

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

This study was designed to investigate writing strategies of the fourth year English major students at the United Rajabhat Institutes of Buddha Chinnaraj. In order to reduce the complexity of the related area of the study, it is necessary to study the background and procedures in learning strategies used for the writing skill. Following is a discussion on:

- Writing and the stages of writing
- The definition of learning strategies
- Classification of learning strategies
- Learning strategies used for the writing skill
- Learning strategies used by good learners
- Comparison of learning strategies used by good/poor writers
- Research on learning strategies in Thailand

Writing and the Stages of Writing

Writing is one of the most important language skills. The act of writing is an act of thought. Writing is used either as evidence of successful learning or as a means of learning. Because writing leads to a product that can be examined and reviewed immediately, it provides feedback to the teacher and

learners on what has been understood. It can also guide the process of understanding and organizing of ideas during reading or listening (Emig, 1971) cited in Richards (1990, p.100).

Writing will, therefore, continue to occupy a prominent role in the curriculum. Consequently, writing can play an important role in learning across academic subject areas.

Britton (1982) cited in Durst and Newell (1989, p. 375) has stressed the importance of students using language both oral and written to explore, organize and refine their ideas about themselves and their subject matter. He has also stressed the value of school writing activities not only in helping teachers evaluate what students construct but to present their own interpretations of subject matter. In addition, writing is one of the most disciplined ways of making meaning and one of the most effective methods we can use to monitor our own thinking. And writing helps people get important things done: thinking, exploring, relating and making connections.

Writing is a cognitively demanding process. Flower and Hayes cited in Farman et al. (1992, p. 551) described it as a "juggling act". It entails refinement of specialized skills associated with surface features(e.g. correct grammatical usage, spelling, appropriate punctuation and capitalization), organization of knowledge, attention to rhetorical requirements of a particular mode of discourse, and so forth.

Writing is not a natural activity. The act of writing does not occur as a linear event, rather it involves successive cycles of rehearsing, drafting, and revising (Long and Richards, 1987, p. 257). When writers were composing, they didn't always plan, write, and revise, but they followed a recursive pattern, often going back in their prose to previous words, sentences, or paragraphs. They returned to re-read, to remember, to add, to edit, or perhaps to recapture the momentum of their writing. For many writers, the process of putting words on paper was "two steps forward, one step back, "a process of ebb and flow as they write. For Zamel, (1987) writing is a process through which meaning is created. Therefore, important considerations are the importance of generating, formulating, and refining one's idea (p. 267).

✓ In conclusion, writing is not a stage-bound process but rather is interactive and idiosyncratic. It is purposeful, with content and context which are meaningful to the writer. ✓

In recent years language specialists have redefined writing. The table below is an abridged version of Janet Emig's helpful comparison of the polarities.

COMPARISON OF POLARITIES

Old/traditional view

Writing is a product to be
evaluated.

New/process view

Writing is a process to be
experienced.

There is one correct procedure
for writing.

There are many processes for
different situation, subjects,
audiences, authors.

Writing is taught rather than
learned

Writing is predominantly learned
rather than taught.

The process of writing is
essentially linear: planning
precedes writing and revision
follows drafting, etc.

Writing processes are varied and
recursive.

Writers must be taught automa-
tically, mastering small
parts and subskills before
attempting whole pieces of
writing.

Writers learn best from
attempting whole texts.

Writing can be done swiftly and
in order.

The rhythms and pace of writing
can be quite slow, since the
writer's actual task is to
create meaning.

Writing is a silent and
solitary activity.

Writing is essentially social
and collaborative.

(Murray, 1993, p. 344)

The Stages of the Writing Process

The writing process is divided into three stages: planning,

drafting and revising.

Planning

Planning is an orderly procedure that brings about a desired result. As the first stage in the writing process, planning is a series of strategies designed to find and formulate information in writing. When you begin a writing project, you need to discover what is possible, locate and explore a variety of subjects, and invent alternative ways to think and write about each subject. You need to consider all ideas, however mundane or unsettling to create and shape the substance of your text.

Drafting

Drafting is a procedure for executing a preliminary sketch. As the second stage in the writing process, drafting is a series of strategies designed to organize and develop a sustained piece of writing. Once planning has enabled you to identify several subjects and encouraged you to gather information on those subjects from different perspectives, you need to select one subject, organize your information into meaningful clusters, and then discover the links that connect those clusters.

