The Necessities, Feasibilities and Principles for EFL Teachers to

Build A Learner-oriented Mini-corpus for Practical Classroom Uses

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Abstract

Corpus linguistics is developing at such an amazing rate that established corpora of different genres and for different purposes are emerging rapidly in recent years. However, though the advantages of all these corpora to language teaching and learning are well acknowledged, they haven't produced "tangible pedagogical results" (Nunn, 2005) in an EFL classroom context. With a brief review on the evolution of EFL teaching methods and a short introduction to the established general and learner corpora, this paper analyzes the main reasons why there is a gap and a lag between on-going corpus linguistic research and EFL teaching and learning, and concludes that it is necessary and feasible for EFL teachers, focusing on some basic principles, to build a learner-oriented mini-corpus to complement the existing shortcomings of the established corpora in EFL teaching. In addition, this paper also points out that an EFL teacher should endeavor to use various teaching methods or measures to meet EFL learners' diverse needs, including the use of corpora, either the self-built or the established ones or their collaborations.

Key words: self-built mini-corpus, established general and learner corpora, EFL teaching and learning

Introduction

English has been undoubtedly established its status as an international language,

regardless of people's likes or dislikes. Smith (2007) even states that with English gaining status as the primary global language in almost every trade and profession, literacy now often includes and assumes the need for competence in English. Whether she is right at this point is not important. What matters is that English currently enters classrooms in nearly every corner of the world, and a lot of EFL teaching methods have been explored and investigated to arm EFL teachers. With the development and application of computer techniques, CAI (Computer Assisted Instructions) and CMI (Computer Management Instructions), and the Internet in the digital era have provided brand-new teaching methods (Gao, 2005) which include the use of linguistic corpora in the field of EFL teaching and learning.

McEnery & Wilson (2001) state that, "From being a marginalized approach used largely in English linguistics, and more specifically in studies of English grammar, corpus linguistics has started to widen its scope" (p.1). In recent years, linguistic corpora of different genres and for different purposes have been growing like mushrooms, whose applications touch nearly every aspect of language, including EFL teaching and learning. However, in EFL countries like China, there is a widening gap and a growing lag between on-going and intensive corpus-linguistic research on the one hand and classroom teaching on the other. Granger (2004) reports, "research into the use of corpora for language teaching is almost entirely done by linguists; the contribution of SLA researchers to – and the participation of EFL teachers in – what happens in corpus linguistics is still relatively low" (p.136). Even if there are a few EFL teachers such as Yang & Liao (2004) and Tian (2004) who tried out corpora in their classrooms, most of them still relied on established corpora like BNC (British National Corpus), LOB (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus), LLC (Longman Learner Corpus), ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English) and etc. A much more disappointing fact is that even fewer EFL teachers consider using those established corpora combined with one or more mini-corpora built by themselves in their classroom teaching, though it is not an unattainable goal at all. Focusing upon the above-mentioned phenomena, this paper first brings a brief review on the evolution of EFL teaching methods and the development of linguistic corpora, esp. ICLE, the

representative of the learner corpora, then analyzes why there exists a gap and a lag between corpus-linguistic research and classroom teaching. Based on the studies of the previous corpus work and the presentation of a small corpus built by the author himself and the pedagogical theories of EFL teaching, the paper points it out that compared with those established corpora, a self-built mini-corpus has its unique advantages, which can contribute to eliminate the drawbacks of the established corpora to a large extent. Finally, the paper concludes that it should be necessary and feasible for an EFL teacher, abiding by some basic principles, to build an EFL learner-oriented mini-corpus for practical classroom uses when she or he intends to apply corpora to EFL teaching.

Evolution of EFL Teaching Methods

In the history of English education, where there is EFL teaching and learning, there is a successive pursuit of ideal teaching methods. Different methods have been introduced, tried out and found unsatisfactory, among them, the 'Direct Method' in the early decades of last century, the 'Situational Method' in the 1960s, the 'Audiolingual Method' in the 1970s, and the 'Communicative Approach' in the 1980s (Yan, Zhou, & Dai, 2007). Through trial and error, people have realized no single method seems good enough to be universally accepted as best (Yan, Zhou, & Dai, 2007). Thus, the best method is most likely to be the collaboration of the positive parts of different methods. Only when an EFL teacher can familiarize him/herself with the essences of those methods and flexibly put them into teaching in accordance with the particular classroom situations can he/she reach the summit of successful EFL teaching. To briefly look back at the evolution of EFL teaching methods, the author aims to indicate that though this paper is in favor of the use of corpora, it does not claim that this is the only method applicable to classroom teaching. The paper also intends to indicate that although this paper advocates the use of a mini-corpus built by EFL teachers themselves, it does not object to the use of established corpora, on the contrary, does suggest the combination of self-built corpora with the established ones.

Modern General Corpora and Learner Corpora

According to McEnery & Wilson (2001), "a corpus in modern linguistics might be described as a finite-sized body of machine-readable text, sampled in order to be maximally representative of the language variety under consideration" (p. 32). The history of the development of modern machine-readable corpora began from the Brown corpus of American English, then, LOB (the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen) corpus of British texts. In these representative corpora, the criteria used for text selection were set, so as to ensure how the language variety is to be sampled, and how many samples of how many words are to be collected so that a pre-defined grand total is arrived at (McEnery & Wilson, 2001, p. 31). So, when the pre-defined number of words arrives, these corpora will not increase in word collection. Some major corpus projects such as the BNC (British National Corpus) -- a 100,000,000 word representative corpus of contemporary British written and spoken texts stand in direct line of succession to Brown and LOB. Quite differently, monitor corpora, such as the Bank of English at Birmingham University, represent a different approach. These corpora often have no final extent because, "like the language itself, it keeps on developing." (Sinclair, 1991, p. 25)

General corpora, which collect authentic (or standard, or native) language, "are important in language learning as they expose students at an early stage in the learning process to the kinds of sentences and vocabulary which they will encounter in reading genuine texts in the language or using the language in real communicative situations" (McEnery & Wilson, 2001, p.120). However, "one should not 'exaggerate' the impact of native corpora on foreign language teaching and, while having access to comprehensive frequency lists may well help course designers compile better lexical syllabi, it will not give them access to learners' actual lexical problems." (Granger, 1994) What Granger remarked may well explain why learner corpora are compiled. Being different from a general corpus, a learner corpus is "a computerized textual database of the language produced by foreign language learners" (Leech, 1998). Generally, learner corpora are important because they provide a deviation from the standard, that is, the language of the native speakers of a particular language.

The first learner corpus created in an academic setting is ICLE, launched by Sylviane Granger in 1990 and currently being coordinated by her at the University of Louvain-la-Neuve in Belgium. The corpus, at first, aims to collect dependable evidence on learners' errors and to compare them cross-linguistically in order to determine whether they are universal or language specific. In addition, the comparison is carried out to determine to what extent they are affected by factors in the learner's cultural or educational background. The second objective of ICLE is to investigate aspects of foreign surroundings in non-native essays, which are usually revealed by the overuse or underuse of words or structures with respect to the target language norm. This investigation is done by means of a comparison between individual L2 sub-corpora and native English corpora, such as the International Corpus of English, the LOB, and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays.

Centered on the study of learners' own EFL learning processes and outputs, learner corpora are psychologically much nearer to EFL teachers and learners in comparison with those general corpora. Recently, the learner corpora of different types and language backgrounds have expanded enormously and developed quickly, especially in Europe and Asia, such as LLC, CLC (Cambridge Learner's Corpus), PELCRA (Polish-English Language Corpus Research and Applications), HELC (Hungarian EFL Learner Corpus), JEFLL (Japanese EFL Learner's Corpus), CCLE (Project of 1 million word Corpus of Chinese Learner of English), HKUST (Hong Kong University of Science and Technology) Corpus of Learner English, and etc.

