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THE DEVELOPMENT, VALIDATION, AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INVENTORY ON ENGLISH WRITING TEACHERS' BELIEFS

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To my late father,

To my wife and children who are my greatest supporters

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THE DEVELOPMENT, VALIDATION, AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INVENTORY ON ENGLISH WRITING TEACHERS' BELIEFS

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ABSTRACT

The communication demands of globalization in the 21st century requires eloquent written communication skills in English, and this makes English writing instruction a must. However, despite the importance of developing the English writing skills in today's globalized world, writing instruction, particularly focusing on writing teachers has not been researched in detail, but remained as an almost untouched territory in the field. In the field of L2 writing, while many studies focused on the writing needs of students, research on the needs of *teachers* who are learning how to teach writing is scarce (Casanave, 2009; Lee, 2010; Reichelt, 2009). In addition, recognizing the fact that teacher beliefs "lie at the heart of teaching and learning" (Burns, 1992, p. 64), an extensive body of research both in general education (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996) and in language teacher education (e.g. Borg, 2015; Freeman, 2002; Farrell & Ives, 2015) focused heavily on teacher beliefs. Yet, there is far less research on teacher beliefs about writing instruction when compared to other language skills (Borg, 2015), and there is no study investigating English writing teachers' beliefs in the Turkish context. With this gap in mind, the present study aims at developing a writing beliefs inventory which is psychometrically reliable and valid to explore teachers' English writing beliefs in the Turkish educational context. To do so, this study is composed of three main phases as Development, Validation, and Investigation of the inventory. A total of 653 EFL instructors from 51 Turkish universities are involved in the study. In the first phase (Development), the study aims to develop a sound writing beliefs inventory. Through comprehensive steps such as preparing an item pool based on a

comprehensive review of literature, taking the opinions of national and international expert on L2 writing, and piloting the inventory twice, a 94-item inventory which is called the Teachers' English Writing Beliefs Inventory (TEWBI) is devised. After its piloting processes, 311 EFL instructors from various Turkish universities are recruited to complete the TEWBI. The data are analyzed through Exploratory Factor Analysis in order to determine the factor structure of the inventory. The results of the analysis reveal that the inventory has a perfect reliability value with .94, resulting in 57-item with three sub-scales. The second phase (Validation) aims at validating the structure of the inventory and its subscales. For this aim, 321 EFL instructors are recruited for the study. Since there are high correlations between the inventory and its subscales, the researcher executes a second-order confirmatory factor analysis. In addition, the model fit indices are calculated in order to explore whether the model has a good fit or not on the basis of Hu and Bentler's (1999) fit indices criteria. The results reveal that the model fits the data well. Furthermore, reliability analysis demonstrates that the inventory has a perfect reliability value with .93. In the third phase (Investigation), the researcher explores the strong, moderate, and weak writing beliefs by subscales through using descriptive statistics. Regarding the nature of L2 writing, it is found that the participants strongly believe that writing is a communication between the writer and the reader, motivation is essential for effective writing, cognitive aspects play a crucial role in writing. On the other hand, they weakly support that writing is a recursive process, writing is a socially situated activity, it is possible to transfer L2 writing knowledge and skills to L1 writing, and discourse level competencies are the most important parts of writing in English. With respect to teaching L2 writing, the participants believe that instructors should provide students with opportunities to master various genres, instructors should use authentic writing tasks, creative writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression, and English writing should be supported with reading skill. On the other hand, they weakly embrace that writing should be treated as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than textual product, surface-level conventions should be emphasized to improve the quality of writing, and social and cultural factors should be paid attention in writing instruction. With regard to assessing L2 writing, the EFL instructors strongly adopt the beliefs that feedback is crucial in the process of writing, rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing should be used, instructors should employ both in-class and out-of-class writing, and instructors should apply explicit and systematic scoring criteria in assessing writing. On the other hand, the participants have weak beliefs that portfolio assessment is the best way of assessing students' writing, teacher written feedback may be the least effective delivery mode of feedback, instructors should use analytic scoring to assess different aspects of writing, and writing texts should be assessed holistically. Each belief statement is discussed in a detailed way in the discussion section. In light of these findings, necessary implications are presented.

Keywords : L2 writing, English writing teacher, English writing teacher beliefs, scale development, scale validation.
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İNGİLİZCE YAZMA ÖĞRETMENLERİ İNANÇLARI ÜZERİNE ENVANTER GELİŞTİRME, DOĞRULAMA VE UYGULAMA