Revising

Revising is an important procedure for work in process. As the third and final stage in writing revising is a series of strategies to reexamine and reevaluate the choices that have created a piece of writing. After you have completed your

preliminary draft, you need to stand back from your text and decide whether to embark on global revision- a complete re-creation of the world of your writing-or to begin local revision- a concerted effort to perfect the smaller elements in your writing.

✿ The Definitions of Learning Strategies

It is said that a teacher plays an important role in the teaching/learning process. According to Richards (1990, p. 42), successful learning is viewed as dependent upon the teacher's control and management of what takes place in the classroom. However, what the teacher does is only half of the picture. The other half concerns, what learners do to achieve successful learning or learning strategies. In the following discussion learning strategies and their classification given by researchers are presented. Rubin (1975, p. 43) in Freeman and Long (1991, p. 199) uses learning strategies to mean "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge."

A definition of "learning strategies" is offered by O'Malley et al. (1990, p. 1). He stated that learning strategies are special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of the information. He also added that learning strategies are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks, consequently, they may be represented through cognitive,

associative and autonomous stages of learning.

According to Tarone (1981) cited in O'Malley (1990, p. 42) learning strategies are an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language.

Furthermore, Rigney (1978) cited in Crokall and Rebecca (1990, p. 109) has defined the term "learning strategies" similarly to O'Malley as: "operations used by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage or retrieval of information."

Brown (1980, p. 83) has defined the word "strategies" as a particular method of approaching a problem or task, a mode of operation for achieving a particular end, a planned design for controlling and manipulating certain information. And he referred to learning strategy as a method for perceiving and storing particular items for later recall. Finally, he concluded that the strategies or the deliberate plans and routines used in learning, remembering and problem solving are the primary determinants of the learning outcome. Wenden (1985, p. 1) has defined the term "learner strategies" as the process of learners actually attending to learn and regulate the learning of a second language. These language learning behaviors have been called strategies.

As well, Oxford and Crookall (1989, p. 404) cited in Dhanarattigannon gave the definition of language learning strategies as "the behavior used by learners to move toward proficiency or competence in a second language."

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) cited in O'Malley (1990, p. 110) concluded that learning strategies have learning facilitation as a goal and are intentional on the part of the learner. The goal of strategy use is to affect the learner's motivational or affective state or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge. He also added that behavior and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process.

Willing (1987, pp. 278-279) cited in Richards (1990, p. 44) notes that strategies are essentially methods employed by the person for processing language information input in such a way as to gain control of it, thus enabling the assimilation of that information by the self. Strategies are hence viewed as ways of managing the complex information that the learner is receiving about the target language.

Learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system in which the learner contributes and affects learning directly. In addition, students who are taught to use strategies and are provided with sufficient practice in using them will learn more effectively.

Keefe (1979, p. 4) cited in Spolsky (1989, p. 109) defines learning strategy as cognitive, affective and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment.

In conclusion "learning strategies" means actions, behavior or techniques used by learners to achieve his purposes for learning English as a second language.

Classification of Learning Strategies

Learning strategies have been described and classified by many researchers. For example, Rubin (1981) cited in O'Malley (1990, p. 199) posed a classification scheme that subsumes learning strategies under two primary groupings and a number of subgroups as follows:

LEARNING STRATEGIES TAUGHT IN THE COGNITIVE ACADEMIC LANGUAGE


LEARNING APPROACH (CALLA)

metacognitive strategies


Advanced organization	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often skimming the text for the organizing principle.
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Advanced preparation	Rehearsing the language needed for oral or writing task.
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Organization planning	Planning the parts, sentence, and main ideas to be expressed orally or in writing.
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Selective attention	Attending to or scanning key words, phrases, linguistic markers, sentence types of information.
Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
Self-evaluation	Judging how well one has accomplished a learning task.
Self-management	Seeking or arranging the conditions that opportunities for additional language or content input and practice.
Cognitive strategies	
Resourcing	Using reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
Grouping	Classifying words, terminology, numbers or concepts according to their attributes.
Note taking	Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form.



