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La Relación entre la Lectura y la Escritura en un Estudio de Caso Múltiple en la Universidad Nacional de Villa María: Una Naturaleza Transversal

The Reading-Writing Relationship in a Multiple-case Study at Universidad Nacional de Villa María: A Transverse Nature

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To my parents for having always encouraged me to realise my dreams

To Alejandro for understanding what this thesis meant to me

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ABSTRACT

This thesis aims to contribute to the understanding of how reading and writing are intertwined in reading-to-write tasks, a requirement in most L2 academic contexts. Even though writing from sources is part of students' academic lives, they tend to have difficulties in source-based writing assignments. The purpose of this research study is to explore the relationship between reading and writing in the process of summary-analysis writing of English Language IV students at the Teacher Training College at the National University of Villa María, Córdoba, Argentina. To that aim, a mixed research design was adopted and data were collected by means of participants' reading comprehension tests, summary-analysis essays, a survey, written reports, and interviews. Findings reveal that the participants' perceptions and behaviour are correlated and that reading is put to extensive uses when students carry out writing assignments viz., to develop ideas, to include sound arguments, and to proofread. Results also indicate that the evidence for the correlation between the students' perceptions and their writing performance is insufficient. Similarly, this study does not confirm the impact that reading comprehension may have on learners' written performance as other research studies have shown. Writing from sources proved to be challenging for these EFL undergraduates at an advanced level of language proficiency, especially as to how to establish connections between different source texts. Other problems that summary-analysis essays posed arose from the selection, organisation and flow of ideas, rhetorical control, summarisation, proofreading, and language use. The joint undertaking by reading and writing is necessary if L2 students are to acquire academic literacy.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Abbreviations / acronyms	Meaning
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
Colloc.	Collocation
Cont.	Content
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESLPE	English as a Second Language Placement Examination
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
Int.	Interview
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
Lang.	Language
NNSE	Non-native speaker of English
NSE	Native speaker of English
Prep.	Preposition
R1	Rater 1
R2	Rater 2
Ref.	Reference
RFW	Reading for Writing
Rhet.	Rhetorical Control
RQ	Research Question
S-A	Summary-analysis
S-A-E	Summary-analysis Essay
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics

SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SOAR	Select, Organize, Associate and Regulate
S-V Agreem.	Subject-verb agreement
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
TS	Thesis statement
UNC	National University of Córdoba
UNVM	National University of Villa María
UTN	Technological National University
WLL	Writing-to-learn-language
WR1	Written Report 1
WR2	Written Report 2
WT	Wrong tense
WW	Wrong word

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Traditionally, the instruction of reading and writing has been characterised for taking place separately (Clifford, 1987; Hirvela, 2007; Hudson, 2007; Kern, 2000; Kim, 2005; Kroll, 2003; Langer & Applebee, 1986; Parodi, 2007). In other words, the teaching of these two abilities has not been transverse. However, since the 1930s there has been a growing tendency that displays the promotion of the combined teaching of these two skills in the mother tongue. One of the major changes has been the definition of reading as an activity that implies composition as writing does (Clifford, 1987; Hirvela, 2007; Langer & Flihan, 2000; Tierney & Pearson, 1983). By this is meant that in the last decades, reading has stopped being regarded as a passive activity to share some of the characteristics of writing; the conclusion arrived at is that both abilities entail a recursive process of "co-construction of meaning" (Hirvela, 2007, p. 29). A similar interest has aroused in the relationship between the teaching of reading and writing in studies in which English is used as a second language (Grabe, 2003; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016).

Undeniably, "reading-writing connections play a major role in contemporary L2 writing instruction, especially within the EAP framework" (Hirvela & Belcher, 2016, p. 595). Accordingly, not only L1 researchers, but also L2 writing researchers have shown an increasing interest in writing-from-sources tasks, especially summary writing, since they are regarded as one of the reading-based writing assignments that most undergraduate students are asked to perform as part of their academic life (Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Doolan & Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2016; Du, 2014; Emam, 2011; Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Grabe & Zhang, 2013b; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Hirvela, Hyland, & Manchón, 2016; Hood, 2008; Hosseinpur, 2015; Koda, 2005; McDonough, Crawford, & De Vleeschauwer, 2014; Plakans & Gebril, 2012; Yang & Plakans, 2012; Yu, 2009). In Du's (2014) words, "summarization skill does play an essential role in L2 undergraduate students' academic literacy experiences across the disciplines" (p. 125).

1.2 Statement of the problem

The National University of Villa María (henceforth UNVM) is a state institution located in the interior of the province of Córdoba, Argentina. The students of English Language IV of the Teacher Training College in English Language write academic essays as part of the activities of the course, most of which present problems of content, organisation and selection of information to develop opinions. What at first sight seems to indicate difficulties in the use of the foreign language, a lack of knowledge of the genre in question or even of reading comprehension on the part of the students may be a sign of problems of selection and use of the information present in the consulted texts employed to support their arguments. For this research study, I have analysed compositions known as summary-analysis, a genre defined as a type of academic writing that implies the combination of a summary, i.e. the main ideas of the source text, and an analysis of the view points and/or arguments of the author of the source text (Reid, 2000). This research study stemmed from the awareness that students' written compositions needed analysis so as to study what the difficulties on their part were.

In this respect, for several years, teachers at the Teacher Training College at the UNVM have carried out studies in relation to undergraduates' writing performance (Camusso, Somale, & Ziraldo, 2015, 2017, 2018). Specifically, since the last five years, the professor in charge of English Language IV has been concerned about most of the students' poor written performance, especially the writing of summary-analysis. This situation proves the need for the study of the learners' written productions with the aim of identifying what difficulties the students encounter so that an approach can be developed to address such a problem with the ultimate goal of enhancing students' academic literacy. Given that the writing of summary-analysis essays entails the use of source texts, whose information learners need in order to support their arguments, it is feasible to claim that they assume not only the role of writers, but also that of readers. Consequently, the analysis of these productions will pave the way for the establishment of relationships between the reading and writing processes that the learners go through when they produce this type of essay. As Hirvela (2007) states, source use is "in fact an act of connecting reading and writing, with reading being used to support or shape writing" (p. 10). In the same line, Rosenblatt (2004)

argues that "when a reader describes, responds to, or interprets a work – that is, speaks or writes about a transaction with a text – a new text is being produced" (p. 1380). A text producer is usually regarded as the first reader of the text while it is being produced and when it is already finished. Rosenblatt defines the former type of reading as "authorial reading," and she further contends that such authorial reading entails what she calls "expression-oriented authorial reading" and "reception-oriented reading" (p. 1381). In the first kind of authorial reading, the writer analyses the text in terms of how the words make sense within the composition and in relation to the purpose for which it has been written. In the second kind of authorial reading, the writer takes on the reader persona and goes through the text from that perspective.

1.3 Literature review

The literature about the connection between reading and writing is relatively scarce (Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Kern, 2000; Parodi, 2007; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). However, the increase in studies whose subject is the relationship between these two skills is an indicator of the growing interest in this line of research (Dalla Costa, 2012; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Ito, 2011; Parodi, 2007). In this section, I will refer to research studies into writing and the relationships between the two skills. The present literature review is divided into four parts. In the first section, research that concentrates on students' writing is discussed since the present study has as its focus a writing task. Secondly, studies that focus on the impact that instruction can have on students' writing performance will be presented because research indicates that both reading and writing are better developed when students receive explicit instruction on these skills. Thirdly, studies that examine both students' reading comprehension and writing are described given that in this study I have also gathered data to compare students' scores in both skills. Finally, studies which deal with students' perceptions of the joined teaching of reading and writing are analysed due to the fact that it is also an area of inquiry in this research.

1.3.1 Studies on students' writing

Research studies that focus on students' written performance abound, specifically in relation to reading-to-write tasks (Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). For example, Yu (2009) analysed 157 EFL Chinese undergraduates' summaries in order to examine the impact of the following source text characteristics on their summary performance: topic, length, vocabulary and macro-organisation structure. The texts to be summarised were three, each for two of six classes into which participants were divided. Some students were asked to write the summary first in English and then in Chinese, while others the other way round. Participants also responded to a questionnaire and some students were interviewed. The findings revealed that all of the aforementioned features of source texts affected students' summary performance, except for topic, and interacted with participants' traits, such as proficiency level and topic knowledge. Zhao and Hirvela (2015) focused on two Chinese undergraduate students who took an ESL composition course at an American university in order to sharpen their writing skills and particularly to learn synthesis writing. The instruments to gather data included think-aloud protocols, the participants' written productions –a long and a short synthesis paper–, retrospective protocols, stimulated-recall interviews, and class observations. The researchers arrived at the conclusion that the participants' understanding of such a source-based writing task and the use they made of rhetorical reading strategies influenced their outcomes: the student who got the highest score resorted to rhetorical reading strategies,[1] whereas the student with the lowest score did not. They also differed in the selection and use of sources, which seemed to indicate that they had developed different task representations, i.e. they did not understand the same as to what writing a synthesis paper implies.

Another line of research has explored students' difficulties in argumentative writing. Zhu (2001) analysed 14 Mexican graduate students' difficulties, processes and strategies in relation to an argumentative essay they wrote as part of a course within an MA program in ESL teaching. For most participants this was their first encounter with the genre. The researcher examined the students' essays and semi-structured interviews with each of them

[1] These strategies aim at a constructive representation of a text by taking into account its purpose, audience and theme (Zhao & Hirvela, 2015).

after they had completed the written assignment. The results indicated that the students reported problems in the rhetorical pattern, length of the essay, punctuation, conclusion, lexical items, topic selection and grammar. When these data were compared with the students' written productions, some of the difficulties reported were not identified in the essays, while other problems emerged from the analysis of the written assignment, such as paragraph development. As regards the writing process, some of the participants claimed to brainstorm for ideas, select the topic, organise the content and proofread their drafts. Similarly, Evans and Green (2007) investigated the difficulties of the four macro skills as encountered by about 5000 EFL Cantonese-speaking undergraduates at a Hong Kong university. The data were collected by means of a Likert-scale survey, focus groups, and interviews with students and teachers. For the purpose of this study, I will present only the findings in relation to writing. The results suggested that students' major problems were style, grammar and cohesion along with vocabulary as reported by the learners and the professors; that is why the researchers arrived at the conclusion that language posed more problems than content or the rhetorical structure. These findings can be compared to Lee and Tajino's (2008), who adapted Evans and Green's (2007) Likert-scale questionnaire in order to explore 95 first-year Japanese university students' perceptions of their English academic writing difficulties. The results are in agreement with Evans and Green's (2007) since the analysis of the learners' answers in the questionnaire and open-ended questions showed that they perceived that their weaknesses were language-related, while structure and content posed some difficulties, but to a lesser extent when compared to language. Gürel Cennetkuşu (2017) analysed 65 ESL international graduates' writing difficulties in an American university from their own perspectives and their instructors'. The data collection instruments included a survey and interviews with both students and instructors as well as learners' compositions. The results demonstrated that the students' and instructors' views of the problems in writing did not match: the former stated that their major difficulty was related to their lexical reservoir, while the latter perceived that grammar and syntax were the two aspects with which students struggled the most. A more recent study by Ceylan (2019) focused on L2 students' perceptions of their difficulties in writing. To that aim, the researcher designed a Likert-scale questionnaire, which students taking a writing course at a Turkish university answered. The analysis of the data revealed that most participants did not engage in the pre-writing, drafting

and editing stages. The findings also suggested that "students perceived language-related components of academic writing to be more difficult than structure/ content-related components" (p. 153). These learners also linked their problems in writing to the insufficient writing instruction.

Questions have also been raised about the use that students make of source texts in terms of how they integrate the information of those readings into their own compositions. As Pecorari (2016) claims, "virtually all written academic genres are characterised by a high degree of intertextuality" (p. 329). Specifically, inappropriate textual borrowing on the part of students is a cause of concern among L2 researchers; however, far too little attention has been paid to such a topic (Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Rezanejad & Rezaei, 2013). Pecorari (2003) analysed 17 postgraduate students' writing from four disciplines at three British universities. In the first phase of her research, nine students taking a Master's degree provided the researcher with writing samples taken from their dissertations and they were also interviewed. In the second phase, Pecorari chose eight samples of PhD theses written by L2 students available from library catalogues similar to the Master's program theses in terms of the disciplines. The writing samples were compared to the acknowledged sources. Of all the samples only one did not present any passage that could be suspected as a sign of plagiarism. In order to explain such behaviour, the researcher reported four possible reasons: (1) intentional deception, which means that the writers are aware of misusing the source by deliberately acknowledging it; (2) cultural background, which is related to different communities' assumptions about how they view the use of sources, with some of them placing high value on "unattributed textual repetition as a standard writing practice" (Pecorari, 2003, p. 337); (3) patchwriting, a concept, coined by Howard (1995 as cited in Pecorari, 2016, p. 330), which is defined as "a technique of merging borrowed chunks from multiple sources and making superficial changes to them"; and (4) priority, in the sense that all the participants had a myriad of objectives among which the use of source did not rank first. The analysis of the writing samples and the participants' answers to the interviews suggested that the first two explanations would not account for their behaviour. On the one hand, none of them were reluctant to share their writing nor did they try to hide which sources they had consulted in case the references were unclear; on the other hand, the students proved to know the difference between the correct and wrong use of attribution, which is sometimes

associated with culture. The last two explanations did show to be more appropriate to understand the participants' actions in that all of them seemed to unintentionally misuse sources, which may be a sign of patchwriting, and they had other objectives in mind when writing, which could have placed attribution in the background.

Shi (2004) compared the summaries and opinion essays of 48 Chinese non-native speakers of English (NNSEs) majoring in English at a Chinese university with the same written production by 39 native English-speaking (NES) undergraduates from an American university. All the participants were taking a writing class where the two tasks were administered as take-home assignments though the American students started writing their compositions in class, but they finished them at home. Three researchers coded the students' written assignments in terms of a coding scheme, which encompassed three main categories viz., "(a) with no references, (b) with reference to the author or the source text, and (c) with quotations" (Shi, 2004, p. 178). The first two categories were further classified into "(a) exactly copied, (b) modified slightly by adding or deleting words or using synonyms for content words, or (c) closely paraphrased by reformulating syntax or changing the wording of the original text" (Shi, 2004, p. 178). A two-way ANOVA was run in order to determine if the type of task and the participants' L1 affected the students' textual borrowing behaviour, and how those two variables interacted. The results revealed that both task types and L1 had an impact on the Chinese and American students' attribution practices: those who wrote the summary tended to rely more on the words from the original texts than those who composed the opinion essay. There was not a significant difference between the NNESs' and the NESs' performance in the opinion task, whereas the frequency of textual borrowing in the Chinese students' summary task was notably higher compared to that of their American counterparts. As regards the use of references, the NNESs were more likely to borrow information from the source texts without acknowledging the authors, while the NESs showed to be more conscious about plagiarism since most of them credited the consulted sources. Similarly, Weigle and Parker (2012) analysed graduate and undergraduate students' essays written as part of an English proficiency test at Georgia State University. The researchers adopted Shi's (2004) coding scheme in order to count and classify the incidences of textual borrowing/patchwriting. The analysis of the data showed that most of the students did not overuse information from the source text. The results also indicated that undergraduate

students resorted to attributed borrowing more frequently than the graduate counterparts, but the proficiency level was not a variable that significantly affected the extent to which the participants included textual borrowing in their essays. In a similar vein, Keck (2006) compared 79 L1 students, 12 bilinguals, and 74 L2 (of twenty-two different languages) undergraduate writers' use of paraphrase in summary writing so as to investigate the construct of attempted paraphrase defined as "an instance in which a writer selects a specific excerpt of a source text and makes at least one attempt to change the language of the selected excerpt" (p. 263). To that aim, the researcher designed a taxonomy of paraphrase types, which included four categories, namely near copy, minimal revision, moderate revision, and substantial revision (p. 264). All the participants were attending a writing course, and they were randomly given one of the two source texts chosen for the study and allotted 45 minutes to read it and summarise it in one paragraph. The analysis of the data indicated that L1 writers' compositions presented the highest number of attempted paraphrases, followed by the L2 and then the bilingual participants. All the groups wrote their summaries with more recourse to attempted paraphrases than exact copies. L2 undergraduates composed most of the exact copies and near copies, while L1 students resorted mainly to moderate and substantial revision. The percentage of use of minimal revisions was in the region of 15% for all the groups.

In the same line of research, Hirvela and Du (2013) reported on how two Chinese undergraduate students at an American university made use of paraphrasing. The two instruments to collect data were think-aloud protocols, through which the learners described the processes that they went through while paraphrasing, and text-based interviews. The questions were based on the students' compositions and were aimed at having access both to what they took into account when deciding whether to paraphrase or not and to their views on this device in relation to their written productions. It is worth mentioning that the participants' answers were in their native tongue, Chinese. The data were transcribed and coded for analysis in terms of categories. The findings indicated that paraphrasing was presented as "a decontextualized mechanical process of rewording and grammatical rearrangement" (Hirvela & Du, 2013, p. 92). This was evidenced by the students' good use of this skill, which contrasted with their lack of acknowledgment of the importance of paraphrasing, especially in academic settings. Both participants placed high value on direct

quotes, which they considered enabled them to make reference to renowned experts without flouting any written conventions. The authors suggested that learners should explicitly be made cognizant of the fact that paraphrasing is *knowledge transforming* instead of *knowledge telling*, by which is meant that when paraphrasing they are expected to develop the ideas from the source text and not just express the same thoughts in other words.

The notion that reading-to-write tasks pose a challenge for both NNESs and NESs is generally accepted (Grabe & Zhang, 2013a). In relation to the difficulties that students tend to encounter when writing, they encompass topic selection, rhetorical structure, language, vocabulary, grammar and syntax, being language-related problems the most reported by ESL students. Collectively, most studies have shown that the main problem is the misuse of source text information known as plagiarism, text borrowing, text appropriation, and patchwriting in academic writing, which involves reading/writing integration. The review of the literature indicates that NESs usually outperform NNESs in attribution practices and that this type of activity is benefited by explicit instruction.

1.3.2 Studies on the impact of instruction upon students' writing performance

Some research studies have analysed the effectiveness of the implementation of activities aimed at empowering students' summary writing in academic settings. In Emam's (2011) research study, an experimental research design was applied to compare group behaviour in a population of 120 EFL undergraduate students at an Iranian university. The participants were divided into four groups of 30 students each: (1) the discussion-task group, whose members talked about the information provided in the texts that they had to read and then summarise; (2) the personalizing-task group, who had to relate the reading texts to their background knowledge or experiences; (3) the clustering-task group, who resorted to clustering to check reading comprehension and to warm up the writing activity; and (4) the no-mediating-task group, who was the control group given that the participants did not receive any treatment. All the groups worked with the same reading material and were asked to summarise it in their mother tongue, Persian, and in English as a pre-test, and they had the same assignment with a different source text as a post-test. The results showed that the control group got the lowest score in both the English and Persian summaries, whereas the

clustering-task group achieved the highest in the L2 written task, and the personalizing-task group in their L1 summary. All the groups did much better when they summarised the text in their mother tongue than in the foreign language. In our local context, the research study conducted by Dalla Costa (2012) looked into the impact of genre-based instruction on the teaching of summary-response compositions in the fourth year of three courses of studies at an Argentinian university. To that aim a quasi-experimental design was adopted following a single group pre-test + post-test. The results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between test means after the ten-week period of instruction. The approach to teaching writing chosen by the researcher had a positive effect on the students' written production. In a similar study, Yasuda (2015) investigated how 30 Japanese FL undergraduate students' summary writing performance changed after a fifteen-week SFL genre-based course. The participants undertook a pre- and post- summary task; the analysis revealed that after the instruction they became more cognizant of choices in relation to ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings, which improved the quality of their summaries. Even though most of the students made significant gains in their writing, their proficiency was a variable that affected their progress: most proficient participants achieved greater improvement than less proficient students.

Du (2014) studied six Asian ESL undergraduate students' summarisation behaviour at an American university. They were majoring in different fields and had had some summary writing instruction in higher education. The data collection instruments encompassed semi-structured interviews, through which the researcher had access to a description of the summary tasks that the participants were assigned, and course syllabi, which were analysed in order to identify how summary writing was approached, and to compare what the undergraduate students did in their writing courses and in other courses. The data were analysed based on codes and categories that the researcher devised. The findings revealed that the knowledge that the participants acquired about summarisation was useful for them to do source-based assignments in different courses; however, some undergraduate students considered that the summary writing courses did not prepare them to deal with a range of formats of source texts in the sense that the original texts were mainly printed whereas they had to summarise multimedia sources in their regular courses. The participants also made use of summary writing to study and organise the information that they were exposed to in

disciplinary courses. In another study, McDonough et al. (2014) investigated 46 Thai EFL undergraduates' change in their writing performance after a seventeen-week writing course. Their focus was on the acknowledgement of consulted sources and verbatim copying, which were the two criteria for the analysis of the three summaries the participants wrote: a pretext and two posttests. The results indicated that after receiving summary writing instruction, the students significantly improved their writing performance since they made more frequent correct use of in-text citations in their posttests when compared to their pretests. In addition, the researchers noted that even though there were cases of verbatim copying in the pretest and posttests, the length of copied strings decreased in students' posttests.

Marzec-Stawiarska (2016) carried out a six-month quasi-experimental study in which 80 college EFL students were randomly divided into four groups of twenty: two groups were experimental and the other two, control groups. The purpose of the research was twofold: to analyse the effect of summary writing on reading comprehension and the correlation between the quality of the participants' summaries and their reading skills development. As a pre- and post-test, all the participants took a reading comprehension test at the beginning and at the end of the study. The experimental groups were trained in summarisation, which they practiced by writing ten summaries, whereas the control groups did the regular reading activities. The analysis of the pre-tests indicated that there were not significant differences between the two groups, that is to say, their reading comprehension levels were similar; however, after the treatment the experimental groups got higher scores than the control groups. Moreover, all the participants who received summary training made progress in the post-test, while some students in the control group either did not make any progress or regressed. The researcher also arrived at the conclusion that the quality of summaries and students' improvement in their reading skills were not strongly correlated.

In a similar vein, Hosseinpur (2015) investigated how an eight-week summary writing instruction program had an impact on the writing performance of two intact groups of 41 undergraduate students at the University of Qom. The participants were exposed to explicit instruction on summary writing strategies and warned against plagiarism. Overall they wrote five summaries, which two raters assessed on a five-point scale in terms of (1) main ideas incorporated; (2) the general organisation; (3) language forms; and (4) verbatim copying from the original source. The students' written productions were also analysed "to

identify the number of instances of deletion, sentence combination, topic sentence selection, syntactic transformation, paraphrasing, generalisation, invention, minor verbatim copying (fewer than five words, between 2-4 words), and major verbatim copying (five words or more)" (Hosseinpur, 2015, p. 79). The findings indicated that the participants' performance level improved significantly during the eight-week course, which could be attributed to the explicit instruction in summarisation. Similarly, Doolan and Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2016) attempted to sharpen not only L2 students' summary writing skills, but also their paraphrasing of source texts by means of an eight-week reading-to-write instructional intervention designed for a first-year composition course for international English college students with a variety of mother tongues. They focused on these two skills due to the fact that they considered them of paramount importance at a higher education level and believed both summarising and paraphrasing give account of students' understanding of source texts. The instructor introduced three main skills namely, reading strategies, selection and organisation of summary information, and appropriate source use. After analysing students' pretests and posttests, the researchers claimed that the intervention did have a positive impact on the participants' writing performance and it equipped them with the tools that they would need for academic writing.

In another experimental intervention study, Hayati and Jaya (2018) compared sixteen EFL students' written productions before and after training in reading and writing connection strategy use during fourteen meetings. The scoring of the compositions by two raters indicated that the participants improved their writing after the treatment since they obtained higher scores in their posttest. A recent study by Luo and Kiewra (2019) analysed a reading-to-write task known as synthesis writing, in which writers needed to combine information from multiple sources in a new text. The researchers carried out two experiments so as to determine the impact that the strategy system SOAR (Select, Organize, Associate and Regulate) had on college students' writing. In Experiment 1, the 16 participants in the experimental group and the 16 participants in the control group were given texts about a topic which they could study during 25 minutes so as then to write a comparative essay. Only the experimental group received SOAR materials. Both groups had 30 minutes to write the essay, after which they answered a survey. The essays were scored in terms of selection, organisation and intertextuality and coded "for the number of idea units, number of

associations, and type of essay organization" (Luo & Kiewra, 2019, p. 178). The findings revealed that the SOAR writers outperformed the control group. In Experiment 2, 58 participants were trained in SOAR, whereas the remaining 58 participants were assigned to the control group. As in Experiment 1, both groups were given texts to study and write a comparative text and they answered a survey. The following week, the SOAR group was trained in SOAR and the control group explored their strategies. Both groups were asked to read some texts and study them by employing the strategies practiced. The analysis of the essays after the training indicated that the SOAR group performed better than the control group as regards information selection and rhetorical organisation. However, there were not significant differences between the groups in terms of intertextuality. Given the complexity of synthesis writing, the researchers suggested that students be instructed in writing strategies that will sharpen their writing skills.

In sum, the analysis of the aforementioned research studies shows that interventions can yield favourable results. In fact, there seems to be a general consensus about the beneficial impact that instruction can have on students' writing performance.

1.3.3 Studies on both students' reading comprehension and writing

Some researchers have designed instruments to gather data on both reading comprehension and writing, especially in integrated assessment tasks. Spivey and King (1989) studied the performance of 60 readers of 6^{th}, 8^{th} and 10^{th} grade at a state American school in the composition of a report about the rodeo. The researchers were interested in analyzing developmental differences across three grade levels, and the use of source texts by both more and less accomplished readers to create their own texts. The activity was carried out over three consecutive days as part of the participants' English/language art classes, and it concluded with the students handing in the three source texts, all the drafts of the report and their final version. The compositions were then assessed by independent raters. After analyzing the data, the researchers arrived at the following conclusion: "general reading ability and success at synthesizing overlap to a great extent" (Spivey & King, 1989, p. 7). The older students and the better readers tended to select the most important content from source texts; the less accomplished readers were more likely to include content based on their

own knowledge, whereas the more accomplished readers included information taken from the texts consulted. Differences were noticeable in terms of quantity of content, connectivity and holistic quality among the three grade levels and between the accomplished and less accomplished readers; and the better readers planned their writing in a more elaborate way and spent more time doing the task. In a similar vein, Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, and Kuehn (1990) researched into the relationship between the two skills in L1, in L2, and between participants' abilities in the two languages. The instruments used to gather the data were the 57 Japanese and 48 Chinese college students' written essays and a cloze passage both in English and in their mother tongue. The results indicated that the participants' language proficiency was a variable that affected their performance in the L2; the two groups' L1 and L2 reading skills were weakly correlated, which was also the case for the Chinese's L1 and L2 writing performance, whereas the Japanese's L1 and L2 writing skills were positively correlated; and "L1 reading and writing showed weak to moderate correlations for both groups, as did L2 reading and writing" (Carson et al., 1990, p. 256). Such findings suggest that the transferability of skills is complex in nature. Within this area of inquiry, in Esmaeili's (2002) study, 34 ESL engineering students took a simulated test, which consisted of two parts, each one with a reading and writing task. In one case, the topic of the passage was related to the writing activity and in the other it was not. Data were also gathered from interviews and a retrospective checklist. The results demonstrated that the participants' reading and writing performance was more satisfactory in the integrated reading-writing task. This showed that these skills "were both 'interactive' and 'interdependent' in that the thematic connection affected participants' reading and writing processes and products" (Esmaeili, 2002, p. 616).

Asención Delaney (2008) analysed (a) two test tasks, namely a summary and a response essay based on a source text; (b) the relationship of the scores of the two tasks and the ones on reading and writing measures; and (c) the effects of both proficiency and educational levels on the participants' performance in the two tasks. A sample of 139 participants took part in the study; they were 50 native speakers of English, 62 ESL students attending American universities, and 27 EFL learners from a TESOL Teacher Training Program at a university in Venezuela. Two raters scored the subjects' tasks following a scoring procedure with analytical scales for each task. The findings revealed that "the test

tasks were different dimensions of the reading-to-write ability, and that the reading-to-write ability seems to be a unique construct weakly associated with reading for comprehension and disassociated from writing an essay without background reading support" (p. 140). Similarly, Plakans and Gebril (2012) investigated source use in a reading-to-write task by 145 EFL undergraduates whose native language was Arabic. The data gathered encompassed the participants' task, questionnaire, and nine students' think aloud protocols and interviews. The analysis of the data revealed that the undergraduates put the source into several uses, such as to generate ideas, to form an opinion about the topic, to support arguments in their compositions, to gain vocabulary knowledge about the topic and to follow the rhetorical pattern in their writing. Interestingly, since the correlation between reading comprehension as reported by the participants and the scores of the written assignment was not significant, the researchers suggested the existence of "threshold for integration of reading and writing, meaning writers need to reach a certain level of proficiency in order to comprehend the source texts used in completing these tasks" (Plakans & Gebril, 2012, p. 31).

Ito (2011) examined the correlation between the two abilities based on 68 Japanese EFL 12th graders' test scores: (a) Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), which consists of a listening and a reading sections-only the latter section was used; and (b) a persuasive writing task in English, which was assessed by two raters according to the ESL Composition Profile. The data were analysed by means of a correlational analysis. The findings resembled Spivey and King's (1989) results: reading competence affects the writing skill, but this is not a cause-effect relationship; the better the development of the reading ability, the more positive impact that it has on students' written productions. Such results can be compared to those of Al-Saadat's work (2004). The subjects were 65 EFL students (28 males and 37 females) at a university in Saudi Arabia. They attended two reading courses and three writing courses, separated according to gender, and sat for reading and writing tests, which were analysed via Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The results indicated the existence of a connection of mutual influence between the two skills, which was stronger in the case of women. In Parodi's (2007) work, 439 eighth graders of middle-lower class attending ten subsidised schools in Valparaíso, Chile took two reading comprehension tests, which consisted in the students reading an argumentative text and answering nine open questions, and two writing tests, which implied the composition of argumentative essays on

the part of the participants. It is worth mentioning that the tests were in Spanish, their mother tongue. The tests were evaluated by four experts who had guidelines to assess the levels of comprehension and production of the microstructure (local coherence relations), the macrostructure (global coherence relations) and the suprastructure (thesis, arguments, and conclusion) of the texts read and the ones produced. The results showed that most of the participants had "higher comprehension/production skills at local coherence level" (Parodi, 2007, p. 234), i.e. those of the microstructure. Thus, the more abstract the textual structure, the more difficulties the participants had to face in terms of comprehension as well as production of texts.

In J. Li's (2014) research, 64 Chinese EFL college students completed two summary tasks, which were analysed along with four participants' think-aloud protocols and interviews, and the remaining students' answers to a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire to identify the reading and writing strategies employed during the reading of the source text and the production of the participants' summaries respectively. J. Li identified 70 strategies: 36 reading strategies and 34 writing strategies. He arrived at the conclusion that only the writing strategies seemed to have an impact on the participants' summarisation performance since those who adopted more of these strategies got higher scores. The researcher also delved into how reading, writing and the students' summarisation results were linked: only participants' writing skill was significantly correlated to their summarisation performance.

Mokeddem and Houcine (2016) studied the correlation between 60 EFL college students' summary writing and their reading comprehension tests. The participants received summary training during four sessions of 90 minutes after which they wrote a summary and then they took a reading comprehension test based on the same source text they used for the summary assignment. Both activities were scored. The analysis of the two activities showed a significant correlation between each student's summary writing skills and reading comprehension test. The researchers also claimed that writing can enhance reading comprehension, and given that summarisation is a complex task, enough time should be devoted to practice this skill.

Plakans, Liao, and Wang (2018, 2019) had eleven volunteered L2 writers of English attending an American university complete an iterative integrated task, which encompassed four sections: writing before reading, reading two texts, answering short and multiple-choice

questions based on the passages and writing an essay using the two source texts. The participants also performed verbal reporting during the completion of the activity, answered a questionnaire and were interviewed. The analysis of the data resulted in the identification of five processes common to reading and writing viz., "(1) focusing at the word level, (2) drawing on background knowledge, (3) metacognitive monitoring for comprehension, (4) rereading, and (5) summarizing" (Plakans et al., 2018, p. 14).

Taken together, the studies reviewed in this section show that the findings about the correlation between reading and writing are conflicting. In some of them, these two skills are weakly associated (Asención Delaney, 2008; Carson et al., 1990; Esmaeili, 2002; J. Li, 2014; Plakans & Gebril, 2012), whereas they are significantly correlated in other studies (Al-Saadat, 2004; Ito, 2011; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Parodi, 2007; Spivey & King, 1989). This may suggest that more research is necessary in order to arrive at more consistent conclusions.

1.3.4 Studies on students' perceptions of the joined teaching of reading and writing

A different line of research focuses on the students' perceptions of the joined teaching of reading and writing. Kim (2005) explored ESL college students' perspectives on the reading-writing relationships and how such perspectives could change during a sixteen-week semester. The study consisted of two phases: (1) an online cross-sectional survey about the integration of reading and writing, which 990 participants answered, and whose data allowed the researcher to classify students into four groups according to their perspectives; and (2) a printed survey, which was carried out in the classroom three times over a semester in order to get an insight into the dynamic of students' perspectives on the integration of reading and writing. The results of the cross-sectional survey revealed that most ESL students displayed reading-writing behaviours, meaning that they integrated both skills. The data collected with the second instrument suggested that the participants' perspectives were stable throughout the semester, but they varied from group to group. Similarly, Clack and Douglas (2011) gathered 17,089 online surveys from participants aged 8 to 16 who attended 112 schools in the UK. Independent t-tests, ANOVAs, and chi-square tests of independence were used to analyse the data. The findings showed that those who enjoyed reading and writing tended to

perform better in both skills than those who did not, and that there existed a correlation between attainment and attitudes as well as engagement in reading and writing.

Cho and Brutt-Griffler (2015) examined reading and writing relationships with 34 EFL 7th graders, 27 8th graders and 32 9th graders from a middle school in South Korea. They administered a questionnaire aimed at determining what the students' perceptions and learning practices of English reading and writing were before and after a three-week intervention. The participants also took a pre-test and post-test, both of which encompassed the same activities: ten questions based on a reading passage and a summary writing activity. They found that 40% of the participants believed that they needed to improve their writing skill, which was not as frequently practiced at school as reading was. The intervention did not have a significant impact on the student' reading ability, but it did for the summary writing activity of the intermediate and advanced students, while beginners did not show significant changes in their written performance. The review of the literature emphasises the fact that students' reading and writing behaviour tends to be related to their perceptions of these skills.

