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Tagore as Text: A Critical Analysis

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Abstract: Rabindranath Tagore, who lived from 1861 to 1941, is well remembered around the globe for becoming the first poet from Asia to be awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1913. He was a British subject throughout his life and passed away in colonial India. However, any engagement with studies of Tagore would reveal that, despite his outstanding achievements in creative writing and music, he deserves to be remembered as the only poet of international standing who not only founded a self-funded university but also designed a curriculum that radicalised traditional institutionalised education in colonial India. This is something that should be remembered because Tagore deserves to be remembered as the only poet of international standing who deserves to be remembered. The purpose of this article is to investigate Tagore's re-imagining of the process of institutionalised instruction as well as the goals of education. Undoubtedly, the ideas and models of the teaching-learning process that Tagore outlined bear the stamp of a poet-philosopher who tried to distance himself from the public educational sector. In colonial times, the public educational sector was exemplified by the formidable University of Calcutta, which was under the administration of the British. Tagore's Visva-Bharati University in Santiniketan is obviously a private sector operation; nonetheless, it is historically considered as a one-of-a-kind experiment in inclusive education that debunks rote learning and fragmented knowledge. Its viability in the 21st century, however, is up for question.

Keywords: Diversity; inclusion; Tagore; texts; India

INTRODUCTION

The 1929 prospectus of Rabindranath Tagore's university, Visva-Bharati, stated:

> College students are expected to become familiar with the working of existing institutions and new movements inaugurated in the different countries of the world for the amelioration of the social condition of the masses [emphasis added]. They are also required to undertake a study of international organizations [emphasis added] so that their outlook may become better adjusted to the needs of peace. (Nussbaum, 2012, p. 84–85)

In this day and age of globalisation, in the year 2019, how many of our educational institutions have included in their prospectus such a paragraph on social outreach, global politics, and the critical importance of peace, just as was found in the prospectus of Rabindranath Tagore's VisvaBharati University almost 90 years ago, in colonial British administered India?

In terms of a comparative research, a good litmus test would be to mention the recently redesigned National Policy of Education that was announced by the education sector of the government of India. Rabindranath Tagore's alternative system of education, which was first implemented in Tagore's Patha Bhavan school and Visva-Bharati University, was not mentioned at all in the policy draught, despite the fact that it mentioned the rich heritage of ancient Indian educational systems. This omission was quite noticeable. In light of this, it should come as no surprise that the recently revised national policy on education makes no mention whatsoever of the motivating aspirational signifiers that are essential for the development of young minds. These include freedom, creativity, research, and critical thinking that go beyond the pedagogical stereotypes.

It is interesting to note that the final paragraph of the draught of the National Policy of Education 2019 indicates, without a shadow of a doubt, that the controlling mechanism of education targets used by the government of India, as implemented by the regulatory bodies of the education sector, gives mechanised socio-economic progress and the utilisation of human capital the highest priority:

> The National Education Policy 2019 provides a framework for the transformation and reinvigoration of the education system in order to respond to the requirements of fast-changing, knowledge-based societies while taking into account the diversity of the Indian people, their traditions, cultures, and languages. It seeks to ensure that human capital, the most vital form of capital that would fuel the necessary transformation, is secured and strengthened. Highest priority is accorded to the task of ensuring universal access to an education of high quality and breadth that would support India's continued ascent, progress, and leadership on the global stage—in terms of economic development, social justice and equality, environmental stewardship, scientific advancement and cultural preservation, and help develop and maximise our country's rich talents and resources for the good of the individual, the country, and the world. An education system built on the premises of quality and equity is considered central to sustainable development, achieving success in the emerging knowledge economy and society, for socio-economic mobility, and for building an equitable, just and humane society. (p. 35)

As a direct consequence of this, Rabindranath Tagore's thoughts and efforts continue to provide a singular vantage point from which to look beyond the confines of the regulated information economy and the exuberance of nationalisms. This is something that is quite noticeable. It is possible to track how artistic practise, analytical thought, and educational institutions can be linked to move us beyond the myopia of nationalism through the study of Tagore's literary and nonliterary texts. This creates a space to rethink and even disrupt the increasingly powerful homology in which home, family, language, and nation have come to stand for each other to divide rather than unite. The necessity of addressing opinions on global education while emphasising the culturally particular and geographically distinct requirements of local education is becoming increasingly apparent. It's possible that this is what the concept note for this conference was trying to say when it said, "It aims to decentre/decolonize our minds from an obsession with the West and Western knowledge, culture, theories, and epistemologies in the conduct of social science research and knowledge production." However, it is important to take precautions to prevent one fixation from taking

the place of another. The strategy should be objective, comprehensive, and all-encompassing, and it should eliminate the exploitation of regional pride and prejudice for political gain.

TAGORE AS TEXT: A HISTORIC OVERVIEW

It is necessary that a brief historical study of the origins of Tagore's institutions be conducted for the purpose of gaining a clear grasp of the paradigm shift in programming that Tagore implemented in his institutions. The Visva-Bharati Santiniketanprosepctus (2019) states as follows:

> In 1863, on a 20 Bigha plot at the site of the present institution, Debendranath Tagore, the poet's father, had built a small retreat for meditation, and in 1888 he dedicated, by a trust deed, the land and buildings, towards the establishment of an Asrama where seekers after truth, irrespective of their formal religious affiliations, sect, creed and caste, could come and meditate in seclusion; a Brahmavidyalaya and a library. Rabindranath's school Brahmacharyasrama which started functioning formally from December 22, 1901... From 1925 this school came to be known as Patha-Bhavana. (p. 6)

Tagore reached the most difficult part of his mission in life when Visva-Bharati, the university of his dreams that represented the globe in one nest, was established. This marked the beginning of Tagore's journey to fulfil his life's purpose. He oversaw it until the end of his life, tending to it like a parent or a gardener tends to a sapling, addressing the macro issues of sustainability and fundraising entirely on his own, and remarkably, he did not seek guidelines or funding from the British government in India. He did this because he believed that he was capable of doing so on his own. Visva-Bharati invited lecturers from all over the world, from both the East and the West. As a result, the institution became an island that celebrated the confluence of cultures. Here, German, Chinese, Japanese, British, and Bengali scholars, writers, teachers, and artists collaborated side-by-side to produce a multi-disciplinary space for creativity, cultural inter-exchange, and the exchange of ideas and skills. In a piece he penned on Santiniketan in 1991, Satyajit Ray said: "Santiniketan opened my eyes for the first time to the splendors of Indian and Far Eastern art. Until then, I was completely under the

sway of Western art, music and literature. Santiniketan made me the combined product of East and West that I am" (Sen, 2005, 115).

We hear the voice of the local cosmopolitan and a validation of the dream of the founder of the university in Satyajit Ray's assertion. The founder of the university had to travel all around the world to raise funds to sustain his university, primarily by writing and delivering series of lectures despite having indifferent health. Satyajit Ray's assertion is a validation of that dream. Uma Dasgupta (2009) states:

> For a while, Tagore was witness to his Visva-Bharati offering hospitality to the world. In the 1920s and the 1930s scholars, painters, musicians, economists, agriculturists, and medical experts from different parts of the world gathered on the soil of Santiniketan and Sriniketan to join hands with the local populace in their common goal of learning and creating and serving without national barriers. (p. xxxiii)

Rabindranath Tagore encouraged artists and academics from all over India and the world to share their traditions and cultures with the students of Visva-Bharati University by inviting them to live together in Santiniketan on a daily basis. This helped the university maintain its diverse local and international networks. Visva-Bharati Santiniketan was established as an Indian, Eastern, and worldwide cultural centre by the university's constitution (Visva-Bharati Santiniketan, 2019, page 2), with the following aspirations for the institution:

1. To investigate the human mind in its capacity to comprehend a variety of elements of reality from a variety of vantage points.
2. To bring into closer interaction with one another through patient study and investigation the many cultures of the East on the basis of their inherent connectedness in order to create a more intimate relationship between them.
3. To approach the West from the vantage point of such cohesiveness in Asian life and philosophy.
4. To work toward the realisation of the meeting of East and West in the context of a shared academic fellowship, with the end goal of ultimately enhancing the basic conditions of world peace via the unrestricted exchange of ideas between the two hemispheres.

5. And with such ideals in view to provide at Santiniketan a centre of culture where research into the study of the religion, literature, history, science and art of Hindu, Buddhist, Jain, Zoroastrian, Islamic, Sikh, Christian and other civilizations may be pursued along with the culture of the West, with that simplicity of externals which is necessary for true spiritual realization, in amity, good-fellowship and co-operation between the thinkers and scholars of both Eastern and Western countries, free from all antagonisms of race, nationality, creed or caste and in the name of the One Supreme Being who is Shantam, Shivam, Advaitam.
6. In addition to this, one of the goals of the university will be to bring together the cultures of India, the East, and the West. This will be accomplished, among other things, through the recruitment of students and adhyapakas from different parts of India and different nations around the world, as well as through the provision of incentives for these activities.

In terms of education, Tagore promoted the Socratic technique of argument and discussion, sometimes known as the dialogic style. Rather of studying national cultures for the wars fought and cultural supremacy imposed, Tagore established a teaching method that examined history and culture for the progress achieved in overcoming social and religious barriers:

> The school was a conscious repudiation of the system introduced in India by the British rulers [emphasis added], and Rabindranath initially sought to realize the intrinsic values of ancient education in India. The school and its curriculum, therefore, signified a departure from the way the rest of the country viewed education and teaching. Simplicity in externals was a cardinal principle. Classes were held in the open air in the shade of trees where man and nature entered into an immediate harmonious relationship. Teachers and students shared the single integral socio-cultural life. The curriculum had music, painting, dramatic performances and other performative practices. Beyond the accepted limits of intellectual and academic pursuits, opportunities were created for invigorating and sustaining the manifold faculties of human personality. (Visva-Bharati Santiniketan, 2019, p. 6)

Such an approach stressed the advancements achieved in integrating people from all origins into a bigger framework and developing economic policies that prioritised social justice and minimised the wealth gap. Art would be investigated for its contribution to the aesthetic imagination and the expression of universal ideas. Hardcore conventional pedagogic approaches specified by the British system of a rigorous curriculum that emphasised rote learning for the locals in the various British colonies could not comprehend this liberated, inclusive approach to varied races, cultures, places, languages, and people. Traditional teaching approaches focused on selective training of the mind, encouraging students to accept stereotypes as indestructible monuments of culture rather than provoking intellectual inquiry and timeless knowledge. No wonder, "Tagore hated every school he ever attended, and he left them all as quickly as possible. What he hated was rote learning and the treatment of the pupil as a passive vessel of received cultural values. Tagore's novels, stories, and dramas are obsessed with the need to challenge the past." (Nussbaum, 2012, p. 70)

Tagore's trips across the world were mostly lecture tours aimed at earning money for his university. This must be the only time in human history when a poet not only donated the whole Nobel Prize money to a university, but also travelled across the world giving lectures to help the university stay afloat. He despised the technique of institutionalised, fragmented information and memorised notes, as well as the resulting lack of fresh ideas and inventiveness, which he claimed paralysed rather than empowered pupils.

Tagore expressed his reservations about educational institutions in a letter to an unidentified correspondent, referring to Calcutta University's resolution to introduce vernacular languages at the postgraduate level, while supporting the resolution that the vernacular language was more effective as a tool of communication and empathy. Tagore wrote in 1918, referring especially to Bengali language and literature taught at Calcutta University:

> But I have found that the direct influence which the Calcutta University wields over our language is not strengthening and vitalizing, but pedantic and narrow. It tries to perpetuate the anachronism of preserving the Pundit-made Bengali swathed in grammar-wrappings borrowed from a dead language... The artificial language of a learned mediocrity, inert and formal, ponderous and

> didactic, devoid of the least breath of creative vitality, is forced upon our boys at the most receptive period of their life (Das, 1996, Vol. 3, 743).

A FRAMEWORK FOR DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION

Tagore envisioned a school for youngsters (Patha Bhavan) who would learn about world history and culture and be encouraged to imagine a world beyond the confining barbed wires of nationalism in his alternate configurations of providing official and informal education at Santiniketan. But it was only the start. According to Uma Dasgupta (2009),

> The mind that conceived Santiniketan school did not remain complacent with just those beginnings... Within two decades of the existence of the Santiniketan school, he announced that Santiniketan was "a sapling that would grow into Visva-Bharati, a widely-branching tree". Visva-Bharati would be an international university of higher learning for studying and understanding the cultures of 'East and West' (p. xxix).

Rabindranath was invited to various nations throughout the world after receiving the Nobel Prize in 1913, where he hosted Maghmela 1, and as a result, he was exposed to a significant section of the world and its people. By 1917, the breadth of his experience and the restlessness of his research had led to his own self-clarification on the notion of Santiniketan as a centre of Indian culture. According to his plan, the centre would provide:

> [F]or the coordinated study of the different cultures... music and the fine arts are among the highest means of national self-expression... in the proposed centre of our culture, music and art must have prominent seats of honour... This centre should not only be a centre of the intellectual life of India but the centre of economic life as well. Participating thus in all the major spheres of Indian life, the institution would attain a representative character and enter into an encounter with the rest of the world. (Visva-Bharati Santiniketan, 2019, p. 6)

Tagore was always wary of the fragmented education disseminated by the British-run Indian colleges. Tagore described his concept of what he thought to be a full education in his essay "the Centre of Indian Culture":

> [O]ur education should be in full touch with our complete life, economical, intellectual, aesthetic, social and spiritual; connected with it by the living bonds of varied co-operations. For true education is to realize at every step how our training and knowledge have an organic connection with our surroundings. (Das, 1996, vol 2, p. 469)

As a result, Tagore believes that total education is attainable when all cultures, ethnicities, and genders are brought together regardless of geographical location. According to Tagore, VisvaBharati University will be able to deliver this type of comprehensive education. He stated without ambiguity, “So, in our centre of learning, we must provide for the coordinated study of all these cultures—the Vedic, the Puranic, the Buddhist, the Jain, the Islamic, the Sikh and the Zoroastrian. And side by side with them the European—for only then shall we be able to assimilate the last” (Dasgupta, Chakravarti, & Mathew, 2013, p. 487).

> The inclusive motto of the Visva-Bharati University was this statement in a Vedic text “Yatra visvambhavatyekanidam (where the world makes a home in a single nest).
>
> On 23 December 1921, Visva-Bharati became a registered public body which adopted a constitution of its own. The aims and objects as set forth on the occasion have since then remained the objectives of Visva-Bharati.
>
> In 1922, the Department of Higher Studies became Uttara Vibhaga to be renamed Vidya-Bhavana in 1925. Hindu philosophy, medieval mysticism, Islamic culture, Zoroastrian philosophy, Bengali literature and history, Hindustani literature, Vedic and Classical Sanskrit, Pali, Prakrit, Chinese, Tibetan, Persian, Arabic, German, Latin and Hindi formed its areas of study and research.
>
> Vidya-Bhavana was the manifestation of the ideal of the proposed centre of comprehensive studies in the cultures of the East and the West. The centre was

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> viewed principally as a community of scholars, Indian as well as foreign, who would be engaged in the creation and dissemination of systematized and philanthropic reasoning. The concern was epistemological. (Visva-Bharati Santiniketan, 2019, p. 6)

Tagore's re-invention of educational systems drew a lot of intellectuals to Santiniketan. Between 1924 and 1925, Leonard Elmhirst worked as Tagore's private secretary, and in 1926, he co-founded Dartington Hall in Devon, England, inspired by Tagore's work. It is a significant factor that a pattern of dissent against the British administration's colonial education system meted out to the "natives" was not only propagated by Tagore, who emphasised the importance of vernacular languages and bilingualism, but also appeared to be strikingly similar to the critique of the British education system in Ireland that Irish nationalist leader Patrick Pearse described as a murderous control and power mechanism. Pearse claimed in his essay "Murder Machine," published in the Irish Review in 1913:

> Modem education systems are elaborate pieces of machinery devised by highlysalaried officials for the purpose of turning out citizens according to certain approved patterns. The modem school is a State controlled institution designed to produce workers for the State and is in the same category in which a dockyard, or any other State-controlled institution which produces articles necessary to the progress, well-being, and defence of the State are included. We speak of the “efficiency”, the “cheapness” and the “up-to-dateness” of an education system just as we speak of the “efficiency”, the “cheapness” and the “up-to-dateness” of a system of manufacturing coal-gas. (Pearse, 1916, p. 6)

The notion of the teacher as a "transformative intellectual" who can "give direction to history" and the definition of education as "a practise of freedom" explain and define Pearse's educational endeavour in a unique way. Commentators including Tolstoy, Pearse, Tagore, the Elmhirsts, Curry, and Russell put their misgivings into practise by creating schools outside of the mainstream (Walsh &Lalor, 2015, p. 595-617). They were expressing their displeasure with the current educational system and their intention to establish an alternative. Classical humanism is definitely the forerunner of their perspective, and by evaluating the act of

education in relation to interested parties, such as the state, they highlighted and insisted on the integrity of learning as fundamentally important, independent of consequences.

Pearse told potential donors that his unique bilingual school was "contemporary in the greatest sense," giving an education that was "wholly Irish in complexion and multilingual in approach" while seeking for funding. The endeavour was a resounding success." He explained:

> Apart from its Irish standpoint, our College is distinguished from other secondary schools and colleges in Ireland by the appeal which its ideals make to the imagination of its pupils, by its objection to the cramming system, its viva voce teaching of modern languages and, in short, its linking of the practical with the ideal at every stage of its work. (McGreevy, 2016)

Tagore was aware of several experiments in the European education sector, and his own endeavours in reviewing and reforming the educational process in colonial India, influenced by these advances, were ground breaking in many ways. He was one of the first in India to advocate for a humane educational system that was environmentally conscious and focused on complete personality development. Santiniketan became a model for vernacular education and the production of Bengali textbooks, as well as one of South Asia's first coeducational programmes. The founding of Visva-Bharati and Sriniketan resulted in ground breaking work in a variety of areas, including models for uniquely Indian higher education and popular education, as well as pan-Asian and worldwide cultural interchange. 2

Following in the footsteps of Tagore, John Dewey, Froebel, and other like-minded educationalists, such as Martha C. Nussbaum, advocated for an inclusive learning approach; she states that, rather than focusing on world history as a theatre of war, battles, and civil war, students should focus on local history, “when a culture’s history and economy are studied, questions should be raised about differences of power and opportunity about the place of women and minorities, about the merits and disadvantages of different structures of political organizations” (Nussbaum, 2012, 89).

Rabindranath Tagore is a part of a global network of pioneering educators like Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori, and Dewey who emphasised the need of developing non-authoritarian learning methods suitable to their different environments. Maria Montessori paid a visit to Visva-Bharati and praised Tagore's efforts. So, according to Nussbaum, “world history and economic understanding then must be humanistic and critical if they are to be at all useful in forming intelligent global citizens, and they must be taught alongside the study of religion and philosophical theories of justice” (Nussbaum, 2012, 94).

THE TEXTS OF TAGORE

If intellectual and cultural freedom were the overt agenda of Tagore's formulation of an alternative system of education free of pedagogic shibboleth and intellectual myopia, as defined repeatedly in his many essays on educational practises, his literary texts also attempted to push against the boundaries by attempting cultural and intellectual de-territorialization. So, according to Gayatri Spivak (2013), when Gora decides to drink water brought in by the Dalit lady Lachmiya, he actually becomes free, not via a shift in epistemic self-positioning but through empirical assertiveness.

Gora's conclusion therefore demonstrates how the humanities and social sciences, which have historically been lumped together as "arts," are intertwined in the intertextuality and critical diversity paradigms that are central to intersectionality research. Gora addresses Anandamoyee, his surrogate mother, as his sole mother after learning that he was an Irish orphan raised in a Hindu family. “You have no caste, no-castejudgement, no contempt—you are nothing but the image of our good! You are my Bharatvasha, indeed.” (Spivak 2013, p. 303).

Spivak, however, said clearly as a cultural critic that, while Gora closes with a summons to the Dalit domestic servant Lachmiya, Tagore "builds nothing on it." Spivak observes that, quoting Mahasweta Devi's heroine, Mary Oraon, the key character in "Shikar,", “Mahasweta takes the hybrid and puts a machete in her hand. Daughter of the rape of a Christian tribal domestic worker by a white imperialist displaced at Independence, Maryhas a Christian name as Gora has a Hinducorrects the failure of decolonization by the solitary exercise of a wild justice, a re-inscription of aboriginality” (Spivak 2013, 315).

Interestingly, Marxist critics such as Georg Lukacs panned GhareBaire, which he called as a "petit bourgeois tale of the shoddiest sort" and "at the intellectual service of the British Police" (Sen, 2015, p. 109)when it was released in 1916.. In 1936, Tagore wrote Char Adhyay, his third political book, which was a criticism of the Swadeshi movement and armed conflict. The social novels, on the other hand, were mostly focused on women. However, Tagore's inclusion attitude was important for sharing unrestricted information in all of these fictional storylines, a strong belief that led to his founding his exclusive educational institutions to practise inclusive knowledge.

So, in the true spirit of VasudhaivaKutumbakam, "the world is one family," Gora transforms from a prejudiced Hindu fanatic to a free and secular man. Gora says that he has discovered his identity and individuality, “I am Indian today. In me today there is no conflict among Hindu, Muslim and Christian society” (Spivak, 2013, p. 26).

Furthermore, Gayatri Spivak noted in her book, An Aesthetic Education in the Era of Globalization, that the parasitic pandemic of internet culture and the risks of globalisation romanticise artificial intelligence, post-human discourse, and programmed robotic reactions that become paradigmatic. “linguistic diversity can only curb the global. In the ferocious thrust to be ‘global’, ‘the humanities’ and the ‘qualitative social sciences’, ‘comparative’ at their best, are no longer a moving epistemological force. They will increasingly be like the opera, serving a peripheral function in society” (Spivak, 2013, p. 26). Rabindranath Tagore would have agreed with Spivak's observations and proviso, since it is clear that both these public and transformative thinkers thought that intellectual and cultural freedom were crucial for sustaining the inclusive spirit of universal humanism.

My central argument is that through holistic education and democratic approaches, Tagore's work demonstrates a radical effort to think beyond nationalist and gendered ideologies to create a truly international but also local field of practise, which can be described as cosmopolitan nationalism and underpins inclusive practises. Local Bengali cultures, agricultural methods, worldwide arts and ecumenical educational practises should all be regarded as intrinsically interrelated, according to Tagore, providing an alternative to realpolitik, rote learning, and utilitarian moral reasoning. This option is a step toward reconsidering gender, family, and nation. Tagore established a template for comprehensive

education in the early twentieth century while interrogating fractured knowledge. Tagore stated the following in an article about the aim of education in India:

> Education can only become natural and wholesome when it is the direct fruit of a living and growing knowledge... our education should be in full touch with our complete life; economical, intellectual, aesthetic, social and spiritual; and our educational institutions should be in the very heart of our society, connected with it by the living bonds of varied co-operations. For true education is to realize at every step how our training and knowledge have surroundings. (Dasgupta, 2009, p. 148).

Tagore's overt agenda regarding an alternative education system can be used to formulate interdisciplinary studies, cross-cultural studies, transdisciplinary studies, intersectionality studies, and critical diversity studies, leading to an inclusive approach enabling fortification of knowledge systems often disrupted by systemic fissures and ruptures, in order to decolonize the hegemony of Western knowledge paradigms in the global South, specifically India. Binaries and monoliths that solidify canons can be changed by inclusive knowledge paradigms and policies through cross-cultural comparativist exchanges, as is clear.

If such steps are not done, our rote learning will have the horrific outcome of destroying creative freedom, creative imagination, and leadership in the realm of ideas. In his well-known story, "The Parrot's Training," Tagore depicts the sad outcome of such myopic teaching in vivid detail. The parrot, who had been flying and singing all day, was imprisoned in a gilded cage, with encapsulated clichés from the past stuffed down its throat and its wings removed. The story reads like a Spielberg screenplay, grotesque and satirical, and is enlivened by Tagore's distinctive lyrical insight:

> The nephew said, “Your Majesty, the bird's education is now complete.”
>
> The King asked, “Does it still jump?” The nephew said, “God forbid.”
>
> “Does it still fly?” “No.”
>
> “Does it sing anymore?” “No.”
>
> “Does it scream if it doesn't get food?” “No.”
>
> The King said, “Bring the bird in. I would like to see it.”

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> The bird was brought in. With it came the administrator, the guards, the horsemen. The King felt the bird. It didn't open its mouth and didn't utter a word. Only the pages of books, stuffed inside its stomach, raised a ruffling sound. Outside, where the gentle south wind and the blossoming woods were heralding spring, the young green leaves filled the sky with a deep and heavy sigh.
>
> (Tagore, 2004)

Without concern about deviating from normative standards defining the aim of education, such as being job-oriented, skill-developers tied to corporate industries, Tagore's Visva-Bharati University's 2019 prospectus confidently asserts that:

> Visva-Bharati is a pilgrimage for education and culture. It reflects the Tagorean ethos of making a complete human being. It is a hallowed place of learning cradled in a serene environment in the lap of Nature, where Rabindranath founded a school for children at Santiniketan, and it was around this nucleus that the structure of an unconventional University [emphasis added] developed through careful planning and meticulous execution of those ideas and ideals. (Visva-Bharati Santiniketan, 2019, p. 6)

CONCLUSION

Tagore's educational worldview will surely be impossible and unachievable in the education sector, from basic schools to colleges, with its specific registry of commercial profits and private education industries—actively pushed to link to corporate sectors. As a result, Tagore's VisvaBharati University has followed the normative norms adopted by all state government aided and central government helped educational institutions since it became a central government supported university. The teaching-learning process at Visva-Bharati now prioritises the value of university degrees, as well as the required scores and grades for targeted job acquisition. As a result, in the age of globalisation, the pursuit of knowledge for the nourishment of a critically informed, emancipated mind has become more marginalised as unnecessary, idealistic, and useless.

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Furthermore, with its transition from the esoteric private to the exoteric public education sector, Visva-Bharati Central University at Santiniketan no longer reflects Tagore's idealistic priorities for education as a nurturing platform for an inclusive internationalist outlook derived from a systemic training in the humanities and performing arts. Because of the hegemony of economic and cultural globalisation, Visva-Bharati has succumbed to the pressures imposed by fast changing times, where job-oriented education is emphasised as the main focus. It is perhaps ironic that the Tagorean paradigm of a "unconventional University" should be regarded as a supremely viable project in the twenty-first century, where the teacher is regarded as a "transformative intellectual" in the role of a friend, philosopher, and guide, and education is defined as "practise of freedom" in the registers of empiricism, epistemology, and ontology.

However, in terms of spatio-temporal and geo-political attitudinal shifts considering education as a highly valuable enterprise, the process of experimenting in the education sector will necessarily be a continuing one, both internationally and locally. Experiential learning has already evolved, or rather re-emerged, as a viable new method of instruction that stimulates intellectual curiosity and creativity in the public education sector. However, the newly structured mechanisms for such complex experiential learning rather than rote learning may be traced back to Tagore's unique curriculum at VisvaBharati in Santiniketan, before it got national recognition as a public sector institution supported by the Indian government.

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The Role of Instructional Method on Efficiency of Academic Writing

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Abstract:

In this study, we focused on which method of teaching university students how to write academic papers is most beneficial. In this study, we looked at the impact of writing preference (planning versus rewriting) on academic writing ability, as well as the distinctions between observational learning and learning by doing. In one experiment, 145 undergraduates were divided into two groups and given the choice between two different methods of learning: learning by action or learning by observing. In observational learning, students were able to obtain insight into the writing processes of both strong and weak models. They learned by doing, and this was accomplished via writing tasks. After completing a questionnaire about their writing style, participants were divided into two groups: planners and revisers. Learning by doing, planning, and revising were all components of a 2x2 between-subjects design used to examine the impact of the sessions on students' writing preferences (observational learning). Academic writing abilities were assessed by requiring participants to compose an abstract for an empirical research paper. Neither teaching method nor writing choice had a significant impact on our study results. Despite the fact that both groups profited from observational learning, simple effect analyses showed that revisers benefited slightly more than planners. Planners outperformed their peers in both observational learning and hands-on training. It appears that planners who learn by doing outperformed revisionists who learn by doing. Students participating in academic writing courses may benefit from observational learning, according to our research. On the other hand, further investigation into instructional methods is necessary.

Keywords: Observational learning, learning by doing, academic writing, writing preference

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1. Introduction

Academics routinely voice their concerns about students' inability to examine, integrate, and synthesise scientific material (e.g., Granello, 2001). Over the course of history, numerous ways to teaching students how to improve their academic writing abilities have been taken. In this study, we compare the two techniques of teaching students how to write an academic paper: observational learning and learning by doing.

Content writing is a challenging and time-consuming task.. (Kellogg, 2008). So, what is it about the process of book authoring that is so difficult? One possible explanation for this phenomena is cognitive exhaustion (Braaksma, 2002). During the writing process, there is an interplay between four key cognitive activities: planning (generating ideas, organising information, and setting objectives), translating (putting thoughts into language), reviewing (evaluating and changing text), and monitoring (keeping track of progress) (deciding when to move from process to process). Every single one of these characteristics is important to keep in mind while writing a story (Flower & Hayes, 1981). They may lose sight of their own ideas due to the fact that they have to perform various tasks simultaneously and pay attention to numerous textual aspects at the same time (Braaksma, 2002). While this holds true for all authors, newcomers to the field should take note. There is little cognitive energy left over for the learner to gain knowledge from the writing process when the learner becomes so immersed in the writing process. Writing and learning to write are two distinct processes, but Observational Learning distinguishes between the two and provides a clear relationship between the writing process and the final output (Braaksma, 2002).

People learn through seeing and analysing the actions of others in observational learning (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1977) uses his Social Learning Theory to describe four sub-processes that occur between the observation of modelled occurrences and the formation of a matching pattern of behaviour. Viewers should focus on the behaviour exhibited by the models first and foremost. Second, viewers must be able to recall particular aspects of the behaviour they watched in order to duplicate it. Observers symbolically organise and practise the modelled behaviour before performing it in the actual world in the third phase of the replication sub-process. To conclude, the individual who is seeing the activity in issue has an impact on whether or not he or she chooses to repeat the actions he or she watched.

Braaksma, Van den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam, and Couzijn (2001) looked at observation activities that were beneficial to students learning to read and write argumentative texts for the first time and found a similar four-step strategy there as well.

An important difference between observational learning and most college coursework (learning by doing) is the absence of real writing in observational learning. This is especially true when it comes to learning to write. students see and respond to the writing processes of an instructor, as well as the development of the final texts, which exhibits the depth and breadth of writing to the teacher. You may be able to shift your focus from performing writing duties to learning new knowledge by watching (Couzijn, 1999; Rijlaarsdam&Couzijn, 2000; Braaksma, 2002).

A number of studies have shown that pupils of all ages benefit from observational learning when it comes to writing (as well as many other academic subjects) (e.g. Zimmerman &Kitsantas, 2002; Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Van den Bergh, 2002; Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008; Raedts, 2008). According to Couzijn and Rijlaarsdam (2004), students in an experimental course on writing an argumentative paper in ninth grade were divided into two groups: those who watched learning and those who learned by doing. They came to the conclusion that learning by doing was inferior than learning by observation. To the participants, who realised via practise that they needed a theoretical comprehension of argumentative writing, it was offered to them. Many literary assignments were completed in line with theory. It was exactly the same theory supplied to participants in the observational learning condition as in the prior condition. Attendees watched two peers do homework and thought aloud while they did so, rather than performing the assignments themselves. In order to judge whether or not the models successfully applied theory to their conditions, the participants were instructed to focus their attention on the models' performance before watching. Afterward, participants were asked to determine if one model did better than the other and to explain why this particular model fared less well. It was necessary for them to distinguish between "strong" and "weak" models as a result of this. Researchers Couzijn and Rijlaarsdam (2004) found that students who learnt by doing outperformed those who learned by following peer models while generating an argumentation composition.

An important reason why observational learning is so effective in teaching writing is because observers are actively engaged in metacognitive activities as part of the process of learning by doing. Watching the models' writing, as well as applying and establishing standards for writing, is the primary goal of this exercise. Models are observed and conceptualised, performance is evaluated, and explicit reflection on observed performance is undertaken.

In the same manner that adults learn how to write academic papers through observation, would it be appropriate for university students to learn how to do so? Only a few studies have looked at this issue, all of which were done by Raedts and his colleagues (e.g., Raedts, Rijlaarsdam, Van Waes&Daems, 2007). These studies compared the influence of observational learning with learning by doing on task knowledge and text quality among undergraduate students. All students were given a quick introduction to theoretical ideas during the first session. This was followed by writing tasks for the students who had learned by doing and watching videos in which a weak and strong model accomplished the same activities that they had done in class. Students were instructed to write down the procedures used by each model after completing their observations in order to determine which was the most effective model. Students in the observational learning condition, contrary to projections, did not have a better understanding of what a good literature review should look like. Their knowledge of effective writing techniques, on the other hand, was far more comprehensive. Specifically, training had an influence on information gathering and preparation of the content, but no effect on text creation and editing techniques. Study participants who learned by watching outperformed those who learned through action in terms of text quality, the researchers found. Compared to students who were learning by doing, those who were exposed to observational learning were more likely to link their sources and produce better-structured literature reviews (Raedts et al., 2007). (Raedts and colleagues, 2007).

For the first time, research by Raedts and colleagues suggests that students learning how to write academic papers may benefit from a method known as "observational learning". It's yet unclear how the unique traits of each kid will affect their test scores, for example. Depending on how they are taught to write, for example, students may have different preferences. Galbraith and Torrance (2004) outline two separate approaches to writing in research: a

planned approach and an interactive approach, which are often used. Before beginning to compose the entire text of their work, writers who employ the planning strategy focus on finding out what they want to portray. As soon as they know what they want to say, they concentrate on getting the message over in the most effective way. The development of a conceptual framework and outline of the text might be included in this method in order to organise the text's structure (Kieft, Rijlaarsdam, Galbraith, & Van den Bergh, 2007). Under the interactive approach, written material grows through a series of draughts because authors determine what they want to communicate as they are writing (Galbraith & Torrance, 2004). "an organic, developmental process in which you begin writing from the very beginning." is what Elbow (1998) explains in his article on the interactive method. Several pre-writing activities, such as free-writing, can be incorporated into this method (Elbow, 1998), and several draughts can also be written (Murray, 1980). In some cases, a planned strategy may be equally as effective as an interactive one, according to Galbraith and Torrance (2004). They say that because people's preferences for various strategies appear to vary, it may be necessary to accommodate different cognitive styles in education. According to Galbraith, Torrance, and Hallam (2006), students gained the most from writing instruction that was diametrically opposite to their chosen method of expression. Students who did not employ skills like brainstorming on their own benefited from writing instruction since it provided additional support and encouraged them to do so on their own.

Kieft, Rijlaarsdam and Van den Bergh (2008) evaluated the effect of adapting a writing course to students' writing methods on their performance. The authors refer to this method as a "revising strategy" while discussing it. They identified a correlation between personal writing preferences and writing instruction when conducting their investigation. Learning more about the writing process was more beneficial to students who preferred to prepare or modify their work via the use of their preferred medium. Rijlaarsdam et al. (2008) suggest that tailoring observational learning tasks to students' chosen writing styles may be useful. Observational assignments that offer feedback on planning difficulties may be useful for students who favour planning, while those who prefer revision may gain more from observations of writers who are dealing with revision obstacles. Observational activities that are diametrically opposite to the students' preferred means of learning, on the other hand, may yield more benefits for students, as suggested by Galbraith et al. Therefore, in this study,

researchers are interested in determining if a writer's preference for an educational technique influences academic writing performance.

We drew on the work of Raedts and others to build a study that compares learning by doing to learning by observation. A theoretical component is typically followed by a series of pre-structured writing projects for participants to complete. Participants in observational learning have access to the same theoretical information as they would in traditional learning, but they are instead obliged to observe and remark on the behaviour of models completing identical tasks (see for example, Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Van den Bergh, 2002; Couzijn&Rijlaarsdam, 2004; Raedts, 2008).

Using a similar approach, we've done the same thing in the present investigation. Observational learning was compared to learning by doing. All of the participants had the opportunity to learn about successful writing techniques. It then followed that observers were shown peer models thinking aloud while they completed a range of writing tasks in front of them, and this was followed by the observational learning condition's participants. The observers were presented a weak and a strong model, and they were asked to explain why they thought one model was better than the other. However, they didn't really compose the essay. In the learning-by-doing condition, models were undertaking tasks that people had completed in the observational learning condition, but they were doing so on their own.

As part of the research, participants were tasked with either seeing or taking part in the preparation of an introduction to an empirical research report using index cards (summaries of scientific articles). The participants had never done this before. Students are often obliged to prepare empirical research reports and literature reviews during their academic careers (Froese, Gantz, & Henry, 1998). Defining and clarifying a subject, reviewing previous research and finding linkages between multiple sources of information, discrepancies, gaps and inconsistencies within the literature are all necessary steps in writing about an issue. The academic writing assignments in Raedt's studies in the current study are more sophisticated and thorough than those in prior research, such as Kitsantas and Zimmerman (2002), because writers must mix various source texts and the texts do not have a pre-arranged format (2002).

Students in higher education need to learn how to analyse and synthesise the material they have gathered into cognitively sophisticated judgments of the literature in a systematic,

deliberate, and well-grounded manner, according to Granello (2001). Despite the fact that students may be unable to properly analyse and synthesise literature because they have not received clear instruction on how to do so, university teachers usually presume that students have these abilities, according to Green and Bowser (2006). As Green and Bowser (2006) point out, many university professors make the mistake of assuming that their students already have these skills since they haven't been taught how to teach them.

Raedts' literature review and this study's introduction posttest have a key difference: participants in our study were obliged to make sure that their literature review logically related to their (previously supplied) research topic and hypotheses. For our posttest we asked participants to write a short introduction to an empirical research article, which was part of the standard course evaluation for both Dutch for Academic Purposes and a course in research methodology. The effectiveness of an observational learning strategy in a presently given course might be evaluated using this approach.

The ability to write is one of the student attributes that we want to take into account. More planning-like acts including organising content, developing a text's structure, and condensing information into a paragraph were observed in four of six observation sessions in this study. Students who prefer planning over revising may benefit more from pre-writing observation than students who prefer revising, because the majority of the observations are based on models who are involved in pre-writing planning activities before commencing their writings.

An introduction to a long and complex writing project, like a research paper, is the focus of this study, which examines how instructional approaches and writing preferences affect academic achievement in the context of learning to write such an assignment. We believe that academic writing performance will be improved by observational learning rather than traditional learning by doing (H1). In terms of overall performance, we expect writers who favour planning to perform on par with writers who prefer revising. A propensity for writing may, on the other hand, lessen the impact of educational methods (H2).

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The study included a total of 211 undergraduate students from Tilburg University studying Communication and Information Sciences (n = 211). A obligatory course for Communication and Information Sciences majors, Dutch for Academic Purposes, recruited the participants. This course introduces students to the academic writing process. Various kinds of academic writing and their value are examined. None of the participants had ever written an academic paper at the university level before. Study findings were based on only first-time enrollees, those who showed up during both sessions and completed a questionnaire on their writing style, and native Dutch speakers. Final sample consisted of 54 males and 91 women, resulting in 145 participants. For the study, we included 72 pre-masters students with a high school diploma or GED (M age = 22.5, SD = 1.64), as well as seventy-three first-year bachelor students (M age = 18.5, SD = 1.25).

Nine instructional groups were formed from the attendees. First, they selected a time slot that matched their teaching schedule, and then groups were randomly assigned to either the learning-by-doing or observational learning conditions: five groups were assigned to the former and four to the latter. When they signed up for the tutorial groups, participants had no idea what they were getting themselves into. In the end, 81 people participated in a condition where they learned by doing, and 64 people participated in an observational learning condition. Table 1 summarises the characteristics of the people in each condition.

Table 1. Sex and mean age in years (SD) of the participants per condition

	Sex		Age	Educational Background	
Instructional Method	Male	Female	M (SD)	Bachelor	Pre-master
Learning by Doing	30	51	20.5 (2.46)	43	38
Observational learning	24	40	20.5 (2.45)	30	34

Participants in both conditions were comparable in terms of gender (χ^2 (1) = 0.003; p = .95), age (t(139)=0.09; p = .93) and educational background (χ^2 (1) = 0.55; p = .46).

2.2 Design

Observational learning and doing were the two teaching approaches employed, as were the writing preferences of plan and revise. A two-by-two layout was used for the overall design. Participants were shown recordings of student-actors executing writing tasks while thinking aloud, and they were then asked to finish the assignments. Traditional writing assignments in a learning-by-doing context enhanced student performance dramatically. It was necessary for participants to fill out a questionnaire on their personal writing styles prior to the sessions starting. The findings of this questionnaire characterised them as either a planner or a reviser. Academic writing performance was evaluated following a post-test assessment of teaching approach and writing preference. High-level design information may be found in Table 2.

Table 2. General Research Design

Lecture	Duration (minutes)	Measurement
-	-	Writing style questionnaire Language proficiency test
3	50	Session 1
4	50	Session 2
-	-	Posttest: introduction to an academic paper

2.3 “Procedures and materials used in the sessions are described in detail below. The sessions' content was divided into three categories”

They were held in conjunction with course Dutch for Academic Purposes, which was currently in session at the time of the sessions. They had no prior understanding of the subject and no prior experience with academic writing when they attended these tutorials, which were held in the third and fourth weeks of their university studies. Lecturers demonstrated how an article's abstract, introduction, method and results sections, together with a discussion of the findings, a conclusion and citations, were all necessary components of an article. In the third and fourth weeks of the course, four teachers led tutorials under the guidance of the first author, who also happened to be one of the instructors at the time. There were two groups of students allocated to each instructor: an observational group and a learning-by-doing group.

During a meeting a week before the sessions, they went through the processes, a thorough lesson plan, and a presentation that included the exercises.

Six movies were given to participants one-on-one over the course of two sessions in the observational learning condition (three in each session). It took around 50 minutes for each session. Participants could copy and paste an introduction written by two peer models using four index cards from the videos. The models had to incorporate a synopsis of a scientific article in their introductions for the competition on each index card. Each video focused on a different component of how to write an academic paper's beginning (Table 3). Based on the literature on effective and ineffective writing methods (e.g. Graham &Perin (2007), as well as ideas from a study by Raedts and colleagues (2009), the substance of the films was based on the research (2007). (2009). Teaching students how to prepare, revise, and edit their writing is a very successful approach of enhancing their writing, according to Graham and Perin (2007). According to some, students should be taught methods for summarising readings in order to better communicate their understanding in written form. These sorts of activities were therefore integrated into the workouts and movies that we made.

Rather than just acting out a scenario for camera, these actors acted out a script and were told to think aloud as they recorded it. The script included examples and detailed directions on how to type phrases and make observations out loud while thinking. The following is an excellent example of a model instruction: 'Tell kids that the first paragraph should focus on how much more attention they are receiving these days and how they are utilising ICT. Create a bullet point with the introductory paragraph's keywords in it to get things started. Actors who were students also had a chance to submit their own thoughts and help make the videos more authentic and compelling. Two models were chosen because students are more likely to identify with at least one of the models when they watch them in action (Schunk, 1987). Both models employed successful techniques to finish tasks (strong model), whereas the other model used counterproductive strategies to accomplish the assignments (weak model) (weak model). This is in accordance with prior studies (Groenendijk, Janssen, Van den Bergh, &Rijlaarsdam, 2011; Raedts et al., 2008; Couzijn&Rijlaarsdam, 2004). This is a flimsy model. While the weak model just read the index cards, the strong model compared and contrasted the studies on each index card to see if there was a correlation between

methodology and results. A student actor (Anne) played the strong model in all of the videos, while a student actor (Kristel) played the weak model in each one. The films were only accessible to participants during the training sessions.

iMovie was used to edit the films, which were filmed using Camtasia, which allows for simultaneous, picture-in-picture recording. A tape of the model using the computer, her voice, and the Word screen she was working on were all used in the creation of each artwork. Even when the models were not writing (e.g. reading and scrolling through index cards, pausing etc.), the participants were able to see exactly what the models were doing. The participants gained insight into the models' cognitive processes and writing techniques by capturing their voices. Participants were able to watch the models' on-screen writing operations, including as typing, erasing, and rewriting, by recording the computer screen. Films ranged in duration from five to thirteen minutes. One of the videos is shown in Figure 1. When it comes to making an eye-catching first line, Kristel is having a difficult time.

Both sessions of the learning by doing condition were 50 minutes long. Participants were instructed to use the material on four index cards to write an introduction to a research paper throughout both sessions. Pre-planned tasks led to a comprehensive introduction in the first session. The activities have to be completed in a short period of time. It is clear from Table 4 that under the observational learning condition, the activities were based on movie content, which will be covered in further depth in a subsequent section (in the next section the similarities between the two conditions will be discussed in more detail). As part of the second session, participants were given four index cards with information about a certain subject and were asked to write an introduction to it. Table 4 provides a breakdown of the learning-by-doing sessions' exercises.

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Table 3. Content of the Videos in the Observational Learning Condition

Session	Video	Content	Duration
1	1	Reading, selecting, organizing and paraphrasing the information on the index cards	50 minutes
	2	Planning content and main structure	
	3	Organizing the body of the introduction (relating the content information from the different sources)	
2	4	Zooming in on the paragraphs (combining studies within a paragraph)	50 minutes
	5	Adding an opening to the introduction and writing a sentence at the end of the (last) paragraph to bridge the gap to the research questions	
	6	Revising the text at word, sentence and text level.	

In both cases, there are a number of parallels and differences.

Each of the situations was identical to the other in every way that could be expected. First week of class video lectures were shown to all students, with information on different aspects of an introduction (opening, literature review, bridge to research question and hypotheses). During each session, we emphasised to participants that their objective was to prepare them for writing an introduction to a certain subject (for example, the use of ICT in higher education or the importance of gestures in nonverbal communication) by synthesising knowledge from many academic sources. That method of working would be fine for drafting an introduction for the first paper, as well, students were told. In all cases, the substance of the exercises was the same for both situations. Observational learning videos 1, 2, 3, and 4 (Table 3) correspond to exercises 1, 2, and 3 from the learning-by-doing condition, video 5 corresponds to exercise 4, and video 6 corresponds to exercise 5. Watching videos 1, 2, 3, and 4 correspond to exercises 1 through 3 in the "learning-by-doing" category (Table 4) of learning. In the learning-by-doing condition, participants were obliged to do the same activities during their first session, which were captured in the films of observational learning condition. They were the same exercises.

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Figure 1: Screenshot of a fragment with weak model Kristel.
Translation of text in Figure 1: "Learning and technology.
It is impossible to imagine our society without ICT."

The participants in both situations received index cards. In addition to the summary of an academic work pertaining to the theme of the introduction, each index card featured a synopsis of another academic article. By employing index cards, we were able to speed up the reading process while simultaneously guaranteeing that all of the students were obtaining similarly relevant information on the topic. There was an index card for the original article that had all of the information from that article, including a full citation, the research question, kind of data, and a summary of the study's most relevant findings. The first and third index cards showed two distinct points of view. Contrary to the first and third index cards, the second and fourth index cards presented an opposing viewpoint.

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Table 4. Content of the Exercises in the Learning-by-doing Condition

Session	Exercise	Instruction	Time (minutes)
1	1	Read index card 1 and 2 and write a paragraph in which you describe the most important/relevant results. Refer to the sources by using APA standards.	10
	2	Read index card 3. Add the information of the index card to the paragraph you have written in exercise 1.	5
	3	Read index card 4. Add the information to the paragraph of exercise 1 and 2. Divide your text into two paragraphs, if necessary.	5
	4	Read the instructions once more. Add an opening to the introduction and write a sentence at the end of the (last) paragraph in which you bridge the gap to the research questions.	10
	5	Revise your text on text level (structure, composition) and sentence level (spelling, vocabulary, grammar).	5
2	6	Write an introduction to the topic provided. Use the information on the index cards.	50

The index card in Figure 2 is shown in an example. Index cards used in the first session by participants in the observational learning condition were similar to index cards used in session two. Similarly, the index cards used in both sessions were identical. During the second session, participants in the learning-by-doing condition received an extra four index cards, bringing the total to eight. They were provided a chart of efficient writing techniques in addition to the index cards that we gave them in both cases (Table 5). These techniques resembled those used by the 'stronger' character in the movies. As part of the experiment, those who took part in observational learning were asked to complete a table detailing the strategies used by the models in the movies they viewed.

