CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter of the research "Effects of Self-Monitoring Writing Strategies Instruction on English Writing Ability of Pre-Cadets", the researcher explores the concept of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction on students' English writing ability. The literature first presents a general description of writing and approach to process writing. Second, the concept of learning strategies and self-monitoring writing strategies are illustrated as well as the previous research. Third, teaching writing strategies and teaching self-monitoring writing strategies are reviewed. Forth, the general description of paragraph writing and English writing ability are reviewed. Last, the controversial issues being raised of multiple drafts writing and self-monitoring writing strategies are reviewed.

Writing

Writing is a difficult skill because it involves the process of transferring ideas from writers to readers' thought. This skill is even more complicated if it is performed in another language. Many researches have defined the definition of "writing" in order to help writers recognize and perform better paragraphs and readers easily understand writer's opinion. The examples of researchers' definition of writing were as follows.

Byrne (1982) defined writing as coding of a message. While people translate their thought into language, they have to ensure what they write can be understood without any further help from others. The writers will then be able to communicate successfully with readers.

Thornton (1983) indicated that writing is a linguistic activity normally engaged in by an individual who is responding to a demand, and who is literate enough to translate into the written mode to make that response. In order to perform good writing paragraph, the audience will be recognized.

Calderonello and Edwards (1986) viewed writing as a recursive process which means a writer must often double back while writing, altering content, making changes in organization and wording, rethinking a text at every level in order to communicate and intention to the readers.

Sharples (1999) pointed that writing is a demanding mental activity, but some people appear to write without great effort. Nevertheless, most writing involves deliberate planning, requiring evaluation, and problem solving. With these, activities, writers need to work within the constraints of grammar, style, and topic.

Suwannasom (2001) referred to writing as combining sentences correctly according to structure and content. The result will lead to translation what writers want to share to readers. Also, writing is a process of thinking by collecting and organizing language usage.

According to the definitions of "writing" above, the researcher defines writing as the complex process, in which the writers try to combine and organize sentences into a paragraph in order to make readers understand. Additionally, the present research emphasized that writing was constrained by structure, content, and topic.

Approach to process writing

In writing, good writers start with planning, rearranging, deleting text, rereading, revising multiple drafts before they actually produce their finished document. Writing is then a creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well. Through this writing process, the teachers are expected to change their

roles from being passive, being someone who sets students a writing topic and receives the finished product for correction without any intervention in the writing process itself to a more active role by facilitating and guiding students to correct their mistakes by themselves. In addition, the teachers can initiate the process of peer editing and allowing their peers to help the students edit the writing task.

To help students successful in writing, teachers thus have to raise awareness of process writing. Allen and Mascolini (1997) and Sharples (1999) have shared the similar writing process. They describe three stages of the process of writing consisting of pre-writing, focusing ideas, and evaluating structuring and editing. These sub stages will be described in details as follows:

1. Pre-writing

The teacher needs to stimulate students' creativity to get them to think how to approach a writing topic. In this stage, the most important thing is the flow of ideas. It is not always necessary that students actually produce much written work. In case of much produced, then the teacher can contribute with advice on how to improve their initial ideas. The students in this stage are supposed to brainstorm their idea in order to analyze the audience, determine the purpose for their message, and think about the form of their messages. Then students have to plan to accomplish the purpose. However, the plan can be compared and discussed in groups before writing takes place.

2. Focusing ideas

During this stage, students are not supposed to write with the accuracy of their work or the organization. However, the most important feature is meaning. Hence, the students should concentrate on the content of the writing. Students in this stage are to do fast writing on a topic for five to ten minutes without worrying about correct

language or punctuation because, later, this text can be revised. Then students might work together in groups and share ideas. Last activity of this stage is composing. While composing, the student have to recognize and be able to apply the basic rules for writing effective paragraphs for any practical purpose which are to compose a precise topic sentence, to show how the supporting sentences relate to the topic, and to arrange the supporting sentences in a logical way.

3. Evaluating structuring and editing

Students in this stage should focus more on form and on producing a finished piece of work while the teachers can help with error correction and give organization advice. The activities to evaluate and edit the text; for example, organizing by taking notes, self edit their own text by looking for error and structure, and peer editing and proof reading which is done by other students.

It is important for teacher to teach students to recognize the importance of writing and process writing in order to succeed in writing. Ellis (1998) encouraged the teachers to investigate how good language students use their strategies. With this knowledge, the teachers will be able to guide students to write better. Thus, it is claimed that teacher should be aware of learning strategies students use.

Learning Strategies

Researchers mentioned the importance of learning strategies. Among these researchers, Ellis (1998) proposed that learning strategies can be behavior (for example, repeating new words aloud to help you remember them) or it can be mental (for example, using the linguistic or situational context to infer the meaning of a new word). Besides, many research studies claimed that learning strategies is specific approach or technique such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving one self encouragement to tackle a difficult language task which is used by students to

enhance their own learning (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992: 63; Ellis, 1998:77; Cook, 2001:126). Thus, when students have difficult time to learn, learning strategies are employed to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information, specific actions taken in order to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations.

According to the importance of learning strategies above, many researchers attempt to discover which strategies are important for second language acquisition students. As an example, Naiman and others (1978) investigated what people who were known to be good at learning languages had in common. They found six broad strategies shared by good language students which consisted of finding a learning style that suits students involving themselves in the language learning process, developing an awareness of language both as system and as communication, paying constant attention to expanding their language knowledge, developing the second language as a separate system, and taking into account the demands that second language learning imposes. Thus, strategies that involve formal practice (for example, rehearsing a new word) contribute to the development of linguistic competence whereas strategies involving functional practice (for example, seeking out native speakers to talk to) and the strategies aid the development of communicative skill. To sum up, successful learners may also call on different strategies at different stages of their development.

