27(3), 261–278.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. White Plains: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Bruning, R., & Horn, C. (2000). Developing motivation to write. *Educational Psychologist*, 35, 25- 37
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2007). *Deneyisel desenler öntest-sontest kontrol grubu desen ve veri analizi*, Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.
- Byrer, B. R. (1986). *The effect of a pre-writing learning strategy on the growth of syntactic maturity in written expression of college freshmen with learning*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. West Virginia University, USA
- Challob, A. I., Bakar, N. A., & Latif, H. (2016). Collaborative blended learning environment: Effects on EFL students' writing apprehension and writing performance. *English Language Teaching*, v9 (6) p229-241 2016
- Chamot, A. (1999). Children's learning strategies in language immersion. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83, 319-337.
- Chen, Y. (2011). Study of the writing strategies used by Chinese non-English majors. *theory and practice in Language Studies*, 1(3), 245-2.
- Cheng, Y. S. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annal.*, 35, 647-656.
- Chilkiewixc, K. (2015). Direct language learning strategies in the theory by Rebecca Oxford in English vocabulary acquisition at the age group of 11-12 year olds. *World Scientific News*. Retrieved from <http://www.worldscientificnews.com/>
- Chien, S. C. (2008). A cognitive analysis of the relationships between Chinese EFL writers' strategy use and writing achievement performance. *Cambridge Occasional Papers in Linguistics*, 3(4), 44-61.
- Chou, Y. (2002). *An exploratory study of language learning strategies and the relationship of these strategies to motivation and language proficiency among EFL Taiwanese technological and vocational college learners*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. University of Iowa, Iowa.
- Cohen J. (1960). A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales, *Educational and Psychological measurement*.
- Collins, J. L. (2000). *Review of key concepts in strategic reading and writing instruction*. In J.L. Collins (Ed.), Retrieved October 2018 from <http://gse.buffal o.edu/org/writingstrategies/PDFFiles/CHEEKTOWAGA-SLOAN.PDF>
- Cook, V. (1996). *Second language learning and teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Cornwell, S., & McKay, T. (1999). Measuring writing apprehension in Japan. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED433712.pdf>.
- Clark, J., Scarino, A., & Brownell, J. (1994). Improving the quality of learning: A framework for target oriented curriculum Renewal. *Institute of Language Education: Hong Kong*
- Cohen, A. (1990). *Language learning*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Daly, J. A. (1978). Writing apprehension and writing competency. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 72(1), 10-14. Retrieved October 2018 from <http://www.jstore.org>.

- Daly, J., & Miller, M. (1975). The Empirical development of an instrument to measure writing apprehension. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 9.
- DeDeyn, R. (2011). *Student identity, writing anxiety and writing performance: A correlational study*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Colorado State University, USA
- De Silva, R. (2015). Writing strategy instruction: Its impact on writing in a second language for academic purposes. *Language Teaching Research*, 19(3), 301-323.
- Dirgeyasa, W. I. (2014). *College academic writing: a genre-based perspective*. Medan: Unimed Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dujisik, D. (2008). *The effect of prewriting strategy training guided by computer-based procedural facilitation on ESL students' strategy use, writing and writing quality*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of South Florida, USA
- Dumlija, A. (2018). *The Relationship between writing strategies and writing anxiety in EFL*. Unpublished Master Thesis. University of Osijek, Czech Republic
- Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting, *The Modern Language Journal*, 74 (3), 311-327
- Emig, J. (1971). *The Composing processes of twelfth graders*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Erkan, D. Y., & Saban, A. I. (2010). Writing performance relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing and attitudes toward writing: A correlational study in Turkish tertiary level EFL. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(5), 164-192.
- Faigley, L., Daly, J. A., & Witte, S. P. (1981). The role of writing apprehension in writing performance and writing competence. *Journal of Educational Research*, 75(1), 16-21.
- Ferguson, H. (2011). *Child protection practice*, Basingstoke, Palgrave.
- Ferris, D. (2001). *Teaching writing for academic purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Flower, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1981). Plans that guide the composing process. metacognition, metalanguage and metapragmatics. *International Journal of Psychology*, 28, 571-580.
- Gaber, A. (2003). *The Effectiveness of a suggested program based on the whole language approach in developing student- teachers' essay writing skills*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Ain Shams University, Egypt.
- Gamelin, Y. (1996). *The effect of cognitive strategy instruction in writing (CSIW) on the writing skills of severely learning disabled students and their peers in an inclusive classroom*, Unpublished Master Thesis. Simon Fraser University
- Ganschow, L., & Sparks, R. (1996). Foreign language anxiety among high school women. *Modern Language Journal*, 80, 199- 212.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: the role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold
- Gomez, R. (1996). Process versus product writing with limited English proficient students. *The Bilingual Research Journal*. Vol.20,(2), 209-233