Reference

Bennett, S., Maton, K., & Kervin, L. (2008). The 'digital natives' debate: A critical review of the evidence. *British journal of educational technology*, *39*(5), 775-786.

Details about the research

Research theme: analysis of the digital natives debate, with the following research questions:

1. Do students nowadays possess extensive ICT knowledge and skills?
2. Do students have specific learning preferences that are different from earlier generations, because of their experience with ICT?

Type of research: literature review

Data: scientific articles

Results

1. ICT knowledge and skills
   - Part of today's youth has extensive ICT knowledge and skills and uses these skills for information gathering and communication..
   - However, there is also a large group with less access to technology or with less skills than is sometimes assumed.
   - It is dangerous to generalize a whole generation: no room for individual differences between young people or between different age categories.
2. Learning preferences
   - Research into learning strategies shows many individual differences in learning preferences. Students adapt their strategy, dependent on the task.

Conclusion

Not much empirical evidence to support the concept of *digital natives*. ICT can be important, but the situation is much more complex and unclear than expected. More empirical research is necessary to gain insight into the characteristics of students nowadays and the implications for education.

Quote

With generalization of a complete generation comes the danger that those less interested and less able will be neglected, and that potential impact of socio-economic and cultural factors will be overlooked.

Figure 2. Example of an index card.

Before beginning the activities, participants in the "learning by doing" condition utilised the table to make themselves ready. Participants were also asked to fill out a table at the end of

each activity detailing the approaches they used. All participants were given a same amount of exposure to effective writing abilities, and all conditions had a similar reflective task, thus we included the table in both conditions.

In a setting where students are learning by doing, the steps are as follows:

The first session took place in a computer room during the first instructional session. During the session, each participant had access to a computer. Tables explaining effective writing processes and exercises that may be done as a consequence, four index cards, and an appendix with basic guidelines for APA-referencing were given to the participants.

Table 5. Writing Strategies presented to the participants in both conditions

Effective strategies	Corresponding actions
Reading important information	Read the research question and the results.
Organizing the information	Identify general differences and similarities.
Paraphrasing	Put important information into your own words.
Planning	Plan the content and structure by organizing key concepts.
Connecting the content	Identify the differences and similarities between studies in detail.
Combining studies	Connect the content of the different studies in your own text. Use connective words/sentences to mark the relations explicitly.
Adding a quote (optional)	Add a quote using APA guidelines to support an important point.
Revising the text	Check your own text on text level (structure, logic) and sentence level (grammar, vocabulary, spelling).

According to the teacher, who walked the students through the process, they had to complete five short writing exercises in which they drew an introduction to an academic piece on four index cards. Reading through the directions, effective writing, and index cards were given to each participant for 10 minutes each. After that, everyone was shown a presentation of the first exercise on a computer screen. Instructor presented the next exercise when a chime sounded at the end of the previous exercise. As soon as they finished each of the five tasks in the course, students were required to submit their introduction to the online learning

environment and to list the writing methods they used in a table (see Table 5) on the last page of the handout. It was the same table they had looked at before beginning the activities on it. The instructor collected the handouts together at the end of the session. Second session participants were given an example of how to make a good first impression. For instance, the strong model ("Anne") developed an introduction that was utilised as an example in the observational learning videos.

During the second instruction, the second session was conducted in the same computer room as the first. In addition to the initial handout, participants were given a second one that included the same information. People who attended the lecture were handed index cards with information on the subject and were asked to write an introduction on the handout. An effective opening, a summary of academic literature, and a bridge phrase that links the (previously supplied) research question and hypothesis are all required components of the introduction. In addition, the writing should be error-free, with no typos or grammatical mistakes. This project had a tight deadline of thirty minutes, so the team had to work rapidly. This was followed by a task in which students had to record in a table their choices of writing methods and then submit their work into an online learning environment (OLA). The teacher picked up all of the handouts at the end of the session..

The approach for observational learning is as follows:

A beamer and computer were used for the second session, which occurred during the first tutorial and the second session during the second lecture, respectively, in a conventional classroom setting. The identical method was used for both sessions. An introduction to observation exercises, four identical index cards, and three observation exercises were provided to participants for the first session of the learning by doing condition. The participants completed exercises 1, 2, and 3 for that session and exercises 4, 5, and 6 for the second session (see Table 3). Participants were instructed to observe other participants while they worked on their own writing tasks, and we explained that the exercise's purpose was to teach them how to effectively integrate knowledge from many academic sources into an introduction to a certain subject. Attendees had no idea that the models were really student actors at the event. The participants were informed that they might use the concepts they had learnt in class when writing their first paper of the semester's introduction. Before beginning

the tasks, each participant was asked to carefully read the introduction and all of their index cards.

The instructor then started displaying the first video. While viewing the film, the handout provided a place to jot down remarks. Participants were given five minutes to reply to the following questions after seeing the video: Which differences did you notice in the writing styles of the two authors? Who is the best writer in your view, and why? Because of what she did, did you think she was a worse writer than the other author? The lecturer would then begin playing the video below. In order to identify which strategies they believed the models were using, participants completed a table after seeing the last film in the session and answering the accompanying questions. This table was identical to the one that was used in the learning-by-doing experiment (see Table 5).

2.4 Measures

Mastery of a second language

They had to complete a grammar, spelling, and punctuation exam before they could begin the classes in order to rule out any disparities between them in their initial language abilities. Developed by Tilburg University's Language Center more than a decade ago, the exam is used as a diagnostic tool for undergraduate students at the university. This quiz had 25 questions in it, eight of which were about congruency and five of which were on verb conjugations. Endophoric phrases were the last item on the list (12). Verb and noun spellings, punctuation, and usage of punctuation in sentences were all examined using forty items in this study (7).

On structure was done with 10 questions: 4 on organising sentences, 3 using conjunctions, and 3 assessing paragraph structure (3). Each section might get a maximum of a quarter point for grammar, a quarter point for spelling, and ten points for structure. Grammar scores ranged from 0 to 25, while spelling and punctuation scores ranged from 40 to 10, and structure scores ranged from 10 to 40.

Preferences for the written word

Participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire produced by Kieft, Rijlaarsdam, and Van den Bergh (2006) before to the sessions to identify their favourite style of writing. As a result

of its extensive usage in research publications, this questionnaire was chosen as the best option (e.g., De Smet, Brand-Gruwel, Leijten& Kirschner, 2014; Kieft, Rijlaarsdam& Van den Bergh, 2008; Tillema, 2012). The 36-item writing style test was meant to measure participants' claimed degrees of planning and rewriting techniques..

Thirteen questions showed planning behaviour, twelve indicated revision behaviour, and the last eleven were fillers. In the writing style questionnaire, pre-writing tasks such as establishing a text schema and producing a polished first draught fall under the category of planned-type behaviour. This concept is divided into two parts: the tendency to depend on revision and the way revisers utilise text creation to arrive at a content strategy (Tillema, 2012).

On a scale of one to five, participants were asked to indicate how much they agreed with each issue (1 being completely disagree, 5 being completely agree). Questionnaires were taken through the internet. "Before I begin writing, I want to be sure that the information that will be included in the text is accurate," says a planning item. Therefore, I attach great importance on planning ahead.' As an example of revising, the following statement was made: 'When I complete a work, I generally need to read it over carefully to make sure there isn't any redundant material in it: The Appendix contains all of the objects in a dimensionally organised format (taken from Tillema, 2012).

In the genuine questionnaire, each item was given in Dutch and in a random sequence, as mentioned above. A combined planning and revision score (Cronbach's alpha =.65) and a combined revision score (Cronbach's alpha =.60) were generated for each item. In spite of their modesty, their reliabilities are on par with those discovered in previous research (e.g. Tillema, 2012, respectively .72 and .64, and De Smet, Brand-Gruwel, Leijten, & Kirschner, 2014, respectively .71 and .63). Participants were given a mean score for planning and modifying tasks based on their replies.

Academic Writing Proficiency

As a post-course assessment, the first author rated each participant's first paper's introductory section, which they were obliged to write for the course Dutch for Academic Purposes. To test the influence of adjectives on the perceived attractiveness of a commercial advertising, participants in this article presented an experiment. Attendees who attended seminars

received four index cards that looked just like the ones they'd seen throughout the sessions. Included in this study were the following elements: a comprehensive reference to the original article, a summary of the study's most significant results, and a quotation from the source. Index cards 1 and 3 had outcomes that were very comparable, whereas index card 2 had results that were polar opposites. Because it included a new element, the research on index card 4 had the potential to influence the results of the previous three studies. We gave the students the task of coming up with an intriguing and relevant introductory paragraph for their paper. To sum up, the introduction should attract the reader's attention, be neither too formal nor too casual and define the work's premise. The following instructions were provided to the participants after they saw the video lecture from week two. To ensure that the introduction led logically to the study question and hypotheses, the students were told to incorporate all four index cards in it. All of the groups received the same instruction.

In order to gauge the quality of the students' academic writing, the texts were assessed according to the argument's structure. Six criteria were used to assess this dimension: When comparing results from index cards 1, 2 and 3, it is necessary to look for similarities and differences, as well as similarities and differences in paragraph structure, paragraph structure, and paragraph structure in general, among other things (e.g. connective words). Zero-valued items may get one or two points, with a maximum potential score of twelve for each item.

In order to remove any personal information from the papers, a teaching assistant was in charge. Afterwards, the writings were analysed by the initial author, who was fully uninformed of the respondent's identity and the experimental conditions. To ensure interrater reliability, Pearson's r values of 0.76 and 0.75 were used to compare the scores of two specially trained student assistants on each of the papers. Two trained student assistants re-scored all of the books. A codebook given with the readings had three examples for each of the potential scores for each category.

2.5 Statistical Analyses

Writing Preference (plan, rewrite) and Instructional Method (learning by doing, observational learning) were examined as independent variables in an ANCOVA along with the posttest score in order to compensate for the effects of prior schooling.

3. Results

3.1 Language Proficiency and Writing Preference

Before addressing the results of the research on the impact of instructional style on academic writing performance, it is important to review the general findings on the link between initial language proficiency and writing preference.

Acquiring Language Skills at the Start

The participants' initial level of language ability was assessed using a variety of grammar, spelling, punctuation, and structural exams. Listed in Table 6 are the mean results on each of these assessments. For grammar, spelling and punctuation, and structure ($t(140)=-0.77$; $p=.45$), there were no statistically significant differences between the conditions ($t(140)= 0.94$, 0.07, and 0.94, respectively). Thus, it is plausible to conclude that both groups have equivalent levels of linguistic proficiency.

Table 6. Mean Scores on grammar, spelling and punctuation and structure (SD) per condition

	Grammar *M (SD)*	Spelling *M (SD)*	Structure *M (SD)*
Instructional Method			
Learning by Doing	18.25 (3.07)	32.73 (3.20)	5.57 (1.29)
Observational learning	17.72 (3.55)	32.69 (3.36)	5.74 (1.33)

Preferences for the written word

Participants' answers to a questionnaire on their writing style were used to get a mean score for planning and revising. In contrast to Revisers, who obtained a higher score for planning than for revising, the Planners were those who received a higher score for planning. This led to the hiring of 38 Planners and 120 Revisers (see Table 7 for the distribution over conditions). With regards to the results of Torrance, Thomas, and Robinson, the percentage of participants who favour planning (24.1 percent) and revising (75.9 percent) seems to be comparable (2000). 23.5 percent of the 715 essays assessed in their longitudinal research used a thorough preparation technique, which includes actions such as writing an outline and

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one or more subject inquiry tasks. Most students used a revision method that enabled them to allow their thoughts to develop as they wrote the remaining essays. Even though one writing preference is more prominent than the other, the writing preferences are not mutually exclusive, even if one option is more dominant in general.

Table 7. Number of Planners and Revisers per condition

	Planners	Revisers
Instructional Method		
Learning by Doing	21	60
Observational learning	17	47

There were no statistically significant differences in writing preferences among the instructional technique conditions (p =.93; 2 (1) = 0.01; p =.93). Therefore, it is acceptable to conclude that the two circumstances are equivalent in terms of their preferred writing styles.

Academic writing standards

We analysed the impact of instructional methods and writing preferences on academic writing quality while controlling for educational background, and the findings were startling.. Findings from this study show that academic text quality is strongly linked with educational background. There were no significant differences in teaching approach (F(1, 140) = 0.40, p =.53), or in the kind of writing students chose to produce, when the student's educational background was taken into account using the ANCOVA. Participants who favoured planning and rewriting over other writing methods in both circumstances of the research are summarised in Table 8 of this report.

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Table 8. Academic Writing Performance in relation to Instructional Method and Writing Preference (minimal score 0, maximal score 12)

	Learning by doing Mean (*SD*)	Observational learning Mean (*SD*)	Total Mean (*SD*)
Revising preference	5.83 *(2.78)*	6.96 *(2.38)*	6.33 *(2.66)*
Planning preference	7.14 *(2.33)*	6.94 *(3.21)*	7.05 *(2.72)*
Total	6.17 *(2.72)*	6.95 *(2.60)*	

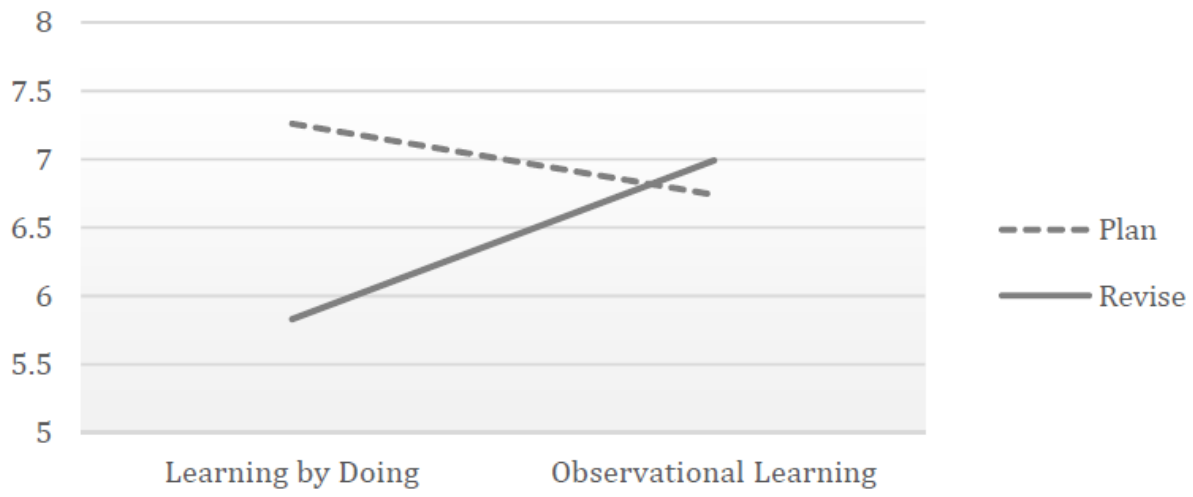

Figure 3: Academic writing performance in relation to instructional method and writing preference (minimal score 0, maximal score 12).

F(1, 140) = 2.78, p =.097, and p2 =.020 indicate a significant interaction between instructional approach and writing preference. A statistically significant impact of instructional style was found for those who favoured revising, F(1,140) = 5.16, p =.025, and p2 =.336 for those who preferred revising. There was a significant difference between students who revise in the observational learning condition and students who revise in the learning-by-doing condition. According to F(1, 140) =.36 and p =.55, participants who liked planning showed no differences in reaction to instructional approaches.

The propensity for writing was likewise kept consistent in simple main effects trials. Findings from these analyses show that learning by doing participants who favoured revising scored considerably better than participants who liked planning (F(1, 140) = 4.62, p =.033, and P2 =.0032). A F(1, 140) =.112 and a p value of.74 showed no difference between the observational learning and control groups. As a visual representation of data, graph 3 shows the mean scores for academic writing.

4. Discussion

To find out whether academic writing ability correlates with instructional approach (observational learning vs learning by doing) and writing choice, this research was conducted (planning versus rewriting). Our objective was to see whether observational learning is an effective method for tackling a large and difficult writing assignment while also taking into account the student's own writing style. An ecologically appropriate context for this research was an established undergraduate course inside a typical study programme, with the posttest being a real assignment.

An educational strategy was not shown to have an impact in this research. According to the findings, those who learned by looking at examples rather than by doing performed as well as those who learned by doing. There was no discernible difference between the two techniques in terms of effectiveness. However, this is at odds with the results of the study by the same authors, who found that the instructional style had a significant influence on student learning. This study was able to discover statistical differences under specified settings because of the similarity of the samples, and because the statistical analysis we used was sensitive enough to detect differences under those conditions, which shows that the participants benefited from their sessions. Similarly to Raedts et alfirst .'s research, the current one used a similar methodology. Just like the last research, the only difference was that in the learning-by-doing condition, we integrated a form of self-evaluation and reflection. A table of successful approaches was compiled by participants who learned by doing and mentioned the ways they had used while carrying out the activities they had learned from. As a consequence of this, the line between observational learning and learning by doing may have gotten more blurred. When it comes to the inconsistencies in results, we are uncertain whether or not this can be attributed to merely a small number of the sessions.

To our surprise, there was no variation in outcomes depending on how people like to write. Planners and revisers didn't do a great job. In line with Galbraith and Torrance (2004), who found no clear evidence linking a specific writing inclination to increased writing abilities.

According to our second hypothesis, a propensity for writing lessens the efficacy of an instructional strategy. We found no overall influence of instructional strategy on performance, but our data indicated unique patterns for participants who favoured planning vs those who favoured reviewing. Observational learning was shown to be marginally more useful for students who like to revise than other techniques of learning. This study found that those revisers in the observational learning condition were better at tying together the index card information, as well as creating an acceptable introduction and linking the research questions than those revisers in the learning by doing condition. Planners were shown to have minimal impact on the instructional approach. This seems to be at odds with the results of Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, and Van den Bergh (2008), who reported that students obtained more information from a writing course that was adapted to their preferred writing style. There's a good chance that planners will gain most from observational learning since the bulk of pre-writing planning chores were seen. Some researchers believe, however, that students who utilised a revision method may have been forced to experiment with new, more successful tactics when writing the posttest introduction, as suggested by Galbraith et al. (2006).

We also believe that planners gain more from learning by doing than revisers. Less focus is placed on pre-writing methods in these activities, as compared to the more typical exercises, In any case, these strategies are likely to be used by planners. On the writing style questionnaire, for example, students who reported a greater level of planner-type behaviour used more planning activities at the beginning of task execution, says Tillema (2012). Van Weijen (2008) found a link between the probability of planning and the quality of a writer's work at the start of the writing process. In the context of learning by doing, planners tend to outperform revisers. Planners, rather than revisers, would seem to gain the most from a more conventional writing education in this scenario. Since a result, it's reasonable to say that the majority of students in our research learned how to write an academic paper by observation rather than through teaching, as planners and revisers did equally well. On the other hand, if the models are based on alternative methodologies, such as more extensive revision

processes, planners may gain more from observational learning than they did in the present research. Additionally, putting what you've learned via observational learning in regular, deliberate practise in real writing may help keep the benefits continuing for the long term..

In order to make better writing judgments, additional study is required to understand the relationship between writing preference, instructional strategy, and writing performance. Using a self-reported questionnaire, we don't know the strategies the students used when writing the posttest in this research, for example. Depending on the strategies used by students, the influence of the teaching strategy may be minimised or amplified. It's also worth noting that our decision to divide the participants into revisionists and planners may have influenced the study's findings. The participants received a mean score from the group for both planning and revising. Planners were defined as individuals who scored better on planning than on revising; those who scored higher on both planning and revising were defined as planners. This resulted in the formation of a 76 percent bigger revising group than the original planning group (24 percent). Revisers in general may use certain planning strategies, and planners may use some planning approaches as well.

Future research should examine how participants really prepare and revise before sessions and during the posttest, for example by adding keystroke recording into the experiment's design. This research will provide further information on how the use of writing strategies and their relationship to writing performance might be influenced by observational learning and learning by doing. Academic writing competence should also be assessed as part of the admissions screening process. This information was omitted from the present research. No a priori disparities in the experimental groups' languages skills exist, thus we have no basis to suppose that these early differences in language competence have an influence on the sessions' results.

A intriguing conundrum remains as to what makes observational learning at least as effective as learning by doing, especially for writers who enjoy revising their work after they've written it.. According to Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, Van den Bergh, and Van Hout-Wolters (2004), this is owing to the observers' high levels of engagement in metacognitive activities, as previously indicated. The models' performance must be assessed and their observed performances must be openly stated after they have been seen in order for observers to create

criteria for successful writing. Learning by doing typically lacks this explicit assessment and reflection, which is fostered in observational learning by asking participants questions about the model's performance. As part of the present research, we asked participants to provide feedback on the approaches they used throughout the interventions, allowing us to compare the two learning-by-doing conditions. Nevertheless, this was a lesser fraction of the interventions in the observational learning condition than in the evaluation and reflection section. There is a lot of need for additional research into the role of self-evaluation and reflection in both observational learning and learning via action.

5. Conclusion

We studied the impact of instructional approach (observational learning vs. learning by doing) and writing choice on academic writing performance. We wanted to see if observational learning is a successful method for completing a large and complicated writing task, as well as what impact writing choice had on student performance.

We observed that neither instructional approach nor writing choice had any significant major effects in this study. This suggests that both tactics were equally effective in teaching students how to write the introduction of an academic report, and we found no indication that one writing style was more effective than the other. For students who prefer to edit their work, however, observational learning appears to be more beneficial. Introductions written by revisionists who learned via observation were well-organized than those produced by revisionists who learned through action. Planners outperformed their rivals in both observational learning and learning by doing. In the revision process, however, planners who learnt by doing seemed to outperform their peers.

As established by our research, observational learning may be an effective instructional technique for learning how to generate an academic work in which several sources must be combined and there is no pre-arranged framework. This is an interesting prospect for (online) academic writing courses when there is little opportunity for individual feedback. More study is needed, however, to discover the exact link between instructional approach, writing preference, and classroom academic writing performance.

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Appendix

Items in the Writing Style Questionnaire (Kieft et al., 2006; 2008), sorted according to which dimension they measure. *: item is negatively formulated

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Planning
Before I start writing, I want to have it clear which information to put in the text. Therefore, planning is important to me.
If I have to write a text, I spend a lot of time on thinking about my approach.
I always make a text schema before I start writing.
If I have to write something, I jot down some notes, which I work out later.
Before I start writing a text, I write something on a scribbling pad, to find out my opinion about the topic.
* Planning is of no use to me.
* When I start writing, I don't yet have a clear idea of what will be in the text.
Before I start writing, I have a clear picture of what I want to achieve with the readers.
I need to have my thoughts clear before I am able to start writing.
Before I write a sentence down, I already have it in my head.
* When I am writing, I sometimes write down pieces of text of which I know that they are not completely right yet. Still, I prefer to go on writing at that point.
* When I read over my texts, I usually find a lot to improve.
* When I read over my texts, they are sometimes very chaotic.
Revising
* I always start writing straight away: I don't need to know exactly what I will write or how the text will be built-up. That will become clear as I write.
When my text is ready, I read it through thoroughly and make improvements: a lot can still be changed at that point.
During writing I regularly check if my text does not contain any sentences which are incorrect or too long.
While writing my text, I continually ask myself if readers will be able to follow it.
For me, writing is a way to get my thoughts clear.
* I usually hand in my text without checking if its organization is in order.
If I read over my texts, and rewrite my texts, it occurs regularly that I drastically change their organization
Before I hand in a text, I always check if its build-up is logical.
* I never pay much attention to whether I have forgotten to put any sentences or ideas in a text.
When I rewrite a text, the content usually changes drastically, too.
When I finish a text, I usually need to read through it carefully, to check if there is no superfluous information in it.
I never pay much attention to whether I am satisfied with my texts.

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Fillers
I write and rewrite my text sentence per sentence. Only if I am completely satisfied with a sentence, do I proceed with writing.
When I am writing, I find it hard to organize my thoughts.
Only if my text is complete, do I read what I have written.
If finally I have an approximate idea of what to say in my text, the words will flow out of my pen.
When I write, I stop writing after every few sentences to read what I have just written.
I try to write a correct version of my text in one go, so that I hardly have to make any alterations when it's finished.
When I write a text, I find it hard to come up with ideas.
When I am writing, I often find that all kinds of new ideas pop into my head.
For writing tasks, I do not find it very hard to think of arguments to support my point of view.
The texts which I write are usually not very original.
I make sure that every sentence is perfect, before I start with the next sentence.
When my text is finished, the only thing I do is check for language or spelling mistakes.

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3

Analysing Self-Regulation in Academic Writing:

A Study of Select Essay Writers

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Abstract:

A sociocultural approach to understanding how social environment and social interaction are connected to writing regulation has been more important in writing research over the past several decades. Self-regulation in three successful Bachelor essay writers in literature is examined via a participatory appropriation theory lens, and how contact with supervisors helped them acquire writing regulation in ways appropriate to their academic backgrounds. With the help of Pintrich's self-regulation framework, we conducted three in-depth qualitative interviews with participants at three different stages throughout the research. Using data from this study on students' self-regulation of writing and social interactions, such as their conversations with their supervisors, researchers were able to see whether there was any overlap between the two. In light of our results, we may infer that supervisors acted as socializers, helping students adopt disciplinary-relevant ways of thinking and behaving while also encouraging students' motivation and re-conceptualizing the writing process. This study, seen as a whole, answers to requests for research into the social framework in which self-regulation is rooted.

Keywords: writing supervision, disciplinary writing, writing regulation, metacognition, motivation

1. Introduction

"Academic writing, I'm madly in love with you," proclaims an outlandish essay. Hayot (2014) uses the term "Really, I do," to characterise the "experience of transformation," that is academic writing as follows:

While some of the people I know and don't know have been thwarted and disappointed, others have grown, been praised and transformed as a result of their journey through the writerly disciplines that now govern humanities studies... A self-chosen academic prose apprenticeship can be life-changing...

Throughout this article, we'll discuss three examples of personal development that were sparked by the creation of an academic composition—in this case, a bachelor's degree essay in humanities.

To become an expert in academic writing, one must first learn about a topic and then learn how to think about and communicate this information in a specific context for a certain audience (Berkenkotter&Huckin, 1995; Carter, Ferzli& Wiebe, 2007). Thus, academic writing involves a high degree of self-regulation of learning (SRL) in the form of setting objectives for one's writing in connection to one's topic and audience as well as controlling one's behaviour, thoughts, and feelings during the writing process. Self-regulation (SR) in writing development has been extensively researched, particularly in elementary and secondary school settings, from both a cognitive and a socio-cognitive viewpoint, according to the authors of this paper (see Graham, Gillespie & McKeown, 2013; Graham &Perin, 2007; Graham &Rijlaarsdam, 2016). Sociocultural studies that explain how writing control organically evolves in social contexts and advanced disciplinary contexts are becoming more popular, although they are still rare. According to Sala-Bubaré and Castelló's (2018) review of the past two decades of empirical research on writing regulations, an emerging challenge is to "account for regulation in situated [Higher Education] contexts," as well as the need for greater conceptual clarity about how regulation is investigated (2018, p. 773).

This study brings together sociocultural research on learning regulation and writing regulation, both of which are undertaken from a sociocultural perspective. Researchers in cognitive science and educational psychology have been more sensitive to context and social dynamics, acknowledging that research on self-regulation (SR) / self-regulated learning

(SRL) has become more sensitive to context and social dynamics (Nishino & Atkinson, 2015, p. 37). (Azevedo, 2009; Hadwin&Oshige, 2011). SSRL and co-regulated learning (cf. Hadwin, Järvelä, and Miller, 2018; Hadwin and Oshige, 2011), concepts that have only lately been recognised as socially embedded and growing processes of self-regulation. It has therefore moved closer to sociocultural studies of writing regulation, which tend to shift away from individual cognition in favour of socially-mediated processes of academic enculturation that are engaged in the creation of text (Prior, 2006; Prior &Bilbro, 2012). Researchers are clearly interested in the study of how academic writing self-regulation develops organically, especially in connection to interactions and socialisation. As a student, how do you keep yourself in check when you're writing an essay? Do they have any examples of important and transformational social encounters, and how did they come about?

SR of writing, like any other learning endeavour that takes place in the context of teaching, is a multifaceted endeavour that is both complicated, adaptable, and socially placed (Hadwin et al., 2018). We are also interested in the ways in which written self-reporting (SR) is generated from social contact—the interactions that allowed for the development and modification of regulating mechanisms. Students' own descriptions of the "the process by which a rookie writer gains and internalises writing control abilities while working with a more proficient writer," (Sala-Bubaré&Castelló, 2018) are taken into consideration. It's a rite of passage for English literature students to write a BA essay, and we follow three of them through the process. All of their endeavours have been successful. It is determined whether or if participating in interaction with their supervisor allows students to engage and experience writing in a disciplinary and culturally appropriate manner, hence fostering their own self-regulation of writing in transformational ways.

Qualitative data from three in-depth interviews conducted throughout the BA essay-writing semester were evaluated using a previously constructed framework (Pintrich, 2000, 2004). During the interviews, this framework was utilised as a heuristic to code the data. Analysis of this data was then done in accordance with the concept of participatory appropriation (PA) (Rogoff, 1990). An individual's transformation as a result of their engagement in a socially relevant activity is called participation-appropriation, which Rogoff contrasts to passive internalisation. "The act of appropriating something that belongs to someone else" is defined

by Rogoff as "participation in a socially meaningful activity" (Rogoff, 2008). As a result, it emphasises the dynamic, ongoing, and agentive aspect of cognitive growth as a result of involvement and interaction (Rogoff &Angelillo, 2002). Our interviews with students provide valuable insights into the kinds of social interactions (mainly with their supervisors) that they feel have had a significant impact on their writing. Each participant's unique process of self-regulation of writing was identified and documented using our data analysis technique, as well as where and how these processes were "transformed" by the students' interactions with their supervisors.

2. Review of theories and research

Students who are new to a certain topic of study have an extra challenging creative challenge when it comes to writing about it. As a result, authors find it difficult to adapt their writing talents and topic knowledge to meet their readers' needs, because writing expertise in disciplinary groups is often implicit. While researching university writing practises, Elton (2010) makes use of concepts like "craftsmanship" (Sennett, 2008) and "knowing with" (Bransford & Schwartz, 1999) to argue for studies that take into account the complexities of university writing practises, which frequently revolve around students' perceptions of writing quality and expectations that are difficult to formulate even by the experts themselves (see also Dysthe, 2002). In addition, writing a Bachelor's essay is, for the majority of students, their first exposure to fully independent disciplinary academic writing, necessitating, among other talents, the capacity to coordinate a range of knowledge kinds across tasks and genres, critical thought, and creativity (Johns, 2011; Tardy, 2016). In the humanities, where disciplinary epistemology is more fluid and less enclosed in typical rhetorical structures (Kuteeva&Negretti, 2016), this may be particularly difficult, but there are some advantages: genres are focused on argumentation and disposition, and they tend to avoid schematization of form or discourse (Kuteeva&Negretti, 2016). For example, Carter et al., 2007; Shaw, 2009; Social experiences and, in particular, the relationship with an expert, aid these novices in the management of their writing talents.

There is some comfort in our study's findings in this regard, but more clarification on the conceptual basis of our study is needed, especially in light of the fact that the theoretical

landscape of self-regulated learning (SR/SRL) and writing regulation is itself complex and not always consistent in its definitions (Sala-Bubaré&Castelló, 2018).

If theoretical models of SRL haven't always been in agreement, all theories agree that SRL comprises the capacity to actively participate in behaviours, thoughts, and feelings in order to achieve learning objectives (Zimmerman, 1989, 2000). The focus of cognitive research has traditionally been on individual processes, but in recent years significant shifts have occurred in the research on SR/SRL, as reflected by the emergence of concepts like co-regulation and socially shared regulation (Hadwin et al., 2018; Hadwin&Oshige, 2011; Järvelä&Hadwin, 2013; Molenaar&Järvelä, 2014; Hadwin et al., 2018). Interaction, contextual opportunities, emotional dimensions, and perceptual aspects of learning are all being examined in this research. In these conceptual modifications, which describe regulation as a continuous, active and dynamic process of growth, individual and social circumstances are considered. Studying how children and adolescents develop their own individual, autonomous self-regulation has shown that interactions, particularly in episodes of co-regulation where teacher and learner exchange ideas, negotiate thinking, and make decisions together, are critical to the development of co-regulation in children and adolescents (Hadwin&Oshige, 2011, p. 248).. Consequently, our study might be considered to include elements of co-regulation since we see interaction as a vital location for continued individual growth and appropriation of regulatory mechanisms (Hadwin et al., 2018).

2.1 The study of cognitive and socio-cognitive processes in writing control and academic writing

As a central component in writing studies, theories derived from cognitive/socio-cognitive research have made up the bulk of writing regulation research in recent decades.. Writing regulation research in higher education has been analysed by Sala-Bubaré and Castelló (2018), which we shall refer to in this section (HE). As stated by Breiter and Scardamalia (1987), as well as Flower and Hayes (1980), research in the cognative paradigm sees writing regulation as essentially a cognitive process of rhetorical problem solving (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987; Flower and Hayes, 1980). Non-authentic activities, as well as ratings of writing quality, were commonly included in experimental designs (e.g. Breetvelt, van den Bergh &Rijlaarsdam, 1994; Ong, 2014; Van den Bergh &Rijlaarsdam, 2001). There is some

overlap in the research undertaken from a socio-cognitive perspective on interventions with some of these studies that focus on treatments and their effects.

Social cognition research has frequently focused on the various consequences of interventions targeted at enhancing learners' writing techniques, such as tutoring. (Graham et al., 2013; Graham &Perin, 2007; MacArthur, Philippakos&Ianetta, 2015; Rogers & Graham, 2008). The students' beliefs and attitudes on self-regulation, the task, and metacognition are also examined in this research (see Sala-Bubaré and Castelló, 2018 for more information). It has been particularly prevalent in second-language writing and academic writing, addressing, for example, task perceptions and mental perceptions of audience and purpose in connection to writing strategies and achievement, writing processes; metacognitive skills; metacognitive aspects tied to genre awareness and rhetorical effectiveness (Linares Cálix 2015; Negretti&Kuteeva, 2011; Negretti, 2017; Schoonen& van Geli, 2015; van Geli, 2015). A longitudinal study involving foreign language writers in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course found that students' conceptions of writing as a product oriented effort or a problem-solving process led to the development of more complex task perceptions and goals for writing, affecting their ability to write effectively and efficiently. Researchers have discovered that students' self-regulation techniques for writing alter as a result of rhetorical and audience-oriented task perceptions, and that scaffolding metacognitive abilities along with genre knowledge growth is vital for students' success (Negretti, 2012; Negretti& McGrath, 2018). To attain a communication objective, self-regulation is seen as a complicated collection of cognitive, emotional, and social components that students must monitor. Social and cultural interactions and influences shape all elements of self-regulation, including motivational control, according to recent socio-cognitive research (Wolters & Mueller, 2010, p. 633, quoted in Teng & Zhang, 2016, p. 21).

When it comes to writing regulation, however, a large portion of the social-cognitive research has focused solely on individual writing regulation (SR) and has not given much attention to its interplay with other forms of writing regulation (SR) (Hadwin&Oshige, 2011). Furthering sociocultural approaches, we investigate how participants' interactions with their supervisors may have mediated and influenced their own writing control.

The control of writing in society: sociocultural studies

According to Hadwin et al. (2018) and Järvela&Hadwin (2013), new research on co-regulation demonstrates several areas of convergence with research on writing regulation that takes a sociocultural perspective. Outside of socioculturally focused studies, "there is still a strong propensity to perceive a student's success or failure in writing a thesis as a question of individual writing talents" according to Dysthe (2002, p. 494). A student's sociocultural viewpoint influences their capacity to self-regulate as they engage and adapt the modus operandi of an academic community, which is both beneficial and important to comprehend how social components of the writing process impact students' ability to self-regulate.

Research in this tradition, according to Sala-Bubaré and Castelló (2018), regards writing regulation as a process of "intrinsically tied to processes of internalisation of cultural practises, discourses, and acts" (Sala-Bubaré&Castelló, 2018, p. 769). A common characteristic in sociocultural studies of writing regulation is that they emphasise the complexity of social behaviours to explain writing growth and expand their attention beyond the individual learner to incorporate many layers, often by looking at the complete writing context (Beach, Newell &VanDerHeide, 2015; Prior, 2006; Prior &Bilbro, 2012). Many students, whether they're in undergrad or grad school (Castelló, Iesta&Corcelles, 2013), struggle with the most difficult components of academic text production because of the way it's time-based and cyclical in nature. Students face the most challenging obstacles in academic writing regulation when it comes to establishing an authorial identity in the text—strategizing characteristics of voice and stance—and rethinking the text as an activity or artefact rather than a product or item.

Academic writing requires students to participate in social interactions, particularly with a mentor or a tutor, in order to succeed. It has long been recognised by scholars that a teacher's position as a facilitator of the disciplinary ways of creating knowledge and arguing has been studied extensively (e.g. Castelló&Iesta, 2012; Castelló et al., 2013; Eriksson &Mäkitalo, 2015; Lee &Schallert, 2008). Enculturation opportunities have been demonstrated in supervisory meetings (Björkman, 2017), and the writing-centered dialogue between supervisor and student can serve as a forum for the collaborative construction of knowledge, transformation and internalisation ways to "think and write in the discipline where the work

is situated" (Björkman, 2017). (Dysthe, 2002, p. 499). When it comes to writing disciplinary-relevant texts, undergraduate students have a hard time designing and conceptualising them, say Eriksson and Mäkitalo (2015). Supervisory interactions help students to see the text as a work in progress rather than a finished product, as well as to redefine and strategize the text's organisation as time goes on. A distinct sort of academic writing regulation with second-language undergraduate students found that revision was another tough aspect to control. A student's strategy for in-depth and transformational changes (see also Feltham & Sharen (2015) in the context of L1 college writers) is particularly difficult to devise for students. Finally, social connection with a supervisor appears to be the most critical setting for forming complex writing control abilities. This study focuses on the interaction between a student and an expert from an academic community of practise, with text production at the centre of this encounter.

2.3 Participatory appropriation of resources

Table 1. Rogoff's (1990) framework of social learning.

Participatory Appropriation	Guided Participation	Apprenticeship
Spotlights individual cognitive changes, and aims to illuminate how these changes stem from interaction and participation in meaningful practices.	Frames *processes and systems of involvement* of participants in culturally relevant activities, both in interaction and side-by-side: *how directions are given and how participation is organized*.	Focuses on the plane of *community activity*, and spotlights the culturally organized activities, and their *relations to the practices and institutions of the community* in which activities occur.

For this reason, the notion of participatory appropriation (Rogoff, 1990) serves as a useful tool for examining this transformational process of writing regulation construction. When it comes to explaining contextual learning practises, the triadic framework of Rogoff (1990, 2008; summarised in Table 1) comes into play. In accordance with Vygotskian social learning theory, this framework emphasises the need of engaging in meaningful social practises.

Because these ideas are complementary rather than different, they should be taken into consideration. The only difference between them is the focus placed on the phenomena under investigation, which is the sole difference between them. Due to our focus on personal development as a result of social contact, participation appropriation (PA) was the best notion for capturing this phenomenon.

Adopting the idea of appropriation, which was inspired by Bakhtin's (1981) notion of appropriating words, is meant to contrast the view of internalisation as a passive process of movement from the outside to the inside, and emphasise individual development as agentive and socially integrated "Appropriation, in my opinion, is a transformative process.

In my view, appropriation refers to the alteration that occurs as a result of a person's personal participation in an activity, rather than their internalisation of some external event or method" (Rogoff, 2008, p. 67, italics in the original). It's crucial to explore two key aspects of Rogoff's PA theory in order to make sense of this investigation. Participatory appropriation is concerned first and foremost with the process through which and why changes in an individual's behaviour emerge and endure. As a second example, the term "appropriation" implies an agentic and creative negotiation of ways of thinking (and writing) that have been experienced through social interaction, an aspect that has been emphasised in sociocultural research on the role of dialogue in writing supervision and writing instruction (Dysthe, 2002). Learning new ways of thinking and managing writing may subsequently be applied to other settings and scenarios as a result of their engagement in a socially significant activity, notably through discourse. When participants describe, engage in, and turn into new thoughts and questions discourse and social interactions that they feel are significant for their writing regulation, the notion of appropriation helps us to highlight those times in the data where appropriation is proven.

Our research stands out in this regard for a number of key reasons. First and foremost, we adopt a method often used in sociocultural research (Sala-Bubaré&Castelló, 2018) to explore SR in writing, in a naturalistic environment, and with a genuine writing task. Because of this, we must map SR over the whole learning process, as previously indicated (Molenaar&Järvela, 2014). According to Hadwin and colleagues (2018), regulation is a multifaceted phenomena that encompasses the control of motivation, behaviour, and agency

in connection to the external environment. It is possible to describe regulatory actions and cycles across the learning process by using Pintrich's (2000, 2004) framework to code the regulation of writing described in participants' interviews. We used the SRL as a coding heuristic because it provides a relatively macro-description of regulatory actions and cycles across the learning process. Though it isn't explicitly created for writing (or learning to write), the SRL model is a well-established one that can describe the entire self-regulation process without getting bogged down in the nitty-gritty of microcognitive processes. For this reason, we hypothesised that its comprehensiveness and breadth might also be used to the process of teaching students how to write, and that it would allow us to document how students learn to regulate their writing in contexts other than the one detailed here. We have demonstrated that participation effects writing regulation, as well as other kinds of social regulation, and we agree that participation moulds writing regulation as well as other forms of social regulation. on the second to last page (italics added). With PA, we may identify occasions in which students' contacts with their supervisors are described by the students as places of significant writing control, possibilities for idea negotiation, and personal growth by the students themselves. We're looking for responses to these questions:

Three successful BA literature essayists self-regulate while writing their essays.

It's unclear how students' self-regulation of writing is affected or explained by participatory appropriation (mostly in the form of engagement with a supervisor).

3. Method

3.1 Context

This study's research was conducted in a big, research-intensive Swedish university. A group of English Language and Literature bachelor's degree students picked them, and each participant was in the middle of writing an English Literature essay at the time of their selection. After completing a series of two-hour writing workshops on various topics, students write their BA essay over the course of one term (roughly five months) in the final term of this programme. They also have individual tutorials with a supervisor (15 hours of supervision time), who reads their draughts and provides feedback as well as discussing their essay with them. You will be supervised by English linguistics, literature, and literary theory

scholars and professors in the department where you are enrolled. Students are allocated mentors who are specialists in their disciplines based on their interests.

According to the institution, the BA essay must be based on "an independent research of a limited problem in the subject of English Linguistics or Literature" (quote from the essay instructions). Students and their supervisors work together to restrict the topic of their essay. A lengthier piece of work than they've done so far in the programme will be required to finish the BA essay, which is projected to be between 6000 and 8000 words. The essay in English literature must include both primary and secondary sources (i.e., the students' chosen works of literature) (literary criticism and theory). First, students are given a list of grading criteria and detailed instructions on how to write their Bachelor of Arts essay. Essays are judged on their originality, relevance to the subject, and the ability of pupils to work on their own are all factors in the grading process. A member of the department's faculty examines each student's essay once it has been finished in a public seminar. The examiner and supervisor work together to decide the final grade.

3.2 Participants

It was a final-term session for three BA English literature students who were working on a range of subjects and works of English-language literature for their BA essays. They were assigned supervisors who were experts in the fields they were studying or in the works of literature they were assigned to supervise.

Participants were given the names of fictional characters Kurt, Jane, and Virginia. One semester, all three students finished their BA essays with high grades (A or B). Prior to the first interview, all three students met with their supervisors, albeit Virginia and Kurt did so earlier in the semester than Jane. Kurt and Virginia's supervisory meetings were more in-depth in character, but Jane's meeting was a preliminarily discussion of her issue. informed permission was obtained from all participants before the study, and they had the option of withdrawing at any time. Participation in the study was fully voluntary, anonymous, and would have no impact on their grades.

3.3 Interviews

At the beginning of the semester, after submitting their first draught to their supervisor, and at the conclusion of the term, after submitting their final essay, each student was interviewed three times. Both researchers were in the room for the entire time the interviews were being done in English. For this study, a semi-structured interview with follow-up questions to obtain clarity and elaboration was undertaken as per the technique (see Appendix). Students were encouraged to discuss their ideas, goals for writing, writing techniques and problems, as well as their comments on the work they had produced, when given the protocol questions. For this reason, we urged applicants to bring a printed copy of their most recent work to the interview so that they could keep an eye on their work while the interviewer was asking probing questions (Gass& Mackey, 2000). Once interviews were finished, they were recorded and transcribed. Documents with personal information, such as supervisor names, novel titles, and authors' names, were then deleted. False beginnings, grammatical inconsistencies, and repetitions have been removed from the quotes shown here.

3.4 Information gathering and analysis

Interview transcripts were used at every step in the study process to categorise our data, check inter-rater reliability, count particular categories, and extract representative examples from the coded data using nVivo 11.

3.4.1 Categories

To classify the study's self-regulation findings, researchers used Pintrich's (2000, 2004) framework for self-regulated learning. Frameworks for self-regulated learning can be found in a wide range of formats (c.f. Zimmerman, 2000; Winne, 1995). Using the Pintrich framework as a coding strategy, we were able to capture all aspects of self-regulated learning—cognition, motivation, behaviour and context (which was intended as monitoring, control and evaluation of a learner's perceptions of contextually-determined task conditions and the affordances of the learning environment)—for our study. That's not all; this paradigm also focuses on discrete stages of self-regulation, which allowed for the systematic analysis of naturalistic data to be done. Our in-depth interviews combined with stim. may be able to capture a "very microlevel grain size in terms of the actual cognitive events of tactics used by students" as Pintrich (2004) points out, while a focus on "general aptitude or propensities to

use different self- regulatory processes" may be better evoked and explained through SRL models that support this research focus.

Cognition, motivation, behaviour, and environment are all included in this model's discussion of self-regulation (see Table 2). Forethought, planning, and activation are the first three steps of self-regulation, followed by monitoring, control, and reaction and reflection (or reaction and reflection). These stages don't have to follow one another in order; they might occur simultaneously. Cognition's "forethought" phase can include strategic responses (SRs), such as goal-setting and activating metacognitive knowledge of various aspects — task perceptions and subject-matter knowledge, (writing) strategies, previous experiences, and the self — in a more or less declarative, procedural, or conditional manner (when and why). We won't summarise all of the SR tactics here for the purpose of concision (see Pintrich, 2000, p. 458).

Table 2. Phases and areas for self-regulated learning.

	Areas for regulation			
Phases and relevant scales	Cognition	Motivation/Affect	Behavior	Context
Phase 1 Forethought, planning and activation	Target goal setting Prior content knowledge activation Metacognitive knowledge activation	Goal orientation adoption Efficacy judgements Perceptions of task difficulty Task value activation Interest activation	Time and effort planning Planning for self-observations of behavior	Perceptions of tasks Perceptions of context
Phase 2 Monitoring	Metacognitive awareness and monitoring of cognition	Awareness and monitoring of motivation and affect	Awareness and monitoring of effort, time use, need for help Self-observation of behavior	Monitoring changing task and context conditions
Phase 3 Control	Selection and adaptation of cognitive strategies for learning, thinking	Selection and adaptation of strategies for managing, motivation, and affect	Increase/decrease effort Persist, give up Help-seeking behavior	Change or renegotiate task Change or leave context
Phase 4 Reaction and reflection	Cognitive judgments Attributions	Affective reactions Attributions	Choice behavior	Evaluation of task Evaluation of context

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The interview data was broken down into areas of self-regulation and stages of self-regulation using line-by-line analysis. Some categories have been blended together due to the fact that some locations and stages overlap (i.e. parts of text were marked as two areas or two phases). Pintrich (2000) points out that the borders between these regions are ambiguous: phases and interactions among various components may take place at the same time, and the boundaries between these areas might become confused (p. 455). The ability to tell the

difference between behaviour and cognition, for example, is not always apparent. Therefore, it's part of the phenomena under inquiry, and it's an ideal illustration of how the phenomenon under investigation is examined in conjunction with cognition, behaviour, and goals as part of SR's cycle and complexity. Data analysis required us to study and debate Pintrich's descriptions of each region and phase (2000, 2004) often; execute an inter-rater reliability pilot; engage in numerous rounds of coding comparison to guarantee systematicity and reliability (Creswell, 2007). We were able to multilayer code the students' remarks as a consequence of evaluating data coding repeatedly (areas and phases).