Not only Naiman and others (1978) studied on the use of strategy, many previous researchers examined several strategies aspects used by students. Some researchers try to group ESL learning strategies into three main types: metacognitive; cognitive; and socioaffective (Ellis, 1998:77; O'Malley & Chamot, 1999:43; Brown,

2000:124). The details of classification of learning strategies illustrates on Table2.1 based on O'Malley and Chamot (1999:46).

Table 2.1

Classification of Learning Strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1999:46)

Generic Strategy Classification	Representative Strategies	Definitions
Metacognitive strategies	Selective attention	Focusing on special aspects of learning tasks, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases.
	Planning	Planning for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.
	Monitoring	Reviewing an 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, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.
Cognitive Strategies	Rehearsal	Repeating the names of items or objects to be remembered.
	Organization	Grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or Syntactic attributes.

Table 2.1 (continued)

Generic Strategy Classification	Representative Strategies	Definitions
	Inferencing	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 (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information.
	Transfer	Using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task.
	Elaboration	Linking ideas contained in new information, or integrating new ideas with known information.
Social/affective strategies	Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.
	Questioning for Clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.

Table 2.1 (continued)

Generic Strategy Classification	Representative Strategies	Definitions
	Self – talk	Using mental redirection of thinking to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

Among the three groups of learning strategies shown on Table 2.1, metacognitive strategies play the most important role in learning especially those involve in writing process. Brown and others (1983) and Wenden (1991) inserted that metacognitive strategies are high skills that may entail planning, monitoring, or evaluating the success of learning activity. Without metacognitive approaches, students will lose direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning directions (O'Malley and Chamot, 1999:8).

Darasawang (2000) described further what students should do within each stage of the metacognitive strategies.

In planning stage, the learners have to determine what their objectives are and decide on the meaning by which they wish to achieve. In other words, the learners have to think about what to learn and why they are learning it in order to formulate the objectives and then think about how, when and where to learn.

In monitoring stage, the learners try to become aware of difficulties they encounter in learning. When learners monitor their learning, self assessment goes on during the act of learning as a part of the monitoring strategy.

In evaluating stage, the learners reflect on the outcomes of a particular attempt to learn or use a strategy. They focus on the results and the means by which it was achieved. Evaluation involves three mental steps: learners examining the outcome of an attempt to learn, then accessing the criteria they will use to judge and then applying those criteria.

According to the explanation of Darasawang (2000), it may be assumed that metacognitive process is central to learning and performance. Planning and monitoring activities are those involved during learning until the learning occurs. Brown and others (1983) suggested that students who are in the metacognitive processes and metamemory probably plan which items to return to, how much time to spend on a single item before proceeding to the next or giving up; they potentially monitor how directly an item could be answered and how many inferences have to be made.

As a consequence of learning metacognitive strategies, teaching students to use this strategy effectively will help them to become autonomous learners because they can take control of their learning (Wenden, 1995:188).

Bransford and others (1999:12) studied whether self evaluation can help students become autonomous learners. They found that a metacognitive approach to instruction has developed people's abilities to predict their performances on various tasks and to monitor their current levels of mastery and understanding. Teaching practices that use a metacognitive approach to learning focus on self assessment and reflection on what work and what need to improve. Most research on metacognition has focused on developing student ability to monitor their learning behaviors through goal setting, record keeping, using job aids or cuing devices to check for understanding, and other strategies.

Enabling students to self monitor their learning practice is regarded as a way to help students develop knowledge through conscious control over that knowledge or to develop metacognitive awareness of knowledge and thought (Wray 1994 cited in Srimavin & Darasawang 2003).

Self-Monitoring Writing Strategies

Self-monitoring writing strategies is the important strategy which is used to enhance learning English writing. It is thus important to understand the definition of self-monitoring writing strategies that many authors have mentioned about. Some of them are listed as follows.

Oxford (1990:161-162) stated that self-monitoring writing strategies is strategies which writers use to identify errors in understanding or producing the new language, determine which ones are important (those that cause serious confusion or offense), track the source of important errors, and try to eliminate such errors. Self monitoring writing strategies does not center as much on using the language as it does on students' conscious decision to monitor that is noticing and correcting their own errors in writing skill.

Pressley and Ghatala (1990:19) briefly have defined self-monitoring strategies from their study that was "an executive process, activating and deactivating other processes, as a function of on-line evaluation of thought processes and products as they occurred.

O'Malley and Chamot (1999:232) have defined self-monitoring writing strategies as checking the accuracy or appropriateness of written production.

Schunk (2005) mentioned that monitoring is an attention and awareness of one's actions and their outcome. It views cognitive monitoring as including dynamic

metacognitive judgments of learning and metacognitive awareness (feeling of knowing) (cited from Printrich, 2000).

According to the definition of self-monitoring and self-monitoring writing strategies explained above, the researcher defines this term in the study as the writing process where the learners become aware when they encounter in learning writing. Self-monitoring writing strategies will encourage students to check critically and analytically at their writing; to place themselves in the position of readers; and to verify and correct the sources of their dissatisfaction with the text (Xiang, 2004:238).

The characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies

In order to learn self-monitoring writing strategies, it is very essential to know the characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies. In general, this writing strategy is focused that students should be taught to be aware of language use in both content and form in writing task. As a result, many researchers explained the characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

The characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies

Researchers	The characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies
Rubin (1981)	- correcting errors in own/other's pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, grammar and style.

Table 2.2 (continued)

Researchers	The characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies
Oxford (1990)	- identifying errors in understanding or producing the new language - determining which ones are important (those that cause serious confusion or offense) - tracking the source of important errors, and trying to eliminate such errors - using checklists
O'Malley & Chamot (1999)	- checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of written production while it is taking place - verifying (check whether it is true by careful examination or investigation) - correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a language task
Brown (2000)	- correcting one's speech for accuracy in grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the context

According to the characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies shown above, it may be assumed that self-monitoring writing strategies comprise of checking (the accuracy and appropriate of students' writing), verifying (checking whether the students' paragraphs are true by careful examination or investigation), and correcting (correcting errors in vocabulary and grammar, writing comprehension, and the appropriateness for the content). The explanations of these characteristics are explained as follows.