- Graham, S., & Sandmel, K. (2011). The process writing approach: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 104(6), 396-407.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2003). *Students with learning disabilities and the process of writing. A meta-analysis of SRSD studies*. New York: Guilford.
- Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2003). *Writing better: teaching writing processes and self-regulation to students with learning problems*. Baltimore: Brookes.
- Grainger, P. (2008). Language-learning strategies for learners of Japanese: investigating ethnicity. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 378 - 385. [10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02360.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02360.x).
- Grenfell, M., & Alnufaie, M. (2013). EFL writing apprehension: the macro or the micro?. *Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 2.
- Göçer, A. (2011). Türkçe öğretmen adaylarına göre yazma becerisinin ediniminde ve gelişiminde etkili olan unsurlar. *Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 10 (24), 195-237.
- Göğüş, B. (1978). *Orta dereceli okullarımızda Türkçe ve yazın eğitimi*. Ankara: Kadioğlu Matbaası.
- Griffiths, C. (2004). Language learning strategies: theory and research. *Occasional Paper*, 1, February, 1-25.
- Gulcat, Z., & Ozagac, O. (2004). Correcting and giving feedback to writing. Retrieved December 12, 2008 from <http://www.buowl.boun.edu.tr/teachers>.
- Gunning, G. T. (1996). *Creating reading instruction for all children*. Needham Heights: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gupta, A. F. (2006). *Standard English in the world*. London: Continuum.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The Practice of English language teaching*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hashemnezhad, H. (2012). The Effects of processing instruction and traditional instruction on Iranian EFL learners' writing ability. *English Language Teaching*, 5, 125-135. [10,5539/elt.v5n11p125](https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n11p125).
- Hassan, M. K. & Akhan, M. M. (2010). Approaches to writing in EFL/ESL context: balancing product and process in writing class at tertiary level. *Journal of NELTA*, 15, (1), December, 77-88.
- Hedge T. (2005). *Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University 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.
- Hettich, R. (1994). *Writing apprehension: A critique*. Doctoral Dissertation. Purdue University, USA
- Horwitz, E. K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 112-126
- Horwitz, E. K., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- Hou, A. Y. (2011). Quality assurance at a distance: international accreditation in Taiwan higher education. *High Education*, 61, 179-191
- Hu, G. W., & Chen, B. (2007). A protocol-based study of university-level Chinese EFL learners' writing strategies. *English Australia Journal*, 23(2), 37-35.
- Huwari, I. F., & Aziz, N. H. A. (2011). Writing apprehension in English among Jordanian graduate students at Universiti Utara Malaysia. *Academic Research International*, 1(2), 190-198. Retrieved from [http://www.savap.org.pk/journals/ARInt./Vol.1\(2\)/2011\(1.2-16\).pdf](http://www.savap.org.pk/journals/ARInt./Vol.1(2)/2011(1.2-16).pdf)

- Hyland, K. (2002). Genre: Language, context and literacy. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 113 - 135. 10.1017/S0267190502000065.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harmer, J. (1998). *How to teach English: An introduction to the practice of English language teaching*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Johnsen, R. B., & Christensen, L. (2004). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, mixed research approaches*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Kaçar, I. G., & Zengin, B. (2009). İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenlerin dil öğrenme ile ilgili inançları, öğrenme yöntemleri, dil öğrenme amaçları ve öncelikleri arasındaki ilişki: Öğrenci boyutu. *Journal of Language Linguistic Studies*, 5(1), 55-89.
- Karim S.M., & Latif M. (2018). Writing strategy instruction to improve writing performances of Banglashi EFL learners. A case study. *Jornal of Socail Sciences and Humanities*, Vol. 15, No.4 (2018), 126-136
- Karim, S., Forouhar, M., & Nasrin, S. (2013). From EFL classroom into the mainstream: A socio-cultural investigation of speaking anxiety among female EFL learners. *International Journal of Society, Culture and Language* 2329-2210
- Kasper, L (1997). Assessing the metacognitive growth of ESL student writers. *TESL-EJ*, 3 (1).
- Kasuya, E. (2001). Mann-Whitney U test when variances are unequal. *Animal Behavior*, 61, 1247-1249
- Keshavarz, M., & Mobarra, M. (2003). The effects of simplification and elaboration reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Retrieved October, 24, 2010 from. <http://www.Sid.ir>
- Khosravi, M., Ghoorchaei, B., & Mofrad, A. (2017). The relationship between writing strategies, self-efficacy and writing ability: A Case of Iranian EFL students. *International Journal of English Language and Translation Studies*. PP:96-2012
- Kim, Y., & Kim, J. (2005). Teaching Korean university writing class: balancing the process and the genre approach. *Asian EFL Journal Online*, Volume 7, Issue. 2
- Kostić-Bobanović, M. (2016). Investigation of university students' EFL writing apprehension: A longitudinal study in Croatia. *Review of Innovation and Competitiveness*. 2(1), 5-17.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second sanguage learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press
- Kroll, B. (2001). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. United States: Heinle and Heinle.
- Latif, M. M. (2009). *Egyptian EFL student teachers' writing processes and products: The role of linguistic knowledge and writing affect*. Unpublished Doctora Thesis. University of Essex
- Leki, I. (2002). *Academic writing: Exploring processes and strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Leki, I. (1995). Coping strategies of ESL students in writing tasks across the curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 235–260. Retrieved December 10, 2016, <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3587624>