1.4 Relevance of this study

Despite the aforementioned developments in the field of reading-writing relationships, a thorny problem persists: the literature on how L2 students' beliefs about the interaction between reading and writing and their reading and writing performances are intertwined is scarce to date. As described above, some studies have analysed activities that are not reading-to-write tasks whereas I chose the composition of a summary-analysis essay, which implies the students' demonstration of both their reading and writing skills. What is more, this study has implied the integration of a variety of data sources as well as triangulation of results, a characteristic that is lacking in some of the studies reviewed. In addition, it should be pointed out that most studies have selected numerous groups of participants, while this small-scale study allowed me to carry out a more in-depth analysis of the data.

In response to the paucity of research studies dealing specifically with L2 students' perceptions of the integration of reading and writing, and their performance on both reading

and writing, this MA thesis will endeavour to fill this gap of knowledge by investigating the relationship between reading and writing in a particular context (Manchón, 2016; Matsuda, & Silva, 2020; Silva, 2016): fourth-year students attending an Argentinian English Teacher Training Program.

1.5. Purpose of this investigation

The aim of this research is to contribute to the understanding of how reading and writing are intertwined in reading-to-write tasks, a requirement in most L2 academic contexts.

1.5.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study is to explore the relationship between reading and writing in the process of summary-analysis writing of English Language IV students at the Teacher Training College at the UNVM.

1.5.2. Specific Objectives

1. To analyse students' perceptions of the reading-writing relations through a Likert-scale questionnaire.
2. To establish the correlation between students' perceptions of the interaction between the two abilities and their production of summary-analysis compositions.
3. To determine the relationship between students' reading comprehension of the source text to be used to write a summary-analysis essay and their written productions.
4. To identify difficulties both in the students' written productions and through written reports in which the participants explained the steps taken to write their compositions.

1.6 Research questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the students' perceptions of the interaction between reading and writing?
2. How do the students' perceptions correlate with their writing performance?
3. How does the students' reading comprehension of the source text used to write a summary-analysis essay affect their written productions?
4. Which difficulties can be identified when the students describe the steps taken to write their compositions?
5. Which problems can be identified in the students' written productions?

1.7 Overview of chapters

This chapter has provided the background to the present study, previous research in relation to reading and writing, the significance of this thesis, the objectives, and research questions. Chapter 2 lays out the theoretical framework of the research. This includes the concept of literacy, a historical account of L2 reading, approaches and models of reading, as well as major L2 writing models and teaching orientations. The reading-writing models that advocate that reading and writing should be taught together are also reviewed in Chapter 2 along with the concepts of summary writing and summary-writing essays. Chapter 3 defines the methods that have been used to gather and analyse data in this study. It describes the context of this study, the participants, and the data collection instruments. Chapter 4 presents the results of the analysis of the data collected, and the discussion of the findings and the issues raised. Chapter 5 draws conclusions and indicates some limitations of the study and recommendations for further research. Pedagogical implications and final considerations are also presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter discusses different concepts regarded as paramount to this research study. I will first develop the concept of literacy. Secondly, I will provide a historical account of L2 reading and analyse the approaches to and models of L2 reading. Then, I shall proceed to deal with the major L2 writing models and teaching orientations. I will attempt to explain the reading-writing models that advocate that reading and writing should be taught together instead of separately. Finally, I will define the concept of summary writing and then focus on summary-writing essays.

2.1 The concept of literacy

There seems to be growing consensus about the importance of the contextual aspect of the term literacy, in fact, its definition is determined by the social context in which it occurs. Kern's (2000) conceptualisation of this notion accounts for different aspects that influence how literacy is understood:

> *Literacy is the use of socially-, historically-, and culturally-situated practices of creating and interpreting meaning through texts. It entails at least a tacit awareness of the relationships between textual conventions and their contexts of use and, ideally, the ability to reflect critically on those relationships. Because it is purpose-sensitive, literacy is dynamic – not static – and variable across and within discourse communities and cultures. It draws on a wide range of cognitive abilities, on knowledge of written and spoken language, on knowledge of genres, and on cultural knowledge*.[2] (p. 16)

Kern analyses the concept of literacy from three interdependent dimensions viz., the linguistic, cognitive and sociocultural. First, as regards the linguistic dimension, it refers to people's ability to use the written language and the correct use of conventions. A point has to be made with respect to the demands that writing imposes upon both writers and readers. Both need to understand how syntax, lexis, and all the options that a language offers can be

[2] The italics were in the original.

used to realise meaning so as to achieve goals, such as to give prominence to some elements in the sentence or to catch the audience's attention. In addition, writers have to provide readers with background information so that the latter can contextualise the text. Secondly, with respect to the cognitive dimension of literacy, it places considerable emphasis upon how meaning is constructed through reading and writing: both readers and writers create meaning by relating their prior knowledge to the text they are either reading or writing. In Kern's words (2000), this "leads us to a conception of literacy as a process of creating and transforming knowledge" (p. 29). Thirdly, regarding the sociocultural dimension, it endorses the view that a person's literacy is affected by the society where the individual is raised and educated. Under this dimension, Kern defines literacy as "a social practice, interwoven into larger social practices, that is developed through apprenticeship and shaped by its users to conform with social needs" (p. 38). Flynn and Stainthorp's (2006) definition of literacy also recognises the influence of society in what being literate means: "Literacy is a behaviour that is culturally determined" (p. 43). In addition, Gee (2010, p. 166 as cited in Harl, 2013, p. 44) defines literacy as "ways of participating in social and cultural groups," thus highlighting its social aspect. Such a definition of literacy which contemplates the aforementioned dimensions "acknowledges the holistic, unified nature of what has traditionally been treated separately as 'reading', 'writing', 'speaking', and 'listening' in foreign language pedagogy" (Kern, 2000, p. 39). In line with this, Johns (1997) also contends that the term literacy encompasses the integration of the macro skills and the influence that each skill exerts on the others. Langer and Applebee (1986) allege that "reading and writing instruction may be part of a common enterprise of literacy learning" (p. 172).

In a similar vein, some authors (Barton & Hamilton, 2000, 2012; Zavala, 2009) regard literacy as a social practice, which emphasises the way people develop literacy as a medium to achieve goals in interaction with others. In the words of Barton (2013), literacy is "part of social practices which are inferred from events and mediated by texts" (p. 3). That is why literacy is more adequately defined as being shared by a group or community rather than as "a set of properties residing in individuals" (Barton & Hamilton, 2012, p. 7). Barton and Hamilton (2000, 2012) characterise literacy as (1) being a set of social practices in the sense that it is an activity; (2) adopting different forms depending on the social domain in which they are used; (3) being influenced by social institutions and relations of power; (4) having a

purpose which serves a more general social objective and practice; (5) being historically situated, by what is meant that how literacy is understood is closely related to how a society in a particular period of time conceptualises such a concept; and (6) being dynamic in nature in the sense that literacy practices are not stable, but change over time. Zavala (2009) also points out that literacy is like an umbrella term that includes multiple literacies, such as school literacy and family literacy, each one of which is associated with a particular way of reading and writing depending on the context where they are used. Nonetheless, there is no clear-cut difference among these literacies since they coincide in some respects. Barton and Hamilton (2012) draw, for instance, a distinction between vernacular and dominant or institutional literacies. The former is learned in informal contexts and tends not to be recognised or supported in dominant discourse communities, while the latter gains greater legitimacy by the promotion of institutions, which usually results in their influence and dominance in certain domains.

In higher education, we can narrow down the concept of literacy to that of academic literacy. As Hirvela (2011) explains, it is a term that acknowledges "the key roles that reading plays in learning as well as in academic writing" (p. 44). Carlino (2003) considers that the term academic literacy makes it necessary to recognise that "the ways of reading and writing – of searching, acquiring, elaborating and communicating knowledge – are not the same in every field" (p. 410).[3] That is the reason why the process of becoming literate can be regarded as never-ending, in the sense that it is not enough to know how to read and write, but it is paramount to be flexible enough to be able to bear in mind what the topic is, who the audience is, what the genre is, and to adapt to the conventions of the subject matter. In other words, it would be erroneous to believe that "literacy is a state and not a process (knowledge that one has or does not have, instead of knowledge that is being developed)" (Carlino, 2003, p. 411). As Scribner and Cole (1981 as cited in Hyland, 2009) explain, to be literate implies more than knowing how to read and write; it entails the flexibility to apply and adapt such knowledge to our intention and the context of production of the text. Consequently, the term literacy is complex and subject to change as well as to be "reinvented in response to the context in which it is used, changing global and social structures, advancing technologies and individual aspirations" (De Silva Joyce & Feez, 2016, p. 4).

[3] My own translation. All translations from sources in Spanish are my own.

Carlino (2003, 2004) refers to some of students' difficulties regarding academic literacy in their L1 at Argentinian universities: most undergraduates tend to disregard the audience and only focus on the topic they are writing about; others edit their written work in a linear fashion, concentrating their attention on the microstructure or surface of the text and some learners write without taking into account what the purpose of their writing is. There is also evidence that suggests that some professors do not explicitly teach academic writing to their students, and those who do it sometimes do not count on the support of their educational institutions, but their practices are individual in the sense that such instruction stems from their belief that the students need to be made aware of the characteristics of the types of texts that they have to write. With respect to the last situation mentioned, Carlino (2013, 2017) questions the extent to which reading and writing as skills can be taught in general academic literacy courses or workshops for students to transfer such knowledge to specific areas. Instead, she heightens the need for higher education institutions to ensure the teaching of reading and writing within different fields of study. Two modes of reading and writing present in subjects can be identified, namely peripheral, which entails teachers' intervention either at the beginning or end of the reading/writing activity and intertwined, which implies that teachers are present and active throughout the reading/writing activity (Carlino, 2017). The latter can be subdivided into reading and writing as a means to work on and learn the concepts of the field in question, or as an end of instruction meant to focus on the specific reading and writing modes of a particular field. These two modalities constitute academic literacy since they are "teaching processes that allow students to have access to knowledge produced by disciplines and to appropriate their own ways of reading and writing" (Carlino, 2017, p. 31). Professors have a role to play in the students' process of becoming literate; they are the ones who are acquainted with the specific discipline and can explain to learners what is expected from them. Carlino (2013) invites us to analyse the term literacy from a perspective which also takes into account the role that teachers occupy, instead of only thinking in terms of the skills that students need to acquire to become academically literate. She contends that learners cannot be expected to know how to read and write academic material for every discipline, instead, the teaching of these two skills is determined in part by the characteristics of each field of knowledge. In this respect, Carlino (2001) underlines the idea that the two skills are not enough for students to be proficient in the reading and writing

of specific fields, which differ in terms of contexts, texts and topics. In other words, reading and writing are regarded as situated practices. In line with these notions of literacy as a situated process, in this study, literacy is understood as a lifelong learning process that is influenced by the context in which students learn how to read and write and the type of texts they write.

2.2 Second language reading

Painstaking second language reading research has led to the recognition of the pivotal role of reading in "academic learning" (Jiang, Grabe, & Carrell, 2020, p. 259). Alexander and Fox (2004) provide an in-depth analysis of reading research and practice through a historical account of the field. They propose five periods, each one of which corresponds with a different perspective on reading. During the first period (1950-1965), the era of conditioned learning, reading was viewed as a process that could be "broken down into their constituent parts" (Alexander & Fox, 2004, p. 35). Such a definition was influenced by behaviourism, the dominant learning theory at that time. It was believed that students' learning processes would be enhanced by the formation of habits through the repetition of stimulus and response. Reading was conceived of as "a practice exclusively defined by the passive absorption of meaning from a text" (Harl, 2013, p. 26). In the 1960s, researchers began to raise questions about the view of reading as conditioned behaviour and to show an increased interest in internal mental structures and processes. These conditions paved the way for the second period: the era of natural learning (1966-1975). This period, as its name suggests, defined learning as a natural process given that humans had the neurological structures needed to acquire language, whose meaningful use would lead to its development. This conceptualisation transferred to the field of reading meant that learning to read was defined as an innate skill (Alexander & Fox, 2004). The third period (1976-1985), the era of information processing, witnessed developments in the study of the human mind. In fact, most researchers turned their attention to the structure and processes of the mind in order to find an explanation about how the mind interacted with language. In this period schema theory emerged as the prevailing orientation and "a major force in the development of reading models" (McVee, Dunsmore, & Gavelek, 2013, p. 496). The main contribution of this theory

was that both top-down and bottom-up strategies (see 2.2.1.1 Bottom-up models / data driven processes and 2.2.1.2 Top-down models / hypothesis driven processes) need to interact simultaneously to result in successful reading (Carrell, 1988a). The analysis of the print and a person's hypothesis converge in reading, which is conceived of as an interactive process, resulting in their comprehension of the text (Anderson, 2013; Li & D'Angelo, 2016). According to this theory, the more background information a person has about the topic being read, the better the reader will understand the text (Carrell, 1988a). As Anderson (2013) explains, the reader's schema, defined as "organized knowledge of the word" (p. 476), aids the understanding of what is read in the sense that it is considered that people comprehend a text when they resort to a schema by means of which the message makes sense. In a similar vein, Kern (2000) states that schemata can be defined as the "abstract mental structures" (p. 32) which contain the knowledge that we use to construe meaning. Thus, if students read texts which present information they are familiar with, their schemata will be activated, which will help them comprehend the text as well as recall information more easily (Grabe, 1991; Li & D'Angelo, 2016). The importance of this is that readers' background information in relation to the topic of the text is a variable that determines to a certain extent their reading comprehension (Barnett, 1989).

The fourth period (1986-1995), the era of sociocultural learning, highlighted the importance of taking into account social and contextual aspects in the study of learning processes (Alexander & Fox, 2004). Learning was, indeed, conceptualised as "a sociocultural, collaborative experience" (Alexander, 1996; Reynolds et al., 1996 as cited in Alexander & Fox, 2004, p. 49), and the learner as a member of a literacy community. Finally, the era of engaged learning (1996-present) attempts to broaden the meaning of reading by adding technology into the equation. By this is meant that it is paramount to understand "nonlinear and less traditional forms of text" (Alexander & Fox, 2004, p. 50) which result from hypertext. In this respect, Schmar-Dobler (2003) explains that the digital world demands reading strategies different to the ones good readers employ when reading print texts. In line with this, there seems to be widespread agreement on the fact that the meaning of literacy has suffered a transformation in the information age. This idea is shared by Leu, O'Byrne, Zawilinski, McVerry, and Everett-Cacopardo (2009), who claim that online reading encompasses five processing practices, namely "(a) reading to identify important

questions, (b) reading to locate information, (c) reading to evaluate information critically, (d) reading to synthesize information, and (e) reading and writing to communicate information" (p. 266). Other researchers (Coll, 2005; Guth & Helm, 2011) express this idea in terms of a substantial expansion in what literacy involves: the advent of technology has resulted in a new world of knowledge to which students are exposed, and this situation is demanding new reading and writing skills as well as competences on their part. As a result, the term *multiliteracy* has been coined to account for the "multifaceted skills and competences" (Canagarajah, 2002 as cited in Elola & Oskoz, 2010, p. 53) that learners need to develop to succeed at school. Kress (2005) clearly exemplifies this situation by making reference to multimodal texts which may be devoid of writing, but may use sound and images, which demand a reading process different to the one applied when written text prevails. This has resulted in the need to develop new literacies in order to successfully deal with information by, for instance, evaluating whether it is reliable and appropriate for our needs (Horning & Kraemer, 2013).

Alexander and Fox's (2004) timeline of the development of reading theory can be analysed in L2 contexts. In the 1900s the teaching of reading had a predominant role in L2 contexts (Matsuda, 2003b). Second language reading used to be regarded as a passive activity until the 1970s; i.e. it was considered to be a process which entailed readers to decode a text in order to interpret the writer's purpose (Carrell, 1988a). Most teaching approaches were based on the audiolingual method, according to which reading served to foster grammar and vocabulary (Grabe, 1991). The advent of the psycholinguistic model of reading, which coincided with the era of information processing, brought about a challenge to the paradigm in terms of how reading was viewed. Goodman, one of its advocates, defined reading as a "psycholinguistic game," by this he meant that reading encompasses "an interaction between thought and language" (Goodman, 1976, p. 498), in which readers perform an active role in the reading process in their deliberate attempt to comprehend the writer's message (Hudson, 2007; Samuels & Kamil, 1988) (see 2.2.1.2.1 Goodman's model). Reading was thus regarded as a unit, which could not be divided into parts (Koda, 2012). Goodman's theory was reinterpreted by Clarke and Silberstein and Coady in ESL contexts. On the one hand, Clarke and Silberstein (1977 as cited in Grabe, 1991, p. 377) defined reading as "an active process of comprehending." On the other hand, Coady (1979 as cited in Grabe, 1991) contended that

the reading process encompasses three elements: (a) process strategies, which refer to word identification; (b) background knowledge, which good readers combine with the information provided in the text, and (c) conceptual abilities, which help readers deal with more abstract concepts. Grabe and Stoller (2013) also regard reading as an interactive process in the sense that it entails multiple processes working simultaneously as well as the interplay of a reader's linguistic and background knowledge.

Rosenblatt (2004, 2013) provides a conceptualisation of reading in terms of a transaction: meaning results from the transaction between reader and text; both are needed for meaning to be produced since it is not inherent in neither of them individually. Our interpretation of texts will be determined to a certain extent by "our personal linguistic–experiential reservoirs" (Rosenblatt, 2013, p. 927). Similarly, other authors define successful reading as "an act of creation" (Devine, 1988, p. 260). In other words, the meaning of a text results from the interaction between a reader and a text, and such meaning takes different forms because it varies from reader to reader, whose background and linguistic knowledge is unique. In second language settings, another variable that is likely to affect readers' comprehension is language proficiency/ competence (Devine, 1988; Hudson, 2007).

These definitions of reading give account of the complexity of this notion and they seem to indicate that readers can approach texts in different ways; thus, what the development of this skill entails may differ from one person to another due to the context and purpose of reading as well as the person's background knowledge. In this respect, Grabe and Stoller (2013) analyse aspects of L2 reading that differentiate it from L1 reading, which they group into (a) linguistic and processing differences, which are due to the almost simultaneous learning process of L2 reading and speaking, growing metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness on the part of L2 students because of direct instruction, and different proficiency levels; (b) individual and experiential differences, which can be explained in terms of L2 students' L1 reading abilities, reading motivations, the amount of L2 reading practice, the text genres that they have been exposed to and the use of language resources to aid L2 reading; (c) socio-cultural and institutional differences, which can imply varying understandings of the use of texts as well as expectations about rhetorical patterns and reading attitudes. Such a contrast results from L1 reading experiences that readers bring with them to L2 learning settings. Because of the aforementioned aspects, which differ from one

L2 learner to another, "L2 reading development is inherently more complex and diverse than monolingual L1 reading development" (Koda, 2013, p. 3). The different conceptualisations of reading will be useful when I analyse the students' perceptions of reading and writing.

2.2.1 Main models of the reading process

For over forty years, specialists have tried to construct models of the reading process (Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Samuels & Kamil, 1988). The three main categories under which reading models can be grouped are bottom-up, top-down and interactive. Barnett (1989) also refers to reading/writing models as a new type of the latter category. These models differ in their focus on either text-based variables, like lexical repertoire and rhetorical pattern, or reader-based variables, such as background knowledge, age and motivation (Barnett, 1989). In this section I will describe the main reading models, namely bottom-up, top-down, and interactive models, in terms of their essential features and their implications for L2 reading pedagogy. These concepts can help examine L2 students' perceptions of reading.

2.2.1.1 Bottom-up models / data driven processes

In bottom-up models "the sequence of processing proceeds from the incoming data to higher-level encodings" (Samuels & Kamil, 1988, p. 31). By this is meant that readers build meaning from the smallest units and progress up to higher-order stages (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Anderson, 2013; Li & D'Angelo, 2016). This implies that readers' meaning-making process is linear since the order of the stages in the construction of meaning cannot be changed (Barnett, 1989; Hudson, 2007). This entails the existence of a mechanical pattern to be followed when reading takes place (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). Readers depend on their language-decoding skills in these models viz., grammatical skills and vocabulary development (Carrell, 1988a). "Lower-level processes represent the more automatic linguistic processes and are typically viewed as more skills-orientated" (Jiang et al., 2020, p. 266). As Saville-Troike (2006) contends, bottom-up processing demands "prior knowledge of the language system (i.e. vocabulary, morphology, phonology, syntax, and discourse structure) and interpretation of physical (graphic and auditory) cues" (p. 154) on the part of

readers. That is why Carrell (1988a) suggests that the instruction on these skills in second language settings is key to foster L2 readers' effective reading. She contends that L2 readers should learn about the cohesive devices of English and how they work at the sentence and paragraph levels. They should also broaden their vocabulary repertoire by analysing the meaning of words in context. The aforementioned features place them within the category of text-driven models of comprehension, which also becomes evident in their definition of reading as "a process in which small chunks of text are absorbed, analysed, and gradually added to the next chunks until they become meaningful" (Barnett, 1989, p. 13).

2.2.1.2 Top-down models / hypothesis driven processes

Top-down models contend that the reading process mainly depends on higher-order processes, which interact with lower-order stages (Samuels & Kamil, 1988). "Higher-level processes generally represent comprehension processes that make much more use of the reader's background knowledge and inferencing abilities" (Jiang et al., 2020, p. 266). These models characterise reading as being reader-driven since such a process relies on the reader's mental activities (Barnett, 1989). In this perspective, the reader and their background knowledge have an active role in the reading process; they first construct hypotheses which they expect to confirm or reject by working on the printed text (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Barnett, 1989; Carrell, 1988a; Eskey & Grabe, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Hudson, 2007; Li & D'Angelo, 2016; Samuels & Kamil, 1988). In this respect, schema theory holds that readers with extensive background knowledge tend to be more competent readers in the fields which they are more familiar with (Carrell, 1988a). This is the reason why Carrell (1988a) highlights the need to include activities to activate readers' background knowledge. It may happen, though, that the reader may not have enough background knowledge related to the topic of the text, which is likely to restrict their formulation of hypotheses. In line with this, Hudson (2007) asserts that meaning is "personally and contextually sensible" (p. 34). One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether top-down models overemphasise higher-level skills at the expense of lower-level skills (Eskey, 1988). Despite of this, most researchers subscribe to the belief that top-down processing can help readers become meaning-makers by counterbalancing their lack of content, contextual or culture knowledge

by means of their ability to guess meaning from context (Saville-Troike, 2006). In the following sections I will make reference to Goodman's and Smith's models of reading, both of which fall into the top-down model category.

2.2.1.2.1 Goodman's model (1968)

Goodman (1976) proposes the view that successful readers do not analyse every single word in a text, but instead select the graphic cues that will enable them to elaborate reading hypotheses to be verified by reading the text and establishing relationships with their background knowledge. In Grabe's (1991) terms, Goodman regards reading as "a selective process" (p. 377). By defining reading as a psycholinguistic process, Goodman (1968, p. 15 as cited in Barnett, 1989, p. 19) means that this skill can be regarded as "an interaction between reader and written language, through which the reader attempts to reconstruct a message from the writer." Goodman (1988) further explains that the psycholinguistic aspect of reading is due to the fact that the reader starts the reading process by identifying linguistic forms and finishes it by constructing meaning from the text. In this model, reading encompasses four processes viz., (1) predicting, which implies that readers make guesses about printed material based on their background knowledge; (2) sampling, which involves examining the text in order to confirm their predictions; (3) confirming, which is one of the alternatives if they were right on their guesses; and (4) correcting, which is the process that they need to go through in the event that their predictions do not match the text (Barnett, 1989; Grabe & Stoller, 2013).

In the case of this research study, the model proposed by Goodman is useful to help me describe some of the processes students may engage in when they read a text as a source text to write a summary-analysis essay.

2.2.1.2.2 Smith's model (1971, 1982)

Like Goodman, Smith also underlines the importance of meaning and prediction in the process of reading (Barnett, 1989). He considers that reading is characterised by four features: (1) it is purposeful in that readers have an objective for which to read a printed

work; (2) it is selective since readers' attention is directed to what they need so as to achieve their goal; (3) it is based on comprehension, which entails that readers use their background knowledge in combination with the information provided by the reading material to understand the text; and (4) it is anticipatory because readers are able to predict the content of the text by making use of their prior knowledge, setting a purpose for reading and aiming at comprehension (Barnett, 1989).

The characterisation that Smith provides of reading can shed some light on this study in terms of how students proceed when they read a text for the specific purpose of writing a summary-analysis essay.

2.2.1.3 Interactive models of reading

The emergence and development of a new view of reading in the 1970s and 1980s, namely the interactive approach, challenged the beliefs held by bottom-up and top-down approaches. Until then, the most prevailing view of reading was that it was a process through which the reader decoded the text producer's "intended meaning" (Carrell, 1988b, p. 2) by converting print to language. Interactive models of reading seem to provide a more complete and appropriate conceptualisation of the reading process (Carrell, 1988b; Stanovich, 1980 as cited in Samuels & Kamil, 1988). In these models, the reading process is defined as "a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text" (Grabe, 1988, p. 56) since readers bring their background knowledge which interacts with the information provided in the text. The interactive model does not prioritise top-down processing skills over bottom-up ones, instead it supposes the interplay between higher-level skills and lower-level skills (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Carrell, 1988a; Eskey & Grabe, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Hudson, 2007; Li & D'Angelo, 2016). In this respect, Eskey (1988) points out that this approach "posits a constant interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing in reading, each source of information contributing to a comprehensive reconstruction of the meaning of the text" (p. 94). In a similar vein, Barnett (1989) highlights that readers rely on both the written text and their mental processes, which enjoy equal status and work concurrently in order to gain full understanding of the reading material. Consequently, higher-level and lower-level skills are necessary in reading comprehension (Li & D'Angelo, 2016).

The two main tenets of the interactive models of reading are that "skills at all levels are interactively available to process and to interpret the text" (Grabe, 1988, p. 59) and that there is a constant interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing in reading (Carrell, 1988b; Grabe, 1991). In other words, readers' successful implementation of both bottom-up and top-down strategies is likely to result in their reading accuracy and fluency. The interactive models that are going to be discussed in the next section are Rumelhart's and Ruddell and Unrau's.

2.2.1.3.1 Rumelhart's model

According to Rumelhart (2013), the reading process begins when graphemic input gets into the system to be processed by a visual information store (VIS) (see Figure 2.1.). A feature extraction device takes over and it is in charge of focusing on what stands out. Then, a pattern synthesizer analyses the graphemic input in terms of its orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic aspects in order to provide an interpretation of the information (Hudson, 2007; Rumelhart, 2004). In fact, Rumelhart (1977 as cited in Barnett, 1989) explains how six knowledge sources function. Readers make use of their linguistic knowledge in order to be able to read and concentrate on what is needed at the feature level: *featural knowledge*. They also analyse the frequency of letters at the *letter level knowledge* and how those letters become units of language at the *letter cluster level*. They elaborate lexical and syntactic predictions at the *lexical and syntactic levels*, which are evaluated at the *semantic level*. Thus, the reading process results from the activation of different knowledge sources. The pattern synthesizer stores a person's knowledge about the different features of words, which enable the reader to make sense of what has been read (Barnett, 1989). Rumelhart proposes the existence of a mechanism, called the message centre, in charge of receiving and using different sources of information as needed (Samuels & Kamil, 1988). Such knowledge sources interact mediated by the message centre, being the relationship hierarchical: "the high-order stages are able to influence the processing of lower-order stages" (Samuels & Kamil, 1988, p. 31). Basically, every knowledge source "scans the message centre for the appearance of hypotheses relevant to its own sphere of knowledge" (Rumelhart, 2013, p. 733), which are either accepted or rejected. According to Sadoski and

Paivio (2007), like Gough's, and LaBerge and Samuels' theories, Rumelhart's reveals a major limitation: it disregards the importance of prior knowledge, memory and comprehension.

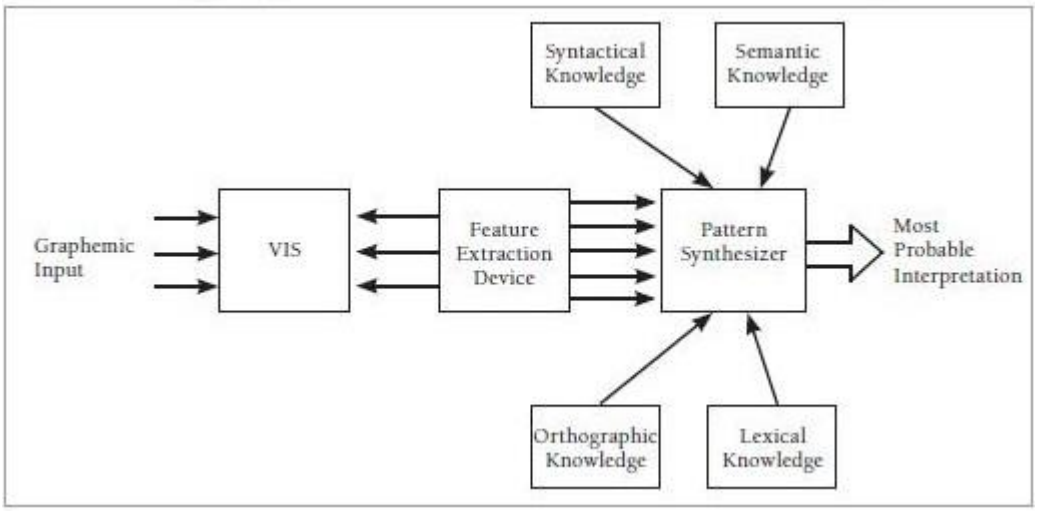

Figure 2.1. A Stage Representation of an Interactive Model of Reading. From *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (p. 732), D. E. Alvermann, K. J. Unrau, and R. B. Ruddell (Eds.), 2013, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Copyright 2013 by the International Reading Association, Inc.

3.2.1.3.2 Ruddell and Unrau's model

Ruddell and Unrau (2013) present a sociocognitive interactive model of reading made up of three components, which interact and change during the negotiation as well as the construction of meaning, namely the reader, the teacher and the text and classroom context (see Figure 2.2.). Both the reader and the teacher are defined in terms of their prior beliefs and knowledge, which encompass two interdependent conditions that have an impact on their meaning-making processes: on the one hand, affective conditions, and on the other hand, cognitive conditions. The reader's affective conditions stand for their motivation to read and

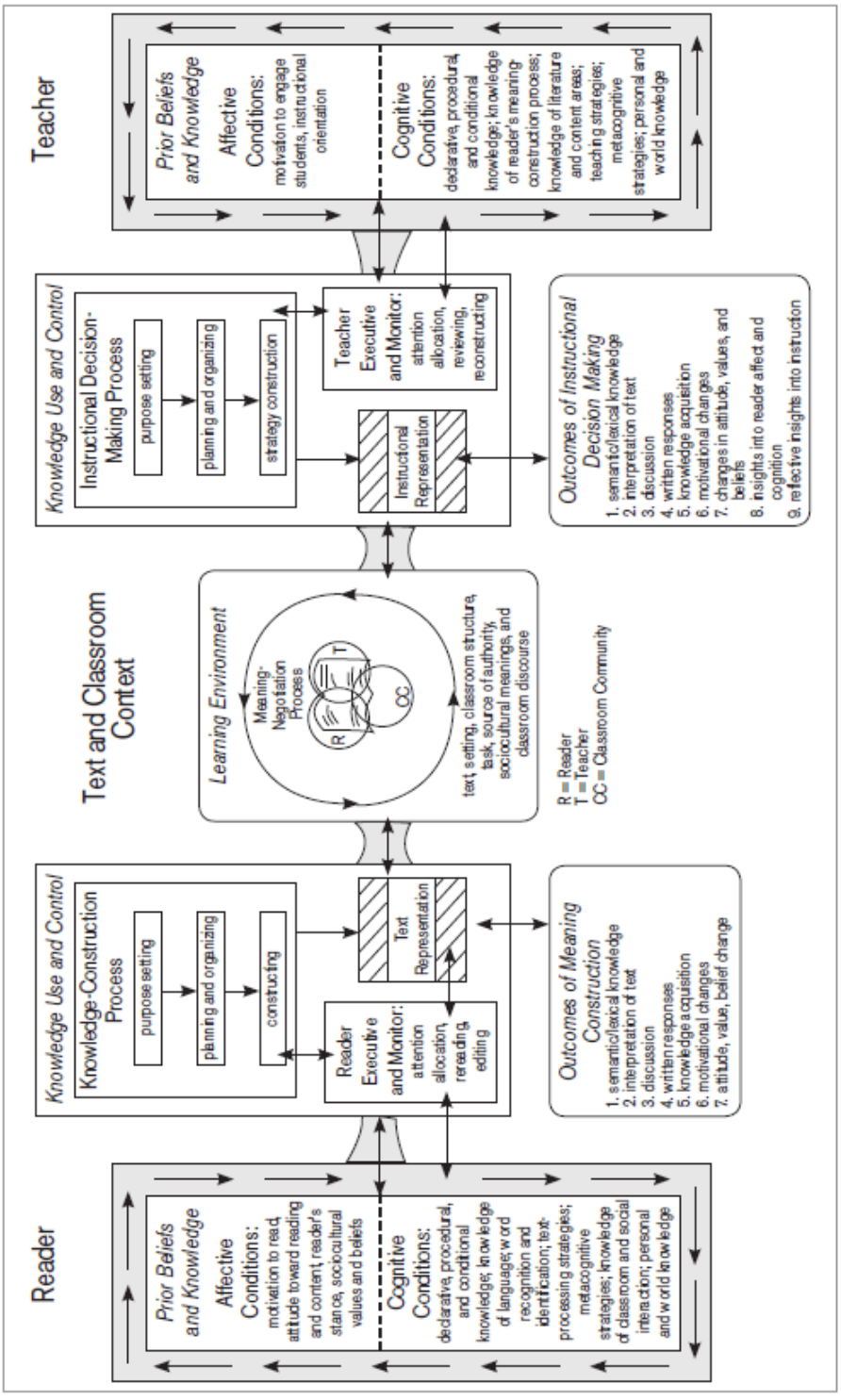

Figure 2.2. Ruddell and Unrau's Sociocognitive Interactive Model of Reading. From *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (p. 1018), D. E. Alvermann, K. J. Unrau, and R. B. Ruddell (Eds.), 2013, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Copyright 2013 by the International Reading Association, Inc.

how reading is understood in their environment, while their cognitive conditions include their declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge, which is kept in schemata, defined as "networks of associated knowledge that are activated and instantiated or as knowledge clusters that can be tapped for pieces of information that the reader reassembles to form new schemata" (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013, p. 1029). As a result, bottom-up and top-down processes interact in this model. In the case of the teacher, their affective and cognitive conditions are influenced by life experiences. "Affective conditions include instructional beliefs and philosophy and involve such things as motivation to engage students and instructional orientation" (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013, p. 1017), whereas their cognitive conditions comprise knowledge related to how they think readers construct meaning, how, when and why to teach reading, among other aspects. Similarly, this reading model endows the reader and teacher with a knowledge use and control component. It is what paves the way for the reader's meaning-making processes, which results in text representations that are then evaluated to be confirmed or rejected by the reader executive and monitor. In the case of the teacher, it is what helps them make decisions about how to proceed with reading, i.e. it is concerned with reading instruction. In Ruddell and Unrau's (2013) words, it "directs the instructional decision-making process, provides a mental instructional representation, and evaluates instructional purpose through the teacher executive and monitor" (p. 1045).