1. Checking

Checking is the stage where writers check the accuracy and appropriateness of students' writing. To check the compositions, writers need to know what kind of errors they are seeking. In this stage, the teacher's role is to tell student writers what they are measuring such as content, organization, language use, mechanics, and vocabulary to help students go directly to the point. The teachers may plan to test students in their compositions to measure their progress at the end of an instructional unit or to provide corrective feedback (Jacob et al., 1981). However, the current research referred this checking process to check the accuracy of the elements of paragraph and appropriate of the organization.

2. Verifying

Verifying is the stage where students verify whether the students' paragraphs are accurate by careful examination or investigation. There are two parts of writing which writers have to look for when they revise their compositions which are content and form.

According to content category, students who pay attention on content need to have knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of flow of content and relevant to assigned topic. Meanwhile, organization is covered with fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, and logical sequencing, and cohesive.

Unlike content, in the form category, it is an essential part which most writers emphasize. When writers revise their work, they always have more confidence to work on form than content (Diab, 2006). Most writers focus more on the language and grammar. There are many previous study investigated the errors most students

made in order to help them decrease those kinds of mistakes. Some of the researches are reviewed below.

Reid (1998) acknowledged that students' errors in writing reflect the student's underlying system. She indicated that teachers need to develop strategies which lead students to correct their own work. There are four basic causes of errors she found in her study: first-language interference, overgeneralization of English language and past tense for irregular verbs, high level of difficulty of the language structure (exemplified by how relative clauses are formed in English), and production errors (which are labeled "mistake).

Kubota (2001) showed her study on error correction strategies used by Japanese students during revising a writing task. She indicated that the most frequently occurring errors are particle, grammar, known Kanji, vocabulary, and missing words. However, her research focused on the three categories of errors: missing words, particles and vocabulary in which students made the most improvements when correcting their work. These three categories' results showed that checking in dictionaries and applying grammatical knowledge are the most frequently used strategies employed for the three error categories; correcting particles has the highest success rate; forty eight percent of vocabulary errors were corrected by using dictionaries, although this strategy was not necessarily successful; checking textbook and deletion of sentences were not popular strategies, but they were highly successful when they were employed.

Lee (2004) investigated error correction in Hong Kong. The error types in error correction tasks are summarized to see what the research has to emphasize. It was found that most students use word forms incorrectly, noun ending and spelling, punctuation and verb tense, and article respectively.

Bitchener and others (2005) studied the effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. They would see errors students made at the first draft so they could focus on in their study. They found that the greatest difficulty occurred with the use of prepositions, followed by the past simple tense and the definite article.

Ferris (2005) stated while native-speaking students struggle with issues like punctuation rules, pronoun reference, and informal usage in their academic writing (Weaver, 1996), ESL writers make different types of errors. Ferris (2005) found that error types which students most frequently misunderstood were syntactic errors (sentence structure, run-ons, fragments), lexical errors (word choice, word form, informal usage, idiom error, pronoun error), morphological errors (verb tense, verb form, agreement, articles, noun ending), and mechanical (punctuation, spelling) respectively.

According to error types mentioned above, they are explained by Ferris (2005) as follows.

1. Word choice includes errors in which the meaning of one word is wrong or unclear in this context. Also includes wrong verb or auxiliary, modal, preposition, or relative pronoun. It does not include spelling errors, other pronoun errors, and articles errors.

2. Verb tense includes missing or erroneous verb tense markers. Also includes modal when they clearly mark tense (would/will; can/could). It does not include mood (subjunctive/conditional) or voice (passive/active).

3. Verb form includes a wide range of errors in formation of the verb phrase not specific to time or tense markings (e.g., ill-formed passives, conditionals, and subjunctives, misuse of modals, infinitives, gerunds).

4. Word form includes all other non-verb related errors in which the word is in the wrong lexical category for the context.

5. Subject-verb agreement includes an error in either noun or verb form leading to lack of agreement in number (singular/plural). It does not include other noun ending or verb form errors.

6. Articles include errors involving unnecessary or missing article or determiner, wrong article or determiner, or a determiner that does not agree in number with noun.

7. Noun endings include missing, unnecessary, or ill-formed plural or possessive markers.

8. Pronouns include pronouns that do not agree in number or case with referent or that have no apparent antecedent. It includes only personal pronoun reference, not relative pronouns.

9. Run-ons include run-on sentences and comma splices (two or more independent clauses with no punctuation or conjunction to separate them or separated by only commas). It does not include teacher-originated suggestions to combine or separate sentences for stylistic purposes only.

10. Fragments include either dependent (adverbial, noun, or relative) clauses standing alone as sentences or clauses missing a subject or verb.

11. Punctuation includes punctuation errors not related to run-ons, comma splices, or fragments (e.g. apostrophes, quotation marks, underlining, capitalization, commas, semicolons, colons, question marks).

12. Spelling includes all errors in spelling except those coded into other specific categories (e.g. word choice, determiners, punctuation).

13. Sentence structure includes missing and unnecessary words, word order, and other hard-to-classify problems related to syntax. It does not include run-ons, fragments, or comma splices.

According to the errors mostly found in students' writing, Table 2.3 clearly presents the categories of errors made by students in the previous studies which are categorized by each researcher.

Table 2.3

Categories of errors made classified by each researcher

Researcher	Categories of errors made
Reid (1998)	- first language interference
	- overgeneralization of English and past tense for irregular verb
	- high level of difficulty of the language structure
	- production errors
Kubota (2001)	- most frequently errors occurred were particle, grammar, known Kanji, vocabulary, and missing words respectively
Lee (2004)	- word form, noun ending, spelling, punctuation, verb tense, and articles were found to make more frequency errors
Bitchener and others (2005)	- the greatest difficulty errors aspects are preposition, past simple tense, and articles
Ferris (2005)	- ESL writers make mistakes on syntactic errors, lexical errors, morphological errors, and mechanical errors

In brief, errors which most students always make consist of verb tense, word choice, agreement, -ing /participles, article, preposition, punctuation, and noun. As a result, during verify on form, writers have to pay more attention to these errors.