- MacIntyre, P., & Gardner, R.C. (1991). Investigating language class anxiety using focused essay technique. *The Modern Language Journal*. 75(3), 296-304.
- Manchon, R. (2001). Trends in the conceptualization of second language composing strategies: A critical analysis. *International Journal of English Studies*. 1(2), 47-70.
- Matthews, P. H. (2010). Factors influencing self-efficacy judgments of university students in foreign language tutoring. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(4), 618–635.
- Maturanec, I. (2015). *Foreign language anxiety: Interaction with gender, length study and self-perception of competence*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb
- McLeod, S. (1987). Some thoughts about feelings: The affective domain and the writing process. *College Composition and Communication*, Vol. 38, No. 4, pp. 426-435
- MEB (2013). *İlköğretim İngilizce dersi (5, 6, 7, 8. Sınıflar) öğretim programı*. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, Talim Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı, Ankara: MEB Yayınları.
- Meyer, S. W. (2015). *A Study of adult language learning strategies used by full-time part-time graduate English majors in China*. Unpublished Doctora Thesis. University of Minnesota, USA
- Mohite, M. (2014). *An Investigation into the English language writing strategies used by Polish EFL secondary school learners*. MA TESOL dissertation, London Metropolitan University: London.
- 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(4), 811-817
- Muñoz C. (2006). *Age and the rate of foreign language learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mutar, Q. M., & Nimehchisalem, V. (2017). The effect of gender and proficiency level on writing strategy use among Iraqi high school students. *Arab World English Journal*, 8 (2). DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol8no2.12>
- Na, S., & Yoon, H. (2015). *Effects of in-class and out-of-class writing assignments L2 writing strategy use and writing quality*. Asia-Pacific Edu Res. De La Salle University. doi10.1007/s40299-015-0250-5
- Nemat T. A. R., & Rajaei, M. (2016). The effect of metacognitive and cognitive writing strategies on Iranian elementary learners' writing achievement. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, 6(3), 216-229.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, M. P., & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning*, 51(4), 719-758.
- Nooreiny, M., & Mazlin, M. (2013). Writing strategies used by ESL upper secondary school students. *International Education Studies; Vol. 6, No. 4; 2013*
- Norton, B., & K. Toohey (2004). *Critical pedagogies and language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Onozawa, C. (2010). A study of the process writing approach: A suggestion for an eclectic writing approach. *Proceedings of Kyoai Gakuen College, Japan*, 10, 153-163.
- Oshima, A., & Hogue, A. (1991). *Writing academic English*. New York: Addison Wesley Publishing Company
- Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: a synthesis of studies with implications for strategy training. *System*, (17)2, 235–247.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle
- Özgür, S. T. (2003). *Use of language learning strategies in relation to student characteristics in Başkent University*. Unpublished MA Thesis, Başkent University, Ankara
- Öztürk, E. (2012). Foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native teachers of English: A sample from Turkey. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 6/3. 54-70.
- Paltridge, B. (2001). *Genre and the language learning classroom*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Pasand, P.G., & Haghi, E.B. (2013). Process-product approach to writing: the effect model essays on EFL learners' writing accuracy. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*. 2 (1), 75-79.
- Perl, S. (1994). *Landmark essays on writing process*. CA: Hermagoras Press.
- Petekçioğlu, E. N. (2011). *Suggested writing activities for primary school students considering their cognitive developments*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Ondokuzmayıs University. Samsun
- Petrić, B., & Czarl, B. (2003). Validating a writing strategy questionnaire. *System*, 31, 187–215. doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00020-4
- Pitnoee, R., Modaberi, A., & Ardestani, M. (2017). The effect of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on content of the Iranian intermiate EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Language Teacginh and Research*. Vol 8. no 3.
- Pritchard, R. J., & Honeycutt, R. L. (2006). *Process writing*. New York: Guilford Press
- Raimes, A. (1991). 'Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing'. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 407-430.
- Razak, A. N., & Yassin, A. (2017). Investigating foreign language learning anxiety among Yemeni university EFL learners: A *Theoretical Framework Development*. DOI:[10.5539/elt.v11n10p38](https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n10p38)
- Reeves, L. L. (1997). Minimizing writing apprehension in the learner-centered classroom. *English Journal*, 86(6): 38-45.
- Riazi, A. (1997). Acquiring disciplinary literacy: A social-cognitive analysis of text production and learning among Iranian graduate students of education. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6(2), 105-137.
- Rodrigues, R. J. (1985). Moving away from writing-process worship. *English Journal*, 74, 24-27.
- Rodríguez, Y., Delgado, V. & Colón, J. M. (2009). Foreign language writing anxiety among pre-service EFL teachers. *Lenguas Modernas*, 21–31.
- Rogers, R. J. (2010). Incorporating meta-cognitive strategy training in ESP writing instruction: English for lawyers. *English Language Teaching*, 3(4), December, 3-9.

- Rubin, J. (1975). What the “Good language learner” can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51.
- Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 118–131.
- Rubin, J. (1987). *Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology*. In A. L. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning*, 15-30. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Rusinovci, X. (2015). Teaching writing through process-genre based approach. *US-China Education Review*, 5(10), 699-705.
- Sadi, F., & Othman, J. (2012). An investigation into writing strategies of Iranian EFL undergraduate learners. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 18(8): 1148-1157.
- Sadiku, L. M. (2015). The importance of four skills reading, speaking, writing, listening in a lesson hour. *European Journal of Language and Literature Studies*, 1(1), 29 -31
- Santoro, D. A. (2011). Good teaching in difficult times: Demoralization in the pursuit of good work. *American Journal of Education*, 118(1), 1- 23.
- Sasaki, M. (2000). Toward an empirical model of EFL writing processes: An exploratory study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(3), 259-291.
- Sawalha, S., M. A., Chow, T., & Foo, T. V. (2012). The effects of writing apprehension in English on the writing process of Jordanian EFL students at Yarmouk University. *International Interdisciplinary Journal of Education*, 1 (1), 6-14.
- Seow, A. (2002). *The writing process and process writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shauglmesy, M. (1977). *Errors and expectations*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Shawish, J., & Atea, M. (2010). An investigation of Palestinian EFL majors’ writing apprehension causes and remedies. Proceedings of the First National Conference on: Improving TEFL Methods & Practices at Palestinian Universities Retrieved April.12, 2012 from [http://www.gov.edu/english/conferences/firstNational.Conferences/pdfFile s/drJaber DrMohammad.pdf](http://www.gov.edu/english/conferences/firstNational.Conferences/pdfFile%20s/drJaber%20DrMohammad.pdf)
- Sharon L., & Merrill S. (1991). Secondary level immersion French skills: A possible plateau effect. In L. Malavé & G. Duquette (eds.), *language, culture and cognition: A Collection of Studies in First and Second Language Acquisition*, 250–265.
- Sheir, A., Zahran, F. A., & Koura, A. A. (2007). The effectiveness of process writing approach in developing EFL performance of ESP collegestudents. *Educational Sciences Journal* 2. (34)
- Shih, S. C. (2005). *A study of junior high school students' perceptions of writing instruction and their writing performance*. Unpublished M. A. Thesis. National Chung Cheng University, Taiwan.
- Sim J. (2005). *The kappa statistic in reliability studies: use, interpretation, and sample size requirements*. Physical Therapy.
- Silva, T. (1990). *Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues and directions in ESL*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, M. W. (1984). *Reducing writing apprehension*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English