Established Corpora and EFL Teaching and Learning

Since its establishment, each of the corpora has contributed more or less to language, lexically, structurally, lexico-grammatically, morphologically, phonologically, and of course, pedagogically. Especially the learner corpora such as ICLE provide excellent materials for EFL research in many different areas. They have brought new insights into learner language, which can be applied to EFL teaching material design and classroom methodology. Theoretically, corpora of different categories, like general corpora, learner corpora and multilingual corpora can all benefit EFL teachers and

learners to a high degree, with the result that some optimistic linguists, like Sinclair (1996) announced that "the deployment of corpora would improve the teaching and learning of English worldwide." Technically, Tribble (1997) predicted that "as the rapid development of telecommunications for computing meant that now (or very soon) a large number of teachers and students would be able to access the BNC or the Bank of English on-line and use the same search engines as their university or commercial counterparts." He then pointed it out that the corpus was "no longer the sole preserve of the university or commercial research team" (Tribble, 1997).

However, it is very disappointing that at present, a decade after their announcement, corpora haven't been embraced by most of the EFL teachers and learners in nearly every nation. Reasons for this poor reception are manifold, and some major ones are summarized as follows:

1. The terms employed by a corpus may 'frighten' common EFL teachers and learners who know little about computer science. With a brief survey of the most influential established corpora, we can find participants building a corpus can be divided in to 2 main groups: one is only composed of computer professionals, and the other, both linguists and computer professionals. This implies that staff with an educational background in computer science exerts much influence on the process of corpus compilation. As a result, terms of computer sciences, such as parsing, tagging, token, node and etc. frequently appear in books or papers relevant to corpus linguistics. Examples of these terms may be fairly understandable to computer professionals, but they are rather difficult for EFL teachers and learners to know what they exactly mean, even if they are translated into their native language. To EFL teachers and learners, this is undoubtedly frustrating because they are usually required to be familiar with those technical terms and sometimes quite complex search procedures for carrying out corpus investigations.

2. Though there are free online sample corpora available, it must be expensive for EFL teachers and learners to deeply investigate the corpora such as LOB, BNC,

ICLE, and so on. The online availability of corpora could undisputedly benefit EFL teachers and learners and promote their knowledge of corpora to some certain extent, but if they want to further use the corpora, their attempts are frequently hindered because "large general corpora are only available to researchers who have access to powerful workstation computers." (Landry, 2003)

3. Authenticity is a word often associated with the value of corpora. It seems that established corpora could expose students to genuine texts in the language and help to expand their linguistic awareness. But, what is so-called *authenticity*? Taylor (1994) says, "The concept of *authenticity* is an abstract quality that depends on too many variables to be defined." He believes that the classroom itself creates its own 'authenticity' (Taylor, 1994). In language teaching, the individual learner's language level and his/her progression are more important than many of the other things. For example, a student, whose English language is not good enough, is most likely to be impatient with the huge size of the instances of word concordances retrieved from the established corpora. Moreover, it is also tough for him/her to understand the enormous range of background knowledge related to those instances, cultural as well as linguistic.

4. Judging from the brief introduction to modern general and learner corpora, it goes without saying that most of the texts collected in an established corpus (with the exception of a monitor corpus) are relatively not updated because of the characteristics of their finite size. Psychologically, what and how much is learned is much influenced by a learner's motivation. A person is most interested in whatever is around or closely linked with him/her. Consequently, it is nearly unbelievable that texts in such corpora as Brown and LOB are still attractive to today's EFL teachers and learners. The students are "unlikely to be motivated by a language learning activity if the instances of language use that they are studying are taken from contexts, which make no connection with their interests and concerns" (Tribble, 1997). In general, then, it is quite obvious that from the perspective of a specific classroom context – or, for that

matter, from a specific teacher's perspective –corpora are required to include the language of the learners that are present in the very classroom.

**Self-built Mini-corpora and EFL Teaching and Learning**

Just as only one of the teaching methods fails to provide versatility in EFL teaching and learning, only making use of established general and learner corpora is not sufficient in classrooms, either. A competent EFL teacher can never explore too many effective measures to improve his/her teaching capacity. With the prevailing of computer-assisted tools used in EFL classrooms and the development of corpora linguistics, it is a meaningful attempt for EFL teachers to try out the uses of corpora in teaching activities. However, it is necessary for the EFL teachers to find an ideal method to eliminate the drawbacks of those established corpora in order to take full advantage of corpus research findings. Based on the investigation into the established corpora and the aims to inspire the learner's study motivation, the application of self-built learner-oriented mini-corpora is then recommended in EFL teaching and learning in this paper.

With recent computer technology and online information available, a common EFL teacher, can easily and undoubtedly build a learner-oriented corpus by him/herself in an economical way, even if he/she knows little about computer:

1. Judging from the perspective of hardware support, a PC plus mobile mass storage devices can store as many linguistic materials as possible.

2. The software, needed to build a corpus, can be downloaded from websites, even sometimes free of charge, such as *ConcApp* (see http://www.sussex.ac.uk/languages/1-6-6.html) and *Wordsmith Tools* (see http://www.oup.com/elt/catalogue/guidance_articles/ws_form?cc=global).

3. Websites like http://bowland-files.lancs.ac.uk/courses/ahaw-nscl/l04_top.htm voluntarily provide very understandable instructions on how to build a corpus for personal uses in simple words.

So, if an EFL teacher wants to self-build a corpus, he/she can absolutely attain this goal without any difficulty. In comparison with the established corpora, a self-built corpus has its distinctively pragmatic effects:

1. The teacher can present his/her learners with the most recent texts or those texts most related to the learners' interests or concerns. For example, the Olympic games will be held in Beijing, China in 2008, and the topic of Olympics is heated among Chinese students. The teacher can then collect some recent *Olympic* news from the Internet as the raw material of his/her corpus, and compared with those established corpora, such as LOB, the self-built corpus can of course expose students to the newest instances (See Figure 1 and Figure 2.). This may stimulate the learners to get further knowledge of the Olympics by themselves, which spontaneously promote their motivation to study.
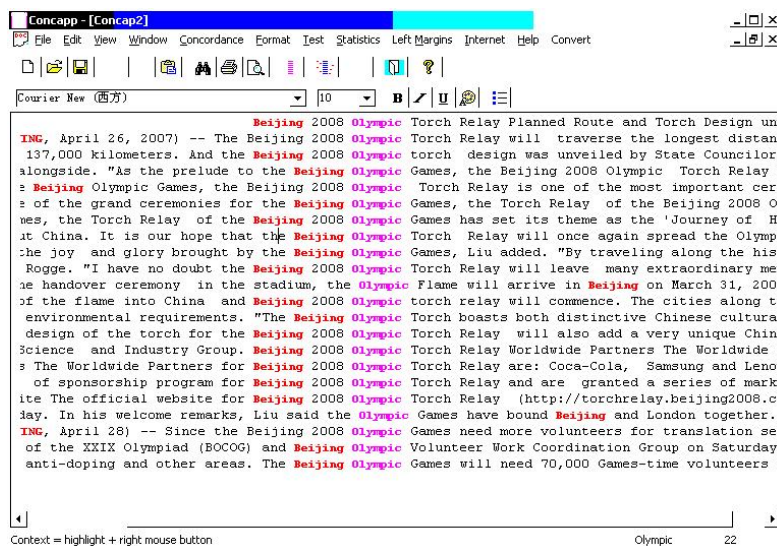
(Figure1: Word *Olympic* displayed on a self-built mini-corpus. Text collected from the piece of news about Beijing 2008 Torch Relay, posted by the official website of the Beijing 2008 Olympic games on Apr. 26, 2007. See http://torchrelay.beijing2008.cn/en/news/headlines/n214042288.shtml)

(Figure 2: Word *Olympic* displayed on online LOB. See

http://www.edict.com.hk/concordance/WWWConcappE.htm)

2. The teacher can organize learner-centered activities in an EFL classroom. For example, by handing out to learners the error data collected in a written examination, the teacher can ask the learners to help each other correct the mistakes. Then, the learners will not only profit from the correction of their own mistakes but also from the analysis of their peers' errors and corrections. In addition, since corpus-linguistic software allows learners not only to look for particular words and patterns but also for particular categories of errors, they may also find it useful to review their errors in terms of error categories.