In the current research, verifying referred to the stage where students verify the grammar errors they made focusing on eight aspects: verb tense, word choice/word order, agreement, -ing /participles, article, preposition, punctuation, and noun.

3. Correcting

The last characteristic of self-monitoring writing strategies apart from checking and verifying is correcting. Correcting stage is defined as correcting errors in vocabulary and grammar, writing comprehension and the appropriateness for the content. In order to correct the errors, Ferris (1999) proposed the strategies such as "ask teachers for help", "make correction myself", "ask a tutor for help", and "check a dictionary", were used by ESL students in the USA which help students make the better paragraph. Nevertheless, the majority of revisions that students make by themselves are surface-level revisions (Paulus, 1999: 265).

Benefits of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction

After students follow the step of checking their content and organization, verifying their form, and correcting their content and form, it should be noted that they will succeed in learning writing for a long term memory because self-monitoring is an important strategies for language learning such as vocabulary, listening, and writing (O' Malley and Chamot, 1999). To support the idea of O'Malley and Chamot (1999), Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) pointed out that monitoring distinguishes good learners from poor learners. In their view, monitoring is the ability to analyze the demands of the task and to respond appropriately, that is, to recognize and manage the

learning situation. Thus, monitoring can be described as being aware of what one is doing or bringing one's "mental processes under conscious scrutiny and thus more effectively under control." Additionally, O'Malley and Chamot (1999) mentioned that students who learn self-monitoring writing strategies are advised to use their own errors in the second language in order to identify their areas of weakness, to understand why they are making certain types of errors, to make use of the teacher's correction, and to evaluate the effectiveness of different kinds of practice on their learning.

Research on self-monitoring writing strategies

Because the self-monitoring writing strategies are found to be advantages toward learning English writing, there are some studies investigated to this strategy. The researches relate to the present study are reviewed below.

Charles (1990:286-293) investigated responding to problems in written English using a student self-monitoring technique. He concluded the advantages of this technique that self-monitoring gives students the opportunity to contribute to a dialogue concerning the text. It is easy for students to express uncertainty about any part of their text, and to receive direct answers to their queries. Self-monitoring also encourages students to look critically and analytically at their writing, to place themselves in the position of readers and to locate and identify the sources of their dissatisfaction with the text. Thus, they learn to take more responsibility for what they write and for getting their meaning across to the reader, as well as for their own improvement in the skill of writing. In addition, using comments as self-monitoring is a good starting point to let students to understand what the problems are or to raise their awareness, even if they are not yet able to solve them, to allow the editor to understand at least part of what is going on, and to respond in a more helpful way and

to indicate how students see their writing, what they consider their problems to be, and what sort of help they consider they need. Besides, he stated what teachers gain from the use of self-monitoring technique. First, spending to a self-monitored text takes only a few moments, and is generally a more satisfying and less frustrating task than responding to an unmonitored version. Answering genuine queries gives the editor the impression of helping the writer directly. Where the writer indicates difficulties, it is easier both to understand what is meant, and to provide the appropriate guidance. The teacher may greet with relief the self-monitored comments that show that the students are beginning to understand what the problems are, even if they are not yet able to solve them. Second, self monitoring can reveal crucial information about the writer's intentions. It may allow the editor to understand of what is going on, and to respond in a more helpful way. The third advantage of this technique is that it can reveal the concerns of the students. In brief, it becomes an important part of the teacher's job to work on those areas that concern students most, while at the same time expanding the student's awareness to include those areas which they have not yet identified as needing attention.

Darasawang (2000:206) studied learner autonomy through a revised learner training program in King Mongkut's Univeristy of Technology. She investigated students' use of self-monitoring strategies to handle writing tasks. The result showed that most students knew sentences they constructed did not sound English but they did not know how to correct them to revise their writing, students would change words that they often used, and they read aloud their writing when revising so that they knew if it sounded correct or not respectively.

Lan (2005) investigated student's self-monitoring practice and effects of educational level and task importance on self-monitoring with various level of

students. Although the study identified six self-monitoring strategies used by students, it found a low involvement in self-monitoring at all educational level. Besides, older students used more complex self-monitoring strategies more frequently than younger ones. The study also showed that student's self-monitoring strategies increased with task importance.

Teaching writing strategies

Teaching writing strategies is illustrated step by step to help teachers plan before teaching. Collin (1999) has proposed four steps of teaching writing strategies which many research studies recommend as the instructional process of writing as the following.

Step 1 Identifying strategy

With this strategy, it referred to teaching how to look for their weaknesses in writing. For the students who have a difficult problem with writing, strategies teaching is the technique which will help students overcome their writing difficulties. The activities which the teachers might use in this strategy, for example, talking with struggling writers, asking them about how they write, what they think about while writing, and what they see as difficulties. Additionally, the teachers have to study on students' papers to learn where they are having difficulty and by observing their writing while they are composing.

Step 2 Modeling

The teachers have a role to introduce strategies by modeling the strategies to the students. It referred to demonstrating in front of the class. Students are supposed to speak their thoughts while writing, calling particular attention to the strategy they are recommending for students. Sometimes the teachers ask students to share their ideas to the writing while the teachers are writing, to copy the writing for

themselves, or to compose a similar piece of writing in connection with the writing the teacher is doing.

Step 3   Scaffolding students' learning of the strategy

In this step, students are expected to try to deal with the problem by teacher or peer assistance. The activity which students will be done copes with working in groups for giving varying degrees of assistance according to individual needs so that students can assist each other in the learning of strategies. Not only working in groups, teacher assistance is necessary to make sure that writers practice using the strategy being taught.

