GÖTEBORGS UNIVERSITET

Writing Strategies Used by EFL Students in the Swedish Upper Secondary School Classroom

An Empirical Study

Sara Granbeck

Ämneslärarprogrammet

Degree essay: 15 hp
Course: LGEN2A
Level: Undergraduate/Advanced level
Term/year: VT/2021
Supervisor: Asha Tickoo
Examiner: Pia Köhlmyr

Keywords: Language learning strategies, LLS, strategy choice, self-regulated learning, writing strategies, writing skill, EFL, upper secondary school

Abstract

Strategies for language learning, and how learners might apply them to acquire the language skills and the ability to communicate with success, are important for teachers to understand. To approach a writing task, there are certain strategies that might be used at a higher frequency than others, depending on the learner. This study looked into the strategies applied during the writing process by 31 EFL learners from two Swedish upper secondary schools. A questionnaire was used to allow the participants to report at which frequency they apply certain strategies by making use of a five-point Likert scale structure. As previous studies have been carried through using the same questionnaire, valuable comparisons could be made. The results showed, in accordance with previous research, that learners use while-writing strategies at a higher frequency than pre-writing or revising strategies, and that teacher feedback is used at the highest frequency during the revising strategy stage. It is thusly suggested that teachers use these opportunities to the best advantage, to provide their students with formative feedback that will help them develop their ability to make autonomous choices when applying strategies.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

It is well-known that a student's behaviour in the classroom will affect their learning, and subsequently their performance. Not only does their attitude towards learning play a part, but their study technique, the method through which a student learns, also matters. What a student does to be able to learn will have an impact on their likelihood of success in the classroom. The strategies they employ when learning, and their understanding of the strategies available to them, are thusly of importance.

When it comes to language learning, *language learning strategies* (LLS) are used to acquire the language skills needed to successfully communicate with other people (Oxford, 1990). While this field of research has been explored through the years, less attention has been put on strategies in relation to specific language skills. In regards to the writing skill, and the strategies used to develop it, most of the research on it has been focused on L1 learners of English, leaving a bit of a gap when it comes to L2 learners of English (Petrić and Czárl, 2003). This becomes even more evident if we consider the amount of L2 learners of English that we can find worldwide.

Across the globe, people learn English as a foreign language (EFL), and, due to diverse cultural values, school systems and teacher guidelines differ greatly. This means that learners of English may have varying and, in some cases, unequal opportunities for learning the language. Furthermore, cultural background is something that is known to affect strategy choice, strategy assessment, and strategy instruction (Oxford, 1996). The Swedish National Agency for Education demands that upper secondary school English teachers provide students with "the opportunity to develop their ability to use different strategies to support communication and to solve problems when language skills are inadequate" (Skolverket, 2011a). This can be interpreted as teachers in Sweden being expected to implement strategy instruction in the classroom and their respective teaching. It is therefore essential for teachers in Sweden to develop sufficient understanding of LLS and effective strategy instruction, in order to do what is expected of them and give students in Swedish schools a greater opportunity for success.

It is not only good for Swedish teachers, however, to understand LLS and the effect strategy choice has on learning. On a grander scale, it is good for teachers as a whole, globally, to be able to see how language learning is executed through learning strategies, as international migration has seen rapid growth over recent years both in developed and developing regions (United Nations, 2019). Students and learners from different backgrounds

interact more than they ever have before; to be able to provide all students with as equally beneficial opportunities as possible, understanding the effect culture has on strategy use and choice is of obvious importance (Oxford, 1996).

The aim of the present study is to explore the strategies used by EFL students in the Swedish upper secondary school classroom during the writing process. The research questions that are sought to be answered are:

1. What writing strategies do Swedish upper secondary school students use during the writing process?
2. Do the results align with the results from previous research?

The purpose of the study is to add to the field of research, as little research has been carried out previously with EFL learners in Sweden being the focus group, and to shine further light on the importance of the explicit teaching of strategies to professionals both in Sweden, and globally.

2 Theoretical Background and Previous Research

The literature review section is divided into three subsections based on concepts that have been identified as needing to be established in order to understand the theoretical framework that this study was founded on. The three relevant concepts are: (1) language learning strategies, (2) writing strategies, and (3) factors that affect strategy choice. Other than shining a light on definitions and categorisations used to discuss these concepts, previous studies that have documented valuable insights on the topics will also be detailed accordingly.

2.1 Language Learning Strategies

There are many ways to categorise, conceptualise and define strategies for language learning, and the opinion on which is the most accurate varies. Oxford (1990), however, remains one of the most cited and referenced sources in the field. Though her LLS categorisation has been criticised and contested by some since it was introduced in the 90s (for example, Dörnyei, 2005; Grenfell & Macaro, 2007), it is widely used and built upon through various studies exploring strategy use and instruction, making it highly relevant even today.

Before going into an explanation of LLS, however, it is important to clarify the meaning of the term strategy for language learning. This term too has seen many explanations through

the years, and again we will turn to Oxford's research for clarity. Oxford (2017) studied and compared 33 different definitions of strategies for language learning, made by various researchers, in order to produce a comprehensive description that should agree with the true meaning of the concept. She subsequently defined L2 learning strategies the following way:

> L2 learning strategies are complex, dynamic thoughts and actions, selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, emotional, and social) for the purpose of (a) accomplishing language tasks; (b) improving language performance or use; and/or (c) enhancing long-term proficiency. Strategies are mentally guided but may also have physical and therefore observable manifestations. Learners often use strategies flexibly and creatively; combine them in various ways, such as strategy clusters or strategy chains; and orchestrate them to meet learning needs. Strategies are teachable. Learners in their contexts decide which strategies to use. Appropriateness of strategies depends on multiple personal and contextual factors. (p. 48)

Essentially, what this means is that L2 learning strategies are used for the purpose of being able to successfully communicate, or to improve and enhance the communicative skills. Strategies can be observable, but not all of them are. Furthermore, learners employ strategy choice according to need, meaning that strategies can be taught and combined to suit tasks and communicative challenges (Oxford, 2017).

In fact, strategy choice is central to language learning, as the ability to consciously decide how to tackle language allows learners to use self-regulation to develop their skills. Self-regulated learning (SRL) is another notable term used within the field of research, and is used to describe the process in which a learner controls their learning through making autonomous choices. Though the concepts of SRL and LLS have been made to compete with each other by researcher disagreements, they are both tackling different angles of the same issue, with SRL focusing on what drives a student forward in their learning process and with LLS, in turn, looking at the resulting effects (Rose, 2011). Fundamentally, "[s]trategies continue to be an integral, process-oriented part of self-regulated learning" (Oxford, 2017, p. 29), making the separation of the concepts difficult.

LLS, then, is a categorisation made to make sense of the different kinds of strategies used when a learner acquires the language skills in order to be able to successfully communicate. Oxford (1990) divides LLS into two categories, direct strategies and indirect

strategies, and within those two uses six different sub-categorisations to further section out and specify the types of strategies. Direct strategies are so named for the way that language is, through the strategies, directly applied through mental processing. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are so named because the strategies involved navigate and control language learning without the direct involvement of language itself. As can be seen in Figure 1, direct strategies consist of memory, cognitive and compensation strategies, and indirect strategies consist of metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

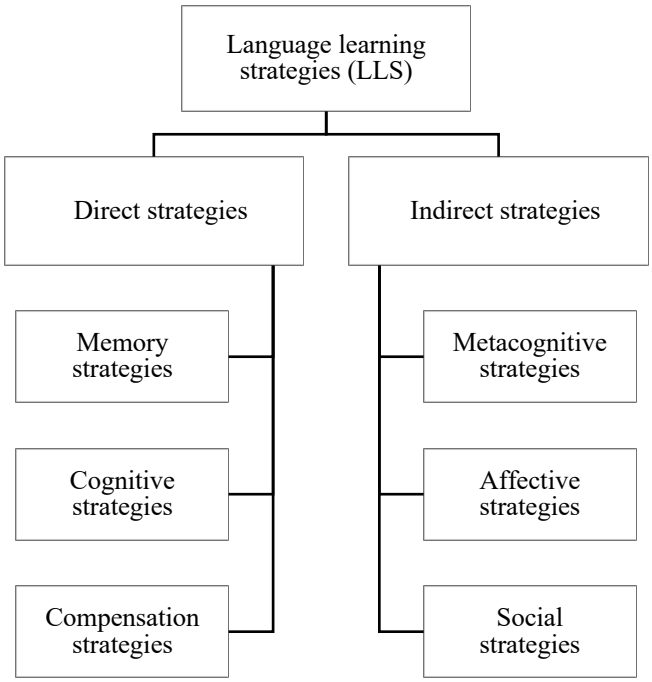

Figure 1 *The Categorisation of Language Learning Strategies* (based on Oxford, 1990)

Note. A hierarchal representation of how LLS are categorised.