3. The teacher can observe the learning process of his/her own learners' language both quantitatively and qualitatively. For example, by collecting the assignments submitted by the learners in his/her own corpus and using the corpus built by him/herself, the teacher could generate wordlists to check the range of the vocabulary that learners of the whole class or individual learners have used.

4. The teacher can evaluate the progression in learners' language with a longitudinal perspective and then focus either on the class as a whole or on specific learners in particular. For example, by comparing the learners' data collected in his/her own corpus of the first semester with those of the second semester, the teacher can find out whether specific kinds of errors occur more frequently or less frequently after one semester.

5. The teacher can not only analyze the corpus in its entirety, but also focus on individual learners. For example, the teacher can provide specific feedback to an individual learner by providing him/her with concordance lines that highlight frequently occurring kinds of mistakes in that particular learner's language.

6. The teacher can decide the size of and the degree of difficulty of the texts collected in his/her own corpus in accordance with the learners' language level. By doing so, the learners will be less likely to be deluged in hundreds or thousands of examples and be confused by the lack of cultural and linguistic knowledge, which they may often encounter in the established corpora.

Principles of self-building a mini-corpus

Before an EFL teacher begins his/her work to build a mini-corpus, he/she should take the following into consideration:

1. A mini-corpus must be learner-oriented: This means that the texts collected must be of learners' interest or concerns, that learners' own work such as their written assignments or test papers must be included.

2. A mini-corpus must be understandable: In a mini-corpus, the EFL teacher should try to interpret things in common words instead of the specialized terms, which are intricate to the learners, such as those in computer sciences.

3. A mini-corpus must be difficulty-suitable: When building a mini-corpus, the EFL teacher must decide whether the content of text collection will be difficult or not for the learners by evaluating the learners' language level. Otherwise, the learners may be frustrated with the instances displayed in the corpus they don't understand.

In addition, what Aston (1997) lists in his arguments for the use of smaller corpora in data-driven learning is also applicable to a self-built mini-corpus:

4. A mini-corpus must be fully analyzable: It must be possible for an individual learner or for a group to collectively investigate all of the lexical types, which occur with any frequency in a mini-corpus.

5. A mini-corpus must be easy to become familiar with: The learners, either individually or in groups using jig-saw techniques, can read through an entire mini-corpus. Then, they can draw on familiarity to help them interrogate the corpus.

6. A mini-corpus must be more clearly patterned: Collocations and other word associations must be self-evident to identify in a mini-corpus.

Conclusion

The diversity of needs of English language learners has long been acknowledged (Tarone & Yule, 1989, p.10). It is necessary for an EFL teacher to make endless efforts to pursue the most efficient and effective teaching methods to meet his/her learners' various needs. Corpus use contributes to language teaching in a number of ways (Aston, 2000; Leech, 1997; Nesselhauf, 2004). Research on learner corpora also contributes to "our understanding of language learning processes" (Granger et al., 2002). However, it has taken many years for now established corpora such as the Bank of English to "produce tangible pedagogical results" (Nunn, 2005). At present, there are still very few studies, which "relate the findings from learner corpora to actual classroom practice" (Tono, 2003). Consequently, it is both the corpus linguists' and the EFL learners' responsibility to narrow the gaps between corpus linguistic research and EFL teaching and learning. The development of computer technology and the Internet has made it completely possible and feasible for EFL teachers to make good use of corpus linguistic research findings and also, to compile a learner-oriented mini-corpus to complement the existing drawbacks of the established general and learner corpora. The use of established and self-built corpora is compatible with all other teaching methodologies and deserves to be tried out in an EFL classroom context so as to benefit EFL learners in the long run.

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Reading Strategy, Amount of Writing, Metacognition, Metamemory, and Apprehension as Predictors of English Written Proficiency

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Abstract

This study investigated whether reading strategy, amount of writing, metacognition, metamemory, and apprehension significantly predicts writing proficiency in English. The sample is composed of 159 college students taking up their English course. Five instruments were administered for each of the predictor variables of written proficiency. The participants were asked to make an essay as measure of their written proficiency and were rated using the Test of Written English (TWE) scoring guide. The Pearson r was used to correlate the predictor variables with written proficiency. A multiple regression analysis was used to determine which predictor is significant. The intercorrelations revealed that all seven variables (reading strategy, amount of writing, knowledge of cognition, regulation of cognition, MMQ-contentment, MMQ-ability, MMQ-strategy, and apprehension) were significant and had high correlations with written proficiency. Correlation coefficient values ranged from .41 to .76 and significant at $\alpha=.001$. The multiple regression analysis revealed that reading strategy, metamemory strategy, and regulation of cognition are significant predictors and when combined explained 58% of the variance in written proficiency. The semipartial correlations indicated that metamemory strategy as the best predictor, explaining 5% of the variance in written proficiency. Reading strategy, the next best predictor, explained 4% of the variance, and regulation of cognition explains 3.5% of the variance. Pedagogical implications include using the strategies in teaching students to write English compositions.

Introduction

Students upon entering tertiary education are already expected to have gained proficiency in communication especially in written form. There are numerous factors that can be accounted for in the development of English written proficiency. Previous researchers commonly concentrated on using predictors of the elements of written proficiency itself such as type of writing, duration, words, word sequence, spelling, characters written, sentences, and expository passages in predicting written proficiency (Lee & Krashen, 2002; Espin, Shin, Deno, Skare, Robinson, & Benner, 2000; Harris, Rogers, Qualls, 1998; Gansle, Noell, VanDerHeyden, Naquin, & Slider, 2002). It is also evident in English written proficiency that domains of language proficiency are related to writing ability such as reading, listening and oral communication (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Lett & O'Mara, 1990;). As compared with other communicative competence such as oral proficiency, other factors that can predict written expressions are cognitive and affective components such as awareness of one's learning (metacognition), awareness of memory functioning (metamemory), enjoyment of writing and fear of evaluation of one's writing (apprehension). These cognitive and affective components were strong predictors of English written proficiency (Lee & Krashen, 2002; Schraw and Dennison, 1994; Victori & Lockhart, 1995). It is not yet clear how each of these factors relate to English written proficiency in the presence of other factors. Using the mentioned factors that lead to English written proficiency there are only a few studies using cognitive and affective factors concurrently.

Reading Strategy

Reading strategy involves understanding the purpose of reading, activating relevant background knowledge, allocating attention to main ideas, critical evaluation, monitoring comprehension, and drawing inferences (Brown, Palincar, Armbruster, 1984). There is evidence that reading improves writing. Writing and reading are related and depend on each other (Scholastic Parent and Child, 2004). Students who

engage more in reading activities result to write better. In a study conducted by Lee & Krashen (2002) reported that reading was a strong predictor of grades in writing, and it is an excellent predictor of writing competence. The Test of Written English (TWE) scores were reported to be correlated with the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores with coefficients ranging from .51 to .68 indicating moderate to high relationship with reading ability included as a components (Educational Testing Service, 1996).