Step 4   Repeating practice and reinforcement

Students in this step have to work toward independent mastery of the strategy through repeated practice and reinforcement. It refers to giving students opportunities to use the strategy many times with decreasing amounts of assistance each time. The teachers have to realize that teaching a few key writing strategies well is better than teaching many of them insufficiently. Also, students then will value and master the things they do repeatedly. With this strategy, it gets back to identifying strategies worth teaching.

Paragraph writing

A paragraph is "a group of sentences or a single sentence that forms a unit" (Lunsford and Connors, 2003). When students have to compose a paragraph, they concern the length or appearance. In fact, Lunsford and Connor (2003) stated that it is not the number of sentences that construct a paragraph, but the unity and coherence of ideas among those sentences. Ultimately, strong paragraphs contain a sentence or sentences unified around one central and controlling idea.

Rosen, Leonard and Laurence (2000) suggested the elements the writers have to concentrate. Unified is an element in which all of the sentences in a single paragraph should be related to a single main idea (often expressed in the topic sentence of the paragraph). The second is clearly related to the thesis statement which refers to the central idea. Coherent is the third element that the sentences should be arranged in a logical manner and should follow a definite plan for development. Last, well-developed is an important element in which every idea discussed in the paragraph should be adequately explained and supported through evidence and details that work together to explain the paragraph's controlling idea.

The paragraphs have three principal parts: topic sentence, supporting details, and the concluding sentence. The topic sentence usually comes at the beginning of a paragraph that is usually the first sentence in a formal academic paragraph. Besides, the topic sentence is the most general sentence in the paragraph which means that there are not many details in the sentence, but that the sentence introduces an overall idea that the writers want to discuss later in the paragraph. The second is called "supporting details" because they give details to develop and support the main idea of the paragraph. The last element is concluding sentence. It summarizes the information that has been presented in the paragraph. Also, it can restate the main idea of the paragraph using different words.

English writing ability

English writing ability is not only the production of coding the messages but also producing a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order and linked together in certain ways (White, 1980; Byrne, 1982). To be able to write a piece of paragraph, students must be able to write connected of sentences which are grammatically and logically linked. This means students have to produce a piece of

discourse which embodies correctness of form, appropriateness of style and unity of theme and topic. Similarly, Pidchamook (2003) mentioned that English writing ability is the ability in which writers can organize and put sentences fit into the purpose of them. It is thus the process of combining their thought and knowledge which interpret what writers want to say.

To sum up, English writing ability is the ability to write a paragraph in the chronological sentences in order to help the readers understand the purpose of the writers.

Components of English writing ability

Many researchers say about the components of English writing ability which conclude into two mains types as follows.

1. Focusing on content

Because writers need to organize content to suit with types of essays, it is very important then to raise EFL student writers' awareness of how crucial the organization of the content is so that it would aid readers to understand the text undoubtedly.

Better writers not only have strategies for correcting local problems such as word choice, grammar, and punctuation, they also deal with overall content and meaning of their writing by adding, deleting, or reorganizing larger chunks of discourse (Brookes & Grundy, 1990). Writers can set the main ideas of what they are talking about and then find supporting idea supported by stating the fact, giving details, or giving examples for four or five sentences in which markers or transitional words can help writers in making related sentences (Hyland, 2003). However, they have to be careful that these sentences will not go out of the main idea. Writers need to have more knowledge on presenting text so that readers are impressed and

understand the text in depth. If it does not relate, it might make them so confused that they do not believe what the writers are trying to say (D'Angelo, 1980:196).

In short, focusing on content is making every sentence connecting together to the whole one which contributes to be understandable text. Readers will not waste time with run on sentences which do not help them get the meaning clearly, also sometimes can make them misunderstand with the text.

2. Focusing on form

The standard which makes writers compose the essay correctly is accuracy of sentences consisted of vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. Choosing the wrong form can refer to incorrect meaning or change to another implication (Pidchamook, 2003). Thus, mistakes of form are important components of learning a language. The mistakes should be corrected in order to assist students in producing the target language more accurately (Selinker, 1992; Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 1999). Vickers and Ene (2006:109-116) agreed that the mistakes need to be revised. They studied grammatical accuracy and student autonomy in advanced writing. Their finding concluded at the end that explicit self correction seems to be effective in terms of gains in grammatical accuracy. It is important to raise students' awareness of the learning process and of the system of the target language. Although the present study does provide evidence that engaging students in an autonomous correction task allows for greater grammatical accuracy, it does not provide evidence that such as autonomous task raises student awareness of the learning process. Furthermore, Sheppard (1992) disagreed with doing error correction. He claimed that error correction is harmful because it diverts time and energy away from the more productive aspects of writing.

Writing assessment

To evaluate the students' English writing ability, the writing assessment process is necessary to familiar with. The assessment of writing is not simply of setting exams and giving grades. However, score and evaluative feedback also contribute to the learning of individual students and to the development of an effective and responsive writing course. As a result, an understanding of assessment procedures is necessary to ensure that teaching is having the desired impact and that students are being judged fairly (Hyland, 2003:212).

Brown (2004:218) pointed out that teachers consider assessing student's writing ability need to be clear about their objective or criterion. Furthermore, each objective can be assessed through a variety of tasks. Thus, assessment provides data that can be used to evaluate student progress, identity problems, suggest instructional solutions, and evaluate course effectiveness. When the teacher assesses students' actual production of written texts in a second or foreign language, three approaches have traditionally been used to rate learners' writing (Bailey, 1998:186). However, each of the approaches is based on the scoring criteria used rather than by the stimulus material, the task posed, or the learner's response.

Scoring criteria is where the quality of each essay is judged in its own right against some external criteria, such as coherence, grammatical accuracy, contextual (Bailey, 1998:187; Hyland, 2003:226).

Scoring writing

The scoring of authentic assessments is always defined before the exercises and assessment procedures are developed. Three types of rating scales generally used in scoring writing are holistic, primary trait, and analytic scoring. Weigle (2002) described each scoring that holistic offers a general impression of a piece of writing,

primary is based on separate scales of overall writing features, and analytic judges performance traits relative to a particular task. Moreover, the explanation of each scoring are presented as the following.