The third model component is the text and classroom context, located between the reader and the teacher in Figure 2.2. Not only is it the learning milieu where the reader, teacher and classroom community negotiate and construct meaning based on the text read, but it also influences the two major model components viz., the reader and the teacher. This is the environment in which the components that make up both reader and teacher come to life in search for meaning, which "is not entirely in either the text or the reader but is created as a result of the interactions among reader, text, teacher, and classroom community" (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013 p. 1049).

This model informs this thesis because one of the firm beliefs Ruddell and Unrau (2013) hold is that "oral and written language development, which affect thinking processes, contributes directly to the development of reading ability" (p. 1016). In addition, this model represents reading as a situated process in an educational setting.

2.3 Second language writing

The field of second language writing research can be said to have its origins in the 1960s (Matsuda, 2003b). Not until the 1960s was the instruction of writing considered necessary. This situation was due to the fact that at that time, the United States had a rising number of non-native college students who were not trained in the writing skill and had different backgrounds (Matsuda, 2003a, 2003b). As a result, a variety of pedagogical approaches emerged to provide a solution to such an issue, namely writing as (a) sentence-level structure, according to which students' written productions could be flawless by training them on controlled composition exercises; (b) discourse-level structure, whose advocators contended that given that the linguistic systems of languages differ, learners cannot transfer L1 structures to the target language; (c) process, which defines writing as being recursive; and (d) language use in context, which highlights the contextual aspect of language i.e. language as situated practice (Matsuda, 2003b). L2 writing has expanded and developed into a complex area that deals with topics, such as writers' written productions, their processes, their characteristics (behaviour, attitude, and beliefs), the context of writing instruction, among others (Manchón, 2016; Polio, 2003). It has been pointed out that teachers tend to take informed pedagogical decisions about how to provide the instruction of writing based on their own beliefs and knowledge of "what writing is and how people learn to write" (Hyland, 2003b, p. 1). In the majority of the cases, educators opt for an eclectic approach viz., they combine different perspectives by integrating what they consider the best of each orientation. Most research studies in the field of writing have attempted to elucidate what the logic behind writing is and what the most appropriate method to teach this skill is (Hyland, 2009).

After years of research in the second language acquisition (hereafter SLA) field, there has been consensus on the fact that there is not a clear-cut answer to the question of what the best approach to teaching writing is. It is possible to trace different orientations which have provided illuminating insight into the understanding of what writing involves, how it can be taught and learned, and what the focus of instruction should be. Such theories can be defined as perspectives, which form part of the available alternatives to which educators can resort when teaching writing. These approaches include the structural approach, the functional

approach, expressivism, the process approach, the content approach, and the genre approach (Hyland, 2003b). Although these perspectives differ in their conceptualisation of writing since they hold dissimilar beliefs and theories of SLA, they can be deemed as being complementary and overlapping in certain respects.

2.3.1 L2 writing models

Polio (2012) offers a historical account of writing models in L2. She considers that there is a paucity of well-developed L2 writing models. This section provides a description of some writing models: Hayes & Flower model, Hayes's New Model, Hayes's Current Version of the Writing Model (2012), and Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987 as cited in Weigle, 2002) writing model. The models selected, albeit based on first-language writing, inform about the difference between L2 expert and novice writers and variables that seem to have an impact on the writing process (Cumming, 2016; Roca de Larios, Nicolás-Conesa, & Coyle, 2016; Weigle, 2002). The models presented share the theoretical underpinnings of a view of writing in L1 and L2 whose cognitive processes are the same, but whose difference lies in "how the outcome of these processes is linguistically formulated" (Roca de Larios et al., 2016, p. 270).

2.3.1.1 The Hayes-Flower model (1980)

This cognitive process model emerged as a response to the so-called stage models (Becker, 2006). In fact, the Hayes-Flower model heavily criticises that such models focus on the written product instead of the writers' mental processes that take place while they write, and that they fail to depict the writing process since it cannot be thought of as consisting of stages whose order is never altered (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Instead, Flower and Hayes (1981) present a writing model in which writers' mental processes are the units to be analysed; such units are defined as having "a hierarchical structure" (p. 367), which entails that the processes may occur in any order during the writing process, thus it is not linear, but recursive (Weigle, 2002). The model encompasses three elements, namely the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing processes (see Figure 2.3.).

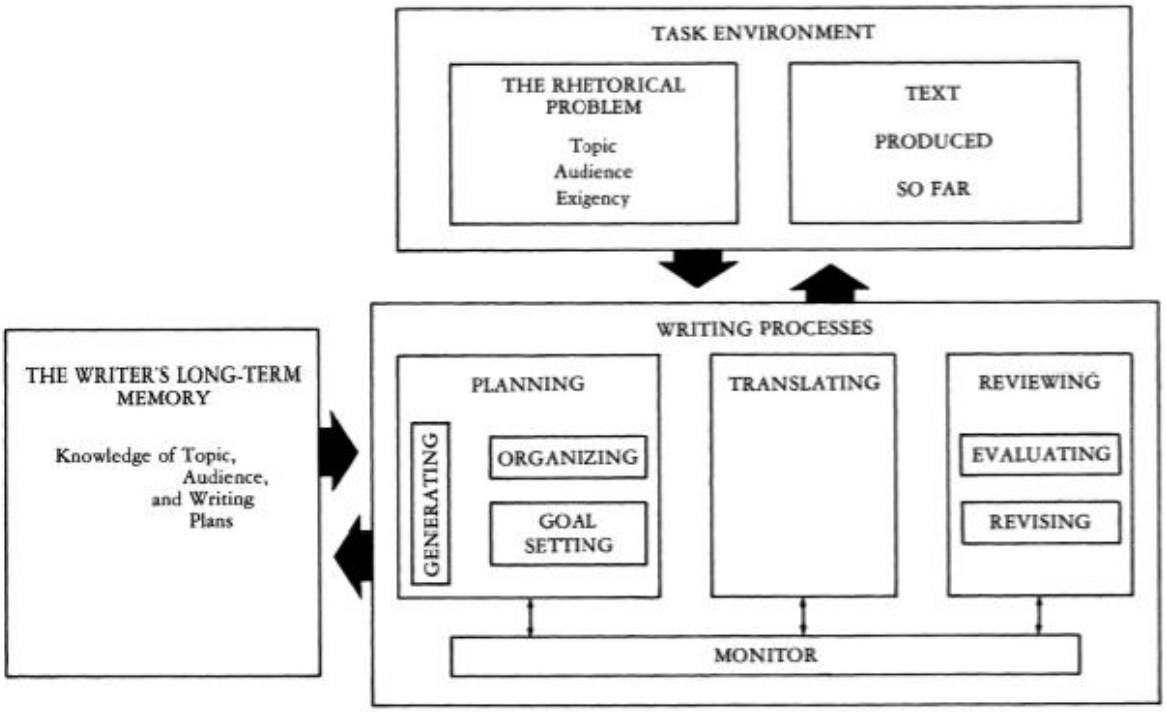

Figure 2.3. The Hayes-Flower Model. From "A Cognitive Process Theory of Writing," by L. Flower and J. R. Hayes, 1981, *College Composition and Communication*, *32*(4), p. 370. Copyright 1981 by National Council of Teachers of English.

The task environment refers to what surrounds the writer; for example, the writing instruction or what Flower and Hayes (1981) call "the rhetorical problem" (p. 369). The writer's long-term memory includes the content and context knowledge, which varies from one person to another. The writing process, named "cognitive writing processes" in a redrawing of the original model (Hayes, 2002, p. 10), involves three main processes: Planning implies the generation of ideas based on the writing purpose; Translating (called "text generation" in the redrawing) alludes to the process by which ideas are put into written form; and Reviewing refers to the editing process. The authors consider that this process relies on two sub-processes viz., evaluating and revising, both of which depend on the Monitor, defined as "a writing strategist which determines when the writer moves from one process to the next" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 374). The adaptation of the model to second language writing has resulted in "researchers to consider L2 composing as the complex and recursive interaction of planning, translation and revision processes, which are coordinated by a monitor" (Roca de Larios et al., 2016, p. 270).

2.3.1.2 Hayes's New Model

Two decades later, Hayes (2002) presents a new model of the writing process, which differs from the original in certain aspects. The new model (see Figure 2.4.) consists of two major components: the task environment and the individual. The former is subdivided into two: (1) the social environment, made up of the audience and collaborators, refers to the social aspect of writing and to the fact that such an activity is constrained by the social context in which it is produced; and (2) the physical environment comprises the text produced at different points of the writing process – meant to represent the modifications that writing itself involves – and the composing medium, which has proved to affect the writing process (Hayes, 2002). The second major component, the individual, encompasses four elements: motivation/affect, cognitive processes, working memory and long-term memory. According to the author, motivation can have an effect on the activity of writing in terms of the writer's predisposition to carry out a particular task, the priority given to goals, and how to proceed when writing. As regards cognitive processes, Hayes (2002) holds the belief that they serve three main functions, namely text interpretation, which enables writers to understand what they read or listen to; reflection, which allows people to create internal representations in the form of, for example, taking decisions; and text production, which basically means that writers' internal representations are externalised in written form. In this new model, the working memory is of paramount importance, which is depicted by the place it occupies at the centre of the model and its interaction with the components of the individual. In a similar vein, long-term memory stores knowledge that writers use when addressing a writing task, such as task schemas, topic knowledge, audience knowledge, linguistic knowledge and genre knowledge (Weigle, 2002). This model can be said to represent Hayes's (2002) definition of writing:

> writing depends on an appropriate combination of cognitive, affective, social, and physical conditions if it is to happen at all. Writing is a communicative act that requires a social context and a medium. It is a generative activity requiring motivation, and it is an intellectual activity requiring cognitive processes and memory. (p. 11)

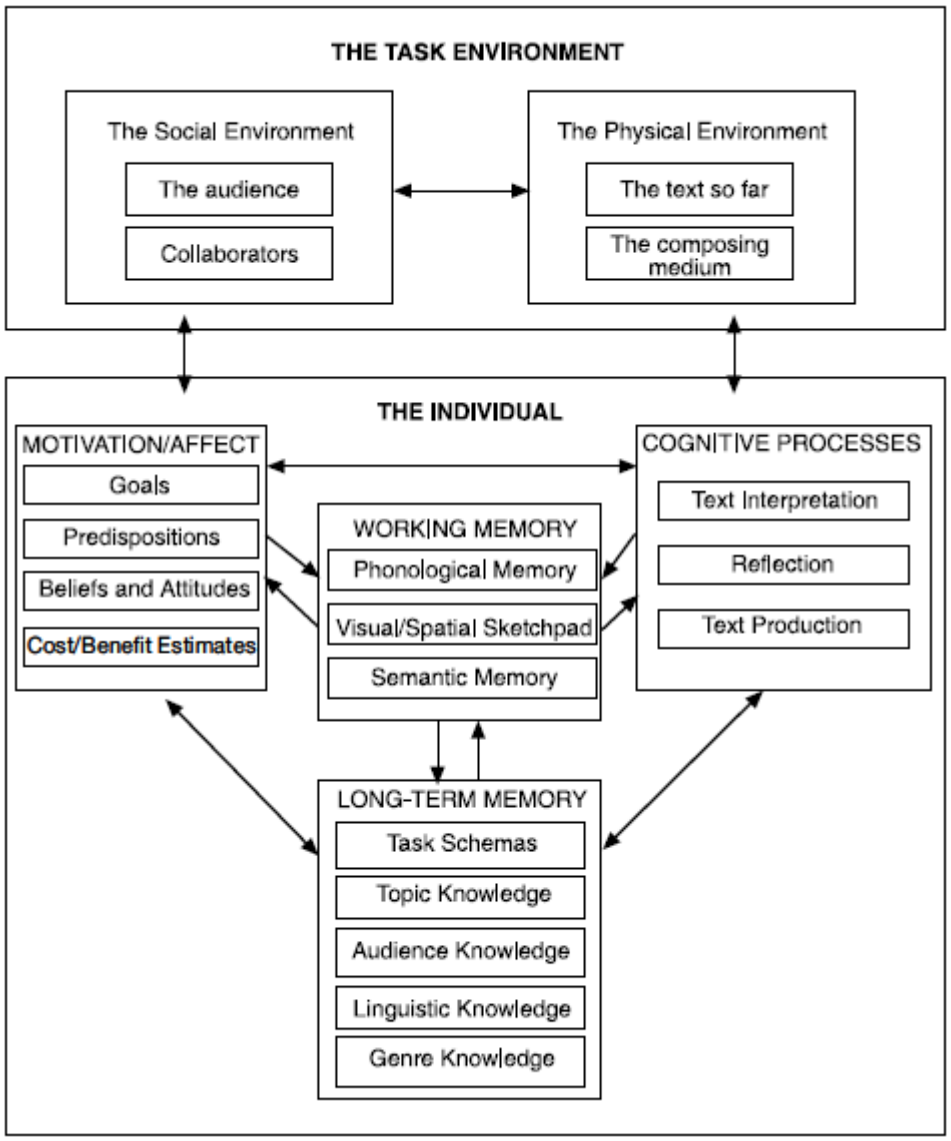

Figure 2.4. The Hayes (1996) model. From *Assessing Writing* (p. 26), by S. C. Weigle, 2002, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Copyright 2002 by Cambridge University Press.

In his definition of writing, it is made clear that both internal and external factors to the writer play a major role in the act of composing. Hayes (2002) also highlights the fact that mastering writing takes practice. He also contends that reading is of paramount importance in writing and distinguishes three types of reading which can contribute to the writing process. They encompass reading to evaluate, which means that the writer goes through the text produced so far in order to identify what needs to be improved; reading source texts, which entails the use of information from such texts in the writer's; and reading

instructions, which means that if they understand the writing task, they are likely to produce a suitable text (Weigle, 2002). This model can inform this research study since I can establish a relationship between reading and writing if I consider that within internal factors Hayes includes long-term memory, which encompasses writers' background knowledge of different areas, and cognitive processes, which refer to both their understanding and production of texts. All these factors along with affective aspects within the process of writing in this model come into play when students write summary-analysis essays based on a source text.

2.3.1.3 The Hayes's Current Version of the Writing Model (2012)

Hayes (2012) presents a new version of the writing model, which has new features. There are three levels, namely the resource level, the process level and the control level (see Figure 2.5.). Firstly, within the resource level Hayes includes the writer's attention, long-term memory, working memory and reading. Secondly, the process level involves, on the one hand, the writing processes, meaning that the writer performs different roles: as an evaluator, proposer, translator and transcriber. The transcription process is one of the new additions to the Hayes's model. Hayes (2012) explains that research suggests that this process actually has an impact on writing processes, for instance, it may demand attention which may affect other writing tasks the writer undertakes. On the other hand, the process level encompasses the task environment already present in his previous model, but with some changes. It includes the transcription technology in order to account for the use of technology as a medium to write by keyboard instead of by hand. It is worth pointing out that the components of the writing processes interact with those of the task environment. Thirdly, the control level includes motivation, goal setting and the writer's current plan and writing schemas. Hayes (2012) highlights the ways in which motivation can influence writing: it affects writers' involvement in writing, it can result in them producing better texts, and it may encourage them to edit their texts.

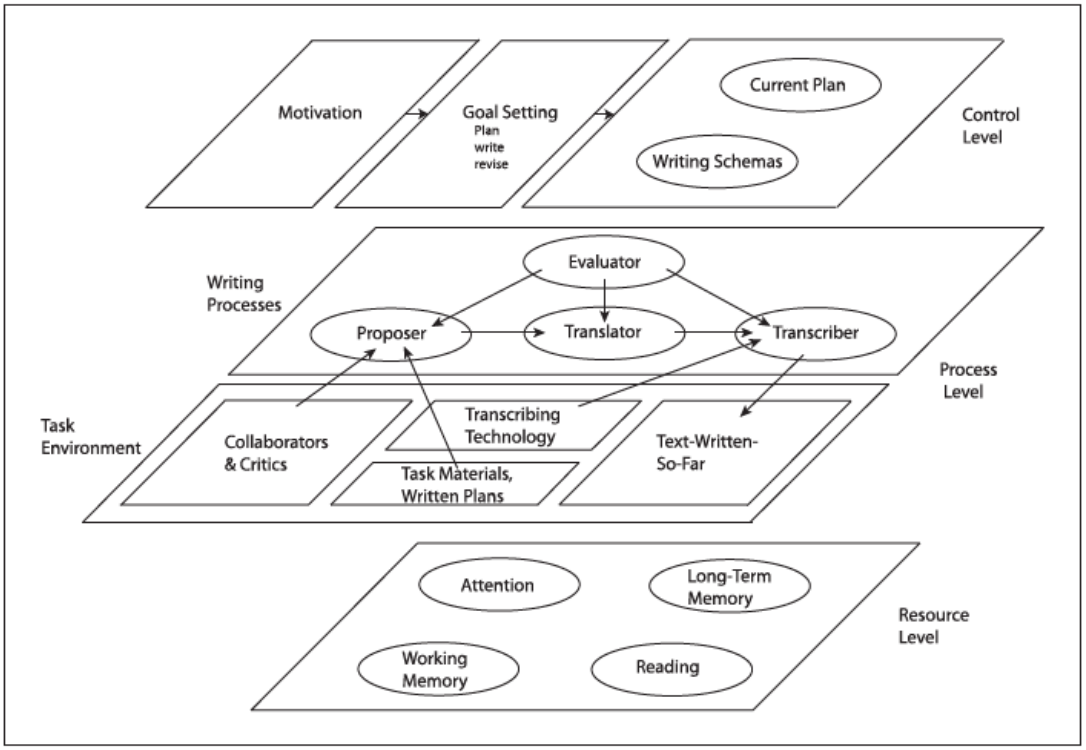

Figure 2.5. The Hayes's Current Version of the Writing Model. From "Modeling and Remodeling Writing," by J. R. Hayes, 2012, *Written Communication 29*(3), p. 371. Copyright 2012 by SAGE Publications.

One of the contributions of this model is that planning and revision are thought of as a particular implementation of the writing model instead of other writing processes included in the model. In Hayes's (2012) words, revising written text "involves planning a solution to the problem (in written form or not), translating that solution into language, and transcribing that language into new text to replace the old text" (p. 376). This model presents another relevant aspect for the analysis in this thesis: the conceptualisation of reading as a resource for writing along with attention, working memory and long-term memory.

2.3.1.4 Bereiter and Scardamalia's writing model

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) propose a two-model description of writing: a knowledge-telling model and a knowledge-transforming model. Each model represents how non-expert writers and skilful writers approach writing respectively. On the one hand, the knowledge-telling model (see Figure 2.6.) is related to people's writing and speaking skills

as literate members of society (Weigle, 2002). “Writers are assumed to engage in a knowledge-telling approach when content is directly retrieved from long-term memory and organised on the basis of stored associations” (Roca de Larios et al., 2016, p. 270).

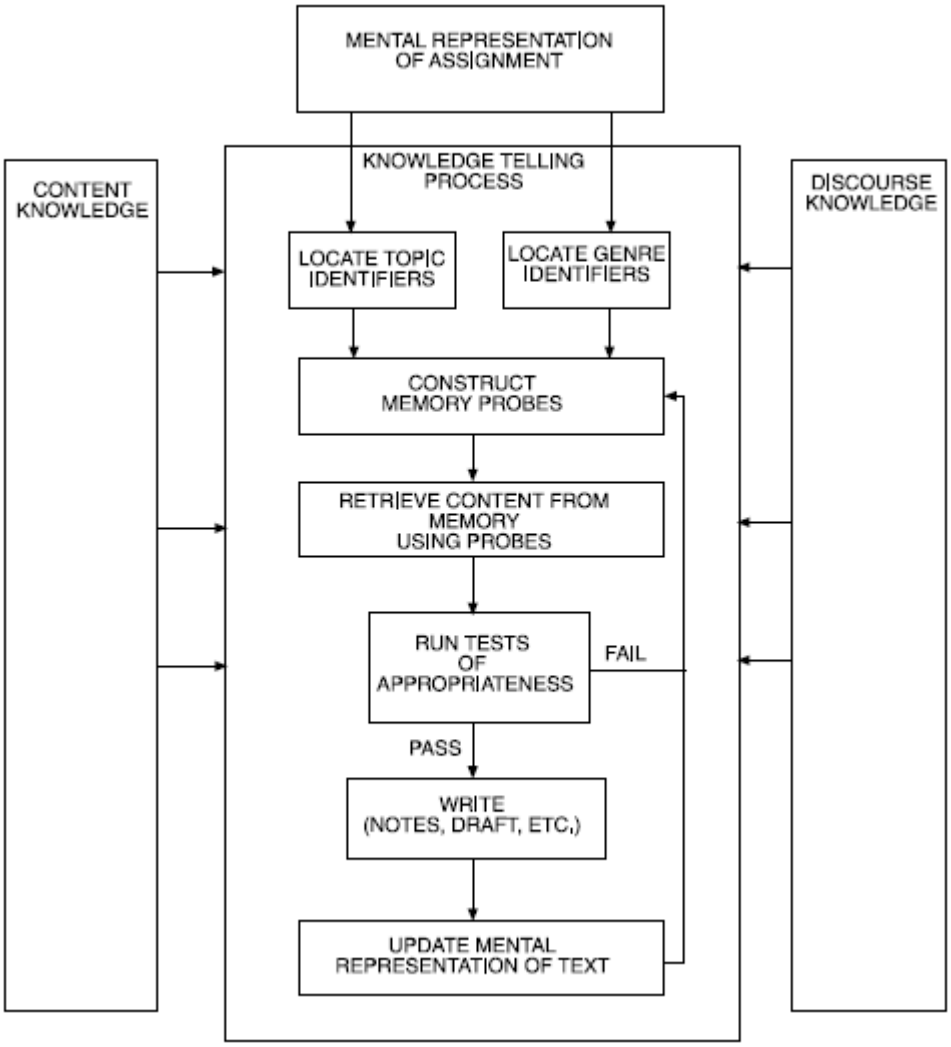

Figure 2.6. Structure of the Knowledge-Telling Model (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987). From *Assessing Writing* (p. 33), by S. C. Weigle, 2002, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Copyright 2002 by Cambridge University Press.

Bereiter and Scardamalia define this type of writing as being “‘natural’ or ‘unproblematic,’” (Weigle, 2002, p. 31) in the sense that any literate person can address this kind of writing. As Weigle (2002) explains, “knowledge telling follows the straight-ahead form of ordinary speech production and does not require any greater amount of planning or goal setting than does everyday conversation” (p. 32). In this model, the writers represent the writing

assignment mentally for which they resort to both their content knowledge viz., what they know about the topic in question, and their discourse knowledge, i.e. the genre to address the task. They analyse whether the ideas and the genre they have thought of respond to the prompt, and work only on those that are appropriate by using them in their compositions. They repeat the same procedure until they cannot develop any other relevant content. In this model, writers do not benefit from writing itself because the writing process does not extend their knowledge or understanding (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991).

On the other hand, in the knowledge-transforming model, writers show a higher level of expertise given that they "tell their knowledge but adjust, shape, and revise it as they write to conform to their goals, audience concerns, knowledge of text and language conventions, and evaluations of text produced thus far" (Cumming, 2016, p. 70). They start by analysing the problem and establishing a goal. This results in their involvement in two domains: the content problem space, where writers decide what information is relevant for the task; they deal with problems of domain knowledge, and the rhetorical problem space, in which they attempt to apply the genre that best responds to the assignment; writers cope with the text being written (Weigle, 2002) (see Figure 2.7.). Given that these two problem spaces are interconnected, the decisions made in either domain impact on the other one, i.e. knowledge developed to solve a problem in the content problem space may result in a change in the rhetorical problem space and vice versa. In Scardamalia and Bereiter's (1991) terms, this model "solves rhetorical and knowledge-related problems interactively, thus simultaneously enhancing writing expertise and subject-matter understanding" (p. 179). Consequently, as writers work on their compositions, they create knowledge by writing. This is related to what Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) call "the dialectical process in expert text composition" (p. 177), which implies that not only do expert writers make use of their domain knowledge to write a text, but they also expand their knowledge through writing, i.e. writing has an impact on what they know about a particular domain. According to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), "there is an interactive solving of content-related and rhetorical problems in the pursuit of goals to be achieved through the composition" (p. 18). In this respect, it is postulated that "when revising, writers first 'compare' their mental text with what they have written. Then if they see a problem, they 'diagnose' what needs to be changed and, after considering revision options, 'operate' on the text to complete the revision" (Becker, 2006, pp. 26-27).

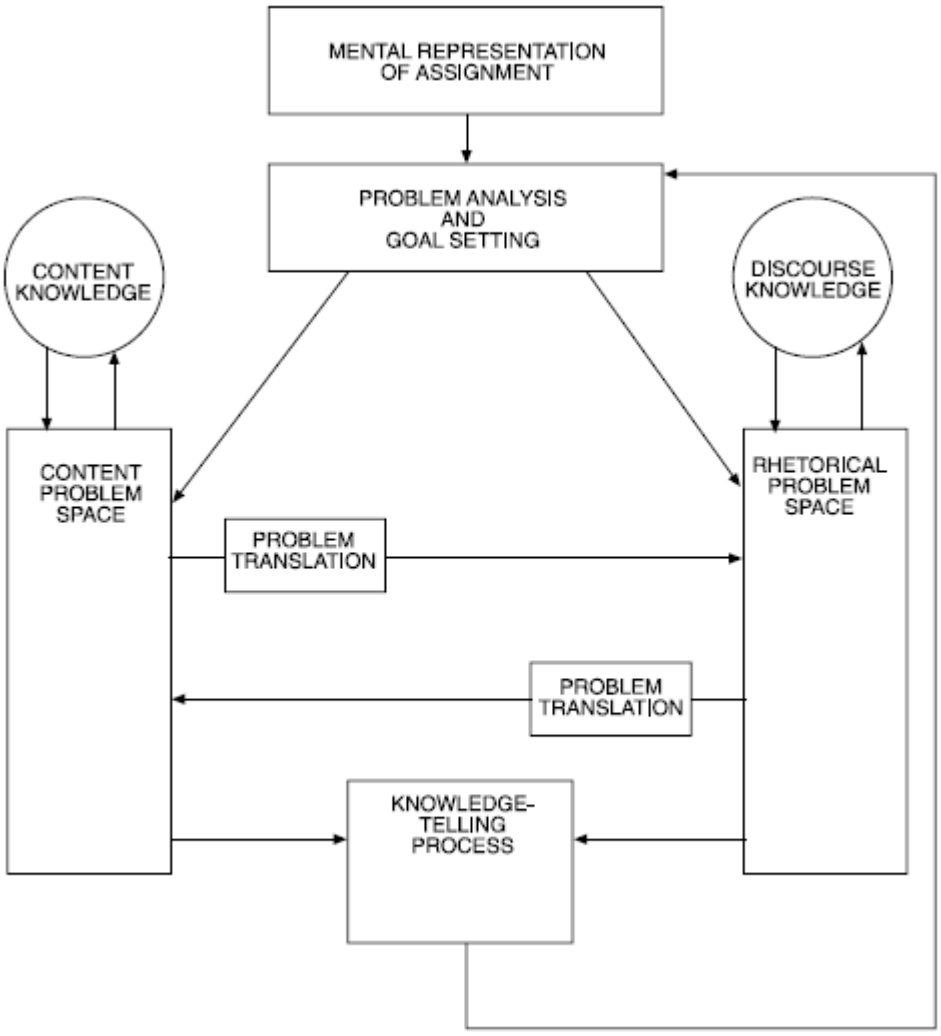

Figure 2.7. Structure of the Knowledge-Transforming Model (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987). From *Assessing Writing* (p. 34), by S. C. Weigle, 2002, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Copyright 2002 by Cambridge University Press.

As a result, writing is not a simple process done at once, but it is "interrupted by pauses during which the writer consults top-level goals or global constraints before making local decisions" (Flower & Hayes, 1981 as cited in Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991, p. 173).

As Hirvela and Du (2013) point out, Bereiter and Scardamalia's concepts of *knowledge telling* and *knowledge transforming* can throw light on how reading and writing combine in the process of using source texts. The first model of text production allows writers to make use of sources so as to show comprehension and to discuss the issue in question, whereas the other model enables them to resort to the text material to expand on a topic. What both models share is that they imply the appropriate use of direct quotation, summarising and

paraphrasing (Hirvela & Du, 2013). Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) also describe skilful readers as going through a *knowledge-transforming* process due to the fact that they conceive the meaning of the text as being problematic, for which they deploy strategies in order to solve such a problem, whilst inexpert readers follow a *knowledge-telling* process because they analyse the information of the text in the order it appears and they do not go back to that knowledge to relate it to the context in which it is used. Their model can help explain how skilled and unskilled writers proceed when they compose from sources.

2.3.2 Approaches to L2 writing

In reviewing the literature, there seems to be widespread agreement on what the four main approaches to writing have been: (a) the structural approach; (b) the functional approach; (c) the process approach; and (d) the genre approach. For the purpose of this study, only the last two approaches to L2 writing will be explained since they are useful to describe current educational practices within the context in which this study was carried out.

2.3.2.1 The process approach

The process approach finds support within two currents: expressivism and cognitivism. According to the former movement, writing is a process of discovery and expression of the self, while the latter describes this skill as a thinking process and problem-solving activity (Hyland, 2003b, 2009). Advocates of this movement hold the belief that students need to deploy strategies and take part in activities organised in staged processes: pre-writing, drafting, revising and editing (Harl, 2013; Hirvela, 2007; Hyland, 2003b; Matsuda, 2003b; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006; Raimes, 1991). In this respect, Flower and Hayes (1981) criticise this stage process model since they point out that such steps are taken throughout the composition process and are not clean-cut in that they do not follow a particular order. These authors sustain that the stage models of writing "offer an inadequate account of the more intimate, moment-by-moment intellectual process of composing" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 367). They propose instead a cognitive process model, according to which it is possible to identify a set of distinctive thinking processes which writers organise

and make use of at any time in the process of composition. The view of writing as a recursive and interactive process was introduced for the first time by Vivian Zamel (1976 as cited in Matsuda, 2003b). Zamel (1983 p. 165 as cited in Hyland, 2003b, p. 11) defined writing as "a non-linear exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning." In Badger and White's (2000) terms, writing is seen as "a cyclical process" (p. 154) which enables writers to move from one stage to the other at any time of the writing process. This resulted in a profound shift in second language writing instruction "from the mimicking of correct structure to the development of a cognitive, problem-solving approach" (Hirvela, 2007, p. 34). The process approach highlights the complexity of the writing process (Hyland, 2003a). Teachers' role is that of facilitators, who do not only pave the way for students to get involved in the process of writing, but they can also provide feedback to learners (Hyland, 2003b). As a result, as Morra and Asís (2009) suggest, this orientation favours teacher-learner interaction as well as peer feedback. This approach, though, has been criticised on the grounds that it disregards the impact that the social context can have on the production of texts, an aspect that genre-based pedagogies have as a focus (Hyland, 2003a).

2.3.2.2 The genre approach

From a genre perspective, writing is explicitly taught through the analysis of the language used in a given type of text (Hyland, 2007, 2018). The emphasis is on the social context where texts are produced since writing varies according to such a variable (Badger & White, 2000). Genres can be defined as "abstract, socially recognized ways of using language for particular purposes" (Hyland, 2003b, p. 18). In other words, texts can be grouped according to the functions that writers use them for. Such a definition entails that from a genre approach, texts are discourse (Hirvela et al., 2016) because "we use language to achieve purposes in particular situations" (Hyland, 2011, p. 23). According to Hyland (2009), "each [genre] has a specific purpose, an overall structure, specific linguistic features, and is shared by members of the culture" (p. 15). In this respect, genre approaches endorse the idea that there is every likelihood that if both readers and writers have knowledge of the conventions and a suitable writing schema for the text they are either reading or producing,

the former will comprehend the writer's goal and the latter will communicate their ideas or thoughts successfully (Hyland, 2007, 2008, 2011, 2018). Swales's (1990) definition of genre clearly includes such an idea: a genre is "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 58). Writing is thus seen as "a practice based on expectations: the reader's chances of interpreting the writer's purpose are increased if the writer anticipates what the reader might be expecting based on previous texts they have read of the same kind" (Hirvela et al., 2016, p. 50). In this respect, Matsuda and Silva (2020) explain that "'genre knowledge', that is, the knowledge that helps shape possible responses to particular rhetorical situations, functions as a scaffolding that assists writers in managing the complexity of writing and readers in interpreting the text" (p. 280). Hoey's (2001 as cited in Hyland, 2007) imagery of readers and writers resembling dancers represents the idea that they need to follow the other's step in their attempt to become meaning-makers and know what comes next. Hyland (2018) elaborates on this metaphor and sustains that "while writing, like dancing, allows for creativity and the unexpected, established patterns often form the basis of variations" (p. 1). In other words, there is room for writers' creative side to introduce certain changes, but they first need to know the basic lexico-grammatical and discursive patterns and conventions of a given genre.