There is an additional layer of codification that was introduced when SR, or instances of participatory appropriation, was discovered (Rogoff, 1990; 2008). When participants made particular mention of their supervisors or their contacts with them, their remarks were classified as PA (or more seldom, other peers or teachers). A real-world encounter or a fictitious one are both possible venues for this exchange of ideas. Students, for example, might sometimes have a hypothetical conversation with their supervisor ("I guess my supervisor may say...") to help them make writing-related decisions. It should be noted that both SR and PA were set up as separate categories (nodes) in nVivo, and so, in order to answer RQ2, we focused on the overlap between these categories.

3.4.2 Procedure

The data-analyzing procedure has a number of stages. We began by coding data from a single interview that we performed together in the initial phase of the research process. To check that our coding was accurate, we conducted a second interview with the same kid. According to inter-rater agreement results (Cohen's Kappa values ranging from 0.52 to 1.00), agreement was reasonably good across all categories. The section "Cognition: Reaction and reflection," had the least agreement, with just a moderate percentage of agreement. Only 82 percent to 100 percent of the respondents agreed on most of the other issues, depending on which category they were looking at (mean: 95 percent).

In the second round of analysis, we coded all of the data together and re-examined the theoretical framework to ensure that all of our findings were consistent and accurate. Next, both of us re-checked our coding, noting any places in which we needed to redistribute our

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findings from the literature (Pintrich, 2000). In the end, it was decided not to recode any of the previously examined cases.

Our coding's consistency and stability depended on this method, which took a long time to perfect. To observe the general pattern of how the data were coded, such as the proportion of interview data covered by each code for each student, and to show how the data were coded across all students, matrix queries in nVivo were utilised. After doing three interviews with each of our students, we were able to identify their distinct SR processes and compare their replies. Using a matrix query analysis, we were able to determine how much data was classified into the two categories of participatory appropriation and the four areas and stages of self-regulation (RQ2). Finally, we drew on the experiences of each student/interviewee to draw conclusions and results. We were able to do a last "quality check" on our interpretation during this final stage.

4. Findings

Data on self-regulation and participation appropriation are included in this section, which provides a summary of the participants' writing self-regulation (SR) throughout time. Table 3 summarises the SR data collected from the three participants during the course of the research. Table 4 shows that the total number of observations for data classified as PA and SR overlapped.

Table 3. An overview of the students' self-regulation.

		Kurt				Jane				Virginia			
		Cog	Mot	Beh	Con	Cog	Mot	Beh	Con	Cog	Mot	Beh	Con
Interv 1	%	64.8	1.6	5	9.8	43.7	6.2	10.8	21.4	41.1	0	7.6	2.9
	(nr)	(42)	(2)	(8)	(8)	(19)	(4)	(7)	(11)	(29)	(0)	(9)	(4)
Interv 2	%	43.4	0	14	19.3	54.4	1.5	7.3	10.6	44.8	0.4	9.6	8.6
	(nr)	(20)	(0)	(9)	(8)	(44)	(5)	(11)	(16)	(54)	(1)	(16)	(18)
Interv 3	%	46.5	0	12.3	19.7	58.8	1.6	3.2	11.9	52.1	2.6	0.8	3.9
	(nr)	(7)	(0)	(3)	(3)	(24)	(3)	(5)	(10)	(71)	(5)	(2)	(4)

Note. Cog: Cognition. Mot: Motivation. Beh: Behavior. Con: Context. Numbers in parentheses indicate how many instances of the code were identified in the data source (e.g. Interview 1), and percentages indicate the proportion of the coded data in relation to the data source.

Table 3 shows that the bulk of the data for all three persons (including the researcher) appears to fall into the category of SR of cognition (percentages ranging from 41.1 percent to 64.8 percent). Due to our request to reflect on their work before submitting, this may not be surprising. It is remarkable that all three students looked to be thinking about their writing in a metacognitive fashion as a result of the interview setting. As a general concept, "a generic term that relates to both knowledge and strategies that the writer uses to manage his or her cognitive processes while writing" can be used to describe how a writer manages his or her cognitive processes while writing (Escorcia, Passerault, Ros &Pylouster, 2017, p. 235). Examples of metacognition may be seen in students' comments, such as this one:

One story focuses on... whereas the other is more general and concerns... Our conversations thus far have convinced me that some of the novel's content will have to be pared back, such as the tale not being retold. I hope you find this information useful as well! Kurt turns over his manuscript. After that, oh, umm... Because I'm not sure how I'll connect them, I'll have to revisit the introduction and revise the thesis, which will add time to the project. There were a lot of these kind of "think-aloud" musings among Kurt's interviewers during all three of the participants' sessions, but Kurt's was the most prolific (as shown in Table 3).

Table 3's second general finding is that the SR of motivation was applied to just a limited subset of the data (from 0 percent to 6.2 percent). Few clear comments of self-efficacy were found in this category, which may be classified as Ease of Learning (EOL) assessments of specific goals rather than the entire work of text production (for example, giving a persuasive case for a single idea utilising secondary sources) (see Pintrich, 2000, p. 462). All three students showed a strong interest in their primary source material, which might have provided an extra source of intrinsic drive for them to complete their projects. Time management and time planning techniques (when and how to complete specific sections of the text, time necessary) were referenced in between 0.8% and 14% of the coded occurrences, as well as help-seeking measures (the need to contact the supervisor or wait for feedback before proceeding). On a few times (Jane), the SR of behaviour alluded to the layout of physical space, but it was unclear how to classify these occurrences because the SR of context usually followed (monitoring deadlines, requirements). This term's SR context codes all times in which students evaluated and/or reacted to the BA programme and its structure, such as

seminars and their content, the order of activities, and the additional learning opportunities it provides.

We also wanted to know if the students' ability to self-regulate was influenced by the participatory appropriation experience, which was the focus of our second study question. When students directly reported dialogues or interactions with their supervisors or with seminar professors and other students, we categorised these as PA using the criteria described in the preceding section. We wanted to know how our participants interpreted and used these interactions, whether real or imagined, to self-regulate their writing — in other words, how these dialogues could be examples of co-regulation and how the students themselves seemed to appropriate and transform these co-regulatory events into individual ways of regulating their writing, as in the following example:

(2) "how you want to structure the essay, for example, how you intend to write about the two books." [Supervisor] asked. (2) I attempted to think of a way out of this problem. In my opinion, it won't stand up in the long run. Because of this, I decided to break apart bits of (the book) that weren't about those specific topics, but kept the way the book was read in other places intact. (Virginia)

The percentage of data categorised as both SR and PA varied between 8% and 35% among the three patients, with substantial variation across the three persons (a further breakdown across the areas and phases is available in Tables S1, S2 and S3, in the Appendix). The quality of the data categorised as PA was more important to the students than the quantity, as we'll see in the next sections for each interview. Following up on our earlier discussion of PA, we searched for evidence of students' appropriation of ideas, concepts, and techniques drawn from their interactions with supervisors in the interview data. Interactional experiences are not just remembered; they are also actively engaged with, reasoned about, and transformed into new regulatory mechanisms by the students involved, as the above sentence indicates We were able to learn more about the students' perceptions of this encounter and the way in which it transformed their lives through the use of the SR/PA overlap analysis than we could have by simply looking at how frequently the students mentioned it in their interviews (indicated by the percentages of overlap). When students talked with their supervisors, it seemed like they got "food for thought" at crucial points in their writing process. For

monitoring and assessing their task perceptions, goals, topic knowledge, thoughts and arguments, among other things, students regularly referred to this conversation in their remarks. It was also possible that the supervisor would be called in an imaginative manner, notably by Kurt, as a means of further considering numerous pathways for the essay's future.

Table 4. An overview of the students' participatory appropriation + SR.

		Kurt	Jane	Virginia
Interview 1	% (nr)	23.7 (19)	10.6 (10)	13.1 (11)
Interview 2	% (nr)	33.4 (17)	24.1 (22)	20 (23)
Interview 3	% (nr)	35.6 (4)	9.7 (10)	8.3 (9)

Note. The table shows the percentage of data source (e.g. Interview 1) coded both as SR and PA. Numbers in parentheses indicate how many instances of the code were identified.

4.1 The first interview, Invention: Activating content knowledge and identifying a "angle,"

It seems that the students were engaging in what we might refer to as innovation at this point: how to choose a specific problem, bring together information and insights obtained from reading primary and secondary sources, and establish coherence in their reasoning. The disparities between the three students can be noted in Figures 1 and 2, even before the first interview, which may be connected to the scheduling of the supervision meetings in which they had taken part: Figure 1 shows that Kurt and Virginia had met with their superiors sooner than Jane, which shows that Kurt and Virginia had met with their supervisors earlier than Jane.

As part of this interview, Kurt focused his attention on the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of writing, describing strategies such as activation and retelling of content knowledge, planning the essay, establishing specific argumentative/rhetorical goals, metacognitively monitoring and regulating his ideas, and reflecting on and evaluating his argumentative strategies. All of these characteristics were regularly related to what the supervisor had said, or to what the supervisor was likely to say in the future (Figure 2, cognition). Kurt had already had numerous in-depth sessions with her supervisor, so Virginia, playing the part of Kurt, was concentrated on thinking forward and preparing the essay. Jane had finished one month of the BA essay writing term as a consequence of her original meeting with the

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supervisor, but she was still unsure of where she should go with her writing. During Jane's attempt to determine the requirements of the programme and various routes of support, she gathered information (Tables 3 and 4) that pertains to the control of behaviour and contextual factors. Throughout the article, she discussed the classes she took and the professors she communicated with in detail, as well as deadlines and how events in the learning environment influenced her development.

(3) Because I wasn't sure if this would be my first choice or not when I initially considered it. As well as collaborating with [Teacher], I had hoped to see this through to completion. Starting off, I wasn't sure whether I wanted to go with this or children's books as a starting point for the project. The next day, we were unable to schedule our first meeting with [Supervisor] until several weeks later. We had a preliminary conversation in which we simply discussed, right, we simply discussed, and then we went on to the main subject. Rather having a specific topic, it was more of a broad discussion. (Jane)

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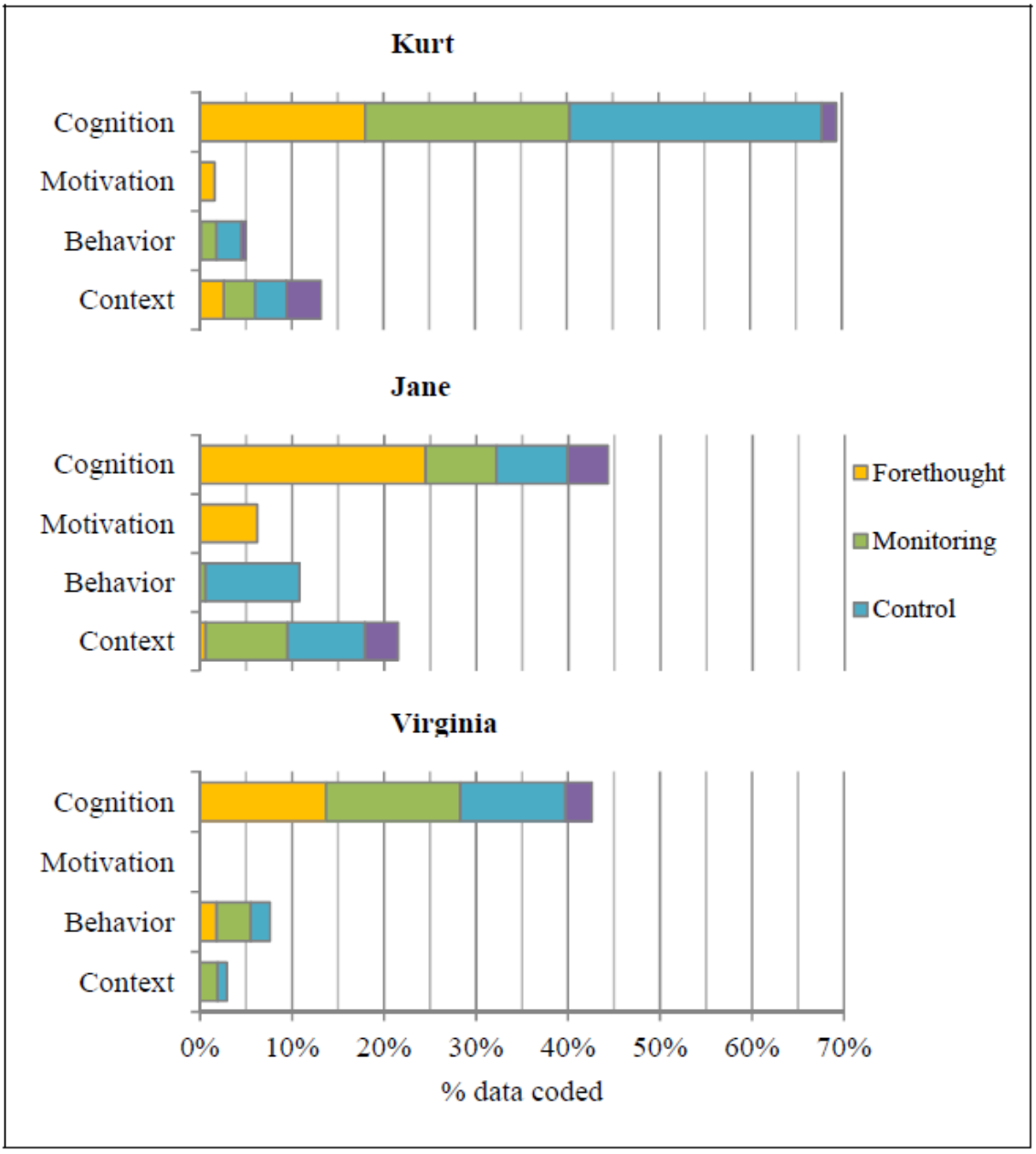

Figure 1. Phases of self-regulation in Interview 1. The percentages show what proportions of a particular area belonged to different phases.

First interviews with three students focused on aspects of writing known as "cognitive planning" (see Figure 1). This information triggered a significant increase in my knowledge of the subject issue. A thorough examination of their primary source material was conducted by all three authors in order to ensure that they had a thorough understanding of the stories

and authors they wanted to include in their pieces. Using the following qualities, they were able to further create and examine their essay topic ideas:

I'm looking for some kind of political message in them... As a general pattern, several of them neglect the political message and two of them make significant changes to the political message. (Kurt) \s(5) I'm going to look at the trauma from the perspective of the people in the neighbourhood. Yes, I will investigate his personal history of trauma. (Jane)

The statements in this section also provide light on another aspect of foresight that was evident in the original interviews: the development of objectives and strategies for achieving those goals, as well as the monitoring and control of those strategies. For their research papers, all three students appeared to be struggling to come up with an angle and/or a preliminary thesis statement for their work. As an example:

That's the crux of my problem: I can't seem to pin down a single idea. It is, nevertheless, meant to serve as a place of seclusion and solitude in some capacity. (Virginia)

(7 But I still felt like I was stumbling about trying to put together a clear thesis, which I still haven't managed to accomplish. Despite this, there has been development. As though I had contemplated it. A wide range of fascinating subjects might be covered... Concerned that it's going in too many different directions. (Jane)

The fact that many instances of "cognition/forethought" overlap with data labelled as PA, in which students review and reflect on their discussions with their supervisors, is relevant in this regard. They obtained useful insights into conceptualising their writings and setting specific goals, such as the need to produce an engaging thesis statement and contextualise their issue. Moreover, they were able to focus their thoughts. a formalised adverbial adverbial [Supervisor] and I had a conversation about contextualising, but I'm not sure what I'm expected to contextualise or even whether I should dare to contextualise or historicize... not because I have a limited comprehension, but rather because I have a very limited chance of catching up on this from secondary sources because I haven't looked into it before. (Kurt)

(8/9) You gave the idea that you were still struggling with a solid thesis, which you were right about. In spite of this, progress is nevertheless being made. Although the supervisor could see that the employee was well-versed in the subject matter of the book and had

thoroughly enjoyed reading, he added, "But, okay, I see you know a lot about this book, and you've definitely enjoyed the novel, but you just need to organise your thoughts a little bit better," (Jane)

Students looked to be confused about the text's direction from the responses above (6, 7, 8, and 9): metacognitive monitoring and emotional control were evident. It was very uncommon for pupils to express themselves in the form of "possibilities" or "self-questions," and these utterances were often followed by suggestions about how to maybe push their own thinking in the appropriate direction. Because, you know, how do I portray it, how do I create a communal image of. (10)... and what does that imply in terms of what we're talking about here? I'm not sure I want to have that talk right now since I know it will be unpleasant. (Kurt)

SR/PA statistics show that students credit their interactions with the supervisor, as shown in (8) and (9), for helping them work out their problems and keep their writing under control. Speaking with the supervisor helped not only conceptualise the essay but also monitor and regulate thinking, such as by appropriating particular questions or purposes to frame and monitor the argumentation (11, 12):

To be honest, I'm stumped by this one. This is something I think I should bring up with my supervisor. I'm well cognizant of the fact that I'm not absolutely insane. While I believe I'm not doing anything wrong, she could tell me something like, "I've read the part you wrote," or anything along those lines if she feels I need to make any changes. Even if this is the most hypothetical of situations and she could respond, "not all of this is necessary" or "I'm not sure this is to your favour," we'll see what she has to say. (Kurt)

In order to make the article coherent, I need to combine the close readings with the theoretical framework and secondary sources. Nevertheless, I'll need to talk to my supervisor about this before I can make a decision about my future. (Virginia)

They looked to be quite self-critical and metacognitive in their initial interview, which indicated that they were confused about how to proceed with their writing. "I guess" and "I don't know" remarks were frequently used by Virginia during her interview, showing a need for further information.

From the statements made by the SR and PA, it is clear that the supervisory meeting is an important tool for supervising not just planning and innovation, but also effort and conduct. According to the students' explanations in the following two cases, their supervisors helped them determine what they wanted to work on.

To practise my close reading, I merely glance at a few words that, uh... I'd sit down and declare, "This is a close reading," and then proceed to read a few parts really closely before moving on. (Virginia)

I also drafted a rough draught of a bibliography to use as a starting point. I've got between 15 and 20 titles, depending on how you count them. I need to go back and re-read a couple since they are so intricate, even though I've already read some of them and have others written down. So I had to go back and look for them at the library. (Jane)

It was said at the beginning of this section that the three pupils may be distinguished individually. People's varying rates of progress through the essay, as well as their supervisor's ability to meet with them, may have contributed to these variations. The larger chunks of "cognition" data recorded under monitoring and control (see Figure 1) indicated that Kurt had a head start over Jane and Virginia, while Jane and Virginia were still mulling over potential ways to proceed with their investigation. Even though these examples of assistance seeking and time management were rare for Kurt and Virginia, they were more pertinent to Jane at this particular stage in her academic career (see Figure 1).

A student's social environment and the elicitation of feedback from their supervisor are essential in this study's conclusions. As seen in the chart below, nearly all of the events classified as evaluations during the first interviews also fell within the umbrella of the PA dimension.

This workshop with [Teacher] has made me realise that I may have gone a bit too far in my rendition of the narrative. It's true that I can presume that whoever will be reading it has already read it, so I don't have to do much more than provide a brief summary. (Kurt)

After that, I had to come up with a topic idea for my research paper. It's true that I wrote something, but I think it was similarly ambiguous to the argument. (Jane)

It's also worth noting that Kurt regularly uses the word "we" to suggest that the writing process is in some way collaborative or at least co-constructed: (17)

And yet.....I would rather that I be able to comprehend my actions as they take place. A week ago, I emailed [Supervisor] with a few questions, and I think we're close to a deal on numerous issues. (Kurt)

In the second interview, the case was put together and the corner was turned.

All three students looked to have reached a turning point in their study at the time of the second interview and had refocused their attention. Their article, which they were now rewriting and revising, was accompanied with a visible excitement and a strong devotion to their work. These findings may be seen by looking at how much data was entered in the cognitive science SR (CS) (see Figure 3).

Figure 3 shows how Jane and Virginia used cognitive monitoring and control to guide their thoughts and provide structure to their writing: Figure 3: Jane and Virginia emphasise cognitive monitoring and control.

Everything else was just notes to myself, telling me things like, "Go read this and then go here and do this. " "This is in need of further development." Write down the notion you'd want to return, along with the area you'd like to go back to. (Jane)

In (19) she discusses how she depends on secondary sources to support her own work. Because they went too far off the rails, some of them may have had a connection to my topic, but I had to drop them from consideration. And I'm sure I'll use some of it in the future, but for now I'm only focusing on the most essential information. (Virginia)

A comparison of SR/PA data shows that students' ability to regulate their writing is strongly influenced by their interactions with their supervisor, both in terms of their cognition and their behaviour. All three individuals cite consulting their supervisor as a way to get out of a writing rut (seeking assistance). Figure 4 shows that the primary impact is on the cognitive plane, and these excerpts demonstrate how a real or imagined dialogue with a supervisor (or a peer) is once again evoked to describe strategies for monitoring and controlling the text by both Kurt (20), and Virginia (21), and strategies for evaluation and further planning the text

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by Kurt (22). (20). (21). Note how these comments suggest a metacognitive awareness of the significance of the supervisor's techniques, as shown by the following: Take note:

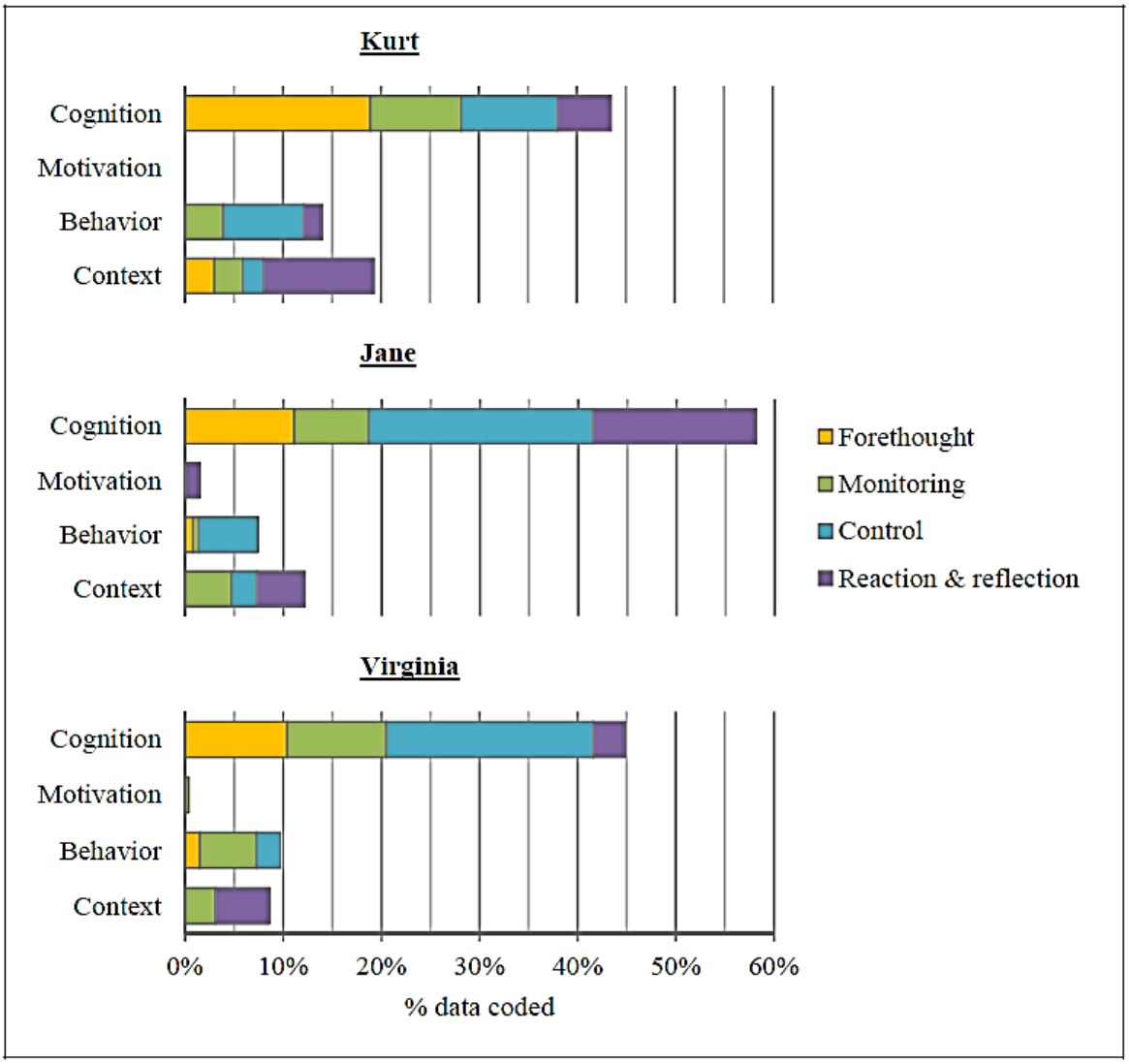

Figure 3. Phases of self-regulation in Interview 2. The percentages show what proportions of a particular area belonged to different phases.

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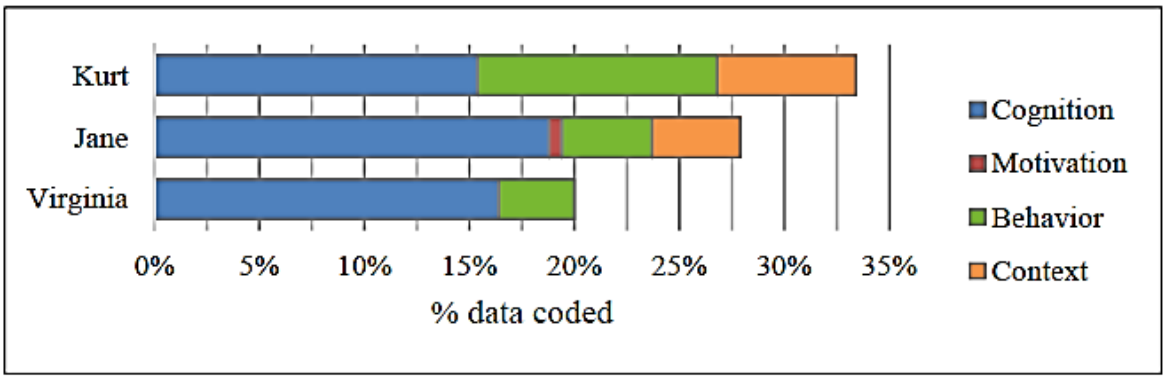

Figure 4. Participatory appropriation and areas of self-regulation in Interview 2. The percentages show what proportions of PA were coded as SR areas.

In order to have a better start, my supervisor proposed that these two paragraphs be consolidated into one paragraph. [Supervisor] has been really helpful in helping me understand how this process works and how to improve my next essay, which has made it a lot simpler for me. (Kurt)

I have a problem with anything like merging [the secondary reading] into the close readings. Honestly, I'm not quite sure what you're saying to me. The Supervisor indicated that she prefers focused pieces, and I guess this is what I will do: take some of these principles and expand on them. (Virginia)

When it came to Kurt, it looked that he was particularly engaged in the process of developing a strategy for following up on the advice he had received.

(22) I'll finish my introduction and allegory parts, but I'll wait until I've finished the main body of the paper before doing so. (23). I'm thinking of combining these two concepts. As far as I can tell, it's more than just a cosmetic adjustment. (Kurt)

According to Kurt's data, more instances of SR/PA of behaviour (Figure 4) than in Virginia and Jane's data were found, which indicated help-seeking tactics with the goal of soliciting ad-hoc input from the supervisor were found.

The supervisors' questions and comments, together with the SR and PA data, appear to have aided students in thinking about how to create their texts, i.e. how to manage and analyse their cognitive processes while they worked. There is evidence that this engagement helped students "turning a corner," that is, to develop a distinct thesis subject and strategy. His

ability to keep track of and regulate his ideas was vital to Kurt, as he explains in his own words (23, 24):

After that, my employer told me that it may be pretty significant. In the future, this might be the principal focus of inquiry. (Kurt)

You may hear something like, "Well, this is good enough," or "This is what you are going for, so make this one as nice as you can." (24) [Supervisor] (20) (Kurt)

Jane's cognitive monitoring also includes a social component. Kurt and Virginia's epiphanies were influenced by their supervisors' questions, and Jane appears to have reached a similar conclusion. She now has a clear aim for the argumentation of her essay and attributes her revelation to the following supervisor-asked questions:

"What do you like about this novel?" he inquires. "What do you like about this novel?" [Supervisor] posed the proper question at the time, and I was prepared with a response. I'm interested in writing on this topic. (Jane)

[reporting on her boss's chat] [informal] "All right, now it's time to come up with a title for this thing." "Title?" is one such example. I'm not even sure how I'm going to approach this, but I've already come up with the title, or at least the most of it, before I started writing. Because you've set yourself a succession of small mental goals, or targets. After that, I scribbled down a list of the most significant words and phrases. Actually, they were some of the most important words I utilised in my dissertation. (Jane)

Virginia had just finished a theoretical phase and was now narrowing down her subject, which had become her major goal when reading the material and determining the framework of the piece.

(27) When it came to the subject at hand, I stuck with what I thought was the most suitable. Who knows? I may utilise some of it at some point. Now, I only include elements that are actually important to the topic, since [Supervisor] has asked questions such, "How will you organise the essay, how will you write about the two books?" As a result, I separated [Novel] into discrete sections and then eliminated portions that were not pertinent to the specific themes I was reading at the time.. (Virginia)

When students used their supervisor's feedback to evaluate their own work, they were able to pinpoint areas for growth and reinforce the value of their approach by pointing out the things that worked well:

As a result of feedback from my supervisor, (28) What a blessing it is that we were able to get this straight from the beginning, you know... That's what I mean when I say it wasn't right from the beginning. There have been several iterations of the concept, but it's wonderful to know that it works once you have a piece of writing to show for it. (Kurt)

Information on help-seeking and time management measures, which were categorised as SR/PA in interview 2, was also included in the data from interview 2. (29, 30). Keep an eye on the circumstances (course and test dates, conflicts across courses, deadlines) in other SR/PA situations (31) and

Afterwards, if I think I have enough, I'll talk to my supervisor and explain my issue, and [Supervisor] will either request a sample or we'll just talk about the matter." (Kurt)

(30) I'll wait till I receive some feedback and a new surge of inspiration before I post. I'm going to jot down what's on my mind. What [Virginia] had to say about my writing will be examined. (Jane)

My essays are due in two weeks or so, I suppose. Nervous, to say the least! However, I have a test to take after that. It's quite unlikely that they work on it simultaneously. (Virginia)

It's becoming clearer to me that the timetable... you're trying to compel us to produce a text so that we may work on it more leisurely in the future. (Kurt)

Third, we talk about how to reflect on the writing process and how to rethink academic writing.

At the end of the term, the interview data showed a strong correlation between the cognitive area and the "reaction/reflexion" phase of self-regulation, which was not surprising (see Figures 5 and 4 below and Tables S1-S3 in Appendix for the SR area+phase split). Interviews were done in the past tense because the essay had already been finished and submitted. They all seemed to be critiquing components of the BA programme, such as requirements, timelines and seminars they were expected to attend, in their final comments on context at the

end of term SR of context (reaction and reflection) was more frequently mentioned in Kurt and Jane's data (Figure 5) than in the data of Virginia.

This was the point in the writing process where students were reflecting on their thoughts and feelings about the work they had done so far, as well as any adjustments they had made to their original objectives for the essay. In both Jane and Virginia, they emphasised the necessity of picking unique materials that grabbed their personal interest, as well as generating an engaging topic:

I wanted to find something intriguing to write about, since I believe strongly in the need of developing a deep emotional connection to your work's subject matter. (Jane)

My subjects seemed to have magically come together or something like that when I eventually figured out what I was writing about. In the past, there were much too many distinct ideas, but now they've all been grouped together. (Virginia)

To maintain her sense of self-efficacy, Jane made the following self-reflective remarks about the importance of receiving outside assistance:

However, I'll hold off responding until I hear from [Supervisor]. Even if there are a lot of questions, I'm still undecided, you know? (Jane)

Jane's need for reassurance about her conduct might contribute to this. Other students experienced self-doubts throughout the course, but as Jane points out (35, 36), getting feedback was critical for her to ensure that her evaluation of her work was accurate. According to Jane's recollections of her time at the university, social interaction was critical to her capacity to maintain self-control, while discussion and criticism were crucial to helping her assess her work and come up with new ideas for future projects. For the sake of stating it out loud, someone says to you: "Yea, alright, I've seen this and, um, the ideas are nice, and do this and restructure like that or maybe change here or change there" (3) (36) According to my own experience, this is also true for me. It's critical, in my opinion, to get input from others on the tasks you're working on. Because of the interactions she had with the supervisor, Virginia was able to keep track of and better define her rhetorical sub-objectives as she was writing (note the use of the word "we" in this sentence).

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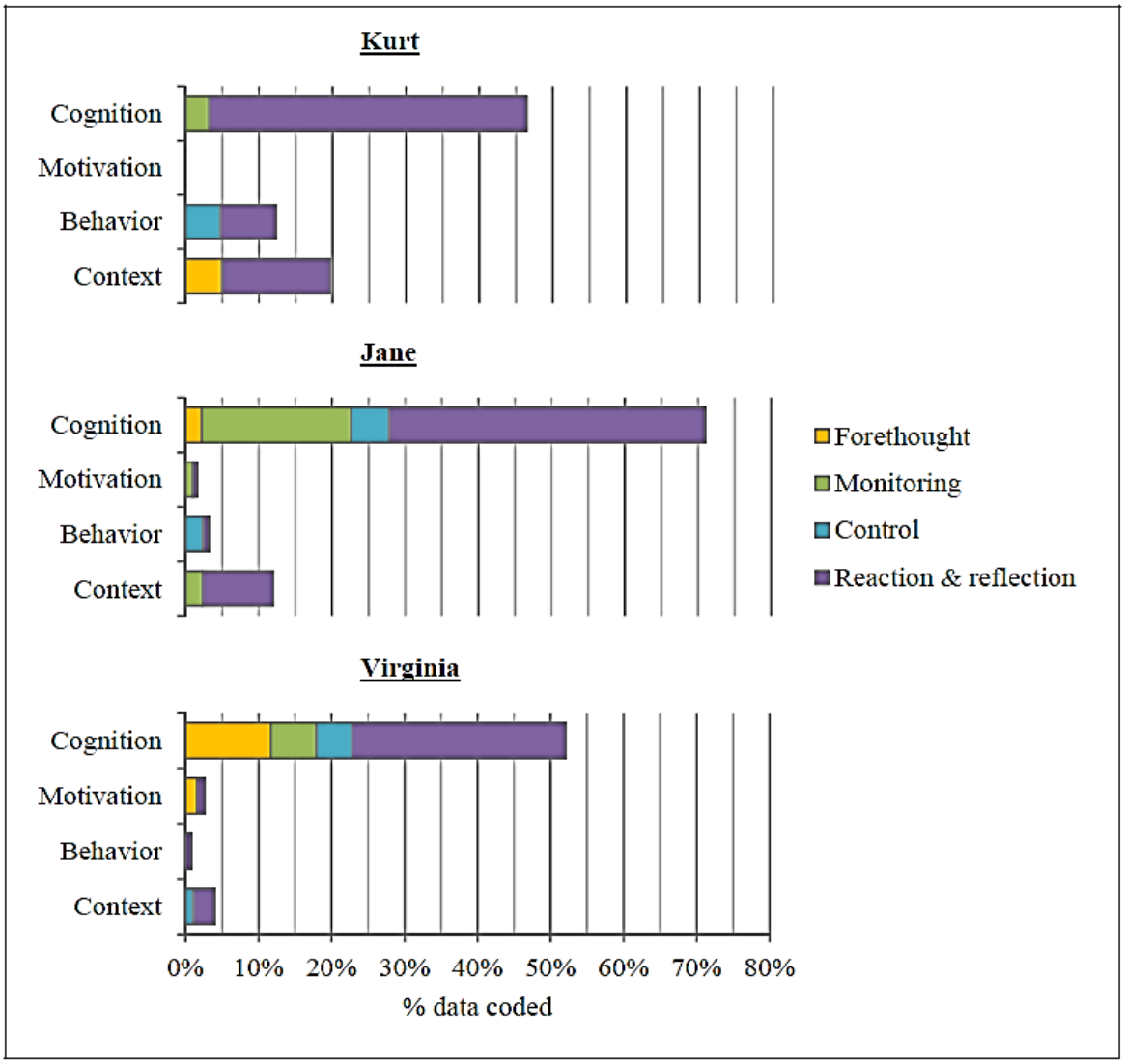

Figure 5. Phases of self-regulation in Interview 3. The percentages show what proportions of a particular area belonged to different phases.

When I utilised [topic] while reading the books, I realised that I couldn't properly explain it, so I created this part to make it more theoretical. Because I am unable to discriminate between what is significant and what isn't, the supervisor's remarks were quite helpful. Actually, I can't see it for myself, so it's more like it needs another person's help.. (Virginia) Both Jane and Virginia's remarks above indicate how difficult it is for students to evaluate the quality of their own texts, and how crucial the supervisory discourse is in scaffolding this judgement, particularly when students are given with professional genres as models:

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(39) As for whether or not I'll get to see it for myself, I'm not too sure. The only essays I've read that were much better than this one, so I'm not sure how wonderful it's supposed to be. Articles are the only form of media I consume, as they're more in-depth. (Virginia)

In Virginia's instance, for example, the SR of cognition data was occasionally labelled as "forethought," because she still had a few particular goals and last touches to complete before submitting her application to the university. Aside from that, she offered a few remarks labelled "Motivation: reaction/reflection" (see Figure 5).

Last but not least, all three students interviewed seemed to imply that their vision of the task, namely writing an academic essay in literary criticism, has been affected as a result of their experiences. During this time, they reflected on the nature of their work and the lessons they had learnt through writing their BA essay:

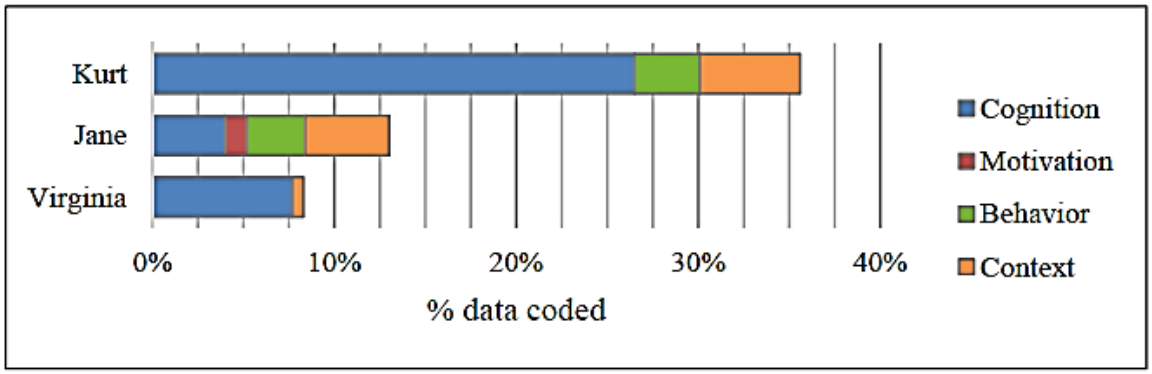

Figure 6. Participatory appropriation and areas of self-regulation in Interview 3. The percentages show what proportions of PA were coded as SR areas.

The themes you write about are ones you aren't familiar with. (40) Write your fresh essays after thinking to yourself, "So I can't really write anything interesting because I only know the superficial stuff," To put it another way, I have the idea that I am more knowledgeable or that I am better able to grasp things. (Virginia)

This was the first project of its like that I finished, and it taught me the need of repetition if you want to get good at something. In light of the above, I think I did a decent job, but I can't say that I've perfected the method. Even though it will be a lot easier for me to do this on my own, I'm sure that I'll still make some mistakes, right? (Kurt)

To be honest, my first impression was that it would be a lot like any other essay I'd written in the past. Mistakes were made, and I should have known better. Moreover, I had no prior experience in writing literary essays, but I figured the process would be similar to that of writing for a class, only more in-depth and requiring more critical reading and secondary literature... For me, it's almost as if you need to go back and rework it into something more substantial. To put it simply, this BA essay is different from any other essay. (Jane).

SR/PA social interaction statistics show a relationship between this shift in perspective and the participation experience, as indicated by comments from students who claimed that their goals for writing and their assessment of the writing assignment were influenced by the participatory experience. Although Kurt was clearly driven and engaged in earnest, what he actually learned was about writing as disciplined activity, in which the supervisor played an essential role: a disciplinary activity.

This project was initially meant to be an essay. As previously said, I was unable to come up with a theme that excited me. After talking with my supervisor, I discovered an area of study that she was familiar with and believed would help me, and it piqued my interest enough to seek additional research in. I've learned a few things about this location. It was a good experience since I learned a lot about writing in general, including how to construct a thesis and an argument, and how to deliver one. (Kurt)

As Jane points out (see also paragraph 42 above), her goals and vision for the BA essay have altered since her writing experience: "I've reframed my goals and perception of the BA essay." says the author.

It would appear that the goal was to produce a high-quality BA essay of some sort (44). Write, for example, to pique the reader's interest and capture their attention. Even if the topic of my essay isn't something I'm especially interested in, my objective is to produce an essay that is interesting to read. There may be something in there that motivates the reader to check out the novel I'm currently working on. (Jane). Her work became less product-oriented and more process-oriented, much as Virginia's.

I had previously written four-thousand-word essays in [City] last semester, and I expected this one to be at least as long. In my opinion, though, it was more a question of my taking

matters into my own hands. Trying to describe it is difficult because I'm doing it all on my own. (Virginia)

This communicative approach to the writing work is also evident in her final self-evaluation, which is based on the criteria of personal interest and authenticity of the assignment to favourably judge her accomplishments.

(46) My initial impression was that it would be a disappointment. It appears to be a genuine essay. It's far more interesting to learn about something than to hear about it. There is a lot of entertainment value in just reading about everything that's going on in the world. As if it weren't my own idea. It's more like I've found the real deal. (Virginia)

For Kurt, the alteration in his writing experience, both cognitive and communicative, could not have been achieved without the social, dialogic, and nearly co-constructed process he developed with his supervisor, who appeared to operate as a "thinking guide"

To sum it up, I reach the next level and then the following stage and see that the results aren't all that great. After hearing from my supervisor, it becomes evident that these things aren't working correctly... In the beginning, your knowledge will be restricted and you will not be aware of your own inadequacies in the topic. (Kurt)

The Fifth Point of View

It was the goal of this study to learn more about how three successful BA literature students self-regulated while writing their final BA essay and how social contact, especially with their supervisor, affected their SR approaches. We used Pintrich's (2000, 2004) self-reported experience framework as a coding heuristic and Rogoff's (1990) participatory appropriation concept to operationalize the social experience when coding data about social interactions in order to track students' self-reported experiences (SR) throughout the essay-writing term. Overall, we have sought to highlight the importance of social contact in aiding students' management of writing in both naturalistic and academic settings. As a result of this, the students are able to experience personal growth and development.

RQ 1 asks, "How do three successful BA literature essay writers self-regulate during the course of their essay writing?".

Because all three of our participants passed their BA essay with flying colours, it's safe to claim that they all showed themselves to be self-regulatory students. Using Pintrich's coding heuristic, we were able to identify differences in how different persons approached the text. For example, the percentages of data categorised as SR of cognition, behaviour, and motivation have changed between the three people at different points in time during the research. There was a lot of variation in the students' regulatory methods based on different contexts, such as the speed at which they could meet with a supervisor in their BA process and how much time they spent on behaviour and situation regulation during their first interview.

There was a great amount of effort put into the forethought phase (what we called innovation) and a significant degree of knowledge and interest in the core material that all three participants participated in. According to a recent study (Teng and Zhang, 2016), metacognitive techniques including concept preparation and goal-oriented monitoring and assessment were important SR prediction methods of writing scores. According to our findings, the results of that study are in line with ours. It was determined that all three students finished their BA essays on time and received an acceptable overall grade from their supervisors' colleagues, who were also professors in the programme. Using metacognitive monitoring and management, we found that all three participants spent a substantial amount of time developing their key concept, which came from a personal and distinct perspective. As Järvelä and Hadwin (2013) note, when students have mastery-oriented or learning objectives, regulation of emotion involves monitoring "conditions for sustained motivation and cognitive engagement toward achievement" which students did not report doing in their survey data.

Research has established a correlation between the foresight phase (goal setting and planning) and the quality of the writing generated by our participants (Breetvelt et al., 1994; Ong, 2014; Van den Bergh &Rijlaarsdam, 2001). A great amount of effort was put into the acquisition and reflection of their prior information, metacognitive activation of prior writing experiences, and the establishment of particular argumentation goals during their involvement in this study. Goals that are "specific, proximate, and difficult" are more successful than goals that are "broad" according to the literature on SRL (Zimmerman &

Cleary, 2009). (p. 250). As they moved through their reading of primary and secondary sources, students reported engaging in "hierarchical feedback loops" (p. 250), where smaller objectives serve as a means to the ultimate end of accomplishing larger ones. Recursive re-evaluation and re-definition of writing goals were also mentioned by students. Students: (the essay). For students' metacognitive monitoring of the accomplishment of highly desired results, these secondary objectives act as checkpoints (Järvelä&Hadwin, 2013) that allow them to strategically plan their future steps. RQ2 will go into deeper depth on this subject.

For this study, we were able to capture the "temporal unfolding" (Hadwin and colleagues, 2018, page p. 18) and highlight important stages in the writing process thanks to the collection of longitudinal data. Second interview participants looked to have reached a turning point in their thinking, having chosen a key subject or concern.. Therefore, students reported writing, editing and generally trying to build the optimal argumentation structure with input from primary and secondary materials at this stage of the process. Metacognitive monitoring and control were used to describe a wide variety of these attempts to monitor and control one's own thinking. They were able to discuss a variety of cognitive strategies to move forward, such as the use of keywords, questions, rehearsals of content knowledge, and integration of secondary material with their supervisors (as we will discuss in RQ2), as well as their goals (and the discussions they had with their supervisors). Furthermore, this study supports Hadwin et al. (2018) description of regulation as adaptive, which states that regulation is a conscious and purposeful behaviour in the face of adversity, with an aim to achieve particular goals. We also found that despite their frustration with and inability to do so alone, participants saw the value in critically reflecting on, discussing, and validating their work with a supervisor or a peer (SR of behaviour), confirming Teng and Zhang's (2016) observation that seeking and taking advantage of social support is an important part of the creative process.

Despite the fact that these students were likely effective self-regulated writers, their remarks frequently suggested that their writing regulation was intimately linked to their social interaction experiences, which we conceptualised as participatory appropriation (PA). We examined this aspect of the issue in answer to our second research question.

Second, what role does participatory appropriation (primarily through interaction with a supervisor) play in explaining and affecting these students' self-regulation of writing? 5.2

This new writing challenge would not have been possible without our students' active participation in the selection process. Using the PA idea, we were able to find instances in our data when students successfully characterised and engaged in supervisory discussion and indicated how this discourse led to new questions and goals (i.e., how they "transformed" this dialogue into new regulatory strategies). In this regard, the extent of the SR/PA overlap in the interview data is not as essential as what the students say about it and the emphasis they place on this debate in terms of writing regulation. If data were given only in terms of Pintrich's theoretical framework, its transformational value would not have been represented. SR/PA data illustrate this interaction's qualitative relevance for the students' writing SR. As a starting point, here are a few instances of commonalities and differences:

During the planning stage, PA played a crucial role in aiding students in re-formulating their objectives in a way that was relevant to their academic fields of focus. Because it helped students think strategically about how to achieve these goals, supervisory discourse also provided them with suggestions for particular tasks and procedures (Zimmerman & Cleary, 2009, p. 250). The permeable character of humanities genres and their reliance on argumentation make "knowledge transformation" (Bereiter &Scardamalia, 1987) problematic for the beginner writer in literary studies, as we noted in our introduction (Shaw, 2009). Kurt and Virginia's data included a lot of planning and activation of topic knowledge, among other things, in the first interview that we conducted, which we referred to as "innovation" (re-telling). In order to uncover an angle, conceptually organise Kurt's text, and determine specific aims for his text, the majority of Kurt's data were summaries of his contacts with his supervisor (SR/PA) (for example, the need for contextualization). Similar to this, the supervisor's questions gave Jane and Virginia with a solid strategic foundation on which to build their essay.