1. Holistic Scoring

Holistic scoring uses a variety criterion to produce a single score. The specific criteria selected depends on local instructional programs and language arts objectives. The rationale for using a holistic scoring system is that the total quality of written text is more than the sum of its components. Thus, writing is viewed as an integrated whole. There are four dimensions of a holistic scoring rubric developed by ESL teachers. First, idea development/organization, it focuses on central idea with appropriate elaboration and conclusion. Second is fluency and structure which involve with the appropriate of verb tense used with a variety of grammatical and syntactic structures. Third is word choice which uses varied and precise vocabulary appropriate for purpose. Last is mechanics which is absence of errors in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.

Within holistic scoring, the rater selects a score on a 1-6 holistic scale that best describes the writing sample. A student's paper does not meet every condition in each of the four dimensions but need to rate on overall consistency within one of the six levels.

Another holistic scoring rubric, developed by ESL teachers in Prince William County, Virginia, focuses on the type of writing typically found among EIL students. The teachers reviewed various scoring rubrics and reflected on actual writing samples in developing this holistic scoring system. The rubric has six levels. The criteria for which ratings are assigned fall along five dimensions: meaning, organization, use of transitions, vocabulary, and grammatical/mechanical usage. Criteria are appropriate

to each level vary depending on the developmental nature of the writing. For example, at level 1, writing may be characterized by copying from a model, using diagrams or drawing, and using single words or simple phrases. In contrast, at the highest level students may show evidence of the complex writing that is characteristic of native English speakers, including elements of style, composition, sentence construction, and grammar.

In reviewing this scoring and other scoring rubric, the teacher can use sample papers of his or her own students to define the levels on the rubric more precisely. Figure 2.1 presents an example of holistic scoring rubric for assessing writing.

Level 6	- Convey meaning clearly and effectively
	- Presents multi-paragraph organization, with clear introductions, development of ideas, and conclusion
	- Shows evidence of smooth transitions
	- Uses varied, vivid, precise vocabulary consistently
	- Writes with few grammatical/mechanical errors

Figure 2.1 Holistic Scoring Rubric for Writing Assessment with ESL Students

(O'Malley & Pierce, 1996:143)

Level 5	- Convey meaning clearly
	- Presents multi-paragraph organization logically, though some parts may not be fully developed
	- Shows some evidence of effective transitions
	- Uses some evidence of effective transitions
	- Uses varied, and vivid vocabulary appropriate for audience and purpose
	- Writes with some grammatical/mechanical errors without affecting meaning
Level 4	- Expresses ideas coherently most of the time
	- Develops a logical paragraph
	- Writers with a variety of sentence structures with a limited use of transitions
	- Chooses vocabulary that is (often) adequate to purpose
	- Writers with grammatical/mechanical errors that seldom diminish communication
Level 3	- Attempts to express ideas coherently
	- Begins to write a paragraph by organizing ideas
	- Writes primarily simple sentences
	- Uses high frequency vocabulary
	- Writes with grammatical/mechanical errors that sometimes diminish communication

Figure 2.1 *(continued)*

Level 2	- Begins to convey meaning
	- Writes simple sentences/phrases
	- Uses limited or repetitious vocabulary
	- Spells inventively
	- Uses little or no mechanics, which often diminishes meaning
Level 1	- Draws pictures to convey meaning
	- Uses single words, phrases
	- Copies from a model

Figure 2.1 (continued)

2. Primary trait

A variation on holistic scoring that lends itself to classroom use is primary trait scoring. This type of scoring focuses on whether or not each paper shows evidence of the particular trait or feature teacher wants students to demonstrate in writing. The trait could be a language-based feature emphasizing any one or more of the criteria for holistic scoring indicated above, such as Idea Development/ Organization or Sentence Fluency/Structure. The advantage of this approach is in focusing on specific aspects of instruction that most reflect the objectives being covered when the writing assignment is given. Alternatively, the scoring could be based on a content-based feature, such as accurate content or use of concepts in the subject area. A student's paper on civil disobedience could be evaluated for 1) accurate and sufficient content, 2) comparisons of civil disobedience with at least one other approach to civil rights, and 3) coherence of the overall paper. In primary trait scoring, the paper is scored only on these features, and other features of the paper are ignored.

3. Analytic Scoring

The third type of rating scale uses analytic scoring. Analytic scales separate the features of a composition into components that are each scored separately. The separate components are sometimes given different weights to reflect their importance in instruction. Two advantages of this type of rubric are in providing feedback to students on specific aspects of their writing and in giving teachers diagnostic information for planning instruction (Perkins, 1983). Another special advantage of analytic scoring with ELL students is in providing positive feedback on components of writing on which they have progressed most rapidly. It has been heard by more than one teacher that students ask for more specific detail on scoring than is provided in a holistic scale. Two limitations of analytic scoring are that teachers sometimes do not agree with the weights given to the separate components and that they may have to spend more time completing the scoring. Table 2.4 shows an example of analytic scoring rubric for writing assessment.

Table 2.4

Analytic scores from Jacob and others (1981)

Score	Point	Criteria
Content (30 points)	30-27	Excellent to Very good: knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic
	26-22	Good to Average: some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail
	21-17	Fair to Poor: limited knowledge of subject, little substance, inadequate development of topic

Table 2.4 (continued)

Score	Point	Criteria
	16-13	Very poor: does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, or not enough to evaluate
Organization (20 points)	20-18	Excellent to Very good: fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive
	17-14	Good to Average: somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing
	13-10	Fair to Poor: non fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development
	9-7	Very poor: does not communicate, no organization, or not enough to evaluate
Vocabulary (20 points)	20-18	Excellent to Very good: sophisticated range, effective word/idiom choice and usage, word form mastery, appropriate register
	17-14	Good to Average: adequate range, occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage *but meaning not obscured*
	13-10	Fair to Poor: limited range, frequent errors of word/idiom Form, choice, usage, *meaning confused or obscured*