A basic premise of this approach is based on Halliday's theory of language known as Systemic Functional Linguistics: the language used in certain texts responds to conventions particular of what Halliday calls a context of situation (Hyland, 2009). Such contexts of situation are not realised only once, but they can often be repeated, whose recurrence helps users become cognizant of how to proceed as regards linguistic choices in a given situation (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). In other words, the meaning of the text as well as the interpretation that the reader makes of it will depend on the specific context where the text was produced. Through genre-based writing instruction, not only are students exposed to the rhetoric of the texts that they need to compose, but they are also involved in activities aimed at making them cognizant of what the structure of the genre is, and what and how language is used in a specific context. In this way, they have the knowledge and appropriate repertoire to take part in the academic writing community. As Hirvela (2013a) explains, in this approach, students are exposed to texts that serve as examples of the genre they need to understand and replicate to become members of a particular community. The purpose behind this pedagogy is for

students to become communicatively competent by exposing them to an accessible theory of writing and providing them with the knowledge to develop "the rhetorical flexibility necessary" (Johns, 2008, p. 238) to reformulate their texts so as to adapt to different situations which call for a variety of genres. Through explicit instruction, novice writers are expected to become aware of the choices they can make in terms of language and organisational patterns so as to accomplish their communicative goal in a particular social context (Hyland, 2003a, 2018). As Hyland (2008) puts it, the main idea of genre pedagogies is that "writing instruction will be more successful if students are aware of what target discourses look like" (p. 556).

This orientation also draws on Vygotsky's notion of scaffolding, on which the genre-based cycle of teaching and learning is based (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Hyland, 2003a; 2003b, 2008, 2011; Johns, 2003; Morra & Dalla Costa, 2011) (see Figure 2.8.). It provides students with the support to go through what Vygotsky called the zone of proximal development "or the gap between their current and potential performance" (Hyland, 2008, p. 559). The stages of the teaching-learning cycle are the following: (a) building the context, which means to make explicit the purposes and settings of the genre; (b) modelling and deconstructing the text, which entails the analysis of representative samples in order to establish lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical features; (c) joint construction of the text, which implies guided practice in stages or purposes of the text; (d) independent construction of the text, done by students but monitored by teachers; and (e) linking related texts, which involves comparing the genre learned to others and other contexts (Hyland, 2007, 2018).

According to Bawarshi and Reiff (2010), the "cyclical shape of the model is meant to reflect its flexibility" (p. 34) given that there is not a pre-established order to be followed, in fact, teacher and students can start at any stage. The teacher assists learners into the different stages of the cycle. In this respect, the notion of borrowed consciousness implies that learners are expected to work with experienced others, which helps them better comprehend tasks and ideas (Hyland, 2007). As the students move from one stage to the next, the teacher withdraws support, while the learners develop their writing competence and knowledge of the genre schema (Hyland, 2003b). This is what Johns (1997 as cited in Hirvela, 2013a, p. 87) calls "socioliterate competence, that is, an understanding of the socially constructed nature of genres as well the components of literacy necessary for their creation." Emphasis is also

given to the idea of collaboration since students are encouraged to work with their peers or to share their compositions, which their classmates review and comment on (Hyland, 2003b, 2008). In this sense, the notion of shared consciousness encompasses the idea that "learners working together learn more effectively than individuals working separately" (Hyland, 2007, p. 158).

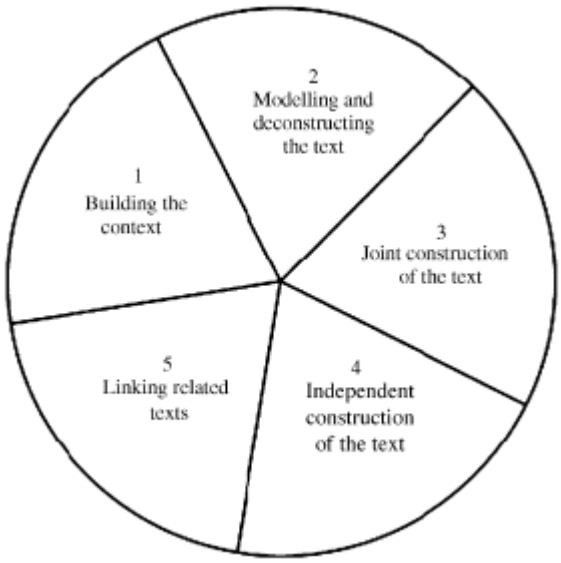

Figure 2.8. The Teaching-Learning Cycle (Feez, 1998, p. 28). From "Genre Pedagogy: Language, Literacy and L2 Writing Instruction," by K. Hyland, 2007, *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16*, p. 159. Copyright 2007 by Elsevier Inc.

Hyland (2004 as cited in Hyland 2007, 2008) summarises the advantages of genre pedagogy. It is (a) explicit; students know since the onset what they will learn to sharpen their writing; (b) systematic; this approach presents a framework whose focus is on language and contexts; (c) needs-based; learners' needs define the objectives and content of the course; (d) supportive; teachers are facilitators who scaffold students' writing development; (e) empowering; genre pedagogy equips students with powerful discourse structures; (f) critical; learners become aware of how to challenge valued texts; (g) consciousness-raising; teachers become cognizant of texts, which helps them in their teaching of how to manipulate language to one's purposes.

2.3.2.2.1 The three genre schools

The three traditions within the genre approach are (a) the Australian work in the tradition of SFL; (b) the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP); and (c) the New Rhetoric studies developed in North American composition contexts (Cumming, 2016; Hyland, 2003a, 2009, 2018; Johns, 2008; Martin, 2013). Firstly, SFL defines genres as "staged, goal oriented social processes" (Rose, 2012, p. 209). Genres are staged because text producers take steps to create meaning; they are goal oriented since they serve a purpose; and they are social processes due to the fact that they entail the interaction among members of a culture. This tradition views language and learning as being social and context-bound (Hyland, 2007). In other words, our linguistic choices and knowledge depend upon the social settings where we produce texts; language cannot be detached from the contextual aspect (Cumming, 2016; Hyland, 2003a, 2018), which explains this tradition's emphasis on "the linguistic and semiotic structure of genres" (Martin, 2013, p. 1). Secondly, ESP views genres as belonging to specific discourse communities, whose members are acquainted with the objectives of the genre in question (Hyland, 2009, 2018; Martin, 2013). These two approaches to genre analyse "a representative sample of texts to identify the series of moves, or communicative stages, which make up the genre" (Hyland, 2007, p. 156). In this way, teachers can present the vocabulary, grammar and cohesion particular to the genre that students need to learn. This means that in both genre approaches learners are explicitly taught the linguistic features, purposes and structures of genres and how the context is related to such elements (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010) by means of scaffolding instruction (Hyland, 2018). Thirdly, the New Rhetoric regards genres as being "more flexible and less straightforward to teach" (Hyland, 2009, p. 67). By this is meant that they are not stable but dynamic, which makes it difficult to establish the attributes of a genre to be approached in educational settings. In the three linguistic traditions writing is viewed as "a social practice" (Hyland, 2003a, p. 25); written productions are structured according to the situation where they are elaborated. As Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) put it, the three genre approaches consider that genre is "inextricably tied to situation" (p. 57).

2.3.2.3 Brief overview of process and genre approaches to L2 writing

Badger and White (2000) provide a brief description of process and genre approaches and they arrive at the conclusion that they are complementary in that the weaknesses of one approach are the strengths in the other and vice versa. In process approaches, linguistic knowledge occupies a minor role, while emphasis is given on the processes that writers need to follow and their prior knowledge. Genre approaches consider the social context in which the text is produced, but they fail to give more prominence to the skills that learners need to bring to successfully write texts. In view of this situation, Badger and White (2000) propose a new approach which they coin the process genre approach. They consider that "the model sees writing as a series of stages leading from a particular situation to a text, with the teachers facilitating learners' progress by enabling appropriate input of knowledge and skills" (Badger & White, 2000, p. 160). Writing encompasses linguistic knowledge, a social context, a purpose and proficiency in the target language.

The above is not an exhaustive presentation of approaches to L2 writing, but a brief description of what are regarded as the most significant ones. The data gathered from the students related to what steps they take to write an essay have been analysed taking into account both the process and genre approaches.

2.4 Reading-writing relationships

Reading-writing instruction is a topic that has generated considerable interest among L1 and L2 researchers since the 1980s (Clifford, 1987; Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Grabe, 2003; Harl, 2013; Hirvela, 2013b; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Horning & Kraemer, 2013; Langer & Flihan, 2000; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Those days, most researchers contended that findings on reading-writing relations in L1 could be transferred to L2 (Grabe, 2003; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016). It was not long; however, before other specialists started to claim that L2 learners' background had an impact on their reading and writing performances which research works did not contemplate. In L2 settings, the earlier studies carried out into reading-writing relations focused on two dominant topics: the Interdependence Hypothesis and the Language Threshold Hypothesis (Farahzad &

Emam, 2010; Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 2013). The former was formulated by Cummins (1981), who stated that

> to the extent that instruction in Lx [i.e. Language x] is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided that there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly. (p. 29 as cited in Eisterhold, 1990, p. 95)

In other words, this hypothesis holds the belief that after having developed a certain level of language proficiency, L2 students could transfer their L1 abilities to their L2 learning processes. In Koda's (2012) words, "the development of L2 academic language competence, including literacy skills, is determined, to a major extent, by the degree to which the 'common underlying proficiency' has been established in the primary language" (p. 452). This explains why this hypothesis is also known as the common underlying proficiency hypothesis (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2013). On the other hand, the Language Threshold Hypothesis holds that L2 speakers must gain a standard of linguistic competence great enough in the L2 to be successful users of the target language. Basically, its tenet is that "L1 reading skills are not going to be useful for L2 reading comprehension until L2 language skills were sufficiently developed to some threshold" (Jiang et al., 2020, p. 274). In other words, not until non-native speakers acquire a considerable L2 proficiency level will they be able to transfer their L1 literacy competence to the L2 (Farahzad & Emam, 2010). In the case of reading, for instance, as Grabe and Stoller (2013) explain, "readers usually cross the threshold whenever they encounter L2 texts in which they know almost all of the words and can process the text fluently" (p. 43).

Current research studies concentrate on how reading affects writing and serves as a source for students to write as well (Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Plakans et al., 2019). In general terms, research findings reveal that these skills should not be taught separately, but together since this seems to empower learners' literacy skills (Allen, Snow, Crossley, Jackson, & McNamara, 2014; Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Zhang, 2013b; Harste, 2013; Hirvela, 2013b; Hudson, 2007; Langer & Flihan, 2000; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). In this respect, several researchers (Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Dalla Costa, 2012; Hirvela, 2013b; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Plakans et al., 2018, 2019; Weigle & Parker, 2012; Yang & Plakans, 2012) subscribe to the

view that foreign-language skills should be taught in an integrated way instead of individually. This belief stems from the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, according to which the focus should be on discourse and communication for which students need to understand how all of the skills come into play when using language. The two approaches to integrated skills instruction are the semi-integrated approach, whose major tenets include "(1) that the skills involved draw upon the same core sets of underlying skills and processes, and (2) that each of the primary skills is normally used in conjunction with the other" (Hirvela, 2013b, p. 2), and the fully integrated skills approach, which requires the use of more than two skills to communicate. The semi-integrated approach informs this study given that two skills, reading and writing, are combined in a task.

In L2 academic settings, students frequently have to complete assignments which entail a close connection between reading and writing as part of the requirements of the course they are taking (Cumming, Lai, & Cho, 2016; Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, 2013b; Hirvela, 2007; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Horning & Kraemer, 2013; Hudson, 2007; McDonough et al., 2014; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Plakans, & Gebril, 2012; Plakans et al., 2019; Saville-Troike, 2006; Yang & Plakans, 2012; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). As a result, "the need to reconnect reading and writing is clear" (Horning & Kraemer, 2013, p. 11). Currently, the teaching of reading and writing as part of regular classes is a must, whereas in the 1960s and 1970s, the instruction in these two skills was commonly offered in separate classes (Clifford, 1987; Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Hirvela, 2007; Kroll, 2003; Langer & Flihan, 2000). In Grabe and Kaplan's words (1996, p. 297 as cited in Hirvela, 2007, p. 13), "reading and writing are reciprocal activities; the outcome of a reading activity can serve as input for writing, and writing can lead a student to further reading resources." Some authors have described these two skills as "parallel processes or natural partners" (Farahzad & Emam, 2010, p. 597) in the sense that readers' activities are in tandem with those of writers'. In a similar vein, Rosenblatt (2004) considers that these two macro-skills overlap in certain aspects. For example, readers and writers construct meaning in a recursive process, interpretations rely a lot on the person's background and on whether they are reading a text produced by someone else or themselves. Widdowson (1978, p. 144 as cited in Kern, 2000, p. 20) contends that "what the learner needs to know how to do is to compose in the act of writing, comprehend in the act of reading, and

to learn techniques of reading by writing and techniques of writing by reading." Johns (1997) considers that from a text processing stance both skills are similar in that they entail the same processes, namely "planning (prewriting, prereading), drafting (initial writing or reading), revising (modifying and extending), and editing (correcting or rereading)" (p. 12). Similarly, Harste (2013) highlights some similitudes between the two skills: in both cases people resort to their background knowledge and revision processes; they can share what they read or wrote and discuss meaning, and "for the writer constant reading and rereading is a must. For the reader, composition is an ongoing process, even long after the eyes have left the page" (p. 7). Plakans et al. (2019, p. 24) identified five shared processes in reading and writing, namely (1) *focusing at the word level* aimed at either comprehending or writing a text; (2) *drawing on background knowledge* so as to get the gist, to express opinion and to think about examples in relation to the topic; (3) *metacognitive monitoring for comprehension* by means of questions and pauses to check progress and understanding; (4) *rereading* the source texts, the participants' own compositions and the instructions, and (5) *summarising* to comprehend the texts, to answer questions and to use sources in their texts.

Tierney and Pearson (1983) present a composing model of reading in which readers' tasks resemble those of writers' in the creation of meaning. Barnett (1989) defines it as a reading/writing model. Such a composing process encompasses five stages: (1) *planning*, which implies that both reader and writer set a purpose; (2) *drafting*, which is the starting point of the construction of meaning; from the writer's perspective, it involves the selection of the content to be included in the text, whereas in the case of readers, it implies establishing relationships between the text being read and their previous-acquired knowledge; (3) *aligning*, which presupposes collaborative work on both parts: the writer considers the audience for which the text is written, and the reader, the writer whose text is being analysed; (4) *revising*, which gives evidence of the recursive nature of both skills in the sense that readers and writers need to reconsider what the meaning of the text is; and (5) *monitoring*, which entails an assessment of the text that they have either created or tried to understand (Hudson, 2007; Tierney & Pearson, 1983). By this is meant that both reading and writing are defined as "acts of composing" (Hudson, 2007, p. 264; Tierney & Pearson, 1983, p. 578) in that readers construe meaning by establishing connections between their background knowledge and the writer's written production, and writers produce texts for an intended

reader. That is why writing is viewed as a "situated activity" (Prior, 1998, xi as cited in Hyland, 2009, p. 27); it results from the confluence of writers' and readers' understanding and background knowledge; meaning is not only contained in the written text nor is it context-free. In Hyland's (2009) words, meaning is "created in the interaction between a writer and reader as they make sense of these words in different ways, each trying to guess the intentions of the other" (pp. 44-45).

Pearson and Tierney (1984 as cited in Barnett, 1989) define reading as a process which entails the negotiation of meaning between a reader and a writer, and assume that comprehension is achieved once readers have created their own version of the original text. "Considered the ultimate goal of reading, comprehension is a highly complicated task that involves the ability to integrate various sources of information in order to construct a meaning-based representation of text" (Li & D'Angelo, 2016, p. 159). According to Saville-Troike (2006), both reading and writing presuppose bottom-up and top-down processes on the part of users; students need to have appropriate linguistic, content, context and culture knowledge to either read or write a text. Hayes (2002) links reading to writing in three ways: (1) reading to revise written texts; (2) reading source texts; and (3) reading to define tasks. In the first case, this skill is applied to evaluate what has been written so far; the person tends to focus on text problems, which they address. The second function of reading allows language users not only to get content knowledge, but also to form "a representation of the writer's persona, and a representation of the text as a spatial display" (Hayes, 2002, p. 29). The author defines reading as "contributing to writing performance in three distinct ways: reading for comprehension, reading to define the writing task, and reading to revise. The quality of writers' texts often depends on their ability to read in these three ways" (Hayes, 2002, p. 31). Such a conceptualisation clearly establishes a close relationship between reading and writing.

Kucer (2001 as cited in Hudson, 2007) also puts forward five aspects which build a relation between reading and writing viz., (a) *knowledge search*, which relies on the reader's and writer's schemata since both resort to their prior knowledge in their meaning-making processes; (b) *context*, which refers to the situation where the text was created and must be interpreted; (c) *goals and plans*, which allude to the goal-oriented nature of both skills; (d) *strategies*, which Kucer (2001 as cited in Hudson, 2007) presents as a group of universal

reading and writing strategies like "making meaningful predictions based on text available" (p. 267); and (e) *evolving text*, which implies a continuous revision of the text meant to assign meaning to it. In the same line, Spivey (1990) states that both readers and writers embark on similar processes in order to construct meaning; for example, they both organise the content of the text, and relate it to their own background knowledge. This evidence points to the need of teaching both reading and writing together since the two skills have a dynamic relationship.

2.5 Reading-writing models

An area of research which has thrived is concerned with what the nature of the reading-writing relations is. In this respect, Eisterhold's (1990) suggestion that such a relationship could take three forms has proved to be valid. Her L2 model is based on Shanahan and Lomax's (1986, 1988 as cited in Hirvela & Belcher, 2016) notion of directionality. Her proposal includes three models: directional, nondirectional, and bidirectional, all of which were built to account for the relation of these two skills in an L1, but they also prevail in L2 settings. According to the directional model, reading and writing have structural components in common, and what is learned in one skill can be transferred to the other. Unlike the directional model, in which "skills can transfer in only one direction" (Eisterhold, 1990, p. 91), the nondirectional model proposes that the direction of the relation of these two skills can be two-way: from reading to writing and vice versa. With respect to the bidirectional model, it postulates that reading and writing are both interactive and independent, and their relationship can vary in tandem with stages of development or proficiency. It can be argued that of the three models only the directional model allows me to examine the role of reading for writing, which is the focus in this thesis. As Eisterhold (1990) puts it, "the directional perspective is the relevant one for pedagogical concerns, since it helps teachers decide whether reading should precede writing in the classroom or whether writing should precede reading" (p. 89).

In the directional model, writing and reading are considered to share structural components, thus it is held that what is acquired in one skill can be applied to the other. One of its postulates is that reading can be regarded as a source of writing input viz., students can

gain knowledge of writing by being exposed to reading material; this is a reading-to-write directional model (Eisterhold, 1990; Hirvela, 2007, 2013a; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016). This directional model can also take the form of writing-to-reading given that it has been proved that some writing activities can be beneficial for students' comprehension of texts as well as recall of information (Eisterhold, 1990; Plakans et al., 2018, 2019). Within this model, Hirvela (2007) includes the Direct Model of Reading for Writing and the Indirect Model of Reading for Writing, both of which are analysed in this research since the participants had a reading-to-write task, which tends to be the focus in research studies more frequently than writing-to-read tasks (McCulloch, 2013; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Plakans et al., 2018; 2019). Hirvela and Belcher (2016) clarify these two domains: "*reading-to-write* (where reading is used as input for writing) and *writing-to-read* (where writing is used to deepen knowledge of reading)" (p. 587). It is worth pointing out that Hirvela (2007) analyses the directional model in terms of L2 reading-writing connections.

In the Direct Model of Reading for Writing, learners are involved in reading activities through which they consciously become aware of the lexical choices and the rhetorical features of different genres or "*linguistic* features" (Hirvela, 2007, p. 115). This model of reading for writing can be approached especially in two ways: mining and writerly reading. In the case of mining, students analyse reading material as if they were miners in the sense that they know what aspect of writing they are looking for in the text, and then, they transfer the recurrent patterns to their own writing. In this respect, the teacher needs to make sure that the learners will receive relevant input related to the genre they have to write. As regards writerly reading, learners assume the role of "the writerly reader" (Hirvela, 2007, p. 118) by attempting to be the text producer of the source text and anticipating the writer's moves, which results in the students becoming more aware of the writer's linguistic and rhetorical choices. In both cases viz., mining and writerly reading, not only do the students acquire knowledge of writing through reading, but they also make use of such input into their written productions. This model represents the input-based view of reading for writing, which implies that learners are presented with models from which they draw rhetorical and linguistic features they are expected to use in their own written productions (Hirvela, 2016).

The Indirect Model of Reading for Writing holds the tenet that learners' writing awareness does not need to be explicitly raised; they will acquire writing knowledge by being

exposed to it through reading activities (Hirvela, 2007). The indirect model draws on Krashen's (1993 as cited in Hirvela, 2007) *reading input hypothesis*, according to which reading paves the way for the enhancement and acquisition of students' writing ability. In other words, the more exposure to the target input the students receive, the more likely it will be for them to acquire writing knowledge through reading. Krashen (1984 as cited in Eisterhold, 1990) considers that when reading out of one's own interest, language users can gain writing competence, and this is affected by the choice of the material and the circumstances under which the students have access to it. Within the Indirect Model of Reading for Writing, two main frameworks advocate for reading for pleasure, namely extensive reading, which entails students' decision on what to read in substantial amounts in educational contexts, and free or voluntary reading, which is done in any other settings but school (Hirvela, 2007).

Even though both the direct and indirect models endorse the view that the relationship is from reading to writing, they fundamentally differ on how such a relation is presented to students: the direct model explicitly instructs learners how to sharpen their writing skills through reading, whereas the indirect model considers that students' writing skill can be improved naturally by recurrent exposure to reading material. Nonetheless, the underlying belief in both cases is that "students with better reading abilities performed better on reading/writing tasks" (Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, p. 18).

2.6 Summary writing

One of the most studied read-to-write tasks in the L1 is the elaboration of summaries (Hudson, 2007; Spivey, 1990). Spivey (1990) explains that writers who resort to other sources to elaborate texts transform them to make them fit into their own text productions. In other words, writers combine the information from source texts with their own prior knowledge, and thus create new meaning which is built in the new text. Such an activity is not restricted to students' mother tongue, but it is also a must in L2 academic settings (Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Cumming et al., 2016; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a; Hirvela, 2016; J. Li, 2014; Z. Li, 2015; Yang & Plakans, 2012; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Pecorari (2016) defines source use as the integration between "content and language from earlier texts in the creation

of a new one" (p. 329). This type of task falls into the output-based approach of reading for writing in which "students must transfer content from material read to a text that they write" (Hirvela, 2016, p. 128). The main difference lies in L2 students' "additional challenges" related to their vocabulary repertoire, proficiency, genre knowledge and little practice in this kind of activity (Cumming, 2016; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, 2013b; McCulloch, 2013; McDonough et al., 2014; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Spivey (1990) uses the expression "composing from sources" (p. 3) to give account of what writers do when they make use of source texts to draw ideas from them which, when combined with the writer's previous knowledge, are then transformed according to the text producer's communicative purpose. She captures this reading-writing connection through a metaphor: reader-writers interweave the information that they select from the source texts with their previously-acquired knowledge, whose outcome is "a kind of textual tapestry" (Spivey, 1990, p. 5). She contends that this type of activity entails the amalgamation of reading and writing processes, which are mutually influenced. She defines *isomorphic summary* as a type of summary which results from text producers writing a succinct version of the source text and usually presenting the main ideas in the same order as in the original text.

Spivey (1990) establishes three operations that writers conduct when writing from sources, namely organising, selecting, and connecting. As regards the organisation of content, when writers use other sources in other tasks different to isomorphic summaries, they do not necessarily follow the same organisational pattern. In fact, in most cases, they "often dismantle source texts, chunking content in different ways; they reconfigure content from the sources in the act of appropriation" (Spivey, 1990, p. 9). With respect to selecting, reader-writers usually select relevant information from the source text to create meaning in their new texts. In relation to the connection of content, this operation encompasses the development of relationships between the content present in the source text and the writer's background knowledge. As Yang and Plakans (2012) remark, "writing from sources requires a higher degree of knowledge processing, including selecting, organizing, and connecting" (p. 93).

Hirvela (2016) argues that summaries constitute "an ideal place for examining the relationship between EAP and RFW [reading for writing]" (p. 130) because of two reasons: they are a recurrent task L2 learners are typically engaged in, and by analysing summaries

researchers can better understand how students both read source texts and use them in their writing. Grabe and Zhang (2013b) contend that summary writing demands on the part of L2 writers "general comprehension, attention to main ideas, frequent re-reading of the text, translation of ideas into one's own writing production, and a responsibility to have the written summary reflect information in the text" (p. 114). Hirvela and Du (2013) explain that the use of sources to write one's own compositions can be very demanding for L2 writers, mainly in what concerns paraphrasing, which they define as "an important and yet complicated device for the treatment of source text material" (p. 87). They highlight that such an endeavour implies two main tasks: to decide what ideas in the source are relevant to be used in their writing and to make those voices talk in the new text (Hirvela, 2004 as cited in Hirvela & Du, 2013). Paraphrasing in L2 settings stands out given that several studies carried out on the topic of plagiarism have reported that L2 writers tend to have difficulties in not falling into plagiarism (Cumming et al., 2016; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, 2013b; Hirvela, 2016; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Yasuda, 2015). This situation calls for teachers' action "to help second language writers acquire command of the knowledge and skills necessary to perform RFW effectively" (Hirvela, 2016, p. 127), for which they need to provide explicit instruction on summarisation and make sure that students have enough practice in such a skill (Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016) since "instruction can help students improve their uses of sources in their writing" (Cumming et al., 2016, p. 47). From the writing-to-learn-language (WLL) perspective, L2 writing can result in L2 development inter alia due to the fact that "the more problem-solving, meaning-making challenges a task represents, the more chances of fostering the kind of deep linguistic processing associated with writing that is deemed to lead to language learning" (Manchón & Cerezo, 2018, p. 3).

Some researchers (Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Hirvela et al., 2016; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016) sustain that summarising has been a common practice in academic settings used to assess reading comprehension skills. In this kind of task, students must be able to select reliable sources from which to use relevant information to develop sound arguments as well as to follow the conventions of the genre. "Because writing and reading involve the development of meaning, both were conceptualized as composing activities in the sense that both involve planning, generating and revising meaning which occur recursively throughout the meaning-building process" (Farahzad & Emam, 2010, p. 600).

2.6.1 Summary-analysis essays

Grabe (2002 as cited in Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 157) lists the functions that reading has in academic contexts, one of which is "reading to critique and evaluate." This is what L2 students are expected to do when they summarise and respond to a text: to provide a succinct summary of what they read and to reflect upon the ideas present in the text as well as to include their own ideas about the topic. In summary-analysis essays, students should include the summary of the text they respond to in the introduction, and to choose two or three ideas from the text to respond to, which make up the thesis statement and are to be developed in the body paragraphs. In each of the body paragraphs, the students have to back up their arguments by resorting to other sources and integrating them into their own writing. This type of task is known as synthesis writing or synthesising information and it implies the combination of multiple sources for writing (Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, 2013b; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). It can be described as a highly demanding complex writing task since it requires particular literacy skills on the part of the learner. In fact, "practicing source-based writing involves a series of fundamental literacy acts, such as comprehending the source texts, summarizing and paraphrasing the texts, evaluating and responding to the sources, and synthesizing multiple sources of information" (Zhao & Hirvela, 2015, p. 221).

According to Reid (2000), a summary should present the main ideas of the source text, as well as the following three qualities: (1) objectivity, by which is meant the students must restrict themselves to include only the author's idea, instead of theirs; (2) completeness, which entails including every main idea; and (3) balance, which calls for developing the main ideas equally.

2.7 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, the theoretical framework for this study has been described. The theoretical underpinnings encompass the concept of literacy, the approaches to and models of L2 reading, the major L2 writing models and teaching orientations, reading-writing models, the concept of summary writing as well as that of summary-writing essays. In the

following chapter, details of the methodology and fieldwork undertaken to gather the data to answer the research questions are provided.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter introduced the theoretical framework of this investigation. In this chapter I will outline the methodology applied in this research. I begin by describing the research design. I will then refer to the context of the study, the participants, the materials employed, and the data collection and analysis procedures.

3.1 Research design

Taking into account Polio's (2003) writing research categories, the present study falls into two groups: research on L2 writers' texts and research on the writing process. For this research study, a nonrandom sampling method was used, specifically convenience sampling, defined as "the selection of individuals who happen to be available for study" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 175) and characterised as "a non-probability sampling procedure" (Riazi, 2016, p. 60). In Grifee's (2012) terms, it refers to "a group already formed and easy to use" (p. 58). In fact, the group was natural in the sense that it was an intact class (Mackey & Gass, 2016). The caveat of this sampling method is that it cannot be considered to be representative of the population; consequently, the results are not generalizable (Hyland, 2009; Mackey & Gass, 2016). Given that only a small number of participants took part in this research study, this investigation can also be regarded as a multiple case study (Hyland, 2003b; Polio, 2003). As Riazi (2016) explains, case studies can involve one person or a group of people, like in this study, in which a whole class made up of four students constitutes the case and "the unit of analysis" (p. 26). According to Mackey and Gass (2016), "case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting" (p. 222). One of the distinct advantages of case studies is that they allow the researcher to concentrate on different characteristics that the participants have, which can be a challenge with big groups (Hyland, 2009; Mackey & Gass, 2016; Riazi, 2016).

A mixed research design was used since both qualitative and quantitative data were combined because this study "attempts to explore individuals in their natural setting by using

several different sources of data or methods of data collection" (Polio, 2003, p. 38) without manipulating any variables. In mixed-methods research "the purpose is to integrate both quantitative and qualitative approaches" (Riazi, 2016, p. 2). In line with this, most research studies on writing gather quantitative and qualitative data in order to depict a whole picture of the context of research and to address the need to triangulate data so that the findings are more valid than if the data are gathered by means of only one instrument or method (Hyland, 2003b). "The assumption is that the underlying constructs for different data collection instruments are the same and hence the possibility of using findings from different methods to support each other" (Riazi, 2016, p. 47). This was particularly needed in this study due to the fact that few students participated in this investigation. In addition, the nature of the collected data was elicited and naturalistic in that not only did I create controlled conditions to obtain information, but I also analysed the data in the natural educational context (Hyland, 2003b).

Data collection in this mixed-methods research can be classified as within-strategy mixed data collection and as between-strategies mixed data collection (see section 3.3.2 Data Collection Instruments and Data Collection Procedures): "In within-strategy mixed data collection, both quantitative and qualitative data can be collected through one instrument" (Riazi, 2016, p. 21). Such is the case of the participants' written reports, which provide both quantitative and qualitative data since this instrument includes open-ended and closed-item questions. On the other hand, in between-strategies mixed-methods data collection, quantitative and qualitative data are "collected through separate data collection instruments" (Riazi, 2016, p. 21). In this respect, the following instruments were designed to collect quantitative data: a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire, a reading-comprehension test, and the ESLPE (English as a Second Language Placement Examination) Rating Scale meant to assign scores to the students' written productions, whereas a summary-writing task (students' first and second drafts) and an interview with each student participant gathered qualitative data (see Figure 3.1.).

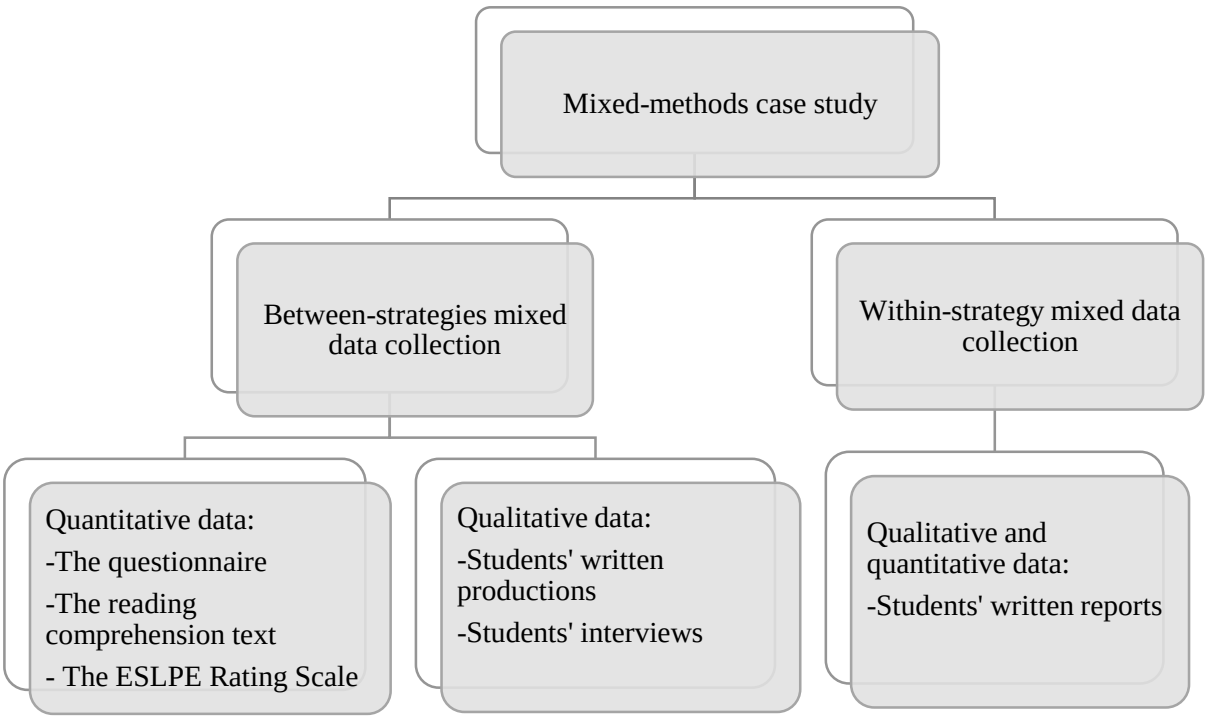

Figure 3.1. Representation of the Methods Used in this Thesis

3.2 Context of the study

This study was conducted in the Teacher Training College at the UNVM, an Argentinian university during part of October and November of 2015. Students at this degree program have courses which are taken by all UNVM students regardless of their courses of studies, and others which are only for those pursuing the English Teacher Training program. Of all the courses that fall into the latter, English Language (I, II, III and IV) is the only one that the students take in each of the four years that the program lasts. The participants in this study were attending English Language IV, where they are expected to attain a proficiency level. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), proficient users do not have difficulties in understanding what they hear or read, are able to summarise spoken and written texts as well as to accurately and fluently deliver messages without any planning (Council of Europe, 2001). English Language IV has a teaching load of six hours a week. During the first semester, students are instructed in opinion essays and, if there is enough time, in for and against essays, a genre which is otherwise taught during the second semester. The last type of essay students learn to write is summary-analysis

essays, which is the focus of this study. Since 2018, the students have been instructed in opinion essays in the first semester and in summary-analysis essays in the second one.