- Sommers, N. (1980). "Revision strategies of student writers and experienced adult writers." *College Composition and Communication* 31.4 (1980): 378-88.
- Soltani, A., & Kheirzadeh, S. (2017). Exploring EFL students' use of writing strategies and their attitudes towards reading-to-write and writing-only tasks. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(2), 535-560
- Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual or the state-trait anxiety inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press
- Steele, V. (2004). *Product and process writing*. Retrieved on 5th Sept. 2010 from [http://www.englishonline.org.cn/en/teachers/workshops/teaching\\_writing/teaching-tips/product-process](http://www.englishonline.org.cn/en/teachers/workshops/teaching_writing/teaching-tips/product-process)
- Tabanlıoğlu, S. (2003). *The relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies of pre-intermediate EAP students*. Unpublished Master Thesis, Middle East Technical University.
- Takou, E. (2007). *The word processor as an aid for integrating process writing in young learner EFL classroom*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Hellenic Open University: Patras.
- Tangpermpoon, T. (2008). Integrated approaches to improve students writing skills for English major students. *ABAC Journal*. 28(2). 1-9.
- Teichman, M., & Poris, M. (1989). Initial effects of word processing on writing quality and writing anxiety of freshman writers. *Computers and the Humanities*, 23(2), 93-103.
- Tighe, M. A. (1987). Reducing writing apprehension in English classes. (Eric DocumentED281196). Retrieved April 2018 from <https://files.eric.gov/fulltext/ED281196.pdf>
- Tompkins, G. E. (1990). *Teaching writing: Balancing process and product*. Columbus: Merrill.
- Topuzkanamış, E. (2014). Yazma stratejileri öğretiminin Türkçe öğretmenliği birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yazma başarısına etkisi. *Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim Dergisi* Sayı: 3/2 2014 s. 274-290
- Tribble, C. (1996). *Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tseng, V., & Seidman, E. (2011). A systems framework for understanding social settings. *American Journal of Community Psychology*. 39. 217-28,1007/s10464-007-9101-8.
- Tsiriou, I. K., Vassilaki, E., Spantidakis, I., & Stavrou, N. A. (2017). The examination of the effects of writing strategy-based procedural facilitative environments on students' English foreign language writing anxiety levels. *Frontiers in psychology*, 7, 1-14. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2016.02074
- Ülper, H. (2008). *Bilişsel süreç modeline göre hazırlanan yazma öğretimi programının öğrenci başarısına etkisi*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Ankara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Volante, L., & Fazio, X. (2007). Exploring teacher candidates' assessment literacy: Implications for teacher education reform and professional development. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 30(3), 749-770.
- Weinstein, C. E., Husman, J., & Dierking, D. R. (2000). *Self-regulation interventions with a focus on learning strategies*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Wenden, A., & Joan R. (1987). *Learning strategies in language learning*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

- Wenden, A. L. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy*. New York: Prentice-Hall
- Widodo, H. P. (2006). Cooperative writing. *Guidelines*, 28(1), 27-32.
- Williams, J. (2012). The potential role(s) of writing in second language development. *Journal of Second Language Writing* (21) 321–331
- Wischgoll, A. (2016). Combined training of one cognitive and one metacognitive strategy improves academic writing skills. *Front. Psychol.* 7:187. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00187
- Wong, M. S. L. (2005). Language learning strategies and language self-efficacy: Investigating the relationship in Malaysia. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 36(3), 245-269.
- Woodrow, L. (2005). 'The challenge of measuring language learning strategies'. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 38(1), 90-98.
- Wu, K. (2010). The relationship between language learners' anxiety and learning strategy in the CLT classrooms. *International Education Studies*, 3(1), 174-191.
- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process writing*. Harlow: Longman.
- Yaman, H. (2010). Türk öğrencilerin yazma kaygısı: ölçek geliştirme ve çeşitli değişkenler açısından yordama çalışması. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 2(1), 267-289.
- Yancey, K. (2009). Writing by any other name. *Principal Leadership*. 10 (1) 26-29.
- Yang, N. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategies. *System*. 27, 515-535.
- Yapıcı, B. (2009). *Writing strategy preferences of undergraduate English as a foreign language teacher trainees at Hacettepe University*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Yvonne, J., & Gurnam K. (2013). Relationship between anxiety, attitude and motivation of tertiary students in learning English as a second language. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 90 ( 2013 ) 114 – 123
- Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (1), 79-101
- Zhang, Y. H. (2008). Dynamic assessment mode for online EFL Writing. *Foreign Language World*, (4), 56-62
- Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and second/foreign language learning revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*, 1, (1), 1-12.
- Zimmerman, B., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31, (4), Winter, 845-862.
- Zorbaz, K. Z. (2010). *İlköğretim okulu öğrencilerinin yazma kaygı ve tutukluğunun yazılı anlatım becerileriyle ilişkisi*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Zorbaz, K. Z., & Özbay, M. (2011). Daly ve Miller'in yazma kaygısı ölçeğinin Türkçeye uyarlanması. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 8(16), 33-48. Retrieved from <http://sbed.mku.edu.tr/article/view/1038000226/1038000222>
- Zsigmond, I. (2015). Writing strategies for fostering reading comprehension. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 180, 1698 – 1703

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1

#### Writing Comprehension Test

By: Petekçioğlu (2011)

##### A. Listen to your teacher and write down the words.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ 2. \_\_\_\_\_ 3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_ 5. \_\_\_\_\_

##### B. Put the correct punctuation mark.

Some of the common emotions are fear( ) anger( ) surprise and happiness( )

Psychologists have been interested in the study of emotions since the 1960s( )

Emotion has important effects on mental functions including memory and attention( )