Table 2.4 (continued)

Score	Point	Criteria
	9-7	Very poor : essentially translation, little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form, or not enough to evaluate
Language Use (25 points)	25-22	Excellent to Very good: effective complex construction, few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	21-18	Good to Average: effective but simple constructions, minor problems in complex constructions, several errors of agreement, tense number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragment, run-ons, deletions, *meaning confused or obscured*
	17-11	Fair to Poor: major problems in simple/complex construction, frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured
	10-5	Very poor: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, or not enough to evaluate

Table 2.4 (continued)

Score	Point	Criteria
Mechanics (5 points)	5	Excellent to Very good: demonstrates mastery of conventions, few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	4	Good to Average: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing *but meaning not obscured*
	3	Fair to Poor: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, poor handwriting paragraphing *meaning confused or obscured*
	2	Very poor: no mastery of conventions, dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, handwriting illegible, or not enough to evaluate

Controversial issues being raised

There are many studies which proposed the controversial issues different from other research, especially in the composing of multiple drafts and self-monitoring writing strategies. Some of them are listed below respectively.

1. Multiple drafts issue

Writing instruction has changed focus from product orientation to process orientation which emphasizes more on cognitive view and learner-centered. Teaching writing as a process aims to raise students' awareness of the recursive nature of the composing process. Multiple drafts are one of the steps in the process. Since the

composing practices and needs of English as a Second Language (ESL) writers are different from those of native English speaking writers (Krapels, 1990; Silva, 1984), further research is needed to specifically examine the impact of multiple drafting and revision on both ESL students revisions and the overall quality of their writing. Additionally, researchers in recent years have stressed the need for ESL writing instruction to move to a process approach that would teach students not only how to edit but also to develop strategies to generate ideas, compose multiple drafts, and revise their written work on all levels (Chenowith, 1987; Raimes, 1985, 1987).

While students are forced to revise their work, the revision in itself does not necessarily improve the quality of the writing (Paulus, 1999). Faigley and White (1981) asserted that it is only when a revision leads to improvement of the text's quality, we can consider the stage successful. They designed a taxonomy to distinguish between those revisions that affected the text's meaning (meaning-level) and those that did not (surface level). They found that inexperienced writers made only surface-level changes to their writing while the expert writers made changes that affected the ideas and meaning in the text. Successful revision was found to depend on the writer's ability to read a written text as communication, to compare his or her intentions and goals for the writing with the actual text produced, and finally, to reconcile these two facets of writing by making all of the necessary adjustments (Faigley & White, 1984; Flower et al, 1986).

Some researchers try to focus their studies on content and form when students write multiple drafts. Most research studies stated that content and form should be kept separate to avoid confusing students about what they should attend to at any particular stage of the process (Sommers, 1980; Zamel , 1985; Ashwell, 2000). Until quite recently, it would have been relatively uncontentious to suggest responding to

both the content and the form of students' texts. Most researchers in the field seemed to agree that attention must be paid to both (e.g., Krashen, 1984; Taylor, 1981). Among the many controversies is the issue of whether or not to focus on content before form or form before content or focus both aspects at the same time. There are a few studies examining this issue. Ashwell (2000) investigated patterns of teacher response to student writing in a multiple draft compositions. His questions were whether the content followed by form feedback of teachers was better than other patterns, and this form should be separated to the content feedback at different stages. While form feedback focused on grammatical, lexical, and mechanical errors, content feedback consisted of organization, paragraphing, cohesion, and relevance. The answer of his study showed that the recommended pattern of content feedback followed by form feedback is not superior to the reverse pattern or to a pattern of mixed form and content feedback. In addition, Chinnawong (2001) found that students who focused on form made more improvement on writing task than those who did not.

In teaching writing, the teacher should initiate form-focused or meaning-focused feedback as a necessary part of language learning. The research projects did not yet yield on conclusive result whether to focus on form or meaning. Some support focus on form, others on the content. However, many research studies will look at the content at the early draft and then form (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ashwell, 2000; Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

2. Self-monitoring writing strategies issue

In the process of teaching writing, teacher intervention sometimes is not always necessary (Chinnawong, 2001). Students can notice some of their errors by themselves through the strategy of monitoring (Makino, 1993). Those students who

are able to correct their own errors can activate their linguistic competence (linguistic knowledge). Unfortunately, there is little research in this area. The study that follows takes up the idea that the teacher can provide the student with the opportunity to try to self-correct without further help. It assumes that students are able to apply the rules they have learned in order to correct their own errors.

Bartholomare (1980) pointed out that it is easier to teach students (as readers) an editing procedure than it is to teach students (as writers) to write correctly at the point of transcription. Consequently, allowing students the opportunities to correct themselves could strengthen their critical thinking and reasoning power. It is a major step toward writer autonomy. However, the teacher is at the same time helping students towards becoming more self-reliant writers, who are both self-critical and who have the skills to self-edit and revise their writing. This may in the end be a more achievable pedagogical objective than getting them to do it right at the first time.

The finding that self-monitoring writing strategies help students improve their writing is promising; unfortunately, there is little research in this area as mentioned earlier. There is no definite evidence to show how the process of self-monitoring writing strategies should be. As a result, it challenged the researcher to explore, design, and examine the process of the self-monitoring writing strategies instruction.

Summary

From the literature review, teaching self-monitoring writing strategies is a technique which helps teachers decrease their time on common mistakes and so they can increase their time assessing their student's writing. Furthermore, self-monitoring writing strategies is the writing process leading students to become aware when they encounter in learning writing. Within the writing process, students are supposed to

check their content, verify their form, and correcting both content and form. If students can correct and evaluate their work by themselves, teachers do not need to spend too much time on their work. In addition, in self-monitoring, students establish conscious metacognitive strategies to monitor the effectiveness of their plans and help them make any necessary alternations. They then have sufficient self knowledge to know what work for them and how and where to turn when confronted with the perplexing. Also, the review performed teaching writing strategies according to Collin (1999) which was divided into four main stages: identifying strategy, modeling, scaffolding students' learning of the strategy, and repeating practice and reinforcement. This strategy instruction facilitates students to use their own errors in order to identify their areas of weakness, to understand why they are making certain types of errors, to make use of the teacher's feedback, and to evaluate the effective of different kinds of practice on their learning.