The following studies show the relationship between reading and writing. A study by Nash, Schumacher, and Carlson (1993) indicates that subjects reading a similarly organized passage wrote essays with better organization. Another study by Shell, Murphy, and Bruning (1989) found significant canonical factors of reading achievement having the highest loading with writing achievement. In the same way, the results of the study of Klingner, Kettmann, and Vaughn (1996) suggest that initial reading ability and oral language proficiency seem related to gains in comprehension. In another study by Frijters, Barron, and Brunello (2000), found in their study that home literacy accounts 18% of the variability in predicting written language. . In an experiment conducted by McCutchen, Covill, Hoyne, and Mildes (1994), they found that skilled writers showed more fluent sentence-generation processes than did less skilled writers. This was revealed in their better performance on reading span and speaking span tasks. In the experimental studies presented, other factors were investigated to influence reading and writing tasks but not directly looking into their relationship. On the other hand, more recent studies on correlating reading with writing abilities are consonant with these experimental findings.

Shahan and Lomax (1986) have proposed three models that explain the reading-writing relationship. Their model includes the interaction of reading and writing, reading-to-writing-model, and writing-to-reading. In his model, both reading and writing have their own components and were investigated using path analysis. Path analysis was used to investigate the effect of reading on writing factors and vice versa. The results proved that the reading-to-writing was superior. In this model, writing is expected to affect reading where reading knowledge can influence writing,

but that no writing knowledge would be useful or influential in reading. Development among grade school students occurs first in reading, and that this knowledge can then be extended or consolidated through writing. It was further recommended the need for theories of the reading writing relationship that are explicit about the sources of particular types of information. To address this need, instead of using the usual reading achievement variable, the reading process is further investigated by using reading strategy explaining writing performance.

Amount of Writing

There is evidence that the more students write, the better they make written compositions (Krashen, 1984). Writing quantity was used as a predictor for writing grades in the study of Lee and Krashen (2002). However, the results of the correlation in their study are not significant indicating that the more the writing done, the lower the writing grades. In their study, the relationship among the factors are still unclear. They considered rejecting the amount of writing as non-significant predictor as premature considering the need for more sensitive measures. However, their result supports the findings of Gradman and Hanania (1991) that the amount of writing of international students is not a significant predictor of TOEFL scores. There are few research literatures showing the evidence in the relationship between amount of writing and writing performance and the study contributes to the growing literature.

Metacognition

Metacognition refers to the knowledge of one's own cognitive system and its regulation (Flavell, 1979; Kluwe, 1982). Moreover, it refers to the ability to reflect upon, understand, and control one's learning (Schraw & Denison, 1994). As applied to second language learning, Victori and Lockhart (1995) refers to it as "the general assumptions that students' hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning and about the nature of language learning and teaching" (p. 224). It is composed of two main aspects: knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. Knowledge of cognition refers to the declarative aspects of knowledge

and offers information about different aspects of cognition like knowledge about personal capabilities, reading processes, writing, memory, strategy awareness and applicability, and problem solving (de Carvalho and Yuzawa, 2001). On the other hand, regulation of cognition refers to the procedural aspect of knowledge that enables the effective linking of actions needed to perform a given task; and it encompasses planning, monitoring, and correction of on-line performance (de Carvalho and Yuzawa, 2001). The use of metacognitive strategies leads to profound learning and improved performance. One of its profound effects is on the second language learning. Second language learners have a variety of strategies from which to choose when they encounter vocabulary that they do not know and that they have determined they need to know to understand the main idea in the text (Anderson, 2002). Most of the studies on metacognition involve its influence on language proficiency on general but not specifically writing proficiency. For example, in a study by Bremner (1999), it was found that metacognitive strategies are used higher on language proficiency as measured by two spoken tasks, two written tasks and two discreet-item language tests. Another is Mullins (1992) who found that there is a high and positive association between metacognitive strategies and language proficiency. Most studies include metacognitive strategies as related to language proficiency in general (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1997; Mochizuki, 1999; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Rong, 1999). Knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition can be used as predictors of written proficiency since the component skills involved like declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, planning, information management, comprehension, monitoring and evaluation are needed to produce good writing (Markel, 1984). It was further explained by Victori and Lockhart (1995) that "language learning should help the learner develop a self-directed learning approach whereby he can eventually set his own needs and objectives; choose materials and resources in accordance with his goals; monitor and evaluate his progress overtime (Metacognitive strategies)" (p. 223).

Metamemory

Metamemory is the insight or awareness of an individual's own memory functioning (Troyer & Rich, 2002). Metamemory includes the components of contentment, ability, and strategies produced from factor analysis conducted by Troyer and Rich (2002). Contentment is the confidence, concern and satisfaction in the ability to remember things. Ability refers to the ease in remembering events and information. Strategies involve asking someone to remember, creating rhymes and visual images, organizing, saying out loud, making a list, and elaboration.

The relationship between memory and the writing process has been investigated only recently. Metamemory as a strategy have shown influence over language proficiency but not isolating written proficiency as a dependent measure Ehrman & Green & Oxford, 1995; Goh & Foong, 1997; Ku, 1997; (Mullins, 1992; Oxford, 1995; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). Although in a study by Bedell and Oxford (1996), Rong (1999), and Bremner (1999), it is the least strategy used in language learning with Chinese students as their participants. Memory as a strategy in language proficiency is commonly used as individuals need to retain English vocabulary and construction overtime to be able to use it when necessary. This has been illustrated in some research where learners are more likely to remember the items that they have just generated on their own than the ones presented or read (Kinjo & Snodgrass, 2000; Moshfeghi & Sharifian, 1998; Slamecka & Graf, 1978). It can also be explained that as the level of proficiency in second language increases, cognitive processes such as memory also approximates development (Sharifian, 2002).

The link between memory and the writing task was explained by Olive (2004) using the dual-task technique. It was explained that in writing during the planning stage, writers construct a preverbal message that corresponds to ideas that they want to communicate. The ideas are retrieved from the long term memory and organized. The preverbal message is then transformed into a verbal message. During the transformation, the plan is grammatically encoded by retrieving the mental lexicon, the meaning of words and rules for word formation. The written text is then improved by comparing the mental representation and the text already written. Lastly, during the

psychomotor level, there is the execution or graphic representation of the linguistic message producing handwriting. From this model, writing is viewed as a cognitive task where information is retrieved from memory, and then the execution of writing takes place. It can be noted that memory takes an important role in writing since morphology, syntax and semantics are accessed in memory.

Apprehension

Writing apprehensions refers to anxiety about writing (Lee & Krashen, 2002). It is one of the primary predictors of second language acquisition. Across studies, it is evident that the higher the anxiety, the lower the measures of language proficiency achievement (Lee & Krashen, 2002; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000). In a study by Lee and Krashen (2002), they found that writing apprehension is the strongest predictor of grades in a writing course. And the study also supports other findings that it is negatively associated with writing performance, although the contribution of apprehension was not statistically significant in their study. In addition to this, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) found that language anxiety is the best single correlate of achievement. In the study by Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (2000), their findings indicate that foreign language anxiety was one of the best predictors, approximately explaining 22% of the variance of foreign-language achievement. Other studies have also reported that students' anxiety accounts for high variance in language learning (Sanchez-Herrero & Sanchez, 1992; Horwitz, 1991). It is important to include writing apprehension into the model as it is one of the evidently potent predictors of second language performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine further the role of cognitive and affective factors in writing ability. The variables such as reading strategy, amount of writing, metacognition, metamemory (cognitive factors), and apprehension (affective factor) are used as predictors of English written proficiency among college students. Reading strategy and apprehension are unidimensional which only measures one skill.

Metacognition is composed of knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition and metamemory is composed of contentment, ability and strategies. The proportion of variance in written proficiency explained by each predictor is compared.

Method

Participants

The sample is composed of 159 freshmen students (72 males and 87 females) taking an English course at a private university in metropolitan Manila. The students volunteered to participate to receive an extra course credit in general psychology.

Instruments

The questionnaires used in this study included the Informed Strategies for Learning (ISL), a survey was constructed to measure amount of writing, Metacognitive Assessment Inventory (MAI), Multifactorial Memory Questionnaire (MMQ), Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Scale (WAS), and the Test of Written English rating scale (TWE).