2) We categorised the data as SR/PA. shed light on how students' cognitive monitoring and regulation of their own writing performance was helped by interaction in the form of supervisory talks. "SRL is gradually appropriated through interaction," is how our participants have described these debates, which are more than just examples of teacher-

directed management (Hadwin&Oshige, 2011, p. 247). Even in fictitious settings, pupils utilised supervisory words as cognitive regulation techniques, as indicated by the numerous instances in which pupils recalled supervisory discussions to monitor their thoughts and to use the supervisor's words as a cognitive regulation strategy (as in Kurt). They all reported several instances of behaviour regulation (help-seeking tactics) that indicated the importance of the interaction with their supervisor in initiating and engaging in new cycles of planning, monitoring, and assessment of their work. Jane was the most vocal. Because of this, PA benefited SR's "cyclical adaption" while it was evolving (Hadwin et al., 2018, p. 85). Student quotes with the SR/PA code include additional emphasis on appropriation because our data show that students not only recount but also reason about their conversations with the supervisor, linking them to significant shifts in goals and transforming them into new concepts for regulating writing.

As a result of PA's emphasis on appropriation, students' ability to control their work was linked to their interactions with their supervisors. Sociocultural studies on teacher-student or supervisor-student contact, particularly in academic university contexts (e.g., Björkman, 2017; Dysthe, 2002; Eriksson &Mäkitalo, 2015), as well as other findings in the field of enculturation, show that this conclusion is consistent. As a co-regulation case, the supervisory discourse looked to be more than just a chance to internalise regulatory techniques in advance of creating rules. Using this method allowed the students to understand the difficulties of academic writing such as the need to demonstrate a clear academic identity in their writing, the need to develop a unique and personal point of view, and the shift towards viewing the text as a work in progress, which was reported by the students themselves (Castelló et al., 2013).

Taking these factors into account, our findings showed two more traits worth mentioning. All three participants had changed their views about academic writing and what a BA essay entailed at the end of the essay-writing session According to an example from the final interviews, the method, strategies, and aims of writing an essay for a BA degree were discussed in length. One of the most interesting things about Kurt's quotes is that they provide a fresh look at writing as a disciplinary practise and the crucial role that the supervisor plays in this learning process. In this sense, the reconceptualization of writing

activity seen by Nicolás-Conesa and colleagues (2014) is tied to what Pintrich (2000) argues in terms of a shift in goal orientation: from performance to mastery, which is explored by Pintrich (2000). (2000). See pages. 474-479 for further information. In terms of Schunk and Zimmerman (1998)'s four-level development model, this shift in students' motivation for writing regulation from social to personal sources might also be defined (Zimmerman &Kitsantas, 1999). It was the supervisors' role as socialisation agents to help students understand what academic literary criticism quality markers are: originality, freshness, a personal connection to the ideas proposed, and the ability to connect personal insights with the larger theoretical and critical conversation in literature.

The study's relative lack of comments expressly tied to the control of motivational processes was one of its most noteworthy features. Only a few students expressed a need to manage their motivation consistently during the course of the semester, and they were focused on certain aspects of text creation. It was observed in section 5.1 that all three participants showed an intense interest in their core topic and in good cognitive control, suggesting that they may be able to keep their motivation going in the long run. In this aspect, it is probable that the participatory nature of the experience had a significant impact. Pintrich (2003, p. 672) summarises many of the educational approaches proposed to encourage motivation as "providing clear and accurate feedback," "sustaining their ability to take charge," and "providing opportunities to exercise some choice and control." Meaningful connection has the potential to support motivation and metacognitive accuracy, as we can see from previous research (Pieschl, 2009). When we found a strong correlation between the PA and SR domains of students' cognition, we may assume that the supervisory conversations they were exposed to gave them the necessary tools to structure their thoughts, analyse and evaluate their ideas, and keep the spark of discovery burning. While it's "[i]t is evident that there is a reciprocal and recursive relationship between motivation and cognition, but there is a need for further research on this topic." that motivation and cognition are linked in a cyclical way, Pintrich (2003, page 679) asserts that more research is needed in this area.

6. Ending thoughts

Students' SR was captured in a variety of ways while writing a BA essay using Pintrich's (2000, 2004) framework. An established framework had to be used in order to ensure that SR could be discovered and traced in the data, which was gathered over a long period of time and by three separate individuals. Participants' social experiences, particularly their conversations with their supervisor, had a significant influence in the development of their writing regulation as shown by Rogoff's idea of participatory appropriation (Rogoff, 1990). Although our method has limitations, we must be conscious of these limitations. However, despite our efforts to analyse the link between self-regulation and social interaction, our study is still focused on individual students and relies on self-reported data from interviews. Since it doesn't cover both co-regulation and sociocultural interaction, it can't be classified as either. Using PA, which emphasises appropriation and individual change, the study also tackles many of the difficulties that researchers have while doing research. Students' self-regulation of writing (SR) can be studied in a variety of ways that go beyond cognition, including: identifying episodes of SR in response to challenges; exploring the emergence of SR in connection with dialogue and self-regulation; and providing qualitative and subjective data that reveal students' evolving self-regulation (Hadwin et al., 2018). Regulatory issues were also examined from a temporal and naturalistic viewpoint, in which students and supervisors are involved in a high-risk, real-world activity (the BA essay).

During the interview, we discovered an additional limitation: our data collecting method may have served as a metacognitive scaffold, helping participants reflect about their texts and crystallise some of their PA experiences. Similarly to the four participants in Wong's (2005) study, our students expressed gratitude for the way our in-depth interviews helped them become more aware of and introspective about their writing. Instead of providing criticism or ideas to the participants, we used a stimulated-recall strategy to enable them talk about their work; this shows that tutorial strategies like as coaching or any other verbalization to scaffold metacognition and SR of writing might be advantageous (Serra & Metcalfe, 2009).

Research in this area focused on how writing regulations were implemented outside of an individual's direct control. We found that students' acquisition of important cognitive and metacognitive skills, such as disciplinary knowledge and ways of thinking that meet situated

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writing expectations, was helped by social contact with their instructors, despite the fact that cognitive and metacognitive aspects predominate in the data on participants' SRs of writing. When students engage in meaningful connections, the social environment impacts the development of cognitive and metacognitive writing regulating mechanisms, as well as the availability and conditions. According to this study and others from a sociocultural viewpoint, the development of self-regulation in advanced disciplinary writing is best understood when interpersonal dynamics are taken into account (Dysthe, 2002). Disciplinary culture "ways of thinking and acting" were transmitted to employees by supervisors in this case (Rogoff &Angelillo, 2002, p. 222). Finally, Kurt's closing words convey both the transformation and the role performed by his supervisor. My supervisor gave me criticism, and it became clear to me what was not working... and you look back and you did a fantastic job." When you first start off, you'll have a limited understanding of the topic, and you won't be conscious of your own inadequacies (Kurt)

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Ask background info (topic, supervisor comments etc.)
(with text in front)
Look carefully at your text (might take a moment or two). How do you feel about it?
Could you tell us, overall, where did you concentrate most of your efforts on?
Could you tell us what aspects of your text you think need more work? Why?
What do you think you need to do next? (why)
Final comments?

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Table S1. Overview of Kurt's Participatory appropriation & Self-regulation: Phases (relative %)

		Cognition				Motivation				Behavior				Context			
		F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R
Int 1	%	36.8	27.0	37.8	7.6	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	15.8	60.5	60.5	23.7
	nr	(6)	(5)	(6)	(3)	(1)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(3)	(0)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Int 2	%	50.6	13.6	7.8	27.9	0	0	0	0	0	34.2	64.9	0	0	43.9	31.8	25.8
	nr	(3)	(1)	(1)	(2)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(2)	(5)	(0)	(0)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Int 3	%	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	100
	nr	(0)	(0)	(0)	(2)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(1)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(1)

F: Forethought and planning. M: Monitoring. C: Control. R: Reaction and reflection. ***Note.*** Percentages indicate what proportion of a particular area (e.g. Cognition) within Participatory appropriation was coded as a particular phase (e.g. Forethought) in the data source (e.g. Interview 1). Numbers in parentheses indicate how many instances of the code were identified.

Table S2. Overview of Jane's Participatory appropriation & Self-regulation: Phases (relative %)

		Cognition				Motivation				Behavior				Context			
		F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R
Int 1	%	0	55.0	0	45.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100.0	0	0	100.0	0	0
	nr	(0)	(1)	(0)	(1)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(1)	(0)	(0)	(4)	(0)	(0)
Int 2	%	17.1	12.7	53.2	27.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	100.0	0	0	59.5	35.7	38.1
	nr	(4)	(2)	(8)	(4)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(6)	(0)	(0)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Int 3	%	0	15.0	27.5	55.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75.0	25.0	0	0	0	100.0
	nr	(0)	(1)	(1)	(2)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(4)	(1)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(3)

F: Forethought and planning. M: Monitoring. C: Control. R: Reaction and reflection. ***Note.*** Percentages indicate what proportion of a particular area (e.g. Cognition) within Participatory appropriation was coded as a particular phase (e.g. Forethought) in the data source (e.g. Interview 1). Numbers in parentheses indicate how many instances of the code were identified.

Table S3. Overview of Virginia's Participatory appropriation & Self-regulation: Phases (relative %)

		Cognition				Motivation				Behavior				Context			
		F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R	F	M	C	R
Int 1	%	51.7	8.7	39.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	30.3	69.7	0	0	0	0	0
	nr	(3)	(1)	(3)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(1)	(3)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
Int 2	%	31.1	28.7	40.2	0	0	0	0	0	33.3	19.6	46.8	0	0	0	0	0
	nr	(6)	(6)	(5)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
Int 3	%	0	40.2	35.5	24.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100.0	0
	nr	(0)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(1)	(0)

F: Forethought and planning. M: Monitoring. C: Control. R: Reaction and reflection. ***Note.*** Percentages indicate what proportion of a particular area (e.g. Cognition) within Participatory appropriation was coded as a particular phase (e.g. Forethought) in the data source (e.g. Interview 1). Numbers in parentheses indicate how many instances of the code were identified.

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4

Place of Dialogue in Argumentative Writing: A Study

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Abstract:

An essential part of our approach to developing argumentative writing is to use a dialogic approach, in which students actively participate in a conversation with peers, which offers both an audience and a purpose for the activity. It took place over the course of a school year in which sixth graders debated a variety of themes on the internet with their peers and wrote individual essays on each of them. To put it another way, as compared to a non-participating group, they showed far greater coordination ability. In particular, they displayed a stronger ability to use evidence to both support and undermine their claims. Additionally, they showed modest meta-level gain in their understanding of the importance and role of evidence in reasoning. They were able to rule out the idea that this improvement was due to superior memory of the specific evidence that had been made accessible to them rather than a wider meta-level understanding of the subject matter. To help students improve their argumentative writing skills, some believe that they should be given more opportunities to converse about the topics that interest them personally.

Keywords: Dialogue, argumentation, evidence, writing

Many academic fields rely heavily on non-narrative argumentative writing to help students succeed. Claim-evidence coordination, as well as the use of evidence-based assertions to improve one's own position and weaken the position of an opponent, are crucial components of argumentative writing. The concepts needed aren't all at hand right away, thus they need to be organised in a more complex way than a simple linear one. As a result, argumentative writing is more difficult for students of all ages to master than narrative writing. Student struggles to do so at all educational levels have been extensively documented and investigated, as have the many methods employed to assist them in doing so (Graham, &Perin, 2007; Newell, Beach, Smith, &VanDerHeide, 2011; Ferretti & Lewis, 2013). Students' ability to write and revise is the primary goal of the bulk of these strategies. Students' argumentative writing skills are aided by the method outlined here, which builds on the approach's developmental foundations, or, to put it another way, by employing dialogue as a bridge between children's natural conversational interactions and their own unnatural written work. Here, we'll lay out the evidence that it works.

A sociocultural framework and its basic principle of collaborative cognition, or thinking as social practise, is at the heart of modern empirical research, and the dialogic technique portrayed in this book most nearly resembles it (Cole, 1998; Tomasello, 1999). There are two philosophers, Walton (2014) and van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1992), who share the opinion that it is critical to examine arguments in a dialogic setting.

Dialogic methods, according to Graff (2003), have the advantage of providing an interlocutor who would otherwise be missing. Even as they stare blankly at a blank page, the aspiring writer tries to somehow fill it with bland comments at least slightly pertinent to the specified topic, but aimed at no one in particular, without saying anything that anybody would find offensive. When speaking, the student is conscious of who he or she is speaking to and what they hope to accomplish. Having a clear target audience and a compelling aim are essential components of successful writing. As a result, without them, student writers are at risk of being unable to write anything that may be perceived as possibly compromising the subject matter without resorting to "what the teacher wants" (Graff, 2003).

Resnick and Mercer, along with other colleagues (Resnick, Michaels, and O'Connor, 2010; Resnick, Asterhan, and Clarke, 2015; Mercer and Littleton, 2007), have advocated for the pedagogical power of discourse in modern education theory. Most prominent are Resnick and Mercer, as well as their respective colleagues. They emphasise the importance of discourse interaction in and of itself with the consequences for individual writing often being neglected or implied. The bulk of scholars who have followed the dialogic model of Reznitskaya et al. (2001) and colleagues have focussed their investigations on the whole-classroom level of discourse, but Reznitskaya et al. Dyadic discourse refers to communication between two people who speak or write directly to one another and are both directly accountable for maintaining the flow of information. This is the method that is reflected in the current study. When it comes to cognitive engagement, one of its primary advantages is that the individual is always on call to respond to the other and keep a discussion continuing. The instructor no longer serves as the central point of contact for all of the students.

1. Discourse as a means of developing argumentative writing

When writing in groups, it might be difficult to adapt to writing on your own. conversation, rather than direct writing instruction, is based on Vygotsky's (1978) idea of information transmission from an inter-individual to an intra-individual level that supports dialogue. If you're looking for a way to strengthen and improve the link between these two kinds of writing, try using an intermediate reflective writing strategy like Nussbaum's Vee-diagrams from 2008. Rather than emphasising one mode over the others, we believe that a rotation between individual and social modes, rather than a focus on one to the exclusion of the others, is the most promising strategy.

Additionally, dialogic argument has the additional benefit of supporting the development of what Nussbaum and Asterhan (2016) refer to as proactive executive control tactics (NECS). To what aim am I putting my efforts? "meta-strategic awareness," is the term for this, and we'll detail our efforts to analyse it in a later part, but the most essential thing to emphasise here is that it is equally vital when you're writing as it is when you're talking. As opposed to group writing, when an external third party can help with executive control tasks, this is especially true while writing alone (Zillmer& Kuhn, 2018). Argumentative writing may be a bridge to dialogue since dialogue involves two essential elements: an audience clearly

identified and a compelling purpose for the writing. As a means of achieving this objective, participants choose the position they will occupy. Dialogue methods utilised in this study are characterised by their emphasis on student-to-student interaction, rather than teacher involvement. This method is based on the idea that higher-order thinking abilities, such as reasoning, are important enough to merit a place in the curriculum on their own.

We also believe that developing argumentation skills, as well as the principles that drive them, needs constant and extensive practise in a variety of contexts that necessitate such growth. Both the formation of a supporting community and the development of individual capacities and understandings are necessary for participation. As a result, it takes time to complete. For a long length of time, students in the projects described below deal closely with a wide range of challenging arguing topics. Both verbal and nonverbal conversations are held by the participants in order to prepare them for the dialogues they would have later with peers on opposing sides. Participation in rational discourse increases significantly as a result of this; both kinds of discourse help assist metacognitive preparation and cognition.

As a result, the current strategy includes both verbal and technological communication with a partner on the other side (between a same-side pair and a sequence of opposing couples). This is a key component of the current strategy. Unlike verbal discourse, which vanishes as soon as it is said, writing preserves knowledge by making it available in a concrete form. Since electronic media allows for reflection on the information being communicated, dialogue can be temporarily "disconnected" (Olson & Oatley, 2014). As well as providing a foundation for debate, the transcripts serve as the focus of a range of reflective exercises that students do throughout the course of the semester.

2. The Importance of Evidence in a Deliberative Process

When making an evidence-based claim, as previously said, the claim must be accompanied with appropriate evidence to support it. To assess students' ability to write persuasively, we will utilise this basic unit, which we have used in the past (Kunn, Hemberger, &Khait, 2016a,b). For scientists and educators working in the fields of scientific education and reasoning in general, the use of evidence has become increasingly vital (Asterhan& Schwarz, 2016; Chen et al., 2016; Kuhn, 2018; Kuhn & Moore, 2015; Manz&Renga, 2017; McNeill & Berland, 2016). In order to coordinate claims and evidence, many conditions must be met. It

appears that drawing on evidence to discredit a claim is more difficult than drawing on evidence to support a claim, based on the evidence available (Kuhn & Moore, 2015).

The evidence that students need in order to coordinate their claims and evidence and therefore successfully argue will have to be obtained by them somehow. To begin with, pupils may not comprehend why they are reading about a topic in the first place, which is a potential drawback of the traditional approach of teaching. Answers to questions that haven't even been asked yet are what this book is about. Therefore, they are unable to appreciate its significance. Resultantly, The result is that such reading is often treated as if it were just another task to be finished with a lack of passion. Aside from factual material we present in a quick Q&A style, we have created an alternate way that helps students to realise how such information may be valuable by providing them the option to submit their own questions. They are better able to defend or reject arguments when they have a thorough understanding of the subject matter.

3. Analysis of the Development of Argumentative Writing

The method employed here has been extremely beneficial in both instances for increasing ability (Kuhn & Crowell, 2011; Crowell & Kuhn, 2014; Kuhn & Moore, 2015; Kuhn, Hemberber&Khait, 2016a,b). Using this technique, we can trace the development of new abilities in a linked manner across both dialogic and individual writing situations, which is advantageous for research purposes.

We've been keeping a careful eye on the students' final essays after they've worked through a number of different topics, and we've seen a tendency in the evidence authors use to back up their claims (Kuhn et al., 2016a,b).

Although students have access to a wealth of material, they tend to utilise it just to support their own opinions at the outset (upper left box in Figure 1). Later on in the course, most students start using evidence to disprove the opposing position (lower right box in Figure 1). As seen by the diagonal connecting line in Figure 1, a dual argumentation technique can be supported by these various sorts of evidence. "Here's everything that's good about my position and everything that's terrible about yours." At some point in the process, a few students will begin to present evidence from Figure 1 (usually labelled "Support Other" and "Weaken My"), evidence that cannot be used to support their own perspective as readily as it

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can be used to support another's position and must be reconciled with it in some manner. It's true that, but anyway"– before trying an integration in a real "However" structure that connected two neighbouring kinds of the four types indicated in Figure 1. This is because it is difficult to execute.

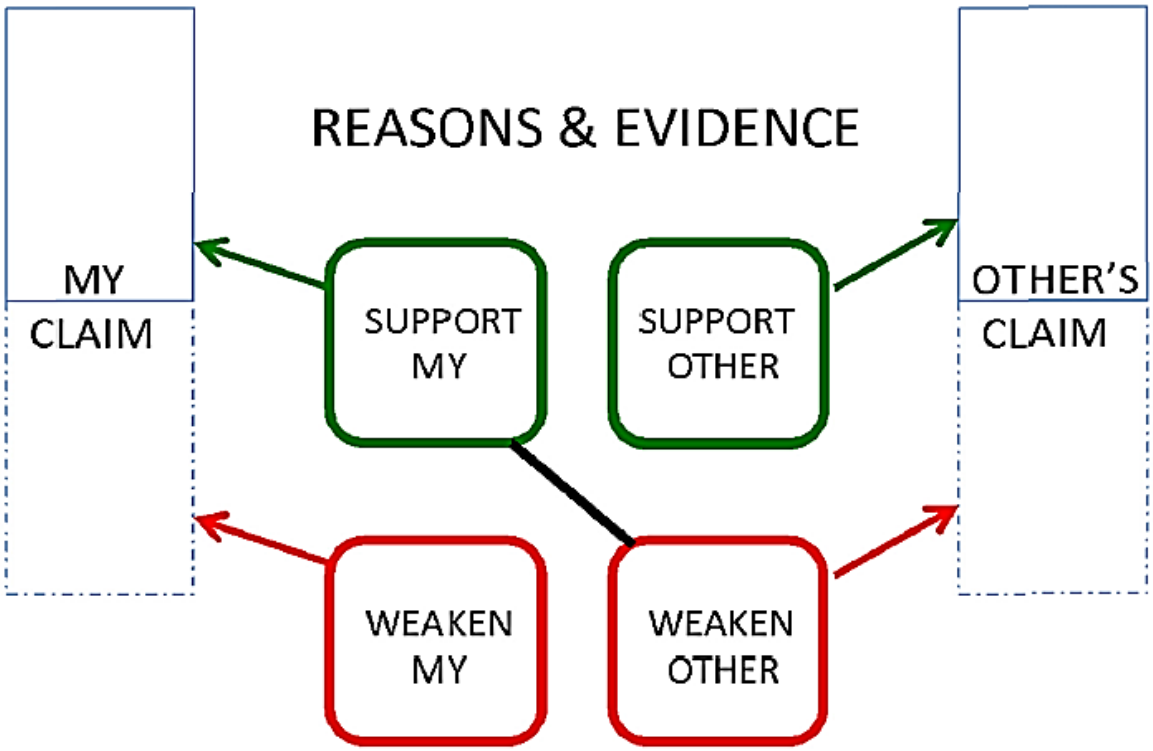

Figure 1. Forms of coordination of claims and evidence.

Although knowing that progress may be made is heartening, the process is slow, labor-intensive, and incomplete. Because of this, we decided to see whether we could speed up the procedure in our most recent study (Hemberger et al., 2017). As part of our commitment to students, we agreed to help them increase their capacity to use evidence of all kinds to support their assertions. We kept the brief Q&A format, encouraging students to ask their own questions, and then providing them with answers; however, we also provided students with one carefully selected piece of evidence (also in Q&A format) during each of their dialogue sessions, with the prompt "try to say something about this evidence in your dialogue today."

Based on the observed order of emergence in the previous work, we provided evidence of different categories to an experimental sample of sixth graders in what we judged to be the best sequence. An experimental group of sixth-graders received evidence of various kinds (Kuhn et al., 2016a). A common feature of the course was that students were able to hear directly from their opponents why they were wrong. As a result, we investigated whether it would be beneficial to provide a prompt to respond a piece of information supporting the opposing perspective.

Experimenters used evidence-based claims more frequently than those in the control group throughout a year-long intervention, compared to those who received no extra evidence or simply information supporting their stance, according to a study. Experimental students had more evidence in their essays than either the comparison or control groups, indicating that they had successfully transferred their newly learned expertise from one topic into another..83 pieces at first topic essay to 3.16 pieces at the end of the year (Hemberger et al., 2017). In accordance with the cognitive demands they placed on the participants, several types of evidence were applied in a sequential way. In the beginning, the students used their own proof to back up their arguments. The usage of Weaken-other evidence rose with time, but the two types of evidence that were inconsistent with their perspective (Support-other and Weaken-own) displayed lower and later gains. The fact that the experimental group beat both comparison groups shows that participants aren't only getting an advantage because evidence is readily available. It was found that evidence was used most frequently in conversations; it appeared less frequently in individual writing on the same topic, and to a lesser extent, in articles on a new, unstudied topic.

4. The Subject of the Present Investigation

Hemberger et al. utilised a similar procedure with a fresh group of sixth-graders in a prior investigation, which was replicated in this study (2017). It was essential for students to participate in electronic talks with a series of opposing-side spouses in the course. Our e-dialogues allowed students to ask questions about the topic they wanted to learn more about, and the responses were provided in subsequent class sessions; we also provided more evidence in a Q&A manner. It was established that the order in which students were presented with evidence for each argumentation function was the most effective: support own

position, undermine opposition position, support opposite stance, and undermine own position.

In order to investigate students' understandings of evidence linked with a claim as playing a vital part in an argument, we introduce some additional measures to this study. We intended to see if students who participated in the study gained a better understanding of the essential role evidence plays in argumentative speech and writing by applying these measures to both experimental and comparison groups. In addition to skill improvement, is it feasible that long-term participation in the intervention might assist students get a better understanding of the purpose and purposes of evidence in argumentative writing?

This study hypothesises that students' meta-strategic awareness in this area will be enhanced by repeated practise of finding and utilising evidence to support and weaken arguments on both their own and the other side, and that this will lead to a greater appreciation of evidence's significance. Students' meta-level claims were traced back to one another as they participated in the dialogic intervention, and we were eager to see if the same meta-level grasp of argumentative discourse would be reflected in their writing (Kuhn et al., 2013). Students' previous selection and later recall of evidence, as well as their use of that evidence in their compositions, are assessed as a means of achieving this goal. A meta-level understanding of the purpose of evidence is shown by the fact that they are examining evidence rather than merely using it (Kuhn, 2001). Specifically, we expect to see progress made in this area by students participating in the intervention compared to a control group that did not. As a more precise question, would students be able to better describe and thus retain the value of different sorts of evidence before they begin pondering their writing task? A rise in students' usage of various sorts of evidence-based statements in their argumentative writing may also be predicted based on previous findings (Hemberger et al., 2017).

5. Method

5.1 Participants

An urban public middle school in a low-income neighbourhood in a major northeastern American metropolis recruited 54 sixth-graders (all of whom were 11 or 12 years old) for the research. The participants shared a common ethnic, socioeconomic, and intellectual background, which was evenly split between men and women. The bulk of attendees were

Hispanic or African-American, and 96% of them were eligible for a free lunch. At or below grade level, the great majority of these students were regarded to be in danger of losing their educations

All incoming students were placed in one of three sixth-grade classrooms chosen at random from those who applied by the school administration. Children who were all new to the middle school were randomly assigned to classes that were deemed to be equal groupings by the administration. The students' demographic equivalence was validated, as well as their ability to perform at a comparable level in academics.

5.2 Design

For the purposes of the study, two classes were randomly selected. The comparison group only participated in a final assessment that was identical to and delivered at the same time as the final assessment given to the experimental group. This year's final evaluation included an experimental condition in which one class engaged twice weekly in curriculum activities throughout the school year. There were no debates or arguments in the comparison group's Social Studies lectures, nor did they write a detailed essay during the experimental group's sessions.

The final sample consisted of 49 students who were in 6th grade when the study began and were chosen from the original sample of 54. From a total of 27 students who started the intervention, a final sample of 22 students (13 females) was kept in the experimental condition. Five students from the experimental group were dropped from the research because of excessive absences (more than 50 percent of intervention sessions). 27 students (13 of whom were female) completed a single examination at the end of the school year that was identical to that of the experimental group on a separate day.

5.3 Intervention Procedures and Strategies

The intervention strategy was a year-long dialog-focused argument curriculum that closely mimicked the intervention reported by Hemberger et al. in prior research (Hemberger et al., 2003). (2017). Detailed descriptions of the intervention procedure may be found in Kuhn et al (2016) b. It was decided to split the intervention into four cycles, with each cycle beginning with a new topic and including 13 classes held twice weekly for 40 minutes each. The

treatment was broken up into four separate phases. From a pool of 10 subjects that had been surveyed before to the start of the intervention, four themes were selected. These four issues were chosen because students' views on them were most evenly divided between those who supported and those who opposed them. The first issue to be addressed was whether or not soft drink purchases should be subject to a tax. There was also a debate about whether or not a parent who has migrated to the United States may home-school their child. Whether or if the United States should help an invaded South American country was the third point of debate. We also discussed whether or not high school students should immediately enrol in college, or if they should first work for some time before doing so. Pregame sessions were held for each topic cycle after a series of opposing-side pairings engaged in paired electronic talks with a number of same-side pairs (Game sessions). A Showdown debate in front of the entire class follows the last same-side group work (Endgame sessions). A debriefing session and the submission of a final personal essay assignment brought the subject cycle to an end. A comparable intervention was created and implemented by the authors in a similar situation with low-achieving middle-school kids.

Constructing a winning strategy (Sessions 1 and 2)

Students formed small groups of three to five on one side of the classroom after settling on an opinion on the subject. A professional adult coach, if required, mediated the conversation. As part of Our Reasons, students argued that their perspective was the best. One justification per card, these supporting arguments were then discussed with peers, and any clarifications that were needed were rewritten on the cards themselves. Student groups worked together to sort the reasons into three categories: excellent, good, and so-so, during the second session's Evaluating Reasons activity.

Having fun with a toy or game (Sessions 3 to 8)

During this phase, students formed pairs on the same side of the room and stayed together. Each session, a separate pair of opposing sides engaged in an electronic conversation using basic word-processing software. Together with their companion, they worked on an own-side or other-side Reflection Sheet while they awaited the electronic reaction of their opponents. They also participated in the dialogue input selection. There, they were tasked with

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considering the most effective counterargument and rebuttal to one of their own or their opponent's arguments.

Additionally, students were encouraged to come up with evidence questions that they thought would be relevant in supporting their assertions throughout Topics 1 to 3. During a future class, students' questions like these were addressed individually before being shared with the full class. Additionally, students were given between two and five pieces of evidence in the form of Q&As at the end of the Game section, depending on the questions' content. This guaranteed that students have encountered evidence that fit all four of the argumentation goals outlined above by the time they ended their study on the problem (support own, weaken other, support other, weaken own).

A few minutes before its conclusion (Sessions 9 to 13)

For the Showdown in front of the full class, students returned to their same-side groups and prepared. Students were able to more readily examine the opposing side's arguments and their counterarguments against them after completing a Summary Reflection Sheet during one session. As a group, they drafted a second summary sheet that detailed their own arguments, anticipated counterarguments and rebuttals, as well as their plan for the Showdown.

As part of the Showdown activity, students from both sides decided to engage in a verbal debate with a classmate from the other side in front of the entire class.. Anyone participating in the debate or one of their teammates may call a one-minute Huddle during this three-minute intermission to allow the speaker to solicit help from the rest of the team. In order to develop an argument map for use in the Debrief session that followed the event, these voice exchanges were recorded and transcribed. As soon as students had finished the argument map (which included counterarguments, rebuttals, and evidence utilisation), they were granted points for effective argument movements and points were subtracted for bad argument moves (e.g., unwarranted assumptions, unsupported claims, and misuse of evidence). A winning team was selected based on these criteria.

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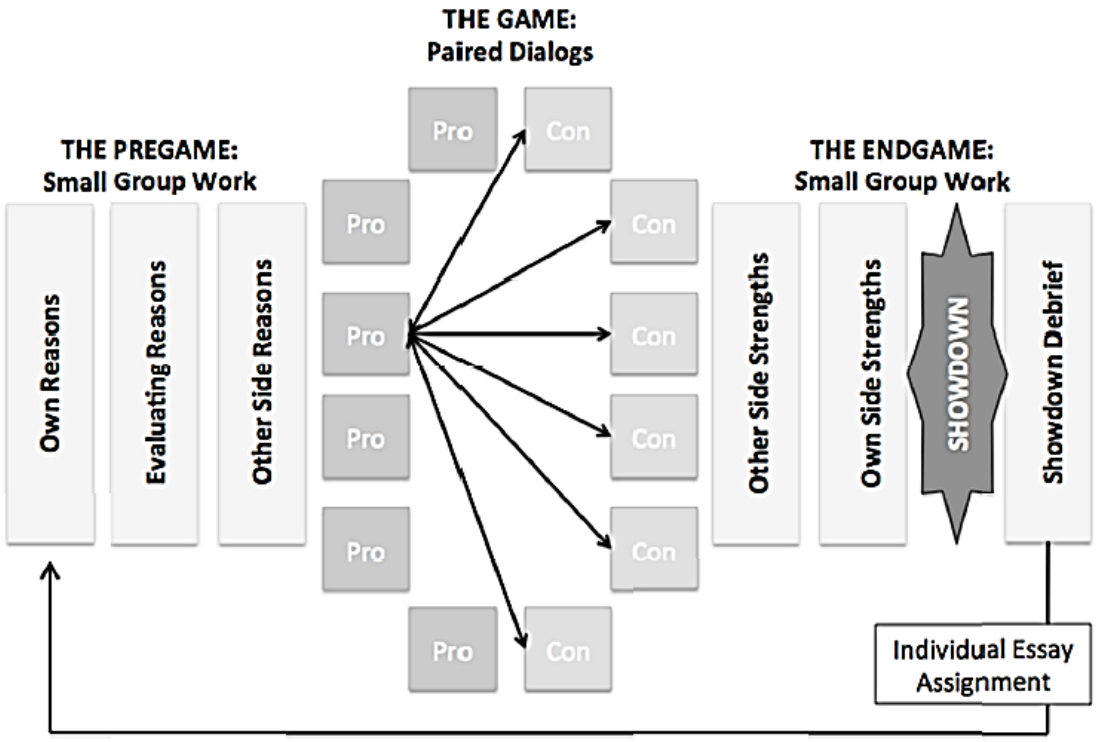

Figure 2. Topic workflow from pre-game to final essay (From Kuhn et al., 2013).

For this final project, students wrote a Letter to the Editor-style article arguing for or against a viewpoint on the subject matter. A 40-minute class time with no breaks allowed pupils to complete these assignments. For the most part, they completed it within 30 minutes, however some took as long as 40 minutes. To help students with their essays, they were given a copy of the Q&A-format collection of evidence on the topic that had previously been made accessible to them. This material is relevant to the issue, but keep in mind that not all of the facts will support your preferred viewpoint. Students were all given the identical verbal stimulus. Whatever happens, consider if you can handle the circumstance. "You are under no obligation to do so." Whenever a basic explanation of a word's definition or task instruction was requested, it was immediately given. Because there was no set duration for an essay, students were notified.

The next session began a new topic, and the tasks were completed in the same order as the previous one. Fig. 2 displays a chronological flowchart of the subject cycle.

5.4 Evaluation of the Intervention Topic

Pre and post-essay components were included in the evaluation in addition to the major essay component. Evidence selection and memory were also assessed. Because we wanted intervention students to write on a topic they had been deeply immersed in during the trial (college vs. work), we related the assessment to the experimental group's fourth topic (college vs. work) (a condition central to the intervention method). To guarantee that all participants in the experimental and comparison groups were exposed to the same evidence items during this last session, we postponed the compilation of evidence for Topic 4 until this final session. Afterwards, the experimental group performed an essay on a new topic in order to examine the transfer of abilities to a previously unstudied subject.

All participants were asked to produce individual essays on the topic of college vs. work, along with a variety of additional assignments related to the subject. Writing was graded on its capacity to produce functional, evidence-based assertions—declarations that show a clear link between claim and supporting evidence—which is described in further detail in the results report. For this reason, we chose to include additional activities to evaluate our predictions concerning students' understanding of evidence and its importance.

Selection of relevant evidence

Students were given a list of four possible sources of evidence to draw from while composing their first essay. Among them were:

1. “Demonstration of positive outcomes from attending college immediately after high school”

2. “Demonstration of positive outcomes as a result of working prior to attending college”

3. “Demonstration of negative outcomes associated with immediately enrolling in college”

4. “Evidence of negative outcomes associated with working prior to attending college.”

It was recommended that students circle the forms of evidence they were most interested in seeing before beginning their essay. Afterwards, students were instructed to mark the vehicle type that came in second on their list by placing a check next to it.

Afterwards, students were tasked with coming up with a list of evidence questions they want to have addressed before beginning the essay portion of the assignment. List of Q&A evidence with 12 questions and responses, however they didn't have an answer for any of them (see Appendix). A list of possible questions was provided to students, and they were free to choose as many questions as they liked.

It is possible to learn how to write an essay.

That was followed by an essay for the kids. This year's high school seniors were required to submit a letter to their peers, advising them on whether or not they should go straight to college or gain some job experience first. Teachers explained to the kids that the letter's goal was to influence as many pupils as possible to see things from their perspective.

The coach gave the students a list of 12 pieces of evidence in the form of a Q&A session before they could begin writing (see Appendix). In order to support one's own position, weaken the position of another, strengthen the position of another, and weaken one's own stance, these were carefully weighed. It was made clear to students that they may use the evidence presented, but they were not compelled to do so. Essays were due in 20 minutes, although students were allowed to take the whole 40-minute class session if they wanted.

Recollection of the facts

Students had to submit their essays and evidence sheets before going on to the next activity. No answers were provided to the 12 evidence-related questions they were presented (see Appendix). They were then asked to recall the answers they had provided to the questions they had previously been given. Students were told that if they couldn't remember the particular answer, they may write down the general idea. The majority of students were able to finish the activity in less than 10 minutes.

The Transfer Topic's 5.5 Evaluation

During a subsequent class session, intervention students were required to produce an individual essay on the following topic: whether juveniles who commit major crimes should be prosecuted in an adult court system or a juvenile court system. For this topic, the exam's instructions were similar to those for the main examination topic. For their essays, each of

them was given a comparable list with 12 examples of Q&A evidence that they may choose to use.

5.6 Essay Formatting and Scheduling

Initially, each essay was separated into concept units, which were described as a claim and any supporting evidence or justifications in support of that assertion. The next step was to divide each item into one of two categories: evidence-based or non-evidence-based. Due to the focus on evidence in argumentation in this study, only evidence-based units were studied in further depth. Functional and non-functional subcategories were identified by Hemberger et al. (2017). In order to call a claim "evidence-based," the evidence must be clearly established to serve a specific purpose in support of the claim. It was considered non-functional if the evidence was not connected to the claim (for example, when evidence was merely presented with no implication made) or when the evidence was mischaracterized. Evidence-based statements with functional evidence were further classified into four groups based on their distinct roles: supporting one's own side, weakening the opposition, supporting the opposition, and weakening one's own side.

At random, two researchers picked 20% of the data and divided it into individual thought units, which resulted in a 93% inter-rater agreement. After resolving their differences in segmentation through discussion and debate, they assigned each unit to one of six categories (non-evidence-based category, non-functional evidence-based category, four functional evidence-based categories), achieving an agreement of 83% (Cohen's kappa = 0.736, P = 0.001) and a Cohen's kappa of 0.73. Despite differences, the remaining essays were coded by one of the authors once they had been completed. A piece of evidence is referred to in Table 1 for each level, and each level is defined and illustrated.

Q: Is a college degree required for the majority of well-paying jobs?

A resounding yes. A bachelor's degree is expected to be necessary for 35 percent of all jobs by 2020. A bachelor's degree from a reputable institution or university is always required for well-paying jobs in the sciences and engineering.

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Table 1. Levels and Examples of Coding of Evidence-based Essay Units

Level	Category	Example	Writer's position
Functional evidence-based claims	*Support-own*: an evidence statement serving to functionally support one's own position.	It can help you get a better job, more pay, and you will learn stuff along the way. By 2020, 35% of jobs will require at least a college degree to get it.	College
	Weaken-other: an evidence statement serving to functionally weakens the opponent's position.	Good jobs like in fields of science and engineering require at least a college degree. This means that if you have a passion for science or engineering you won't be able to pursue your dream without a college degree.	College
	Support-other: an evidence statement serving to functionally support the opponent's position.	However, some people say that you should go to college first because with a college diploma you get more money.	Work
	Weaken-own: an evidence statement serving to functionally weaken one's own position.	However, if you work for one year before going to college you and your parents don't have to worry about the expenses. You might wonder if you can get a great job while being in high school.	Work
Non-functional evidence-based claims	Attempted use of evidence to justify a claim without a discernible connection between evidence and claim.	I want to change because what if you don't have a high school diploma you have to get a job. Like by year 2020, 35% of all jobs will require at least college education.	College
	Simple re-statement of evidence unconnected to any claim. [Can be a full or partial verbatim copy of evidence or a reasonably accurate paraphrase of evidence]	And also yes, it is estimated that by year 2020, 35% of all jobs will require at least college education. High paying jobs such as those in science and engineering always require at least a college degree.	College
	Evidence is mischaracterized and cited in a way that substantially misrepresents its meaning.	No most jobs don't require college because they need people who work hard and have special skills.	Work

6. Results

6.1 Intervention Topic Assessment Essay Writing Intervention Topic Assessment

We initially compared the length of the essays based on the number of concept units in each article to see whether there was a significant difference. Experimental condition had 6.09 units, whereas comparison condition had 4.93 units (standard deviation = 3.31). The length of experimental essays was found to be 1.237 times greater than the length of comparison essays after fitting the Poisson distribution to a Generalized Linear Model (GLM). Wald X2(1, N = 49) = 3.008 and the significance level was 0.083 were determined to be non-significant differences. It is our primary goal to examine evidence-based modules, hence we will focus our following studies on these modules solely. To begin, we compare the two situations to see if the average number of evidence-based units differs. Experimental and comparator conditions both had mean values of 3.00 and 2.67, respectively, with a standard deviation of 1.66% and 2.34, respectively. WX2(1, N = 49) = 0.478 indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the experimental and comparison circumstances, despite the fact that the two groups differ statistically significantly.

On the other hand, there was a statistically significant difference in the number of claims based on functional evidence. Standard deviation was 1.89 for the experimental group, while it was 1.30 for the comparison group (standard deviation was 1.46) to make functional evidence-based assertions. There was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and comparison conditions with Wald X2(1, N = 49) = 11.610, p = 0.001, in terms of the number of evidence-based claims made by the experimental condition. When it came to evidence-based writing, the experimental students outperformed the control students.

Evidence-based arguments supporting and undermining each other were presented far more effectively by the experimental group. The Wald X2(1, N = 49) = 8.063, p = 0.005. When comparing the experimental and comparative conditions, the experimental condition generated 2.455 times more support-own functional evidence-based claims. According to the generalised linear model (GLM) utilising a Poisson distribution, this difference was statistically significant. While the experimental group had a mean score of 1.18 (standard deviation = 1.14), the comparison group had a mean score of 0.59 (standard deviation = 1.12) — a difference that was statistically significant. There were 1.994 times more weaken-other

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evidence-based comments made by the experimental group than the comparison group, according to Wald X2(1, N = 49) = 4.720, p = 0.030.

A more difficult skill that is frequently overlooked by first-time writers was strengthened as a result of these findings: students' ability to successfully use evidence to support claims in favour of their own side as well as their ability to use evidence to counter claims in favour of the opposition's side.

Table 2. Means (and Standard Deviations) of Four Types of Functional Evidence-based Claims in Essays by Condition

Types of evidence-based claims	Experimental condition (n=22)	Comparison condition (n= 27)	Exp(B)
Support-own	1.36 (1.36)	.56 (.70)	2.455**
Weaken-other	1.18(1.14)	.59(1.12)	1.994*
Support-other	.091 (.29)	.15 (.46)	.614
Weaken-own	.05(.21)	.00(.00)	.001
Total	2.68 (1.89)	1.30 (1.46)	2.069**

Note. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$

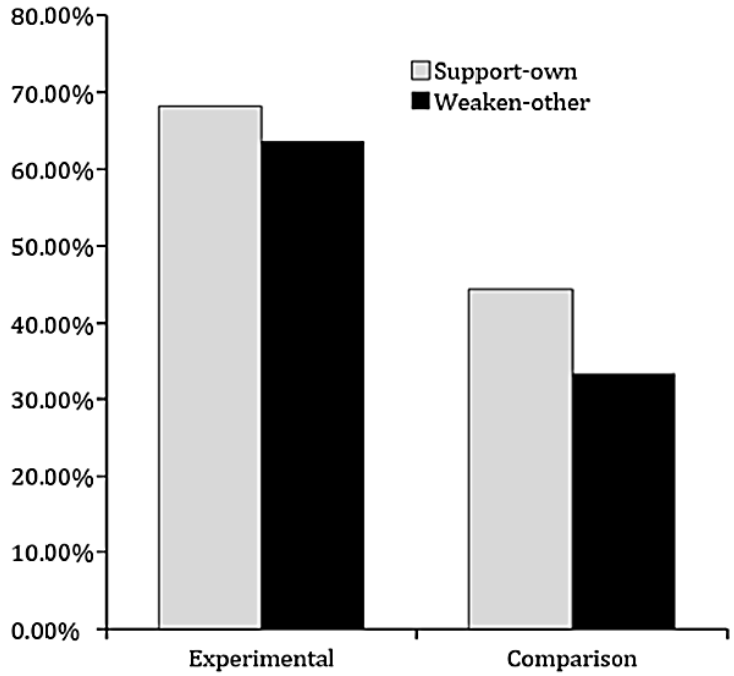

Figure 3. Percentage of students making support-own or weaken-other evidence-based claims at least once by condition

Both groups used evidence effectively in these two roles, although as we expected, the writings of both groups were primarily constrained to these two functions. The students in both sides of the debate rarely alluded to evidence that may support or undermine their own positions. These two sorts of evidence utilisation are the most cognitively demanding for students because of their discrepancy with their own opinions. There was no statistically significant difference in the use of either of these kinds of evidence-based claims, according to Table 2.

Student performance with the two less demanding categories of evidence lacked consistency, with a mean of one successful use in the experimental condition and zero successful uses in the comparative condition due to the limited evidence they had accessible. As a result, we looked at the percentage of students who were able to make strong evidence claims in their essays in order to determine whether or not the curriculum was beneficial to all kids, rather than just a chosen few. See Figure 3, which shows that nearly two-thirds of the experimental group made statements that either supported their own claims or damaged the claims of those who made functional evidence-based assertions at least once. A third of claims were weaken-other claims, and fewer than half of claims were compared to another condition of comparison. This is contrary to the typical trend. This is statistically significant, but the difference between the weakest and other evidence-based assertions isn't. The p value for Fisher's exact test is only 0.047, but it's still statistically significant. Consequently, the intervention was a success, since it allowed the majority of experimental participants to make evidence-based assertions that were weaker than others at least once.

Relevant evidence is selected.

Are there any indications of meta-level understanding of evidence-based argument by the participants' preference for access to one type of evidence over another in their essay? A majority of respondents said yes, but only when asked if they were interested in having access to material that was conflicting with their position (i.e., support-other or weaken-own). Ninety-five percent of participants in the experiment and eighty-five percent of those in the comparison group said they preferred to examine evidence that supported their own claims first and foremost (a non-significant difference between groups).

Group differences were evident when it came to the sort of evidence people wanted to see second most. Over three-quarters of those taking part in the experiment picked this style, compared to just over one-third of those in the comparison group, a highly significant difference between the two groups (p =.004, Fisher's exact test). In contrast, when participants were given the choice of which questions they wanted answered, no significant differences were found in the questions they chose across groups (students were told that odd-numbered questions were about the work option and even-numbered questions were about the college option; only the 12 pieces of experimenter-presented evidence were included, to equalise across groups). Students in the experimental and comparison groups were not significantly different in their preference for evidence about the two options (in the experimental group, 48.7 percent of selected questions were about their favoured option and 51.3 percent were about the contrasting option, with no statistically significant difference; in the comparison group, 52.6 percent of selected questions were about their favoured option and 47.4 percent about the contrasting option, with no statistically significant difference.) Student selection of an average of 5.27 questions did not differ significantly across students in the experimental and comparison conditions (out of a total of 12).

How well did students anticipate which of the answers to the essay questions they would use? Here, neither group did especially well — an average of 31.5 percent of chosen evidence appeared in writings of students in the experimental group and 23.5 percent appeared in essays of comparison students, a non-significant difference yet again. This evidence was accessible to me while I was writing the essays.)

Take stock of the facts.

Most of the evidence questions were tried by participants, with 78.5 percent attempted by the experimental group and 71.8 percent attempted by the comparison group, on average. There was no statistically significant difference between the two sorts of replies among those who properly answered the question. Among the comparison group, only 9.9% (9.9%) failed because they failed to recall evidence in a biassed manner that favoured their own side, whereas only 7.6% (7.6%) failed because they failed to recollect evidence in a biassed manner that favoured their own side among the experimental group. (As an example of evidence indicating the shrinking work options for youths, research has indicated that

unemployment among recent high school grads is substantial.) Only the first statement was remembered by participants who supported the college perspective, whereas both participants who supported the college side remembered only the first sentence. For the reasons stated above, the similar evidence recall scores of the two groups rule out any possibility that whatever advantages the experimental group may have had in their essay may be attributable to better memory of particular evidence.