Memory strategies involve the learner maintaining and working to preserve newly learnt knowledge; cognitive strategies have to do with the learner using the target language to be able to understand it, manipulating the language to learn; and compensation strategies are used when the learner needs to make up for a lack in language ability. Metacognitive strategies have the learner structuring and coordinating their learning according to what they think is needed; affective strategies are used to manipulate a learners emotions to generate a positive attitude towards learning; and social strategies involve interacting with others to learn, through modes such as asking for help, and cooperating with others to solve problems. All categories of strategies affect and influence each other, so while the categorisations are

made to create structure within the concept, this interdependent relationship is important to keep in mind (Oxford, 1990).

As for studies that have been made on LLS, they tend to focus on either frequency of strategy use or the effect of strategy instruction. Baker and Boonkit (2004) looked into the strategies used by high achieving learners and compared them to less successful learners through a survey, diaries and interviews. The 107 EFL students that participated were attending university in Thailand. Despite the difference in success that the learner groups had seen, the frequency of writing strategy use was similar. However, while the overall writing strategy saw compensation strategies used at the highest frequency, the high achieving students used cognitive strategies at the highest rate. The strategies that were used at the lowest frequency were affective and social strategies, with both high and low achievers using social strategies the least.

Focusing instead on cognitive strategies in particular, Olson et al. (2012) studied the effect strategy instruction has on secondary school students. The study had 72 teachers taking part in a professional development training course, and their approximately 2000 secondary school students received strategy instruction thereafter. The two-year long study took place in 9 middle schools and 6 high schools in the US, in which a majority of the students were ESL learners. The results showed that explicit strategy instruction has a positive effect on student performance, and Olson et al. (2012) state, more specifically, that learners of English are able to participate in "higher level interpretive reading and analytical writing about texts through direct strategy instruction, modeling of strategy use, and [opportunities created] for students to practice and apply these skills through teacher coaching and feedback" (Olson et al., 2012, p. 348).

Taking another route, Al-Jarrah, Mansor and Rashid (2018) focused on metacognitive strategy instruction. The participants in their study were 44 Jordanian upper secondary school students learning English, half of whom received metacognitive strategy instruction, with the other half acting as the control group. The results showed that metacognitive strategy instruction had a significant effect on writing ability both in the post-test and delayed test. Similar results were found by Nguyen and Gu (2013) who studied the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on 37 learners of English from a university in Vietnam. They too made use of the pre-, post- and delayed test structure, and also saw a significant effect from metacognitive strategy instruction.

Deciding to test the effect of both cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction for comparison, Pitenoee, Modaberi and Ardestani (2017) divided the participants of their study

into three groups, where one got cognitive strategy instruction, one metacognitive, and one acted as the control group. The 75 EFL learners ranged from age 13-17, were considered intermediate learners of English, and were found through two private language institutes in Iran. Through pre- and post-tests, results showed that both cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction had a positive effect on the writing performance. However, the group that received metacognitive strategy instruction performed better than both other groups.

Rather than focusing on one kind of strategy, Menbet (2018) did a study on dyslectic EFL learners' writing ability, and wanted to find strategies that could be used to aid students with learning impediments. Concentrating on the effectiveness of specific writing strategies, she worked with four teachers and 29 students, age 8-12, to try to see which strategy was the most beneficial. The results showed that no strategy or approach was more suitable than another, and that instead they all were of similar or equal value. The significance of the strategies had less to do with specific strategy use, and more to do with the needs of the learner. The conclusion drawn was that it is up to the teacher to let students try a plethora of writing strategies, through instruction, and deduce with the learner what suits them best.

2.2 Writing Strategies

When it comes to the four language skills, the separation of them for scientific research is difficult in praxis. In the field of LLS, it is obvious through the fact that while certain strategies apply only to writing, there are many that are applicable to all four language skills (Oxford, 1990). Furthermore, if writing strategy instruction is to take place, it is not realistic to conduct it without also letting learners read (Oxford, 2017), meaning that the strategies themselves demand the use of different skills to learn each one. The awareness of this strategy overlap and the co-dependence of the language skills is important when conducting research that is dedicated to specific strategies or skills (Oxford, 1990; Baker & Boonkit, 2004).

As for a definition of *writing strategies*, since the present study makes use of a questionnaire developed specifically to investigate strategies used during writing production, focus is put on the definition used in the creation of this questionnaire. Petrić and Czárl (2003) defined writing strategies as "actions or behaviours consciously carried out by writers in order to make their writing more efficient" (p. 189). They emphasised, however, that the focus put on learners' perceptions of their strategy use means that strategies that are subconsciously carried out are not included in the definition. Furthermore, the lack of observability of the internal, and not mechanical, activity used during the writing process can

make it hard to identify strategy use, if learners are not already inherently aware of using them (Oxford, 2017). This means that some strategies might be used but not identified, and consequently not reported.

The linear structure of the writing process can be divided into three distinct subcategories, or stages, namely: *the pre-writing strategy stage*, *while-writing strategy stage*, and *revising strategy stage*. Pre-writing strategies refer to strategies used before the actual writing has started, for example creating a time-table or creating an outline; while-writing strategies have to do with strategies used when writing production is ongoing, such as reading passages aloud as you write or making use of a dictionary; and, finally, revising strategies are strategies used when a text has been produced but can be improved upon, by, for example, making changes in sentence structure or rewriting sections (Petrić & Czárl, 2003; Chen 2011). Notably, there are strategies that are applicable to all three steps of the writing process (Petrić & Czárl, 2003). Sitting in a quiet area, playing music or eating something delicious whilst working, to create a good mood for learning, are some examples of affective strategies that are applicable throughout the writing process. However, these three examples of strategies are also applicable to situations where the task has to do with reading, listening and/or speaking, meaning that, although they could be useful when completing a writing task, their broad application to both different strategy stages and language skills makes them difficult to categorise as writing strategies per Petrić and Czárl's (2003) categorisation.

Chen (2011), whose study participants were university students with Mandarin as their L1, and Maroof and Murat (2013) whose study participants were Malaysian upper secondary EFL students, are researchers of two studies that made use of the Petrić and Czárl questionnaire. Their research into writing strategy use illustrated that while-writing strategies are used at a higher frequency than pre-writing and revising strategies (Chen, 2011; Maroof & Murat, 2013). However, one of the studies also claimed that high-proficiency learners use pre-writing strategies at a higher rate than low-proficiency learners do (Maroof & Murat, 2013).

2.3 Factors That Affect Strategy Choice

There are many factors that affect strategy choice, and though some have been briefly touched upon in previous sections, this section will go more into detail of what those factors may be. Oxford (1990) lists "degree of awareness, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectations, age, sex, nationality/ethnicity, general learning style, personality traits, motivation level, and purpose for learning the language" (p. 13) as some relevant factors. Not

all of those will be given attention in this paper, but they are all of value when searching for understanding of learners' strategy choices.