The Informed Strategies for Learning by Paris, Cross and Lipson (1884) was used to measure reading strategy. It is composed of 20 items in a multiple choice form with three alternatives for each question (see Appendix A). The items reflect awareness of reading goals, plans and strategies, comprehension and meaning, and evaluating and regulating reading. The ISL provided information about declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge about reading strategies in conjunction with practice and guided learning. The items were content validated by a professor of psychology expert in line with learning strategies and an English teacher both from De La Salle University. To establish the reliability of the test, a test-retest procedure was conducted and yielded a significant correlation coefficient of .43 indicating low reliability.

A survey was constructed to determine the amount of writing produced by the participants (see Appendix B). It is composed of items that include reaction papers, essays, research reports, literary materials and others where students indicated the

amount of writing completed for each during the term. The total number of writings produced during the term indicates the amount of writing produced. The questionnaire was content validated by two English professors from De La Salle University.

The Metacognitive Assessment Inventory by Schraw & Dennison (1994) was used to measure metacognition (see Appendix C). The test is composed of 52 items, 17 of them assess knowledge of cognition (KC) and 35 assess regulation of cognition (RC). The knowledge of cognition part measures the degree of awareness of one's own knowledge and ways of monitoring. The items depict academic situations in which awareness of one's knowledge and awareness of skills are assumed to be related to effective monitoring. It includes three subprocesses that facilitate the reflective aspect of metacognition. On the other hand, the self-regulation part includes a number of subprocesses that facilitate the control aspect of learning like planning, information management strategies, comprehension monitoring, debugging strategies and evaluation. The survey has a response format of a bipolar scale: the right end of each scale indicated the statement that is "Always false" (1) to "Always true" (100) about the individual. The response is recorded by drawing a slash across the rating scale at a point that best corresponds to how true or false the statement is about the participant. The coefficient alpha of the questionnaire reached .88 using a factor replication analysis.

The Multifactorial Memory Questionnaire by Troyer and Rich (2002) was used to measure metamemory (see Appendix D). The MMQ assesses three dimensions of self-reported memory, involving overall contentment or satisfaction with one's own memory ability (MMQ-contentment), perception of everyday memory ability (MMQ-ability), and use of everyday memory strategies and aids (MMQ-strategy). The respondents indicated the frequency with which each strategy was used using a 5–point verbal frequency scale (all the time, often, sometimes, rarely, never). For each of the items, 1 to 5 points were given on the basis of frequency use. The criterion for content validity of the scale was 70% agreement among 12 memory-expert raters. The agreement on the 61 items tended to be high. The Eigen values of the three components ranged from .45 to .74. Test-retest reliability indicated a correlation of

highly reliable scores with a coefficient of .93. The internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha indicated highly reliable scores on contentment with alpha coefficient of .93, ability with alpha coefficient of .93 and strategy with alpha coefficient of .83.

The Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Scale was used to measure anxiety about writing (see Appendix E). The questions on the WAS prove several anxiety-related factors that includes fear of evaluation, fear of writing, enjoyment of writing, and ease of writing. The scale is composed of 26 items. The items on enjoyment of writing and ease of writing were negatively scored to reflect an overall writing anxiety with the other two factors. Previous research shows that similar students showed levels of reliability with an alpha coefficient above .90.

The TWE rating Scale was used to evaluate the English written proficiency of the essays produced (see Appendix F). The TWE is the essay component of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). It uses a criterion-referenced scale to provide information about an examinee's ability to generate and organize ideas on paper, to support those ideas with evidence or examples, and to use the conventions of standard written English. The rating scale provides concise descriptions of the general characteristics of essays at each of six points on the criterion referenced scale. The readers assign scores from 1, the lowest, and 6 being the highest demonstrating high competence in writing ability. The scoring guide also serves to maintain consistent scoring standards and high interrater reliability within and across administration. The reported interrater correlations and coefficient alpha indicate that reader reliability is acceptably high, with correlations between first and second readers ranging from .77 to .81 and the values of coefficient alpha ranging from .87 to .89. Construct validity was established where the TWE scores was related with the TOEFL scaled scores as it is part of a general construct of English language proficiency. For its content-related validity, the TWE committee developed items to meet the detailed specifications that encompassed widely recognized components of written language facility.

Procedure

The participants in this study were scheduled to take the ISL, MAI, and MMQ. They were tested in groups of students per classroom. The researcher, upon entering the classroom informed the students that they would be answering three survey questionnaires. They were also instructed to answer it as honestly as possible. They were told that they would further receive instruction on how to answer. During the administration they were told to read carefully and follow the written instructions.

The ISL was administered first. The participants were instructed to read the following statements and think about their habitual reading practices and encircle the option for each item that applies to them.

The MAI was the next instrument administered. The participants were instructed to think about their habitual academic behavior, and rate each item by putting a slash in the most appropriate space on the scale that follows each statement in the checklist.

The MMQ was the last instrument to be administered. The participants were instructed to think about how they remember things and read each statement and encircle the frequency that corresponds to their own experience.

After the first session, the students were scheduled again to answer the survey of the amount of writing they produced in the last week of the term because they have produced several writings in different classes. During the administration of the survey, the participants were requested to approximate the number of writings that they have produced for the term. After the survey, a one page paper was passed around, and students were instructed to write an essay about "the factors that can make oneself abnormal" corresponding to the topic taken up in their general psychology class. The students were given 30 minutes to plan, write, and make any necessary changes in their essay as indicated in the TWE test book. They were informed that the essay would be graded on the basis of its overall quality. After finishing the essay, the students were given the WAS to determine their anxiety towards writing. After completing all the questionnaires, the students were briefed about the study and were informed that predictors of English written proficiency were being determined.

Data Analysis

The responses in the questionnaires were scored and encoded in a spreadsheet for analysis. To determine the participant's proficiency in written English, two raters were asked to serve as readers for the essays. The raters were two English college professors from a university. The raters were oriented in the scoring procedures by the researcher using the TWE scoring guide and TWE sample essays. Each batch of essay is scrambled between the first and second readings to ensure that readers are not unduly influenced by the sequence of essays. The score assigned to an essay is derived by averaging the two independent ratings.

The scores of each participant for the ISL, MAI, MMQ and WAS were also obtained. The amount of writing for each participant was also encoded.

The Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was used to assess the relationship among written proficiency, reading strategy, amount of writing, self-regulation, knowledge of cognition, MMQ-contentment, MMQ-ability, MMQ-strategy, and apprehension. The magnitude, strength, and significance of the correlations were reported.

The multiple regression technique was used as the major analysis. The statistical procedure determines which, among the independent variables, are significant predictors of English written proficiency. In the procedure, the optimal combination of reading strategy, amount of writing, self-regulation, knowledge of cognition, MMQ-contentment, MMQ-ability, MMQ-strategy, and apprehension predicts English written proficiency. In this study, the criterion used was the maximum proportion of variance explained (R^2), which provides a measure of effect size. In multiple regressions, the relative contribution of each of the independent variables in the prediction of English written proficiency is assessed. To assess the unique contribution of each independent variable, the semi-partial correlation coefficient and partial correlation coefficient was used.

Results

The means, standard deviations, and relationships among reading strategy, writing

quantity, metacognition, metamemory, apprehension and written proficiency were obtained. The multiple regression was conducted where writing proficiency was predicted using the other factors as the predictor.

Table 1 shows the mean scores and standard deviation of reading strategy, writing quantity, RC and KC for metacognition, MMQ-contentment, MMQ-ability, MMQ-strategy for metamemory, apprehension and writing proficiency.