Analyzing the Transferable Subjects

Examining student writings on the transfer subject will let us determine whether or not students' learning has been expanded beyond the specific issue on which they engaged in dialogue. Some pupils were absent due to an unexpected field trip, and because the school year was nearing its end, it was impossible to gather their data for this work. Consequently, results were compromised. These results should be treated with caution due to the tiny N. However, comparing this group's performance on a new issue with their performance on a topic they had previously participated in is similarly intriguing because the comparison group was engaged in a topic they had previously worked on as well. However, care should be used when evaluating the latter comparison due to the fact that the themes on which both groups wrote were not identical in both situations (as they were in the case of the main group comparison already reported on).

There was no statistically significant difference between those in the experimental group and those in the control group in terms of the percentage of participants who made support-own or weaken-other functional evidence claims, despite the fact that there was only a small and statistically nonsignificant difference between those in the experimental group and those who did not. Mean frequency of usage of these kinds reduced from 0.82 and 1.09 (to support own and weaken other) to 0.69 and 0.54 (for support and weaken correspondingly) (for support own and weaken other). As a result, their inability to properly use the evidence was hampered by their lack of familiarity with both the evidence and the issue in general. As a result, there was no statistically significant difference in comparison groups' performance when compared to the control group (although, note again, the comparison is an imperfect one, as the topic differed across groups).

7. Discussion

As predicted given that the two samples originated from the same demographic, school, and grade level, and were gathered just one year apart in time, the results obtained by Hemberger et al. (2017) are comparable when it comes to essay performance. There are numerous studies that support the use of a dialogic approach to developing students' argumentative writing, particularly in the population of academically low-performing students who have little or no experience in non-narrative writing (Kuhn & Crowell, 2011; Kuhn & Moore, 2015, Kuhn et al., 2016a; Papathomas& Kuhn, 2017). An ongoing experience of dialogue with a succession of peers who hold the opposing position, we argue, makes this opposing position and its accompanying arguments clear and vivid in the student's mind, so that they can represent and address them in an essay, and understand the significance of doing so.

Specifically, the findings of Hemberger et al. (2017) show that prompts that demonstrate the need of evidence in support of a claim can help students improve their argumentative writing skills. An argumentative essay relies heavily on supporting evidence to bolster its assertions. Students confront unique challenges when it comes to using evidence to disprove rather than support a claim. According to (Kuhn and Moore, 2015). Many students may not be able to recognise specific pieces of evidence that might undermine a particular argument, despite the vital importance of such evidence. It was possible for us to demonstrate this role to them by providing them with examples of other-minus evidence, which also served to encourage its inclusion. Student writings that are balanced and two-sided must demonstrate the capacity to conceive the evidence that would support both the option they do not endorse and the alternative they do champion. According to our findings, students who begin using this type of evidence in their conversations will come to appreciate its value and begin include it in their written work.

There was a correlation between students who received evidence prompts and those who did not, according to Hemberger et al. (2017), who wrote more evidence-based essays on a new topic. Students who did not get the evidence prompts improved their writings on the same topic, as did those who received them. A meta-level analysis of students' understandings of evidence in argumentative writing is presented in this work, in addition to the findings we previously published on their performance increases when compared to a control group. The

experimental group outperformed the comparison group in their essays when it came to utilising evidence to undercut their opponents' arguments as well as when it came to using evidence to support their own statements, which is a less difficult position to play. Despite the fact that they had access to instances of the most challenging material, such as proof that supports or undermines their opponents' allegations, their performance did not improve. Writing about something that's already been proven isn't the best strategy. In addition, a shift to a new topic without the deep involvement provided by the programme had a major impact on performance. As a result, there is still room for improvement in terms of performance aspects.

An initial small sample size is compounded by attrition due to the poor attendance of inner-city public-school students evaluated in this study. A larger and more diversified sample size is needed to confirm the current findings. Despite this, the study's posttest-only control group design helped to answer an important issue. Researchers have found that the experimental group's increases were not due to stronger memory for the particular evidence available for the issue, potentially as a result of the participants' involvement in and familiarity with the topic. This conclusion is based on the results of the recall task. The evidence was similarly well remembered by the comparison group, which saw the subject as novel and unstudied. When asked to recollect evidence that supported their beliefs, they showed similar tendencies in terms of belief bias.

Instead, the findings reveal that the extensive dialogic and written engagement with consecutive topics left the intervention group with an enhanced meta-level awareness of the role of evidence in argument. The results show this. These students were more adept at recognising the importance of evidence that undermined the opposing viewpoint than their counterparts in the comparison group. They, on the other hand, did not show higher expertise in picking particular evidence or in predicting what evidence they would use. There is still room for improvement, so to speak.

According to a new study by Papathomas and Kuhn (2017), dialogic involvement with more capable people, as well as with peers of equivalent ability, improves reasoning competence. These two kinds of dialogic experiences are not yet defined, but their examination shows that they both play a role. In addition, the numerous components of this multifaceted and

multiphase intervention have yet to be established. On the other hand, how did the "Others might say" structure make its way into students' writings compared to their profound involvement with the subject matter itself. The two components of the dialogic technique we've outlined in this work are crucial at this point in time. Many examinations of students' ability to compose non-narrative essays require students to write about a topic that has just been given to them. Students, on the other hand, are more likely to write about topics they care about and have already discussed with people outside of the classroom, which is another reason to study writing growth in these contexts.

When it comes to bridging the gap between oral and written expression, dialogue has the benefit of having its roots in children's early conversations. Peer-to-peer conversation, of course, provides students with vital discourse skills that they may use on their own. Similar to the information students get when arguing to learn, the benefits of arguing to learn do not end with the knowledge itself (Asterhan& Schwarz, 2016). The ability to write well-reasoned arguments is built on a foundation of disciplined thought, which may be developed via the practise of argumentation. Recently, we've been looking at how a single set of activities might help people meet both skill and knowledge goals. Both are necessary if we want to inspire students to produce argumentative writing that matters, both to them and to others. This, of course, does not imply that the only or even the best way to get outstanding writing is excellent conversation. To achieve our educational goal, we must examine every possible avenue, not just the one we've identified here.

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Appendix A: Questions and Answers about Juvenile and Adult Court

1. Q: What are public opinions on the juvenile court issue? (A+)

A: People hold different opinions on this issue. However, a “get tough” policy has become more popular in recent decades, with almost every state passing laws in the 1990s making it easier to try juveniles in adult courts.

2. Q: At what age is the brain fully developed? (J+)

A: The prefrontal cortex, which is responsible for abstract thinking and the ability to exercise good judgment, is not fully developed until about the age of 25.

3. Q: Do adult jails provide job training? (A+)

A: Yes, most adult jails teach job skills to help prisoners earn a living when they are released.

4. Q: Can teens continue their education while at a Juvenile Detention Center? (J+)

A: Juvenile centers provide some schooling, but it may not be a full day or every day. But teens are likely to get better general education at a juvenile center than an adult prison.

5. Q: Are teens at risk of being assaulted in adult prisons? (A-)

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A: Yes. Teens in adult jails are 50% more likely to be attacked by another inmate and twice as likely by prison staff, compared to adult prisoners.

6. Q: Do all courts give the right to a trial by jury? (J-)

A: No. Juvenile courts don't allow trial by jury. A judge hears evidence and rules.

7. Q: How many murders are committed by teens? (J-)

A: In 2008, 9% of murders in the US were committed by juveniles.

8. Q: Do prisoners have counsellors to talk to?

A: They may have a counsellor to talk to. However, this is more common in juvenile than adult prison.

9. Q: Are teens likely to repeat their crimes?

A: For teens convicted of a felony, the rate of recidivism (repeat crime) is 90% over 10 years. For crimes overall, it is about 50%.

10. Q: Are the sentences given for crimes less harsh in juvenile than adult court?

A: Compared to adult court sentences, juvenile court sentences tend to be less harsh, with probation and parole more likely.

11. Q: What proportion of violent crimes are committed by juveniles?

A: Juveniles were involved in one-quarter of violent crimes over the last 25 years.

12. Q: Do teens that go to jail get jail records?

A: They do not if sentences are served in a juvenile detention center; their records are sealed on release.

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5

Improving Academic Argumentation through Online Training

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Abstract:

The task of writing a convincing argument based on a number of conflicting sources is challenging. As a means of supporting a formal viewpoint, it is important to grasp and organise arguments and counterarguments from a wide range of sources. Even though it's a difficult ability to learn, argumentative writing isn't widely taught at Spain's colleges and universities. Furthermore, there are just a few web resources for this sort of project. For this reason, we created and assessed a virtual training programme for distance learning university students to help them build cohesive and well-structured arguments. This pre-post research, which used a control group design, had 68 students. Through video lectures and practise activities with immediate feedback, the course provided comprehensive teaching in a cost-free and open-source manner (e.g., Moodle). Study participants' written outputs increased in structure, counter-arguments and integration into a single piece of writing after getting instruction.. Medium or maximum integration items, on the other hand, were still restricted in scope. As they show, online argumentative writing teaching may be employed in higher education with positive results for all participants. For their part, students still need help honing their skills in the area of integrative synthesis. These observations have led us to recommend additional changes to the training curriculum.

Keywords: Argumentation; academic writing; online training; self-efficacy

1. Introduction

1.1 Teaching how to write an argumentation in a virtual environment

To advance intellectually and personally, people must learn to dispute (Andrews, 2000). Active citizenship and political or institutional growth in democratic societies require the ability to both defend one's position and take into account the viewpoints of others (Andrews, 2010). In today's knowledge world, students must also be able to interpret, elaborate, organise, and integrate information (List & Alexander, 2019). Thanks to modern technology, we can now easily access an enormous number of Internet resources, some of which are complimentary and others of which are directly antagonistic, depending on where we are.

When presenting their arguments, students at all educational levels must be able to evaluate the numerous points of view on a particular issue, among other considerations. After reading many books, students are more likely to succeed in their writing if they are taught to synthesise their findings (e.g. Nelson, 2008). (van Ockenburg, van Weijen, &Rijlaarsdam, 2019). Students learn more when they are required to produce argumentative essays that draw on a range of sources. For the reasons outlined above (Mateos and Solé 2009; Nelson, 2008; Segev-Miller, 2004; Solé, Miras, Castells and Espino and Minguela 2013 to name a few), this form of hybrid work is exceedingly challenging but also offers significant learning opportunities. It's a regular occurrence in higher education to use evidence from sources to support an argument (Andrews, 2010).

The techniques necessary to succeed in this sort of assignment are rarely described, despite the obstacles it presents (Solé, Teberosky and Castello, 2012). Many empirical research have been undertaken on how to prepare students for writing argumentative texts concerning social sciences topics, but only a few have focused on the preparation of students for writing such texts particularly (Mateos et al., 2018; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). (De La Paz, Monte-Sano, Felton, Croninger, and Jackson, 2017; Jackson &Piantedosi, 2017).

Furthermore, in the twenty-first century, the relevance of e-learning and the existence of remote learning colleges should not be underestimated. Most universities now have virtual campuses (CRUE, 2017), and the number of students attending distance learning institutions has increased dramatically in recent years as a result (i.e. Poulin &Straut, 2016). Information and communication technology are therefore increasingly being used in educational settings.

As a result, it's not required to use the same instructional design or resources as in-person education in the online setting. Instead, training should be adapted to the online medium's unique features and challenges (Deane &Guasch, 2015; Hewett, 2015). As a result, we set out to find out if students' written reasoning may benefit from online education in terms of increasing the number of arguments, canonic structure, and degree of integration. We were interested in seeing if online education might assist students' written reasoning improve in terms of the quantity of arguments, canonic structure, and degree of integration. Aside from that, we wanted to examine the impact of two intervention components, namely, explicit teaching and practise with feedback, on their effectiveness (Kellogg, Whiyrford, & Quinlan, 2010; Mateos et al., 2018). Diverse researchers have devoted a lot of time and energy to online collaboration (for instance, see, for example, the work of, for example, Norozi and colleagues (2018), Norozi and colleagues (2018), Norozi and associates (2018), Norozi and associates (2012), Norozi and associates (2012), and Nusbaum, (2012)), but fewer have focused on the two features that allow for more independent learning.

For two reasons, we wanted to use the Moodle platform for our training programme.. Initial setup and ongoing maintenance were both quick and painless. The fact that Moodle is an open source platform makes it easier to include new features in the future. As a starting point, it is the most commonly used platform in the Spanish higher education system, as well as in many European institutions (Fuentes-Pardo, Ramrez-Gómez, Garca-Garca, et al., 2012).

1.2 Theoretical framework

1.2.1. Writing an argumentation from sources

Deductive reasoning may be used to support a conclusion by developing arguments and examining, evaluating, and weighing counterarguments from a variety of sources and perspectives (Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). In order to overcome the difficulties that students have when asked to write argumentative texts, research suggests that undergraduates require more explicit instructional assistance for self-regulation (Ferretti & Lewis, 2013). As is the use and identification of counterarguments in the building of new and compelling arguments. (Hyytinen, Löfström, and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2016). (Nussbaum &Kardash, 2005). The integration and presentation of counterarguments to arguments is also a problem for students (Britt &Rouet, 2012; De La Paz & Felton, 2010; Hyytinen et al., 2016). All students,

particularly undergraduates, tend to have difficulty expressing their stance; considering various viewpoints; and, in particular, adding arguments from opposing opinions in order to overcome'my-side prejudice' (Wolfe et al, 2009). (Felton, Crowell, & Liu, 2015; Mateos et al., 2018; Nussbaum, 2008).

Students' ability to produce essays in a variety of styles can be improved by explicit genre-based teaching (Henry & Roseberry, 1999; Wingate, 2012). Students may benefit from learning about the canonical structure of argumentative texts since they often have problems comprehending what essay writing is and what an argumentative text's canonical structure should be. A well-structured introduction, a well-structured argument, and a well-structured conclusion may help authors better convey their ideas. With the help of this sort of layout, students may have an easier time describing the various postures.

High school writers who participated in an argumentative reading and writing intervention generated lengthier argumentative essays as a result of attending the intervention, according to De La Paz et al. (2017) Similarly, McArthur, Jennings, and Phillippakos (2019) have shown that essay length is a variable and that it is significantly connected to the quality of college students' argumentative writing when they write without utilising references. Van Weijen, Rijlaarsdam, and van den Bergh (2019) observed that longer texts were frequently scored higher in terms of quality using argumentative writing from sources. It was for this reason that the number of words written by each student was considered.

1.2.2. Technology-based writing instruction

Several studies have been carried out in the previous decade to find strategies to improve college students' argumentation abilities by using computers and a virtual tool. Many studies have revealed that, despite the increased use of technology in educational settings in recent years, it has had little impact on how students are taught or how they learn (European Commission, 2013). Consequently, new technologies have the potential to change the setting in which educational engagement occurs, but it is essential to define metrics that will really boost teaching and learning results (Coll, Mauri &Onrubia, 2008). The potential for new technologies to innovate and improve education is enhanced by the compatibility of certain of its qualities with a constructivist approach (Nanjappa& Grant, 2003). We're particularly interested in the technologies that allow for a more personalised learning experience and are

capable of holding multimedia assets while also delivering timely feedback. Technology-based writing instruction is not tied to the confines of a single physical classroom, allowing students to access the intervention at their own pace and from any place.

To help students practise some of the ideas and methods involved in constructing an argumentative synthesis, a virtual guide might include specific material and activities such as questions and exercises on the drafting of arguments and the management of many sources. As a result of the ability to offer immediate feedback to students, such as by providing them with an answer that is likely accurate, this virtual guide may be termed personalised material. To top it all off, there are training materials that may adapt what students are taught based on their responses from past sessions. It is therefore possible to have a more personalised learning approach in huge groups. As an added benefit, making these kinds of alterations can lessen the cognitive burden connected with the work accomplished and boost motivation for it (Brusilovsky, Sosnovsky&Yudelson, 2009).

Incorporating multimedia material is also made possible with the use of such technologies. With the use of these two channels, the aural and visual, this content helps students learn by lowering the strain on their working memory by allowing them to choose, organise, and integrate the information they need for learning (Mayer, 2005). However, this can only be accomplished with the proper organisation of multimedia content. Combining the representation formats in such a manner that accessory information is minimised and critical information and knowledge development is prioritised, by enabling the learner the opportunity to build relationships using their own knowledge and prior experience, is necessary (Clark & Mayer, 2011). As a result, in addition to the standard book, the virtual guide includes audio information and graphic resources to aid with the aforementioned activities. Because the contents may be reviewed as many times as needed, a more recursive learning process can be achieved than with face-to-face education.

Even while we know that explicit teaching is a crucial component of writing instruction (Ockenburg et al., 2019), it's especially true for conflicting synthesis writing (Ockenburg, van Weijen, and Rijlaarsdam, 2019). (Mateos et al., 2018). Some researchers found that a brief lecture that simply defined topics and offered some explanations might help alleviate some of the students' problems (e.g. Butler and Britt, 2011; Wolfe and colleagues, 2009). Students

may benefit from video courses, which have been shown to help them improve their writing abilities (Lundstrom et al., 2015; Numrich& Kennedy, 2017). The use of videos and examples in virtual learning environments, as previously noted, may also be effective in boosting student motivation. An increasing number of studies have found that (Raads and colleagues in the Netherlands; Van Steendam et al. in the Netherlands; De Grez et al. in the Netherlands; Hernando de Grez et al. in the Netherlands; Hendrickx in the Netherlands; Masui et al. in the Netherlands).

Additionally, research shows that guided practise and feedback improves writing and argumentation skills (Boscolo, Arfé and Quarisa, 2007; Brasch et al., 2013; De La Paz & Felton, 2010; Nusbaum, 2008). Recent years have witnessed the introduction of a number of essay scoring and feedback systems that automatically score essays for students (Allen, Jacovina, & McNamara, 2016; Kellogg, Whiyrford, & Quinlan, 2010; Palermo & Wilson, 2020). For some reason, there are no comparable tools in Spanish. This is probably owing to the fact that we do not yet completely comprehend the language's distinctive grammar and syntax. In addition, you must be able to provide other types of feedback, thus mastering this skill is vital. According to Wingate (2012), feedback should highlight the connection between declaring one's position and the text's structural aspects. Comparing their own work with an example will help pupils verify that their text arrangement is successful.

Technical tools must be evaluated based on the user's enjoyment and sense of their value (Mateos et al., 2018). So we wanted to know how the intervention was received by the students, as well as how happy they were with the overall outcome of the intervention. Writing self-efficacy and other motivational variables are also important in the writing process (Pajares, 2003) and are often taken into account in the evaluation of training outcomes (i.e. Raedts et al., 2017).

Spanish colleges do not currently teach students how to write an argumentative essay because of the reasons outlined above; in fact, writing is still just a slightly taught topic there. This study is part of a bigger effort to investigate ways to assist undergraduate students enhance their synthesis writing abilities. With regard to argumentation skills development, we have created and conducted training that has made use of proven techniques such as clear teaching and practise with quick feedback to aid university students in developing their argumentation

abilities. Specific knowledge and skills acquisition and practise were the key aims of this intervention, which focused on the acquisition of knowledge and practising of specific critical skills in the development of argumentative texts. These explicit instruction principles, which will be discussed in more detail below, included features such as the following: introducing some writing strategies and explaining the importance of them; modelling the strategy, providing guided practise with feedback, and also providing independent exercise (Perin, 2013). There are many ways to assist students to build writing techniques, but our intervention did not include all of them. However, despite the fact that there are several elements on which interventions can be targeted (van Ockenburg et al., 2019), this one was aimed to enhance understanding of certain key conditions for argumentative writing and appropriate writing processes. Our primary goal was to see how these elements may be included into an educational design for remote learning university students in order to support them in their studies. The purpose of this study was to look at how effectively students were able to adapt to a genre structure in their argumentative writing as well as their ability to synthesise two seemingly disparate texts.

1.3 Online training is available.

We created a virtual guide as part of an educational package to help students write an argumentative synthesis utilising sources that offered conflicting data about a tough problem. Each activity or resource in the training is accompanied by a written description of the numerous steps that must be performed in order to successfully finish the training in the Moodle platform.

This course was built on the design principles that were previously addressed. In addition to characterising teaching and learning activities in line with Rijlaarsdam, Janssen, Rietdijk, and van Weijen, it is analytically characterised in Table 1 (see Appendix A) (Rijlaarsdam et al., 2000). (2018).

Students were taught how to identify and use arguments, as well as how to create an integrative conclusion based on the material in the sources (see Table 1) in order to improve their writing skills for argumentative texts. Training sessions were supported by Moodle, Google Forms, Google Sites, YouTube, connections to other websites and Padlet, as well as a number of other frequently used online tools. Video, links, and feedback could all be added to

the Moodle quiz used for the intervention, and they appeared as soon as students submitted their answers to the quizzes.

1.4 The current investigation

In a pre-post research with a control group design, preliminary data were utilised to evaluate the instructional aid presented in Table 1 for increasing argumentative writing in online university education. We wanted to know how the students felt about the education they had received as part of our research. Finally, the participants were asked how much they thought they had improved as a consequence of the instruction they had received in reasoning skills. In addition, we asked them to score their overall satisfaction with the training programme, and they did so, to our relief.

We hypothesised that only those who participated in the training group observed an increase in the quality of their argumentative writing structures.

- For all other students, the training group would produce a more integrated argumentative synthesis with a bigger number of arguments and a larger number of words.
- As a result of this research, students' self-efficacy in writing an argumentation will rise.
- This course is going to be well received by the students.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

This research was conducted with the help of 68 college students who were either in their first or second year of college (Age = 32.4 years old – ST = 8.09; 57 females). A faraway university in Spain delivered the instruction as part of an academic task on the topic of "Psychology of Learning," as part of the Degrees in Education and Psychology. Teachers made it clear to students that the quality of their written replies to the assignment would not determine their final grade, but rather their thoughts on the learning experience would be. There were no linguistic barriers among the attendees, all of whom spoke Spanish as a first language. They were divided into two groups at random and given two lectures, each presented by the same teacher. For the control group (N = 35), or training group (N = 33),

they were all the same. The average age, year of studies, and perceived past teaching (that is, how much they feel they have gotten over their academic career) were also comparable between the two groups (2.9/5 vs 3.3/5).. A whole range of the University's ethical responsibilities were satisfied. Students frequently used the Moodle platform since it was the primary online learning environment for all of their degree-related learning activities.

2.2 Procedure

The two professors worked together on a series of exercises for the course "Psychology of Learning," that included a task aimed at teaching students how to create stronger argumentative texts and how to reflect on their own learning process. 74 percent of the students who were offered the option to engage in the activity began their involvement. Ninety-five percent of the students completed the prescribed activity and agreed to participate in the study. There were two groups: experimental (training) and control. The original author allocated participants to one of these two groups at random. A small percentage (13%) of individuals who started the activity, although being in the experimental group, did not complete it despite this. A total of 68 participants who had completed all of the prerequisites were able to take part in this investigation. According to the training group, just 79 percent of participants knew how self-confident they were.

Over the course of four weeks, the data was acquired. While each student was expected to complete a series of assignments in the prescribed order over a month, they may do so at their own leisure. Students who want to take part in the research were required to fill out an informed permission form and complete a questionnaire requesting basic information about themselves (such as their sociodemographics, the degree they were pursuing, and their educational level). They next studied two books that gave conflicting opinions on a controversial issue and came to a decision about them, explaining their stance logically. Only the experimental group continued to use the virtual training environment after the posting of this first product. The majority of participants spent between two and three hours completing the instructional material (minimum time 45 minutes and maximum 373 minutes). A new synthesis that contained arguments from both of the original papers had to be composed and uploaded by all students after they had read two new texts, each one dealing with an entirely different but equally important issue. The training group was expected to complete a final

questionnaire and publish a link to their Padlet, which served as a last reflection on their learning journey.. (the control group also had to carry out this reflection). After the second synthesis had been uploaded to the server, the control group was given training as well. Lastly, participants fill out a final questionnaire to rate their happiness with the programme and their perceptions of their own growth in self-efficacy.

2.3 Materials

2.3.1. Texts from which information was gathered

There was a lot of difference between the two sets of source materials on two educational themes: instructor evaluation (pre-test) and student assessment (external) (post-test). The word count and readability of the texts were similar (between 630 and 815). (Szigriszt-Pazos index between 44.8 and 56.8). In addition, each pair of competing texts included the same amount of explanations for each perspective as the preceding pair of texts had (nine for the pretest and five and six for the post-test text pairs).

2.3.2. Measures

Table 2. Description of the categories 'Introduction', 'Body' and 'Conclusion' applied to the participants' written products

Category	To include a fragment as the category it must have...
Introduction	▪ At least one paragraph or sentence that raises the common topic of the source texts. ▪ At least one paragraph or sentence that establishes the writer's own opinion about the common topic of the two source texts. This paragraph or sentence must be followed by at least one more paragraph. ▪ At least one paragraph that gives a short description of each source text. This paragraph or sentence must be followed by at least one more paragraph.
Body	▪ At least one paragraph that includes an argument from any source text.
Conclusion	At least one paragraph or sentence that allows an answer to the question "so what?" by: ▪ synthesising arguments from the sources. ▪ presenting the writer's opinion about the topic. This paragraph or sentence will not be considered as a conclusion if it is the explanation of the writer's opinion is on a different, even though related, topic.

Those taking part in the study were asked to write an argumentative essay in which they discussed their findings on the topics at hand. The following factors were taken into account when judging their literary works: This includes the use of a canonical structure, how many words there are, how many arguments there are, and how much integration there is.

A canonical structure is used in this instance. Each argumentative student's output was categorised based on the presence or absence of an introduction, a body paragraph, and a conclusion paragraph. Table 2 breaks down the essay into three sections: introduction, body, and conclusion. To be eligible for participation, a participant must not have any arguments or topics that are directly relevant to the source materials. While the first author coded each and every student's work, the second author only coded 20 percent of the first author's texts, which were picked at random. 87 out of a possible 1 was the inter-rater agreement (Kappa).

The overall word count. Each student's written response had its words counted.

The students incorporated arguments from each source material into their written work. Analysis of the essays revealed the amount of reasons in favour of and against the thesis that could be gleaned from them. For each source text, we computed a percentage of the total number of arguments that were provided in the text (for example, the number of arguments divided by nine possible arguments in the pre-test texts). Scores are given out in the range of 0 to 1.

A degree of integration. The first author, who was schooled by one of the creators of the coding approach, coded the students' reasoning pieces (Mateos et al., 2018). As a result, the first author received instruction from the second author. There are six distinct levels of integration: in which the author presents solely his or her own personal viewpoint without citing any other sources; also known as self-reference When the author does not state a stance, it is considered neutral. when one of the views is not taken into account in the argument; neutral: when the author does not clarify or justify his or her stance; a neutral statement A stance that is neither clearly stated nor well defended is said to be neutral. the author does not specify and argue for his or her own perspective in a neutral statement; "neutral" means that the author does not state or advocate a particular point of view. "neutral" means "not defined or argued" argument that takes into account an opposing position solely for rebuttal purposes; When the author adds numerous integrations along with the text

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(weighing or synthesising both viewpoints), medium integration happens; and maximum integration occurs when the author includes several integrations plus a global integrative conclusion. Randomly selected works were coded by the second author for 50% of the total number of writings. Discussion and deliberation among the participants led to an inter-rater agreement of.82 (Kappa).

Student satisfaction was assessed using two items on a 1-10 scale, and five items on a 1- 6 scale were used to determine how much they thought the virtual training had boosted their self-efficacy levels (see Appendix H). The internal consistency was assessed using Cronbach's alpha (.95).

3. Results

To arrive at our conclusions, we relied on descriptive and mean contrast analyses. Table 3 provides a breakdown of the data in an easy-to-read format.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the variables for each group in the Pre- and Post-tests

	Conditions							
	Control group (n = 33)				Training group (n = 35)			
	PRE		POST		PRE		POST	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Presence of introduction	.69	.47	.54	.51	.48	.50	.79	.41
Presence of body	.94	.24	.91	.28	.85	.36	1	0
Presence of conclusion	.43	.50	.40	.50	.42	.50	.91	.29
Proportion of arguments in favour selected	.30	.18	.31	.22	.31	.20	.38	.19
Proportion of arguments against selected	.29	.24	.26	.18	.25	.21	.47	.17
Number of words	467.6	226.3	408.9	214.5	627.0	335.9	476.7	170.9
Degree of syntheses' integration	1.9	1.19	1.83	0.95	2.09	1.2	3.06	1.60

3.1 Training's Effects

Analyses were undertaken to determine whether any changes occurred between the two conditions (Pre and Post) and the two time periods (Pre and Post). For nominal and interval variables, we employed McNemar's test and Chi-Square, respectively, and repeated measures ANOVA for the latter (number of words, number of arguments, and degree of integration).

The argumentation's structure is discussed in Section 3.1.1.

We ran two distinct analyses for the structural variables, which are defined as the presence of an introduction, a body of text, and a conclusion.. When comparing pre- and post-test syntheses for the control condition, there are no significant variations in the three structural variables according to McNemar's test. As a result of the training, both introductions (p =.031) and conclusions (p.001) were more common in the experimental group than in the control group. While the Chi-Square test shows no significant differences between the training and control groups for these two structure variables in the pre-test syntheses, the experimental group has a higher score for the presence of introduction and conclusion variables in the post-test syntheses (p =.001) (p =.037).

3.1.2 The number of arguments in the entire text

For the pre-test and post-test, both groups employed a similar amount of reasons in favour of the in-favour stance since there were no statistically significant differences.

When comparing the number of against-position arguments, there was a main impact of time (F(1, 65)=11.44, MSe=.05, p=.001, p2p=.15). To make matters more complicated, the data indicate an interaction between time and group variables (F(1, 65)=17.60, MSe =.005, and the significance of this effect is called into doubt (P(001, p2)). As a result, in the post-test syntheses, the training group had an increase in the number of counter-position arguments, whereas the control group had the opposite increase (see Figure 1).

3.1.3 The extent to which integration has taken place

Neither the condition nor the time had a significant effect on degree of integration (F(1,66)=11.60, MSe=31976.05; p=.001; 2 =.15); written argumentative synthesis scores were higher on post-test syntheses than pre-test syntheses; written argumentative synthesis scores were higher on post-test syntheses than pre-test syntheses; and Considering that there

was a significant interaction between time (before and after) and group (control vs training), this result should be regarded with caution (F(1. 66)=5.94, MSe=1.42, p =.017, p=.08). The training group outperformed the control group in the synthesis post-test results..

3.1.4 Word count

When compared to a control group, the trained participants used more words, showing that they were not equivalent (the findings indicated a main impact of condition F(1,66)=5.04, MSe=8698.47, p =.028, p2p =.07) as well as a major effect of time F(1,66)=11.60, MSe=31976.05, p =.001, p2p =.15). Vocabulary-wise,

Thirdly, the students' self-perceptions as well as their evaluations of the intervention

Study of participants' self-efficacy and satisfaction with training was undertaken as part of an exploratory descriptive analysis. This information was only supplied by a small percentage of students. Students were asked how much they believed the intervention had improved their competence in several parts of argumentative writing in order to gauge their sense of self-efficacy. Using the scale of 1-6, the results in Table 4 were consistently greater than 4.

Table 4: Means scores with standard deviations of the training group's perception of self-efficacy increment for different abilities after the training

Variable	N	M	SD
Providing supporting arguments	26	4.35	1.23
Providing contra arguments	26	4.46	1.14
Rebate others' arguments	26	4.27	1.07
Weigh or synthesis opposite arguments	26	4.42	0.94
Reaching a solution to the controversy	26	4.62	1.09

Note: Scores range: 1-6

Students in the training condition were asked to assess their level of satisfaction with the practise and training on a 1–10 scale, which was used to gauge their opinion of the task. In their opinion, having the chance to practise with two syntheses was a huge plus. Students were also pleased with the instruction (n = 18; M = 7.89; ST = 1.45), with an average rating of 7.89 out of 10.

4. Discussion

Results and educational consequences are outlined in the following sections: Students in higher education can benefit from this study's findings, which show how to use training to improve argumentative writing abilities in a completely online teaching environment. According to our findings, the bulk of our hypotheses are supported by our findings.

The initial hypothesis was confirmed to be right. Students who participated in the training group, on the other hand, were more likely to generate well-structured papers with an appropriate introduction and conclusion than their peers. Following the workshop, our participants were able to better arrange their writing and convey a more unified integrative position. In addition, it is probable that the training helped create the link between structure and placement, which Wingate (2012) has recognised as an important component of teaching in written argumentation.

The second proposal has gotten some traction, but only in a small way. Students in the training group had a greater number of arguments against the viewpoint they were taught as a result. This shows that they were more inclined than the average person to add reasons that argued against their point of view. As a consequence, no evidence was found to support a study looking at the impact of argumentation length on training programme effectiveness when it comes to the amount of words used in each group's arguments. This variable should be considered in future studies because just one study, that of van Weijen and colleagues (2019), has looked at the link between word count and the quality of written arguments from sources

A study conducted by the researchers found that in their final written products, the experimental group achieved a better level of integration than they did in their first written products. It appears that at least to a certain extent, the training offered in this study is appropriate for dealing with the obstacles of integration (Britt and Rouet, 2012; De La Paz & Felton, 2010; Hyytinen et al., 2016), as well as presenting the writer's stance (Britt &Rouet, 2012; De La Paz & Felton, 2010; Hyytinen et al., 2016). This study was conducted by Wolf, Britt, and Butler (2009).

In spite of the experimental group's increased integration, the goods that earned medium and maximum scores in this variable were still in low supply despite this. However, despite

taking into account both viewpoints from the sources to a greater extent than they had previously, the students were still unable to come up with high-integrative conclusions A conclusion we may draw from this study is that participants' capacity to produce new integrative arguments has to be enhanced, and they demand more training in this area. More research is needed to find out which aspects of explicit instruction on writing strategies are most effective in improving students' self-regulation (Barzilai, Zohar, and Mor-Hagani, 2018), as well as how to implement them in distance learning contexts, even though our instructional design had positive effects on students' self-regulation (Deane &Guasch, 2015). Most of this study's findings are in line with prior studies showing that a vocabulary and idea clarification scaffold can help students improve their writing abilities (Butler & Britt, 2011; Wolfe et al., 2009).

They reported that they were happy with their instruction and that they felt more confident as a result of the training, according to these two assumptions. These are noteworthy results, in part because Pajares (2003) found a link between students' belief in their own writing abilities and their writing success. Most of them also finished the virtual guide, which they found useful and acknowledged for what it was. If you're going to be doing any distance learning, it's especially important to provide a stimulating atmosphere without putting too much strain on your resources (Mayer, 2005; Milligan et al., 2013). Providing "user-friendly" instructional assistance is crucial to the success of virtual learning environments, because students may feel more isolated than they would in a traditional classroom setting (Roddy, 2017).

At distant university teaching or higher education institutions with virtual campuses, this study aims to analyse a learning environment that utilises widely available resources. For this reason, the training is meant to stimulate learners' engagement and teach them some key skills in writing argumentative essays. Students in this class are given the opportunity to practise and receive immediate feedback through the use of a Moodle quiz. In addition to YouTube, Google sites and forms, Padlet, Kazam, and connections to numerous web pages, this course covers a wide range of Google resources. As such, it is a set of tools that are easy to use and can be used to present large groups of students with learning tasks that will help them improve their academic writing skills.

Training that adheres to instructional principles may be implemented utilising the most popular technologies while simultaneously enhancing students' writing skills, as demonstrated in this research. Students who took the course were able to improve their writing skills by learning how to better structure their texts, take into consideration conflicting viewpoints, and integrate their writing tasks more effectively. To help students become better writers of argumentative texts based on conflicting sources and, by extension, better citizens in today's society, the assistance provided established a valuable training environment. In terms of helping to raise the standard of higher education, drawing research results on online interventions is undoubtedly useful.

4.2 Constraints and possible future advancements in the field.

Despite the positive outcomes of this training programme, there are still areas for improvement. More education on textual organisation (according to Benetos and Bétrancourt, 2020) and more instruction on the integration of metacognitive processes are our recommendations for future improvements in the integration of metacognitive processes into writing output. The next phases are designed to provide more complex explicit teaching on writing processes, taking into account the fact that some writing abilities may be improved in this sort of learning environment. Future intervention attempts will have to deal with some of the issues raised by this study's findings.

In addition, a slew of new technological developments are on the horizon. In Moodle, students' interactions with the learning environment may be logged and analysed. If a student refers to the guide many times, for example, it maintains track of that activity. On the other hand, if the amount of time that users spend using a given resource was recorded, this information might be gathered more accurately Aside from the difficulty of collecting this information, it may be valuable in gaining insight into how people acquire new skills and talents. More time spent on one resource may be useful to a certain student profile, but it may not be beneficial to a different student profile. It is also a drawback of this research because the intervention supplied does not yet contain customised paths for the various types of student responses. Another limitation of this study could be alleviated in this way. Since this research uncovered some important new information, it is possible to devise new approaches that concentrate on the many problems that were discovered, such as offering alternative

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explanations and further practise on the various components that were discovered. As a part of this process of personalization, teachers can offer feedback to students in the form of comments on their replies or by using Inputlog's new capabilities for process-oriented feedback and the platform's new features for personalization (Vandermeulen, Leijten& Van Waes, 2020). Possibly, Moodle will be able to provide more precise information in the future, which will be extremely helpful in adjusting the virtual tool in future studies with an iterative method, especially if Moodle is used. No question that these elements might be useful in making subsequent changes to the design of the instructional package.

In addition, there are a few limits. However, it would be interesting to compare self-efficacy evaluations between the pre- and post-intervention periods. Secondly, in order to assess the importance of teaching argumentation in certain academic disciplines, future studies should involve bigger samples and persons from a range of disciplines rather than just education or psychology. Adaptations for alternative teaching scenarios, such as blended learning, would have been intriguing to investigate as well. To sum up, qualitative research might provide insight into how students view the tool and how to promote a more reflective and optimum use of technology. No matter how small its scope may be, the research presented here sheds light on the potential of open-source online environments for teaching argumentative writing.

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Appendix A: Table 1 - Training description

Design principle	Phase	Learning activity		Instruction/task, that leads to learning activity	
		Description	Explanation	Description	Explanation
Representation of the task and attribution of meaning	Problem centred	Representing the aim of the instruction via reading a short text	This learning activity is effective in motivating the students and focuses their attention on the goal.	The student begins a Moodle quiz. The first question briefly introduces the whole instructional setting, indicating that the objective of the training is to get to know better the argumentative texts.	This element in the instruction leads to an understanding and involvement in the task by reading a written paragraph.
- Meaningful verbal learning - Learning by the observation of a model	- Activation of existing knowledge - Demonstra-tion of new knowledge	Explorative thinking fostered by a lesson with a modelling part	This learning activity aims to foster meaningful learning about reading and writing argumentative texts.	Continuing the first content of the Moodle quiz, a 15 minutes master class with PowerPoint support is presented. It was recorded in a TV studio. The students can watch this on a Youtube video embed within or through a link. We recommend that the students take notes or open it in a different window, so that they can watch it again during the training. The training video lesson includes explanations and a modelling by the teacher. Content of the video in order of presentation: - definition of argumentation. - objectives of the argumentative texts vs expository texts	This element in the instruction is intends to activate prior knowledge and to offer an explanation of the main characteristics of the argumentative texts. The observation of the model leads to identify the elements of the texts structure and the arguments included in the text. (see Appendix B)

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	- combination of the expository and argumentative parts in written argumentation - linguistic characteristics: opinion verbs, textual organizers, discourse markers and connectors. - text structure: introduction (approach to the topic), argumentative body (thesis and reasons), conclusion (synthesis of the thesis and main arguments), modelling of the structure analysis of an argumentative text about immigration law (244 words). The teacher shows students how to identify which elements of the text refer to the introduction, the thesis, premise and argument 1, counterargument, rebuttal of counter argument 2, premise and conclusion. - types of arguments - types of argumentation: positive: present arguments that support our position; negative or refutation: presentation of arguments that refute the arguments of the opposite position; mixed: integrates arguments and counterarguments of the two positions to reach a conclusion (the teacher highlights that this is the one that is of particular interest). - most common mistakes in argumentation. - how to write a text? (writing instructions): read the source texts, identify the arguments, weigh up the reasons and rank them. It is important to present both arguments in favour and those that support the opposite thesis; adopt a position or establish a conclusion that takes into account what

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				has been said in the source texts. It is possible to add arguments but not mere opinions.	
- Learner's activity - Self-regulated learning	Applying new knowledge	Analysing the intentions of different fragments in a given text.	Exercise 1. This learning activity is aims to foster the learners' practice of their new knowledge. Specifically, it is aimed at promoting a better analysis of argumentative texts. The online environment makes it possible to include immediate feedback, which may improve the processes of self-regulated learning.	The next question presents the same text about immigration law. The students are asked to do an exercise by identifying the expository fragments and copy-paste them in the space for the answer. Written feedback is provided immediately after sending the answer: the clear argumentative fragments are shown. An explanation is offered regarding other possible dubious fragments.	This element in the instruction leads to the autonomous practice of identifying expository and argumentative fragments in a text. After the practice, automated feedback is provided. (see Appendix C)
- Learner's activity - Self-regulated learning	Applying new knowledge	Structuring the text by adding missing key elements.	Exercise 2. This learning activity is aims to foster the learners' practice of their new knowledge. Specifically, it is intended to promote learning of important elements	The next question presents a new text of 385 words, about the value of television for society. It explains that the text lacks a title, paragraph divisions, textual organizers and connectors. The students are asked to do an exercise by copying it in the space for the answer and to improve it by introducing the missing elements. The modifications have to be appropriate to connect the different ideas within the text and to organize the discourse.	This element in the instruction leads to the autonomous practice of better organizing an argumentative text. After the practice, automated feedback is provided. (Appendices D and E)

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			for text organization. The online environment makes it possible to include immediate feedback, which may improve the processes of self-regulated learning.	Written feedback is provided immediately after sending the answer: "the previous text comes from this web page. Click and check to see how the original text was written. (http://www.ejemplosdetextos.com/ejemplo-de-texto-argumentativo-sobre-la-television/#more-49) Your solution may have been correct, even if it does not fully match this version. The key point is to practice the use of the linguistic elements of the argumentative texts".	
- Learner's activity - Meaningful verbal learning	Applying new knowledge	Practicing the generation of arguments and writing a text about a given topic.	Exercise 3. This learning activity aims to foster the learners' practice of their new knowledge. Specifically, it is aimed at promoting the writing of an argumentative text. The student is encouraged to learn more about the types of arguments immediately after the practice, which may enhance the connection to their prior knowledge.	The next question briefly explains that it is crucial to identify and create different types of arguments. It then asks the student to build a short text of about 200 words or 15 lines, providing an argument about how the Internet has improved people's lives, including underlining different types of arguments and at least one false argument that they have invented. A link with further information about the different types of arguments is provided in case they want to go explore this topic further. (http://elarlequindehielo.obolog.es/selectividad-lengua-castellana-tipos-argumentos-138776)	This element in the instruction leads to the autonomous practice enabling the students to be able to build proper arguments. After the practice, students can expand their knowledge about different types of arguments. (Appendix F)
Learner's awareness	Integrating new knowledge	Analysing the self-learning process.	This learning activity aims to foster learner's awareness about their learning. Specifically, it encourages a reflection upon the new knowledge acquired and what may yet still to be known.	The next question provides a 11-minutes tutorial video. It was aimed at teaching students how to create diagrams with Padlet and, specifically, one that makes explicit their process of knowledge acquisition. The students are asked to create a Padlet showing their previous knowledge about argumentative texts, their new knowledge and their doubts. The video was recorded using Kazam Screencaster, uploaded onto Youtube and embedded.	This element leads to an analysis of the self-learning process by constructing a diagram. For it, it provides instruction on a proper technical use of a graphical tool. (Appendix G)

Appendix B: Video Lesson Included in the First Question of the Moodle Quiz

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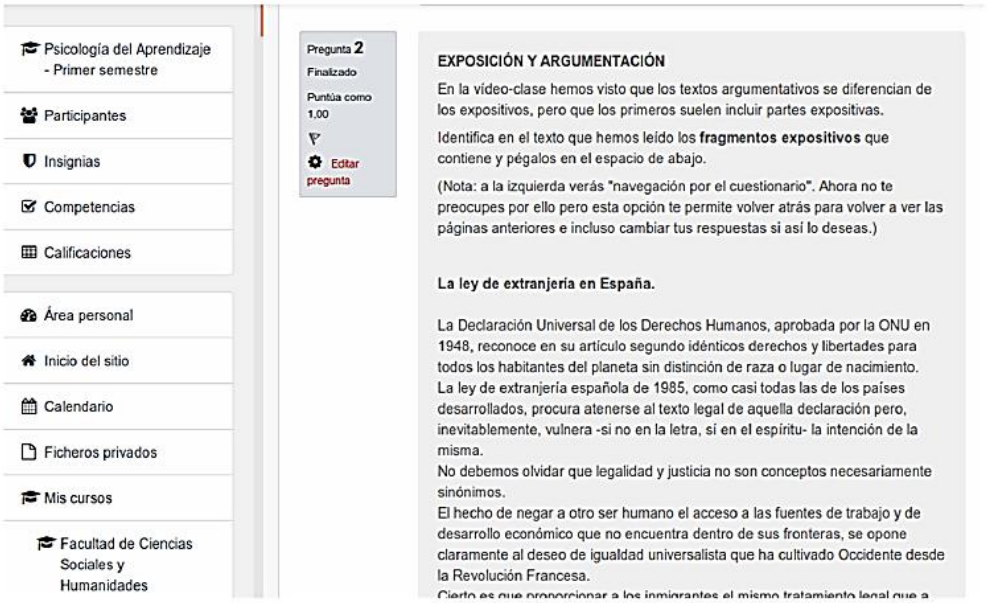
Appendix C: Exercise 1

Approach: Identify and Copy Expository Fragments of a Text in the Answer Space



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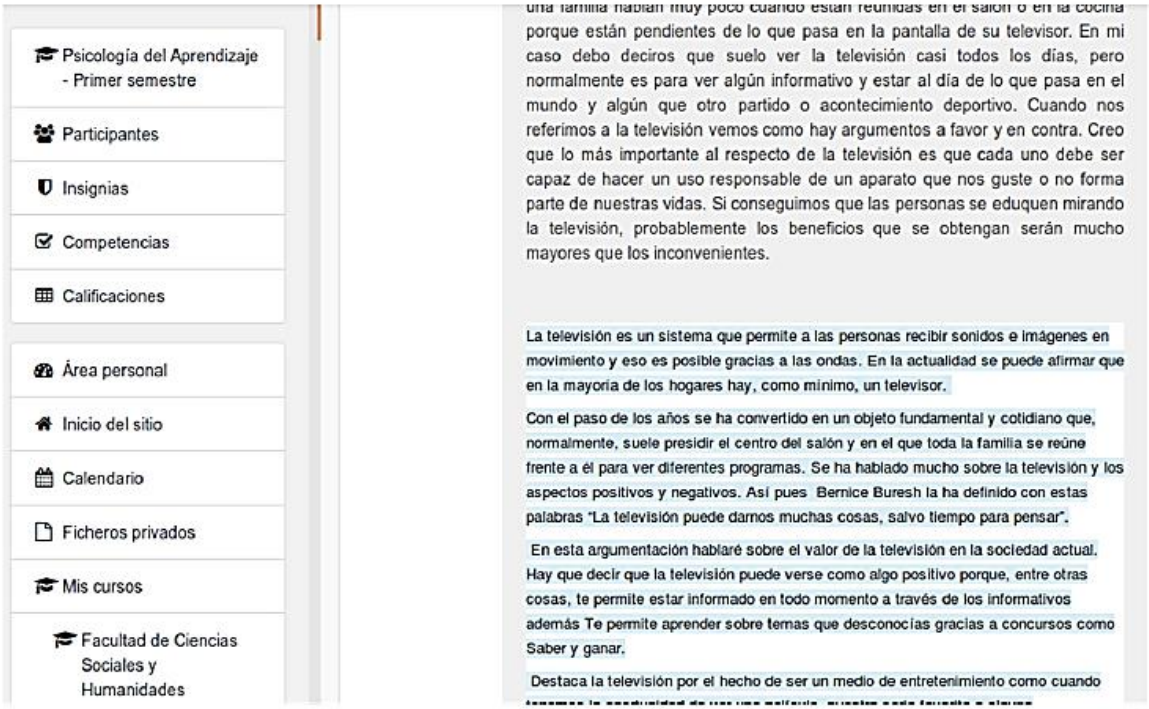
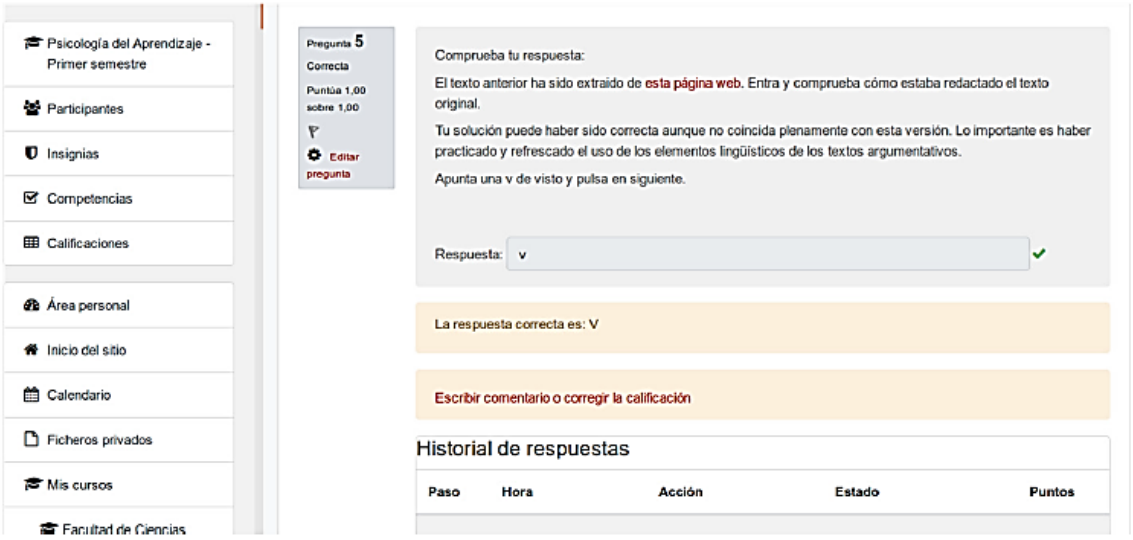
Appendix D: A Student's answer to Exercise 2

Introduce Title, Paragraph Divisions, Textual Organizers and Connectors

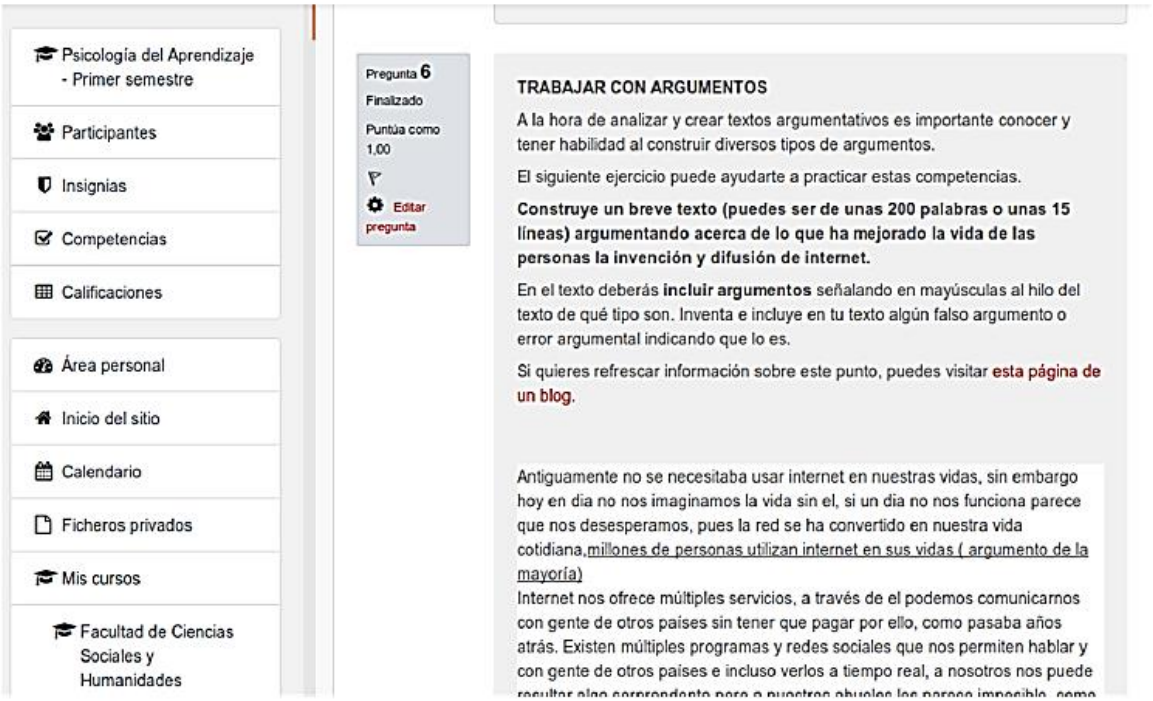


Appendix E: Explanation of the Feedback on Exercise 2



Appendix F: Approach and a Student's Answer to Exercise 3

Write a Text which Includes Arguments and False Arguments



Appendix G: Video Tutorial to Create a Padlet to Organize the Reflection about Self-learning Process

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Appendix H: Items to Assess the Students' Perceived Change in their Self-efficacy

1- Assess the extent to which you think your competence has changed, when you argue in writing, to make arguments in favor of the position you defend.