Recently( ) Daniel Goleman has introduced the concept of emotional intelligence( )

His book

( ) Emotional Intelligence( ) has been a bestseller in Europe for a long time( )

##### C. Combine the words to make sentences.

1. come/she/will/she/to/because/./school/is/not/ill/,  
\_\_\_\_\_

2. you/in/evening/?/where/go/will/the  
\_\_\_\_\_

3. to/./İstanbul/you/see/./the Topkapı Palace/if/will/go/you  
\_\_\_\_\_

4. a/has/friend/of/good/sense/true/a/humour/./

---

5. sometimes/they/. /TV/watch

---

**D. Write the sentences with the given words.**

1. I am good at playing tennis. (she)

---

2. I was at the supermarket. (we)

---

3. We were at the cinema yesterday.(two days ago)

---

4. She drank two glasses of milk. (-)

---

5. I was cooking a delicious meal. (eat pizza)

---

**E. Write 5 sentences about William using “good at” and “bad at”**

William hip hop (√), classical music (x)

football (√), tennis (x)

cooking (x) , fishing(√)

driving a car (√), riding a horse (x)

1.....

2.....

3.....

4.....

5.....

**F. What do the underlined words refer to?**

Ali used to live in a small village. When he was twenty, he left home and went to England. He worked there for five years and came back to visit his family. When he went to England, he didn't have much money, but he worked hard and made a lot of money. So, he came in an expensive car with presents for them. When Ali left for England, his father did most of the work in the farm. He built a new house, planted a lot of trees and made it a very good place. They didn't have water in the house, so they used to get it from a well in the garden. His brother's school was in the city, so he used to walk there everyday. When Ali came back, their life became better.

1. What does "there" refer to?  
a. Turkey b. England c. village d. farm
  
2. What does "his" refer to?  
a. my b. Ali's c. her d. I
  
3. What does "them" refer to?  
a. cousins b. his family c. villagers d. animals
  
4. What does "he" refer to?  
a. Ali b. brother c. father d. uncle
  
5. What does "there" refer to?  
a. house b. village c. town d. City

**G. Which words should be capitalized? If there is not any, put a cross(x)**

one summer, the sixteen-year old mike got a holiday job at the local museum.

---

when he started the job, he was studying history at school.

---



it was mrs. gilbertson's beautiful diamond necklace.

\_\_\_\_\_

a few days later, mike found a necklace in the museum.

\_\_\_\_\_

he thought that "i must prove my innocence".

\_\_\_\_\_

**H. Write a similar paragraph using the information given.**

My best friend Alex, is a doctor. He was born in Liverpool in 1980, but lived in London. He has got blue eyes and fair hair. He is handsome. He is a generous person, because he always gives money to the poor people. He is a friendly person, so he has got a lot of friends.

NAME:	Jane
JOB:	Teacher
PLACE OF BIRTH:	Dublin
DATE OF BIRTH:	1983
LIVED:	Birmingham
PHYSICAL APPEARANCE:	Green eyes, blonde hair, beautiful
PERSONALITY:	Stingy, unfriendly

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**2ND PART OF THE ENGLISH WRITING COMPREHENSION TEST**

**1. Which punctuated sentence is correct?**

- a. Be careful. The road is wet?
- b. Be careful! The road is wet.
- c. Be careful? The road is wet!
- d. Be careful, The road is wet?

**2. Which sentence is punctuated correctly?**

- a. Whose coat is this? Is it yours or Jim's?

- b. Whose coat is this? Is it your's or Jim's?
- c. Who's coat is this? Is it your's or Jim's?
- d. Who's coat is this? Is it yours or Jim's?

**3. Which sentence is punctuated correctly?**

- a. Yes I would like to see the report and send it to you.
- b. Yes, I would like to see the report and send it, to you.
- c. Yes, I would like to see the report and send it to you.
- d. Yes, I would like to see the report, and send it to you.

*Place the punctuation marks for the questions 4. and 5.*

**4. It was a beautiful( ) big( ) old and Greek house( )**

- a)(;) (,) (,) b)(,) (,) (.) c)(,) (.) (!) d)(;) (;) (?)

**5. ( ) Excuse me( ) Was that the London train( ) ( )**

- a)(“) (!) (?) (“) b)(“) (?) (!) (“) c)(“) (;) (!) (.) d)(.) (,) (?) (.)

**6. Which of the phrases should not be hyphenated?**

- a. twenty-one students b. two-inch nails
- c. thirty-minute interview d. ten-foot rope

**7. Which underlined word should be capitalized?**

*“Last semester, I wrote my history report on the First World war.” My sister told me.*

- a. Semester b. History c. War d. Sister

**8. Which underlined word should be capitalized?**

*The Prime minister spoke at the meeting in the capital city.*

- a. Minister b. Meeting c. Capital d. City

**9. Which underlined word should not be capitalized?**

*Last thursday, my mother, my aunt sarah and I went to the museum to see an exhibit of african art.*

- a. Thursday b. Mother c. Aunt Sarah d. African

**10. Which words should be capitalized?**

*It is saturday morning uncle Bob is going to take jack to the zoo.*

a. saturday, uncle, jack b. saturday, morning, zoo

c. uncle, zoo, morning d. jack, uncle, zoo

**11. Which words should be capitalized?**

I- william a. I-II-IV-V

II- and b. II-III-V-VI

III- argentina c. I-III-V-VI

IV- at d. I-III-V-VI

V-england

V- april

*Put the adjectives and adverbs in their places properly for the questions 11. and 12.*

**12. She is a \_\_\_\_\_ driver. She drives the car \_\_\_\_\_.**

a. fastly/fast b. fast/fastly c. fast/fast d. fastly/fastly

**13. He always prepares the dishes \_\_\_\_\_. He is a \_\_\_\_\_ cook.**

a. carefully/careful b. careful/carefully c. carefully/carefully d. careful/careful

**14. The man got into the car \_\_\_\_\_, and started the engine \_\_\_\_\_.**

a. angry/quick b. angrily/quickly c. angrily/quick d. angry/quickly

**15. Ann sings this folk song \_\_\_\_\_.**

a. beautiful b. beautifuly c. beutifuly d. beautifully

**16. Which underlined pronoun is used incorrectly?**

a. Jerry and me want to go on a holiday.

b. Jim will bring his CD-player.

c. She and I will work together.

d. Why don't you let her come with us?