For teachers, it is of importance to understand what may be affecting their students' choices and the approach they have towards language learning, the reason being that by understanding what affects their students, teachers should be able to implement strategy instruction more effectively. Furthermore, by helping them to see what affects the choices they make, learners can be more aware and autonomous, and will be able to better help themselves adjust their learning process to what they find most useful, effective or suitable (Oxford, 1990).

As was mentioned in the introduction of this paper, culture is a factor that affects strategy choice. Trying to define culture, however, can be difficult, as it consists of many different societal aspects. To explain the significance of culture when it comes to language learning it can be said that "the setting and the activity in which knowledge is developed are not separable from learning, nor are they neutral; they are an integral part of the learning" (Oxford, 1996, p. x). So, as much as teachers and schools try to create a functional learning environment, they too are affected by and part of the culture that affects learners, which in turn affects their learning process and the steps that the learners themselves take to learn.

Closely tied to culture, the first language of a learner might affect their strategy choice as well. Guo and Huang (2020) has looked into L1 writing strategy transferability, meaning that in their study they compare the writing strategies used during L1 production to the writing strategies used during L2 production. In trying to identify agreement between the two, they theorised that a learner who makes effective strategy choices for writing in their L1, should be able to transfer that ability to their L2 writing. The participants of the study were 35 international students at a North American university, all speaking Mandarin as their L1. Making use of a questionnaire, a writing task, a talk-aloud protocol, and a post-task interview they came to the conclusion that there is a correlation between the strategies used in L1 writing and L2 writing. However, despite the established link between L1 strategy choice and L2 strategy choice, the participants used metacognitive strategies at the highest frequency when writing in their L1, and when writing in their L2 they used cognitive strategies at the highest frequency.

When it comes to learners' motivation, Csizér and Tankó (2015) studied the effect motivation has on the self-regulation strategies used in academic writing. The 222 participants of their study were English majors at a Hungarian university and they were asked to fill in a questionnaire, to provide data for the study. Through analysing the data, a link between

learners' self-regulatory strategies and motivation was established. Furthermore, it was acknowledged that a learner's writing anxiety, i.e. the pressure they felt when it came to their writing performance, affects their usage of self-regulatory strategies. To their surprise, however, the results also showed that despite being English majors, only a third of the participating students used strategies at a high frequency. Subsequently, the conclusion that was drawn was that even advanced learners might have difficulty in implementing strategy use, which makes it clear that strategy instruction can be used to learners' advantage even at a higher level of learning.

Self-efficacy too is considered important when it comes to learning, and can be defined as "the person's level of confidence (belief) that [they] can successfully carry out an action to achieve a specific goal in a particular setting under certain conditions" (Oxford, 2017, p. 85). Nosratinia, Seveiy and Zaker (2014) state that a person who views themselves as a successful learner will most likely implement strategies more effectively through self-control. To be able to look into learners' self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness and use of language learning strategies they had 143 Iranian EFL university students filling in several questionnaires for analysis and comparison. Through this study they also observed that it works the other way around as well; being able to use strategies successfully and feeling in control will help learners with their self-efficacy.

Agreeing with this notion, Liu and Chang (2013) came to a similar conclusion in their study of 163 university EFL learners from Taiwan. Although their focus was academic self-concept, this is closely connected to self-efficacy as both terms define a learner's view of themselves. Other than reaching a similar conclusion, they additionally specified that teachers and language instructors should provide their students with positive stimulation in order to help them associate themselves with successful learning.

3 Methodology

The methodology used for this paper has been divided into two sections, to explain (1) the method for gathering data, and (2) the method for analysing data.

3.1 Method for Gathering Data

The focus in this paper is put on the strategies used by upper secondary school students in Swedish classrooms, meaning that what is being handled is behavioural information

dependent on the reporting of actions (McKay, 2006). This was done through a survey, and the decision was made to use the questionnaire developed by Petrić and Czárl (2003), Appendix A. The reasoning surrounding this decision was firstly that the structure of the questionnaire, where it follows the linear writing process, makes it readily approachable for the participants in the study. Being upper secondary school students, the participants are most likely not familiar with the field of research, and the lack of time available disallowed going into explanations of it. However, through their schooling, they have the writing experience needed to identify the linear structure as something recognisable (Petrić & Czárl, 2003). The second reason for choosing to use the questionnaire was to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collection process, since it has already been tested and used to gather data (Chen, 2011; Maroof &Murat, 2013). The fact that the questionnaire has already been used by other researchers also allows for the possibility of making a comparison between studies.

The construction of the questionnaire, where statements exemplifying writing strategies are presented, makes use of a five-point Likert scale that allows participants to report the frequency of their strategy use. The five options are, in order from 1-5, *never true*, *usually not true*, *somewhat true*, *usually true*, and *always true*. Through answering, the participants report the frequency with which they use each writing strategy presented. The questionnaire is split into different stages following the categorisation discussed in section 2.2 of this paper, the pre-writing strategy stage, the while-writing strategy stage, and the revising strategy stage, with each stage having a number of strategies assigned to it.

In making sure that the participants would be able to understand each statement in the questionnaire, changes were made to question statements 2.2.7, 2.2.12, 2.2.13 and 2.3.16 in the questionnaire, Appendix A. This was done according to comments made by Petrić & Czárl (2003) on validity and suggestions for revision, as is detailed in Table 1. Although other changes were considered, only these were deemed necessary.

Table 1 *Changes Made to the Questionnaire*

Original question statement	Revised statement used in form
2.2.7 I go for sure in grammar and vocabulary.	2.7 I only use words which I am sure are correct.
2.2.12 I use a bilingual dictionary.	2.12 I use a bilingual dictionary (English and additional language used in dictionary).[a]
2.2.13 I use a monolingual dictionary.	2.13 I use a monolingual dictionary (English only dictionary).[a]
2.3.16 I check my mistakes after I get back the paper with feedback from the teacher, and try to learn from them.	3.16 I check my feedback after I get the paper back from the teacher, and try to learn from it.

Note. In this table, statements that were revised and changed are shown, for transparency.

[a] Although the brackets of these statements were included in the form the participants of the study filled in, they were excluded from the table in Appendix B.

As for finding respondents for the survey, upper secondary school students were needed, and, to create more of a homogenous group, the decision was made to have students from the same course, *English 6*, answer the survey. In Sweden, English 6 is the second English course taken in upper secondary school and it is compulsory for all upper secondary school programs that are preparational for college and university studies (Skolverket, 2011b). Initially, the idea was to have students from 3-4 classes from different schools participate, but due to the COVID-19 restrictions finding respondents was made more difficult. A large number of upper secondary schools were randomly selected and contacted to check for availability and interest in participating in the study, but as school policies surrounding research participation were altered due to the already heavy burden of online teaching a vast majority declined to participate. Instead, 31 students from two different English 6 classes from two different schools participated, with 15 respondents from one school and 16 from the other.

The distribution of the questionnaire happened digitally, as the survey itself was digitalised through Google Forms. The questionnaire was filled in anonymously, and the only personal information asked for was gender and native language, which means that there are less issues regarding the sensitivity of the documents. Additionally, participants could choose to not disclose their gender identity, which one participant chose to do. Without participant names and contact information, the handling of the filled in questionnaires should not be as precarious as it could be otherwise. To ensure that it would remain anonymous, results were not checked before both groups of participants had answered. Additionally, email addresses

and response receipts were not collected. Before allowing the participants to fill in the survey, a section was added with vital information regarding the handling of the data, the ensured anonymity, and the ability to at any time when filling in the survey choose to no longer participate without repercussions or judgement. This additional section was placed first and the respondents had to ensure, through a required question, that they had read and understood all of the information before proceeding. The reason for the addition of this section was the importance of transparency regarding the purpose and integrity of the study (Vetenskapsrådet, 2017). Not only is it necessary to keep participants informed, but it is also possible that through informing them of the purpose of the study they will feel further inclined to answer questions truthfully and attentively (McKay, 2006). Additionally, the notification sent to the students to declare that the survey had been submitted was also edited to thank them for the participation, and to encourage them to reach out if they had any questions. An email address for such communication was also added to the submission notification. Although given the possibility of doing so, no participant reached out after the survey had been sent out, nor did either of their two English teachers.