The students have to submit their compositions via email and they receive feedback three times on the same essay since they can write up to three drafts, except during the last months of the academic year when they can write two drafts. They are asked to keep all the versions in a portfolio, which they hand in during November. The learners also write three in-class essays as part of the evaluation of the course. The topics of the essays are related to the content units they have covered in the course, but have not been assessed yet, and they can resort to their academic journal, where they include articles related to the content units, which they summarise and respond to.

As to the methodology used to present the genre in question, namely summary-analysis essays, the professor usually begins with the analysis of an article on the topic of the content unit being developed and asks the students to write their own summaries in class and then she displays her summary. As homework, the students are asked to write three main ideas from the article, which they would respond to in the form of a thesis statement. The next class, the professor shows them her example of what the thesis statement should look like. They are instructed to read the theory of summary-analysis and do some exercises included in the materials provided by the teacher. The following class, the professor gives a presentation on the theory of summary-analysis, she explains to the student the process of summary writing, and the organisation of summaries. They usually work on a sample of a summary-analysis composition written by former students. They first deal with the introduction by identifying the elements that must be present, namely title of the article analysed, author's name, a summary of the article, and the thesis statement in which the text producer states what ideas they will respond to. They also go over the body paragraphs analysing whether the writer has included a topic sentence, information from other sources to back up their arguments and a concluding statement. Finally, they read and analyse the conclusion.

It is worth pointing out that the context of this study constrained to a certain extent the methodological options. First, only one group of three to twelve learners enrols every year in English Language IV since the course was first taught in 1997. In other words, group size was an issue that could not be manipulated given that it was the only natural group

formed by all the learners of the course English Language IV. Consequently, a multiple case study was conducted.

3.2.1 Participants

Overall, six participants took part in this study: four students and two raters. The four student participants enrolled in the course English Language IV of the Teacher Training College at the UNVM during the academic year 2015. They were members of an intact class. They presented the following traits: two of them were female and two male, aged 22-25, they were native speakers of Spanish, they had taken English Language III (proficiency level: advanced) and become students in good standing (e*studiantes regulares*), but none of them had sat for the final exam, and they were taking English Language IV for the first time. In English Language IV all of the students started and finished the course as students in good standing (e*studiantes regulares*), except for Maico who became an external[4] student (*estudiante libre*) during the second semester. All of them were from different towns in Córdoba province other than Villa María. Prior to conducting the study, ethical clearance was granted to the students by means of a consent form (Appendix A) since, "as part of research ethics, participants must give their informed consent before they participate in a study" (Riazi, 2016, p. 52). All of the students attending English Language IV voluntary decided to take part in the research study. As stated above (3.1. Research design), this was a natural group since the English Language IV class was attended by the four students who participated in this investigation.

To avoid idiosyncratic judgments and to enhance the internal validity of the study, two raters participated in this research study by scoring the students' written compositions. Eligibility criteria to select the two raters required them (a) to be experienced EFL teachers at university level; and (b) to be Associate Professors of English Language at UNVM trained in the assessment of academic written essays. One of them, identified as R1 in this thesis, graduated from a Tertiary institution as a professor and translator of English, from UTN

[4] Requirements of students in good standing (*estudiantes regulares*): 80% of attendance; 100% of the oral and written assignments and tests with a minimum grade of 4 (four); 80% of the activities uploaded in Moodle. External students (*estudiantes libres*) are those learners who have not met the requirements of students in good standing (*estudiantes regulares*).

(Technological National University) as a licentiate of English, and from UNVM, where she got her MA in Humanities and Sciences. The other rater, R2, held a Teacher and a Translator degree granted by the School of Languages, UNC (National University of Córdoba). Both raters have participated in scientific meetings, done research work in the field of applied linguistics, specifically writing, and published scientific papers on writing.

3.3 Materials and Methods

The materials used in this study included the raters' pack, which consisted of the article that students read and responded to in their written compositions, the ESLPE rating scale meant as a guideline to assess the students' compositions, and the scoring sheet. Besides, the following data collection instruments were used: a reading comprehension test, a questionnaire, two written reports, students' first and second drafts of a summary-analysis essay, and an interview with each of the student participants.

In order to avoid subjective judgments and to control bias, two raters analysed and assessed the learners' written productions. They were provided with the following material:
a) the article that students read and responded to in their written compositions (Appendix C),
b) an analytic guide of evaluation in order for them to have the same criteria when they assessed the students' essays (Appendix G), and
c) a scoring sheet (Appendix H).

The ESLPE Rating Scale was chosen and adapted from Weigle (1999) to account for the rhetorical characteristics of summary-analysis essays. Each rater included their assessment in the scoring sheet. The score for each composition was the result of the average of the two raters. Since students were asked to write a second draft, the raters assessed both text productions. It is also worth pointing out that the raters sent me each student participant's drafts with their comments, which were analysed as well.

3.3.1 Data collection instruments and data collection procedures

Bearing in mind the research questions formulated, the instruments chosen to gather information included the following: (1) a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire; (2) a reading-

comprehension test; (3) first and second drafts of students' summary-analysis writing tasks; (4) learners' written reports (for first and second drafts); (5) the ESLPE Rating Scale, which the two raters used to assign the scores to the students' written productions; and (6) an interview with each student participant (see Table 3.1). It is also worth mentioning that all the instruments were piloted among a representative sample of a similar population that consisted of former students in order to ensure reliability and to verify the clarity of the instructions and questions. As Mackey and Gass (2016) claim, piloting is useful "to test, and often to revise, and then finalize the materials and the methods" (p. 52). After the piloting, two statements from the questionnaire were rephrased for the sake of clarity.

It should also be pointed out that the data collected in this study were triangulated. According to Mackey and Gass (2016), "triangulation involves using multiple research techniques and multiple sources of data in order to explore the issues from all feasible perspectives. Using the technique of triangulation can aid in credibility, transferability, and dependability of qualitative research" (p. 233). The authors distinguish three types of triangulation, namely theoretical triangulation, which encompasses the analysis of the data from different standpoints; investigator triangulation, which implies the participation of numerous observers or interviewers; and methodological triangulation, which entails the employment of various research methods to study a particular topic. Of the aforementioned types of triangulation, the one used in this study is the methodological one because "the strengths of the two methods can complement each other to provide a better and a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem, while the potential weaknesses of the individual methods are avoided" (Riazi, 2016, p. 126). Basically, "two methods from quantitative and qualitative approaches are used to address the same *research problem*" (Riazi, 2016, p. 187) so as to cross-validate findings in both methods: the 5-point Likert scale questionnaire along with the scores of the reading comprehension test and the raters' scores collected quantitative data, whereas the raters' feedback on the participants' essays and the interviews gathered qualitative data. The written reports provided both qualitative and quantitative data, obtained from the open-ended items and the close-ended items respectively. This is in line with what is expected from a mixed-methods research: "the researchers attempt to obtain and provide both statistical and verbatim evidence for different

types of inferences they make in regard to different aspects of the research problem" (Riazi, 2016, p. 111).

Table 3.1
Instruments Used to Address the RQs of this Study

Research questions	**Instruments**
RQ1: What are the students' perceptions of the interaction between reading and writing?	A 5-point Likert scale questionnaire Semi-structured interviews
RQ2: How do the students' perceptions correlate with their writing performance?	A 5-point Likert scale questionnaire Students' written productions: first and second drafts
RQ3: How does the students' reading comprehension of the source text used to write a summary-analysis essay affect their written productions?	A reading comprehension test Students' written productions
RQ4: Which difficulties can be identified when the students describe the steps taken to write their compositions?	Students' written reports Semi-structured interviews
RQ5: Which problems can be identified in the students' written productions?	Students' graded compositions The ESLPE Rating Scale

The data were collected during October and November of 2015 in English Language IV at the UNVM. Each of the data collection instruments and the corresponding procedures adopted are described below.

3.3.1.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire was used to elicit information about students' experiences and standpoints as regards writing, reading and the connections between the two skills (Appendix B). This instrument was selected because "questionnaires are particularly useful for exploratory studies into writing attitudes and behaviors" (Hyland, 2009, p. 146). According to Mackey and Gass (2016), this instrument is commonly used to access information "that is typically not available from production data alone" (p. 102). To that aim, the participants had structured items for them to "scale agreement with statements" (Hyland, 2003b, p. 253). In other words, all the questions were closed-item, which has the advantage of ensuring "a greater uniformity of measurement and therefore greater reliability" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 102). The rating scale was the following: 1= strongly disagree; 2= somewhat disagree; 3= undecided; 4= somewhat agree; and 5= strongly agree. Given that students may have difficulties in expressing their perceptions, the use of the Likert scale was meant to address this concern. In addition, this type of questions is easy "to code and analyse quantitatively" (Riazi, 2016, p. 35) as this instrument collected interval data. Such an instrument was adapted from the research study conducted by Kim (2005) (Appendix B). The questionnaire consisted of three sections of ten statements each: the first one in relation to the nature of the reading-writing connection, the second one about students' engagement in reading and writing activities, and the last one related to reading and writing practices in the classroom milieu.

This instrument was the first one to be administered in mid-October, 2015. The students were provided with the questionnaire, which they took home and handed in the next class when they did the reading test. Three days passed in-between. The flexibility in the data gathering process that results from the possibility of administering the questionnaire in this way is one of the advantages of using this instrument (Mackey & Gass, 2016).

3.3.1.2 The reading-comprehension test

This testing instrument (Appendix C) was used to measure the students' reading comprehension of the source text, on which the students based their summary-analysis compositions. According to Nation (2009), the main reasons behind the evaluation of students' reading comprehension are "assessing to encourage learning, assessing to monitor progress and provide feedback, assessing to diagnose problems, and assessing to measure proficiency" (p. 75). For this research study, the aim of the test was to diagnose possible understanding problems. In fact, the data allowed me to analyse whether or not the students' understanding of the text was a variable that affected their writing performance. The test was divided into two parts (Appendix C). On the one hand, students had a multiple-choice exercise, which Koda (2005) classifies within the view of comprehension as the product which results from the reader-text interaction. On the other hand, students had to answer questions by providing their interpretation of some phrases taken from the article for which they had to use their own words. The two activities required different types of performance on the part of students. In this respect, Koda's (2005) definition of comprehension as "a matter of degree" (p. 230) and her proposal of analysing what this definition means from three perspectives viz., processing levels, task requirements, and reader purpose, can be useful to explain how complementary the two activities in the reading comprehension test were. The processing perspective considers that there are three hierarchical operation clusters which can help assess students' reading comprehension, namely "low-level decoding (converting print into linguistic information), interim-level textbase construction (extracting and integrating textual information), and higher-level situation-model building (synthesizing information with prior knowledge)" (Koda, 2005, p. 230). The multiple-choice activity of the reading test can be regarded as a task that entails lower-level decoding operations in the sense that students need to use the information provided in the text to choose the most suitable option. On the other hand, the second exercise goes a step further since it demands from the learners the location of specific information, which they have to explain by performing a higher level operation viz., higher-level situation-model building. The activities of the reading comprehension test were complemented by the summary-analysis essay the

participants wrote, which can be classified as a higher-level situation-model building performance.

The selection of the reading comprehension test was based on the relevance of the topic for the content unit being developed in English Language IV, and the features that characterise good comprehension questions, namely reliability, validity, and practicality (Nation, 2009). As regards the text selection, I looked for reliable textbooks in which the topic of work was touched upon and the demands of the text were appropriate for the proficiency level that students are expected to develop in English Language IV. The text and the reading comprehension exercises based on it were taken from *Upstream proficiency* (Evans & Dooley, 2012), a textbook which had been used in previous years and was then replaced by *Objective proficiency* (Capel & Sharp, 2002). The article presents clear and interesting ideas for the students to decide which ones to respond to in their summary-analysis essays.

Apropos of the characteristics that Nation (2009) states good comprehension questions need to have, reliability implies that the learners are familiar with the type of activities and the instructions are explicit. In this respect, students taking English Language IV have been trained in multiple-choice questions and open questions. Reliability also depends on consistency and fairness in the scoring. Before administering the reading comprehension test, scores were set. I also had at my disposal the key to the exercises. As regards validity, one of the requisites is that "answering the questions should require reading of the text" (Nation, 2009, p. 89). In the reading-comprehension test, the multiple-choice exercise and the questions were framed so that the learners had to read the text to choose the right alternative or provide an answer; resorting to their background knowledge was not going to be useful to solve the exercises. Besides, the options provided were paraphrases of the ideas presented in the original text, and all the questions aimed at measuring the students' general understanding of the article. With respect to the third feature of good comprehension questions, practicality, it is related to the simplification of the marking. By this is meant that it should be easy to score the answers. That is the reason why it was considered that one rater could score the tests; there was no need for interrater reliability.

The reading-comprehension test was piloted to check that the questions were clear and to set a time for the participants to do it. This testing instrument was a timed, direct and

in-class reading-comprehension test. The students were allotted 45 minutes to complete the test, but they all finished it approximately ten minutes before the time assigned. They were not allowed to use dictionaries and they did the test during class time on October 19th, 2015. One of the students was absent that day, and it was decided that she would do it the following class under the same conditions.

3.3.1.3 The students' summary-analysis essays

Student participants were given the instructions for the take-home summary-analysis essay a week before they had to submit it via e-mail (Appendix D). Leaners' first and second drafts of this composition were considered in this research study to measure their writing performance. This was the second time they wrote this type of essay. Koda (2005) includes summary tasks as one procedure adopted to assess reading comprehension, whose main advantage is that it implies students' ability to express the main idea of a text, which is an activity that most people need to do in real-life reading. One of the drawbacks is that summary scoring tends to lack objectivity in the sense that it is difficult to agree on what a good summary is (Koda, 2005). This was addressed by providing raters with a scoring guide, namely the ESLPE rating scale, whose rhetorical control writing aspect was adapted to give account of the typical characteristics of summary-analysis essays described in Reid (2000) – material used in English Language IV.

Nation (2009) considers that if students are going to be assessed in a particular genre, they need to have enough practice. In this sense, since the beginning of the year, students who take English Language IV are required to keep a journal in which they include articles that are analysed in class and sources of their own choice for which they have to write a summary and a response. Such sources are organised in term of the content units and are expected to be reliable. The professor in charge of the Chair takes the students' journals three times a year and makes comments meant to help them improve their writing. Students are encouraged to resort to those sources when they write summary-analysis essays, and students in good standing (*estudiantes regulares*) have to take their journals when they sit for the final exam since they have to write a composition and make reference to other sources to back up

their arguments. The journal is aimed at the students becoming familiar with and getting practice in summary writing before they start doing summary-analysis essays.

The students had to hand in their compositions on October 28th, 2015. Test conditions as well as instructions for the assignment were the same for all participants: untimed with a prompt. Students had a week to write their written productions given that it was a take-home essay. The assignment was part of the activities that the instructor had already planned for the thematic unit on work. I decided to collect data from a regular activity to ensure that the participants would give as much importance to this assignment as to any other activity that was part of the course and to avoid the Hawthorne effect, according to which, "the mere knowledge that one is in a study may affect behavior" (Grifee, 2012, p. 77). Even though the compositions were assessed by two raters, students received feedback only from the professor in charge of the Chair. The participants then wrote a second and final draft taking into account the comments provided by the professor.

3.3.1.4 The written report

After students sent their summary-analysis essays, they were asked to complete a written report, which was divided into five sections partly based on the scoring rubric given to the raters, namely (1) Pre-writing stage, with two open-ended questions; (2) Rhetorical control, with three open-ended items, (3) Content, with three open-ended items; (4) Language (grammar, vocabulary, register and mechanics), with three yes/no closed items and one open-ended item and (5) Overall appreciation, with two open-ended questions (Appendix E). Most of the items of the report were open-ended; some of the questions aimed at the participants describing how they approached the writing activity, and others at them identifying the information they had included in their written compositions. One drawback of open-ended questions is that since the respondents answer in their own manner, the data collected tend to be more unexpected, thus more difficult to analyse (Mackey & Gass, 2016). However, as the participants were only four, such a situation was manageable. The only three closed-item questions were in the language section. The data gathered were meant to help identify areas of difficulty that the students faced when doing the written assignment. As Nation (2009) claims, "awareness of the subprocesses can help teachers locate sources of difficulty that

learners face in their writing" (p. 114). The main objective was to obtain concrete evidence to know if what students claimed they did was in tandem with their actual writing. In fact, the participants' answers in their written reports were compared to their performance in their summary-analysis written task. Through this instrument, I expected to have considerable insight into students' cognitive and metacognitive processes before and after their writing the composition and during the development of the topic. The participants handed in their written reports on November 2nd before they had received the feedback for their first draft, which they sent via e-mail on October 28th. They were given a week's time to improve their first draft and submit their second and final version of their written composition, which was due on November 9th. They were asked to send their written reports based on their second draft via e-mail.

3.3.1.5 Interviews

Before conducting the interviews, I analysed the data gathered from the questionnaire and the written reports and framed the questions based on what the students had answered in the aforementioned instruments with the purpose of covering or clarifying the information reported in those two instruments. I opted for semi-structured interviews (Appendix F), which have characteristics of both structured and unstructured interviews since they "resemble verbal questionnaires and allow researchers to compare answers from different participants" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 225) and they also provide "the opportunity for further probing through follow-up questions where the interviewer can discuss and get more detailed information about some aspects of a particular response" (Riazi, 2016, p. 162). In an attempt to make each interviewee feel as comfortable as possible, I gave the choice of using either English or Spanish. All of the participants opted for English. They were assisted only in a few instances when they could not think of some words in English, but Spanish. The learners were interviewed after they handed in their second draft of the second and last summary-analysis essay they wrote as part of the course requirements. Each of the participants and I agreed on a day and time to hold an individual interview during the third week in November when students did not attend classes any longer. The interviews took fifteen minutes on average and the place of interview was the university.

Hyland (2009) explains that interviews are valuable instruments in writing research because they help gain access to "writing practices, such as what people do in approaching a writing task, about teaching and learning writing, and about text choices, to discover how text users see and respond to particular features of writing" (p. 146), all of which may not be accessible through other means (Mackey & Gass, 2016). Another advantage of interviews is that the researcher can make use of them so as to get an insight into phenomena that emerge only if the participants verbalise them, such is the case of students' perceptions or their opinions on a particular topic (Mackey & Gass, 2016). Besides, interviewers have the opportunity of asking other questions if they notice that the answers are rather brief. On the other hand, one of the disadvantages that this instrument presents is that the interviewees may not recall valuable information to which the researcher will not have access.

3.4 Data analysis procedures

The data were analysed in relation to each of the research questions. In the case of the questionnaire, the written reports, the feedback provided by the raters in the students' compositions, the ESLPE Rating Scale, and the interviews, most of the themes had been categorised in advance. In addition, other categories emerged from the analysis of the data. The qualitative data gathered from the raters' feedback underwent a process of quantification, also known as *quantitising* in mixed-methods research, which implies that "qualitative data are transformed into some kind of quantitative data for subsequent quantitative analysis" (Riazi, 2016, p. 258). In this study, I counted the number of instances in which both raters and students referred to the categories of an a priori coding scheme, namely content, language and rhetorical control.

3.4.1 Analysis of the questionnaire

As regards the 5-point Likert scale questionnaire (Appendix B), the data collected are interval given that the values represent intervals between points in the ranking. The questionnaire was used to analyse the students' beliefs about the relationship between reading and writing on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly

agree. This instrument enabled me to get an insight into the participants' perceptions on the integration of these two skills before they took the reading comprehension test and before they handed in their written compositions. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, which presented ten items viz.,

a) *Reading-writing process*, which measured the interdependence of reading and writing processes;

b) *Individual behaviours engaging in reading in connection to writing*, which measured the reading-writing behaviours that L2 students claim to exhibit; and

c) *Behaviours engaging in reading and writing through classroom practices*, which measured the extent to which students make use of both skills in tasks carried out during class time.

Given that pre-determined response options had been assigned a number (i.e. 'strongly disagree'= 1, 'disagree' = 2, 'neutral' = 3, 'agree' = 4, 'strongly agree' = 5), each participant's perspective resulted from an average score of the thirty close-ended items. These quantitative data were summarised in a table, which includes the mean for each of the three categories and the mean for each participant in relation to the three sections of the questionnaire. The results were triangulated with those of the interviews and students' summary-analysis scores.

3.4.2 Analysis of the reading comprehension scores

The reading comprehension test (Appendix C) was analysed using statistical tests. Such an instrument presents an ordinal scale, which means that the results constitute the hierarchical system of the test. The results were compared to the ones the participants got in their written compositions. The quantitative data gathered from the reading comprehension scores were summarised in tables and represented in graphic form. The scores were divided into the two types of activities that the text encompassed: multiple-choice exercise and opened-item questions, and the results were compared.

3.4.3 Analysis of the written reports

The data gathered from students' written reports (Appendix E) were used to identify difficulties which the student participants encountered when they wrote their summary-analysis essay drafts. This instrument, designed for this research, provided nominal data analysed in terms of three pre-established categories, which constitute the criteria applied for selecting data to be analysed: content, rhetoric, and use of language (grammar, vocabulary, register and mechanics). "Recurrent themes" (McKay, 2006 as cited in Grifee, 2012, p. 152) were identified so as to summarise the information collected. The results were presented in a table with the difficulties that the participants reported to face. As indicated above, some of the categories were established while others emerged from the data analysis. Written reports were valuable since they provided an insight into students' cognitive and metacognitive processes: they had to explain how they proceeded with the writing assignment viz., how they approached the reading of the source text, the organisation of ideas in their own compositions; they were also asked to identify the elements in their introductions, their thesis statements as well as topic sentences; they explained how they selected the ideas to respond to, the arguments to back up such ideas, direct and indirect quotations and the content of the conclusion. Questions were also made in relation to language (grammar, vocabulary, register and mechanics) and self-assessment of their written productions in terms of strengths, weaknesses and what the professor's feedback could be. In Chapter 4, the students' answers were identified by means of their names and the abbreviation WR1 and WR2, standing for written report 1 and written report 2 respectively.

3.4.4 Analysis of the raters' assessment

As regards the assessment of the students' compositions, they presented both ordinal data, which were compared to the scores they got in the reading comprehension test, and nominal data in the form of the raters' feedback, which was classified and quantified according to the descriptors of the analytic scoring scale, namely content, language, and rhetorical control.

The students' summary-analysis essays allowed me to measure their written performance as well as to identify the areas that they had difficulties with. The measure was provided by the scores that resulted from the average of R1's scores and R2's scores. The average was transformed into percentages. Besides, the comments made by the raters in each summary-analysis essay were coded in terms of the areas of difficulties (content, rhetorical control and language) and then quantified. In other words, I opted for a top-down deductive approach in order to code the data by using "an already available *coding scheme*" (Riazi, 2016, p. 37). Such a coding scheme was actually selected a priori the coding process of the qualitative data and included as categories content, language and rhetorical control. The coding scheme was applied to the data "by segmenting chunks of the data and tagging it to the relevant code and category from the scheme" (Riazi, 2016, p. 105).

3.4.4.1 Codification

As Riazi (2016) claims, "anonymity is a methodological principle and a code of practice enforced in *ethics* guidelines" (p. 9). Consequently, a codification system was adopted in order to protect learners' anonymity. In fact, each participant was assigned a pseudonym, which was not disclosed.

3.4.4.2 Script scoring

As it was stated in 3.3, two raters assessed the students' compositions following a holistic scoring scale to ensure interrater reliability (Mackey & Gass, 2016). The ESLPE Rating Scale was chosen and adapted from Weigle (1999) in order to account for the rhetorical characteristics that summary-analysis essays present. The scale consists of three categories viz., content, language (grammar, vocabulary, register and mechanics), and rhetorical control, and five two-point bands with descriptors for each band. "The total score is derived by doubling the language score and then summing all three subtest scores" (Weigle, 1999, p. 150). Each rater included her assessment in a scoring sheet. The score for each composition was the result of the average of the two raters. The data collected was condensed by converting numerical data, which resulted from the sum of the three aspects of

the scale, into percentages. The professor of the Chair provided me with the scoring scale employed to assess fourth-year students' writing, which established 60% as the passing grade.

3.4.5 Analysis of students' difficulties in their written productions

I examined the participants' summary-analysis essays in order to identify the most frequent difficulties that they had in the light of the feedback that the two raters provided. The data processing consisted in labelling and defining the difficulties to be recognised and then counting the instances that fit into the categories. In other words, I used data transformation, an analytical strategy commonly employed in mixed methods research, which implies the transformation of qualitative data into quantitative (Dörnyei, 2007; Riazi, 2016). In Dörnyei's (2007) words, "quantitizing involves converting qualitative data into numerical codes that can be further processed statistically" (p. 270). The difficulties were classified into the three categories of the holistic scoring scale viz.,

a. Content: clarity of expression, nature of the arguments to back up opinions, relevance of the information included.

b. Language (grammar, vocabulary, register, and mechanics): subject/verb agreement, use of articles, linking words, complex sentences, rich and relevant vocabulary, formal register, correct use of punctuation, spelling.

c. Rhetorical control: presence of background information, a summary of the source text, and the thesis statement in the introduction, topic sentences in each body paragraph, a conclusion, paragraph balance.

The mistakes have been coded as *Cont.* for content, *Lang.* for language and *Rhet.* for rhetorical control and a distinction has been made between draft1 and draft2.

3.4.6 Analysis of the interviews

The interviews were first transcribed verbatim and analysed qualitatively. In other words, the qualitative data obtained from the interviews were "transformed into a textual form" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 243), i.e. the data were transcribed "to make it more accessible for

subsequent *coding* and analysis" (Riazi, 2016, p. 327). Once the data were turned into text, I read the interview transcriptions several times, segmented the text and assigned a priori predefined coding schemes to those segments (Riazi, 2016). The criterion for selecting fragments from the interviews was that they served to complement the data collected from the questionnaire and the written reports since the aim of conducting the interviews was to cover or clarify the information reported in the other two instruments. In other words, I considered only those segments in which student participants referred to either reading or writing, the relationship between these two skills, content, rhetoric, and use of language (grammar, vocabulary, register and mechanics) and each incidence was coded using such a coding scheme. New categories emerged from successive reading, which meant that the transcriptions were analysed again bearing in mind the new labels. In fact, the difficulties that emerged from the analysis of the interviews are the following: organisation of ideas, selection of ideas, rhetorical control, content, language, summarising, intertextuality, and proofreading. Students' interviews are identified in Chapter 4 by referring to the participants' names and the abbreviation *Int.*, meaning interview; for example, Verónica, Int.

3.5 Summary of this chapter

This chapter has presented the methodology undertaken in this study. I have explained the research design, the context of the study, namely the setting and the student participants. I have also provided a description of the data collection and analysis procedures. A mixed-methods design was used in this thesis as research methods from both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were combined. Some instruments were designed to gather qualitative data viz., students' summary-analysis essays and interviews, while other data collection instruments elicited quantitative data, including the questionnaire, the reading comprehension text, and the ESLPE Rating Scale. Only the learners' written reports collected both quantitative and qualitative data. The next chapter reports the results of the analysis of the data, organised into each of the research questions raised in this investigation.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 3 described the methodology selected to investigate the research questions. This chapter presents the results that this research study yielded from the analysis of the data gathered. The findings have been organised according to the overarching research questions posed in this thesis, namely (1) what are students' perceptions of the interaction between reading and writing?; (2) how do the students' perceptions correlate with their writing performance?; (3) how does the students' reading comprehension of the source text used to write a summary-analysis essay affect their written productions?; (4) which difficulties can be identified when the students describe the steps taken to write their compositions?; and (5) which problems can be identified in the students' written productions? Inherent in these questions is the assumption that EFL university students' reading and writing skills are likely to be closely related. I have also analysed the findings of this study in light of existing research studies and the theoretical framework that informs this research.

4.1. Findings in relation to research question 1: Students' perceptions of the interaction between reading and writing

In order to answer research question 1 viz., *what are students' perceptions of the interaction between reading and writing?*, I will report on the information gathered from the questionnaire and the interviews regarding this specific point. In fact, the data came from the questionnaire (Appendix B) that the students completed some days before they took the reading comprehension test, and the interviews (Appendix F), held individually with each of the participants after they handed in their second and final draft of their summary-analysis essay. For anonymity reasons, the participants in this research study are called *Verónica, Lorenzo, Amanda* and *Maico.*

This section is organised into two subsections: (1) the results of the questionnaire (section 4.1.1), and (2) the results of the interviews with the participants in relation to their views on the role of reading, and the reading-writing linkage (section 4.1.2).

4.1.1. Results of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of three sections of ten statements each: the first one in relation to the nature of the reading-writing connection, the second one about students' engagement in reading and writing activities, and the last one related to reading and writing practices in the classroom milieu. The rating scale was the following: 1= strongly disagree; 2= somewhat disagree; 3= undecided; 4= somewhat agree; and 5= strongly agree.

Table 4.1 summarises the information gathered from the questionnaire on the students' perceptions of the reading-writing relations. In fact, it includes every participant's perspective: an average score of the ten items in each of the three sections measured on a 5-point Likert scale as well as the mean that results from the three sections for each student. Besides, I calculated the mean for every section. In general terms, the results are in agreement with Kim's (2005) findings, which revealed that "college ESL learners' perspectives are skewed toward a more integrative continuum" (p. 72).

In the three sections the two female students' perspectives were over the mean, which shows that for these students reading and writing were closely related and they carried out actions that strengthened the reading-writing connection. Lorenzo also got scores above the mean for sections B and C, which indicates that when he approached writing, he mostly connected it with reading. The fact that his score was below the mean in section A shows that he did not think that reading and writing were interdependent. Maico was not only the participant who possessed the lowest perspective scores in all the sections, but his scores were also below the mean, which explains why his overall range of perspective scores was the lowest as well. These results confirm that students who regarded reading and writing as being integrated were more likely to combine the two skills in their EFL assignments. These findings are in line with Kim's (2005) conclusion that "college L2 learners viewing reading and writing as the same process tended to engage more in reading in connection to writing at both individual and social practices" (p. 79), whereas those students whose perspectives on the reading-writing integration were low did not display reading-writing behaviour.

One of the issues that emerges from the analysis of Table 4.1 is that the highest mean of students' range of perspectives is C: *Continua of behaviours engaging in reading and writing through classroom practices*. This seems to indicate that these students were involved

in many reading and writing activities in the class. This parallels Ruddell and Unrau's (2013) model. This model is made up of three components: the reader, the teacher and the text and classroom context. The students' answers show that in the English Language IV classroom they were highly engaged in reading-writing activities, which has been observed in other L2 contexts by several researchers (Cumming et al., 2016; Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, 2013b; Hirvela, 2007; Horning & Kraemer, 2013; Hudson, 2007; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Plakans et al., 2019; Saville-Troike, 2006; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015).

Table 4.1
Students' Range of Perspectives

	Verónica	Lorenzo	Amanda	Maico	**Mean**
A. Continua of Reading-Writing Process	4.4	3.3	4.1	3.5	3.8
B. Continua of Individual Behaviours Engaging in Reading in Connection to Writing	4	4.3	4.5	3	3.9
C. Continua of Behaviours Engaging in Reading and Writing Through Classroom Practices	4.5	4.2	4.2	3.5	4.1
Mean	4.3	3.9	4.2	3.3	3.9

In conclusion, it is possible to say that, except for Maico, most students held perspectives that favour the reading-writing integration, which suggests that they were highly involved in tasks where the interplay between the two skills prevailed. Their views on the integration of reading and writing seem to indicate that they combined both literacy skills in activities done in the EFL setting. Consequently, their perspectives on the reading and writing connections were directly related to their reading-writing behaviour or practices: the higher their perspectives were on the complementary role of these skills, the more the learners engaged in tasks that required reading-writing integration.

4.1.2. Results of student interviews in relation to the role of reading and the interaction between reading and writing

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the above quantitative data from the questionnaire can be triangulated with qualitative data obtained from the interviews[5] conducted with the students. The interviews varied in length, ranging from fourteen to seventeen minutes. Questions number 2 and 6 from the interview (Appendix F) can be linked to research question 1. No reference to reading comprehension was found in the interviews, but to reading in relation to writing as a source of information to develop ideas from, to cite reliable sources, to proofread, and to go over feedback. Along similar lines, Hayes (2002) explains that reading can serve different purposes in relation to writing, such as reading source texts so as to use information and reading to evaluate writing, which is linked to proofreading. In his Current Version of the Writing Model, Hayes (2012) highlights that revising, which is within the control level, implies that writers try to solve problems through reading, which is reflected in changes in the text. Maico, for instance, acknowledged having difficulties in writing, which he linked to reading:

> One of my biggest problems is that I don't read that much or I don't read academic articles or newspapers or whatever. For that reason, I don't have or it's difficult to think in terms of arguments or good ideas to put to write (Maico, Int.).