2- Assess the extent to which you believe that your competence has changed, when you argue in writing, to raise counterarguments (reasons that could be used by those who disagree with you).

3- Assess the extent to which you believe your competence has changed, when you argue in writing, to refute counter-arguments (show that the counter-arguments are false or incorrect).

4- Assess the extent to which you think your competence has changed, when you argue in writing, to weigh arguments and counter-arguments (to decide which position is stronger).

5- Assess the extent to which you think your competence has changed, when you argue in writing, to propose solutions that take into account both arguments and counter-arguments.

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6

Academic Comprehensive Writing Skills Enhancement for the Learners of School

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Abstract:

There is a need to examine the impact of an innovative comprehensive writing curriculum in upper primary school on students' writing performance and on teachers' teaching practises, beliefs and skills. In addition to teaching genre-specific writing skills, the course stressed the importance of writing's communicative nature and the importance of writing as a process. It was implemented by 43 teachers in their regular classrooms (grades 4–6), with a total of 1052 students in three conditions: (1) a writing programme, (2) the same programme augmented with professional development sessions and coaching, and (3) a control condition in which teachers taught their regular writing lessons. Students were tested on their writing abilities three times, each time using a new writing issue to gauge their progress. In addition to classroom observations and interviews, questionnaires, teacher logs, and an assessment exam including text were used to gather information about teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and skills. Students' writing ability and the amount of time instructors spent teaching writing skills improved as a result of the writing programme. A direct influence on lesson implementation and an indirect impact on student performance were found as a result of the complementary professional development and coaching. The results of a thorough examination show that this innovative method of teaching writing in the upper grades of elementary schools is effective.

Keywords: Writing instruction, writing performance, teachers' beliefs, teachers' skills, primary school

1. Introduction

There are serious worries in the Netherlands about the level of writing skill displayed by elementary school students. It was observed that two thirds of sixth-grade students fail to meet basic writing criteria, with their writings exhibiting substantial flaws in substance, style and communication efficacy in both trials (Krom, Van de Gein, Van der Hoeven, et al., 2004; Kuhlemeier, Van Til, Hemker, De Klijn, &Feenstra, 2013). As a result, pupils made just a little amount of development between grades 4 and 6. (Kuhlemeier et al., 2013). Having good writing skills is essential for kids' academic success and participation in society, thus this finding should be taken very seriously.

Many teachers in Dutch primary schools are unable to properly teach writing because of a lack of attention to writing and writing education, as evidenced by surveys and classroom observations (Franssen &Aarnoutse, 2003; Kuhlemeier et al., 2013; for a review see Bonset&Hoogeveen, 2007). Two thirds of the schools examined by the Dutch Inspectorate of Education had insufficient writing instruction, according to the study's findings (Henkens, 2010). Furthermore, instructors are rarely given the chance to learn about writing instruction during their own professional development (Van der Leeuw, 2006). As a whole, a large number of students are struggling with their writing, and their professors are often at a loss on how to help them.

Writing teaching in the upper grades of Dutch elementary schools was a primary goal for this research project (Grades 4 to 6, age 9-12). In order to achieve this, we planned, performed, and assessed a complete writing programme, which comprised teaching resources as well as a supplemental professional development (PD) programme, which was reinforced by individual teacher coaching. As a result, implementation of the writing curriculum was left entirely to the instructors. As a consequence of teachers receiving professional development and coaching to assist them implement the writing programme in the upper primary school years, adapt it to their needs and local context and enhance their students' writing performance, students' writing performance has been improved.

Research and dissemination were the goals of the study. The purpose of our study was not only to test the efficacy of a certain writing programme, but also the development of an innovative approach to the process. Writing programmes must be realistic in regular practise,

useful for instructors, adaptable to local changes, and generally recognised as programmes that meet the curricular needs of teachers if they are to be successful. It is necessary to put into practise what educators think to be the intended curriculum in this country. Finally, we'll analyse the current situation of the intended and realised writing curriculum, which serves as the basis for innovation.

As a result, research has shown that allowing teachers to modify the programme is beneficial because it can promote "the effective and sustained implementation of effective interventions" can help increase teachers' motivation and engagement, and in some cases, teacher modifications can have a positive impact on the outcomes of an intervention (Harn, Parisi, and Stoolmiller, 2013, p. 190). (Dusenbury, Brannigan, Falco, & Hansen, 2003, p. 251- 252).

All comprehensive writing and professional development programmes are built on a foundation of these core concepts, and this section will offer an overview of writing training in the Netherlands.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 The teaching of writing in the Netherlands

Teaching writing techniques was done in line with three approaches: emphasising the communicative component of writing, emphasising the process of composition, and emphasising the explicit teaching of writing processes. As a result of our discussions with writing education experts and our research into previous writing intervention studies (Rietdijk et al., in press), we were able to make an informed decision on the best way to help students improve their written communication skills (e.g., Graham &Perin, 2007; Koster, Tribushinina, De Jong, & Van den Bergh, 2015).

Since the 1970s, in the Netherlands, the 'functional' approach to language training has been widely advocated, which is known as the 'communicative' approach (Ten Brinke, 1976; LeidseWerkgroepMoedertaaldidactiek, 1980). The conventional, form-focused approaches to language teaching that emphasise grammatical precision and the use of "fill in the blank" spelling, style, and sentence building exercises instead of real sentences were formed in opposition to democracy and other social developments (Kroon, 1985). The communicative

method emphasises the development of pupils' "communicative competence." instead of grammatical accuracy. Hymes (1972) used the term "social competence" to describe the capacity to successfully communicate in a range of social settings. The following is an explanation: This talent demands not just fluency in the language but also an awareness of complex social rules, such as when, why, how, and to whom specific statements should be used in various contexts. When it comes to communication, the communicative approach sees language use in the context of social interaction, as a form of purpose-driven communication.

If you want students to learn how to write effectively, they must be taught how they may do so in a range of situations in the real world (semi-)real-world contexts (e.g., convincing, entertaining, and so on). For the most part, students learn to write by writing in a variety of communicative genres while paying close attention to the rhetorical objective as well as the expectations placed on them by their readers. A student's work becomes more authentic and significant when they obtain input from their readers rather than just the teacher when they use the communicative technique (Hoogeveen& Van Gelderen, 2013). Student writers put their works to the test by seeing how readers seek to make sense of their messages as part of the communicative method, which includes both "learning by doing" and "learning by observation" (Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008, 2009). To help their writing become more effective communicators, authors are urged to "read as the reader," which gives a tremendous motivator to create goals for revision and redrafting.

For example, Koster et al. (2015) found that goal setting had a positive influence on the quality of students' texts (ES = 2.03), and that peer support had a somewhat positive effect on the writing process (ES =.59). Research reveals that students' writings may benefit from the experience of'reading as the reader,' in which the author reads as if he or she was writing (Evers-Vermeul& Van den Bergh, 2009; Holliway& McCutchen, 2004; Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008, 2009).

Amidst significant support from curriculum designers and language teachers in the Netherlands for communicative writing in primary schools, only a small number of primary schools have implemented it. Many elementary school teachers fail to emphasise the communicative aspects of writing, according to Rietdijk et al. (in press). A total of 61 instructors participated in the study, which included questionnaires, interviews, and

classroom observations. Students' papers are usually only checked and marked by the teacher, who is particularly concerned with spelling and punctuation issues, because writing assignments are sometimes made up on the spot. One probable cause is that elementary school textbooks and other instructional materials still fail to adequately address the importance of communication (Franssen &Aarnoutse, 2003). We wanted to help teachers include communicative writing into their lesson planning and lessons by including it in the entire writing curriculum.

A "social turn" in education may be attributed to the use of a communicative approach to writing teaching. A second movement arose in the late 1970s, driven by cognitive ideas on the act of writing, which turned the emphasis away from the result and toward the process of writing. When Flower and Hayes (1981) first came up with their well-known writing process model in the early 1980s, Hayes tweaked it a few years later. Yates (Hayes, 1996). As a problem-solving process in which ideas are actively created to attain communicative goals, writing was viewed as such. Several cognitive activities were required, including creating and recording thoughts, recording them, and improving them once they were formed. From the outset, the method was used in Dutch secondary and tertiary education (Bochardt, 1984; Rijlaarsdam, 1986). With regard to classroom practise, one important effect has been to set clear boundaries between draughts and final versions and to recognise that developing ideas in one form and presenting them in another are two quite different things.

Step-by-step methods, which we would now refer to as strategies, were commonplace in secondary and higher education textbooks at the time, and are still used today. How to choose and organise information from sources, for example, and which text style is best suited for each communication action, such as advocating or defending a policy move, was the focus of these strategies (Braet, 1979; Drop & De Vries, 1976). In most cases, training would begin with a quick demonstration or explanation of the method or processes, followed by practise sessions.

Certain features of Graham and Perin (2007)'s process approach are combined with the Dutch procedural approach to producing texts, including a significant emphasis on planning, drafting, and revising. It is also important to have a purpose and an audience in mind while you write. An emphasis on student ownership of their writing and self-reflection, as well as

collaborative work and individualised teaching, are absent from the Dutch curricular ideals of the 1980s. Graham and Sandmel (2011) conducted a meta-analysis using data from 29 intervention trials to investigate the efficacy of Graham and Perin's process writing teaching. According to the researchers, process writing had a somewhat positive impact on students' writing quality in general education classrooms from grades 1 to 12 (ES = 0.34). In grades 4-12, Graham and Perin found that the process writing technique had an impact size of.32 on the quality of students' writing, which is in line with the process writing approach's stated effect size of.32 on students' writing (2007). Only when further professional development was provided did the process writing technique become useful. According to the researchers, process writing looks to be a "effective, but not very strong strategy for teaching writing to kids in general education classrooms." (Graham &Sandmel, 2011, p.404) (Graham &Sandmel, 2011).

Despite the fact that teaching process writing has been demonstrated to be advantageous, there are indicators that it is not being successfully utilised in Dutch primary schools.. Most instructors in the Netherlands employ pre-writing exercises, but just a third of them encourage students to rewrite their papers once they've finished writing them, according to the Dutch Inspectorate (Henkens, 2010). Observations in the classroom corroborated these results (Franssen &Aarnoutse, 2003; Rietdijk et al., in press). Because of the importance of the writing process and the necessity for students to become more conscious of the actions involved in writing, a process writing approach was introduced into our complete writing curriculum. In our writing classes, students were encouraged to work in groups to finish their written tasks.

Writing approach instruction is a rare occurrence in Dutch primary schools, according to Rietdijk et al. (in press), who conducted teacher interviews and classroom observations. Rather than reading methods, which are heavily emphasised in Dutch schools, this is a language strategy. Instruction in writing strategy is all about explicit and systematic teaching of writing skills for planning, creating, rewriting, and editing texts. With this technique, students are given far more detailed instruction than they would get from a typical process approach, which emphasises the usage of a limited number of abilities (Graham &Sandmel, 2011).

Teaching writing strategy through the use of writing strategy education is an effective and well-researched approach. Researchers have identified substantial beneficial impacts on the quality of primary school students' writing through strategy training (ES = 1.02 and.96) in their meta-analyses of writing treatments (see examples in the table). We decided to incorporate writing technique instruction into our complete writing curriculum because of this.

The three approaches (communicative writing, process writing, and writing strategy training) overlap and support one another rather than being mutually incompatible. Planning, drafting, and rewriting are all part of both the process approach and the writing strategy training, but the amount of explicit teaching varies depending on the approach. The communicative strategy, as we defined it, also includes writing for actual audiences and getting input from real readers, and both approaches may incorporate these components. Communication-related writing projects don't usually make it into writing strategy classes. We think that teaching writing methods explicitly and systematically can assist students' communicative writing develop by paying attention to processes.

2.2 The comprehensive writing program in a nutshell

Figure 1. Three embedded approaches to the teaching of writing in the comprehensive writing program.

Writing as a process and genre-specific tactics for five various purposes or genres were all part of our complete writing curriculum, which also included a focus on the communicative

aspects of writing and writing as a process. As can be seen in Figure 1, the complete writing program's framework incorporates all three strategies. Students are presented with a communication issue and are also told of the additional purpose of writing and the appropriate genre to write in (the outer ring of Figure 1). As a result, students are encouraged to break down the writing process into more manageable stages and to work collaboratively on texts that fit under a defined genre during the conception, drafting, and editing stages (middle ring). Writing skills relevant to a certain genre are taught throughout the curriculum and are utilised in the planning, drafting and revising stages. The complete writing programme is described in further detail in Section 3.3 of this manual.

2.3 Implementing a sustainable innovation

As part of our analysis, we found that instructors were more likely to continue using the Nieuwsbegrip (Comprehension of the News) reading comprehension programme if the writing component was integrated into the curriculum. More than 75% of elementary schools in the Netherlands have a licence to utilise the Nieuwsbegrip programme (personal communication, educational centre CED- Group, February 21, 2017). Every week, this online programme gives students with a reading unit in which they read a current news bulletin, such as one on the opening of the Dutch parliament, the Olympic Games, or Organ Donor Week, among other subjects. Reading methods are drilled into pupils in order to help them interpret the content of these reports. Users of the Nieuwsbegrip service can access and download educational materials and instructions whenever they want via the website (www.nieuwsbegrip.nl/). Teachers can also have students use laptops to access the materials, which they can then print off.

During the intervention, writing units were sent every other week in addition to the reading programme. Nieuwsbegrip's writing education specialists oversaw its design and production and worked closely with the research team to accomplish the project..

The integration of the entire writing programme into the digital Nieuwsbegrip environment resulted in a wide variety of advantages. Students began by writing about current events that they found intriguing and inspirational. Having read about the news item before to writing about it, pupils already had a basic comprehension of the problem they were supposed to write about. Because our research participants were already familiar with providing reading

and writing strategy training, we were able to use their expertise in these areas to help students learn. When it comes to the writing software's adaptability, the design principles stay consistent but the writing topics are constantly updated to reflect current events and user feedback is taken into consideration when making changes to the programme. To make things even easier, this was our fourth time preparing the lecture materials in advance, as well as determining how to distribute them (via the Nieuwsbegrip website). Nieuwsbegrip writing courses continued to be designed and offered even after the intervention ended and the research money expired, which is crucial from a long-term sustainability standpoint.

2.4 Continuing Professional Development (CPD) and Coaching

To help teachers implement the complete writing curriculum, a range of activities and resources were made available to them. Each new unit came with a teacher manual that included scripts for the modelling exercises, as well as an introductory meeting at which the program's basic principles and structure were discussed. Additionally, the Nieuwsbegrip website made instructional materials (such as lesson plans and writing assignments) readily available to teachers.

The new writing programme may not run as smoothly or as long as expected if just resources are provided to the students. School reform and the enhancement of classroom practises in general necessitate the use of professional development (PD) (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; McKeown, Brindle, Harris, et al., 2016; Opfer& Pedder, 2011). Participants in an effective professional development programme have the opportunity to enhance their own knowledge and skills, while also changing their attitudes and perceptions of teaching. By using what they've learned, they'll be able to enhance their instruction and help their students learn more effectively (Desimone, 2009).

Five core characteristics of high-quality professional development have been identified in studies: (a) a focus on subject matter content and how students can learn it; (b) opportunities for teachers' active learning, such as inquiry and discussion; (c) coherence or alignment with teachers' own learning goals and their learning goals for students; (d) cooperation or exchange between teachers and other educators (Desimone, 2009; Garet et al., 2001; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007; Van Veen, Zwart, Meirink, &Verloop, 2010). One further way to guarantee that new teaching methods are adopted correctly and consistently is

to give individual coaching following a professional development course (Kretlow& Bartholomew, 2010).

In order to achieve the study's goals, it was necessary to develop and implement a professional development programme based on these principles, support teachers in implementing the comprehensive writing programme, and evaluate the program's effects on teachers' classroom practises as well as their students' writing abilities. Although Nieuwsbegrip practitioners were able to continue the full professional development programme after the study was completed, they had to do so in an abbreviated format.

2.5 Beliefs and abilities of teachers

Students' writing skills can be improved by teachers modifying their classroom processes. The opinions and ability as writers of teachers are linked to their classroom writing practises. Teachers' effectiveness has been found to be positively correlated with evidence-based classroom practises, for example (e.g., Brindle, Graham, Harris, & Hebert, 2016; Rietdijk et al., in press). A recent study found that instructors' ideas about writing instruction had a role as well: the more teachers prioritised accuracy, the less likely they were to offer feedback to students on the communicative portions of their writing assignments (Rietdijk et al., in press).

A teacher's attitude and ability may therefore impact their classroom decisions, and how new programmes are introduced. Also, practises have the capacity to change people's views (Basturkmen, 2012; see also Borg, 2009). Another way of putting it is that the process of transforming educational practises is a difficult one. Because of this, it makes sense to explore how teachers' practises, beliefs, and skills in writing instruction are influenced by the innovative writing curriculum and its related professional development programme.

2.6 Research questions

It was our goal to determine whether or not students' performance, classroom practises or instructors' attitudes and skills in the field of writing education were affected by a complete writing curriculum and a supplemental professional development programme. We were able to clearly see what had changed as a result of implementing the programmes. It is also possible that the results will provide light on the variables that made the programmes successful in the first place.

Are students who participate in a complete writing programme better writers than those who receive regular instruction?

Is evidence-based teaching and student engagement boosted as a result of using a complete writing curriculum instead of traditional writing instruction?

Does the complete writing programme have an influence on instructors' opinions and abilities in relation to the teaching of writing when compared to conventional writing instruction?

Are there other positive impacts on student writing performance, classroom practises, and teacher attitudes and skills in the writing domain that complement the benefits previously documented in complementary professional development and coaching?

Students' writing abilities, as well as instructors' classroom practises, beliefs and skills, were expected to improve as a result of the writing programme. Teachers are expected to use more particular methods to writing teaching (e.g., communicative writing, process writing, and strategy instruction) as a result of the study, which we believe will have a positive impact. Teachers' views and skills in the field of writing instruction are expected to improve as a consequence of the inclusion of professional development and coaching to the current writing curriculum for students.

A whole academic year was devoted to the investigation. It improves on previous studies on writing teaching by utilising a multicomponent technique that incorporates communicative writing, a process approach, and strategy education while also aiming for long-term innovation. The purpose of this follow-up study was to see if instructors' classroom practise and student writing performance might be improved by a combination of complementary professional development and individual coaching.

3. Method

3.1 Design

An experiment with three conditions was chosen: a comprehensive writing programme only condition (WP), a comprehensive writing programme with professional development (PD), and a control condition (C). Both the WP and PD criteria asked that instructors implement the writing programme in their own classrooms. A professional development workshop was also held for the PD teachers, who received coaching to help them execute the writing programme

and improve their teaching methods. Control-teaching instructors were taught to teach writing in a usual fashion.

The study's measurement strategy included three different times to collect data: before, during, and after each of the three assessments. You may find a complete list of all measures and measurement events in the Measures section.

3.2 Participants

43 instructors and their children from 33 primary schools participated in the study, totaling 43 people. The online reading comprehension tool Nieuwsbegrip was utilised by all of the instructors, with the exception of one. As a thank you for participating, schools received a 30% discount on each instructor's Nieuwsbegrip licence. A graph demonstrating students' on-task behaviour was also provided to teachers for each lesson that was viewed by their pupils.

There were instructors in grades 4, 5, and/or 6 that participated in the research. Students in grades 4 through 6 are between the ages of 9 and 10 years old, while students in grades 5 through 6 are between the ages of 11 and 12 years old (Grade 6). Teachers in grades 5 and 6 make up over half of the workforce (47 percent), with the bulk of them combining both grades. 1

According to the Dutch Education Inspectorate, teachers were put in groups of three based on their gender, age and teaching experience, as well as the kind of school, location and quality of the school. This was followed by the assignment of one of three groups, with each group being allocated to one of three possible circumstances. At the beginning of the research, six instructors requested to be placed in a different condition, mostly because they believed the professional development condition was too time demanding. As a consequence, fewer instructors (N = 11) participated in the professional development condition than in the other two (N = 16).

These 43 teachers had a total of 1052 students engage in the research. At the beginning of the school year, a passive consent letter explaining the study's goal and methods was delivered to the parents or guardians of the participating students. Parental refusals to allow their children to take part in the study were made by seven separate households.

Background information was obtained for two-thirds of students, although data was missing for a quarter of students in the WP and control conditions and for a sixteenth of students in the PD condition, respectively. Over half (53 percent) of the pupils were female, and their average age was 10 years old (SD = 0.9). A high school diploma was only obtained by one-fifth of the children's parents, implying that both parents had only finished two years of high school.

Table 1 summarises the demographics of participants in each condition.

Teachers' gender, age, teaching experience, or part-time employment (F(2, n = 43) = 1.07, p =.59) did not change statistically among circumstances (F(6,78) =.17, p =.99). Neither the percentage of teachers who taught multiple grades (2, n = 43) nor the percentage of teachers who taught Grade 4 (alone or in combination with other grades) (2, n = 43) = 2.05 p =.36, Grade 5 (2, n = 43) = 5.96 p =.05, or Grade 6 (2, n = 43) showed any statistically significant differences. Schools' characteristics were equal in all conditions: kind of school (F(2,35)=.47, p=.63), location of school (F(2,n =43)=.07, p=.97), and Inspectorate quality rating (F(2,n =43)=.07), p=.97). On the other hand, there was a statistically significant difference in the kind of school and the method of teaching Grade 5. Post-traumatic stress disorder was underrepresented among teachers in public schools. Regardless of whether a student attends a public or private school, writing training appears to be the same.

There was a significant difference in children's age and grade level and their parents' educational level between treatments, p =.00. Students' gender did not differ substantially between treatments (p =.48), which is consistent with previous research (2, 800). Overrepresentation of fourth graders and parents with greater educational attainment was seen in the PD group compared to the other two groups analysed. F(2,981) = 7.60, p =.00 demonstrated a statistically significant difference in students' reading comprehension between the two conditions. Nonetheless, when we considered the children's ages and grade levels, the discrepancy was erased. As a whole, the three scenarios differed greatly from one another at the time of the intervention. As a result of the students' grades and ages, they were very different. Because of this, we took grades into account while analysing data.

3.3 Comprehensive Writing Program (includes all of the above)

It was divided into two parts: a rigorous writing programme (conducted under both WP and PD settings) and a training and development programme for educators and other professionals (PD condition only). At the beginning of the trial, teachers in both intervention groups were given a three-hour introduction to the writing program's fundamental concepts, primary components, and general organisation. The session was attended by educators from both groups undergoing intervention. According to the authors, the purpose of the writing programme was to help students in Dutch primary schools in grades 4 to 6 improve their writing skills. CED-Group educational designers and members of the research team collaborated to construct a unit comprising two consecutive writing lessons every other week. Educators from the educational centre CED-Group and members of the research team collaborated to create the unit.

Table 1: Participant Demographic Information per Condition

Demographics	Writing program condition (WP) *M* (*SD*)	Professional development condition (PD)	Control condition
Teachers			
Number of participants	16	11	16
Male (%)	19	36	25
Age in years	43.2 (11.9)	41.8 (10.6)	42.2 (14.2)
Teaching experience in years	15.1 (9.7)	16.4 (10.0)	16.3 (13.9)
Employment (days a week)	3.8 (1.2)	3.8 (1.4)	3.8 (1.0)
Combination of grades (%)	56	27	50
Grade (single or in combination)			
Fourth (%)	56	64	38
Fifth (%)	56	46	88
Sixth (%)	38	18	25

Each unit comprised student materials (instructions, tasks), as well as a teacher guideline. It was up to teachers under both WP and PD settings whether or not they wanted to use the materials provided to them.

After describing the key components of the comprehensive writing programme, we'll define its overall structure and detail the individual teaching and learning activities that were included in it in this section. Section 3.4 goes into additional depth about the PD programme.

Schools			
Number of schools	14	10	14
Type of school			
Public (%)	63	18	50
Non-public(%)	37	82	50
Location			
Urban (%)	50	55	50
Suburban / rural (%)	50	45	50
School quality *	3.3 (0.5)	3.1 (0.3)	3.3 (0.5)
Students			
Number of participants	381	272	399
Male (%)	48	44	49
Grade (%)			
Fourth	38	49	17
Fifth	33	40	73
Sixth	29	11	10
Age in years	10.2 (0.9)	9.9 (0.9)	10.3 (0.7)
Parents' educational level: 2 years of high school at most (%)	17	12	20
Reading comprehension**	27.6 (6.7)	29.8 (7.4)	29.2 (6.3)

*) School quality was rated by the Inspectorate on a four-point scale (1 = poor quality, 4 = good quality).
**) Reading comprehension was measured with a test developed by Aarnoutse and Kapinga (2006).

3.3.1 The most important elements of a thorough writing programme

The writing programme was developed to satisfy the requirements of students from a range of backgrounds by employing the three techniques of writing instruction indicated in Section 2, Theoretical basis of the curriculum.

Writing that has the goal of conveying information. Students' real-life experiences, both within and outside of school, served as inspiration for our communicative writing projects. Real-world aims and audiences, such as students, friends, family members, and others who

weren't in the same room as the author were always taken into consideration while writing texts.

This year, students learnt to communicate for a variety of goals, including describing and instructing; explaining; persuading; and amusing or expressing oneself. A range of genres were researched, including descriptive, instructional and explanatory texts as well as narrative and other types of writings. According to the Dutch Ministry of Education's secondary school objectives, these purposes and genres are appropriate (Expert Group Learning Trajectories, 2009). All three types of literature play an important role in the secondary school curriculum.

In both the training and feedback sessions, emphasis was placed on the text's ability to communicate effectively. The most important consideration was whether or not the text was able to accomplish its stated purpose. Activities that students were encouraged to engage in included the following: students were urged to seek for comments from their reader(s), and students were urged to watch their reader(s) try to understand their works (known as "testing your text"). We integrated it into the curriculum since previous research has shown that seeing readers is an extremely effective learning activity within the communicative paradigm (Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008).

The act of writing itself is a process. It was our goal for students to engage in the writing process on their own, in pairs, or with small groups. These tasks were connected to the method of communication used to carry them out. Students learned about the topic, the aim of the rhetoric, and the intended audience for the information they were writing about throughout the preparation stage. By watching newscasts about the issue on television and reading about it and debating it, they came up with ideas. They also brainstormed. Prewriting approaches such as creating a list, mind map, or table were also covered in order to help students better organise their thoughts for writing. As they worked on the first draught of their paper, the students collaborated with one another. After receiving feedback from actual readers, the process of modifying and rewriting was given the highest priority (see above: communicative writing). Consider the value of your classmates' and your own texts in terms of conveying information to other people.

Instructions for creating a strategy document. The complete writing program's instructional design included explicit and systematic teaching of abilities for planning, creating, and revising texts. As a result, instead of teaching a wide range of techniques that might be applied to every style of writing, we choose to focus on a certain literary genre. As a result of this decision, each genre was assigned a unique technique of instruction (see Appendix A for an example of a genre- specific strategy). In the end, the idea was that the students would be able to use these strategies on their own once they had been taught them.

We were motivated by Harris and Graham's well-researched Self-Regulated Strategy Development technique when developing our writing curriculum (Harris & Graham, 2009). Students were given six stages of instruction for each strategy: (1) activating prior knowledge about writing in this genre; (2) direct, explicit instruction; (3) support for memorization and retention of the strategy through using mnemonics; (4) modelling the strategy by the teacher, and (5) practise with materials, the teacher, and/or peers. Although we did not explicitly teach self-regulation abilities as part of our writing curriculum, our approach differed from Harris and Graham's in this respect. This was done by having students reflect on their writing process at the conclusion of each lesson and by having the instructor replicate the process (Fidalgo, Torrance, Rijlaarsdam, Van den Bergh, and lvarez, 2015). Teachers model good writing habits, and students reflect on their own writing processes at the conclusion of each lesson (Fidalgo et al., 2015).

(3).3.2 The overall structure of the comprehensive writing software (3.3.2).

Each of the writing curriculum's 21 lessons includes a mix of the three techniques. Each student completed a single piece of writing in two 45-minute classes throughout this subject. Between three and five pieces were devoted to each genre. There was a heavy emphasis on descriptive and instructional texts in the first few weeks of the school year's curriculum. They were chosen since they were easy for students to understand and would help them acquire an awareness of their audience, which is essential for effective communication. As the year continued, the curriculum expanded to include explanatory and argumentative pieces as well. The informative genres were mixed with narrative or creative genres in order to keep things fresh and new (stories and poems).

As a result of this limitation, we were forced to limit our genre selections for each period. A descriptive essay about a lost exotic animal, for example, could be a good fit for some news topics, but that isn't always the case for all of them. As a result, the sequence in which genres were disseminated in a given period was impacted to some part by the actual news broadcasts, and was not pre-determined.

It was decided that in order to teach each genre, students would be taught in at least three independent units: first, they were introduced to the genre (unit 1), then new procedural information (unit 2), and lastly they were encouraged to apply this knowledge to new writing problems (units 3 and 4). (unit 3). In the units 3-5

Experience. The first unit of each genre was designed to familiarise students with the genre before teaching them a specific method for that genre. For this reason a student was directed by a teacher to write something that closely matched the goal text and then asked to see how their work was accepted by readers.

Students were made aware of the communicative effect of their writings through the observation of readers, which was done in combination with the communicative approach in this phase. Student-writers were encouraged to observe readers (either their classmates or their teacher) while they attempted to identify the described object among a collection of comparable objects after writing a description of it. They'll decide that their text failed if the readers couldn't figure out what it was supposed to be pointing them toward: the communication goal was not met, and the text was a failure. Students were encouraged to study more about the genre as a consequence of this experience, which led to the development of an explicit curriculum in the genre.

Become familiar with the methods. Afterward, students were taught to a certain genre-specific writing technique. Students were expected to be able to reproduce the strategy steps they had learnt at the end of the unit. A typical 'acquiring' unit has five stages. In that order, they were: Students' prior understanding of (writing in) the genre should be reactivated, and the technique should be explained in detail and clearly. Teachers and students can both benefit from providing a mnemonic for the method, which can be practised by students and teachers alike.

The teacher recalled the experience unit and what the students had learned about writing in the genre at that period. This was followed by an explanation of and demonstration of how to use mnemonics (one or two letters for each part of a technique) to help students remember it. Abbreviation SLAK (snail) was an abbreviation for argumentative writings that stood for Situation, Let Your Perspective Be Heard, Provide Arguments, and End with an Awkward Sentence.

Two purposes were served by these mnemonic devices. Initially, they helped students remember the stages they needed to take during the writing process, making retrieval less onerous while they were actively writing. For one thing, mnemonics provided a meta-language for referring to the methods, which was helpful both during the teacher's demonstration of the strategies and during practise.

After that, the teacher acted out a part of the writing process to show the pupils how to use the approach. A script was given in the teacher's manual to help teachers with their modelling efforts. Students were reminded that the script was simply supposed to be a tool, and that the instructor should aim to mimic the 'natural' writing process as closely as possible. This includes making errors, expressing doubts and self-encouragement, and reworking ideas as you go along. These self-monitoring skills were learned through modelling rather than formal teaching.

Make the most of what you know. This was followed by a one to three-unit writing strategy unit where students practised the genre-specific writing approach they'd learned. While working in pairs or small groups under teacher supervision, kids were able to get a feel for how things worked. Students were able to practise on their own in a subsequent unit, as scaffolds were gradually eliminated.

To begin a normal practise unit, the teacher introduces students to the topic, the writing assignment, and the communicative setting. During class, the teacher asked students what form of literature was needed, for whom it was needed, and what manner would be necessary to activate current knowledge. After that, students were reminded of the many processes in the writing process, and then they finished the task. Following feedback from their peers, students were tasked with rewriting their work on a regular basis. Students were encouraged to submit peer feedback using checklists with questions, which were made available to them.

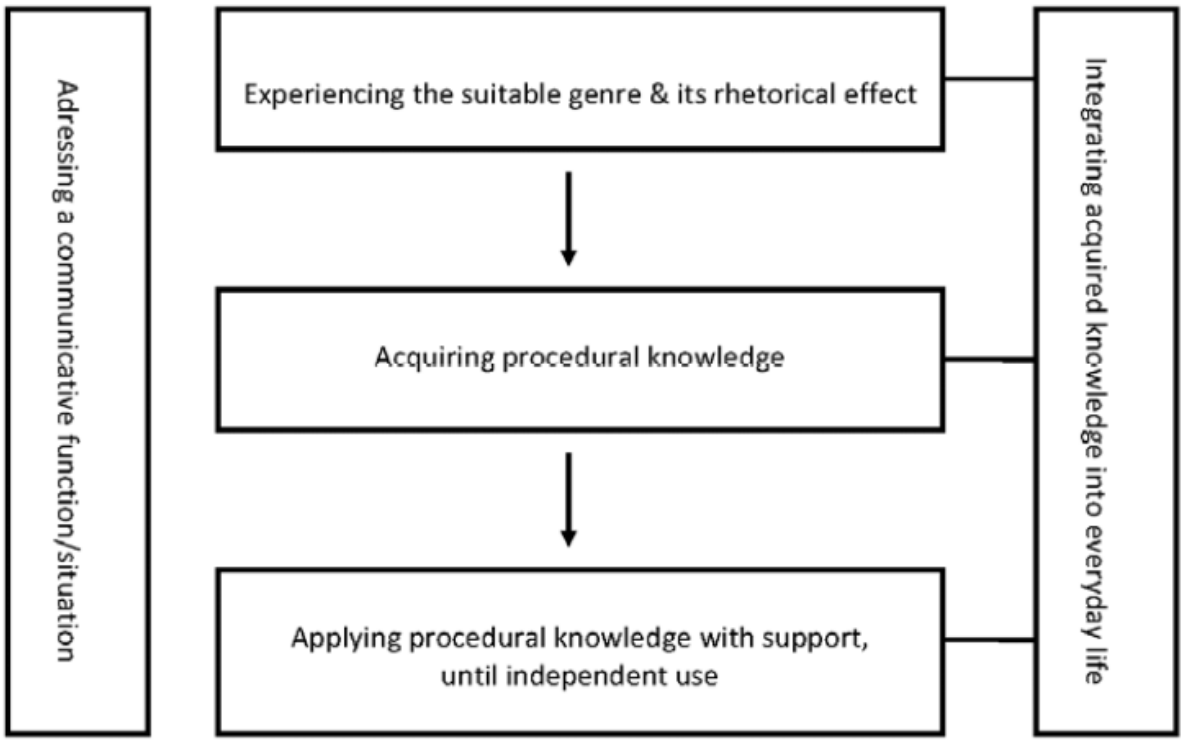

Figure 2 provides an overview of the writing program's sequential units. Invariant learning activities are shown on the left and right panels, while the middle panel serves as the focal point for each consecutive learning unit.

Figure 2 depicts the program's primary learning activities.

Students were asked to use the new knowledge and abilities they had learned as much as possible in their everyday lives (cf. Merrill, 2002). Rather than considering it a distinct stage, we saw it as an integral part of the whole process. Students were asked to reflect on their writing process and what they had learnt during the course of each lesson. Student work was published in the school newspaper or on the internet, for example, so they could show off their skills as writers in a public setting.

3.3.3 Materials to be used in conjunction with the text

Students were provided with a wide range of support materials, including classroom posters depicting various strategies, stickers for students to fill in the strategy steps, and two folders for each student: one to collect writing assignments and instructions, and the other to hold their draughts and final written texts. Additionally, students were given a list of questions to

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ask while providing feedback to their peers, which included inquiries on the text's communicative features. Teachers were supplied with genre-specific rubrics for evaluating the communicative efficacy of their students' texts as part of the teacher manual.

Both a simpler (level A) and a more challenging (level B) version were produced to allow teachers to tailor their lessons to the abilities of their pupils (level B). For all their similarities in terms of subject matter and genre, there are significant differences in terms of how much information is imparted and how much time is spent on preparation for the two courses.

3.4 Program for professional growth and development

Two CED-Group writing education specialists collaborated with members of the study team to create and administer a professional development programme for writing and composition instructors. With the goal of helping teachers adopt a new writing curriculum and inspiring them to make data-driven decisions that benefit children, the program's goals were ambitious. The National Science Foundation provided funding for the project. Thus, each participating instructor identified an issue or want related to writing teaching practise, then analysed data to support them in making judgments about fixing the issue and/or improving their writing classes. The creation was then put to use by the teacher, who assessed its success or failure.

The programme comprised six four-hour group sessions in addition to individual coaching in the workplace and six four-hour group sessions. Teachers in the professional development condition were divided into two groups (n = 6 and n = 5) from September to June. They all began using the experimental writing curriculum in their classes at the beginning of the school year in August.

Between September 2013 and March 2014, a CED-Group writing education specialist served as a professional development leader for each of the five groups, which had five sessions each. Among other things, they discussed how to assess the quality of students' texts, keep track of their writing development, and adapt writing lessons within the programme, as well as the knowledge and skills teachers need for data-based inquiry and decision making (e.g., how to evaluate and adapt lessons within the programme to evaluate and adapt students' writing development).

This writing program's major concepts—communication, process, teaching writing technique, standing out from the crowd, and providing students with feedback—were all thoroughly discussed during the sessions. Teachers who took part in the research of communicative writing, for example, evaluated student writing samples in small groups. Following this discussion, the need of focusing on students' writing's ability to communicate effectively was discussed.

The Flower and Hayes model of the writing process (Flower & Hayes, 1981) was presented and investigated, as well as related to other components of the writing curriculum in order to better comprehend process writing. Several methods for revising and collaborating were also explored and exchanged (during various stages of the writing process).

How to execute your writing strategy One of the most often broached subjects during group sessions was the subject of instruction. A video of a teacher modelling a writing technique spurred instructors to consider a variety of ways they may think aloud while teaching writing to children.

Teachers also practised giving students feedback on their writing in small groups, and they viewed a video of students doing the same for one other's work. Moreover, Teachers worked together to establish a checklist for providing written feedback based on the qualities of successful and useful feedback.

For each task level (A and B), a group plan was produced that contained an analysis of the writing achievements of all students within a class and recommendations for how to effectively encourage and challenge both the poorer and the stronger writers, respectively.

Small-scale experiments were carried out by participating instructors in their classrooms between March and June 2014, each of which was based on a personal problem or want linked to writing teaching. Questions like, "How can I help my students improve their writing?" were examined by teachers. and "How can I encourage my students to go back and revise their written work?" "How can I tailor my classes to better fit the needs of individual students?" and "How can I provide useful feedback during the writing process?" are commonly asked by students in my classes. Teachers were guided in their quest for answers by a CED-Group teacher trainer with years of expertise or a member of the study team.

One or two visits to the teachers in their particular schools were made by the coaches to observe writing classes and discuss issues and answers that the teachers had. E-mail assistance was also offered, in which the teachers were asked questions, given comments, and given advice.

The teachers presented their findings from their classroom research during their sixth and final meeting. Students wrote a learner report on what they had learnt about teaching writing over the training and coaching sessions, then shared their thoughts with the group.

3.5 Measures

Table 2. Overview of Instruments used per Variable and Measurement Occasion

Variables	Pretest	Midtest	Posttest
Students' writing performance			
Writing tasks	x	x	x
Teachers' writing classroom practice			
Interview	x		x
Lesson observation	x	x	x
Questionnaire	x		x
Logs*			
Teachers' beliefs			
Questionnaires	x		x
Teachers' skills			
Logs*			
Text assessment task	x		x
Implementation			
Interview	x		x
Logs*			
Lesson observation	x	x	x

*Logs were filled in every two weeks throughout the year.

Writing assignments, interviews, class observation logs, questionnaires and a text evaluation exam were some of the tools we used to assess the dependent variables. Table 2 summarises the instruments used for each measurement occasion.

3.5.1 The writing abilities of the students

Three times, before the programme began, halfway through, and at the end, students' writing performance was evaluated. This was done three times. Given that students' writing scores vary greatly across tasks, we assessed their performance on a number of tasks in various genres because past research shows that students' writing scores change significantly between tasks (Bouwer et al., 2014; Schoonen, 2012; Wesdorp, 1974). The pupils' writing abilities were tested in eight separate activities (Table 3).

Table 3: Overview of Writing Genres per Measurement Occasion

	Measurement occasion		
Genres	Pretest	Midtest	Posttest
Narrative	1		1
Expository	2		3
Descriptive	3	1	
Argumentative		2	2

Note: Numbers in the cells refer to the order of administration.

Expository and narrative writing tasks were included in both the pre- and post-tests (Table 3). Due to the fact that descriptive writing was included in the writing curriculum from the start, we decided to administer it as a pre- and post-test. Our argumentative writing projects were also given at halfway and end-of-program because this genre was covered in the second part of the writing course

The tasks were derived from previous studies (Bouwer &Koster, 2016; Krom et al., 2004; Pullens, 2012; Schoonen& De Glopper, 1996; Zwarts et al., 1990). Students were instructed to write a brief story about something frightful (pretest) or a pleasant surprise they had experienced when given a narrative writing assignment (posttest). They had to write a letter of recommendation for a new student on how to write a good piece of writing as part of their expository assignment (pre- and posttest). During the descriptive writing task, students were instructed to describe a lost sweater or a missing cat for a lost-and-found department (pretest) (midtest). Some students were asked to submit an appeal to a company as part of an argumentative writing exercise to get them a present as part of a promotion campaign (mid- and posttest).

Helpers with specialised training completed the tasks. A average testing session lasted around an hour and fifteen minutes. Writing a descriptive text took 15 minutes (since it was a quick work), whereas explanatory, narrative, and argumentative essays took 20 to 30 minutes (all of which were longer tasks).

A perfect score of 100 was awarded to all 8025 of the student texts that were gathered and analysed for their communicative effectiveness. If a student gave a description of a lost cat, would the neighbours be able to recognise it? Is it feasible to persuade the business to provide a gift? Before reaching a final judgement, we used a method developed by Blok (1986) to evaluate the communicative efficacy of texts by comparing them to five "anchor texts," which collectively form a text quality scale. They were selected from a pool of texts that had already been evaluated. It was given a score of 100 since it was regarded to be average. For each standard deviation above or below the mean on the scale, there were four different anchor texts: two stronger and two weaker (scores 70-85-100-115-130). We used scales that were already in use for expository and argumentative papers (Bouwer &Koster, 2016; Pullens, 2012). Pullens (2012) gathered student writings from which we produced a scale for narrative texts; on the other hand, we used a sample of the present study's texts to construct a scale for descriptive texts.

The texts of the students were allocated randomly among 12 trained raters using an overlapping rater team design using a composition of roughly 50 texts each set (Van den Bergh &Eiting, 1989). With reference to the anchor texts, each text was evaluated on its communicative efficacy by three raters. Juror reliability (lambda) was found to be between.70 and.94, which was regarded adequate.