Summarizing	Making a mental or written summary of information gained through listening or reading.
Deduction	Applying rules to understand or produce language or solve problems.
Imagery	Using visual images(either mental or actual) to understand and remember new information or to make a mental representation of a problem.
Auditory representation	Playing in back of one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or fact in order to assist comprehension and recall.
Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.
Transfer	Using what is already known about language to assist comprehension or production.
Inferencing	Using information in the text to guess meaning of new items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.

Social and affective strategies

Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rehearsing, examples, or verification.
Cooperation	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral written performance.
Self-talk	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.

Learning Strategies Used for the English Writing Skill

Studying learning strategies identified in the previous list, we find out that they can be broadly grouped into three categories; metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. Some modifications of the strategy definition were made to accommodate strategies for reading and writing as well as oral tasks in the foreign language. In other words, students use learning strategies with all four language skills(listening, speaking, reading and writing). There are a number of learning strategies involved in writing. Obviously many learning strategies are employed for writing both directly and indirectly such as advanced preparation, organizational planning,



Missing

They identify three cognitive strategies: (1) personal strategies, in which learners discover the different learning strategies that work for them; (2) risk taking, in which learners involve themselves actively in the language learning process; and (3) getting organized, in which learners organize their time and their materials. Personal strategies used for writing are collecting models of different types of writing (grouping, elaboration of knowledge about discourse) and keeping the audience in mind (organizational planning). Risk taking involved in writing is using known vocabulary and structures (organizational planning and self-evaluation); composing directly in the target language (self-evaluation and substitution and revising self-evaluation). Organizing resource is analyzing usefulness of available resources, including reference material, media, and human resources (resourcing, selective attention, self-evaluation, cooperation). Organizing materials is collecting and classifying materials by topic, grammatical pattern, or language skill (self-management and grouping). Organizing time is scheduling regular practice for each language skill, both alone and with another person (self-management and cooperation).

Organizational planning is planning the parts, sentences, and main ideas to be expressed orally or in writing. Gagne (1985; Scardamalia and Bereiter 1986) cited in O'Malley et al. (1990, p. 39) indicated that in writing, organization at both the

sentence and the text level is an important contributor to the successful communication of meaning and hence to the quality of the written product. At the sentence level, cohesive devices signal relationships within the sentence and refer back to previously mentioned ideas.

Similarly, writing, a production task elicited organizational planning strategies, such as planning to compose something, planning the total product at the discourse level, planning for goals, planning particular sentences, and planning to use specific known items (O'Malley 1990, p. 136). He also stressed that planning and monitoring are important strategies employed for writing. In the study on writing strategies of Spanish students, they greatly increased their strategies used between Spanish V and Spanish VI. Strategies showing the greatest increase were planning for the written product, monitoring the writing as it was taking place, cognitive strategies such as elaborating on personal and creative prior knowledge, deduction of grammar rules and substitution of alternative words or phrases.

Ellis (1986) cited in O'Malley (1990, p.42) divides strategies for language production into planning strategies which involve either semantic or linguistic simplification and correcting strategies which involve monitoring.

In summarizing, two types of planning are necessary; plan for combining and integrating ideas from the text and plan for

representing the content structure of the text.

O'Malley (1990) indicates that second language learners who use organizational planning with a writing task develop a general plan to compose a text, formulate a framework for the overall product at the discourse level, and then plan individual goals that will result in completion of particular sentences and other language items. As the product emerges, the students can revise some of the initial goals or revise the structure of the product, illustrating adaptability. Students may also develop contingency plans for alternative ways in which to formulate the product or to treat individual parts of the overall composition (p. 146).

Self-monitoring is checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking one's oral or written production while it is taking place. In writing, students monitor at different levels, as in monitoring at the word, phrase, or sentence level, and also monitor for style for their writing plan (O'Malley 1990, p. 136).

Krashen cited in Lightbown and Spada (1993, p. 27) has specified three conditions necessary for monitor use: sufficient time, focus on form, and knowing the rules. Thus, writing is more conducive to monitor use than in speaking.

Self-evaluation is judging how well one has accomplished a learning task. Students used self-evaluation to review their own performance in relation to their actual production and their own

ability, their strategy use and their language repertoire at the word, phrase, or concept level. In Dickinson's study, many learners developed informal self-assessment devices which they used to monitor their language progress... estimating their level in writing ability (1987, p. 146).