The decision was made to not translate the questionnaire into Swedish, despite being distributed to students in Swedish schools, since odds were they were not all going to have Swedish as their L1. Furthermore, it was concluded that since the participants were all English 6 students they should be able to fill in the questionnaire without much difficulty. This decision also removed the risk of strategies being distorted in translation, which would have made a comparison between this study and other ones using the same questionnaire less simple.

Initially, the possibility of also gathering data on the factors that affect strategy choice was considered, but there are two major reasons as to why that was not done. The first reason was the small number of participants, where looking to divide the group into smaller units depending on things such as gender or L1 would have made the data difficult to analyse. For gender, the 10 male participants and 20 female participants did not feel comparable to a study meant to be of a quantitative quality. Similarly, splitting the participants into groups based on their L1 being Swedish or another language would have been possible. However, only 28 participants gave a response to this question, with 16 reporting that their L1 is Swedish.

The second reason for not looking at factors affecting strategy choice, is that although the question regarding whether the participants like to write in English could be interpreted as students being likely to be motivated, such a link is not guaranteed. While being motivated to learn English, and liking to write in English can be intertwined and might affect each other,

they are not mutually exclusive, and one can exist without the other. Furthermore, not all students of the two classes involved in the study decided to participate. While 20 of the participants reported that they like writing in English, or even like it a lot, 9 felt neutral about it and 2 reported that they do not like it. It is possible that the overall positive attitude towards writing in English stems from the fact that students who like English might feel more inclined to participate in a study about writing strategies. As there is no way of knowing whether that is the case for the participants in this study, the risk of making inaccurate presumptions based on this made the involvement of the "liking to write" factor less interesting.

It is also important to note that while it has been stated that culture affects strategy choice (Oxford, 1996), and while comparisons have been made between the result of this study with results from studies having taken place in various other countries, the cultural aspect has not been the focal point in the writing of this paper. This means that while this study adds to the field of research with a look into EFL learners in Sweden, Swedish cultural values and how they might affect learners are not discussed.

3.2 Method for Analysing Data

The analysis of the data required two distinct steps, namely studying the quantitative measures and numeral values, and comparing the results with previous research. In accomplishing the first, the participants' answers to the questionnaire statements were compiled into a table, where the answers to each of the five Likert scale options are clearly shown for each statement included in the questionnaire, see Appendix B.

As the five point Likert scale is used in the questionnaire, it was possible to calculate the mean of each strategy statement, see Equation 1. This was done and tested more than once, to ensure the correctness of the result. For each strategy statement the number of responses were also counted, as not all participants put responses down for all of the strategy statements.

$$1(a) + 2(b) + 3(c) + 4(d) + 5(f) \,/\, (a + b + c + d + f) \qquad (1)$$

As each of the strategies then had a mean to denote the frequency at which they were used, these means could be used to calculate the average use of each strategy stage, see Appendix B. However, not all means were used for these strategy stage averages as certain statements in the questionnaire are technically not writing strategies, but rather depict the lack of strategy use. An example of this is the statement *when I have written my paper, I hand it in without*

reading it, which describes the absence of revising strategy use. To use the means of these statements that do not demonstrate strategy use would be misrepresentative, which is why it was made sure that they were not included when calculating the strategy stage averages. The final number calculated was to determine the overall frequency of strategy use.

In the creation of the table in Appendix B, it was decided that each response should be included in the table presented in its numeral value, rather than using percentages when showing the number of responses. This decision was made due to the small number of participants, and to be able to be as transparent about the result as possible.

After having made the table of Appendix B, Table 2 and Table 3 of the paper were made, and the decision was made to write out the LLS categorisation of each strategy presented in these two tables. These categorisations were decided upon by examining Oxford's (1990) Figure 1.4 *Diagram of the Strategy System Showing All the Strategies* (p. 18-21). Although the LLS categorisations are used to discuss the result of this study, it should be noted that the aim of this study is not to look at the LLS frequency of use, and subsequently, overall averages related to the LLS categorisations have not been calculated.

Although the literature review part of this paper presented a lot of information that is relevant to the result and discussion sections, two studies mentioned in 2.2 will be looked at in more detail in the result section, namely the studies by Chen (2011) and Maroof and Murat (2013). The reason for this lies in the fact that both made use of the same questionnaire as the study of this paper, created by Petrić and Czárl (2003), and have, similar to this study, calculated means of the total frequency of strategy use, as well as strategy stage means. Although they both use the same questionnaire, however, the authors had different foci, meaning that not all information available in their results is interesting or comparable to the result of this study. Chen (2011), for example, does not include or write about the specific strategies by using the statements used to describe said strategies, but instead writes about the strategies using the LLS categorisations, making it difficult to know exactly which specific strategy is discussed at times. Maroof and Murat (2013), on the other hand, only write in detail about the strategies used at the highest frequency, meaning that the means of the least used strategies are not presented, nor are these strategies discussed. In the present study, when analysing the strategies used at a higher frequency there is thusly more data to compare it to, than there is when analysing the strategies used at a lower frequency.

4 Results

The results are presented split into two distinct sections to present (1) the writing strategies used at a higher frequency, and (2) the writing strategies used at a lower frequency. While the calculated means/averages used to present the data are good for making comparisons within this and with other studies, it is important to note that the small number of participants should not act as representatives for all English 6 students in Swedish upper secondary school classrooms. However, while further studies are needed, this might serve as a good start for looking into Swedish and/or Northern European EFL learners' writing strategy use.

4.1 The Writing Strategies Used at a Higher Frequency

To determine what writing strategies are used at a higher frequency, the Likert scale five-point structure was used to calculate a mean for each strategy. When that was done, a collective mean was calculated for each strategy stage, as well the total average for frequency of strategy use. Through comparing the means, it is proven that while-writing strategies are used at a higher frequency than the other two, with a mean of 3,16. Pre-writing strategies come second, with a mean of 2,94, and revising strategies come third and last, with a mean of 2,83. Interestingly enough, the single strategy used at the highest frequency is a revising strategy with a mean of 4,23, as can be seen in Table 2. The total strategy use comes out with a mean of 2,98. In comparison to the results of previous studies, this total shows a higher frequency than Chen (2011), who averaged at 2,81, and a lower frequency than Maroof and Murat (2013) who averaged at 3,10. When it comes to their strategy stage means Chen (2011) had the pre-writing strategy mean 2,85, while-writing strategy mean 3,04, and revising strategy mean 2,56, whereas Maroof and Murat's (2013) strategy stage means came to pre-writing strategy mean 2,87, while-writing strategy mean 3,45, and revising strategy mean 2,88; meaning that the present study lands in between the two not only in the total mean, but when it comes to almost all of the strategy stage means as well, with Chen (2011) having lower means and Maroof and Murat (2013) having higher means in the while-writing strategy stage and revising strategy stage.

Table 2 *The Most Used Writing Strategies and Their Means*

Strategy stage (M)	**Strategy type**	**Strategy (M)**
Pre-writing strategies (2,94[a])	Metacognitive	I think about what I want to write and have a plan in my head, but not on paper (3,7)
	Metacognitive	Before I start writing I revise the requirements (3,57)
	Metacognitive	I note down words and short notes related to the topic (3,23)
While-writing strategies (3,16)	Metacognitive	I start with the introduction (3,94)
	Cognitive	I reread what I have written to get ideas how to continue (3,84)
	Compensation	If I don't know a word in English, I find a similar English word that I know (3,83)
Revising strategies (2,83[b])	Social	I check my feedback after I get the paper back from the teacher, and try to learn from it (4,23)
	Metacognitive	I check if my essay matches the requirements (3,48)
	Cognitive	I make changes in the sentence structure (3,29)
Total mean: 2,98		

Note: This table shows the three most used strategies per strategy stage, meaning that there are strategies used at a higher frequency than some presented here, but belonging to another strategy stage.