This finding correlates with the results from the questionnaire given that Maico's perspectives on the reading-writing connection were the lowest, especially in section B, which was related to students' engagement in reading-writing behaviours. In other words, he expressed not to be involved in many reading-to-write activities both in the questionnaire and in the interview. Prior studies have noted the importance of students being strategic readers, which seems to have a positive correlation with successful writers' achievement (Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). In Maico's case, he showed that he did not integrate these two literacy skills, which seems to indicate that he was a non-strategic reader in the sense that he did not exploit the potential of reading in his own writing. In a similar vein, Jiang et al. (2020) express that problems occur "when readers do not have adequate background information, do not have

[5] All the excerpts are reproduced verbatim, i.e. linguistic inaccuracies have not been edited.

the necessary linguistic resources, or have not read enough in the language to have developed efficiencies in reading" (p. 270). They also regard motivation and attitudes as factors that affect reading development as well as the amount of reading input since these variables are likely to work in tandem with "the linguistic and cognitive resources that a reader can bring to bear on text comprehension" (Jiang et al., 2020, p. 264). It seems that Maico was not motivated enough to read even when he was cognizant of the benefits of reading to his writing.

Question number 2 in the interview was "what are your views on summary-analysis essays?" All of the students used the adjective "difficult" to describe this type of essay, and Maico also expressed that this genre was "challenging." It is worth pointing out that three of the participants made reference to the difficulty in summarising and using other sources in the body paragraphs to support the ideas they responded to. In both cases, these are activities in which reading serves as the source of information for writing. As pointed out by Hirvela (2016), "the focus is on the act of writing and the text-production processes that enable the writer to appropriate source text material in accepted ways" (p. 128). Maico also mentioned that "this type of essay is the most difficult because you have to look for other sources, you have to investigate more than in other types of essays" (Maico, Int.). Verónica claimed that in summary-analysis essays, "we should bear in mind that we are referring to another person's work or ideas. And that's difficult sometimes. It's difficult not to include your own point of view or not to say what you think" (Verónica, Int.). In a similar vein, Lorenzo argued that they were used to read to get ideas to write about, but "not to rewrite those ideas" (Lorenzo, Int.). Verónica, Lorenzo and Maico also made reference to proofreading:

> What I do is to write the essay, for example, one day, and then, the following day, read it again, not in that moment when I have finished reading, writing it, but the following day, and that is when I can identify the mistakes maybe (Verónica, Int.).
>
> I think that proofreading, right?, is the most difficult step (Lorenzo, Int.).
>
> I prepare my essay, plan my essay, I write it, then I, oh I forgot the verb, proofread it and then I send it to the teacher (Maico, Int.).

When asked question number 6, "are reading and writing closely related? Provide examples," all of the interviewees agreed on the importance of reading in terms of being a source of material from which to gain knowledge and ideas to develop in their written

compositions. These findings are in agreement with Plakans and Gebril's (2012), who found that most students working with sources use them for academic purposes, within which they include the "use of source texts to learn about a topic and subsequently choose and support an opinion based on these texts" (p. 31). The following extract reveals such uses of source texts:

> If you read before writing, not only does you, no, you don't only have, not only do you have sources to refer to and back up your ideas, you also can create your own ideas in relation to what somebody says, you may agree or disagree and develop your own perspective (Verónica, Int.).

What Verónica expressed captures Spivey's (1990) metaphor of reader-writers interweaving their ideas and the source text to transform them into something new. The following extracts seem to support Spivey's (1990) view that the task of writing from sources entails different operations, one of which is selecting:

> If you don't read, you don't know what to write about. You need to read to gather information (Lorenzo, Int.).

> In order to write, you have to read, you need to inform yourself because you have to let the audience know about a certain topic with your view, but if you don't have information about that topic, well what can you tell the world about? (Maico, Int.).

> I tend to look for information before and after doing an essay. I believe it's great because I can have different ideas. [...] reading and writing are crucial. Specially reading is crucial for writing because whenever you read, you acquire more information and you acquire experience and knowledge (Amanda, Int.).

Amanda's comment shows that she was not forced to read, but it was a habit of hers, which resulted in benefits. In Hirvela's (2007) terms, it could be regarded as a case of extended reading. This could illustrate the indirect model of reading for writing, according to which indirect exposure to writing through reading can broaden students' writing knowledge (Eisterhold, 1990; Hirvela, 2007).

The findings indicate that the students did refer to and were cognizant of the role that reading has to develop the content of compositions or to provide sound arguments to the ideas in the body paragraphs. If we relate this to the questionnaire, it may explain the high scores that Verónica, Lorenzo and Amanda got in section B. *Continua of individual*

behaviours engaging in reading in connection to writing: their behaviour correlates with their perceptions of how reading and writing are related. As most participants in Kim's (2005) study, these three students exhibited reading-writing behaviours, and so did Maico, but to a lesser extent. In fact, Maico, whose perspective scores were the lowest, was the only participant who mentioned not to read as much as he may need even though he knew it would be beneficial:

> I'm conscious that I have to improve in that and that I have to read more (Maico, Int.).

As to the reading-writing relationship, Verónica mentioned that reading could contribute to the generation of ideas and that reading material meant a source to put forward arguments from one's own point of view. Lorenzo contended that reading and writing are linked:

> If you don't read, you won't have ideas in your mind, you won't activate previous knowledge (Lorenzo, Int.).

For these students, the direction of this relation seems to be from reading to writing. Lorenzo went further to claim that those who do not read will not sharpen their writing. When asked about whether writing can help improve reading, his answer was straight:

> No, I think it's the other way round (Lorenzo, Int.).

Amanda thought that reading and writing are closely related. She considered mainly the way in which reading can serve as a source from which to get ideas or arguments to write. Similarly, Maico expressed

> reading and writing are totally connected. In order to write, you have to read, you need to inform yourself [...] The more you read, the better you are supposed to write (Maico, Int.).

These findings can be discussed in the light of the directional model, which postulates that "skills can transfer in only one direction" (Eisterhold, 1990, p. 91). This model is based on "the premise of a primary movement from writing to reading or from reading to writing" (Hirvela, 2007, p. 110). According to these students, reading can provide them with material

to use in their written compositions. It is evident that for these learners they can gain knowledge of writing through reading, which illustrates the reading-to-write directional model (Eisterhold, 1990; Hirvela, 2007, 2013a). The different uses that these students made of reading suggest the interaction of both top-down and bottom-up processing skills, which is one of the premises of interactive models of reading (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Carrell, 1988a; Eskey & Grabe, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Hudson, 2007).

To sum up, the analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaire and the interviews suggests that students' perspectives on the reading-writing integrations are directly proportional to their literacy practices. The second major finding was that these participants mainly used reading to strengthen writing, which illustrates the reading-to-writing model within the directional model (Eisterhold, 1990), but they made no reference to the writing to read model, according to which writing can make a contribution to reading.

4.2. Findings in relation to research question 2: Correlation between students' perceptions and their writing performance

In this section I delve into the information gathered to answer research question 2 viz., *how do the students' perceptions correlate with their writing performance?* The data derived from the range of perspectives obtained from the questionnaire (Appendix B), i.e. the average score of the 30 questions and the students' summary-analysis scores (section 4.2.1). The findings of the participants' range of perceptions have been analysed in section 4.1.1. I next include the analysis of the students' scores achieved in the first and second summary-analysis drafts. I then triangulate the data collected from both instruments (section 4.2.2).

4.2.1. Results of the participants' writing performance

In this section I will report on the data obtained from the students' assessed compositions. The data came from the scores given to the first and second drafts of the students' summary-analysis essay by the two raters, who followed the ESLPE rating scale (Weigle, 1999) (Appendix G). In this research study, the scores were turned into percentages

(see section 4.5.1: Table 4.11 and Table 4.12). Table 4.2 shows each of the EFL students' writing performance on their first and second summary-analysis drafts as revealed from the scores by the two raters. If we compare the assessment of the two drafts, the results indicate that each student improved their summary-analysis essays: all of them got higher overall scores in their second drafts, but they did not make distinct improvement. Nevertheless, one of the students, Maico, achieved a non-passing grade, i.e. less than 60% out of 100%, in both drafts and his improvement was of 3.33%, whereas the other participants got passing grades in both first and second drafts, and the difference between the two compositions was of +8.33% in the case of Verónica and Amanda, and of +8.34% in Lorenzo's case.

Table 4.2
Scores Achieved in the First and Second Summary-analysis Drafts

Student	First draft	Second draft	Difference
1. Verónica	70%	78.33%	+8.33
2. Lorenzo	61.66%	70%	+8.34
3. Amanda	60%	68.33%	+8.33
4. Maico	48.33%	51.66%	+3.3

For a detailed description of the learners' summary-analysis essay scores in both drafts, see section 4.5.1 Results of the students' writing performance.

4.2.2 Students' perceptions and writing performance

Table 4.3 shows the data for each of the participants from both instruments: the students' written production scores and the questionnaire.

Table 4.3
Descriptive Statistics of Students' Written Production Scores and Range of Perspectives

Student	**Score – First draft**	**Score – Second draft**	**Overall range of perspectives**
1. Verónica	70%	78.33%	4.3
2. Lorenzo	61.66%	70%	3.9
3. Amanda	60%	68.33%	4.2
4. Maico	48.33%	51.66%	3.3

The analysis shows that the students whose written production scores were the highest and the lowest were also the ones whose range of perspectives was the highest and the lowest respectively. In other words, Verónica achieved the best score in the summary-analysis essays, both in the first and second drafts (70% and 78.33% respectively), and belonged to the high perspective group as to the reading-writing relationship with 4.3 out of a 5-point Likert scale, which indicates that she considered the reading-writing connection to be close and she integrated these literacy skills in her assignments. On the other hand, Maico obtained the lowest scores in both summary-analysis drafts (48.33% and 51.66%), in fact non-passing scores, and he possessed the lowest perspective score on the reading–writing linkage: 3.3 out of a 5-point Likert scale, which means that he did not hold strong beliefs as to the interplay between reading and writing, nor did he try to combine these skills in his tasks. In these two cases, students' perceptions correlate with their writing performance. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research (Clack & Douglas, 2011) which found that students' engagement in and attitude towards reading and writing tasks correlate with their performance on such activities.

On the other hand, Lorenzo achieved the second highest score in the summary-analysis essays (61.66% and 70%), but his perspective on the reading-writing relationship ranked third with 3.9 out of a 5-point Likert scale, whereas Amanda got the third highest score in both written compositions (60% and 68.33%); however, she held the second highest perspectives as regards the relation between the two skills with 4.2 out of a 5-point Likert scale. The comparison between Lorenzo's and Amanda's scores does not provide conclusive evidence to claim the correlation between L2 students' perceptions and their writing

performance. Nonetheless, it is worth pointing out that the difference in their summary-analysis scores is not significant: Lorenzo got 1.66% and 1.67% more in his first and second drafts respectively when compared with Amanda's.

To conclude, the analysis of the students' performance in their summary-analysis essays in relation to their views on the reading-writing relationships demonstrates the existence of a correlation in the extremes, that is to say, the learner with the highest essay score also held the most positive view on the reading-writing connection, while the student with the lowest essay score also had the lowest perspective on the integration of the skills. However, the results of the comparison between the other two participants who got similar scores in the written assignment, but whose reading-writing perspectives differed do not confirm a remarkable correlation.

4.3. Findings in relation to research question 3: The impact of reading comprehension on writing

This section presents the data gathered to answer research question 3: *how does the students' reading comprehension of the source text used to write a summary-analysis essay affect their written productions?*

I will report on the results in relation to the participants' reading comprehension test scores, and the raters' assessment of the students' written productions. This section is organised into two parts viz., (a) results of the participants' reading comprehension test (Appendix C), and (b) the analysis of the results of the participants' reading comprehension test in relation to the scores of their summary-analysis essays. The results of the participants' writing performance have been presented in section 4.2.1.

4.3.1. Results of the participants' reading comprehension test

The following data relate to the reading comprehension test that was taken by the participants based on the article they had to write about. The test was administered to collect data for the third research question and to provide me with data on issues and questions that could be further explored in the interviews. Three out of the four participants got passing

grades and one of them, Maico, a non-passing grade. The highest score was 88 out of 100, and the lowest, 59 out of 100, which makes a difference of 29% between these two scores. The mean of the total score was 77.5. Table 4.4 synthesises students' scores.

Table 4.4
Descriptive Statistics for the Reading Comprehension Test

Student	Multiple-choice score	Open question scores	Total score
Verónica	24/42	53/58	77/100
Lorenzo	30/42	58/58	88/100
Amanda	30/42	56/58	86/100
Maico	18/42	41/58	59/100

The reading comprehension test was comprised of two parts: a multiple-choice exercise (Table 4.5) and open questions (Table 4.6). If these two sections are analysed separately, the results change compared to the overall grade. In the multiple-choice exercise, two of the students got a passing grade (60 or more out of 100) with 71.42% as their score, and the other two participants, a non-passing one with scores of 42.86% and 57.14% (see Table 4.5). The difference between the highest score (71.42) and the lowest score (42.86) is almost the same as the results from the aforementioned whole scores (multiple-choice exercise and open questions): 28.56% instead of 29%. The mean of the scores of the multiple-choice section is 60.71.

Table 4.5
Descriptive Statistics for the Multiple-choice Exercise in the Reading Comprehension Test

	Verónica	Lorenzo	Amanda	Maico
Points	24/42	30/42	30/42	18/42
Score	57.14/100	71.42/100	71.42/100	42.86/100

As regards the scores achieved in the second part of the test (see Table 4.6) viz., the open questions, they were higher than the multiple-choice exercise scores. One of the participants had a perfect score, followed by the two female students, who got 96.55% and

91.38% respectively, and Maico, who achieved a passing grade only in this section: 70.69%. The mean is 89.65. The difference between the highest (100) and the lowest score (70.69) is 29.31%. Such a gap is almost the same for the three cases viz., the overall score (29%), the multiple-choice exercise (28.56%) and the answers to the questions (29.31%); the mean is 28.96%.

Table 4.6
Descriptive Statistics for the Open Questions in the Reading Comprehension Test

	Verónica	Lorenzo	Amanda	Maico
Points	53/58	58/58	56/58	41/58
Score	91.38/100	100/100	96.55/100	70.69/100

As mentioned above, all the participants outperformed themselves in the second section of the test (see Table 4.7). Verónica showed a difference of 34.24 in the question section of the test, followed by Lorenzo with 28.58, Maico with 27.83 and Amanda with 25.13. The mean in terms of the differences between the two scores obtained was of 28.94 out of 100.

Table 4.7
Comparison between the Results of the Two Activities in the Reading Comprehension Test

Participant	Multiple-choice exercise scores	Questions to develop scores	Difference
Verónica	57.14/100	91.38/100	34.24
Lorenzo	71.42/100	100/100	28.58
Amanda	71.42/100	96.55/100	25.13
Maico	42.86/100	70.69/100	27.83
Mean	60.71	89.65	28.94

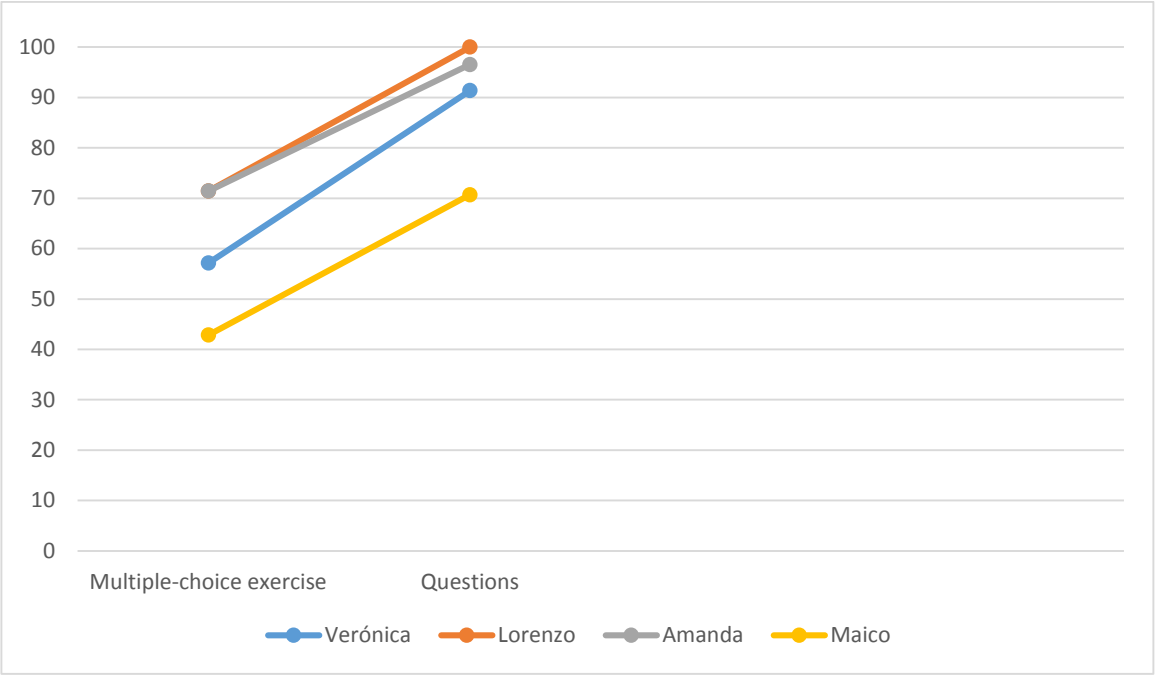

Figure 4.1. Participants' Scores in the Two Tasks of the Reading Comprehension Test

As it can be observed in Figure 4.1., the students who achieved the highest scores in the multiple-choice exercise also outperformed the other two students in the second task of the reading comprehension test. In other words, Lorenzo and Amanda obtained the highest scores in the multiple-choice exercise and the open questions. The difference between these two participants is not statistically significant: they differed in the scores they got in the open questions by 3.4%. The mean difference between the two tasks is of 28.94%. Verónica was the one whose difference between the two tasks was the highest.

The results of the students' reading comprehension test can be summarised as follows: overall Verónica, Lorenzo and Amanda did well in the test, whereas Maico did not achieve a passing score. The separate analysis of the two sections of the test indicates that these students had more difficulties in choosing the right answer from multiple options than in providing their own answers to questions. This may be due to the nature of the two assessment measures. While distractors in multiple-choice exercises can cause confusion (Koda, 2005), when learners answer a question, they rely on themselves and their linguistic knowledge as well as their comprehension of the text, which should be relatively easy at an advanced proficiency level.

4.3.2. Analysis of the results of the participants' reading comprehension test in relation to the scores of their summary-analysis essays

The analysis of the students' reading comprehension test scores in relation to their summary-analysis essay scores (see Table 4.8) shows that in all cases the participants obtained higher scores in their reading comprehension tests, except for Verónica, who performed better in her second draft (+1.33%) than in the reading comprehension test.

The minor differences between the two tests were for the students who obtained the lowest scores in the reading comprehension test, namely Verónica and Maico, whereas a considerable difference in scores can be pointed out for the participants who scored highly in the reading comprehension test, but whose results in their compositions were just passing grades: Lorenzo's difference is of -26.34% and Amanda's -26%. If we compare the students' reading comprehension test scores with the percentages they got for their second drafts, the difference decreases. In the case of Verónica, she even performed better in the second draft when compared with the reading comprehension test.

Table 4.8
Difference between the Reading Comprehension Scores and both Drafts of Students' Summary-analysis Essays

Participant	Reading comprehension test score	First draft scores	Difference	Second draft Scores	Difference
Verónica	77%	70%	-7%	78.33%	+1.33%
Lorenzo	88%	61.66%	-26.34%	70%	-18%
Amanda	86%	60%	-26%	68.33%	-17.67%
Maico	59%	48.33%	-10.67%	51.66%	-7.34%

Figure 4.2. compares the percentages obtained by the students for the reading comprehension test and their second summary-analysis drafts, which defined their final grade. As previously stated, Verónica was the only one who achieved a higher score in the written assignment with a difference of +1.33% in relation to the reading comprehension test,

while the other students got higher scores in the reading comprehension test when compared with their compositions: Lorenzo achieved a difference of 18%, followed by Amanda (17.67%) and Maico (7.34%). It is worth pointing out that Verónica outperformed her classmates in the summary-analysis essay, but Lorenzo and Amanda outperformed her in both sections of the reading comprehension test.

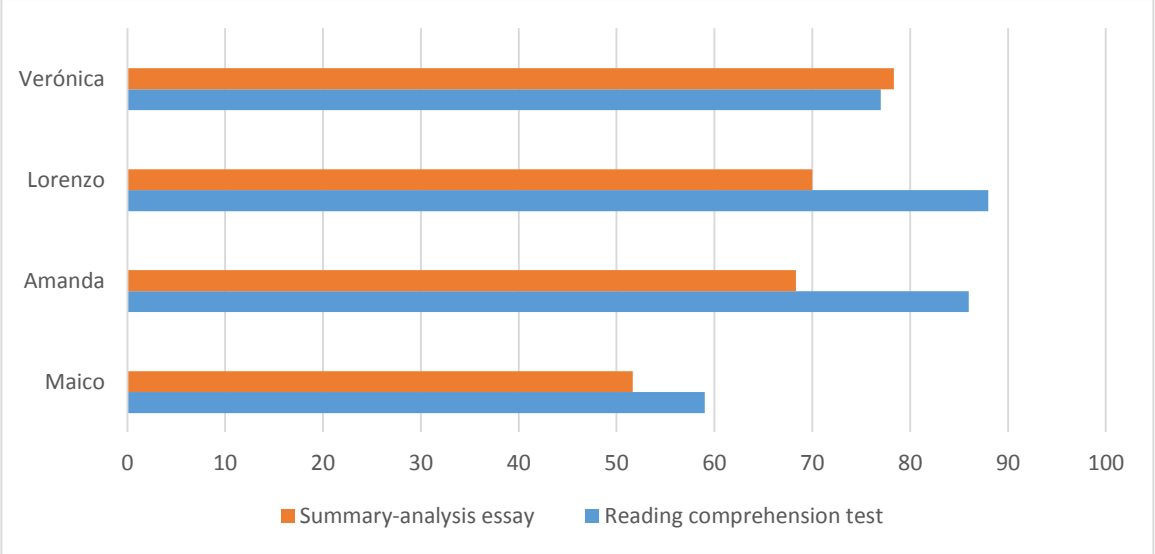

Figure 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of the Scores Obtained by the Students in both the Reading Comprehension Test and the Second Draft of the Summary-analysis Essay

As can be seen from Figure 4.2., Verónica's and Maico's reading and writing performance can be said to overlap, which provides additional evidence with respect to the relationship between reading ability and writing performance as other studies have pointed out (Al-Saadat, 2004; Ito, 2011; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Parodi, 2007; Spivey & King, 1989). On the other hand, Lorenzo's and Amanda's scores in the reading comprehension test and writing task vary considerably. In this respect, when their performance is compared with Verónica's, another conclusion to be drawn is that the two best readers did not achieve the best score in the composition, a result which differs from some published research findings, according to which better readers tend to be better writers (Al-Saadat, 2004; Ito, 2011; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Spivey & King, 1989). A possible explanation is provided by Asención Delaney (2008), whose findings suggested that "the ability to read a text and then use that information for writing appears to differ from the ability to read for basic comprehension" (p. 147). In line with this, J. Li's (2014) research demonstrated that students'

reading strategies did not have substantial impact on their summary performance while their writing strategies did. As he explained, this may be due to the fact that "success in this task is more related to how test takers write than how they read" (p. 10).

To summarise, the finding that emerges in relation to the effect of reading comprehension on writing is that learners' reading comprehension may not necessarily be a predictor of writing performance. This may be owing to the different uses that reading is put to in each case, namely the reading comprehension test and the reading-to write task, which do not demand the same cognitive processes.

4.4. Findings in relation to research question 4: Difficulties reported by students

This section presents the results in relation to research question 4, namely *which difficulties can be identified when the students describe the steps taken to write their compositions?* As stated in Chapter 3, the data were gathered by means of students' written reports (Appendix E) and interviews (Appendix F). The written report encompassed five sections viz., (1) pre-writing stage, (2) rhetorical control, (3) content, (4) language (grammar, vocabulary, register, and mechanics), and (5) overall appreciation. This section is divided into two subsections: analysis of the students' written reports (section 4.4.1) and the analysis of the students' answers in relation to difficulties in writing a summary-analysis essay during the interviews (section 4.4.2).

4.4.1. Analysis of the students' written reports

As regards the first section of students' written reports[6], entitled ***pre-writing stage***, in the first question the learners had to list the steps that they followed to read the source text, whereas the second question aimed at gaining information about the planning stage, specifically the use of outlines to organise the content of the essay before writing it. The analysis of the students' answers indicates that all of them referred to multiple reads of the text: first, to get the gist, and second, to focus on more specific information:

[6] All the excerpts are reproduced verbatim, i.e. linguistic inaccuracies have not been edited.

> -Reading the article quickly; -Reading the article for the second time paying attention to details and the information included (Verónica, WR1).
>
> I generally read the article for the first time, then I try to write the ideas I remember, then read it for the second time to underline the main ideas (Lorenzo, WR1).
>
> 1st I read the whole article; 2nd I marked significant passages (Amanda, WR1).
>
> First of all, I read the text quickly without paying attention to the details. Then, I read the text carefully paying attention to the details (Maico, WR1).

Verónica, Lorenzo and Maico also claimed to have read the article a third time:

> -Reading the article for the third time considering the main idea of each paragraph (Verónica, WR1).
>
> I compare both what I got from the first and second reading and read it for the third time (Lorenzo, WR1).
>
> 3. Read each paragraph for main ideas (Maico, WR1).

In this study, the students read the text with two main purposes in mind: to understand the main ideas and to concentrate on ideas they could respond to so as to approach their writing assignment. The participants' multiple reads can also be interpreted as similar steps taken when we write: both readers and writers plan, revise and edit what they read or write (Harste, 2013; Hudson, 2007; Johns, 1997; Tierney & Pearson, 1983).

With respect to the second question, only the two female students reported having resorted to the use of an outline to organise their ideas. For instance, Amanda answered:

> I always tend to outline my essay, especially for the sake of clarity and personal organization (Amanda, WR1).

On the other hand, the two male learners did not make reference to the use of outlines. However, Lorenzo did mention that he usually organised the information in terms of categories, but not in the form of an outline:

> I generally write down the main categories I plan to develop and then, if necessary, look for information (Lorenzo, WR1).

Except for Lorenzo, what they all did agree on was the need to look for other sources to use as supporting information in the pre-writing stage. Lorenzo said that he consulted other sources only when necessary, while the other three students claimed that they knew what extra texts they were going to use to back up their arguments before starting to write the essay:

> After reading other articles related to the topic, I wrote an outline (Verónica, WR1).
>
> I also tend to write the possible articles that may support my essay, so as to have an expert opinion on the topic to reinforce my sayings (Amanda, WR1).
>
> Firstly, I looked for two articles before brainstorming ideas. Once I have decided what articles to use, I tried to look for connections (Maico, WR1).

It seems that in the pre-writing stage the students did not have any difficulties and knew what was beneficial for them since they claimed to have read the source text several times for different purposes, they organised the ideas they would discuss in the body paragraphs and looked for other sources to back up their thesis statements. These steps could be identified as the pre-writing stage promoted by the process approach (Harl, 2013; Hirvela, 2007; Hyland, 2003a; Matsuda, 2003a; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006; Raimes, 1991). This finding is in agreement with that of Zhu's (2001), whose participants affirmed to select, plan and revise their written productions.

Regarding the second section, namely ***rhetorical control***, it was meant for the students to identify the elements that they were expected to incorporate in their summary-analysis essays. The participants answered the following questions:

Question 1: Identify and list the elements that you included in your introduction, e.g. title of the article summarised, author's name, summary.

Question 2: Did you state a sound thesis statement? Write it here.

Question 3: Did you develop your thesis statement throughout your essay? Write the topic sentence of each body paragraph.

The first and second questions focused on the introduction: all of the students declared to have included the title of the source text and a summary of it, but only Verónica stated that she had mentioned the author's name. The four participants could also rewrite their thesis statements as well as the topic sentences of the body paragraphs, which they thought were in

tandem with their thesis. From a genre perspective, they could describe the structure of the genre accurately (Hyland, 2009), which meant that they were aware of the rhetorical organisation of summary-analysis essays needed to achieve their communicative goal (Hyland, 2003b, 2018). The following are their answers to question 1:

> Title of the work, author's name, and summary including the two broad ideas I develop in the body paragraphs (Verónica, WR1).
>
> The title of the article "Work, work, work!" Summary: three main ideas I want to respond to (Lorenzo, WR1).
>
> I included the following elements: title of the article, year of publication, (I didn't include the author's name because I didn't know it and I couldn't find it), book of which the article was taken from, summaries of the main aspects of the article (Amanda, WR1).
>
> In the introduction I included the title of the article summarized (Work, work, work), then I mentioned the author (unknown), the main ideas summarized and the thesis statement (Maico, WR1).

With respect to the third section of the written reports, ***content***, the participants had to answer three open-ended questions. The first one was related to the use of other sources to support their arguments. Three of the students contended that they looked for articles first, and then selected the ideas to respond to:

> I first read some articles related to the general topic: work. Then, I decided on which ideas to respond. After that, I searched for some more specific articles which relate to the two specific ideas (Verónica, WR1).
>
> Whenever I write an essay, I always search for information in order to organize the different categories of analysis. Once I outline them, I once again look for information to back up my responses (Amanda, WR1).
>
> I first looked for the articles which I could use according to the original text and then, I decided which ideas to respond to (Maico, WR1).

Of these participants, Amanda and Verónica said that after they outlined their topic sentences, they consulted other sources. Lorenzo was the only one who claimed to have chosen first the ideas from the source text that he would respond to and then, searched for supporting information from other articles:

> I first decided on the ideas, then I looked for new articles for the responses (Lorenzo, WR1).

Even in the second written report, Amanda made reference to reading:

> -Looked for more information to back up my thoughts and for making the essay more appealing. So, for my second draft I tried to correct the possible mistakes and errors that I could make (Amanda, WR2).

Hence, all of the participants did extra reads when working on the ideas to be developed in their essays. One possible explanation for this behaviour on the part of the students is related to schema theory. The participants might have looked for information before deciding what ideas to respond to so as to broaden their background knowledge, which tends to enhance understanding (Anderson, 2013; Barnett, 1989; Carrell, 1988a; Grabe, 1991; Kern, 2000).

The second question in the content section was about the attribution of sources. The four participants reported having resorted to other sources in their compositions by means of both direct and indirect quotations, which they acknowledged following MLA citation style. As mentioned in the literature review in Chapter 1, like the participants in Pecorari's (2003) research, these students knew the difference between the correct and wrong use of attribution. However, one of Amanda's topic sentences in her written report presented a citation style mistake, which I could identify:

> From an opposing standpoint, a group of experts allege that working long hours can have detrimental effects on the physical and mental condition of the workforce, and on their personal relationships (Amanda, WR1).

In this case, it is clear that the student consulted a source, but the reader does not have the author's last name so as to find it in the works cited list and consult the source of information. Pecorari (2016) explains that "the norm-breaking effect may come about inadvertently rather than as the result of conscious intention on the part of the writer" (p. 329).

The last question was related to the content of the conclusion. The four students affirmed that they included the ideas developed in the body paragraphs. Except for Verónica, they all expressed their own views in relation to the topic in the conclusion:

> In the conclusion, I summarized the ideas that I developed in the body paragraphs (Verónica, WR1).

Maico was the only one who also claimed that his conclusion was a restatement of the introduction:

> In my conclusion, I rephrased mostly the ideas I introduced in the introduction. After that, I included my personal opinion with regards to the main topic (Maico, WR1).

As regards the fourth section, ***language (grammar, vocabulary, register, mechanics)***, the students' answers were very similar. When asked about whether they had found problems related to lexis or grammar while they were writing, all of them except for Verónica answered positively. In addition, the four students affirmed that they wrote both simple and complex sentences and they consulted sources like online and printed dictionaries to correct language mistakes when they wrote each of the drafts:

> I consulted some dictionaries: Oxford Learner's dictionary, collocation dictionary, and thesaurus dictionary (Verónica, WR1).

> I generally consult on-line dictionaries and google some expressions to see how they are used in context (Lorenzo, WR1).

> I always have problems with word repetition, so I look for synonyms all the time and also check spelling; example: "work" "job" "employment" (Lorenzo, WR2).

> I always consult on line dictionaries like word reference, Oxford collocation, linguee and Merriam Webster in order to look for synonyms, collocations, word usage, etc. (Amanda, WR1).

> I used online dictionaries to look for words like "maladies," "narcissistic," and "workaholic" (Maico, WR1).

The last section was entitled ***overall appreciation***. The participants referred to different aspects that they found difficult. For example, Verónica considered the conclusion to be the most complex part of this type of argumentative essay:

> Personally, the most difficult part was the conclusion because as I needed to resort to the same ideas, I found it difficult no to sound repetitive (Verónica, WR1).

> The most difficult part was the conclusion because I can't avoid being repetitive (Verónica, WR2).

Both Lorenzo and Maico answered that they found it difficult to establish connections between the source text and the other sources that they consulted:

> It's difficult for me to relate the article we summarize to other articles for the responses (Lorenzo, WR1).
>
> The most difficult aspect was to make relationships between the original text with two new sources (Maico, WR1).
>
> In this second draft I felt better with my paper, but I had difficulties in choosing what ideas to respond to and analyse (Maico, WR2).

This difficulty can be related to one of the three operations involved in textual transformations: selecting (Spivey, 1990). Particularly, it was complex for Maico to decide what content from the source text to use to present his arguments. These results are consistent with those of Zhu's (2001) study, in which participants claimed to have problems in "developing the argument (selecting an appropriate number of ideas and details for inclusion)" (p. 39). This type of demanding activity that the participants made reference to involves complex cognitive processes, which makes writing from sources a challenging task in academic settings (Cumming et al, 2016; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Parodi, 2007; Zhu, 2001). This finding corroborates the ideas of Hirvela and Du (2013), who suggest that paraphrasing is *knowledge transforming*, in the sense that students need to be able to use sources to support their arguments instead of just presenting the information from the consulted texts. In this respect, another important finding is that these students experienced difficulty in undertaking Spivey's (1990) connecting operation, which entails incorporating the source texts into their own written productions (Doolan & Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2016; Luo & Kiewra, 2019). This also accords with Parodi's (2007) findings that revealed that students' achievement in reading and writing tasks with higher cognitive processes, in this case, reading to integrate information, tends to be lower than their scores in activities that focus on local coherence relations, like answering questions.

As far as Amanda and Lorenzo were concerned, the difficulty lied in their lack of practice in writing this genre:

> Perhaps the most difficult part of a S-A essay is not being used to write this type of essay (Amanda, WR1).