Although the previous studies have conducted the teaching writing strategies, self-monitoring strategies, and self-monitoring strategies in writing, there is no evidence merging these studies to be the actual step of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction. The present study designs are reviewed in this chapter and applied in the study. The concepts of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction in the current study were adapted by writing process, self-monitoring strategies' learning, and writing strategies instruction. Thus, the researcher conducted the framework of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction consisting of raising students' awareness of paragraph at the early stage, introducing the elements of paragraph and reviewing it later, teaching writing strategy (based on Collin, 1999), and editing stage as the final. Figure 2.2 illustrates the conceptual framework of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction.
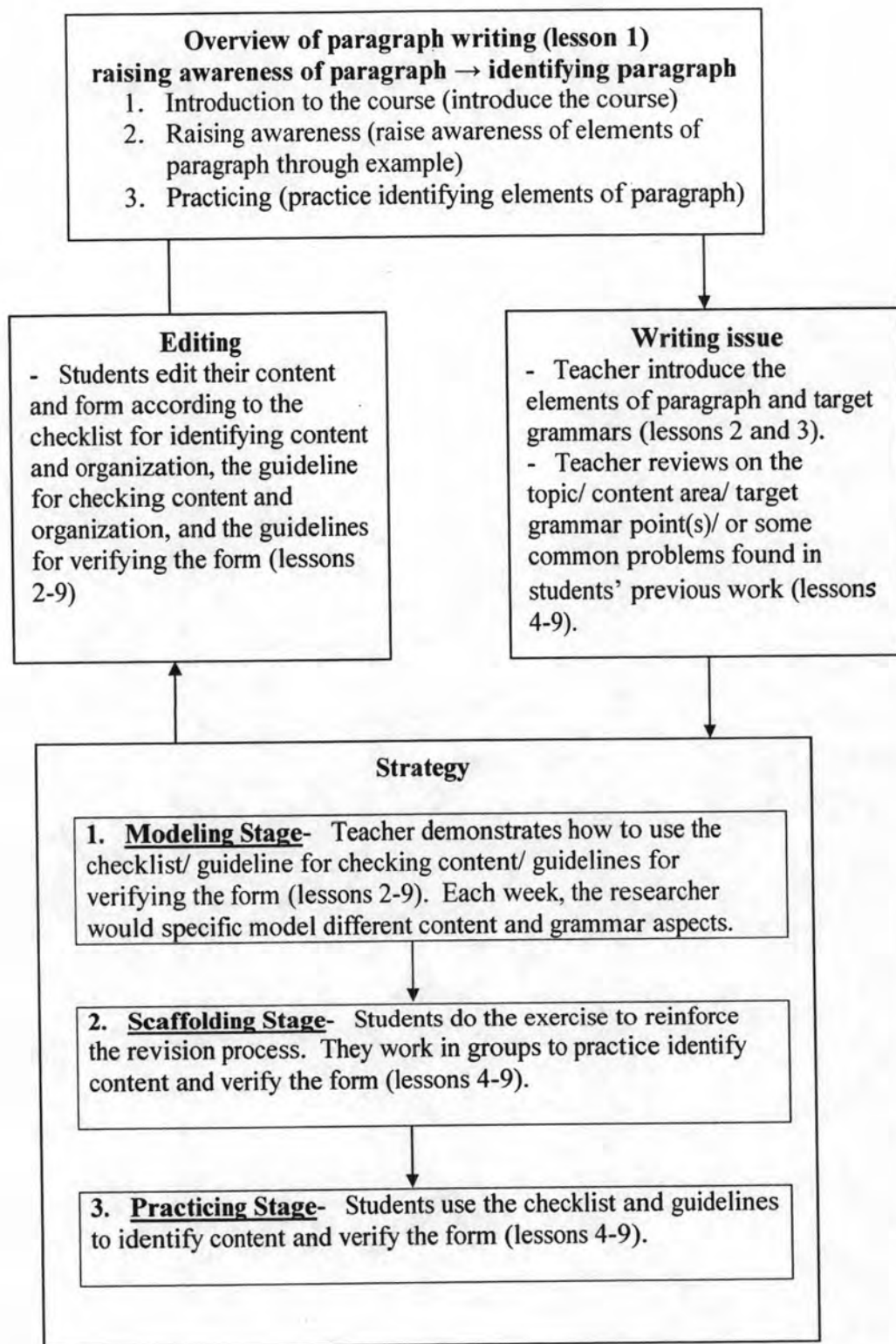
Overview of paragraph writing (lesson 1)
raising awareness of paragraph → identifying paragraph
1. Introduction to the course (introduce the course)
2. Raising awareness (raise awareness of elements of paragraph through example)
3. Practicing (practice identifying elements of paragraph)

Editing
- Students edit their content and form according to the checklist for identifying content and organization, the guideline for checking content and organization, and the guidelines for verifying the form (lessons 2-9)

Writing issue
- Teacher introduce the elements of paragraph and target grammars (lessons 2 and 3).
- Teacher reviews on the topic/ content area/ target grammar point(s)/ or some common problems found in students' previous work (lessons 4-9).

Strategy

1. **Modeling Stage-** Teacher demonstrates how to use the checklist/ guideline for checking content/ guidelines for verifying the form (lessons 2-9). Each week, the researcher would specific model different content and grammar aspects.

2. **Scaffolding Stage-** Students do the exercise to reinforce the revision process. They work in groups to practice identify content and verify the form (lessons 4-9).

3. **Practicing Stage-** Students use the checklist and guidelines to identify content and verify the form (lessons 4-9).

Figure 2.2   The conceptual framework of self-monitoring writing strategies instruction