[a] This mean was derived not using the mean of *I start writing without having a written or mental plan*, as it indicates the lack of using a pre-writing strategy.

[b] This mean was derived not using the mean of *when I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it*, as it indicates the lack of using a revising strategy.

Talking about the pre-writing strategy stage in more detail, it is the one strategy stage in which the participants of the present study used strategies at a higher frequency than participants of both other studies (Chen, 2011; Maroof & Murat, 2013). The most used pre-writing strategy is *I think about what I want to write and have a plan in my head, but not on paper*, which has a mean of 3,7; the second most used pre-writing strategy is *before I start writing I revise the requirements*, which has a mean of 3,57; and the third is *I note down words and short notes related to the topic*, with a mean of 3,23. The first and second pre-writing strategies used at the highest frequency are the only pre-writing strategies that no one reports that they never do, meaning that all participants use these strategies, though to a varying degree.

While the last pre-writing strategy mentioned is listed as a metacognitive strategy in Table 2 as it centres the learning by overviewing and linking the task to words and knowledge

that is useful, it can be argued that there are also memory strategy aspects to this strategy, as the use of keywords can be used to help the learner associate information and see linkage within the task. Nonetheless, all three of the most frequently used pre-writing strategies are metacognitive strategies, which can be interpreted as making it clear that in the eyes of a learner the key step of the pre-writing stage is to make a structured plan. This too agrees with the results of Maroof and Murat (2013), who reported that the strategy that was the most used pre-writing strategy in their study is the metacognitive strategy that is listed as the most used pre-writing strategy in Table 2.

As for the most used while-writing strategy, *I start with the introduction* comes first, with a mean of 3,94; the second most used writing strategy is *I reread what I have written to get ideas how to continue*, with a mean of 3,84; and the third is *if I don't know a word in English, I find a similar English word that I know*, with a mean of 3,83. Maroof and Murat (2013) saw the same order in their result for both the most and second most used while-writing strategy, with the means 4,6 and 4,18 respectively. Their third most used while-writing strategy however, while centred around the same issue of not knowing one word in English, had their participants instead using a word in their L1 before finding an appropriate word in English, with a mean of 3,74. Additionally, though Maroof and Murat (2013) list 7 while-writing strategies as being among the ones used at the highest frequency, the third strategy used at the highest frequency in this study is not included in that list. This indicates the greatest difference thus far when comparing the results of the present study to previous research.

The strategy types of the three while-writing strategies used at the highest frequency are all different, with the first one being a metacognitive strategy, the second a cognitive strategy and the third a compensation strategy. This suggests that learners use strategies of different types more variably during the while-writing strategy stage than they do during the pre-writing strategy stage.

Finally, the most used revising strategy is *I check my feedback after I get the paper back from the teacher, and try to learn from it*, with a the highest mean overall of 4,23; the second most used is *I check if my essay matches the requirements*, with a mean of 3,48; and the third most used is *I make changes in the sentence structure*, with a mean of 3,29. The most used revising strategy had the highest amount of participants reporting that they always use this strategy, more specifically, 17 out of 31 participants reported this, see Appendix B.

Seeing similar results for the revising strategy used at the highest frequency, both Chen (2011) and Maroof and Murat (2013) had participants reporting the use of this revising

strategy at the highest frequency, the means of their studies being 3,74 and 3,9 respectively. However, it is only in the present study that this strategy is the strategy used at the highest frequency overall. Nonetheless, it is made clear that it is important for teachers to provide their students with formative feedback that accurately pinpoints areas for improvement and encourages the development of their skills, as a teachers' feedback seems to have significant weight in the eyes of the learner. Furthermore, it can be advantageous to give feedback that builds the students up to increase their motivation and the trust in their own abilities, factors that positively affect strategy choice (Csizér & Tankó, 2015; Nosratinia, Seveiy & Zaker, 2014; Liu & Chang, 2013). Simplified, it can be said that the students trust their teachers to know what is best for them.

Considering the strategy types of the revising strategies used at the highest frequency, they are, similar to the strategy types of the while-writing strategies, all different. The first is a social strategy, the second is a metacognitive strategy, and the third is a cognitive strategy. As with the while-writing strategy stage, it can be presumed that students use strategies of different types more variably during the revising strategy stage too, than they do during the pre-writing strategy stage.

Generally, it can be stated that although most of the strategies that were listed in Table 2 were metacognitive strategies, learners seem to make use of several strategy types when writing. The pre-writing strategy stage, however, might see metacognitive strategies used at a higher frequency than the other two strategy stages. Furthermore, though Baker and Boonkit (2004) reported that social strategies are used at the lowest frequency overall, the results of this study could suggest that depending on the given task learners will use specific social strategies at a drastically higher frequency than they would otherwise.

4.2 The Writing Strategies Used at a Lower Frequency

Though it can certainly be argued that the strategies used at a higher frequency are more interesting, looking into the strategies that see the least use is also of importance, as the different factors that affect strategy use and choice might mean that a strategy that is used at a low frequency by one group of people, may be used at a higher frequency by other groups. As writing strategies used at a lower frequency have been shown less interest in previous research, however, making comparisons with data from other studies is not made possible in the same way as it was done in 4.1, which looked at the strategies used at a higher frequency.

Table 3 *The Least Used Writing Strategies and Their Means*

Strategy stage (M)	**Strategy type**	**Strategy (M)**
Pre-writing strategies (2,94[a])	Metacognitive	I write notes or an outline in my native language (2,32)
	Metacognitive	I make a timetable for the writing process (2,06)
While-writing strategies (3,16)	Cognitive	I use a monolingual dictionary (2,26)
	Cognitive	I write bits of the text in my native language and then translate them into English (2,2)
Revising strategies (2,83[b])	Cognitive	I use a dictionary when revising (2,17)
	Cognitive	I compare my paper with the essays written by my friends on the same topic (2,17)
	Cognitive	I drop my first draft and start writing again (2,0)
Total mean: 2,98		

[a] This mean was derived not using the mean of *I start writing without having a written or mental plan*, as it indicates the lack of using a pre-writing strategy.

[b] This mean was derived not using the mean of *when I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it*, as it indicates the lack of using a revising strategy

While the pre-writing strategy stage saw a mean of 2,94, the least used pre-writing strategies are *I make a timetable for the writing process* and *I write notes or an outline in my native language* with the means 2,06 and 2,32 respectively. Each strategy only had one student reporting that they always use it, and the least used pre-writing strategy has 14 people report that they never do it, see Appendix B.

When it comes to the pre-writing strategy stage mean, the mean of *I start writing without having a written or mental plan* was not included in the calculation as it can be argued that rather than being a pre-writing strategy, it instead pinpoints the absence of pre-writing strategy use. For this reason, it is not included in Table 3. However, learners did report that they do this, although at a varying frequency, the mean being 2,6, as can be seen in Appendix B. This is interesting considering Maroof and Murat's (2013) claim that successful learners use pre-writing strategies to a higher degree than those who are less successful. It is possible that metacognitive strategy instruction would be quite useful to the learners who reported that they sometimes start to write without a plan (Al-Jarrah, Mansor & Rashid, 2018; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Pitenoee, Modaberi & Ardestani, 2017).

As for the strategy types, both of the pre-writing strategies that had the lowest frequency of use are metacognitive strategies. However, the second least used strategy also has

compensation strategy aspects to it, as, although it is focused on making a plan, the L1 is used to accomplish it. Furthermore, two of the three pre-writing strategies used at the highest frequency involve making notes and making a plan. It could be assumed that the lack of use of the strategy using the L1 is caused by the learners using a slightly different strategy to accomplish the same thing, that is taking notes and/or making a plan.