In cognitive theory, language production is seen as an active process of meaning construction and expression. Anderson (1985) cited in O'Malley (1990, p. 38) indicated that language production can be divided into three stages. The three stages of language production Anderson identifies are:

1. Construction, in which the speaker/writers selects communication goals and identifies appropriate meanings. In writing, this phase is termed planning and comprises the prewriting stage (Hayes and Flower 1980; Scardamalia and Bereiter 1986).
2. Transformation, in which language rules are applied to transform intended meanings into the form of the message. In writing, both composition and revision take place during this stage.
3. Execution, in which the message is expressed in its audible or observable form. In writing, this stage corresponds to the actual physical process of producing the text, whether handwritten, typed, or word-processed.

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Littlewood (1979) and Ellis cited in O'Malley (1990, p. 42)

have similarly divided the strategies into three stages; the first stage consists of planning, the second of articulating the language components of the plan, and the third the physical production of the utterance. They also indicate that language generators move back and forth between planning or construction stage and the articulation or transformation stage as they actively develop the meaning they wish to express through speech or writing.

สำนักหอสมุด

Summarizing skills are essential to academic success; they are required to produce study summaries, to complete various types of summary assignments and to complete tasks that call for the incorporation of source material in academic papers and presentations. Yet, summarizing is a highly complex, recursive reading-writing activity involving constraints that can impose an overwhelming cognitive load on students, thereby adversely affecting performance. Sarig cited in Kirkland (1991, p. 105) noticed that in summarizing a text they work back and forth between the text, the paper they were writing and the requirements of the assignment-rereading, rewriting and continually reflecting on and comparing aspects of those elements. Recursion is a complex cognitive operation that is linked to cognitive development. Sarig also conceptualized on the role of the metacognitive skill, the conscious awareness and control, of planning, assessment and

repair in the recursive process of writing an informative summary. In addition, Kirkland (1991, p. 112) found that the presence of planning activities was the best predictor of success for older elementary students in producing efficient summaries of texts. Adult university students should be able to utilize appropriate planning mechanisms.

Raimes (1985, p. 229) studied what experienced writers did as they wrote. She mentioned that they considered purpose and audience. They consulted their own background knowledge. As they wrote, they read back over what they had written. Contrary to what many textbooks advised, writers did not follow a neat sequence of planning, organizing writing, and then revising.

Murray (1980) cited in Richards (1990, p. 108) distinguished three stages in writing: rehearsing, drafting, and revising. Rehearsing, or prewriting, involves finding a topic; finding ideas about the topic; thinking about the topic; letting ideas interact, developing, and organizing themselves; and thinking about the audience and the purpose of the writing task. At this stage the writer may not know how many ideas or how much information will be used. Drafting involves getting ideas onto paper in rough form. The writer sketches out an idea, examines it, and follows it through for a while letting it follow its own course. What has been written serves to generate further ideas, plans, and goals. Thus the process of writing creates its own meanings. The writer

may also go back to the rehearsing phase, and alternate between the rehearsing and drafting phases. Revising involves evaluating what has been written and making deletions or additions as necessary, "to help the writing say what it intends to say (O'Malley, 1980, p. 5). However, as Raimes points out, revising can occur at any time in the composing process.

Transfer is using what is already known about language to assist comprehension or production. The studies of Edelsky 1982; Gaskill 1986 found out that one's language writing process transfers to or is reflected in, one's second language writing. Besides, using L1 when writing in L2 frequently concerns vocabulary and enables the L2 writers to sustain the composing process (e.g., Raimes 1985; Martin-Betan-Court 1986). L1 use is often an invention (e.g.; Lay 1982), and occasionally a stylistic strategy (e.g., Cumming 1987).

Cooperation is working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written performance. Student-group work and peer review of writing provide the students with an authentic audience with discussion that leads to discovery, and necessitates peer feedback. Murray (1990, p. 349) indicated that collaborative activities provide ideas for writing and guidance in revising drafting in process. The research strongly showed social activities integrated into the writing process such as prewriting

discussions, collaborative drafting, preediting groups, reading work aloud to the whole class or subgroups. Furthermore, Murray added that having one-to-one writing conferences with the teacher promoted student growth in writing.