**17. Which underlined pronoun is used incorrectly?**

a. Sally will bring his sister to school.

b. I saw him in the garden yesterday.

c. Would you like to bring your jacket here?

d. She has given him car to Alex.

**18. Which underlined pronoun is used incorrectly?**

- a. I did this work by myself.
- b. They, themselves, played football.
- c. She is not completing the task by herself.
- d. We, ourselves, studied Maths.

**19. Which underlined pronoun is used incorrectly?**

- a. Mike saw her in the garden.
- b. They visited us in the evening.
- c. Charlie bit me, it hurts.
- d. You have just warned his.

**20. Which underlined word is used incorrectly?**

- a. Where are the forms we want?
- b. Which is the correct answer?
- c. Here is the chairs we would like to have.
- d. There are two people in the garden.

**Fill in the sentences.**

**21. \_\_\_\_\_ are the newspapers that \_\_\_\_\_ to be read?**

- a. wear/used b. wear/use c. where/used d. Where/use

**22. When your alarm clock \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ time to get up.**

- a. rings/it is b. ring/it c. ring/its d. rings/its

**23. Which of the underlined verbs is not written in the correct tense?**

- a. Last week, we went camping to that park.
- b. We walk several hours every day.
- c. Yesterday night, I slept in my sleeping bag.
- d. I couldn't go out for dinner tomorrow.

**24. Which is the correct plural form of the noun?**

*I saw a lot of \_\_\_\_\_ in the zoo.*

- a.monkeys b. monkey c. monkies d. Monkeyies

**Which is the correct plural form of the noun?**

*25. We visited many \_\_\_\_\_ in Italy last summer.*

- a. citys b. cities c.cityies d. City

*26. There was a \_\_\_\_\_ on the table, but there are a lot of \_\_\_\_\_ in the kitchen.*

a. knife/ knives b. knif/ knives c.knife/knivies d. knife/knifes

27. How many \_\_\_\_\_ are there in this classroom?

a. child b. childs c. children d. childrens

28. I have pulled out a \_\_\_\_\_, now I have 27 \_\_\_\_\_ in my mouth.

a.tooth/teeth b. tooth/toothes c. tooth/tooths d.tooth/tooth

**Circle the letters which are incorrect, if the sentence is true circle "No Error".**

29. The students think that they will complete the homework always every day at the

I II III

school. No error.

IV

a. I b. II c.III d.IV

30. The driver was driving the car so fastly that nobody could catch him. No Error

I II III IV

a.I b.II c.III d.IV

31. When alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone, he became the most

I II III

important person of the century. No Error

IV

a. I b. II c.III d.IV

32. His speech was such long that everybody at the meeting get bored easily. No

Error

I II III IV

a. I b.II c.III d.IV

33. Their wedding was better than my sister's wedding last year. No Error

I II III IV

a.I b.II c.III d.IV

**Put the right word into the blank.**

34. Mary \_\_\_\_\_ the delicious cake yesterday.

a. ate b. eight c. eat d. Aid

35. I always \_\_\_\_\_ a bread every day.

a. buy b. by c. bye d. bay

36. Baklava is a traditional Turkish \_\_\_\_\_.

a. desert b. dessert c. tassel d. deserted

37. Turn \_\_\_\_\_ the lights, please.

a. of b. off c. ov d. odd

38. A giraffe is taller \_\_\_\_\_ a horse.

a. den b. than c. dan d. then

39. I would like \_\_\_\_\_ go out at night.

a. too b. to c. two d. the

40. Nice to meet you, \_\_\_\_\_.

a. to b. two c. the d. too

41. \_\_\_\_\_ are the cats?

a. Were b. Wear c. Where d. When

42. You should turn left, and the bank is on the \_\_\_\_\_.

a. wright b. write c. right d. rite

43. Jane washed the dishes, \_\_\_\_\_ she did not put them in their places.

a. and b. so c. because d. but

44. Tim opens the door, \_\_\_\_\_ takes off his shoes.

a. so b. and c. but d. because

45. She went to the hospital, \_\_\_\_\_ she was very ill.

a. but b. because c. and d. so

46. Jane studied hard for the exams, \_\_\_\_\_ she passed them all.

a. because b. and c. so d. But

**Exclude the irrelevant sentence in the paragraph.**

47. George was born in Dublin. (I) His father was a carpenter and had little money.

(II) He liked to eat the apple pie. (III) His father sent him to school, but he couldn't go to university. (IV) But, he read a lot of books and became a famous writer.

a) I b) II c) III d) IV

48. Alexander Graham Bell was an inventor. (I) He lived in the 19th century. (II)

Telephone was an important invention for people. (III) He invented the telephone in 1876. (IV) Alexander Graham Bell died in 1922 in Canada.

a) I b) II c) III d) IV

49. Turkey takes place both in Asia and Europe. (I)It has seven regions which are; Black Sea, Eagean, Mediterreanean, Marmara, Central , East and Southeast Anatolia. (II)Its capital city is Ankara and Ġstanbul is the most crowded one. (III)I went to Turkey last year for summer holiday. (IV) Its population is over 60 million.

a)I b)II c)III d)IV

50. Alice is a 14-year-old girl. (I) She has long, black hair and green eyes. (II) She is 1. 65 cm, in other words she is of medium height. (III) She is shy but friendly. (IV) She is not very fat; she is of medium weight, I can say.