When it comes to the least used while-writing strategies, they are *I write bits of the text in my native language and then translate them into English* and *I use a monolingual dictionary*, with the means 2,2 and 2,26 respectively. The strategy used at the lowest frequency had the highest number of participants reporting that they never use it, with 15 out of 30 reporting that they never use it. The second strategy used the least was also the only while-writing strategy with no one reporting that they always use it, see Appendix B.

The strategy type of the while-writing strategies used at the lowest frequency is cognitive, although, again, it can be deduced that one of the strategies has compensation strategy aspects by making use of the L1. Interestingly enough, the other while-writing strategy seeing the least use indicates that the participants of this study prefer using bilingual dictionaries, which would allow them to use their L1, see Appendix B. Considering the fact that both the pre-writing strategy stage and while-writing strategy stage have strategies making use of the L1 used at a lower frequency, it is interesting to see the contrasting rejection of using a monolingual dictionary. It could suggest that while the participants of the present study generally use strategies where the L1 is required at a lower frequency, there will still be strategies using the L1 that will be more popular than the counterparts that do not.

As stated previously, the revising strategy stage sees the least frequency of use, and the two least used revising strategies overall are *I drop my first draft and start writing again*, with a mean of 2,0, *I use a dictionary when revising* and *I compare my paper with the essays written by my friends on the same topic*, both with a mean of 2,17. The strategy that has a learner compare their text to those of others is the only revising strategy to which no participant reported that they always use it.

The strategy type of all of the revising strategies used at the lowest frequency is cognitive, however, the strategy that has a learner compare their text to peers' texts could be a social strategy depending on how it is performed. If it is a comparison in the context of sitting down and reading to compare the texts it is a cognitive strategy, but if it is a comparison in the context of a conversation where the learner and their peers discuss their texts it is a social strategy. It is also difficult to say which of these different interpretations or scenarios are what the participants of the study had in mind when filling in the questionnaire. It is possible that if

this statement was made into two, that one would see more use than the other, and thusly give slightly more insight into learners' writing strategy use.

Additionally, though *when I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it* has a mean of 1,97, as can be seen in Appendix B, similarly to the strategy mentioned above when speaking about pre-writing strategies, it denotes the absence of strategy use. Nonetheless, two participants report that they always hand their paper in without reading it. This does not agree with the reported use of the most used strategy, where teacher feedback is used, but it is possible that learners regard the immediate handing in of the paper as reflective of the purpose of wanting to wait for feedback before revising. The lack of details regarding what kind of writing task is discussed and whether there are multiple drafts for it might have added some difficulty for the participants when it came to interpreting the statements.

5 Discussion

This section will serve the purpose of presenting the major takeaways for this paper. For structural purposes the discussion will thusly be sectioned into three distinct parts talking about (1) the prominent features of the result, (2) the pedagogical implications, and (3) limitations and areas for future research.

5.1 Prominent Features of the Result

The aim of this study was to explore the strategies used during the writing process by EFL students in the Swedish upper secondary school classroom. This was done through the use of a questionnaire, which allowed the frequency of use of different strategies to be calculated. Consequently, answers were found regarding which of the strategies included in the questionnaire Swedish upper secondary school students use at the highest frequency, as well as at the lowest frequency. Subsequently the information was compared to studies making use of the same questionnaire to see whether the results aligned. From the data presented in the results, it is clear that the present study both strengthens certain conclusions drawn in previous research, and adds further data and considerations that might be of interest to the field of study.

Firstly, the while-writing strategy stage sees a higher frequency of strategy use than both the pre-writing strategy stage and the revising strategy stage, which matches the results of previous research (Chen, 2011; Maroof & Murat, 2013). Meaning that it seems EFL

learners generally use strategies to a higher degree during the actual writing part of a writing task, than they do to plan or to revise their text. Furthermore, the average results of the present study lands between the averages of the other two studies that it has been compared to in overall strategy use, in the while-writing strategy stage and in the revising strategy stage. The only strategy stage average which is higher in the present study than the averages of both of the other studies is the pre-writing strategy stage, meaning that the participants of this study overall use pre-writing strategies at a higher frequency than the participants of the other studies.

Secondly, when it comes to specific strategies in the pre-writing strategy stage, two strategies were reported as being used by all participants in the present study, though to a varying degree. The strategies in question are *making a mental plan of the writing* and *checking the task requirements*, both of which are metacognitive strategies. That the pre-writing strategy stage sees metacognitive strategies used at a higher degree both agrees with previous research (Chen, 2011; Maroof & Murat, 2013), and makes sense considering the preparational purpose of the stage. Interestingly enough, one of the pre-writing strategies used at the lowest frequency is also a metacognitive strategy that involves planning the writing, although through using the L1 to plan. The conclusion was drawn that the higher use of certain strategies negates the need to use other strategies aimed to accomplish the same thing.

Thirdly, in the while-writing strategy stage in both the present study and in Maroof and Murat's (2013) study both the most used and the second most used strategies were *I start with the introduction* and *I reread what I have written to get ideas how to continue*. The third strategy used at the highest frequency, however, although centred around the same issue of making up for a lack of knowledge, saw different strategies being used in the present study and Maroof and Murat's. The participants in the present study reported the use of *If I don't know a word in English, I find a similar English word that I know*, whereas Maroof and Murat's participants reported the use of a word in their L1 as a temporary placeholder.

Finally, in the revising strategy stage the one strategy used at the overall highest frequency in the present study can be found, namely *I check my feedback after I get the paper back from the teacher, and try to learn from it*, which a substantial amount of participants reported that they always do. Both Chen (2011), and Maroof and Murat (2013) had the same strategy as the top performing revising strategy, but it is only in the present study that this strategy was used to a higher degree than any other strategy. The conclusion was drawn that the high use of this strategy reflects the participants' trust in their teacher to provide them with feedback that will help them develop their writing skills. Interestingly enough, this result

clashes with Baker and Boonkit's (2004) study that saw social strategies used the least of all LLS categories generally. This could suggest that depending on task specifics or what skill is in focus learners might use certain strategy types to a higher degree than they usually would.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

The pedagogical implications of the present study have their basis in what has already been detailed in the previous section, the prominent features of the result. Nonetheless, they will be clarified and explained in this section. Although the pedagogical implications presented here are considered the most important, it is also necessary to recognise that further examples of aspects of worth might be identifiable in or through the research.

Through previous research the significance of strategy instruction has been presented, proving to be useful both when different LLS categories are in focus (Olson et al., 2012; Al-Jarrah, Mansor & Rashid, 2018; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Pitenoee, Modaberi & Ardestani, 2017) or for learners with learning impediments who need to have their needs appropriately met (Menbet, 2018). In the present study it was clear that the participants seemed to overall prefer strategies that did not depend on making use of the L1. For example, strategies where making notes and making a mental plan for the writing were used at a higher frequency than the strategy exemplifying doing the same thing but in the L1. Interestingly though, when it came to making use of a monolingual dictionary and a bilingual dictionary, participants reported the use of a bilingual dictionary at a higher frequency. This decision to determine when or whether the L1 or English should be used for a strategy is curious, and it could be of use for teachers to discuss with or explain to their students how they can use similar strategies in different ways, depending on what suits the learner best.

Additionally, the result of the present study shows that learners' can be approached through formative feedback, as a majority of the participants report that they use feedback to try to revise and learn. The reliance on feedback being able to guide the learning, suggests that learners trust their teachers to be helpful. What this means, is that teachers and language instructors need to take advantage of the opportunity that this trust offers to, through feedback, help their students develop their writing skill and, possibly, their ability to use different strategies to communicate effectively.

Finally, although pre-writing strategies were used at a higher frequency by participants in the present study than participants of previous studies (Chen, 2011; Maroof & Murat, 2013), and though it was stated that pre-writing strategies are used at a higher frequency by

more successful learners than less successful learners (Maroof & Murat, 2013), there are still learners who at times start to write without making a plan. It should be clear then that talking about and discussing strategies that can be used, and how these strategies might affect the quality of written production might be important. Doing this could both make learners more aware of their strategy choices and lessen the risk of learners not using pre-writing strategies to their advantage.