Carey (p. 53) cited in Richards (1990, p.110) described how throughout the workshop, children selected topics to write about, initiated collaborative writing, and developed characteristic interaction patterns with other learners:

1. Topics came from experience at home and in school and from imitation of peers. "Cult" figures like Garfield and literacy forms like choose-your-own-adventure books provided models.
2. Writing together evolved from social talk and created a context for the composing process that offered multiple points of view, natural motivation, and minimized the need for direct teaching.
3. Two patterns of collaboration developed: expert/novice, novice/novice. Students used their strengths to help others or worked through composing problems together, alternating combat and negotiation. Collaboration took students through the writing process, without isolating stages or strategies.
4. The teachers role became that of adult writer with useful experience to share on request as part of collaboration.

The children's composing rhythms dictated the appropriate moment. In addition, a close relationship akin to reading together with young children developed between adult and child.

5. While the preferred mode was narrative, collaborators used techniques of explanation and persuasion to select appropriate material and story lines, or to resolve disputes.
6. Drawing was used extensively to find, explore, and revise ideas.
7. Revision meant reworking a familiar topic rather than redrafting the same piece. An essential part of revision was permission to abandon a piece or leave it unfinished without a sense of failure.
8. Within the limits of the workshop, participants gained confidence, explored the writing process and their own resources, and in at least one case improved mechanical proficiency.

Inferencing is using information in the text to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts. Inferencing on a written task included checking to see if an unknown word reminded the learner of a familiar English word, or trying to figure out meaning from context and monitoring. On a written task it included checking forms and correcting grammar errors and rewriting incorrect parts of assignments.

The more widely students read, the better they write. Murray (1993, p. 348) indicated that one of the least surprising findings from recent research on writing was the correlation between reading widely and well, and writing well. Students internalize vocabulary, sentence patterns, discourse types, even the underlying structures of whole genres of writing through the osmotic process of reading. Students who have opportunities to absorb those patterns learn in a very important way about how to write. In this sense, students unconsciously use a cognitive strategy, repetition. Repetition is imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal (O'Malley, 1990).

Learning Strategies Used by Good Language Learners

Learning strategies are used by good language learners to assist them in gaining command over required skills and are positively associated with language acquisition (O'Malley, 1985, p. 21). Besides, good language learners have a wide repertoire of learning strategies and use a series of strategies rather than a single one when engaged in a learning task. In general, more effective students used a greater variety of strategies and used them in ways that helped the students complete the language task successfully. Less effective students not only had fewer strategies in their repertoires they also frequently used strategies that were inappropriate to the task or that did not lead

to successful task completion.

Wenden observed that "ineffective learners are inactive learners". Their apparent inability to learn is in fact due to their not having one appropriate repertoire of learning strategies.

Good language learners use many different learning strategies often in quite intricate ways, to help them understand and remember new information whereas less effective learners have fewer strategies to apply and use them infrequently or inappropriately (O'Malley 1990, p.197).

Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) cited in O'Malley (1990, p. 48) suggested that monitoring is the key process that distinguishes good learners from poor learners.

It is assumed that once the strategies of good language learners are identified, they can be used by less successful learners to enable them to learn a foreign/second language more effectively (Hosenfeld, 1979 cited in Wenden and Rubin 1987, p. 16).

Good learners in Stern's study (1983) use major strategies which help them succeed in learning; an active planning strategy, an academic(explicit language strategy), a social learning strategy and an affective strategy (p. 411).

In conclusion, good learners use more strategies and use them better than poor learners. Therefore, it is assumed that good learners can think, select and use appropriate strategies for

writing as well.