3.5.2 Teachers' writing in the classroom as part of their professional development

Teachers were asked to describe their classroom practises in terms of a range of aspects of writing instruction. Writing courses are expected to contain extra elements from all three approaches to writing teaching – communicative, process and strategy – as a result of implementing the complete writing programme We also predicted that participation in the writing programme would result in improved quality education in terms of differentiation, approach teaching, and fostering active learning, all of which were anticipated.

These indicators were studied further through the use of reminiscence interviews, lesson observations, questionnaires, and logs.

Interview. Instructors' judgments of students' texts, the substance and structure of their writing classes, and how carefully teachers observed their students' writing lessons were all included in the guideline for the interviews that we devised for the project.

A poor and a good student text were sent to us in advance of the interview so we could compare them. This interview's first section covered topics such as teacher standards for evaluating the texts' quality (e.g. communicational features, stylistic components, structural elements, content), as well as the subject matter and organisational structure of the lesson in issue. Questions such, 'Why is this text a poor text? and 'What happened in this class prior to students producing their texts?' were followed by questions like, 'Did you teach?' and 'What kind of instruction did you provide?" were asked. In order for a follow-up question to be asked, the instructor had to reply effectively to the initial set of questions they were asked. To wrap things off, we asked the teachers whether they kept track of their students' writing development and if they planned and reviewed their writing lessons.

Before and after the exam, research assistants who had completed thorough training conducted interviews with each of the 43 teachers (see 3.7 Data collection). In an average interview, it lasted around 41 minutes (standard deviation = 10). An audio cassette was used to record the interviews, and the assistants who worked with the interviewers transcribed them verbatim.

Writing strategy training, communicative writing, and the writing process were all identified in the instructors' interview transcripts, which were then tagged. On the basis of whether or not they claimed to be employing a practise, teachers were given dichotomous codes. Students were given a list of text quality criteria to use as a guide in evaluating their own work, after a discussion of text examples and a review of the text quality standards. Using a second set of eyes, a coder assessed the text quality of fifteen interviews as a whole. The reliability of the inter-rater agreement (Cohen's kappa =.88) was good.

A list of things I noticed throughout class. A competent assistant watched two writing lessons per teacher during the pre-test, and one writing lesson per teacher at the mid- and post-test, respectively, for each of the teachers (one observer per lesson). For this research, a total of

171 writing classes were observed and documented. The post-test observation data for one instructor was excluded from the analysis since the observed session was not a writing lesson. ' Students' attention spans and teachers' classroom demeanour were observed during these lessons.

Instead of referring to the time students spend not engaged in educational activities as "time spent on task," we should say "time spent engaged in educational activities" (Karweit&Slavin, 1982). On-task behaviour is a good measure of the quality of a teacher's teaching, particularly in terms of how well the time allocated for writing instruction is utilised. " N = 171 lessons comprised the observation of eight students chosen at random by a trained assistant who documented their time on task and reported to the teacher. To establish if the students were largely on task or distracted, the observer assessed each student twice (after 30 seconds) after one minute of observation. An off-task code was given to students who were not showing any interest in the course material (e.g. fidgeting or chatting). It wasn't until the assistant had seen all eight kids for a full one-minute period that the children were observed again. Each of the eight pupils in a typical session was observed five times, for a total of 80 points each lesson (8 students x 5 minutes x 2 observations per minute). Students' time spent on task was calculated for each instructor based on their participation in the observed lessons.

Writing Observation Framework (Henk and Marinak, 2003) and Dutch Inspectorate of Education observation instrument were used to evaluate instructors' classroom approaches in order to identify their efficacy in teaching students to write (Henkens, 2010). When the class was through, the observer had to complete the instrument by answering the 25 questions on it. How often did the instructor employ communicative writing, process writing and strategy training in their classroom? For instance, "Did the teacher give students the opportunity to generate ideas prior to writing?" and "Did the teacher pay attention to one or more writing strategies?" are examples of items on the checklist. Rather of asking them to complete the questionnaire in class, we had them listen to the audio recording of the session and use it as a reference to finish it once class was over.

Reliability was assessed by having an independent coder evaluate 10 audio cassettes containing recorded lessons from the instrument. Instrumentation proved to be accurate. An

inter-rater agreement of Cohen's kappa of 0.66 was found between the observers and the second rater in this study.

Questionnaire. An online survey was sent out to the instructors, which had three measures based on Van de Grift (2007): teaching learning methodologies, adapting to students' needs, and encouraging students to participate actively. Pre- and post-tests included administration of the questionnaire to the instructors. According to Van de Grift (2007), these measures can be used as indicators of good and successful teaching since they are linked to student participation and accomplishment.

Items such as "Asking students to explain which strategy they use" and "Adapting my writing lessons to students' different ability levels" (Differentiating) were included in the questionnaire. 31 students completed the questionnaire, which had 31 questions (Promoting active learning). A five-point Likert scale was used to ask instructors how often they engaged in these activities in their writing classes (1 = never, 5 = all the time). For further details about the scales' reliability (Cronbach's alpha values ranging from.80 to.87), see Appendix B. Logs. We established an online log to keep track of instructors' writing lessons throughout the year, as well as teachers' capacities to reflect on lessons and modify teachings to the context in which they are being taught.. Students' engagement, students' texts, and instructors' satisfaction with and evaluation of the writing lessons (intervention conditions) were included in the survey. Teachers' customization of the lessons to students' skills was also included (PD condition).

For the last two weeks, instructors received an email every fourteen days encouraging them to fill up an online record of the writing classes they had taught. For each teacher, there were a total of 14 logs (standard deviation = 4.3) completed.

3.5.3 Beliefs held by teachers

In this study, teachers' views toward writing and writing instruction were examined across a range of domains, including how they view the act of writing itself, how they view writing instruction, and how they view their own efficacy as a writer educator. Additionally, it was examined to see if the success of high-quality training elements may be indicative of more general, non-domain-specific effectiveness. In order to acquire data on beliefs, questionnaires were used.

Testing teachers' views on writing was made possible by the Writing Beliefs Inventory (White and Bruning, 2005), which includes two scales: Writing as transmission (6 questions) and Writing as transaction (6 items) (13 items). Teachers who adhere to transmissional theories often view writing instruction as a technique of passing along authoritative knowledge to their students. This sentence serves as an illustration: "The key to successful writing is to accurately report what experts say," says a writer. Transactional instructors see written communication as a way to actively include their own thoughts into the writing process, allowing them to develop their own texts. "Writing helps me appreciate concept complexity," states author as one example (White &Bruning, 2005). On a Likert scale of 1 to 5, educators could indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements.

A three-scale Writing Orientation Scale (Graham et al., 2002) was used to examine teachers' ideas about writing education, which includes five questions on accurate writing, four on explicit teaching, and one on natural learning (all of which were completed by the instructors) (4 items). Formal correctness in pupils' writing is a top focus for teachers who obtain good grades for it. "Children should be encouraged to use proper spelling," is an example. "it is necessary to teach children techniques for preparing, checking, and correcting their texts," or "it is vital to teach children strategies for planning, checking, and correcting their texts." are examples of explicit instruction. When it comes to writing teaching, natural learning methods emphasise the value of non-formal methods used outside of the classroom. According to one theory, "Children eventually learn the requirements to which written texts must adhere by composing and responding to other people's texts," Respondents were assessed on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating total disapproval and 5 indicating total concurrence. The questionnaire was translated into Dutch and the scales were improved by adding two additional items to each category.

Efficacy in teaching writing was assessed using the Teacher Efficacy Scale for Writing (Gibson &Dembo, 1984; Graham, Harris, Fink, & MacArthur, 2001; Troia& Maddox, 2004). Efficacy as a teacher and effectiveness as a teacher as a whole are both assessed using the Teacher Efficacy Scale, a 16-item questionnaire. Personal teaching efficacy (e.g., "When students' writing improves dramatically, it is typically because I have discovered a more

successful teaching technique") refers to a teacher's conviction in his or her own ability to teach writing. It is referred to as "generic teaching efficacy" when a teacher's ideas regarding the limitations of writing instruction caused by environmental variables such as students' home environments (e.g., "A teacher has limited impact on students' writing performance. Higher scores indicated better efficacy in the general teaching efficacy questions on a five-point Likert scale (1 being absolutely disagree, 5 being fully agree).

Based on an instrument developed by Van de Grift, we created a questionnaire to assess teachers' overall capacity to deliver high-quality instruction (2007). In Section 3.5.2, please note This tool has three scales: teaching learning techniques, differentiating, and fostering active learning. Teachers were asked to score their competency in each activity on a five-point Likert scale (1 being completely incompetent, 5 being extremely proficient).

Online, instructors had the chance to answer the belief surveys, which were sent to them. A total of 95% of those who took the pretest and 98% of those who took the posttest responded. As demonstrated in Appendix B, the scales' dependability increased from fair to good when a number of items were deleted.

3.5.4 The abilities of teachers

It was determined that teachers' ability to reflect on their teaching and change their teaching methods based on a given circumstance were evaluated. In the professional development condition, participants worked on small-scale design projects to modify the resources to their own requirements. Teachers were encouraged to personalise the instructional materials to meet the specific needs of their pupils. Our evaluation techniques and instruments, as a result, include indicators of this sort of professional attitude and behaviour. An understanding of text assessment and the ability to provide students with useful feedback on their work was an important consideration in the creation of the writing curriculum we were putting together at the time. The bimonthly teacher guides and the professional development programme emphasised a conversational approach to offering feedback. As a result, we predicted that instructors would become increasingly skilled at judging texts from a functional rather than a formal viewpoint during the course of the school year.

Teachers' capacity to reflect on and adapt their teachings to the context in which they were taught was evaluated by researchers through an assessment of the biweekly logs they kept

(see 3.5.2). A survey was conducted in which teachers were asked to list the aspects of their writing lessons with which they were most and least happy, and to explain why. In order to better understand the instructors' reactions, two professionally trained assistants classified the responses based on three aspects: perception, analysis, and adaptation (did the teacher adjust to the circumstances or the situation had changed) (did the teacher indicate that he or she had adapted the lesson). Teachers were given a score for each item in order to rate it (1 equals yes, 0 equals no). It was determined that 14 percent of the 342 completed logs (49 out of 342 total) were coded by two independent coders to establish their degree of agreement (Cohen's kappa.85), which was fairly high.

A text assessment test was used to gauge teachers' abilities to gauge the quality of their students' writing. Sixth-grade students wrote narrative and argumentative articles and sent them to us for review by instructors. Teachers used five anchor texts, each with a predefined rating, to evaluate the texts in a holistic manner. Pullens gave both the student texts and the anchor texts that were to be examined (2012). The effectiveness of the texts' communication rather than their content was emphasised on teachers. So, how did the stories hold your attention? How convincing were the arguments in the texts? The instructors used a digital environment to grade the assignments before and after the exam; the majority of the teachers completed the assignment (pretest: 80 percent ;posttest: 84 percent).

Additional evaluations were made by a jury of seven experienced raters, much like instructors did. It was clear that the jury's evaluations were reliable (pretest:.90, posttest:.91) and that the outcomes were consistent. This was followed by a comparison of the teachers' evaluations with the overall jury rating for each text (correlations). The jury's average score and the teacher's average score were found to be highly correlated, which was interpreted as a measure of proficiency in text evaluation.

3.6 Implementation

This study's fidelity measurements serve two functions. Initial steps include determining if the writing programme was administered correctly by instructors and, if so, if it had an effect on students' writing skills. The second reason is that they can explain how the study's outcomes may have been affected by differences in the execution of the programme. (O'Donnell, 2008; O'Donnell, 2008; Kretlow& Bartholomew, 2010).

To determine faithfulness, O'Donnell (2008) provided five criteria: the following There were a number of factors to consider, including how many lessons were implemented, how well the intervention components were delivered, and how much of an impact they had. Program quality (how well do teachers present the programme?) The quality of the program's response from its participants (how actively do students and teachers interact with its content?) During the time that the programme is being executed, important aspects of the intervention condition(s) are present in those circumstances, but not in the control condition.

Each of the five characteristics was measured in a variety of methods. We tallied the teachers' total number of writing lessons to determine the course's overall length. In the interview, instructors in the control condition supplied the information that led to this conclusion. We used the number of lessons taught by each teacher in the intervention conditions as a threshold when interviewing and logging the intervention teachers about the writing programme lessons they taught. Teachers in both the WP and PD conditions were evaluated on their adherence to the writing program's main principles, such as whether they taught writing strategies and models the writing process when it was recommended in the lesson manual.. We may deduce that teachers are worried about the success of their lectures if they question themselves if their lesson has achieved its aim, which is a solid sign that they care about the efficacy of their courses. We monitored students' time on task behaviour throughout writing classes in order to get a sense of how they were responding. As part of the Program differentiation, we examined whether or whether the features of writing approach teaching were absent in the control group throughout the observed courses.

Aside from interviewing teachers about their opinions of the PD programme and coaching sessions, we also gathered data on their attendance rates at professional development meetings in order to determine whether or not it was a successful implementation.

3.7 Data collection

Over the course of one academic year, three separate measurements were conducted each instructor. There were a total of four visits to each class, with a visit to each class occurring twice on each date. From September through October of that academic year through January and February of the following year, data was collected for the pre- and post-tests (posttest).

Teachers' profiles were built starting in May of the preceding school year and were finalised at the end of that year's schooling.

Both the interviews and the class observation sessions were done by a group of highly trained research assistants and the original author. They were also responsible for assigning the writing tasks. The volunteers were all college students who worked together. The vast majority of them studied Dutch language, communication, psychology, or educational sciences in college. A half-day training session was held where participants learned about the study's goals, reviewed the interview guidelines, saw and discussed video segments of an interview, practised interviewing each other, and received instructions on how to transcribe the interviews. In order to have a better grasp of the process, they watched, coded, and discussed video segments of several lessons to practise keeping track of students' time spent on task. Tutors were also given a structure to follow while grading the tasks.

During or after their lunch break, teachers who participated in the study were interviewed.

It was requested that they sign the transcript of the interview; no modifications were made to the transcript at this time

3.8 Information gathering and analysis

We obtained data from both students and teachers (based on their writing performance) (classroom practices, beliefs and skills). Information is structured in a complex hierarchical structure. Measuring events and courses within students are classified as "classes within classes" (teachers). Because each student completed a large number of writing activities throughout each measurement, writing scores are nested both within and across individuals during each data collection. Because of this, in addition to inaccuracy, there are three sources of variance: variance between students, variance within courses, and variance among writing projects (see also Koster, Bouwer, & Van den Bergh, 2017).

Nine multilevel models were used to examine the effects of the comprehensive writing curriculum and the professional development programme on student writing. When creating these models, the hierarchical nature of the data was taken into mind. To begin, we used a null model that just included an intercept and the four components of variance: mean, standard deviation, correlation, and bias (model 1). With Model 2, we were able to look at

whether the average writing scores of students varied between the three testing sessions. Modifications to model 3 included the addition of grade, while model 4 included an interaction between grade and time of measurement that allowed for grade disparities to impact changes in time of measurement.

PD and WP conditions are also included in later models because to the effect of a thorough writing software. Initially, we examined whether the average writing scores differed between the two experimental conditions (WP and PD) and the control condition (C) for the two consecutive assessment times (model 5). Using this approach, a complete writing program's effect on pupils is projected to be equal at both the mid- and posttests. Model 6 relaxed this assumption by allowing the impact to fluctuate between the mid- and posttests. Model 7 helped us investigate if the influence of the complete writing curriculum changes by grade level.

An interaction between professional development and measurement was introduced in model 8 to investigate if there was any additional impact from training. It was also evaluated if there was a difference in the PD program's effect between the mid and post test periods (model 9).

The -2 log likelihood is a measure of how likely the models are to match the data. The distinct impacts were tested for significance using a likelihood ratio test (Snijders& Bosker, 1999). To account for the fact that the difference in -2 loglikelihood across the layered models is 2-distributed, this was done (Snijders& Bosker, 1999).

As an additional model, we examined how students' writing performance was affected by the number of writing programme lessons taught and the number of control lessons taught. We predicted that students' writing performance would improve as the number of lessons in the writing programme increased, but that the number of lessons in the control group would have minimal effect.

A multilevel analytic method was also used to examine data at the teacher level. We utilised a multilevel model to evaluate the effects of the writing programme and the extra effects of the professional development programme, which were nested inside instructors for each classroom practise, teacher belief, and competence.

4. Results

4.1 Implementation

We did not require the instructors to give a certain number of writing programme lessons in the intervention situations. Teaching as many courses as possible was encouraged, and teachers were allowed to modify the writing curriculum in accordance with the needs of their local area.

There were on average eleven units of two lessons (standard deviation = three) taught by intervention instructors, totaling twenty-two lessons. This is about half of what we gave away. T (21) = 3.43, p.05. On average, instructors in the PD condition taught 33% more lessons than teachers in the WP condition (M = 20, SD = 7) (M = 26, SD = 3) in the PD condition. A total of 24 writing lessons were reported by the instructors in the control condition throughout the current study (mean standard deviation = 14).

A midtest observation found that seventy-five percent of interventionists taught a certain writing method as advised in the lesson plan; at the posttest, ninety-six percent of those same instructors were found to be teaching the same strategy. 73% of instructors in the intervention circumstances were seen during the observation period modelling the writing process in accordance with the lesson manual. A new approach was typically presented in the context of a modelling lesson. Because all methods were presented in the second unit of each genre, modelling was discouraged at the conclusion of the year (see section 3.3.2). As a result, the posttest's implementation report excludes it from consideration.

Most instructors (91%) reported verifying whether their lesson had accomplished its purpose, and teachers in the intervention conditions did so substantially more often at the posttest than teachers in the control condition, F2 = 4,186 p =.022 (WP: M=1.00, SD = 0; PD: M=1.00, SD = 0; C: M=.75, SD =.45). In addition, we found that 91% of instructors said they checked to see if their

Their interest for quality and efficacy of lectures was evident by them constantly taking the time to evaluate whether or not their presentation was effective. For example, students spent 92% of their time on task in intervention circumstances at the midterm and 88% in the posttest, indicating that they were sensitive to the comprehensive writing programme.

Teachers in the intervention conditions were found to be substantially more likely than those in the control group to be seen teaching writing skills, F (2, 82) = 6,275, p =.003 (WP: M =.59, SD =.50; PD: M =.68, SD =.48; C: M =.26, SD =.45) when it comes to programme differentiation

Finally, the PD programme was regarded to be a success after its execution. Five of the six sessions were attended by teachers, with a standard deviation of.94 (range: three to six). Everyone attended the first meeting (kick-off). Professional development programmes and one-on-one coaching were evaluated by instructors on a 5-point scale (1: very dissatisfied, 5: very satisfied). It was shown that on average, participants were satisfied with both the PD programme (M = 4.6) and the coaching (M = 3.9) they received.

4.2 Effects on pupils' ability to write in the classroom

To assess whether or not the WP plus PD condition was more successful than normal writing instruction and whether or not the professional development programme (PD condition) had an extra impact, nine multilevel models were investigated. A likelihood ratio test was used to determine which model was the most appropriate. Model fit and comparisons are depicted in Table 4.

Table 4 shows that student writing performance fluctuated between the pretest, midtest, and posttest for model 2, showing that model 2 outperformed model 1. The concept was further strengthened by the inclusion of a grade (model 3 over model 1).

2) The scores vary from grade to grade, as one might anticipate. Using model 4 and model 3, an interaction between grade and measurement occasion did not enhance the model fit, showing that the disparities across measurement occasions were not different among grades in this study.

Table 4: Fit of Multilevel Models of Students' Writing Performance. Factors: Measurement Occasion, Grade, Writing Program and Professional Development Program

			Comparison			
Model	Nparameters	-2 LL	Models	ΔX^2	Δdf	p
1: null	5	53470.26				
2: + MO	7	53440.87	2 vs 1	29.39	2	< .001
3: + Grade	9	53357.88	3 vs 2	82.99	2	< .001
4: + Grade*MO	13	53350.50	4 vs 3	7.38	4	.290
5: M3 + WP*MO (2&3)	10	53347.04	5 vs 3	10.84	1	< .001
6: + WP*MO (3)	11	53346.95	6 vs 5	.09	1	.760
7: M5 + WP*Grade	12	53343.70	7 vs 5	3.34	2	.190
8: M5 + PD* MO (2&3)	11	53343.83	8 vs 5	3.21	1	.070
9: + PD* MO (3)	12	53343.81	9 vs 5	3.23	2	.200

Note: MO = measurement occasion; M3 = model 3; M5 = model 5; WP = writing program; PD = professional development program

Researchers found that introducing an interaction between the writing software's use (in both WP and PD circumstances) and the measurement occasion significantly improved the best-fitting model they had so far created (model 5 versus model 3). A comprehensive writing programme had a positive effect on student writing performance at both the midpoint and the conclusion of the trial, compared to students who received regular writing instruction. the effect was indistinguishable between the two measurements (model 6 versus model 5). As with model 5, model 7 did not benefit from the addition of an interaction between the writing programme and grade, demonstrating that the program's impact on students in grades 4, 5, and 6 is the same.

The PD programme had no negative consequences, as far as we could see. Interactions between PD condition and measurement occasion were not statistically significant in our best-fitting model so far (model 8 against model 5), even when we differentiate between the PD program's mid- and posttest impacts (model 9 versus model 5). Rather of presenting projected combined outcomes for WP and PD, we'll instead provide you estimates for all three intervention conditions taken together.

Overall, model 5 has the best accuracy. Student writing performance may be estimated for each measuring occasion and for different grades using this model. It also assesses the overall

impact of a complete writing curriculum on student performance. There are average writing scores and variations on the following page based on model 5.

Table 5. Students' Average Writing Scores and Variances Estimated under Model 5 per Measurement Occasion (SE: Standard Error)

	Pretest		Midtest		Posttest	
Factors	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*
Fixed effects						
Control condition, Grade 5	91.29	.96	87.91	1.18	92.19	1.13
Δ Grade 4	-7.65	1.07	-7.65	1.07	-7.65	1.07
Δ Grade 6	6.75	1.18	6.75	1.18	6.75	1.18
Δ Writing program			4.10	1.22	4.10	1.22
Variance components						
S^2 (tasks)	29.39	3.14				
S^2 (students)	72.35	4.17				
S^2 (classes)	9.23	3.81				
S^2 (residual)	126.05	2.43				

Writing scores for fifth-grade students were 91.29 points on the control condition's pretest (Table 5). While fourth-graders scored 7.65 points worse on text quality than fifth-graders did, sixth-graders scored 6.75 points higher on writing quality than their fifth-grade counterparts had on average. When students in Grade 5 in the control condition saw a decline in their average writing score from 88.91 to 87.91 because of the new set of tasks utilised at measurement occasion 2, it is likely that the influence of measurement occasion (Model 2) is focused at the midtest. There was no statistical significance in determining that the influence of grade changes with time since the interaction between grade and measurement occasion was found to be insignificant.

Comprehensive writing programme had the most substantial impact, with a score of 4.10 (standard error = 1.22). There was a 92.01 mean midtest writing score (87.99 + 4.10), and a 96.29 mean posttest writing score (92.19 + 4.10) for students in the intervention group. It takes the writing programme about half as long to have an impact as a grade does, or around six months in total.

Teachers in the intervention and control conditions were found to differ considerably in the number of writing lessons they were teaching (see section 4.1 Implementation). When examining whether the success of a comprehensive writing programme depends on the total number of lessons taught, we updated Model 5 to add fixed effects for the total number of lessons given under both experimental and control conditions. As assessed by 2 = 8.61; df = 2; p =.01, the model fit improved significantly. Writing lessons had no influence on students' texts in the control condition (=.02; SE =.14), but each unit of the comprehensive writing programme taught boosted students' average writing score by.71 points (SE =.28), which is nearly one tenth of a grade. As a result, each additional lesson presented enhances the total impact of the writing programme.

For example, a total of 15% difference in tasks, 7% difference in pupils (within the same school), and 70% difference in teachers could be explained by the null and final model estimates. As a result, while most of the variation may be attributed to the teacher, virtually all of the fluctuation among students is still a mystery. Although this isn't a surprise, given the model's lack of knowledge on the pupils' characteristics, it isn't.

A complete writing curriculum proved to be more successful in improving students' ability to write, according to the findings of this study In comparison to the control condition, where the number of lessons given had no effect, students' writing proficiency improved the more writing programmes were taught. A second effect of the professional development programme on students' writing skills could not be demonstrated in this study.

Teachers' educational methods may suffer as a result.

We looked at how the complete writing programme affected teachers' classroom practises in various domains (communicative writing, process writing, and writing strategy instruction), as well as the features of high-quality writing instruction (teaching learning strategies, differentiating, and promoting active learning). It was also found that the amount of time students spent involved in instructional activities or learning tasks was correlated with the amount of time they spent engaged in such activities.

Each classroom practise was given its own multilevel model, with observations built on top of observations made by the instructors themselves. After investigating, it became clear that the PD programme had not made a significant impact on the student writers' performance

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models. Instead of publishing the results from WP and PD alone, we integrate the information. Writing strategies, such as communicative writing and process writing, were included in the sessions that instructors conducted at the start and end of semester, as seen in Table 6.

Table 6: Percentage of Teachers who used Communicative Writing, Process Writing and Writing Strategy Instruction per Condition at Pretest and Posttest

		Intervention		Control	
Features of three approaches of teaching writing	Source	Pretest %	Posttest %	Pretest %	Posttest %
Communicative writing					
Goal directedness is mentioned while discussing text quality[a]	Interviews		89	25	75
Feedback on goal directedness	Observations	33	17	38	23
Audience awareness is mentioned while discussing text quality	Interviews	15	33	19	19
Feedback on audience awareness	Observations	37	17	38	15
Students' texts are read aloud	Interviews	89	89	87	63
Students' texts are published	Interviews	69	76	79	64
awareness					
Students' texts are read aloud	Interviews	89	89	87	63
Students' texts are published	Interviews	69	76	79	64
Process writing					
Generating ideas	Observations	85	70	87	73
Organizing ideas	Observations	63	70	56	47
Revising texts	Interviews	58	59	36	31
Writing strategy instruction					
Teaching writing strategies[b c]	Observations	30	85	50	20
Modeling the writing process	Observations	44	41	50	27

[a]: significant effect of measurement occasion
[b]: significant condition effect
[c]: significant interaction effect of condition x measurement occasion

Writing that has the goal of conveying information to the reader. less than half of instructors mentioned goal-directedness as a trait in their pre-test interview (Table 6). This year's emphasis on goal-directedness has grown greatly in both relevance and impact. One-fifth of the professors emphasised the significance of students' comprehension of their audience in their lessons. Only a few professors were found to provide formative feedback to students on their texts' goal-directedness and audience awareness. According to the instructors who replied to the study, almost 80 percent of the students' texts were read aloud in the classroom. Additionally, student writing was published in some form in the vast majority of schools.

A meaningful influence of the comprehensive writing programme on communicative writing practises could not be proved since no statistically significant interactions (condition x measurement occasion) were found. Affirmations (see Appendix C for statistics).

Writing takes time and effort. The vast majority of educators emphasised the importance of brainstorming with students before they began writing projects (Table 6). Most teachers taught their students to organise their thoughts before writing as a prewriting exercise. Researchers found that a small majority of instructors in the intervention conditions and a third of teachers in the control conditions used the strategy of having students revise their written work. Writing activities were not affected by the use of a complete writing software (see Appendix C).

Writing a strategy is taught in this course While instructors in the intervention groups taught writing approaches more frequently at posttest, the percentage of teachers who taught writing strategies less frequently declined in the control condition (Table 6). F (1, 81) = 14.05 and a p-value of.0001 indicated that this interaction effect was statistically significant. This interaction between condition and measurement occasion is statistically significant even when Bonferroni corrections are taken into account (against a critical p-value of .005). Teachers were seen teaching their pupils about the writing process. Modeling revealed no changes that were statistically significant.

The best training available. Means and standard deviations for three aspects of high-quality education may be found on this page.

During the pre-test, on average, instructors reported that they used learning approaches in their classes. When comparing pre- and post-intervention results, we found that the mean

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score rose the most in the posttest. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant interaction between the conditions and the measurement event. The instructors who responded to the survey also said that they differentiated their teachings at times. Students were also encouraged to participate in active learning, according to teachers. The mean score went up significantly on the post-test.

For high-quality training, no significant interactions between intervention conditions and testing dates were found (see Appendix C). The writing curriculum as a whole had no statistically significant impact on these traits.

Engagement. Table 8 shows the averages and standard deviations of students' work time. More than 90 percent of pupils spent time on task each day during the school year. Findings reveal that intervention had no influence on students' participation in writing classes (F (2, 80) = 3.04; p =.05.

It is safe to say that the entire writing programme had a major positive impact on the quantity of writing approaches instructors taught in their classrooms. But there was no substantial impact on communicative writing, processes, teaching learning strategies and differentiating. Moreover the degree of student involvement was not significantly affected.

Table 7: Aspects of High-Quality Instruction per Condition at Pretest and Posttest (1: never; 5: always)

Types of High Quality Instruction	Intervention				Control			
	Pretest		Posttest		Pretest		Posttest	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Teaching learning strategies [a b]	3.39	.65	3.82	.38	3.18	.65	3.41	.71
Differentiating	3.03	.59	3.21	.56	3.14	.84	3.10	.77
Promoting active learning [a b]	3.80	.46	4.03	.29	3.62	.41	3.72	.41

[a]: significant effect of measurement occasion

[b]: significant condition effect

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Table 8: Students' Time on Task per Condition per Measurement Occasion

Measurement Occasions	Intervention		Control	
	M %	SD	M %	SD
Pretest	89	10	85	12
Midtest	92	7	94	5
Posttest	88	9	94	6

4.4 Effects on teachers' beliefs

Table 9: Teachers' Beliefs per Condition at Pretest and Posttest

	Intervention				Control			
	Pretest		Posttest		Pretest		Posttest	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Writing beliefs								
Writing as transmission	2.30	.50	2.15	.52	2.19	.57	2.27	.73
Writing as transaction	3.77	.33	3.76	.27	3.59	.52	3.67	.52
Writing instruction beliefs								
Correct writing	2.90	.60	2.73	.57	2.91	.53	3.02	.51
Explicit instruction	4.18	.35	4.19	.39	4.16	.38	4.28	.45
Natural learning	4.19	.41	4.42	.42	4.13	.36	4.13	.33
Efficacy beliefs								
Personal teaching efficacy	3.43	.39	3.60	.39	3.47	.39	3.51	.46
General teaching efficacy	3.39	.45	3.34	.52	3.52	.66	3.55	.48

Efficacy in teaching learning strategies[abc]	3.01	.71	3.70	.52	2.83	.65	3.10	.79
Efficacy in differentiating	2.81	.62	3.11	.58	2.86	.80	2.89	.87
Efficacy in promoting active learning[a]	3.49	.52	3.89	.26	3.41	.62	3.66	.60

Writing (instruction) beliefs scales: 1: totally disagree, 5: totally agree
Personal and General teaching efficacy: 1: totally disagree, 5: totally agree
Efficacy scales: 1: not good at all, 5: very good
[a]: significant effect of measurement occasion
[b]: significant condition effect
[c]: significant interaction effect of condition x measurement occasion

We examined the influence of the comprehensive writing curriculum on eleven different teacher beliefs (see Table 9). A unique multi-level model was developed to represent each instructor's unique set of beliefs and values. Because the PD programme had only a little impact on the models, the results from all of the intervention conditions are summarised together in this report.

There are averages and standard deviations for the teachers' beliefs in Table 9. In general, teachers' transmissional beliefs were low, but their transactional beliefs were on the whole much higher. However, teachers did place a high value on clear instruction and unstructured learning opportunities, even if they did not agree on the necessity of effective writing. Throughout the year, their confidence in their abilities to teach writing strengthened. At the conclusion of the year, teachers felt more confident in their capacity to support active learning, believing that they were the best at it. According to the average efficacy in differentiating ratings, teachers tend to have some doubts about their ability to discriminate throughout writing courses.

Interaction between condition and measuring occasion ($F(1, 42) = 4.45$; $p = .04$) was found to have a significant effect on instructional learning techniques. Teaching learning skills was more successful for instructors in the intervention group than for teachers in the control group, according to post-test results Because of the writing programme, teachers were able to more effectively teach learning processes to students. There was no statistically significant interaction between condition and measurement occasion for either the writing beliefs or the writing instruction beliefs (see Appendix C).

A statistically significant favourable impact on instructors' efficacy in teaching learning techniques was found, but not on other efficacy beliefs to teach writing, or on any other attitudes regarding the practise of pedagogy. A careful approach is necessary because of the numerous comparisons that were made. Instructor effectiveness in teaching learning strategies is not significantly affected by multiple comparisons (Bonferroni correction) when multiple comparisons are taken into consideration.

4.5 Implications for teachers' abilities

Table 10: Teachers' Skills per Condition per Measurement Occasion

Intervention						
Teacher skills	Pretest		Midtest		Posttest	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	*SD*
Text assessment	.65	.11			.65	.15
Reflection on lessons	.80	.21	.81	.20	.95	.14
Adaptation of lessons to context	.10	.19	.11	.18	.10	.31
Control						
Text assessment	.61	.10			.68	.11
Reflection on lessons	.79	.22	.82	.21	.80	.26
Adaptation of lessons to context	.08	.19	.01	.05	.08	.29

Text assessment scale: 0: no correlation with the jury - 1: perfect correlation;
Reflection on lessons: 0: never - 1: always
Adaptation of lessons to context: 0: never - 1: always

Multilevel models for each skill were built independently. However, because there was no significant impact of this programme, we will provide data from all three intervention conditions together. Contribution made by the PD Program Figures in Table 10 depict the means and standard deviations of many aspects of a teacher's abilities.

An average correlation coefficient of 0.65 related instructors' text evaluation skills to the jury, and this association remained constant across all situations and occasions of measurement. The monitoring and analysis of writing sessions by teachers was frequent under all conditions, but instructors seldom adapted their writing lessons to the unique setting in which they were taught.

We found no statistically significant interaction effects between the professional development condition and the testing occasion for teacher competencies. For this reason there may be no statistically meaningful impact on instructors' abilities from the professional development programme.

It was determined that a complete writing programme, along with professional development for teachers, had the most positive impact on students' performance, teachers' classroom practises, and teachers' views and abilities in the area of upper-grades writing teaching. It was our intention to create and evaluate a long-term, comprehensive writing programme that would enhance both the teaching of writing and the writing skills of students by combining previously proven strategies for strategy instruction, such as communicative and process-oriented approaches, and then evaluating the results (e.g., Koster et al., 2015; Graham &Perin, 2007; Graham et al., 2012). There were several reasons for doing this study in a typical classroom, including the goal of improving students' writing skills and modifying teachers' instructional practises. It was up to instructors who participated to choose how quickly and intensely they absorbed the available materials and to tailor the curriculum to their requirements and local context. The complete writing program's implementation metrics indicated that on average, teachers taught 22 lessons, or nearly half of what the programme offered. The majority of teachers committed to the program's fundamental ideas.

Although the complete writing programme was shown to be superior to the more traditional methods of writing teaching (ES =.27), the number of lessons taught had an effect on the program's efficacy. According to Bouwer et al. (2016), who did a research under same conditions and in the same location, these findings are comparable to theirs (ES = 0.32). There were substantially larger average impact sizes of 1.02 (Graham et al., 2012) and.96 for writing skill instruction in elementary school, according to meta-analyses of writing intervention studies (Graham and colleagues, 2013). (Koster and colleagues, 2015). Different impact sizes point to two problems in estimating impact sizes.

To begin with, the topic of how to measure writing performance must be addressed. For each assessment occasion, we followed the advice of Bouwer et al. (2016) and administered multiple writing tasks to each student so that we could more accurately measure their unique writing abilities. Writing-related variation is included into the explained variance, which

implies that the error component is reduced as a result of this development. In contrast, the bulk of writing intervention studies simply examined students' abilities to complete a particular type of writing assignment. As a result of our work modelling the many components of variation, we have been able to quantify the role that writing assignments play in explaining variance. As a result, we simulate what the impact size would have been if we had only one task each time we measured students' writing performance: the effect size would have doubled if we did not account for the variation caused by tasks in the first place. Since this measurement issue allows for a more exact calculation of the error components, it affects the effect magnitude. As a result, comparing research in terms of impact magnitude without taking into account the measurement issue is difficult.

In addition, the comparison of impact sizes does not take into account the objectives and conditions of the study. Many intervention research on writing strategy training have been included in meta-analyses, the bulk of which were classified as studies on self-regulated strategy development (SSD) (SRSD). Learners are only finished with training when they are able to successfully implement the method they have been taught (Harris & Graham, 2009). On the other hand, time restraints in the classroom have limited the scope of the current research project. Writing skills were taught in regular classes, with teachers allowed to decide how many sessions they wanted to teach each week. In line with our goals, which were to improve writing skills and writing practises in a realistic setting, we were able to do just that. This leads to a reduced effect and higher variation in implementation in uncontrolled studies, but the results are still typical of what can be accomplished in regular classrooms.

One of the most important goals of the intervention was to affect the behaviour of teachers in the classroom. ' A combination of communicative, process, and strategy education were all incorporated into the curriculum for the writing department at the university. Teachers and students both grew in their ability to use writing method strategies after using this curriculum, according to our findings. On the other hand, we found that using the writing programme had no significant effect on either communication or process writing. We also didn't find a correlation between student engagement, instructor teaching methods, differentiation, or active learning strategies, among other factors, on test scores. During the pretest, students spent a lot of time on task and teachers promoted a lot of active learning, thus it was tough to

improve on these factors. If instructors who introduced a complete writing programme did not differentiate considerably more frequently than those who offered ordinary writing instruction, this might be the reason for the results seen. One of the most challenging aspects of teaching is learning to differentiate between students (Van de Grift, 2014; Kyriakides, Creemers, & Antoniou, 2009). While implementing a new curriculum, most teachers will find it difficult to differentiate their teaching.

Due to the fact that the writing programme we tested was so complete, we weren't able to pinpoint which aspects contributed the most to its efficacy. A considerable increase in instructors' writing strategy practise and no significant changes in other classroom practises indicate that writing strategy training may have had a role in students' better writing performance following the adoption of the programme. 2 We found a statistically significant correlation between instructors' writing approach practise and students' writing performance2 (r =.38, p.05) at the posttest. Many research have shown that writing method instruction may be effective in the classroom (e.g. Graham &Perin, 2007; Graham et al., 2012; Koster et al., 2015).

Teacher effectiveness was significantly higher at the posttest for teachers who used the complete writing programme than at the pretest, similar with findings from a prior study. Researchers have observed that teachers' beliefs about literacy instruction are linked to the classroom practises they engage in, and this is supported by teachers' strategy-practice and effectiveness beliefs (e.g., Gaitas& Alves Martins, 2015; Lipson, Mosenthal, Daniels, & Woodside-Jiron, 2000; Troia, Lin, Cohen, & Monroe, 2011).

We were surprised to see that the professional development programme had no direct impact on the outcomes we were looking for. In spite of this, there was no reason to infer that the length or intensity of the professional development programme had not been enough. There were at least 20 hours of contact in our programme to meet Desimone's recommendation for professional development activities based on previous studies. There were also no indications that the overall quality of the programme was substandard. According to Section 4.1, the vast majority of instructors claimed that they learned a lot from the professional development workshops.

Our inability to identify any extra effect of a supplemental professional development programme on the outcome measures may be due to the small number of participants in this trial, which had just 11 instructors in this condition. Although the PD programme had a high capacity to identify major impacts at the student level, it is probable that this limited the ability to detect substantial effects. PD has an indirect effect on the human body, though. As a result of participating in the professional development programme, teachers were able to increase the number of writing programme classes they were able to provide by a significant amount. PD participants taught an additional three units of instruction on average, a gain of 29%, and we identified an effect of.71 points per unit taught, or about one tenth of an influence on grade. This impact might have been brought on by the PD training itself: There may have had an easier time implementing the lessons in the PD condition compared to the WP condition since they had received more guidance on how to do so (kick-off session, teacher manual). Another possibility is that the teachers in question are more committed to their charges. Teachers that take part in professional development programmes have been shown to be more devoted to innovation, according to Desimone (2009; several research back this up). Teachers may have felt more committed to offering additional writing classes as a consequence of their involvement with trainers, researchers, and other educators during their time in professional development. Furthermore, the fact that six instructors originally assigned to the PD condition requested to be changed to the WP condition may be suggestive of the stronger devotion displayed by teachers in the PD condition.

5.1 Strengths

In our opinion, this study has four key benefits. First and foremost, we came up with a long-term, environmentally friendly solution. Every two weeks, the designers of the online reading comprehension tool put the writing lessons into the programme, providing them the opportunity to continually enhance their appearance and content. Teachers can also take advantage of a professional development programme spin-off in addition to the classes offered. So that instructors in Holland can still benefit from the writing curriculum and professional development programme established as part of this project (albeit in a more condensed form).

It was also unsuccessfully attempted to analyse the usefulness of a writing curriculum and its accompanying professional growth, but we were unsuccessful in this endeavour. The effectiveness of a writing programme (e.g., Bouwer and colleagues, 2016) or the success of a professional development programme related to a writing strategy intervention was the focus of other research on writing strategy interventions (e.g., Bouwer et al., 2016). Examples include Festas and Oliveira; Harris; Lane; Graham and Adkins; Koster et al. (2017; Festas and Oliveira 2015).

In addition, Bouwer et al. point out that the findings may be generalised, which is a strength (2016). Students' writing performance was assessed using a variety of various genres of writing assignments, and the effect sizes obtained might be used to a wide range of future classes, students, and writing projects. As a result, more accurate estimations of the extent of the effect are possible.

Studying the influence of an intervention on students' writing, classroom practises and teachers' views and competence in a fourth area was the focus of this study The only element considered in earlier strategy intervention studies was the impact on students' writing performance. For the reasons stated above, it is important to investigate the effects of an intervention on teachers' beliefs, skills, as well as their classroom practises on students' writing performance. (e.g., Rietdijk et al. in press; Gaitas& Alves Martins, 2015; Lipson et al., 2000; Lipson, Mosenthal et al., 2000; Troia, Lin, Cohen; and Monroe, 2011).

5.2 Research in the future

It's crucial to discover what helped students learn to enhance their writing more than they would have learned in control courses once we know that each extra lesson of the comprehensive writing programme helped contribute to the program's efficacy. It would be good to do more in-depth studies on the processes and outcomes associated with learning and the learning process itself. A lot is known about writing, but very little is known about how to learn to write. In addition to giving context, other output measurements may also be valuable. We now know that pupils in the experimental condition learnt to write better texts than those in the control condition. Additionally, we know that teachers re-taught children how to write more frequently than they had previously. Finding out what students know and how they

apply the strategies they know might have provided helpful information regarding the study's outcomes.

Professional development and instructional materials have no influence on classroom practise except for extending class time. In the future, researchers might investigate the influence of the professional development programme on teachers' classroom practises in their various subject areas. Study participants' writing abilities were examined before and after the study to see if any instructional components for communicative, process, and strategic writing education existed. Teaching effectiveness is measured by the frequency with which certain instructional practises are used (Kyriakides et al., 2009). Kyriakides et al. (2009) stress the need of analysing both the amount and quality of instructional activities when determining educational effectiveness in their dynamic model of educational efficiency. However, the number of times an activity is done does not account for the fact that the method in which it works may change from student to student (Kyriakides et al., 2009). It's possible that in both circumstances, we saw the same amount of instructional behaviours, but the PD condition may have been better integrated and organised, as demonstrated in this study.

A year later, the present study examined the effects of the intervention. Teachers who utilise writing software for a longer period of time should be studied in future studies. It is expected that the second year of implementation of a complete writing programme will be more successful since teachers will have a better understanding of its structure and concepts, and it is anticipated that they will have honed their abilities in the first year (e.g., modelling of writing strategies, differentiating). They may also be able to give more lessons in less time because of their reduced preparation time. It's also possible that the programme loses its novelty in the second year, which might lead to a decrease in the amount of time and effort put into lesson preparation. To some extent, we may anticipate kids to be more comfortable with the writing programme as they go through grade levels because they have had more practise, but we can also expect them to be less motivated since they are no longer in an environment that requires them to put out their best effort.

5.3 Conclusions

As a result of a well-rounded writing curriculum that includes communicative writing, the writing process, and teaching methods, students in Dutch primary schools in grades 4–6

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showed better writing skills, while also seeing an uptick in their instructors' use of teaching tactics. It was found that as the number of classes increased, so did the improvement in writing abilities among the students who took part.

Supplemental professional development did not benefit student writing or classroom practises, but instructors in the PD condition did deliver much more writing programme lessons than teachers in the WP condition. Teachers in the PD condition. To put it another way, the professional development programme had an indirect impact on student writing.

Notes

1. “A combination of grades is quite common in Dutch elementary schools. These combination classes are usually formed because of the small number of students per grade, or for pedagogical reasons.”

2. “We calculated a residual score per teacher, i.e. the extent to which a teacher deviated from the mean.”

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Appendix A: Example of a genre-specific writing strategy

A strategy for writing descriptive texts

A descriptive text states what an object, person or place looks like. The text contains a description of parts or qualities, but should also provide an overall impression of the object, person or place described. The communicative goal of descriptive texts is to inform.

We developed the BEVERS strategy (Dutch for BEAVERS) to help students write good descriptions. This strategy is a modified version of the IAPN planning strategy developed by Kirkpatrick and Klein (2009) for writing compare-contrast reports, in which IAPN stands for Information, Aspect, Paragraph, and Number (or sequence of the information in the text).

The strategy steps were:

1. Observe the object: what strikes you the most? Make a note of this (BE)

2. Compare the object to other objects of the same kind: in what ways is this object different? Write down the differences (VER).