> As I haven't written many S-A [summary-analysis] essays I'm not as confident as I usually am when writing other types. When I wrote my second draft I realized that I hadn't included some references about the author and the text in the topic sentences of the bodies. Additionally, I realized that the body of my essay was very similar to a for and against one and not to a S-A essay (Amanda, WR2).

> I think I still need to practice with two or more essays (Lorenzo, WR1).

> I still need to write more essays to polish the connection between the summary and the analysis in the body (Lorenzo, WR2).

Interestingly, both students' statements revealed the importance of task schemas and genre knowledge in the individual's long-term memory, following Hayes's (2002) model. In this respect, according to Hayes, writing requires practice, which these students claimed not to get as much as they needed. Participants in previous studies (Ceylan, 2019; Zhu, 2001) also attributed their problems to their lack of practice in writing. It is encouraging to compare this observation with the line of research that has concentrated on the positive impact that academic writing instruction can have on students' compositions (see Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Cumming et al., 2016; Dalla Costa, 2012; Doolan & Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2016; Emam, 2011; Hayati & Jaya, 2018; Hosseinpur, 2015; Luo & Kiewra, 2019; Marzec-Stawiarska; 2016; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016) since difficulties are usually overcome by more practice. In line with this, Grabe and Zhang (2013b) maintain that "reading-writing tasks need to be frequent enough so that L2 students build confidence and fluency and also receive consistent feedback on their writing" (p. 132). Only Maico acknowledged that writing is not a strength of his, which may have an impact on his writing performance:

> As writing essay is my biggest weakness, I found myself not very confident while writing this assignment (Maico, WR1).

Finally, the students had to mention what they believed that they would have to improve in the second draft, i.e. what feedback they would receive on the part of the teacher. Lorenzo, Amanda and Maico answered that they would be asked to work on intertextuality, specifically the connection between the source text and the ideas as well as the articles they resorted to in order to back up their arguments:

> I think I have to work on the connection between the articles I chose to respond (Lorenzo, WR1).
>
> One aspect I may need to improve is the relationship between the article and my response (Amanda, WR1).
>
> I have to improve the flow of ideas and make better connections in order to make my body paragraphs more relevant and attractive for the audience (Maico, WR1).

This common concern may be linked to Scardamalia and Bereiter's (1991) two-model description of writing: a knowledge-telling model and a knowledge-transforming model. These participants' attempts can be understood as instances in which the construct of *knowledge telling* prevailed since they could only present the information of sources, but they failed to engage in *knowledge transforming*, i.e. to use such sources "more substantively as a means to develop a larger theme or argument" (Hirvela & Du, 2013, p. 87). Luo and Kiewra (2019) explain that "many college students adopt a knowledge-telling writing approach and simply report what they read" (p. 167) when they are expected to be engaged in a *knowledge-transforming* task in their writing. Lorenzo's, Amanda's and Maico's statements indicate that they had difficulty associating multiple ideas in a meaningful way; a type of activity that is a must in L2 academic settings (Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Cumming et al., 2016; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a; Hirvela, 2016; J. Li, 2014; Z. Li, 2015; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Verónica, instead, referred to mistakes due to language use and the writing of the conclusion:

> I have to improve my conclusion and correct some language mistakes, such as preposition, s/v agreement, punctuation, citation style (Verónica, WR1).

The data gathered in the students' written reports can be summarised as follows: the participants were cognizant of the general structure and characteristics of summary analysis essays and actions that could enhance their writing like the use of outlines; nonetheless, they also acknowledged difficulties in language, combining sources to support arguments, writing the conclusion, and writing this type of composition due to lack of practice. Table 4.9 summarises the difficulties that the students claimed to have when writing their summary-analysis essays.

Table 4.9
Difficulties in Writing Reported by the Students

Difficulties	Students
Selection of ideas	Maico
Intertextuality	Lorenzo, Maico and Amanda
Rhetorical control	Amanda and Lorenzo (lack of practice)
Content	Verónica (the conclusion)
Language	Verónica (language use) Lorenzo, Maico and Amanda (lexis and grammar)

These results corroborate the findings of previous work in relation to L2 writers' difficulties. Zhu (2001), for instance, identified the following problems as reported by ESL students, which coincide with the ones in this study: structure/organisation, conclusion, vocabulary, and grammar. In some studies (see Evans & Green, 2007; Gürel Cennetkuşu, 2017), the participants considered that one of their main challenges in writing was related to their limited vocabulary repertoire, which is one aspect included within the category language in this study. As in this research, language was also identified as an area that posed most problems to the subjects in Evans and Green's (2007) as well as Lee and Tajino's (2008) study.

The students' reading behaviour can be said to provide some support for Goodman's model (1968), according to which reading implies different processes and is selective. This is also in line with Smith's model (1971, 1982 as cited in Barnett, 1989), in which reading is purposeful and selective. As far as writing is concerned, these learners seem to have gone through the three main processes in the Hayes-Flower model: planning, translating and reviewing (Flower & Hayes, 1981). In other words, they thought about the ideas to be developed in their essays and organised them, they wrote their composition and they edited it. From a process approach perspective, these participants were engaged in pre-writing, drafting, revising and editing (Farahzad & Emam, 2010; Harl, 2013; Hirvela, 2007; Hyland, 2003a; Matsuda, 2003a; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006; Raimes, 1991). This result supports the findings in Zhu's (2001) study, where most participants also went through the same

processes when writing their argumentative essays, but they conflict with Ceylan's (2019) research since most of the L2 students in her study did not engage in the pre-writing, drafting or editing stages.

4.4.2. Analysis of the interviews in relation to difficulties in writing a summary-analysis essay

With respect to the interviews[7], the first four questions were aimed at collecting data related to problems that the students may have encountered when they wrote their summary-analysis essays (Appendix F). The analysis has been organised according to each student's answers.

4.4.2.1. Verónica

Verónica expressed that the most difficult aspect of the writing process was the selection of both the ideas from the source text to respond to and the ones to develop her arguments in the summary-analysis essay. In her terms, it is "what you have to write, and maybe you don't know what information to include in the essay" (Verónica, Int.). She defined summary-analysis essays as being more demanding than other types of compositions due to the complexity of the task and the intertextuality involved in this genre:

> They are more difficult or they require more work because eh the tasks, there are two tasks; first, to analyse an article and then to refer to that article, but, or, another aspect is that we have always to keep in mind the article that we are responding to and that's different (Verónica, Int.).

She first decided on what ideas to respond to and then she consulted other sources to back up her arguments. She believed she was good at writing succinctly: "I'm able to summarise or to go straight to the point" (Verónica, Int.). As regards her weaknesses, like in the content section of the written report, in the interview Verónica also claimed to confront some problems when writing the conclusion, which tended to be too short or to sound repetitive.

[7] All the excerpts are reproduced verbatim, i.e. linguistic inaccuracies have not been edited.

She did not have her compositions proofread by a classmate; the only feedback she got was from the teacher after having handed them in. However, she pointed out that having a classmate to go over her written productions could be beneficial. She even recalled a peer feedback in-class activity, but she maintained that it could be time-consuming and they were all under pressure due to lack of time:

> We are always advised to consult our peers, but the thing is that sometimes, I don't know, you do the writing, or, sometimes I don't want to bother maybe because it would be a task for him or her to read my essay, to go over it because we know that person is our classmate and he is going under the same pressure (Verónica, Int.).

4.4.2.2. Lorenzo

Lorenzo said that he encountered difficulty in outlining and proofreading:

> Well, I think that proofreading, right?, is the most difficult step, and also outlining because first you have to decide on which ideas you want to include, and then on how to express those ideas because sometimes you write the first draft and you realise it was not clear and you have to go back to your ideas and you write. It's a never-ending process (Lorenzo, Int.).

He was asked to explain what problems he faced in terms of proofreading, to which he answered:

> Sometimes I find it difficult to get rid of certain expressions, I mean, expression that are common for Spanish speakers because we tend to use certain structures and in English we tend to use other structures (Lorenzo, Int.).

It can therefore be assumed that proofreading entailed for this student features of bottom-up models since his focus was on chunks of language or lexical items (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Anderson, 2013; Grabe, 1988). He considered that his strength was to follow the rhetorical pattern of the genre in question:

> I keep the structure of all different kinds of essays (Lorenzo, Int.).

On the other hand, he believed that he needed to work on the content or development of ideas:

> Sometimes the content is not strong. I need to further develop the ideas. I think it's sometimes a question of playing safe because you have the ideas, there you can give more examples, more evidence, but in order not to run risks, you decide to stop the composition there (Lorenzo, Int.).

When asked about how he could remedy this problem, his answer was by reading. It is apparent that for Lorenzo reading could provide him with ideas to write about in his compositions:

> Sometimes, what I do if I don't know about the topic, I first read. I read from different sources because I consider that different sources can give you different insight on a topic. Once I have a general idea of the topic, I started looking for reliable sources (Lorenzo, Int.).

He regarded summary-analysis essays as the most difficult type of writing and attributed such a difficulty to lack of practice in summarising:

> I think they are one of the most difficult essays, but it's a question of practicing because we are not used to summarising (Lorenzo, Int.).

Lorenzo mentioned to have improved in terms of identification of ideas and better timing to write a summary. The question of relating sources to back up the arguments put forward in the source text was also an issue for this student:

> It was difficult for me to make the connections between the two sources. At the beginning I had the problem of summarising. I could overcome that problem, then I had the problem of looking for information. Once I overcome that, the problem of linking both texts came, and I think we are working on that (Lorenzo, Int.).

4.4.2.3. Amanda

When asked about the aspects of the writing process that she found difficult, Amanda answered that she had "problems organising" (Amanda, Int.) despite writing an outline and resorting to other sources to look for information. In this respect, she expressed

> I sometimes feel a little bit confused because I have so many information, and I'm a bit, I tend to be a bit complicated (Amanda, Int.).

She believed that this difficulty was related to the fact that she tended to devote too much time to details instead of focusing on her essays at a macro level first. This may also be due to information overload: she consulted too many sources whose information she may not have been able to process. She considered that one of her strengths was that she usually had ideas to develop in her essays, mainly to provide sound arguments and she regarded many topics appealing to write about. She made reference to her consulting a lot of sources three times during the interview:

> I tend to look for information before and after doing an essay. I believe it's great because I can have different ideas (Amanda, Int.).

> I have the tendency to resort to different materials, sources in order to make the essay more professional (Amanda, Int.).

> I tend to look for information before and after writing my outline. Then, when I get the ideas that I want to develop, I try to look for some reliable sources in order to back up my sayings, my thoughts (Amanda, Int.).

On the other hand, Amanda stated that she needed to work on vocabulary, and she tried by consulting different types of dictionaries:

> I know that I need to improve my vocabulary. Sometimes, eh, I resort to the same vocabulary, so I try to improve that by consulting the wordreference, collocation dictionary (Amanda, Int.).

She also considered that she had problems summarising:

> I don't have the skill for writing a summary-analysis essay yet... especially because I have problems summarising things (Amanda, Int.).

As to the rhetorical pattern of the type of essay that they wrote, Amanda expressed that her composition did not respect it:

> I end up making a sort of for and against essay, so I knew, I know, that I'm not doing this type of essay in a good way (Amanda, Int.).

She also pointed out that she did not have as much practice in summary-analysis essays as she had in other types of argumentative essays:

> Other argumentative essays were much easier for me because I had more experience writing (Amanda, Int.).

From a genre perspective, this could indicate that this student was not prepared for the independent construction of the text (Hyland, 2007, 2018) and needed the teacher to scaffold her writing performance. These difficulties are also related to Hayes's (2002) model, in which the author postulates that one of the individual's components is their long-term memory, which stores knowledge sources that writers resort to. Of these sources, Amanda was likely to have problems with the task schemas and genre knowledge (Weigle, 2002). This finding is consistent with that of Zhu (2001), who found that ESL graduates reported having difficulties with the rhetorical structure of argumentative essays.

4.4.2.4. Maico

Maico regarded the whole writing process as being problematic to him due to the fact that he did not enjoy writing nor did he think that he could come up with interesting arguments given that he did not read enough. This can be identified as a problem in terms of content:

> For me writing is very difficult because it's a field that I don't like that much, and well, from planning what I'm going to write till the end I have always like problems. Eh, I think that one of my biggest problems is that I don't read that much (Maico, Int.).

According to Hayes (2002, 2012), motivation can have an impact on writing, which can be one of the aspects to help explain why Maico's writing performance was not satisfactory. Other difficulties that he mentioned were planning what to write, writing the thesis statement, and selecting arguments to present convincing supporting evidence:

> When thinking of the thesis statement, I also have some difficulties because there are some topics, there are some many things to focus on, and in order to classify those ideas and decide what to use, what to write about [...] I think that I have difficulties in finding which ideas to support and from which perspective. Well, it was difficult to find other articles that could help me back up my ideas (Maico, Int.).

He provided other reasons to explain why he believed that this was the most difficult type of essay he had ever written. In this respect, Maico referred to the complexity of intertextuality:

> I think that this type of essay is the most difficult because you have to look for other sources, you have to investigate more than in other types of essays (Maico, Int.).
>
> You have to summarise somebody else's ideas, and then you have to back up your ideas using somebody else's ideas, and well it's quite difficult to find three different people who think more or less the same about a certain topic (Maico, Int.).

Like Amanda, Maico also alluded to the rhetorical pattern, which he thought was more difficult to grasp when compared to other genres:

> and well, the structure too because the other argumentative essays you stick to one function, if you have to write a for and against, you focus on the ideas for and against, if you have to focus on an opinion essay, you just think of your opinion (Maico, Int.).

As Verónica and Lorenzo claimed, Maico did not consult another peer before handing in his composition because he knew that his classmates did not have enough time; he proofread his essay himself. As a result, he only got feedback from his teacher:

> I understand that my classmates are running out of time like me so I don't want to bother (Maico, Int.).

4.4.2.5 Summary of the difficulties identified in the students' interviews

Table 4.10 summarises the difficulties which could be identified in the analysis of the interviews with each of the participants. As already pointed out, Maico, Verónica and Lorenzo expressed that they did not ask anyone to read their compositions; they proofread them themselves. This seems to indicate that the concept of literacy as a social practice (Barton & Hamilton, 2000, 2012; Zavala, 2009) is usually limited to students and teachers; learners tend to write for teachers, who are the main audience for their written productions. This finding is also in conflict of the view of writing as "a social practice" (Hyland, 2003b, p. 25) within the genre approach, which is based on the belief that collaborative work among students can enhance the construction of genres and writers' linguistics and rhetorical knowledge (Hyland, 2003a, 2007, 2008).

Table 4.10
Difficulties Identified in the Analysis of the Interviews

Difficulties	Students
Organisation of ideas	Amanda, Lorenzo (outlining) and Maico
Selection of ideas	Verónica, Lorenzo and Maico
Intertextuality	Verónica, Lorenzo and Maico
Rhetorical control	Amanda and Maico
Content	Verónica (conclusion) Lorenzo and Maico
Language	Lorenzo and Amanda
Summarisation	Lorenzo and Amanda
Proofreading	Lorenzo

4.4.3 Summary of findings in relation to research question 4

The triangulation of the results of the written reports and the interviews seems to indicate that five difficulties remain constant in relation to the following aspects: selection of ideas, intertextuality, rhetorical control, content and language. During the interviews, the students alluded to other problems they encountered when writing summary-analysis essays: organisation of ideas, summarising and proofreading. Even though these participants were taking a fourth year subject and had had experiences writing a variety of essays, they were nonetheless confronted with problems in their compositions. These results show that becoming literate is not a process that comes to an end when students have already acquired an advanced level of proficiency as language users need to adhere to the conventions of different genres, which usually takes time and practice within specific disciplines (Carlino, 2003).

4.5 Findings in relation to research question 5: Difficulties identified in students' summary-analysis essays

In this section I will report on the data gathered to answer research question 5 viz., *which problems can be identified in the students' written productions?* The data came from

the scores that the raters gave to the students' compositions based on the ESLPE rating scale and the comments that the raters made in the summary-analysis essays. This section is organised into two subsections: the student participants' writing performance in both drafts and the analysis of the raters' feedback in the participants' summary-analysis essays.

4.5.1 Results of the students' writing performance

The students wrote two drafts of a summary-analysis essay, which two raters scored based on the three writing aspects that the ESLPE rating scale (Appendix G) encompasses, namely content, language and rhetorical control. As explained in Chapter 3, the category *content* referred to clarity of expression, nature of the arguments to back up opinions, relevance of the information included; the label *language* included grammar, vocabulary, register, and mechanics; and *rhetorical control* was related to the presence of background information, a summary of the source text, and the thesis statement in the introduction, topic sentences in each body paragraph, a conclusion, paragraph balance. Table 4.11 and Table 4.12 show the descriptive statistics of the raters' measurement report for each draft. Both tables provide an average of the scores given by the two raters for each writing aspect (Appendix H). It is worth pointing out that scores below 6 as well as less than 60% are non-passing. In the first draft (see Table 4.11), Verónica's and Amanda's weakest point was content, whereas Lorenzo's and Maico's was language. All of them got their higher score for their rhetorical control aspect while Lorenzo had the same score for content (6.5).

Table 4.11
Descriptive Statistics of the Raters' Measurement Report. First Draft

Student	**Content**	**Language** (Grammar, Vocabulary, Register, Mechanics)	**Rhetorical Control**	**Mean total**	**Percentage**
1. Verónica	6.5	7	7.5	**21**	**70%**
2. Lorenzo	6.5	5.5	6.5	**18.5**	**61.66%**
3. Amanda	5.5	6	6.5	**18**	**60%**
4. Maico	5	4	5.5	**14.5**	**48.33%**

Table 4.12
Descriptive Statistics of the Raters' Measurement Report. Second Draft

Student	**Content**	**Language** (Grammar, Vocabulary, Register, Mechanics)	**Rhetorical Control**	**Mean total**	**Percentage**
1. Verónica	7.5	8.5	7.5	**23.5**	**78.33%**
2. Lorenzo	7	6.5	7.5	**21**	**70%**
3. Amanda	6.5	7	7.5	**20.5**	**68.33%**
4. Maico	5.5	4.5	5.5	**15.5**	**51.66%**

In their second drafts (see Table 4.12), they all improved in each aspect except for Verónica and Maico, whose rhetorical control score remained the same. Lorenzo and Maico's lowest score was in relation to language as in their first draft; however, they got a higher score in their second draft. Even though Amanda improved, her lowest score was in content as in her first draft. Verónica obtained the greatest gain of 1.5 as regards language. These findings suggest that the students were mainly aware of the rhetorical structure of this genre (Hyland, 2003a, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2018).

4.5.2 Analysis of the raters' feedback in the participants' summary-analysis essays

The raters' comments[8] in the students' summary-analysis essays were classified into content, language and rhetorical control, and counted in order to have a clear picture of the difficulties that the participants had in their written productions. I compared each rater's comments so as to count the same mistake once if the raters coincided with the feedback provided. Table 4.13 shows the students' difficulties as indicated by the raters' comments in the first draft. As regards *content*, Verónica and Lorenzo were asked to expand on some ideas which the raters considered were unclear or needed to be further developed. In one of the body paragraphs one rater indicated a shift of focus in Lorenzo's essay:

[8] All the excerpts are reproduced verbatim, i.e. linguistic inaccuracies have not been edited. In order to distinguish students' productions from raters' comments, the latter have been italicised.

> In the present, however, many workers have difficulties in deciding on their profession because that implies choosing a job that will represent them – *Unclear. What do you mean?* (Verónica, R1, Cont., draft1).
>
> Sharing one of the meals of the day, doing a special activity together every week, or just take some time to chat are some simple activities which can really enhance family relationships - *This is a well-known fact. Incomplete idea* (Verónica, R2, Cont., draft1).
>
> *You have shifted the focus: The reader expects to know how jobs are related to our identity. Besides, you limited to Europeans and Americans, and professions "which involve interaction." Your example is more related to their social status or how they are regarded in communities* (Lorenzo, R1, Cont., draft1).

In Amanda's case, most observations about content were made in the conclusion, in which ideas that had not been developed in the composition were added. Some of the observations by the raters raised questions about the content of her essay as well:

> *This is not the idea you responded to. You should shift the focus to the ideas developed in the body paragraphs. Check all the ideas you included in the conclusion. Aren't some of them new?* (Amanda, R1, Cont., draft1).
>
> As regard this, the use of human capital may lead to a boost in the economy of a country in which its internal production can be increased due to the incorporation of workers in the system. Additionally, the salary paid by the employers may function as a money injection in the economic market, enabling the flow of cash (Ernst and Berg, 60) – *How does this support economic benefits for workers in the TS* [Thesis statement]*?* (Amanda, R2, Cont., draft1).

Maico was the one who struggled the most in relation to the content of his composition. Most comments indicated that the ideas were not clearly expressed, which was also related to language:

> Workers interpret ambiguous messages and develop a parallel relationship of strong feelings – *Unclear* (Maico, R1, Cont., draft1).
>
> Overworking may be too dangerous because some personal issues are in game; being workaholic can throw away personal structures helping workers to suffer from different symptoms – *Unclear. Who helps workers suffer from …?* (Maico, R2, Cont., draft1).

Maico also included information which the raters identified as being irrelevant because it was not related to the arguments being put forward. A major issue was due to the fact that this participant devoted the last body paragraph to respond to an idea that was not actually developed in the article they read:

> Finally, in the world of working, competence between genders can be easily seen as women are winning more space than men, are achieving aims that they did not expect, and are changing the meaning of roles - *You need to refer to the idea analysed in the original article. You're responding to an idea that is not actually in the text provided* (Maico, R1, Cont., draft1).

A possible explanation for this might be that he misinterpreted the source text. In addition, it can be assumed that, as top-down models suggest, the reader's background knowledge had a role to play in his interaction with the text, which led him to misinterpret at least one idea in the source text. This would indicate that "background knowledge stored in a reader's memory affects the way information is interpreted" (Li & D'Angelo, 2016, p. 168), which exerts an impact on reading comprehension processes. As some scholars (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Barnett, 1989; Carrell, 1988a; Eskey & Grabe, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Hudson, 2007; Samuels & Kamil, 1988) explain, readers usually formulate hypotheses, which they either prove or reject. It may have happened that Maico did not realise that his hypothesis was not acceptable. In Goodman's model, this would mean that Maico did not go through the correcting process, which takes place when the hypothesis is rejected (Barnett, 1989; Grabe & Stoller, 2013).

With regard to *language*, on the whole, the most recurrent types of language mistakes encompass vocabulary mistakes followed by grammar, mechanics and register. Common to all the students were the following observations by the two raters: WW [wrong word], WT [wrong tense], S-V Agreem. [subject-verb agreement], Prep. [preposition], Colloc. [Collocation], Ref. [Reference]. The following empirical evidence also emerged within the language category:

> Moreover, the authors explain that the reason why jobs have become vital in the present days is just because they define who we are – *Check the structure the reason … because ….* (Verónica, R2, Lang., draft1).

> According to Tom Fryers, our work plays an essential part in our identity as European and American culture is driven by work-values – *Check in-text citation* (Lorenzo, R2, Lang., draft1).
>
> All in all, I consider that the balance between work and social life forms the perfect combination for having a blissful existence – *Wordy (Suggestion: "work-life balance"); Colloc.* (Amanda, R1, Lang., draft1).
>
> Nowadays, several women tend to occupy their husbands' chores – *Colloc.* (Maico, R1, Lang., draft1).
>
> Consequently, men may be constantly staying a step behind women in the field of work - *Source of information??* (Maico, R2, Lang., draft1).

In Maico's composition, many language mistakes were pointed out. In some cases, these prevented the raters from understanding what he actually meant to express:

> ...competing for job positions in terms of gender can bring several different changes - *Unclear. Reword* (Maico, R2, Lang., draft1).

With respect to the category *rhetorical control*, the raters' comments were mainly related to the topic sentences and the conclusion of the essay. Amanda, Lorenzo and Maico did not include all the information they were expected to in the topic sentences of each of the body paragraphs:

> *Remember you are analysing and responding to the article Work, Work, Work, and you must refer to it in the topic sentence* (Lorenzo, R1, Rhet., draft1).
>
> *The topic sentence must be your response to the first argument presented in the thesis statement which, in turn, responds to the original article you have read and analysed (Work, Work, Work). What is your standpoint in relation to Evans and Dooley's assumptions about work? Do you agree, disagree, or take a middle standpoint? Only after you have stated it clearly in your topic sentence, can you provide supporting evidence to prove your point, not before. Please, revise the notes on S-A-E [summary-analysis essays] and also your first S-A-E* (Amanda, R1, Rhet., draft1).
>
> *You need to make reference to the article you are responding to and only then provide supporting evidence to back up either your agreement or your disagreement with the author of the original article you are responding to* (Maico, R1, Rhet., draft1).

According to the raters, Verónica's and Amanda's conclusions had to be improved. A concluding statement was missing in Verónica's second body paragraph:

Concluding sentence? (Verónica, R1, Rhet., draft1).

The conclusion is rather short (Verónica, R1, Rhet., draft1).

You are adding a new idea. You are expected to reformulate the introduction, not to add new ideas (Amanda, R1, Rhet.; Cont., draft1).

Table 4.13 shows that all of the students had fewer comments in relation to the category *rhetorical control*, which coincides with the results in Table 4.11. It was followed by the label *content*, which was also the second strongest point for Lorenzo and Maico in Table 4.11, but not for the female students, who got higher scores in terms of language. This can be explained by the fact that more language mistakes are likely to be corrected given the extension of an essay, whereas feedback in terms of content tends to be broader throughout a text. Polio (2003) clarifies that "content is generally a matter of quality, and thus researchers will often use a holistic scale that is part of an analytic scale assessing the entire piece of writing" (p. 42). Besides, within language mistakes there are minor mistakes and errors. In Table 4.13 most of the raters' feedback was about *language use*, which is not surprising when this category encompasses four aspects viz., grammar, vocabulary, register and mechanics. However, a holistic evaluation may result in a lower overall score than the actual instances of mistakes.

Table 4.13
Students' Difficulties as Indicated by the Raters' Comments in the First Draft

Difficulties	Content	Language	Rhetorical control	Total
Verónica	5	41	2	48
Lorenzo	8	47	6	61
Amanda	10	59	6	75
Maico	19	76	5	100

The analysis of the raters' comments in the participants' second drafts (see Table 4.14) shed some light on the scores that the students got. As regards *content*, all of the participants tried to solve the problems identified by R1 in their first drafts. However, some of the changes students made in their second drafts resulted in observations related to content

by the raters, which may help understand why the second drafts did not reflect remarkable improvements, but modest instead. For instance, in Lorenzo's summary-analysis essay, comments on content were mainly made in the second body paragraph, in which there were problems in terms of the arguments presented to support the idea which he was responding to:

> I am convinced that we are succeeding at achieving 'work-life' balance - *How is this related to the ideas in this paragraph?* (Lorenzo, R1, Cont., draft2).
>
> .....most workers are forced to change their lifestyles according to their employment demands - *Are they? Do you think so? How is it so? Isn't it the other way around? This is not explained in the rest of the paragraph* (Lorenzo, R2, Cont., draft2).

Similarly, Amanda also received comments in relation to the category content. One of the raters pointed out that the conclusion had been improved:

> *The changes made in content make this conclusion more accurate – better – than the one in the first draft* (Amanda, R2, Rhet.; Cont., draft2).
>
> *The idea of working in a pleasurable environment is not developed* (Amanda, R1, Cont., draft2).

Even though Maico made a change in terms of the content of the second body paragraph, which improved the quality of his essay since this time the idea he responded to was in the source text, the raters often asked what he meant by some of the ideas expressed:

> ...they are worried about paying too much to employees – *Misinterpreted* (Maico, R2, Cont., draft2).
>
> In brief, addiction to work may make many workers to face the music - *What do you mean?* (Maico, R1, Cont., draft2).

As Matsuda and Silva (2020) contend, "although the ability to write presupposes some level of morphological, lexical and syntactic as well as idiomatic knowledge, such knowledge alone does not guarantee the ability to write well because writing involves much more than constructing grammatical sentences" (p. 283).

In relation to *language*, this type of mistake was prevalent in Maico's composition and had an impact on the development of ideas, that is to say, content. He was actually asked to reword several sentences or phrases:

> They firmly think that workaholics attract some kind of troubles – *Rephrase* (Maico, R1, Lang., draft2).
>
> People who are part of the working environment... – *Rephrase; wordy* (Maico, R1, Lang., draft2).
>
> Having a good eye on details and expert knowledge will frame identity and a set of behaviors that may support strategic thinking –*Unclear. Reword* (Maico, R2, Lang.; Cont., draft2).

In contrast, Verónica had few comments in terms of language mistakes; she actually got the highest score in this category. Lorenzo and Amanda made fewer language mistakes in their second drafts, but they still needed to work on grammar and vocabulary:

> Finally, I completely agree with the idea that, more often than not, an employment can be a wonderful opportunity to make valuable friends... - *WW* (Lorenzo, R1, Lang., draft2).
>
> I coincide with the fact that turned to be "a more important personal identity tag"... - *What turned to be …?* (Lorenzo, R2, Lang., draft2).
>
> …citizens are paying a high price for the new silence of work – *WW; colloc.* (Amanda, R1, Lang., draft2).
>
> Thus, the advantages that work produce... – s*/v agreem; colloc*. (Amanda, R1, Lang., draft2).

It is worth pointing out that in both drafts the four participants made mistakes in terms of citation style: in-text citation and in the works cited page:

> In the past, the type of work done by laborers may not have meant anything for them, since their main goal was to earn money to sustain their family - *Any source of information?* (Verónica, R1, Lang., draft2).
>
> I coincide with the fact that turned to be "a more important personal identity tag..." - *Source? This is a direct quote so you need to add the author-page element* (Lorenzo, R1, Lang., draft2).

> I disagree with Evans' idea that "fewer people are able to feel secure; the need to keep pace with change is tiring and stressful" (Evans 6) – *Check in-text citation* (Lorenzo, R2, Lang., draft2).
>
> Therefore, as the article asserts: "our work simply occupies a more important place in our lives than it did" (1) - *Which one [article]? Specify.* (Amanda, R1, Lang., draft2).
>
> (The Council of Economic Adviser, 4, 9) - *Where is this in the References list?* (Amanda, R2, Lang., draft2).
>
> *You should make reference to this source as well as the last one!* (Maico, R2, Lang., draft2).

This last comment was taken from the bibliography listed in Maico's essay. He listed two sources which did not appear in the body of his composition. This finding is consistent with those of Pecorari (2003), who found that students may unintentionally misuse sources.

With respect to the category of *rhetorical control*, all of the students attempted to act on the suggestions that the R1 made. For instance, overall Verónica did improve the conclusion. She also tried to improve one of the paragraphs by adding the concluding sentence that was missing, but it was not accurate:

> Before choosing a job, employees may consider some of these aspects, bearing in mind that their choice would directly affect the image that other people have of them - *Does this sentence summarise the idea presented in the topic sentence? It sounds like a piece of advice more than a restatement of the topic sentence* (Verónica, R1, Rhet., draft2).

Lorenzo considerably improved the topic sentences as recommended in the first draft, which both raters acknowledged:

> *In his second draft, Lorenzo added the main points to be analysed in each of the body paragraphs of the essay* (Lorenzo, final comment, R2, Rhet., draft2).

In Amanda's composition, one of the raters suggested that the introduction could be further summarised, which had not been pointed out in the first draft:

> *The introduction is rather long* (Amanda, R1, Rhet., draft2).

Maico addressed the problem identified in the first draft; he mentioned the authors of the article he was responding to in the topic sentences of the body paragraphs. However, at times he referred to them in the singular form:

> In the article "Work, Work, Work" the author refers to many postmodern times symptoms - *You should mention them (Evans and Dooley)* (Maico, R1, Lang., draft2); *Who are the authors?* (Maico, R2, Lang., draft2);

Table 4.14
Students' Difficulties as Indicated by the Raters' Comments in the Second Draft

Difficulties	Content	Language	Rhetorical control	Total
Verónica	2	23	3	28
Lorenzo	9	31	3	43
Amanda	5	23	2	30
Maico	10	59	3	72

In their second drafts, all of the students had fewer comments in relation to language. When compared to Table 4.12, Verónica's and Amanda's scores were quite high in the same category, whereas it was Lorenzo's and Maico's weakest point. Amanda got a low score in content in Table 4.12 even though she had five comments on this category in her second draft. All the participants had just a few observations regarding rhetorical control. It is worth pointing out that Lorenzo obtained 70% in his second draft while Amanda got 68.33%. However, he had more comments than Amanda, which can be explained in terms of the type of mistakes they made.

4.6 Summary of this chapter

In this chapter, I have outlined the findings for each of the five research questions of this study. The data analysed suggest that students' perceptions about the relationship between reading and writing were predominantly from reading to writing; the data collected in the questionnaire indicate that the female participants' perspectives were higher than the males' and the three most proficient students' perceptions correlated with their behaviour,

whereas the least proficient participant's did not. In addition, the correlation between participants' written production performance and their perceptions was inconclusive: the students with the highest and the lowest scores in the summary-analysis essays had the highest and lowest range of perspectives respectively; however, the comparison between the two other students' scores did not establish a strong correlation between their perceptions and their writing performance. As regards the reading comprehension test, two students outperformed the participant who had the highest score in the writing assignment, while the student who got the lowest score in the reading comprehension text also obtained the lowest score in the written composition. Consequently, it seems that better readers may not be better writers, which may be related to the different purposes that reading can serve; in the reading comprehension test, the students read a text so as to answer questions based on the article, whilst in the summary-analysis essay they read the source text and other sources to write about a topic. All of the students reported difficulties in writing in relation to language, content, rhetorical control, intertextuality, and the raters' feedback also indicates that the participants needed to improve their compositions in terms of such categories. In the next chapter I will draw conclusions for each of the research questions, I will also refer to the limitations of the present study, I will suggest possible venues for future research, and I will discuss pedagogical implications.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I will first restate the purpose of the present study and research questions, and I will summarise the findings presented in chapter 4. I will then examine the limitations of this study, and I will discuss recommendations for further research. Finally, I will explore pedagogical implications.