Table 1
Mean Scores for the Predictors and Criterion

	M	*SD*	*N*
Reading strategy	15.79	2.22	159
Writing quantity	20.97	20.81	159
Metacognition			
Knowledge of Cognition	73.07	12.27	159
Regulation of Cognition	66.69	15.31	159
Metamemory			
MMQ-contentment	52.77	7.58	159
MMQ-ability	45.65	12.60	159
MMQ-strategy	57.73	12.57	159
Apprehension	71.22	10.61	159
Writing Proficiency	4.58	0.75	159

The highest possible score for the ISL is 20 and the mean of the scores obtained is considerably high (M=15.79). In the amount of writing, the reported maximum number of writing reported is 135 and 2 as the least number. The mean number of writing for the entire term is quite small with individual scores being far from the mean as indicated with a large standard deviation (SD=20.81). A median spilt was used to assess the levels of KC (Mdn=74.06) and RC (Mdn=68.67) scores. The KC mean score (M=73.07) is low and the RC mean score (M=66.69) is high when compared with the median of all scores separately on the two metacognitive scales. The scale on contentment (M=52.77) and strategy (M=57.73) of the metamemory are high when compared with the norm means (M=39.3, M=40.1) obtained by Troyer and Rich (2002) and the same level (M=45.65) for ability (M=45.0). The level of writing proficiency when compared with the TWE reference groups indicates that the

performance of the participants is on the 85.25th percentile rank. For the general norm of the TWE classified by native language (M=4.27) and by country (M=4.24), the mean score of the participants is high (M=4.58).

Table 2 shows the intercorrelation among the predictor variables and the criterion written proficiency.

Table 2
Correlation Between Reading Strategy, Writing Quantity, Metacognition, Metamemory, Apprehension and Written Proficiency

Variable	Written Proficiency
Reading strategy	0.76***
Writing quantity	0.67***
Metacognition	
Knowledge of Cognition	0.56***
Regulation of Cognition	0.67***
Metamemory	
MMQ-contentment	0.41***
MMQ-ability	0.67***
MMQ-strategy	0.67***
Apprehension	-0.65***

*p<.05,   **p<.01,   ***p<.001

All of the variables are significantly correlated with written proficiency. The use of reading strategy has the highest correlation with proficiency in writing. Previous studies presented reading as a performance but not as a strategy and it is related to general language proficiency. This supports the reading-writing model of Shanahan and Lomar (1986) where results proved that the reading-to-writing was superior. Indeed the basic skills and strategies used in reading leads to better writing performance.

Writing quantity is also highly correlated with written proficiency. This indicates that the more the participants engage in writing, the more they become proficient in writing. The results did not support the study of Lee and Krashen (2002) where they found negative relationship between reading and writing. This can also be explained with the use of rehearsal where the more an individual writes the more proficient one

becomes in the activity undertaken.

In the components of metacognition, RC and KC are highly correlated with written proficiency. This indicates that the more the individual becomes aware of one's learning, the better they write. It was explained by Anderson (2002) that second language users have a variety of strategies to choose when they encounter unknown vocabularies and that they have determined the need to know. As individuals use more metacognitive approaches in learning, the more they write proficiently.

The use of metamemory in the same way is highly correlated with writing proficiency. The result supports various studies relating memory strategies and language proficiency (Mullins, 1992; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1997; Goh & Foong, 1997; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). This result strengthens the dual-task technique propped by Olive (2004) where in the primary task of writing, memory processes are taking place as secondary.

Apprehension is highly correlated with writing proficiency with a negative magnitude. This result supports most studies where apprehension is negatively associated with writing performance (Lee & Krashen, 2002; Onwuegbuzzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000). It indicates that the more anxious the participants in writing, the better their writing performance.

Multiple regression was performed where the variables were tested as significant predictors of written proficiency. Table 3 shows the regression model and significant predictors of written proficiency.

Table 3
Multiple Regression Model Predicting Written Proficiency

	B	$SE\ B$	β	p-level	**Partial**	Semipartial

					Correlation	Correlation
Intercept			1.09*	0.007*		
Reading strategy	0.28	0.11	0.09*	0.009*	0.21	0.04
Writing quantity	-0.11	0.07	-0.004	0.083	-0.14	-0.028
Metacognition						
Knowledge of Cognition	-0.26	0.19	-0.016	0.178	-0.11	-0.022
Regulation of Cognition	0.38	0.18	0.019*	0.031*	0.17	0.035
Metamemory						
Contentment	0.11	0.09	0.011	0.263	0.09	0.018
Ability	0.30	0.16	0.017	0.065	0.15	0.030
Strategy	0.46	0.15	0.027*	0.002*	0.24	0.050
Apprehension	-0.19	0.17	-0.013	0.256	-0.09	-0.018

$R = 0.58$, $R^2 = 0.34$, $F(8, 150)=460.62$,   Adjusted $R^2 = 0.55$ ($*p<.05$)

The regression analysis revealed that reading strategy, regulation of cognition, and MMQ-strategy contributed significantly to the prediction of written proficiency. These significant predictors combined to explain 34% of the variation in written proficiency. The strongest predictor of written proficiency is reading strategy. Greater use of reading strategy is associated with better writing performance. Then it is followed by metamemory strategy and regulation of cognition. It can be noted that the predictor variables that are used as strategies significantly predicts writing proficiency. The proportion of the variance explained ($R^2=0.34$) indicates a large effect size as it exceeds 26% (Cohen, 1988).

The semipartial correlation coefficient indicates that overall metamemory strategy was the best predictor of written proficiency explaining 5% of the variance in written proficiency. Reading strategy the next best predictor, explained 4% of the variance. Regulation of cognition explained 3.5% of the variance. In using the semipartial correlations values to assess the effect sizes for each independent variable, all the predictors showed small effect sizes.

In comparing the results of the intercorrelations and regression done, reading strategy, amount of writing, metacognition, metamemory and apprehension were all significantly related to written proficiency. The magnitude reported were all positive and all correlation coefficient values are high ranging from .41 to .76. In the

regression analysis only reading strategy, metamemory strategy, and regulation of cognition met the tolerance level to be included in the model. These three predictors were notable to have the highest correlation coefficients in zero order correlation with written proficiency. As reported also in the regression model, the beta coefficient for writing quantity, knowledge of cognition and apprehension have negative values indicating an inverse relationship. In the intercorrelations, these variables were positively related with written proficiency. The inverse relationship that occurred supports the study of Lee and Krashen (2002) where negative relationship was found in writing quantity and apprehension. This indicates that the more anxiety and writing a person undergoes, the poorer the performance in writing although this is not significant. In considering the beta weights to determine the strongest predictor of written proficiency, reading strategy is the strongest but for the meta-analysis based on the semipartial correlation, metamemory strategy accounts for the largest effect size followed by reading strategy. On the other hand, regulation of cognition showed the lowest effect size and predictive ability.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine the significant predictors of written proficiency using reading strategy, amount of writing, metacognition, metamemory and apprehension as independent variables. The study found that all the variables are significantly related with written proficiency. Likewise, reading strategy, metamemory strategy, and regulation of cognition are significant predictors of written proficiency.

Prior research in determining the relationship between reading and writing indicates significance and this study resulted in the same outcome (Scholastic Parent and Child, 2004; Lee & Krashen, 2002; Educational Testing Service, 1996; Nash, Schumacher, and Carlson, 1993; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989; Klingner, Kettman, and Vaughn, 1996). The difference is that previous studies used reading as a form of an achievement or performance measured using ability tests but in this study reading is used as a strategy (Brown, Palinear, Armbruster, 1984). The results indicate that as

individuals use reading strategies such as understanding the purpose of the reading material, activating relevant background knowledge, focusing attention to main ideas, evaluation, monitoring and making inferences, the more likely they can make better writing compositions. The reading strategies enable an individual to acquire the necessary framework in building one's vocabulary, comprehension, spelling, semantics and syntax in language development (Shanahan & Lomax, 1986). These prior skills enable an individual to make better writing. The model proposed by Shahan and Lomax (1986) supports the findings that reading strategy can predict writing. This also supports the findings of Frijters, Barron, & Brunello, (2000) and Shell Murphy & Bruning (1989) where high variability is accounted for in writing.