3. Order your findings in a schematic outline (S).

Example of a schematic outline:

What I noticed about the object:	*This says something about*	*This will be the order in my text*
The object is white	Colour	3
It is much larger than other objects	Size	1
It is round	Shape	2
….	…..	4

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Appendix B: Reliability of the questionnaires

	Cronbach's alpha (α)		
	Pretest	Posttest	Number of items deleted
Beliefs about writing			
- Writing as transmission	.69	.70	4
- Writing as transaction	.78	.70	3
Beliefs about writing instruction			
- Correct writing	.68	.68	1
- Explicit instruction	.66	.63	2
- Natural learning	.61	.68	3
Efficacy beliefs in teaching writing			
- Personal teaching efficacy	.62	.67	4
- General teaching efficacy	.71	.64	2
Efficacy in providing high-quality instruction			
- Efficacy in teaching learning strategies	.83	.86	1
- Efficacy in differentiating	.88	.88	0
- Efficacy in promoting active learning	.85	.76	4
Providing high-quality instruction			
- Teaching learning strategies	.85	.81	0
- Differentiating	.87	.85	0
- Promoting active learning	.84	.80	0

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Appendix C: Statistics

Table C1: *Significance Values of Communicative Writing Analyses*

Variable	*df*	*F*	*p*
Goal directedness is mentioned while discussing text quality			
measurement occasion	1, 82	17.53	<.001*
condition	1, 82	2.37	.13
condition x measurement occasion	1, 82	.01	.94
Feedback on goal directedness			
measurement occasion	1, 75	2.14	.15
condition	1, 75	.23	.63
condition x measurement occasion	1, 75	.02	.88
Audience awareness is mentioned while discussing text quality			
measurement occasion	1, 82	.87	.35
condition	1, 82	.18	.67
condition x measurement occasion	1, 82	.87	.35
Feedback on audience awareness			
measurement occasion	1, 75	3.74	.06
condition	1, 75	.01	.91
condition x measurement occasion	1, 75	.02	.89
Students' texts are read aloud			
measurement occasion	1, 82	1.30	.26
condition	1, 82	1.80	.18
condition x measurement occasion	1, 82	1.30	.26
Students' texts are published			
measurement occasion	1, 75	.10	.75
condition	1, 75	.01	.94
condition x measurement occasion	1, 75	.88	.35

* significant at the 0.05 level

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Table C2: Significance Values of Process Writing Analyses

Variable	*df*	*F*	*p*
Generating ideas			
measurement occasion	1, 81	.08	.13
condition	1, 81	2.40	.77
condition x measurement occasion	1, 81	.002	.97
Organizing ideas			
measurement occasion	1, 81	.002	.96
condition	1, 81	1.74	.19
condition x measurement occasion	1, 81	.60	.44
Revising texts			
measurement occasion	1, 74	.01	.92
condition	1, 74	3.65	.06
condition x measurement occasion	1, 74	.03	.87

Table C3: Significance Values of Writing Strategy Instruction Analyses

Variable	*df*	*F*	*p*
Teaching writing strategies			
measurement occasion	1, 81	1.33	.25
condition	1, 81	4.43	.04*
condition x measurement occasion	1, 81	14.05	.001*
Modeling the writing process			
measurement occasion	1, 81	1.53	.22
condition	1, 81	.14	.71
condition x measurement occasion	1, 81	.84	.36

* significant at the 0.05 level

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Table C4: Significance Values of High Quality Instruction Analyses

Variable	*df*	*F*	*p*
Teaching learning strategies			
measurement occasion	1, 41	8.88	.01*
condition	1, 42	4.17	.05*
condition x measurement occasion	1, 41	.85	.36
Differentiating			
measurement occasion	1, 42	.58	.45
condition	1, 43	.004	.95
condition x measurement occasion	1, 42	1.34	.25
Promoting active learning			
measurement occasion	1, 43	5.43	.03*
condition	1, 43	6.05	.02*
condition x measurement occasion	1, 43	.93	.34

* Significant at the 0.05 level

Table C6: Significance Values of Teacher Skills Analyses

Variable	*df*	*F*	*p*
Text assessment			
measurement occasion	1, 38	.50	.49
condition	2, 39	.84	.44
condition x measurement occasion	2, 38	2.56	.09
Reflecting on lessons			
measurement occasion	2, 71	2.89	.06
condition	2, 37	.61	.55
condition x measurement occasion	4, 71	1.90	.12
Adapting of lessons to context			
measurement occasion	2, 68	.06	.95
condition	2, 33	.46	.64
condition x measurement occasion	4, 68	.26	.90

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Table C5: Significance Values of Teacher Beliefs Analyses

Variable	*df*	*F*	*p*
Writing as transmission			
measurement occasion	1, 41	.02	.90
condition	1, 42	.003	.95
condition x measurement occasion	1, 41	1.75	.19
Writing as transaction			
measurement occasion	1, 42	1.37	.35
condition	1, 43	.90	.25
condition x measurement occasion	1, 42	.72	.40
Correct writing			
measurement occasion	1, 41	.02	.88
condition	1, 42	1.30	.26
condition x measurement occasion	1, 41	3.80	.06
Explicit instruction			
measurement occasion	1, 43	1.08	.31
condition	1, 44	.12	.73
condition x measurement occasion	1, 43	.69	.41
Natural learning			
measurement occasion	1, 43	2.62	.11
condition	1, 44	3.36	.07
condition x measurement occasion	1, 43	2.36	.13
Personal teaching efficacy			
measurement occasion	1, 43	2.46	.12
condition	1, 44	.05	.82
condition x measurement occasion	1, 43	.84	.36
General teaching efficacy			
measurement occasion	1, 41	.16	.69
condition	1, 42	1.02	.32
condition x measurement occasion	1, 41	.09	.77
Efficacy in teaching learning strategies			
measurement occasion	1, 42	19.28	<.001*
condition	1, 43	5.10	.03*
condition x measurement occasion	1, 42	4.45	.04*
Efficacy in differentiating			
measurement occasion	1, 43	2.41	.13
condition	1, 44	.19	.67
condition x measurement occasion	1, 43	1.34	.25
Efficacy in promoting active learning			
measurement occasion	1, 42	16.96	<.001*
condition	1, 43	1.33	.26
condition x measurement occasion	1, 42	.75	.39

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7

Writing Poetry in Social Context: A Literary Survey

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Abstract:

There has never before been an explanation for how students' poetry writing improves in comparison to other genres, and this is a new and unique phenomena. The cognitive theories of writing growth or the narratives of poet-practitioners or inspired specialists do not provide a clear picture of the complexity at play in poetry creativity. It's impossible to get a whole picture from any of these descriptions. Poetic training takes place in a community, which is conspicuously lacking from these images. Vygotsky's theory on the symbolic function of inner speech is connected to documented experiences of poets "answering" the social environments to which they belong. Poets' fluid social contexts are taken into account while developing a theoretical model of poetry writing development that incorporates data from Schultz and Fecho's study. New theories of writing development have been enriched by this new combination.

Keywords: Poetry, composition, writing development, social contexts, poetic writing”

1. Introduction

Poem writing development ideas are very new and infrequent in poetry when compared to other genres (Dymoke, 2003; Wilson, 2009). It is possible that the post-war period in Anglophone countries played a role in poetry's secure but diversified position in the curriculum. The cognitive models of writing development proposed by Hayes and Flower (1980), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), or Sharples (1999), as well as the descriptions of poet-practitioners or inspired experts (Hughes, 1967; Brownjohn, 1994; Pirrie, 1994; Rosen, 1998; Yates, 1999; 2015) do not adequately represent the complexity and distinct demands at play in poetry composition. Despite the fact that poetry is regarded to be one of the oldest literary forms, we should point out that the notion of growth in poetry writing is a relatively new concept in educational research literature (Dymoke, 2001, 2003: Wilson, 2005, 2009). Poetic training takes place in a community, which is conspicuously lacking from these images. Many resources are available for teaching poetry, but there is a lack of information on how to teach students how to think critically about their work.

It is the purpose of this research to provide a socially contextualised theoretical framework for poetry writing growth. Writing theory and the questions it poses for teachers, writers, and writing practitioners, such as their six propositions that writing development is: reflective of social historical contexts; reflective of individual and group differences; reflective of individual and group differences; and reflective of individual and group differences.

- “A characteristic that varies across different local settings”
- “Reflection of the curriculum and pedagogy in the classroom”
- “Social contacts have a significant impact on one's personality”
- “Associated with social identities”
- “The procedure was conceptualised as a nonlinear one”

The authors acknowledge that there is some overlap between these categories in their presentation, which is why they have included them as separate categories. Poetry writing was not intended to be a part of these categories. Nevertheless, we acknowledge that our original contributions are reliant on the addition of new functions to already-existing classifications. We may trace these premises back to a socially constructed viewpoint on learning and writing that recognises that information is inherently fluid, multifaceted, and

open to a wide range of interpretations (Scribner & Cole, 1981). As a result of research that backs up Vygotsky's (1978) theory that learning is mediated by language, tools, and more experienced peers, this approach was developed. Our assessment of poetry writing as a phenomenon that is contextualised in society is based on these principles.

Our hypothesised answer is based on an examination of relevant literature in the subject. It suggests new avenues of research that may be pursued. Poets who have been writing since childhood and instructors who mentor new teachers in elementary and secondary classes have a unique viewpoint to bring to the topic (ages 5 - 19). When it comes to teaching poetry in schools, we draw from our own study into writing processes and the placement of poetry in school curriculum.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 The distinctiveness of poetry

Poems are elusive to describe since they are difficult to nail down, but in order to understand the evolution of poetry writing, we must recognise the features that set them apart. Poets distinguish themselves from prose and theatrical literature by employing language in their creative processes. That doesn't mean poetry isn't capable of employing some of the same linguistic elements as other forms of writing, such as speech, but the way they are utilised in poetry sets it apart, making it more difficult for those who write it. Thus, poetry makes use of the fleeting nature of language to revive it as "memorable speech" (Auden and Garrett, 1935, page v) and set it apart from other forms of expression. [page needed for citation] Vygotsky described the transformation of a single word into "a concentrated clot of meaning" (Vygotsky 1962, p.275). Rather than entirely dissolving these Vygotskian clots, as Barrs argues, poetry's power lies in its ability to "enabling them to penetrate the inner speech of others and to unfold in the mind of the reader" (Barrs, 2016: 244). Seamus Heaney, perhaps repeating Vygotsky, claims that poetry "the rim of the silence out of which consciousness arrives and into which consciousness must descend" (the rim of the silence out of which consciousness arrives and into which consciousness must descend) (Heaney,1989, p.11). To build on Paul Valéry's idea of poetry as a "language within a language," poet Kenneth Koch says it's a "odd language" that may alter every time it's used correctly. Koch (Koch, 1998) calls poetry a "separate" or "odd language." According to official reports from the United

Kingdom, poets are characterised by the general public as "at the frontier of language" and poetry is viewed as "something rather odd...numinous" by the general public (DES, 1975, p.135).

Mathematical/scientific representations like "fuse" "microscope" and "distillation of experience" (Andrews 1991, p.42) convey the accurate, compacted nature of poetic language (Lorde, 1977, p. 36). Learning how to write (and read) in a condensed style that leaves no room for unnecessary words is a significant challenge for beginner writers. As a result of this, it may be concluded that poetry is a "complex code" that requires the reader or writer to make a "new effort of attention" (Auden, 1968, p. 82) in order to grasp it. For scholars, the term “poetry” means a “particularly refined enclosure of metaphoric activity” (Harrison & Gordon, 1983, p.272). There are several ways to include metaphor into a piece of writing to make it stand out, such as using it in conjunction with other language choices such as form.

Lineation and the free use of white space on the page separate poetry from other literary genres. Poetry can see the difference between what is meaningful and what isn't. Line breaks that disrupt the syntax can also bring unexpected new insights into a subject (Yates, 2007), whereas prose content functions more episodically or sequentially (Yates, 2007). The lineation of a poem generates rhythms, and the tone of the poem is shaped by these rhythms (Longenbach, 2017). This "correspondent paralleling of sense that is unlike anything that we experience in prose," according to Andrews (1991), entails an intentional use of rhythm within individual lines and the link between the rhythmic identity of each line and other lines in the same poem" (1991). On the other hand, Another need of the genre for its writers is the ability to strike a precise balance between individual lines, which this example demonstrates.

They have all been depicted as lonely persons who write in isolation while asking their muse to descend and participate in sensuous reverie, like Dante, John Keats, or Robert Graves. Our position is that pictures of poets should be avoided because they might discourage new authors from taking on the dangerous profession of writing poetry. Because we believe that they misrepresent the actual process by which poems are written, we have developed a theoretical model that acknowledges the shift towards seeing poetry composition as an organic, socially contextualised process in which poems can emerge from a wide range of inspirations and sources of influence. A "wild beast" that can never be confined by students'

efforts to contain poetry continues to elude many, even among poets themselves. (Stafford 1986, p.99) (Collins, 1988). In addition to distinguishing it from other works of literature, its enigmatic character might be perplexing to aspiring authors.

2.2 Inner speech

As a result of the revival of Vygotsky's (1962; 1978) work in the West, those interested in how children learn to use language, both oral and written, have used a lexicon as a framework to build and clarify their arguments over the years. There are expressions we now take for granted that Vygotsky coined, such as "internal speech" and "external speech" (1962). According to a new study on Vygotsky's inner speech theories (Barr, 2016), the poetic language of the work of Mandelshtam influenced Vygotsky when he created his hypothesis in the last chapter of Thought and Language regarding inner speech (Barrs, 2016, p. 243). Three elements of interior speech that Vygotsky noted that we feel are in harmony with poetry are the density of a word's sense above its meaning, the capacity for word combination to express complex concepts, and the way language gets saturated with sense (1962) in layers of meaning. (Barrs, 2016, p. 243). Such "concentrates of sense," as Barrs describes them, "need significant expansion before being represented orally" (2016, p. 243). Poetry, we argue, has all of these traits, to the degree where the form, language, and tone of a poem are all saturated with the substance of the poem in question. Poetry's significance cannot be separated from its other components; they are intertwined. Unlike other kinds of communication, poetry has a compacted aspect of expression, both in language and form. Figure 2 shows our concept of poetry writing growth, which holds that we must have a "inner dialogue with ourselves" before our inner speech may manifest itself as an outside poem (Barrs, 2016, p.246). As we argue, our model of poetry composition parallels and copies the discourse inherent in the social contexts in which poetry is created (Figure 2, below).

According to Bakhtin, language is "filled –overpopulated–with the intents of others," with the intents of others as compared to Vygotsky's thesis of saturated inner speech (1981: p. 294). We only begin to possess language in the Bakhtinian world, according to Cazden (1996) and Schultz and Fecho (2000), when we borrow it from others and assimilate it into our own. As a result of Schultz and Fecho's (2000) claim that the discourse of the writer's social environment "intermingles" with greater culture, our model assumes that the process of

learning to compose is itself a conversation. That which they refer to as this interchange of discourse is described by them as being in a "continuous state of being" (p. 53), rather than a finished product that is in the stage of renewal and actualization. "categorically dialogic," as Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur, and Prendergast (1997) put it, is a claim that is compatible with their assertion that all speech and writing are "categorically dialogic" (p. 14). Poets of all levels must realise that language and people don't exist in isolation, and this is critical to keep in mind when writing. Due to the fact that authors may exert influence over one another, as Bloom (1997) demonstrates, the possibility of this is built into the industry.

2.3 'The need to answer'

Our view of poetry writing as a social phenomena, which we term "poetry writing as social phenomenon." reflects the dynamic movement that poetry enacts between the planes of inner speech and oral speech. The implications of this paradigm are applied to the growth of poetry writing. We will argue that poetry writing is more social than has previously been recognised in the study literature, using historical examples of poets collaborating as well as empirical data to back up our claim. Language, like poets' assertions and beliefs about the form and function of poetry, is socially constructed: "even the poetic world is social," claim social constructivists of language (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 300). According to American poet Robert Pinsky, the poet resides in a broader social context and requires "not so much an audience as the feeling of a desire to respond" (Pinsky, 1988, p. 84). (p. 85, 1988). There is a lot of evidence that poets believe themselves to be functioning in a social environment, especially when it comes to relying on the companionship, support, and work of other poets for inspiration (Koch, 1996; Malamud Smith, 2012; O'Driscoll, 2008). As a result, poets' motivation to compose new poems is influenced in part by their interactions with other poets and other poems. These discussions have now been formalised into a type of canon, as scholars Brown and Schechter (2007) and Duffy (2001; 2007) have proven, with Collins's unofficial ideology: "Poems [...] cannot live alone any more than humans can" (Brown & Schechter, 2007, p. 15). To put it another way, we regard poetry writing as a completely social practise that is as dependent on the settings in which individuals write, such as their networks of connection and personal reading, as it is on the shifting motives and identities of those who write in Bakhtinian terms (Andrews & Smith, 2011).

2.4 Models of writing development

This study places our model of poetry writing development within the larger framework of writing and literacy as social practises (e.g., Barton and Ivani 1991; Dyson 2002, 2005; Cazden and colleagues 1996; Cazden, Cope, Fairclough, Gee et al. 1996; Kostouli 2009). To be explicit, relatively few scholars have previously explored poetry writing progress in general within these conceptualisations, with the exception of Schultz (2007), Andrews and Smith (2011), and Compton-Lily (2014). We believe poetry writing to be an encounter with "an intertextual world of texts and writing acts," rather than a solely literary endeavour, as Kostouli (2009) puts it (p. 99). Cazden et al. (1996) and Andrews and Smith (2011) found that the number of modalities of meaning making accessible to learners has expanded and become increasingly integrated. One of the genres we'd like to offer is poetry. There is little doubt that poets interact with previously written poems, and we recognise this (Kristeva, 1986; Bloom, 1997). According to Kristeva, the poetic field has "three dimensions of textual space" (writing topic, addressee, and outside texts) (p. 66). As a result, she downplays the relevance of both the author and the reader. Bloom, on the other hand, believes that "strong poets" intentionally misread their canonical predecessors "in order to clear imaginative space for themselves" (p. 5). It's possible to develop "anxiety of influence" as a result of these misunderstandings (p. xxiii). It does not, however, lessen the sensation of a poet's distinctive voice that is formed by and entwined with the work of other authors, nor does it weaken the idea of the lonely poet at work.

We have asserted that when it comes to the development of poetry writing skills, cognitive theories of writing development are lacking (Dymoke 2003; Wilson, 2009; 2010). Not that cognitive models of writing development (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987; Hayes and Flower, 1980; Kellogg, 1994; 2008) are inherently hostile to our ideas; rather, we wonder how appropriate the linearity of writing processes found in these and other models is for a theory of poetry writing development. Dymoke (2003) and Wilson (2010) have showed how "schemes for structuring a text" (1987, p. 302) may be used to debates of poetry creation, as poets produce poems to achieve their rhetorical purposes, as a consequence of the work of Sharples (1999), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), and others (Wilson, 2010). Furthermore, Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) concept of knowledge transformation, in which a text's

discourse and content impact one another, is comparable to Pinsky's (1988) model of how poets respond to the work and/or setting of another poet. According to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), a text's discourse and content interact. In contrast to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), Schultz and Fecho (2000) depict poetry production as a "complex and recursive" dialogic process (p.53).

Our ideas about poetry writing are grouped with Andrews and Smith (2011)'s in a more comprehensive view of writing development, implying that it is a transformational process; that it is a community effect; and that development can be tracked over time, possibly incorporating other aspects of personal development such as cognitive, social, emotional, or intellectual development. They conceptualise the rhetorical context purely in terms of questions: "who is speaking with whom and why, what is the substance of the communication, when is it taking place, where is it taking place, and how" (p. 131-133). These concerns hint at the significance of the social context, which is central to their study of the distinction between frames and framing (Andrews, 2011; Andrews & Smith, 2011). The use of frames differs from the use of framing in that the latter gives the author agency. The author not only engages in a social act, but she also acquires a great degree of flexibility in how she decides to apply her chosen framing. When framing her message and constructing her own textual limits, the author creates a "inside" and "outside" to the communication act. (133). (Andrews and Smith, 2011). As a result, we predict that individual writers will continue to have the potential to alter the communication act, but that culture and context will be the key cues for providing writing opportunities. Writers of poetry enact framing through the use of form (as well as content), for example, by writing a sonnet in the strict Petrarchan or Shakespearian mode, or adapting it with rhymes that do not fall at the end of lines, as well as looser metre (see examples in Paterson, 2012; 2015); or by reworking classical forms such as the Ghazal for a contemporary audience (see examples in Paterson, 2012; 2015). (See Ali, 2000 for examples.)

Wallas (1926) established the four stages of the creative process in his model. The following heuristic usually represents the steps of preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification: Sansom (1994) examined the processes involved in the development of a poem using this approach. Despite acknowledging the attraction of Wallas' abstract depiction of the

creative process, Sansom (1994) claims that poets do not go through and between phases in a linear fashion. It's conceivable for authors to start writing before they've prepared (or without noticing it); the movement between stages can be recursive, with the stages appearing to occur simultaneously or "on fast-forward"; and the stages can appear to occur simultaneously or "on fast-forward" (1994, p. 61). Hanauer (2010) offered a more contemporary model of poem production based on a small-scale study of three final-year creative writing Masters students, which has some overlap with Wallas' model. It, too, has four stages: activation, discovery, permutation, and finalisation. Despite the fact that he acknowledges the "cyclical character" (Hanauer, 2010, p.20) of the discovery and permutation stages, during which authors learn more about the potential direction and structure of their works, we feel this model is too inflexible and restrictive for our requirements. The activation stage appears to serve only as a stimulant for what follows it, rather than acting as a reference point that may be evaluated at other stages. We argue that the writers' social context ("real world happenings"; "intertextual influences": Hanauer, 2010, p. 20) is present throughout the writing process, not just at the beginning. Arnold's spiral-shaped model of writing growth, which we've found to be particularly effective in the context of producing poetry, is even more useful (see Figure 1).

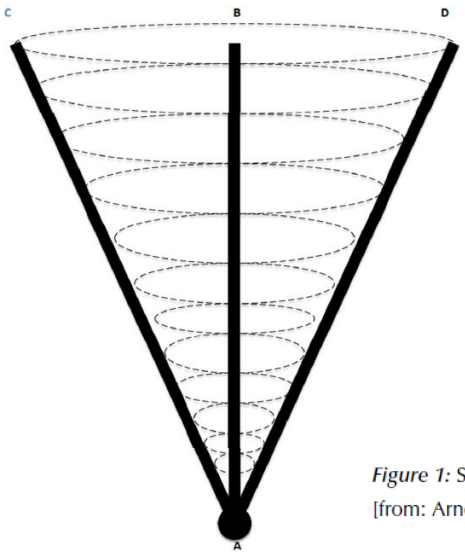

Figure 1: Spiral model of psychodynamic discourse development
[from: Arnold, R. (1991) Writing Development. Buckingham, UK : Open University Press p. 20.]

A = Core self
B = Expressive self incorporating expressive discourse (spoken & written)
C = Transactional discourse (spoken & written)
D = Poetic discourse (spoken & written)

FIGURE 1 depicts a recursive and progressive dynamic interplay between different forms of spoken and written communication, as evidenced by the utter lack of linearity. We disagree, however, with the idea that authors have a "core self" (Arnold, 1991, p. 20), which indicates that they are immutable and that nothing from outside the world (texts, language, experience, and context) is legitimate or allowed as a starting point or has the power to initiate change. In other aspects, the writer's social environment appears to be non-existent. We suggest that any model should be more flexible to account for the writer's inner thinking processes as well as the complex layering of influences that occur throughout an individual's poetry writing process in various situations, and that greater flexibility should be integrated into any model. As a result, we notice that Schultz and Fecho (2000)'s social contextual view on writing development corresponds with our own perspectives as poets and educators who have studied young people's growth within the unique genre of poetry. Schultz and Fecho (2000) describe six "propositions" or categories (p. 55) that are relevant to the development of writing abilities, as previously stated. Despite being investigated individually, they acknowledge that they intersect. They examine each of them (social historical settings; local circumstances; curriculum and pedagogy; social interactions; social identities; nonlinear process). We'll now return to these categories and explore them in greater detail, with a focus on the evolution of poetry writing. We also discuss a seventh dimension, as defined by Andrews and Smith (2011), which is concerned with the technological affordances, limitations, and modes of composition, representation, and dissemination utilised in literary composition, representation, and dissemination (Kress, 2003). In our opinion, technology affordances have enabled several parts of the writing process, including collaborative work, the use of unconventional page shapes, visual features, experimentation with integrated music, and access to a greater range of stimuli to inspire poetry writing. According to our judgement, technological factors pervade all six categories, and we have opted to include these topics appropriately within our analysis below rather than investigating them separately.

To assist us define our initial model of poetry writing growth as a socially contextualised process, we used our analysis of Schultz and Fecho's work, as well as consideration of the writing development models and categories we had investigated.

2.5 Exploration of Schultz and Fecho's six categories

Social and historical events have an impact on the development of poetry writing. According to Schultz and Fecho (2000), those who produce various types of texts in a variety of settings are concerned with power relations and the concerns of equality and access that follow from them. The progress of poetry writing cannot, in our opinion, take place in a vacuum. In the digital era, poetry reflects on, is imbued with, and has the ability to contribute to the cultural, historical, institutional, political, and social situations in which it is composed. This is not a new phenomenon; Geoffrey Chaucer "began writing from books, but the world took over his verse" in the fourteenth century (Schmidt, 1999, p. 80). According to Ivani's observations, "Power relationships both facilitate and constrain" (1998, p. 32). As a result, while considering the development of young people as poets, curriculum design, as well as the power wielded by publishers, the government, state education departments, and school boards, must be considered. When it comes to high-stakes circumstances, producing poetry is a "fragile area" (Dymoke, 2012a, p. 15). Despite the existence of high-quality digital poetry sound archives and resources for writing and responding to poetry (Dymoke, 2016a; Dymoke& Hughes, 2009), poetry in England's secondary curriculum (11-18 years) is still associated with completion of examination responses to poems that have been written and chosen by others. Cremin (2006) found that teachers and students continue to struggle with a lack of support for creative risk-taking and extended writing, particularly learning about poetry writing. These are significant difficulties that the general public is unaware of (Dymoke, 2012a).

Curriculum design, pedagogical judgements, and opportunities all have an influence on young authors' perceptions of poetry. From the perspective of their educational institution, a young person will learn to distinguish what appears to be acceptable and unacceptable in terms of poetry (Dymoke, 2016b). As a result, students may start to establish attitudes and allegiances about poetry writing and the different "fields of play" (Richardson, 1997) in which this creative process might take place. The following are the most pressing problems in this regard: who is permitted on/into the field of poetry writing; how do they get access; and when will they feel secure enough to participate. Compton-Lilly tells Peter's story throughout the course of a ten-year longitudinal study, starting in first grade and ending in high school,

based on Bourdieu's theory of habitus (1971) and other sources (2014). Through her research of Peter's emerging "habitus as a writer" Compton-Lilly begins to look into the challenges faced by students from marginalised backgrounds as they seek to transfer from one social environment to another (2014, p.374). Ivani (1998) goes on to say that discourses and social practises encountered in new contexts would help students maintain identities that are different from the ones they bring to class. We propose that as their careers progress, young and marginalised poets learn to manage the numerous contexts in which they find themselves and to navigate between them through poetry with increasing fluidity. This fluency may be able to mask an underlying feeling of estrangement from the genre. Compton-(2014) Lilly's points are also applicable to the concept of poetry writing growth being adaptable across diverse local settings, which we shall explore further below.

The growth of poetry writing varies depending on the setting in which it occurs.

When it comes to texts written by students, Shultz and Fecho recommend that them be read both in terms of the author's personal experience as a writer as well as "in conjunction with" with traditional writing expertise. The case study of Sean by Andrews and Smith (2011) and the theory that "writing contexts are shaped by the group norms of differently situated communities" will be used to support the case study of Sean by Andrews and Smith (2011) as examples to demonstrate this point (2011). p. 55 of Schultz &Fecho, 2000 The two writers have a lot more in common than just being of the same ethnic and socioeconomic background. Friendship groups at both of their schools, as well as those that extend outside them, are important parts of their lives. Belonging to a group has given both of them the encouragement and constructive criticism they need to become better writers. It is the latter that piques our curiosity since it reveals the impact that Sean's writing practise has on his social situation (performing in front of an audience; attending a workshop). These changes in Sean's writing and motivation to write can be traced directly back to his involvement in the numerous social circumstances that have shaped his work over the course of time. This 'development' in Sean's poetry writing can only be explained in terms of a transfer of inner to outside speech that is both prompted by and refined by the social environment in which it takes place. We employ the Bakhtinian and Vygotskian words we used before to explain this. Vygotsky and Bruner (1986) argue that the intellectual lives of people who taught these two

poets, both within and outside their classrooms, affected their growth as poets, which is consistent with social constructivism.

Macleroy (2015) and Hughes (2016), two additional studies of poetry production, lay a major focus on social circumstances in their analyses (2015). Students with English as an Additional Language (EAL) teamed with spoken word poets in London's South East to create poetry cafes, where students' poems were shared and performed by other students. Macleroy's research is based on this intervention. As of 2015, p. 187, it was characterised as children being given the opportunity to "write into the quiet," disclosing and honouring parts of their life that had previously been concealed or denied to them. Students' capacity to empathise with others' work as well as a "deeper study of their own poetry," improved as a result of this, according to the researchers (2015, p. 188). As a result, all of these changes were brought about by raising the expectations of students as both poets and readers, and injecting them with a passion to poetry produced in languages other than English. Hughes' (2015) research on young immigrant Canadian teens' online and offline identities, which blended social media with poetry writing, indicated significant levels of involvement by students. According to Weber and Mitchell's (2008) definition of identity as "think critically" Hughes found that students' poetry encounters in mediated contexts boosted their capacity to "personal and societal bricolage" (p. 202) about the different versions of themselves that they project (2015, p. 202). When writing in a variety of social circumstances, we hypothesise that the transference of external to internal speech is altered. While these overtly social therapies have considerable promise, Wilson (2015) has cautioned that, while they threaten existing power dynamics in the classroom setting, they are not without dangers. When we look at the increase of poetry writing, we might see it as a problematization of the binary opposition that exists between "conventional" and "culture" knowledge. However, the issue is significantly more complex than simply a lack of funds. Poetry writing as a social activity necessitates taking into account how we position the students we teach, "what we imagine is possible for pupils, and what chances we provide". To be effective instructors, we must also think about how we portray ourselves (Andrews & Smith, 2014, p. 90).

The growth of poetry writing is influenced by the curriculum and practise in the classroom.

Teachers' choices concerning pedagogy and curriculum, according to Schultz and Fecho, have an impact on students' ability to write (2000). We have long contended that the intellectual lives of teachers have a direct influence on classroom settings and the specific approaches used to teach poetry (Dymoke, 2000; Wilson, 2010; 2013; Wilson &Myhill, 2012; Myhill& Wilson, 2013). Academic knowledge encompasses not just subject-specific expertise but also the ability to impart that expertise to others via instruction. It also encompasses a wide range of pedagogical expertise, as well as the ability to impart that expertise through instruction (Shulman, 1987).

Graves's writing workshop is one of the most widely used methods for testing these many kinds of knowledge (1983). As a result of the National Curriculum programmes of study for writing that were implemented, Graves' work had an impact on classroom writing techniques in England for students aged 5 to 16. Reading and writing were also impacted by the National Writing Project in England (1985-89), which viewed reading and writing as "social activities rather than decontextualized abilities," or as "social practises rather than decontextualized skills" (Maybin, 1994, p. 188). While Graves' work had a direct impact on the UK's educational guidelines for the formation of young poets' unique poetic voices, it also had a direct impact on the UK's teaching guidelines for poetry (DES, 1987; Wilkinson, 1986; Dymoke, 2000). "romantic" (as used by Graves (1983), Murray (1984), and others) has been criticised by Lensmire (1994b). Individual authors are more important in these workshops than the collective, and they don't take into consideration social challenges or public demands for change. Lensmire argues for a socially contextualised approach that blurs the barriers between performer and audience based on the "dialogic" nature of texts (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 273) and four features of carnival (Bakhtin, 1984). Especially when authors work together in digital contexts, such as poetry wikis, where many users, readers, and producers may weave multimodal writing together, this blurring is more apparent (Dymoke, 2016a).

Writing workshops, such as those led by Graves, are essentially social activity, according to Hull (1988), Dymoke (2003), and Carpenter (2013). Additionally, we agree with Yates that the employment of a dialogic teaching strategy is implicitly required by their major aspects

(pace, various sorts of preparation, intense times of writing, reading, and feedback) (1999). A renowned British poet and writing coach, Peter Sansom, has been delivering high-quality poetry seminars for more than 30 years. His theory is that writing in groups has the "power to push a poem into existence" that would not have happened in any other setting (1994, p. 67). Additionally, in a workshop setting, other poets may be evaluated "from the inside" and referred to as "fellow-practitioners" rather than critics (Carpenter, 2016, p. 77).

Workshops for poetry writing instruction face a number of challenges, the most significant of which is the concept that teachers should write alongside their students and use samples of their own work-in-progress when appropriate (Dymoke, 2003; Yates 1999; 2014; Carpenter, 2013; 2016). Yates (1999) and Carpenter (2016). (Dymoke 2003). It has implications for teacher professional development because it challenges those teachers who may be: apprehensive about live demonstration (Cremin, 2006; Cremin& Baker, 2014); ill-informed about their own writing abilities (Smith & Wrigley, 2012); or feeling constrained by curriculum/assessment demands (Smith & Wrigley, 2012). (Smith & Wrigley, 2012). According to Woodard (2015; Woodard, 2015). When it comes to kids' capacity to produce poetry, teachers tend to be particularly concerned (Dymoke& Hughes, 2009). Consequently, we suggest that instructors should have the option to engage in workshops that give a social model of composition. Responding to offered stimuli and sharing and criticising draughts with other poet's might help poets internalise the "battle with words" (Nicholls, 1990, p. 27). As a consequence of their involvement, they will be better equipped to assist their students' growth as poets and to sustain their own pedagogy.

The evolution of poetry writing is influenced by social relationships.

Writing for oneself as well as writing with others, according to Schultz and Fecho (2000), is a form of collaborative writing that encourages a re-conceptualization of all connections in the classroom, where knowledge is co-created by all participants. Schultz (1994, 1997) and Brodkey (1999) are the primary sources of inspiration for this concept (1987). For example, they found that Schultz's (1994, 1997) case studies on individual and group writing processes had significant implications for classroom writing teaching (Andrews and Smith, 2011). A working-class African American youngster named Roderick, according to Schultz (1997, p.269) refused to write with others but yet recruited individuals into his personal network

whose language would subsequently emerge in his tales, despite his refusal. Unwillingness on the part of Roderick is evidenced by his refusal to accept invitations for writing with others. It's possible, according to Bakhtin's (1981) theory of language, that Roderick didn't realise how densely packed his words were with other people's intentions. Though Roderick's story is set in a different time and place, Dyson's case study of a six-year-old girl from the mid-Michigan region is strikingly similar to Roderick's story (Dyson, 2005). Dyson shows in the movie how Tionna and her classmates turned themselves into "unofficial performers for and with each other throughout the day" by fusing clapping games, skipping rhymes, and hip-hop samples (2005, p. 159). During unstructured time, students began rehearsing and acting scenes from their favourite novels in small groups of two or three. In terms of "those formulating literacy policy" the amount to which Tionna's culture is given respect is a topic of debate (Dyson, 2005, p. 42). It is our belief that, like Dyson, instructors must purposefully connect students to the greater community in order to overcome the inadequacy theories of education. Because of the epistemologies of writing that are important in the current high stakes context, adopting such an approach is counterproductive.

It is our hope that our observations of Roderick and Tionna, as well as those of other late-modern established poets such as Roderick, demonstrate that the same processes that we have noticed in their writing practises, a complex fusion of networking, friendship, reacting to and influence. A variety of examples, including those from the 1970s Belfast (Heaney, 1980; O'Driscoll, 2008) to the friendship between Elizabeth Bishop and Robert Lowell (Malamud Smith, 2012) to the New York school of poets (Koch, 1996), demonstrate how poets are motivated to write poems by engaging in a "cycle of risk and confirmation" (Malamud Smith 2012, p. 142), support one another by commenting on fellow practitioners' work. New York poets were like a "team" to Koch, who likened the experience to being part of a group (1996, p. 213). In recent ventures like the 52 project, we've seen how social media's capabilities can both help and hinder authors.

There is a private Facebook group where writers may debate and rate each other's replies to the weekly prompts, which was started by British poet Jo Bell. She offered a weekly online poetry prompt throughout 2014, and the community grew from there. Because of this, many new poets were inspired to pursue publishing of their work, which in turn led to "a small

piece of poetry history" as Bell (2015) puts it. The project's emphasis on community interaction also helps foster "the actual success is in the private conversation between poet and page," according to Bell (2015). (Bell 2015, p.10-11). Schultz and Fecho (2000, p. 3) make an explicit connection between Vygotsky's conceptions of inner and outer speech and the benefits of "teamwork" in order to show a relationship between individual growth and the advantages of "teamwork."

The growth of poetry writing is linked to social identities.

Models like those indicated above have a significant influence in the development of poetry writing abilities and procedures, according to our research. We'll now go on to the next phase, which is to look at how this evolution is tied to social identities. Writing helps young people learn how to situate themselves within the prevalent discourse in terms of reference, expressivity, and addressivity as they develop their professional identity as a writer. The school is merely one area where this development takes place, albeit a very significant one (see the elaboration of Bakhtin, 1986 by Ongstad, 1999). There has been a demonstration of the interpretation, replication, and (to some extent) contestation of social practises involving what are perceived as suitable techniques of engaging with literature (in sections 1, 3, and 4). When three elementary school teachers embark on a journey to become creative writers, Creminexamines the uncertainty, fear, and confusion they face along the way to a "destination with substantial stories to tell" through their work (Cremin, 2006, p. 430). Whether in a real or digital context, the writing experiences of young people represent their professional journeys toward the formation of new social identities, which are reflected by their own (see Bluett, 2015; Macleroy, 2015; Hughes, 2015; Dymoke, 2016a). Both teachers and students must be given the opportunity to develop a "habitus as a writer" (Compton-Lily 2014, p.244) in order to be able to enter into dialogues with others in which they are able to see themselves as poets and contribute to the ever-changing context in which they are writing.

There are discourses that are not only about what is said, but also about language and its social context (big 'D' discourses) defined by Gee (2015). (language in its social context). This means that the more one's primary Discourse is separated from secondary Discourses, the more difficult it will be to do well in those subsidiary Discourses. Poets are able to blend

formal and unofficial forms of poetry or social activities to create unique ways of using language. Seamus Heaney (1980) is one example of this. His capacity to take part in a secondary Discourse of identity was strengthened as a result of Heaney's decision to do so.

For some aspiring authors, the lack of exposure to a world outside their primary Discourse might be a barrier to success. Even more so for those who live or learn in tough situations and have limited opportunities to become proficient in a secondary Discourse. Dymoke (2017) shown that Spoken Word poetry can open the door for young people to interact with secondary Discourse in a less alienating way than they might otherwise be able to do so. This particular subgenre of poetry is growing in popularity among young writers because it allows them to utilise language in a more direct and open manner than conventional page poetry. With the help of the language and experiences of their main Discourse (which includes their family and personal history as well as their idiolect), they may make sense of themselves and carve out an identity. This method not only validates these features as viable themes or inspirations for poetry, but it also provides a road for young writers into membership in a literary community and the ability to engage in this new secondary Discourse with more confidence and a feeling of purpose. (Dymoke, 2017). Remaking school communities as "dialogue sites" where "different voices coexist and contested discourses of non-dominant groups are acknowledged and affirmed" is what the writers and Kostouli feel poetry can achieve (Kostouli, 2009; Freedman, 2007). For further information, please see the article by Kosotuli (2009, page 100).

Poetry writing development is viewed as a nonlinear process in terms of its progression.

According to Andrews and Smith (2011, p. 94), the writing process is often "idealised as a linear trajectory" Recursive writing is a continual reminder to all authors in digital environments, whether they are rewriting their own draughts or connecting socially with other writers online, or simply browsing the web for research reasons. Nonlinear and difficult to quantify progress in poetry writing is our claim, even with rigorous and constant scaffolding such as through workshops guided by professionals (Wilson, 2009, p. 396). Pupils who compose poetry have particular cognitive challenges, according to a study conducted by Wilson (2009) that examined primary-age poets' growth over an 18-month period. To some extent, this is related to the difficulty that young or inexperienced authors

have in "unlearn" the habits of writing prose after years of practise. When it comes to poetry, this "hedged-off area" at the end of each line poses a clear challenge to interact with (1993, p.3). For many young poets, it is because poetry is read aloud to them that they recognise rhyme as the most distinguishing feature of poetry (Elster&Hanauer, 2002). According to Wilson (2009), this may explain why they often write their poems in prose format and why rhyme is the most prominent feature of many of their poems. Young authors may appear to "move backwards" while they are learning a new genre or undertaking a difficult writing project that is unknown to them, according to Schultz and Fecho (2000, p. 1). Schultz and Fecho say that "backsliding" is not only normal, but also a "essential" element of the process, and we agree with them (2000, p. 58-9).

Because of this, advancement in poetry writing, as in other genres of writing, is marked by "moments of stalled or cyclical growth" (Andrews & Smith, 2011, p. 83). When students' preconceived notions of genre (or form, or model) are out of sync with what they want to write about, researchers like Sharples (1999) and Kellogg (1994; 2008) say the results may be limited. For these reasons and more, we agree with Wilson (2009) that developing students' rhetorical space thinking (Bereiter &Scardamalia, 1987; Sharples, 1999), as well as providing them with the necessary scaffolding in other aspects of poetry composition, is essential if poetry writing is to fully realise its transformative potential (Bereiter &Scardamalia, 1987; Sharples, 1999).

As demonstrated by the work of Andrews and Smith (2011), Compton-Lilly (2014), and Dyson (2005), novice poets may grow when they are surrounded by other poets' work, whether digitally or in print, and whether or not they are read aloud or written down. Specifically for young poets, Rosen (1998) and Boroditskaya and Rosen (2015) have made this point, noting that poetry's ability to engage in "conversation" (Boroditskaya& Rosen, 2015, p. 69) with other forms of discourse, including poems written by other people, both living and deceased, is a factor in the development of poetry as a form of discourse itself. By adopting this approach, poetry becomes both exciting and challenging for new authors (Boroditskaya& Rosen, 2015, pages 69–70). Thus, in accordance with Wilson (2009), we argue that poetry writing indications of progress may be slow to arise and even contain parts of absurdity at times. Writing in poetry demands the writer to engage in different sorts of play

with syntax, words, and arrangement, as well as meaning, according to Wilson's (2009) theory. Whitehead (1995) and Chukovsky (1963) are cited in this regard. Because mature poets reward "discovery" and "surprise," the writer must have a meta-awareness of not just the needs for a single work, but also the writing process in general (Dunn, 2001, p. 140), making development look uneven (see Dunn, 2001, p. 140). That's the reason why Vygotskian terminology refers to poems that make sense when written as inner speech, but that don't sound fluent when written as outer speech.

3. Conclusion: towards a new model of poetry writing development

Young poets may discover poetry in a variety of ways, including with the help of their teachers at school, according to a new model that was created. Although present curriculum arrangements in Britain do not take into account the student or their surroundings, we want to place their encounters with social environments and texts that take place outside the classroom on an equal footing with those that take place inside it. Some students' experiences, such as Roderick (Schultz, 1997) and Tionna (Dyson, 2005) and Sean and Peter (Andrews and Smith, 2011) have showed how learners are able to own and create poetic writings with elements that are significant to them, as well as speak directly to their social surroundings. When it comes to the study of writing development, examples of poetry writing are in the minority; the vast bulk of the material is controlled by examples of prose writing. This has been proved by Nobel Laureate Seamus Heaney (Heaney, 1980; O'Driscoll, 2008).

As shown in Figure 2, Arnold (1991), Hanauer (2010), Schulz and Fecho's (2000) six propositions, Compton-Lily (2014), Andrews and Smith (2011), and theoretical positions on thought and language (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978; Barrs, 2016), intertextuality (Kristeva, 1986), influence (Bloom, 1997), and discourses (Bloom, 1997) influenced our model. (It's 2015). The poem also reflects on our own childhood experiences as poets, when we were both exposed to secondary Discourses in which poetry reading and writing were normal ways of conduct (see Wilson, 2015 and Dymoke, 2016a).

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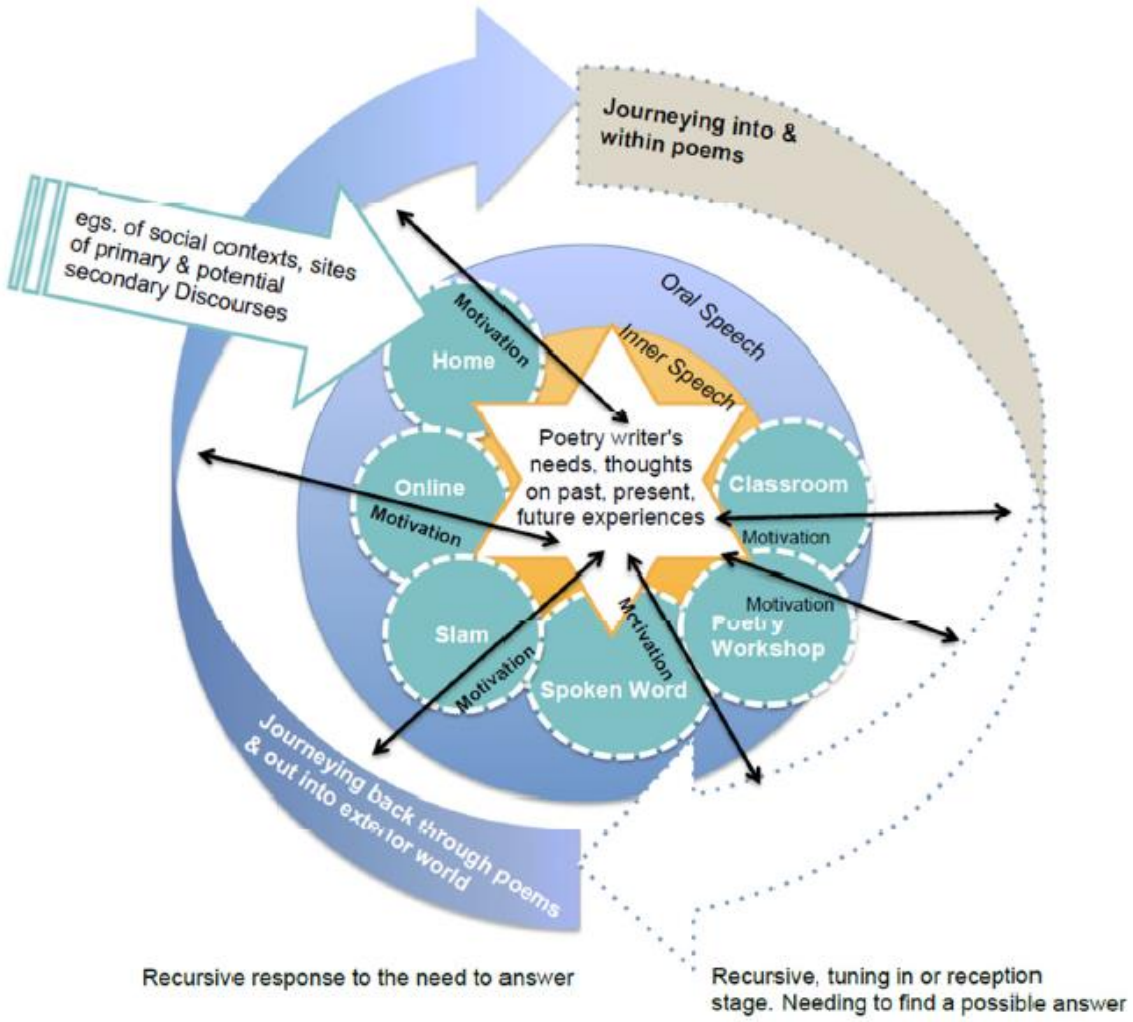

Figure 2: Poetry writing as a socially contextualised process.

We believe that the journey to becoming a poet is a series of travels of varying durations that occur concurrently and independently. There will be no direct route from point A to point B on any of these travels. Throughout the creative process, poets often cycle back and forth between different poems. Many writers are initially motivated by personal experiences from the past, the present, or a possible future. They may also be moved to write by thoughts and sensations that arise in their own minds. While working on individual word selections, they will also pay close attention to overall composition. Depending on your speed, this iterative process might take minutes, hours, days, months, or even years to finish. It's a quick, streamlined writing method that's tailored to meet the unique needs of poetry. It's possible

that the writers will return to other writings outside of their own, including those written by others. These texts might serve as inspiration for their own work, or they could serve as prompts for the completion of their own work (Bloom 1997; Pinsky 1988). Due to the constant back and forth travelling involved in the creation of a poem, "sometimes a poem never appears to truly get there" (Dymoke, 2003, p. 72). An important part of such excursions is the amount of time spent travelling to various noteworthy locations, such as the publishing, performance, or public acknowledgement of a particular poem or collection (Cremin, 2006). Poems by a young writer may be inspired by or begin in several contexts and subsequently develop inside a single one. Switching back and forth between different "secondary Discourses" is feasible (Gee 2015, p.168). During the process of writing, a young writer may draw on their former and new experiences in a range of settings, and learn ways to employ poetry's distinctive features to carve out a distinct voice for themselves. We have some proof of these travelling processes based on our previous studies and poetry writing (Dymoke, 2003, Wilson, 2009, Dymoke, 2017). In the next phase of our research, we want to conduct an investigation into the poetry-writing processes of young people in a range of diverse circumstances to further evaluate our theoretical model.

Writing poetry is a response to many demands caused by various events, as described in our model of poetry writing growth, which centres on the writer's social context. "journeying," refers to the writer's increased sensitivity and responsiveness to external factors as she gains a deeper understanding of the poem and its position in the world. When you write a poem, you are recording a conversation between yourself and the world in which you find yourself at the moment of composition. To emphasise the cyclical character of the process, we have designed this model in a circular shape. It is not the other way around when it comes to changes in poetry writing; instead, they are directly linked. Self-regulation, negotiation, and autonomy are all hallmarks of writing autonomy, which is characterised by a gradual withdrawal of others from the role of influencing the aims of writing (Dymoke, 2003). There is a Bakhtinian (1981) component to the learning in each of these cases, as though encouraging authors to converse with and populate the intentions (or frames) of others with their own intentions (or frameworks). In our paradigm, like in other theories of learning as a social practise, there is a paradox that cannot be overcome. Schools should avoid concealing these occurrences at their own peril, which include interactions that take place both within

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and outside the classroom and that are influenced by social processes such as laws and curricula.

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