Comparison of Learning Strategies Used by Good/Poor Writers

Researches on writing strategies yield differences between skilled and unskilled writers. It appears that unskilled writers cannot produce a good writing product owing to using inappropriate writing behaviors and processes when writing whereas a skilled one produces better-quality writing because they use more appropriate writing processes. Lapp cited in Richards (1990, p. 46) summarized some of the research findings on differences between skilled and unskilled writers with respect to rehearsing and prewriting (what a writer does before beginning writing), drafting and writing processes (how the writer actually composes a piece of writing), and revising behaviors (revision and corrections the writers make). In Lapp's study, it was evident that writing behaviors at each writing stage were entirely differently between skilled writers and unskilled writers. For rehearsing and pre-writing behaviors, skilled writers spent time thinking about the task and planning how they would approach it; gathered and organized information and had a variety of different strategies to help them, such as taking notes, reading, making lists. In contrast, unskilled writers spent little time on planning. They may started off confused about the task. Furthermore, they had few planning and organizing strategies available. For drafting and writing behaviors, skilled writers

used information and ideas derived from rehearsing to trigger writing and took time to let ideas develop. They also got ideas onto paper quickly and fluently. In addition, they have sufficient language resources available (e.g. grammar, vocabulary) to enable them to concentrate on meaning rather than form. They spent time reviewing what they wrote, to allow for what they had written to trigger new ideas and did most of their reviewing at the sentence or paragraph level. They knew how to use reviewing to solve composing problems. Then they used reviewing to trigger planning. Finally, they referred back to rehearsing data to maintain focus and to trigger further writing as well as being primarily concerned with higher levels of meaning. As for unskilled writers, they began the task immediately and referred to the task or topic to trigger writing. They had limited language resources available and therefore quickly become concerned with language matters. Besides they spent little time reviewing what they had produced including reviewing only short segments of text. They didn't use reviewing to solve composing problems and did not have access to rehearsing data. At last they were concerned primarily with vocabulary choice and sentence formation.

For reviewing behaviors, skilled writers not only made fewer formal changes at the surface level but used revisions successfully to clarify meanings. They made effective revisions which changed the direction and focus of the text. Furthermore

they revised at all levels(lexical, sentence, discourse) and then added, deleted, substituted, and reordered when revising. They reviewed and revised throughout the composing process and often paused for reviewing and revising during rewriting the first draft. Revising did not interfere with the progress, direction, and control of the writing process. They were not bothered by temporary confusions arising during the revising process. Finally they used the revision process to generate new content and trigger need for further revision. Differently from skilled writers, unskilled writers made many formal changes at the surface level. Revisions did not always clarify meanings. They did not make major revisions in the direction or focus of the text in addition to revising primary at lexical and sentence level. Besides they did not make effective use of additions, deletions, substitutions, and reordering and made most revisions only during writing the first draft. They did not pause for reviewing while copying the first draft. They were bothered by the confusion associated with revising, thus reducing the desire to revise. They used the revision process primarily to correct grammar, spelling, punctuation, vocabulary.

Cohen (1980) cited in Oxford (1985) listed six strategies used by successful language learners. The strategies used for writing were writing techniques such as focusing on simply getting ideas down on paper instead of trying for perfection right away;

purposefully using parallel structures and other means of enhancing cohesion; and writing multiple drafts.

Sommers (1978) cited in Connor and Farmer (p. 126) noted that inexperienced writers tended to revise at the lexical level only, and that they tended to adhere to rigid rules of style and usage regardless of appropriateness. Experienced writers, however, tended to revise at all levels (lexical, phrasal, sentential,) and were more likely to make efforts to "shape the argument" to fit the writer's purpose.

In summary good learners use writing strategies better and more appropriately than poor learners. Good learners perform their writing carefully, gradually and eagerly while poor learners think, plan, write and revise again and again. Finally good learners are willing to obtain language knowledge; grammar, vocabulary by themselves so that they use them to enhance their writing.

Related Research and Studies

This section is devoted to the presentation of related research and the studies which investigated learning strategies and writing. Pojason's study (1988) on the English language strategies of grade twelve students as related to achievement levels, compared the strategies used by students with high, medium and low English achievement. He found that the students at

different achievement levels indicated a moderate usage of English language learning strategies. In addition, the students at the high achievement level used the strategies more than students at the medium and low achievement levels. Dhanarattigannon (1990), like Pojason, investigated the language learning of good and poor first year college students and the extent to which these two groups used the English language learning strategies used in three learning situations: classroom behavior, individual learning behavior and interacting with others outside the classroom. The study indicated students with high achievement in English do use the English language learning strategies of good ESL learners more frequently than the low achievement students. However, neither of the two groups maximize the use of "good" English language learning strategies.