Among the variables relating amount of writing with writing proficiency, only Krashen (1984) and other follow-up studies made notable literature in the field. However, there has been no consistent result from his prior studies in the relationship of amount of writing to writing performance. This research, however, have supported the findings that the more writing done, the more proficient one becomes in writing. This phenomenon can be explained as the consolidation of activities such as writing leads to better performance.

Metacognition is strongly related to writing proficiency, and this result supports considerable studies (Bremner, 1999; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1997; Rong, 1999; Mochizuki, 1999; Peacock and Ho, 2003). In this study, regulation of cognition resulted to be a significant predictor. It shows that planning, information management, comprehension monitoring, debugging, and evaluation involved in self-regulation when highly used leads to better performance in writing. Writing involves a series of tasks for preparation as compared with other language components and using these tasks brings about increase in performance.

Metamemory is found to be significantly related to written proficiency. Other studies used memory alone simply as a strategy for language learning and not as a metacognitive process like in the present study (Mullins, 1992; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1997; Goh & Foong, 1997; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). In this study, it was found that strategy as a metamemory component is a

significant predictor. Metamemory, as a strategy, includes asking someone to remember, creating rhymes and visual images, organizing, saying out loud, making a list, and elaboration. These strategies when used highly enable the storage of information overtime. The information stored over time creates schemas in the generation of thoughts needed in writing. This process is explained more by Olive (2004) where thoughts lead to the act of writing.

It was found that the more an individual becomes anxious in writing, the better the performance in writing which is not supported from previous studies (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000; Sanchez-Herrero & Sanchez, 1992: Horwitz, 1991). Having a high anxiety may lead to better writing performance since an individual may become aware of the elements that he need to accomplish in the process.

It can be observed that the significant predictors of writing proficiency turn out to be strategies in general that include reading strategy, metamemory strategy and regulation of cognition. This indicates that with the use of different strategies in reading, memory and control of learning, writing can be best facilitated. As explained by Victori and Lockhart (1995), "the exposure of learners to a range of strategies allows them to handle different types and learning situations efficiently with confidence" (p. 223). Using strategies lead students to effectively perform in different writing tasks. Improvement in writing can be attained by using reading strategies as mentioned, metacognitive strategy such as regulation of cognition, and metamemory strategy. These strategies that are significant are cognitive strategies which can be used for learning effectively. The other factors having a significant relationship in a zero order correlation with writing such as apprehension, amount of writing and the other metacognitive and metamemory components can be utilized to improve writing as well. As a pedagogical implication, teaching students to make use of the three different strategies may lead them to produce improved compositions, narrations in written form, essays and written reports. In the classroom, the application of strategies can help learners to be competent writers. Different benefits are gained through the use of the strategies in writing. In view of the learners, as they develop insightful beliefs about the

language learning process, they tend to develop a more active part in their own learning, taking charge of it especially if the situation calls for a writing task. The use of adequate strategies may compensate for possible deficiencies encountered as they engage in the task. These strategies when taught enable students to become effective second language learners. The quality of writing is enhanced by increasing the learners' repertoire in the use or reading, memory and metacognitive strategies.

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Appendix A
Items for Informed Strategies for Learning

1.   The best way to focus on the important points of an article that you read is to…
underline the main idea
read the story 3 or 4 times
ask someone else to explain it

2.   The main goal of reading is …
to say all the words
to understand the meaning
to read quickly without mistakes

3.   Mark the one that is false
Skimming tells you what kind reading it is.
Skimming helps you study before and after you read.
Skimming is reading every word more than once.

4.   Reading and puzzles are similar because
only adults do them right
both are very easy
you need to stop in the middle of both sometimes to see if you are getting closer to the goal

5.   Skimming is
reading all the short words and not the long ones
a quick way of finding out what the story is about

something that only poor readers do

6. When you finish reading you should
think about the information and make sure you understand it
close the book and do something else
not go back and read it over

7. Reading the same article twice
can help you understand the difficult parts
is boring do you shouldn't do it
takes too much time

8. A bag of tricks for reading helps you read better because
reading is tricky
you don't have to think if you know the tricks
special plans and tricks help you understand the story

9. If you cannot understand a word in an article, you should
guess it and make one up
skip it
user the rest of the sentence as a clue

10. A really good plan for your reading is
to skip the hard parts
to read every word over and over
to look back in the story to check what happened

11. Mark the answer that would put you on the road to reading disaster.
skipping sentences that are hard to understand
checking to see if sentences make sense and fit together
asking help for new vocabulary skills

12. A good reading detective
gathers clues about the purpose, content, and difficulty of the reading
reads the story first and asks questions later
reads very quickly

13. Saying a definition in your own words is important because
you don't have to worry about what the definition means
then you know if you tracked down and rounded up the main ideas in a summary
you can tell if it is a fact, fiction, or opinion

14.   Being a reading detective means that you
Use a magnifying glass when you read
Read fast or slow depending upon the kind of story and reason for reading it
Like to read mystery stories better than animal stories

15.   The best way to round up your ideas and prevent them from slipping away is to
make sure that you can spell all the words
mark your place in the book with a bookmarker
ask yourself who, what, why and where questions

16.   What reading sign is a bad plan for you
'stop' means to think and say it in your own words
'curve S' means to skip the hard parts
'speed limit' means to adjust your speed to the reading task

17.   What is the best reason for judging your reading when you finish?
so that you can tell your teacher that your through
so that you can be sure that you understand the meaning
so you van tell if the author was telling the truth

18.   A good dreading map
is a picture
helps you plan your reading
is not necessary

19.   Inferring the hidden meaning when you read means that
you figure out what happened even though the words didn't say it exactly
you try to memorize what the author said
you need to use a dictionary to understand it completely

20.   The three kinds of meaning in reading are
literal, inferential, personal
fiction, poetry, comics
words, sentences, paragraphs

Appendix B
Amount of Writing Survey

Name: _____   Course/major: _____
Gender: ___ Male   ___ Female   Year level: _____

Approximate the number of writings that you have produced for this term on the following papers. Write on the blank the number you have produced for each kind of paper.

Number of writings produced

1. Reaction paper   _____

2. Essays   _____

3. Research Reports (Thesis, experiments   _____
    empirical reports)

4. Literary Materials   (Poems, stories etc.)   _____

5. Others   _____

                                                  TOTAL _____

Appendix C
Items of the Metacognitive Assessment Inventory
Knowledge of Cognition

3.   I try to use strategies that have worked in the past.
5.   I understand my intellectual strengths and weaknesses.
10. I know what kind of information is most important to learn.
12. I am good at organizing information.
14. I have a specific purpose for each strategy I use.
15. I learn best when I know something about the topic.
16. I know what the teacher expects me o learn.
17. I am good at remembering information.
18. I use different learning strategies depending on the situation.
20. I have control over how well I learn.
26. I can motivate myself to learn when I need to.
27. I am aware of what strategies I use when I study.
29. I use my intellectual strengths to compensate for my weaknesses.
32. I am a good judge of how well I understand something.
33. I find myself using helpful learning strategies automatically.
35. I know when each strategy I use will be most effective.
46. I learn more when I am interested in the topic.

Regulation of Cognition

1.   I ask myself periodically if I am meeting my goals.
2.   I consider several alternatives to a problem before I answer.
4.   I pace myself while learning in order to have enough time.