5.3 Limitations and Areas for Future Research

As the limitations encountered through the duration of this study are closely tied to the areas for future research, the decision was made to present limitations and areas for future research together, for transparency. It is possible that there are more aspects that can be considered relevant for this section that are not included here, but the ones that are identified as the most central by me should be present. Naturally, what is considered most central is a subjective opinion, and it is thusly encouraged to consider other potential concerns that could be expatiated upon and would add to the field of research.

Firstly, the difficulty in conceptualising strategies in a way that includes both strategy specificity and broad applications needs to be acknowledged. During the writing of this paper it was attempted to include both of these aspects by discussing the relevancy of both LLS and writing strategies. However, by using the Petrić and Czárl questionnaire the result can be considered limited in the fact that all possible writing strategies that can be used during the writing task are not listed, due to the focus on the structure following the linear writing process. Thus, one area for future research would be to look into how other strategies applicable to the writing situation are used.

Secondly, the feedback in the Petrić and Czárl questionnaire refers to formative feedback, and it is important to note that depending on the writing task, it is possible that asking for help and/or receiving feedback may happen more than once during the writing process. Similarly, other strategies may be used repeatedly as the learner progresses in their writing, whereas some strategies might only be used once per writing task. This would be an even deeper dive into frequency of strategy use that was not undertaken or looked at in the present study. While this might be hard to look at using quantitative measures, this area for future research could be expanded upon by the use of qualitative measures, such as interviews or observations.

Thirdly, the Petrić and Czárl questionnaire does not allow for delving into the details that writing tasks usually require, broadly generalising the writing process outside of task specificity. This can be considered limiting in that it is possible that learners will use different strategies depending on what the task is asking for. If students are asked to write specific text genres, have a set time limit to complete a task in, and if they are told to write on the computer or by hand, certain strategies might be pushed to the forefront. An area for future research could subsequently be to look into how task specificity might affect strategy choice and use.

Fourthly, as writing is mostly seen as a task of a solitary nature, that would mean that the learner has to rely on mostly themselves, and social strategies may be hard to use. Although social strategies are included in the questionnaire, what is not explored in any way in this study is how strategies are used when two or more people write together, which is a clear limitation. Presumably, social strategies would be used at a higher frequency, but it could be interesting to see what the results would be if a comparison was made between the strategies used by one person opposed to the strategies used when two or more people write something together. Another area for future research is thusly to look into what LLS and/or writing strategies learners of English would apply when writing together.

Finally, due to the small number of participants, the present study did not put focus on researching factors that affect strategy choice. Despite the fact that several such factors were considered interesting and possibly relevant to the learners, they were given little attention. Nonetheless, it can be argued that factors such as culture, English level, and school level were approached, due to all participants attending Swedish upper secondary schools and studying English 6. Some factors that were not touched upon that might have been of interest are: L1 strategy transferability, which would be interesting seeing as many of the participants' L1 was not Swedish; gender, although touched upon in previous studies it could be interesting to look into differences between the genders with cultural values in mind; and neurodiversity, which could add valuable information about the strategy choices neurodivergent learners make. These are all some suggestions for factors to look into for areas for future research.

6 Conclusion

The strategies that learners use to approach language learning are important for teachers to understand, as these strategies determine what the developmental process of learning to successfully use language to communicate will look like. Although the field of research has

seen some substantial growth the past 20-30 years, a lot of the attention has been on the general use of language learning strategy use and choice, leaving a bit of a gap when it comes to looking at the four language skills individually. Different strategies will be used to learn specific skills, and when it comes to writing it is suitable to consider how the writing process will demand the use of different kinds of strategies.

Generally, learners seem to use metacognitive strategies to make a plan for the writing, to use strategies at a higher frequency during actual text production, and to consider teacher feedback an integral part when revising. It also seems that strategy instruction could be used to the students' advantage to make sure that they have a plethora of strategies to apply through strategy choice when tackling a writing task. Furthermore, this ability to choose how to best approach writing could have a positive effect on the students' trust in their own power, which in turn might make them more motivated and interested in learning.

There are still unexplored areas for future research, however, and delving deeper into the topic of language learning strategies and/or the factors that affect strategy choice could add further understanding of the field. Some suggested areas for future research are therefore: the effect task specificity has on strategy choice, the difference in strategy use of a learner writing alone and of learners writing together, and L1 strategy transferability.

Reference list

Al-Jarrah, T. M., Mansor, N., & Rashid, R. A. (2018). The impact of metacognitive strategies on Jordanian EFL learners' writing performance. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 8*(6), 328–339. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v8n6p328

Baker, W., & Boonkit, K. (2004). Learning strategies in reading and writing: EAP contexts. *RELC Journal, 35*(3), 299-328. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688205052143

Chen, Y. (2011). Study of the writing strategies used by Chinese non-English majors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(3), 245–251. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.1.3.245-251

Csizér, K., & Tankó, G. (2017). English majors' self-regulatory control strategy use in academic writing and its relation to L2 motivation. *Applied Linguistics 38*(3), 386-404. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amv033

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Grenfell, M., & Macaro, E. (2007). Claims and critiques. In Cohen, A. D., & Macaro, E. (Eds) *Language learner strategies: Thirty years of research and practice* (pp. 1-28). Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.

Guo, X., & Huang, L. (2020). Are L1 and L2 strategies transferable? An exploration of the L1 and L2 writing strategies of Chinese graduate students. *The Language Learning Journal 48*(6). 715-737. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2018.1435710

Liu, H., & Chang, C. (2013). A study on language learning strategy use and its relation to academic self-concept: The case of EFL students in Taiwan. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research 4*(2), 260-268. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.4.2.260-268

Maarof, N., & Murat, M. (2013). Writing strategies used by ESL upper secondary school students. *International Education Studies, 6*(4), 47–55. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v6n4p47

McKay, S. L. (2006). *Researching Second Language Classrooms*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Menbet, A. A. (2018). The use of effective strategies to improve Saudi EFL dyslexic learners' writing skills. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies 8*(12), 1611-1621. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0812.06

Nguyen, L. T. C., & Gu, Y. (2013). Strategy-based instruction: A learner-focused approach to developing learner autonomy. *Language Teaching Research, 17*(1), 9-30. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812457528

Nosratinia, M., Saveiy, M., & Zaker, A. (2014). EFL learners' self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness, and use of language learning strategies: How are they associated? *Theory and Practice in Language Studies 4*(5), 1080-1092. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.5.1080-1092

Olson, C. B., Kim, J. S., Scarcella, R., Kramer, J., Pearson, M., van Dyk, D. A., … Land, R. E. (2012). Enhancing the interpretive reading and analytical writing of mainstreamed English learners in secondary school: Results from a randomized field trial using a cognitive strategies approach. *American Educational Research Journal, 49*(2), 323-355. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831212439434

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston, Mass: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, R. L. (1996). *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Oxford, R. (2017). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: self-regulation in context* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Petrić, B., & Czárl, B. (2003). Validating a writing strategy questionnaire. *System, 31*(2), 187–215. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00020-4

Pitenoee, M. R., Modaberi, A., & Ardestani, E. M. (2017). The effect of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on content of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 8*(3), 594-600. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0803.19

Rose, H. (2011). Reconceptualizing strategic learning in the face of self-regulation: Throwing language learning strategies out with the bathwater. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(1), 92-98. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amr045

Skolverket. (2011a.). *English*. Skolverket. https://www.skolverket.se/download/18.4fc05a3f164131a74181056/1535372297288/English-swedish-school.pdf

Skolverket. (2011b). *Gymnasiegemensamma ämnen: Gymnasieskola 2011*. Skolverket. https://www.skolverket.se/download/18.6bfaca41169863e6a65761f/1553960756863/pdf2583.pdf

United Nations. (2019). *Population Facts: International migrants numbered 272 million in 2019, continuing an upward trend in all major world regions*. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/populationfacts/docs/MigrationStock2019_PopFacts_2019-04.pdf

Vetenskapsrådet. (2017). *God forskningsed.* https://www.vr.se/analys/rapporter/vara-rapporter/2002-01-08-forskningsetiska-principer-inom-humanistisk-samhallsvetenskaplig-forskning.html

Appendix A: The Petrić & Czárl questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Sex (please circle): F M
1. What is your native language?
2. How many years have you been studying English?
4. Did you attend a course in writing in English before coming to this school ? Please circle. Y N
   If yes, what was the main focus of the course?
5. What types of texts do you generally write in English? Please circle. e-mails letters notes essays articles reports research papers creative writing other:
6. Do you like writing in English? Please circle.
   I don't like it at all I don't like it I have no feelings about it I like it I like it a lot
   Why (not?)