Nipikul (1995) investigated the effects of translation and direct composition on student writing proficiency and their attitudes toward the writing technique they received. She found that the English writing proficiency of the students of both groups was not significantly different. Moreover, the English writing proficiency in the area of content of students in the translation group was significantly higher than that in the direct writing group, while the writing proficiency in the area of vocabulary of students of the direct writing group was significantly higher than that in the translation group. In

summary, students of both groups neither showed positive nor negative attitudes toward the writing technique they received.

Jaikrienkrai (1991) studied the relationship between the abilities in English structure perception and the writing ability of grade twelve students. He found that the awareness of form class for the grade twelve students was at a very low level. The study also indicated that the English structure ability for the grade twelve students on overall English structure and on each of the eight English structures was at a very low level. In addition, the writing ability for the grade twelve students was at a low level. He concluded that structure ability is an important component in English writing ability.

Sondra Perl (1980, 24.) cited in Zamel (1987, 269.) found that even unskilled writers employ consistent and stable composing strategies which represent their attempts to discover meaning. Through the act of seeing their ideas on paper, students can reflect upon them and develop them further. She also found that writing was affected by the specific mode of discourse. Students wrote more and with greater fluency and satisfaction when their writing involved them personally, while they wrote with less facility when the writing was more objectified. She went on to study the writing strategies of more proficient writers and again observed the recursive nature of the writing process, that is, that writers go back in order to move forward.

Sommers (1980) cited in Zamel (1987, 269.), like Perl, studied the writing strategies of less experienced and more experienced writers. She found that less skilled writers revised in the most limited way; they were basically concerned with lexicon and teacher-generated rules and rarely modified ideas that had been already written down. While the unskilled writers in Perl's study (1980) seemed to understand that writing is a process that involves constant revision, it should be pointed out that they too were concerned almost constantly with form, usage, and grammar. Unlike these writers, the more experienced writers observed by Sommers viewed their writing from a more global perspective. In the process of discovering meaning, these experienced writers changed whole chunks of discourse, and each of these chunks represented a reordering of the whole. Sommers concluded that "It is a sense of writing as discovery- a repeat process of beginning over again, starting out new- that the less experienced students failed to have." Goldstein and Conrad (1990) who studied composition pedagogy suggested that student-teacher conferences play an important role in helping students become more effective writers. The paper reported the results of a study that examined the degree to which those characteristics were present in conferences between one teacher and each of three students. It dealt with the revisions discussed in the conferences and the role negotiation of meaning played in the success to which students

participated in the conferences and negotiated meaning. In addition, students who negotiate meaning, even when they actively participated in the conference, tended either not to make revisions or to make mechanical, sentence-level changes that often resulted in texts that were not qualitatively better than previous drafts. Cumming (1989) studied the relationship between writing expertise and second-language proficiency. Both factors accounted for large proportions of variance in the qualities of written texts and problem-solving behaviors in the second language. But the factors showed independent effects, suggesting they are psychologically distinct. Writing expertise proved to be related to: qualities of discourse organization and content in the compositions produced; attention to complex aspects of writing during decision making; problem-solving behaviors involving heuristic searches; and well-differentiated control strategies. Second-language proficiency proved to be an additive factor, enhancing the overall quality of writing produced, and interacting with the attention that participants devoted to aspects of their writing. But second-language proficiency did not visibly affect the processes of composing. In all analyses, more cognitively demanding argument and summary tasks produced significantly different behaviors from a less cognitively demanding letter task.

Raimes and College's study (1987) was designed to examine ESL student writers at different levels of instruction, to describe

their writing strategies as shown in think-aloud protocols, and to compare their composing behaviors with what they know about native speaker student writers. The study showed that L1 basic writers and L2 writers had many strategies in common, the main difference being that the L2 writers did not appear to be inhibited by attempts to correct their work. And the students in nonremedial courses concisely engaged in more interaction with the emerging texts. Moreover, there was little correspondence demonstrated among proficiency, writing ability, and the students' composing strategies. At last a specified purpose and audience had almost no observable effect on composing strategies.

In summary, much research has attempted to investigate learning strategies for English skills. As for the writing skill, quite a few researchers have as well studied different aspects of writing especially which strategies are used for writing to enable students to achieve success in writing. It is anticipated that the results of this investigation may suggest ways for teachers to improve student's writing ability, both good and poor writers.