6.　　I think about what I really need to learn before I begin a task.

7.　　I know how well I did once I finish a test.

8.　　I set specific goals before I begin a task.

9.　　I slow down when I encounter important information.

11.　I ask myself if I have considered all options when solving a problem.

13.　I consciously focus my attention on important information.

19.　I ask myself if there was an easier way to do things after I finish a task.

21.　I periodically review to help me understand important relationships.

22.　I ask myself questions about the material before I begin.

23.　I think of several ways to solve a problem and choose the best one.

24.　I summarize what I have learned after I finish.

25.　I ask others for help when I don't understand something.

28.　I find myself analyzing the usefulness of strategies while I study.

30.　I focus on the meaning and significance of new information.

31.　I create my own examples to make information more meaningful.

34.　I find myself pausing regularly to check my comprehension.

36.　I ask myself how well I accomplished my goals once I'm finished.

37.　I draw pictures or diagrams to help me understand while learning.

38.　I ask myself if I have considered all options after I solve a problem.

39.　I try to translate new information into my own words.

40.　I change strategies when I fail to understand.

41.　I use the organizational structure of the text to help me learn.

42.　I read instructions carefully before I begin a task.

43.　I ask myself if what I'm reading is related to what I already know.

44.　I reevaluate my assumptions when I get confused.

45.　I organize my time to bet accomplish my goals.

47.　I try to break studying down into smaller steps.

48.　I focus on overall meaning rather than specifics.

49.　 I ask myself questions about how well I am doing while I am learning something new.

50.　I ask myself if I learned as much as I could have once I finish a task.

51.　 I stop and go back over new information that is not clear.

52.　I stop and reread when I get confused.

Appendix D
Multifactorial Memory Questionnaire

1.　I am generally pleased with my memory ability.

2.　There is something seriously wrong with my memory.

3.　If something is important I will probably remember it.

4.　When I forget something, I fear that I may have a serious memory problem.

5.　My memory is worse than most other people my age.

6.　I have confidence in my ability to remember things.

7.　I feel unhappy when I think about my memory ability.

8.　I worry that others will notice that my memory is not very good.

9. When I have trouble remembering something, I'm not too hard on myself.
10. I am concerned about my memory.
11. My memory is really going downhill lately.
12. I am generally satisfied with my memory ability.
13. I don't get upset when I have trouble remembering something.
14. I worry that I will forget something important.
15. I am embarrassed about my memory ability.
16. I get annoyed or irritated with myself when I am forgetful.
17. My memory is good for my age.
18. I worry about my memory ability.
19. How often do you forget to pay a bill on time?
20. How often do you misplace something you use daily, like keys or glasses?
21. How often do you have trouble remembering a telephone number you just looked up?
22. How often do you not recall the name of someone you just met?
23. How often do you leave something behind when you meant to bring it with you?
24. How often do you forget an appointment?
25. How often do you forget what you were just about to do, for example, walk into a room and forget what you went there to do?
26. How often do you forget to run an errand?
27. How often do you have difficulty coming up with a specific word that you want?
28. How often do you have trouble remembering details from a newspaper or magazine article you read earlier that day?
29. How often do you forget to take medication?
30. How often do you not recall the name of someone you have known for some time?
31. How often do you forget to pass on a message?
32. How often do you forget what you were going to say in a conversation?
33. How often do you forget a birthday or anniversary that you used to know well?
34. How often do you forget a telephone number you use frequently?
35. How often do you retell a story or joke to the same person because you forgot that you had already told him or her?
36. How often do you misplace something that you put away a few days ago?
37. How often do you forget to buy something you intended to buy?
38. How often do you forget details about a conversation?
`39. How often do you use a timer or alarm to remind you when to do something?
40. How often do you ask someone to help you remember?
41. How often do you create a rhyme out of what you want to remember?
42. How often do you create a visual image of something you want to remember, like a name and a fence?
43. How often do you write things on a calendar, such as appointments or things you need to do?
44. How often do you go through the alphabet one letter at a time to see if it sparks a memory for a name or word?

45. How often do you organize information you want to remember; for example organize your grocery list according to food groups?

46. How often do you say something out loud in order to remember it, such as a telephone number you just looked up?

47. How often do you use a routine to remember important things, like checking that you have your wallet and keys when you leave home?

48. How often do you make a list, such as a grocery list or a list of things to do?

49. How often do you mentally elaborate on something you want to remember; for example, focus on a lot of the details?

50. How often do you put something in a prominent place to remind you to do something, like planning your umbrella by the front door so that you will remember to take it with you.

51. How often do you repeat something to yourself at increasingly longer and longer intervals so that you will remember it?

52. How often do you create a story to link together information you want to remember?

53. How often do you write down in a notebook things that you want to remember?

54. How often do you create an acronym out of the first letters in a list of things to remember, such as carrots, apples, and bread (cab)?

55. How often do you intentionally concentrate hard on something so that you will remember it?

56. How often do you write a note or reminder for yourself (other than on a calendar or in a notebook)?

57. How often do you mentally retrace your steps in order to remember something, such as the location of a misplaced item?

Appendix E

Items for the Writing Apprehension Survey

1. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.
2. I look forward to writing down my ideas.
3. I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated.
4. Taking a composition course is very frightening experience.
5. Handing in a composition makes me feel good.
6. My mind seems to go back when I start to work on a composition.

7.   Expressing ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication.
8.   I like to write my ideas down.
9.   I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing.
10. I like to have friends read what I have written.
11. I'm nervous about writing.
12. People seem to enjoy what I write.
13. I enjoy writing.
14. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas.
15. Writing is a lot of fun.
16. I expect to do poorly in composition classes even before I enter them.
17. I like seeing my thoughts on paper.
18. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience.
19. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in a composition course.
20. When I hand in a composition I know I'm going to do poorly.
21. It's easy for me write good compositions.
22. I don't think I write well as most other people.
23. I avoid writing.
24. I don't like my compositions to be evaluated.
25. I'm no good at writing.

Appendix F

TWE Rating Scale

Readers will assign scores based on the following scoring guide. Though examinees are asked to write on a specific topic, parts of the topic may be treated by implication. Readers should focus on what the examinee does well.

Scores

6   Demonstrates clear competence in writing on both the rhetorical and syntactic levels, though it may have occasional errors.
A paper in this category
– effectively addresses the writing task
– is well organized and well developed
– uses clearly appropriate details to support a thesis or illustrate ideas
– displays consistent facility in the use of language
– demonstrates syntactic variety and appropriate word choice

5   Demonstrates competence in writing on both the rhetorical and syntactic levels, though it will probably have occasional errors.
A paper in this category
– may address some parts of the task more effectively than others
– is generally well organized and developed
– uses details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea
– displays facility in the use of language
– demonstrates some syntactic variety and range of vocabulary

4   Demonstrates minimal competence in writing on both the rhetorical and syntactic levels.
A paper in this category
– addresses the writing topic adequately but may slight parts of the task
– is adequately organized and developed
– uses some details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea
– demonstrates adequate but possibly inconsistent facility with syntax and usage
– may contain some errors that occasionally obscure meaning

3   Demonstrates some developing competence in writing, but it remains flawed on either the rhetorical or syntactic level, or both.
A paper in this category may reveal one or more of the following weaknesses:
– inadequate organization or development
– inappropriate or insufficient details to support or illustrate generalizations
– a noticeably inappropriate choice of words or word forms
– an accumulation of errors in sentence structure and/or usage

2   Suggests incompetence in writing.
A paper in this category is seriously flawed by one or more of the following weaknesses:
– serious disorganization or underdevelopment
– little or no detail, or irrelevant specifics
– serious and frequent errors in sentence structure or usage
– serious problems with focus

1   Demonstrates incompetence in writing.

A paper in this category
– may be incoherent
– may be undeveloped
– may contain severe and persistent writing errors

Author's Note

This paper was presented at the conference "LANGSCAPE: Exploring ways of Teaching and Learning English" last April 27 and 28, 2006 at the Regional English Language Center in Singapore. Further correspondence can be addressed to Professor Carlo Magno, Counseling and Educational Psychology Department, De La Salle University-Manila, 2401 Taft Ave. Manila, Philippines. Email: crlmgn@yahoo.com or magnoc@yahoo.com.