5.1 Summary of the findings

The present study was designed to contribute to the understanding of how reading and writing are intertwined in reading-to-write tasks, a requirement in most L2 academic contexts. To that aim, the general objective formulated was to explore the relationship between reading and writing in the process of summary-analysis writing of English Language IV students at the Teacher Training College at the UNVM. Both the purpose and the general objective have been accomplished. Undoubtedly, reading and writing are integrated in summary-analysis essays: students read a source text and other sources to write their own compositions and present arguments to support their views, which accounts for the inherent relationship between these skills. The English Language IV students were cognizant of how they could use reading in their writing, such as to have more background information about the topic, to provide solid evidence to confirm their views, to check their own compositions, inter alia. However, this knowledge is not enough; the other variable that has an impact on students' performance seems to be their individual linguistic capital. This research study has addressed the following research questions posed at the beginning of this study to shed some light on the interplay between reading and writing:

- **Research question 1:** *What are the students' perceptions of the interaction between reading and writing?*

In this study, the female students' perceptions of the reading-writing relations were higher than the males', which meant that Verónica and Amanda were more inclined to regard the literacy skills as integrated. Surprisingly, Maico's perceptions were below the mean in the questionnaire, which can be interpreted as him not displaying a variety of literacy behaviours or not believing that these skills are interdependent. The four participants thought that reading can have a positive impact on writing and more skilful writers are more likely to read more. They actually agreed with the following statements: *I have to read as much as possible to be a good writer; better writers tend to read more than poorer writers*. One of the most significant findings to emerge from this research question is that all of the participants engaged in reading and writing activities regardless of the differences in their perceptions. In this respect, all the learners assigned a high value to these statements in the questionnaire: *When doing my writing assignment, I read the related reading materials; I like to participate in group activities related to reading and writing; I often engage in complex discussion with peers and teachers*.

The data gathered by means of the questionnaire were triangulated with data obtained from interviews with the participants. In the interviews, they referred to different uses they made of reading; for instance, they claimed to read so as to elaborate on ideas in their compositions, to support their views with reliable sources, and to proofread. These are all literacy practices which involve the two skills. This clearly shows that in reading-to-write tasks, "the roles of the reader and writer are combined as one actively reads to sift through source information in order to compose a new text" (Shi, 2018, p. 1). When asked if reading and writing are closely related, the four students answered positively and made reference mainly to reading to integrate information in their writing, an activity which they considered demanding.

The analysis of the questionnaire and the interviews showed that the students' behaviour correlated with their perceptions: the more they showed reading-writing behaviour, the higher their perceptions. This result is in agreement with Kim's (2005) findings, which showed that "L2 learners' perspectives could provide insight into the different ways they engaged in reading in connection to writing" (p. 64). As it has already been indicated in previous chapters, it is usually the case that L2 students are involved in tasks which imply reading and writing (Cumming et al., 2016; Farahzad & Emam, 2010;

Grabe, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a, 2013b; Hirvela, 2007; Horning & Kraemer, 2013; Hudson, 2011; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Plakans et al., 2019; Saville-Troike, 2006; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Taken together, the analysis of the students' perceptions along with the data gathered in the interviews confirms previous findings and contributes additional evidence that suggests that reading serves multiple uses when students are engaged in writing assignments: to develop ideas, to include sound arguments, and to proofread (Hayes, 2002; Jiang et al., 2020; Plakans & Gebril, 2012; Spivey, 1990). Thus, the reading-to-write directional model (Eisterhold, 1990; Hirvela, 2007, 2013a) prevails among this student population.

- **Research question 2:** *How do the students' perceptions correlate with their writing performance?*

As regards the correlation between the students' perceptions and their writing performance, the evidence was inconclusive. A remarkable correlation exists in the case of the participant with the highest perspective score, who achieved the best writing score, and the student with the lowest perspective score, who had the poorest writing performance. In other words, Verónica, who believed in the interplay between reading and writing, got the highest grade in both summary-analysis essay drafts, while Maico, who exhibited the lowest reading-writing behaviour within the group, obtained the lowest scores in the two drafts. In these two cases the participants' perceptions and their writing performance were correlated: the higher the engagement in reading and writing tasks and the belief in the reading–writing linkage, the higher the scores in written productions; on the other hand, the lower the perceptions of the inherent relationship between reading and writing, the lower the scores in writing tasks.

However, this was not the case with the other two students whose score differences were subtle. Lorenzo's and Amanda's perspectives on the reading-writing relationship and summary-analysis essay scores were inversely proportional, i.e., Lorenzo's compositions were rated more highly than Amanda's, but his views on the reading-writing connections were less positive than Amanda's. As reviewed in Chapter 2 in this study, there are a number of factors which impact upon L2 learners' reading and writing performance. Grabe and

Stoller (2013) argue that L2 students' reading ability can be explained in terms of the different reading experiences that they have had as well as their reading behaviour.

- **Research question 3:** *How does the students' reading comprehension of the source text used to write a summary-analysis essay affect their written productions?*

The analysis of the participants' reading comprehension tests and their written productions indicated that students who demonstrated greater reading comprehension ability did not outperform in writing one of their classmates with a lower reading comprehension score. In other words, these students' reading comprehension does not seem to have an impact on their written compositions. In this study the best readers, Lorenzo and Amanda, did not achieve the highest score in the written assignment, but their compositions ranked second and third respectively. On the other hand, Verónica's summary-analysis essay was rated more highly than her classmates', while she got a lower reading comprehension score than Lorenzo and Amanda. In the case of Maico, he obtained non-passing scores in both reading and writing tasks, which may provide evidence of the reading-writing linkage.

This study does not confirm the impact that reading comprehension may have on students' written performance as other research studies have shown (Al-Saadat, 2004; Ito, 2011; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Parodi, 2007; Spivey & King, 1989). However, it does partially substantiate the conceptual premise that reading comprehension differs from reading to integrate information in writing (Asención Delaney, 2008; Grabe & Zhang, 2013b; Hayes, 2002). Some scholars (Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Jiang et al., 2020) list purposes for reading, being reading for general comprehension and reading to integrate information two of them. While the former is regarded as the principal purpose for reading since it is needed to accomplish other reading purposes, the latter "requires additional decisions about the relative importance of complementary, mutually supporting or conflicting information and the likely restructuring of a rhetorical frame to accommodate information from multiple sources" (Grabe & Stoller, 2013, p. 7). Consequently, reading is purposeful in that how language users read depends partially on their reading purposes.

Finally, since Verónica's reading and writing performance did not differ markedly, in fact, she got 77% in the reading comprehension test and 70% and 78.33% in the each of

the drafts respectively, nor did Maico's, who achieved 59% in the reading comprehension test, and 48.33% in the first draft and 51.66% in the second, these literacy skills seem to be closely related as other studies have pointed out (Al-Saadat, 2004; Ito, 2011; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Parodi, 2007; Spivey & King, 1989).

- **Research question 4:** *Which difficulties can be identified when the students describe the steps taken to write their compositions?*

The participants reported some difficulties in their writing of their summary-analysis essays in their written reports and individual interviews. Overall, writing from sources was demanding for these students, especially in terms of establishing connections between different source texts. Such a difficulty is closely related to the notion of intertextuality, which "suggests an authorship constructed through reading, reusing, or reprocessing source texts" (Shi, 2018, p. 1). Other problems that the participants had to overcome include the selection, organisation and flow of ideas, rhetorical control, content, summarisation, proofreading, and language use. Of all these difficulties, three of them are related to the processes that Spivey (1990) claims both readers and writers go through when involved in literacy practices that imply the integration of both skills, namely selecting, organising and connecting. These findings support previous research into L2 writers' difficulties. In this respect, the participants in Zhu's (2001) study also claimed that argumentative writing posed them with some problems viz., structure/organisation, conclusion, vocabulary, and grammar. Similarly, other research studies have found that vocabulary ranks among the difficulties that ESL students encounter along with language (Evans & Green, 2007; Gürel Cennetkuşu, 2017; Lee & Tajino, 2008; Zhu, 2001). Interestingly, two of the students in the present study as some of the participants in other research (Ceylan, 2019; Zhu, 2001) attributed their difficulties in writing this type of essay to their lack of familiarity with the genre and the dearth of practice. This combination of findings provides some support for other research studies on source-based writing, according to which L2 writers find working with sources an onerous task (Doolan & Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2016; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Luo & Kiewra, 2019; Parodi, 2007; Spivey, 1990).

- **Research question 5:** *Which problems can be identified in the students' written productions?*

Students' difficulties were not only reported, but also identified in the scores that the raters gave to the participants' compositions and the raters' comments in the summary-analysis essays. The analysis of the scores revealed that Lorenzo's and Maico's weakest point was language and Verónica's and Amanda's, content. On the other hand, the raters' comments were classified into one of the three categories of the rating score (content, rhetorical control, language) and quantified. The analysis showed that most feedback referred to language problems, followed by content and rhetorical control. As it has been stated, language mistakes tend to be more recurrent than content or rhetorical control observations because they include different aspect of language (vocabulary, grammar, mechanics and register). It is also worth pointing that the learners made changes in their second drafts to correct the mistakes identified by the instructor, who was also one of the teacher-raters; however, in some cases such modifications did also present linguistic problems. As Cumming (2016) argues, "L2 writing is a complex, multifaceted, and variable phenomenon" (p. 65).

The difficulties reported by the students in their written reports and the interviews (research question 4) and the ones identified in their written productions and the raters' scoring sheets (research question 5) invite comparison. The analysis indicates that the students were cognizant of the fact that they found it difficult to connect ideas from sources texts, which was related to some of the raters' comments classified into the content category, such as *what do you mean?; how is this related to the ideas in this paragraph?* The participants expressed that they had to work on the selection, organisation and flow of ideas, which is linked to content as well. The raters made comments in this respect, like *unclear; you have shifted the focus; this is not the idea you responded to.* In addition, the learners anticipated that there would be language mistakes in their compositions, even when they had resorted to dictionaries and had proofread their essays. In this respect, language mistakes were the most recurrent. The only observation that the students did not make was about citation style. When they were asked in the written reports, they claimed to have followed MLA conventions; nonetheless, the raters commented on the need to make changes to abide

by the citation style. As in Zhu's (2001) research, some "weaknesses were observed in some areas in which participants did not perceive and report difficulties" (p. 42).

5.2 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

Even though the present study may have contributed to the comprehension of the reading-writing relationship in source-based tasks, a number of caveats should be noted. One of the limitations lies in the fact that with a small sample size, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be transferable to other educational settings since students' performance and difficulties may vary at other proficiency levels and in other educational institutions. In this study, an intact group was used as a convenience sample (Grifee, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2016; Riazi, 2016), which "is likely to be biased and should not be taken to be representative of the population" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 175). The participants were EFL students at a single university in Argentina taking a subject of the last year of their course of study. The current investigation was also limited since I analysed two drafts of a take-home essay, which may not reflect a student's performance since it can be influenced by other factors. Thus, no definite conclusions can be reached and no generalisations can be made.

Another weakness of this study is related to the data collection instruments employed. The present study used self-report data gathered from written reports, which were triangulated with data collected from interviews in order to identify the students' writing difficulties. The analysis of their compositions also provided evidence to explore problems that writing posed for these learners. However, this study could have been enriched by think-aloud data, which could have yielded invaluable insights into the participants' cognitive processes during writing in order to recognise other difficulties that they may encounter, but whose access is not easy. However, to add more data gathering instances was not possible due to time and institutional limitations since I could not take class time to carry out such a time-consuming process, especially when the data were collected during the last weeks of the academic year.

This research has thrown up many questions in need of further investigation. Future research ought to study the reading-writing relation by conducting a cross regional and cross proficiency level study for a longer period and by replicating the study with a larger sample

size to validate findings. Universities where English academic writing is taught could work closely to study this topic in the context of English Teacher Training colleges from the first to the last years of the degree programs. In addition, future studies should take into account how the conditions under which students carry out writing tasks may or may not influence their performance. In this respect, a longitudinal research study could be carried out as a follow-up investigation (Grifee, 2012) to analyse if students' progress in time as well as their written performance under other circumstances such as in an in-class essay change or remain the same.

If the debate is to be moved forward, a better understanding of students' cognitive processes when writing needs to be developed. A further study with more focus on EFL learners' mental processes while they write is therefore suggested. Extensive research should also be done to investigate the writing-to-read domain, which merits more attention, since research to date has tended to focus on the reading-to-write domain (Gao, 2013; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016). Research into the writing-to-read model has proved that writing can enhance reading and seems to be a promising line of investigation.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

The findings of this study have a number of important implications for EFL teacher educators, especially those who are interested in reading and writing at higher education since this thesis may inform their practices. In this research, reading has proved to be an important component and to play a key role in writing. One of the practical applications of this study could be the adoption of an integrated-skills approach, which would favour the relationship between reading and writing with the ultimate goal of sharpening students' skills. Contrary to the segregated approach, which is focused on the teaching of one skill, the integrated-skills approach can be of two kinds: (a) a semi-integrated approach implies the combination of two skills which are interrelated; and (b) a fully integrated skills approach encompasses students' use of more than two skills (Hirvela, 2013b). This could be applied not only to the regular classes of the subject English Language, but to any of the courses where students are asked to complete source-based tasks "to promote an epistemic use of writing" (Carlino, 2013, p. 364). Most teachers at UNVM subscribe to the view that the joint undertaking of reading and

writing is necessary if L2 students are to acquire academic literacy regardless of the subject in question. This may result in changes in the curricula or syllabi due to questions that may arise in terms of the characteristics of the literacy practices adopted in the different courses so as to account for learners' language differences. In this respect, the demands of these types of activities should tally with the EFL students' proficiency levels to make sure that the goals set are attainable. In other words, professors should design instructional materials and activities tailored to learners' needs and levels aimed at their development of reading and writing skills and mastery of the literacy practices demanded from them. If teacher educators work closely and make informed decisions, students' difficulties may be surmounted and their transition from novice writers to expert writers could be smoother.

Some of the issues emerging from the findings relate specifically to the fact that L2 writing is a challenging undertaking for EFL undergraduates at an advanced level of language proficiency. The participants in this study had difficulties in summarising, selecting information, and integrating source texts into their own productions, which are all typical activities in L2 academic literacy practices (Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Cumming et al., 2016; Grabe & Zhang, 2013a; Hirvela, 2016; J. Li, 2014; Z. Li, 2015; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). These are central concerns in second and foreign language contexts, which need to be addressed during class hours since learners could profit from activities aimed at practicing such abilities. Consequently, the results of this study serve to heighten teachers' concerns about their teaching practices and how we can pave the way for EFL learners' improvement in reading and writing. As Hirvela (2007) remarks, "to learn about writing without learning about reading—and how reading contributes to writing—is to deprive our students of a true *composing* experience that is at the heart of writing" (p. 40).

This study carries another pedagogical implication for teacher educators who are concerned about their students' written productions. As stated above, even EFL undergraduates at an advanced level of language proficiency encounter difficulty in writing. Becoming literate is a never-ending process and different genres and fields of study impose particular demands on writers (Carlino, 2003). Consequently, teachers should not assume that learners have already acquired academic literacy and do not require any explicit explanations about source-based writing. In line with this, given that several scholars (Carlino, 2013; Cho & Brutt-Griffler, 2015; Cumming et al., 2016; Dalla Costa, 2012;

Doolan & Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2016; Emam, 2011; Hayati & Jaya, 2018; Hosseinpur, 2015; Luo & Kiewra, 2019; Marzec-Stawiarska; 2016; McDonough et al., 2014; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Yatsuda, 2015) have suggested that academic writing instruction can have a positive impact on students' compositions, it is my contention that writing instructors should provide instructional scaffolding, which implies offering "students with sufficient supports to promote learning, particularly when new concepts and skills are first being introduced" (Hyland, 2009, p. 118). Such scaffolding should focus on reading, writing and language-related issues, which students tend to have difficulties with. Instructional intervention is likely to help learners upgrade their reading and writing skills and work on their weaknesses. There is, therefore, a definite need for more time devoted to the teaching on writing from sources and reading to write. Given that explicit direct instruction is bound to benefit students' writing and reading performances, these skills are a must in any literacy agenda set to foster the development of L2 academic language competence. In this respect, teachers from disciplines like grammar and linguistics have recently included academic writing as part of their classes at the UNVM.

5.4 Final considerations

This study set out to yield an insight into the understanding of the relationship between reading and writing in the process of summary-analysis writing of English Language IV students at the Teacher Training College at the UNVM. Conducting this research study has broadened my professional and personal experience. This study stemmed from my own concerns about my students' poor writing performance, and it has made me question my teaching practices and think about where the problem lies. During this journey, more questions have arisen and still remain unanswered. I hope this work awakens teacher educators' interest in the reading-writing relationship and the integration of language skills so as to promote proficiency in these literacy skills. This area is becoming increasingly important in applied linguistics and its potential areas of inquiry need to be developed, especially in EFL settings. Undoubtedly, "the complex nature of learning to [read and] write constantly evades adequate explanation" (Hirvela et al., 2016, p. 46), but there is no disputing

the fact that the reading-writing relationship in the construction of meaning is based upon reciprocation.

APPENDIX A

Written Consent Form

Name: _____

I voluntarily agree to participate in Paula A. Camusso's research study done in compliance with the requirements of the Master's in English, Applied Linguistics. All the information collected will be confidential and will only be used for research purposes. The names and samples of the subjects will never be disclosed for any reasons.

Signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire about L2 Learners' Perspectives on Integrating L2 Reading and Writing[9]

The following survey has been designed to examine your views on reading-writing connections. There is no right or wrong answer to each question, but as you answer each question, you, as a college student, are supposed to reveal how you feel about the reading-writing integration and its practices.

A. Background Information

1. Name: _____

2. Age: _____

3. Sex: Male _____ Female _____

4. Nationality: _____

Respond to questions below by using the following rating scale.

1 = strongly disagree / 2 = somewhat disagree / 3 = undecided /

4 = somewhat agree / 5 = strongly agree

A. Continua of Reading-Writing Process					
1 Better readers are necessarily better writers.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
2 I have to read as much as possible to be a good writer.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
3 Better writers tend to read more than poorer writers.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
4 Writing is considered as a by-product of reading.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
5 What you know about reading is similar to what you know about writing.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
6 The way that you comprehend text is similar to the way you compose text.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )

[9] Adapted from Kim, S.-Y. (2005). An exploration of the ESL college learners' perspectives on integrating L2 reading and writing: Dynamics in perspective changes. *Linguistic Research, 22*(2), 61-86.

7 Reading and writing are same abilities you need to develop simultaneously.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
8 There are many common elements shared by both reading and writing.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
9 Better readers tend to produce more quality writing than poorer readers.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
10 Better readers tend to write more than better writers.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )

B. Continua of Individual Behaviours Engaging in Reading in Connection to Writing					
11 I prefer to write what I read (i.e., writing about reading).	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
12 I usually write personal responses regularly when I read.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
13 I have to practice writing although I regularly engage in reading.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
14 I usually integrate reading and writing behaviours instead of giving separate behaviours to each area (i.e., reading and writing).	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
15 I am actively involved in significant writing before, during, or after reading.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
16 I usually engage in writing behaviours based on reading from selected texts.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
17 When doing my writing assignment, I read the related reading materials.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
18 I usually give equal weight when engaging in reading and writing.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
19 Whenever practicing writing, I get some ideas from related reading material.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
20 Reading practice alone is not enough to improve writing skills.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )

C. Continua of Behaviours Engaging in Reading and Writing Through Classroom Practices					
21 I am better in reading and writing that are related to the classroom practice.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
22 I like to participate in group activities related to reading and writing.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
23 I often engage in complex discussion with peers and teachers.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
24 When facing difficulties, I figure them out through interaction with others.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
25 When having expertise, I enjoy helping other students during the class.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
26 When reading or writing in the class, I often share my own idea with others.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
27 I enjoy involving other students in my problems related to reading and writing.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
28 I often learn something while working on ideas brought by peers.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
29 The best way to practice reading and writing is to cooperate with others in the classrooms.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
30 I usually learn something when I participate in reading-writing activities in the classrooms more than I practice reading and writing outside of the class.	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )

APPENDIX C

Reading comprehension test

Work, Work, Work![10]

Stress, sleeplessness, depression, heart disease, shortness of temper, memory loss, anxiety, marital breakdown, child delinquency, the decline of local neighborhoods, RSI, rudeness, suicide, - a mere shortlist of some of the symptoms of the postmodern malaise. The cause of all our woes? Enter, stage right, the prime suspect – work. Wicked, wicked work. An avalanche of surveys, polls and expert commentaries show that we all work too long, too hard; that our bosses are beastly; that we are insecure and afraid. You know all this stuff. We seem to be workers on the verge of a nervous breakdown. So far, so bad. But there's plenty of good news about work, too – even if it is not always shared with the same enthusiasm as the 'Work is Terrible' stories. Four out of ten UK workers declare themselves 'very satisfied' with their jobs, more than in France, Germany, Italy or Spain.

Work has become our national obsession. Whether we are damning the impact of work on our health, our families, our time, or celebrating its new-found flexibility, rewards and opportunities, we are talking, writing and thinking about work like never before. As with so many obsessive relationships, the one with work is a love-hate one. Confusion reigns. **Mixed messages** are everywhere – on the one hand, the government bangs on and on about the importance of paid work, and then cautions about the impact of too much paid work on families. Women celebrate the economic independence work brings, then are made to feel guilty about their children. Salaries go up, but few of us feel richer. We get to a point where we feel OK about our work; and then along comes Martha Lane Fox and we think we've missed the dotcom boat. We find a job we love and so work long hours at it, and then feel that we are failing to get our 'work/life' balance right.

Why is work **under the microscope**? Why all the angst? Perhaps because our work simply occupies a more important place in our lives than it did. Maybe we care, and worry, more about work for the same reason we care and worry so much about our children or our health – because it is important to us. Men and (for the first time in centuries) women are placing work closer to the center of their lives. And maybe that's no bad thing. The 'leisure society' – remember that? – would probably have been a boring place in any case.

Our work fixation springs from a series of profound changes in the nature of employment, all of which push work more deeply into our individual lives, our families and our communities. Work has become a more important element of our personal identity; we have greater control and choice over the shape of our working lives; women have entered and transformed the workplace; the nine-to-five has become more sociable; more of us want or need the financial

[10] Evans, V., & Dooley, J. (2012). *Upstream proficiency* (pp. 192-193). Berkshire: Express Publishing.

independence that a wage offers; and the economic rewards of working have increased – work pays.

Work has become a more important personal identity tag, supplanting the three traditional indicators of our uniqueness – place, faith and blood. As geographical roots have weakened, religious affiliations have diminished and the extended family has dispersed, how we spend our laboring hours has become a more important window into our souls. This trend reflects and reinforces a desire for work which brings personal fulfilment, for work we are proud of. If work means not just income but identity, then the choice of job becomes critical. This is why tobacco companies find it so hard to hire people – to work for them would be to taint your own identity.

But the new salience of work has come with a price; fewer people are able to feel secure; the need to keep pace with change is tiring and stressful; white-collar workers are putting in longer hours to try and keep a toehold – with potentially damaging consequences for the children; and the deification of work threatens to push those who are outside the paid workforce further towards the margins of society. This would not matter so much if work did not matter so much. Not just in terms of income, but in terms of identity. When work becomes more than simply a passport to a pay cheque, when it opens the door to friends, purpose, satisfaction and a place in the world, its absence is more keenly felt. Once we admit the centrality of work to our lives, it might be harder to kid ourselves that we are doing older employees a favor by 'letting them go'.

But we dare not admit work's importance to us. We like to moan about it, preferably with work colleagues just after work. One publisher says: "I love my job, but I feel embarrassed even saying that. My parents think it is sad that the only friends I've got are through work – but I don't see the problem. Funnily enough, we've got lots in common!" The love of your job is now the only one that dare not speak its name. The idea of work as intrinsically bad has poisoned us for too long. The poet and mystic Kahlil Gibran said that work was "love made visible". Wouldn't it be great if we could capture a bit of that spirit, even if just for a while?

A) Read the article and answer the questions (1-7).

1. In the first paragraph the writer implies that

A. workers suffer from mental problems.
B. modern lifestyles can sometimes make us ill.
C. working people are generally insecure people.
D. we exaggerate the negative effects of work.

2. In the second paragraph, the writer gives the impression that

A. people have ambivalent attitudes to work.
B. women should not continue to work.
C. people need a more balanced approach to life.
D. work has made us feel better about ourselves.

3. How does the writer answer the question "Why is work under the microscope" in the third paragraph?

A. Because we worry about it all the time.
B. Because it is as important as our children.
C. Because it is a large part of our lives.
D. Because it can affect our health.

4. The function of the fourth paragraph is to

A. explain the constant need of people to work.
B. examine the changes in the nature of employment.
C. show how work has become a focal point in our lives.
D. summarize the changes in the workplace.

5. In talking about the jobs we choose, the writer says that

A. our families have become less important to us.
B. social change has made work more significant.
C. the type of job is becoming less relevant.
D. money has become a more important factor.

6. According to the article, people who lose their jobs

A. generally welcome the change.
B. may have fewer social relationships.
C. identify strongly with each other.
D. have higher stress levels.

7. From the article as a whole, we understand that the writer believes

A. we should rethink our attitudes to work.
B. we should admit that work is a necessary evil.
C. home life should play a more important role.
D. we should widen our social circles.

B) Answer the following questions.

a) What does the writer mean by the phrase "mixed messages" *(line 17)*?

_____

_____

_____

b) Explain in your own words what the writer means by "under the microscope" *(line 25).*

_____

_____

c) In the fifth paragraph *(lines 40-48)*, what does the writer imply about attitudes to work in the past?

_____

_____

_____

d) In the final paragraph, why might the speaker's parents think it was "sad" that he only made friends through work?

_____

_____

_____

e) What purpose do you think the writer hoped to achieve when writing this article? Has he/she succeeded?

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX D

Take-home summary-analysis essay instruction

Read and analyse "Work, work, work!" from *Upstream Proficiency* (2012). Follow the instructions given by Joy Reid (2000) on summary-analysis compositions.

Some tips:

- Bear in mind the purpose and audience of your composition: knowledgeable readers.
- Briefly summarise the main ideas of the article you have to respond to.
- Choose what ideas presented in the article you want to respond to.
- Develop your thesis statement and topic sentences in depth in well-organised paragraphs.
- Use convincing supporting evidence and specific vocabulary in which you avoid unnecessary repetition of words.
- Write well-developed paragraphs in which you refer and/or resort to reliable sources of information for which you may use your journal.
- Write complex sentences.
- Write about 500 words (without including the introduction).
- Do not forget to write a catchy title.
- Provide a list of cited works following the MLA system.
- Proofread.

Due date: **October 28th, 2015.**

APPENDIX E

Students' written report

Date: _____

STUDENT: _____

REPORT ON SUMMARY-ANALYSIS ESSAY ENTITLED _____

_____

PRE-WRITING STAGE

A. How did you approach the reading of the article you had to respond to? List the steps you took.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

B. Did you plan your composition; i.e. did you outline how the ideas in your essay would be organised? Did you follow the pattern expected for the kind of writing you were supposed to write? Please, attach your outline if you have one.

_____

_____

_____

RHETORICAL CONTROL

C. Focus on the organisation of your essay and answer the following questions:

1. Identify and list the elements that you included in your introduction, e.g. title of the article summarised, author's name, summary.

_____

_____

2. Did you state a sound thesis statement? Write it here:

_____

_____

_____

3. Did you develop your thesis statement throughout your essay? Write the topic sentence of each body paragraph:

Body paragraph 1:

_____

_____

_____

Body paragraph 2:

_____

_____

_____

Body paragraph 3:

_____

_____

_____

CONTENT

D. Concentrate on the ideas you decided to respond to and the justifications, examples, and/or reasons that you included to back up your response, and answer the following questions:

1. Did you first decide what ideas to respond to and then you looked for information to use in your body paragraphs, or did you first consult different sources and select which ones could be used to support your opinion in relation to the author's article?

_____

_____

_____

2. Did you include direct quotations from the sources consulted and/or did you paraphrase your sources? Did you acknowledge your sources? If you did, how? Did you use MLA or APA citation style?

_____

_____

_____

3. What information did you include in your conclusion?

_____

_____

_____

LANGUAGE (Grammar, Vocabulary, Register, Mechanics)

E. Focus on language use and answer the following questions:

1. Did you include both simple and complex sentences? **Yes / No**
2. Did you find any/many problems related to lexis or grammar while you were writing? **Yes / No**
3. Did you consult any sources to clear doubts regarding language use? **Yes / No**

If your answer is yes, give an example.

_____

_____

OVERALL APPRECIATION

F. How confident do you feel about your summary-analysis essay? What was the most difficult aspect you faced when writing your composition?

_____

_____

_____

G. When you get your composition back with the professors' feedback, what do you think you will have to work on/improve in the second draft?

_____

_____

APPENDIX F

Student Interview

1. What aspects of the writing process do you find difficult? What are your strengths and weaknesses in writing?
2. What are your views on summary-analysis essays? Do you find this type of composition easier or more difficult than other kind of argumentative essays like opinion or for and against essays? Why?
3. What steps do you take in order to provide arguments in the body paragraphs?
4. Do you usually include direct quotations or do you paraphrase the sources you have consulted? What do you base your decision on?
5. Do you consult peers or teachers before handing in your compositions? Whose feedback do you value the most? Why?
6. Are reading and writing closely related? Provide examples.

APPENDIX G

ESLPE Rating Scale[11] for the raters to evaluate the students' compositions

Content

9-10	a. The essay fulfils the assignment well and treats the topic with sophistication. The main idea is clear. b. Support is relevant, thorough, and credible.
7-8	a. The essay addresses the assignment appropriately* and is well-developed. The main idea is clear. b. Most of the arguments/ideas are well supported.
5-6	a. The essay addresses the topic appropriately, but may not be well-developed. OR The essay only addresses part of the topic, but develops that part sufficiently. b. Some statements may not be supported or unrelated to main idea.
3-4	a. The essay is inappropriate to assigned topic OR the main idea is not evident. b. The essay contains unsupported or irrelevant statements.
l-2	a. The paper lacks a clear main idea. b. Several statements are unsupported, and ideas are not developed. OR Not enough material to evaluate.

*NOTE: Appropriate is defined as addressing all aspects of a topic, for example, both advantages and disadvantages, or all characteristics in questions involving choices. Furthermore, all parts of the prompt should be touched on.

Language (Grammar, Vocabulary, Register, Mechanics)

9-10	a. Except for rare minor errors, the grammar is native-like.

[11] Adapted from Weigle, S. C. (1999). Investigating rater/prompt interactions in writing assessment: Quantitative and qualitative approaches. *Assessing Writing, 6* (2), 145-178.

	b. There is an effective balance of simple and complex sentence patterns with coordination and subordination. c. Excellent, near-native academic vocabulary and register. Few problems with word choice.
7-8	a. Minor errors in articles, verb agreement, word form, verb form (tense, aspect) and no incomplete sentences. Meaning is never obscured and there is a clear grasp of English sentence structure. b. There is usually a good balance of simple and complex sentences both appropriately constructed. c. Generally, there is appropriate use of academic vocabulary and register with some errors in word choice OR writing is fluent and native-like but lacks appropriate academic register and sophisticated vocabulary.
5-6	a. Errors in article use and verb agreement and several errors in verb form and/or word form. May be some incomplete sentences. Errors almost never obscure meaning. b. Either too many simple sentences or complex ones that are too long to process. c. May be frequent problems with word choice; vocabulary is inaccurate or imprecise. Register lacks proper levels of sophistication.
3-4	a. Several errors in all areas of grammar which often interfere with communication, although there is knowledge of basic sentence structure. b. No variation in sentence structure. c. Frequent errors in word choice (i.e., wrong word, not simply vague or informal word). Register is inappropriate for academic writing.
l-2	a. There are problems not only with verb formation, articles, and incomplete sentences, but sentence construction is so poor that sentences are often incomprehensible.

	b. Sentences that are comprehensible are extremely simple constructions. c. Vocabulary too simple to express meaning and/or severe errors in word choice. OR Not enough material to evaluate.

Rhetorical Control

9-10	a. Introduction and conclusion effectively fulfil their separate purposes: The introduction effectively orients the reader to the topic and the conclusion not only reinforces the thesis but provides new insight. The introduction includes the author's name (source text), the title of the article, a summary and the student's opinion about the main points of the article. The summary is objective, complete and balanced.[12] b. Paragraphs are separate, yet cohesive, logical units. Sentences form a well-connected series of ideas of logical steps with clarity and efficiency.
7-8	a. The introduction presents the controlling idea, gives the reader the necessary background information, and orients the reader, although there may be some lack of originality in the presentation. The conclusion restates the controlling idea and provides a valid interpretation but may not provide new insight. The introduction does not include two of the following elements: the author's name (source text), the title of the article, a summary and the student's opinion about the main points of the article, or the summary lacks two of its qualities viz., objectivity, completeness or balance. b. Paragraphs are usually logically developed and cohesive. Sentences are usually well-connected.

[12] Reid, J. (2000). *The process of composition* (3rd ed.). New York: Longman.

5-6	a. Introduction presents the controlling ideas but may do so mechanically or may not orient the reader to the topic effectively. The conclusion does not give the reader new insights or may contain some extraneous information. The introduction does not include four of the following elements: the author's name (source text), the title of the article, a summary and the student's opinion about the main points of the article or the summary lacks two of its qualities viz., objectivity, completeness or balance. b. Paragraphs are sometimes incompletely or illogically developed. Sentences may not be well-connected.
3-4	a. Introduction and conclusion do not restate the controlling idea. Introduction fails to orient the reader adequately, and the conclusion may not be tied to the rest of the essay. The introduction does not include any of the following elements: the author's name (source text), the title of the article, a summary and the student's opinion about the main points of the article. b. Paragraphs are often incompletely or illogically developed and sentences are not well-connected.
1-2	a. Introduction and conclusion are missing or unrelated to the rest of the essay. b. There is no attempt to divide the essay into conceptual paragraphs, or the paragraphs are unrelated and the progression of ideas is very difficult to follow. OR Not enough material to evaluate.

Scoring scale used in English Language IV

4 60-65
5 66-71
6 72-77
7 78-83
8 84-89
9 90-95
10 96-100

APPENDIX H

Scoring Sheet

Rater's name: _____

Student	**Content**	**Language** (Grammar, Vocabulary, Register, Mechanics)	**Rhetorical Control**	**Score**
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				

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