a. I b.II c.III d.IV



## Appendix 2

### Yazma Kaygısı Anketi (Daly and Miller, 1975)

By: Zorbaz ve Özbay (2011)

İsim: Soyisim:

Cinsiyetiniz: Erkek ( ) Kız ( )

Aşağıda yazma ile ilgili 26 tane cümle ve her cümlenin karşısında bu cümlede anlatılanlara ne düzeyde katıldığınızı belirlemeye yönelik 5 ifade yer almaktadır. Sizden istenen, size en çok uyan maddeye işaret koymanızdır. Vereceğiniz cevaplar hiçbir şekilde not olarak değerlendirilmeyecektir. Bu cümlelerde doğru ya da yanlış cevap diye bir şey yoktur. Bunun için önemli olan sizin samimi ve dürüst cevaplar vermenizdir.

Bazıları tekrar bile olsa lütfen cevapsız madde bırakmayınız. Teşekkür ederim.

Madde	Tamamen katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1. Yazmaktan kaçınıyorum.					
2. Yazdıklarımın değerlendirilmesinden korkmam. Yazdıklarımın değerlendirilmesi konusunda bir endişem yoktur. (Değiştirilmiş madde.)					
3. Düşüncelerimi yazıya dökmeyi dört gözle beklerim.					
4. Yazdıklarımın değerlendirileceğini düşününce yazmaktan korkarım.					
5. Yazma dersi almak benim için çok korkutucu bir tecrübedir. Yazma etkinliklerine katılmak benim için çok korkutucu bir tecrübedir. (Değiştirilmiş madde.)					
6. Kompozisyonu teslim etmek kendimi iyi hissetmemi sağlar.					
7. Kompozisyon yazmaya başladığımda aklımdan her şey silinmiş gibi olur.					
8. Düşünceleri yazarak ifade etmek zaman israfı gibi görünüyor.					
9. Değerlendirilmesi ve yayımlanması için dergilere yazımı göndermek hoşuma gidiyor.					
10. Düşüncelerimi kâğıda dökmeyi severim.					
11. Düşüncelerimi açık bir şekilde yazarak ifade etme yeteneğime güveniyorum.					
12. Yazdıklarımı arkadaşlarıma okutmak hoşuma gider.					



13. Yazma konusunda gerginim.					
14. İnsanlar yazdıklarımın hoşlanıp görünüyorlar.					
15. Yazmaktan zevk alıyorum.					
16. Düşüncelerimi hiçbir zaman açık bir şekilde yazıya dökemediğimi düşünüyorum.					
17. Yazmak çok eğlencelidir.					
18. Daha derse girmeden kompozisyon dersinde başarısız olacağımı düşünüyorum. Daha derse girmeden kompozisyon yazmada başarısız olacağımı düşünüyorum. (Değiştirilmiş madde.)					
19. Düşüncelerimi kâğıt üzerinde görmeyi seviyorum.					
20. Yazdıklarımı başkalarıyla tartışmak eğlenceli bir iştir.					
21. Yazma dersinde, düşüncelerimi düzenlerken çok sıkıntılı anlar yaşıyorum. Yazma etkinliklerinde, düşüncelerimi düzenlerken çok sıkıntılı anlar yaşıyorum. (Değiştirilmiş madde.)					
22. Bir kompozisyonu teslim ettiğimde başarısız olacağımı biliyorum.					
23. İyi kompozisyonlar yazmak benim için çok kolaydır.					
24. Diğer insanlar kadar iyi yazdığımı düşünmüyorum. Diğer arkadaşlarım kadar iyi yazdığımı düşünmüyorum. (Değiştirilmiş madde.)					
25. Kompozisyonlarımın değerlendirilmesinden hoşlanmam.					
26. Yazılı anlatımda iyi değilim.					

## Appendix 3

### Pre-test Essay Task

By: Researcher

#### PROFICIENCY PRACTICE

Duration: 50 minutes

WRITING (20 points)

*Write an essay of 250 - 300 words.. Your essay must have an introduction / a clear thesis statement (with controlling idea/s), at least 2 body paragraphs with relevant supporting ideas and a conclusion. Your ideas should be organized properly.*

- 1) Is technology useful or no?**
- 2) What should we do to be successful in our lives?**
- 3) Living in a village or city?**

You can choose one of these topics.

## Appendix 4

### Post-test Essay Task

By: Researcher

#### PROFICIENCY PRACTICE

Duration: 50 minutes

WRITING (20 points)

*Write an essay of 250 - 300 words.. Your essay must have an introduction / a clear thesis statement (with controlling idea/s), at least 2 body paragraphs with relevant supporting ideas and a conclusion. Your ideas should be organized properly.*

- 1) What are the advantages and disadvantages of smart phones?**
- 2) Being a child or adult, which one do you prefer?**
- 3) Does money bring happiness?**

You can choose one of these topics.

## Appendix 5

### Essay Grading Criteria

By: Akpınar' Study (2007)

#### I. Structure and Content

Points are to be awarded for the following:

##### 1. Introduction: 3 points

*The introduction should include:*

- **background information on the topic; the order of ideas must be from general to specific.(1 point)**
- **an effective thesis statement with a controlling idea-listing the subtopics (2 points)**

(in opinion and cause or effect type essays, the controlling ideas-subtopics-must be explicitly stated.)