2. THE WRITING PROCESS

In this part, you will find statements about the different stages of writing in English: before writing, while writing, and when revising. Please read each statement and circle the number indicating **how true of you the statement is**.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me (less than half of the time)
3. Somewhat true of me (about half of the time)
4. Usually true of me (more than half of the time)
5. Always or almost always true of me

EXAMPLE:

	never true 1	usually not true 2	somewhat true 3	usually true 4	always true 5
I eat snacks while watching tv. If you eat snacks all the time when watching tv, or almost always, circle 5.					

2.1. BEFORE I START WRITING AN ESSAY IN ENGLISH…

Please circle the appropriate number.

BEFORE I START WRITING AN ESSAY IN ENGLISH …	never true 1	usually not true 2	somewhat true 3	usually true 4	always true 5
1. I make a timetable for the writing process.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Before I start writing I revise the requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I look at a model written by a native speaker or more proficient writer.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I start writing without having a written or mental plan.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think about what I want to write and have a plan in my mind, but not on paper.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I note down words and short notes related to the topic.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I write an outline of my paper.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I write notes or an outline in my native language.	1	2	3	4	5

2.2. WHEN WRITING IN ENGLISH…

Please circle the appropriate number.

WHEN WRITING IN ENGLISH…	never true 1	usually not true 2	somewhat true 3	usually true 4	always true 5
1. I start with the introduction.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I stop after each sentence to read it again.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A continued

3. I stop after a few sentences or a whole paragraph, covering one idea.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I reread what I have written to get ideas how to continue.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I go back to my outline and make changes in it.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I write bits of the text in my native language and then translate them into English.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I go for sure in grammar and vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I simplify what I want to write if I don't know how to express my thoughts in English.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If I don't know a word in English, I write it in my native language and later try to find an appropriate English word.	1	2	3	4	5
10. If I don't know a word in English, I find a similar English word that I know.	1	2	3	4	5
11. If I don't know a word in English, I stop writing and look up the word in the dictionary.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I use a bilingual dictionary.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I use a monolingual dictionary.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I ask somebody to help out when I have problems while writing.	1	2	3	4	5

2.3. WHEN REVISING…

Please circle the appropriate number.

WHEN REVISING…	never true 1	usually not true 2	somewhat true 3	usually true 4	always true 5
1. I read my text aloud.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I only read what I have written when I have finished the whole paper.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I use a dictionary when revising.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I make changes in vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I make changes in sentence structure.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I make changes in the structure of the essay.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I make changes in the content or ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I focus on one thing at a time when revising (e.g., content, structure)	1	2	3	4	5
10. I drop my first draft and start writing again.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I check if my essay matches the requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I leave the text aside for a couple of days and then I can see it in a new perspective.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I show my text to somebody and ask for his/her opinion.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I compare my paper with the essays written by my friends on the same topic.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I give myself a reward for completing the assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I check my mistakes after I get back the paper with feedback from the teacher, and try to learn from them.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B: Data results

Questionnaire Responses and Mean

Strategy stage	Question statement	Likert scale responses					Mean
		1	2	3	4	5	
Pre-writing strategies	1.1 I make a timetable for the writing process	10	6	11	3	1	2,32
	1.2 Before I start writing I revise the requirements	0	4	12	7	7	3,57
	1.3 I look at a model written by a native speaker or more proficient writer	1	10	14	4	2	2,87
	1.4 I start writing without having a written or mental plan	9	6	5	8	2	2,6
	1.5 I think about what I want to write and have a plan in my head, but not on paper	0	4	9	9	8	3,7
	1.6 I note down words and short notes related to the topic	2	9	6	8	6	3,23
	1.7 I write an outline of my paper	6	6	10	6	3	2,81
	1.8 I write notes or an outline in my native language	14	7	5	4	1	2,06
While-writing strategies	2.1 I start with the introduction	0	3	7	10	11	3,94
	2.2 I stop after each sentence to read it again	5	6	6	12	1	2,93
	2.3 I stop after a few sentences or a whole paragraph, covering one idea	1	6	11	10	2	3,2
	2.4 I reread what I have written to get ideas how to continue	1	3	8	7	12	3,84
	2.5 I go back to my outline and make changes to it	4	8	8	5	6	3,03
	2.6 I write bits of the text in my native language and then translate them into English	15	3	6	3	3	2,2
	2.7 I only use words which I am sure are correct	0	3	7	13	7	3.8
	2.8 I simplify what I want to write if I don't know how to express my thoughts in English	0	4	15	7	3	3,31
	2.9 If I don't know a word in English, I write in my native language and later try to find an appropriate English word	6	7	5	6	6	2,97
	2.10 If I don't know a word in English, I find a similar English word that I know	0	2	11	7	10	3,83
	2.11 If I don't know a word in English, I stop writing and look up the word in the dictionary	5	3	7	3	12	3,47
	2.12 I use a bilingual dictionary [a]	8	9	5	4	5	2,65
	2.13 I use a monolingual dictionary [a]	8	11	8	4	0	2,26

	2.14 I ask somebody to help out when I have problems while writing	5	11	5	6	4	2,77
Revising strategies	3.1 I read my text aloud	6	6	7	5	7	3,03
	3.2 I only read what I have written when I have finished the whole paper	9	5	8	7	2	2,61
	3.3 When I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it	17	5	4	3	2	1,97
	3.4 I use a dictionary when revising	12	8	4	5	1	2,17
	3.5 I make changes in vocabulary	4	5	11	9	2	3,0
	3.6 I make changes in sentence structure	2	4	14	5	6	3,29
	3.7 I make changes in the structure of the essay	3	7	12	7	2	2,94
	3.8 I make changes in the content or ideas	6	9	9	4	3	2,65
	3.9 I focus on one thing at a time when revising (e.g. content, structure)	5	7	7	8	4	2,97
	3.10 I drop my first draft and start writing again	10	13	7	0	1	2,0
	3.11 I check if my essay matches the requirements	2	6	8	5	10	3,48
	3.12 I leave the text aside for a couple of days and then I see it in a new perspective	11	7	7	4	2	2,32
	3.13 I show my text to somebody and ask for their opinion	7	7	9	3	5	2,74
	3.14 I compare my paper with the essays written by my friends on the same topic	10	8	9	3	0	2,17
	3.15 I give myself a reward for completing the assignment	5	7	11	3	5	2,87
	3.16 I check my feedback after I get the paper back from the teacher, and try to learn from it	1	2	3	8	17	4,23
Total mean: 2,98[b]							

Note. This table showcases questionnaire Likert scale responses as well as the calculated mean of said responses.
[a] These statements included further explanations, for clarity, within brackets in the questionnaire that have not been included in this table. These brackets are included in Table 1 of the paper.
[b] This mean was derived not using the mean of *I start writing without having a written or mental plan*, nor *when I have written my paper, I hand it in without reading it*, as they indicate the lack of using strategies.