##### 2. Body: 6 points

*The body should have at least two paragraphs (2x3= 6 points). Each paragraph should include:*

- **a topic sentence which is consistent with the thesis statement (1 point)**
- **two supporting ideas related to the topic sentence with at least one supporting detail or an example (2 points).**

##### 3. Conclusion: 1 point

*The conclusion should include:*

- **a restatement of the main idea in the thesis statement**
- **a final thought/comment**

#### II. Use of English: 10 points

Points are to be awarded for the following:

##### 1. Grammar: 5 points

- **complete sentences as opposed to fragments or run-on-sentences**
- **accurate use of tenses**
- **subject/verb agreement**
- **a complex and/or compound sentences as opposed to simple sentences**
- **accurate use of structures e.g. accurate use of participles/reduced clauses, time adverbial clauses, ‘if clause’ conditionals, etc.**
- **in cause/effect essays, accurate use of cause-effect specific structures**
- **appropriate use of modal verbs**
- **punctuation**

2. Vocabulary: 5 points

- **appropriate use of connectors (e.g. Moreover, although, nevertheless, etc)**
- **appropriate use of expressions (e.g. As far as I’m concerned, as a matter of fact, etc.)**
- **a wide range of vocabulary related to the topic ( in cause/effect essays, vocabulary, connectors and transition signals relevant to cause-effect)**
- **spelling**

**IMPORTANT**

- **If parts of the essays are off topic, up to 10 points are to be deducted depending on the degree of the problem.**
- **If the essay is on a totally different topic, or if it is not on one of the assigned topics, it receives a mark of zero (0).**

**3 points will be deducted if the essay is clearly under 250 words or over 300**

## Appendix 6

### Research Consent



T.C.  
SİVAS VALİLİĞİ  
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 92255297-605.01-E.10241772  
Konu : Araştırma İzni  
(Adem DEMİR)

25.05.2018

#### CUMHURİYET ÜNİVERSİTESİ ORTAOKULU MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

- İlgi : a) Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Ortaokulu Müdürlüğü'nün 03/05/2018 tarihli ve 92255297-605.01-E.10201862 yazısı.  
b) Valilik Makamının 11/05/2018 tarihli ve 92255297-605.01-E.9326647 sayılı onayı.  
c) Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğü'nün 22/08/2017 tarihli ve 35558626-10.06.01-E.12607291 sayılı 2017/25 no'lu genelgesi.

Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Adem DEMİR'in, "Anxiety (kaygı), Attitude (tutum) ve Praccess Writing (Süreçli Yazma) Anket ve Eğitim Metodu Uygulaması" konulu yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında, onaylı bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen veri toplama araçlarının, gönüllülük esas olmak kaydıyla okulunuzda anket ve uygulama çalışması yapması valilik makamının ilgi (b) onayı ile uygun görülmüş olup onay örneği yazımız ekinde gönderilmiştir.

Söz konusu araştırma çalışmasının bitiminde, araştırma yapan kişi tarafından sonuç raporunun bir örneğinin CD ortamında müdürlüğümüze gönderilmesi hususunda;

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Halil KURT  
Müdür a.  
Müdür Yardımcısı

Ek: İlgi (b) Onay Örneği (1 Sayfa)

Adres: Muhsin Yazıcıoğlu Bulvarı Merkez/ SİVAS  
Elektronik Ağ: <http://sivas.meb.gov.tr/>  
e-posta: [butce58@meb.gov.tr](mailto:butce58@meb.gov.tr)

Bilgi için: C.B.DUMAN  
Tel: 0 (346) 280 58 00  
Faks: 0 (346) 280 59 48

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <https://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden **cb27-541a-3002-a3e1-168d** kodu ile teyit edilebilir.

## Appendix 7

### Argumentative Essays

Should teens use smartphones?

A lot of new smartphones introduced in last ten years. They have a lot of abilities. Such as: face recognition, iris scanner, fingerprint scanners in screens. Smartphone operating systems improved a lot. They are useful too. You can pay your bills, you can call a Uber, you can use mobile banking apps. However should teenagers use smartphones.

Smartphones have disadvantages. Such as: we waste our time to use smartphones. Also we can have health problems. And they are too expensive for teenagers. If they use smartphones a lot their grades will be bad. Also they can expose bad content. And internet and social networks are dangerous (serial killers, scammers, stalkers) for teens. If they bring their phones to school this is bad for other students. Also they can have eye problems in this ages.

However teens can use smartphones because smartphones doesn't about bad sites also they have good sides: Such as studying our lessons online, taking online tests, learning new informations. They can learn new english words in some apps, they can learn coding. We can talk to our friends online. We can watch funny videos. And we can have fun

To sum up: I think teens use smartphones but they must use in selected times. I think if they use smartphones to study for lessons, their grades will be higher.

## Should teenagers use smart phones?

In There are a lot of smart phones in our life. In day phones are improved. Phones are started to using in every field. There are some advantage and disadvantage is phones

Firstly, phones easier our life. Get information. We have great time. Secondly we can communicate by phone. We can get information easily

However phones also disadvantages. Some of them causes disconnection among family. We can have health problems. It wastes our time. We can have distraction problems. Phones makes addiction.

To sum up, I think phones are helpful. Because we can reach information fastly. We have great time. We can talk to for relating. They makes our life easier.



## When the life is good?

Childhood or adult? We live both childhood and adult but which one is better?

1 firstly, children make a friend, play going go to school, Mother and fathers love children. They dont get tired. They image in future when the children. Only problem in school. but they go to the school to they take education. They are happy when the children

However, Adult must work, they must make money. Some people much work because they would like to have corieer. but they forget their, friends, family wives.

To sum up children and adult have bad sides and good sides. In my opinion childhood better than adult.

## When is The Life Nice?

People grow every day. People born, grow and die. Firstli they are children, secondly they are adult, finally they are old. All right, Which one is better, being children, being adult, being old?

When people are children, they are happy and relax everyday because they haven't got any problem and responsibility.

When, people are adult, they are stressfull everyday because they have got a lot of problems, a lot of responsibility and a lot of necessity.

When people are old, they always unhappy because they have got a lot of healty problem and they always ill. The live is to grow difficult for they.

Finally every age are nice but I think the childhood is the best. Because children is pure, they don't know evil.