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ÖZ

21. yüzyıldaki küreselleşmenin getirmiş olduğu iletişim talepleri İngilizce olarak etkili ve güzel yazma becerilerini gerektirmekte ve bu da iyi bir İngilizce yazma eğitimini zorunlu kılmaktadır. Ancak, günümüz küreselleşen dünyasında İngilizce yazma becerilerinin artan önemine rağmen, özellikle yazma öğretmenlerine odaklanan bir yazma eğitimi detaylı bir şekilde araştırılmayıp, hemen hemen hiç dokunulmamış bir alan olarak durmaktadır. İngilizce yazma alanında, öğrencilerin yazma ihtiyaçlarına odaklanana bir çok çalışma mevcutken, yazmanın nasıl öğretileceğini öğrenen öğretmenlerin ihtiyaçlarına değinen çalışma neredeyse yok denecek kadar azdır (Casanave, 2009; Lee, 2010; Reichelt, 2009). Bunun yanında, öğretmen inançlarının "eğitimin ve öğretmin merkezinde yatmakta" (Burns, 1992, s. 64) olduğu gerçeğinin farkında olarak, hem genel eğitimde (Calderhead, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996) hem de yabancı dil öğretmen eğitiminde (Borg, 2015; Freeman, 2002; Farrell ve Ives, 2015;) bir çok çalışma yoğun bir şekilde öğretmen inançları üzerine odaklanmıştır. Durum böyle iken, yazma eğitimi ile ilgili öğretmen inançları diğer dil becerileri ile karşılaştırıldığında oldukça az araştırılmıştır (Borg, 2015). Dahası, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği bir ortam olan Türkiye'de yazma öğretmenlerin yazma ve yazma eğitimine yönelik inançları hiç araştırılmamıştır. Bu eksikliği göz önünde bulundurarak, bu çalışmanın araştırmacısı güvenilir ve geçerli bir yazma inançları envanteri geliştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bununla birlikte, araştırmacı Türk yazma öğretmenlerinin İngilizce yazmaya yönelik inançlarını ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemektedir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, bu çalışma Geliştirme, Doğrulama, ve Araştırma olarak üç ana safhadan

oluşmaktadır. Çalışmada toplamda 51 farklı Türk üniversiteden 653 İngilizce okutmanı yer almaktadır. Birinci, yani Geliştirme safhasında, bu çalışma kusursuz bir yazma inançları envanteri geliştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Oldukça kapsamlı aşamalar sonucunda, araştırmacı 94 maddelik bir envanter geliştirmiştir. Deneme süreçleri sonunda, Türkiyeden farklı üniversitelerde çalışan 311 İngilizce okutmanı İngilizce yazmanın doğası, yazma öğretimi ve yazma değerlendirmesi adında üç alt ölçekten oluşan Öğretmenlerin İngilizce Yazma İnançları Envanterini doldurmuştur. Toplanan veriler envanterin faktör yapılarını belirlemek için Açımlayıcı Faktör Analizi yoluyla analiz edilmiştir. Analiz sonuçları 57 madde ve üç alt ölçeğe sahip olan envanterin .94 olarak mükemmel bir güvenirlik değerine sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Çalışmanın Doğrulama diye bilinen ikinci safhası envanterin ve alt ölçeklerinin yapısını doğrulamayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, 321 İngilizce okutmanı çalışmaya katılmıştır. Ön analizler sonucunda envanter ve alt ölçekleri arasında yüksek ilişki olduğu için ikinci mertebe doğrulayıcı faktör analizi uygulanmıştır. Bunun yanında, öne sürülen modelin iyi bir uyuma sahip olup olmadığını belirlemek için Hu ve Bentler'in (1999) uyum indeksleri kriterleri baz alınarak çalışmanın model uyum indeksleri hesaplanmıştır. Sonuçlar modelin iyi bir uyum indeksine sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, güvenirlik analizi envanterin .93 şeklinde mükemmel bir değere sahip olduğunu tekrar göstermiştir. Üçüncü safha yani Araştırma safhası katılımcıların üç alt ölçek açısından sahip olduğu güçlü, orta ve düşük derecede yazma inançlarını betimsel analizler yoluyla ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sonuçlar İngilizce yazmanın doğası bakımından, katılımcıların güçlü bir şekilde yazmanın okuyucu ile olan iletişimsel boyutları, motivasyonun önemi ve yazmanın bilişsel boyutları konularına inanmakta olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Diğer yandan, katılımcılar yazmanın yinelenen doğası, yazmanın sosyal durumlu olması, yazmanın İngilizceden Türkçeye transferi (ters transfer) ve söylem düzeyinde yeteneğin önemi konularına düşük derecede inanmaktadırlar. Yazma öğretimi açısından, katılımcılar güçlü bir şekilde farklı yazma türlerinin öğretimi, yazma görevlerinin önemi, yaratıcı yazmanın rolü ve okuma ve yazma arasındaki bağlantı gibi konulara inanmaktadırlar. Ancak, katılımcılar yazmanın süreç odaklı doğası, yüzeysel seviyede tekniklerin önemi ve sosyal ve kültürel faktörlerin yazmada rolü konularında düşük derece inanca sahiptirler. İngilizce yazma değerlendirmesi açısından, İngilizce okutmanları güçlü bir derecede geribildirimin rolü, rubrik kullanımı, sınıf içi ve sınıf dışı yazma, açık ve sistematik değerlendirme kriterlerinin önemi konularına inanmaktadırlar. Diğer yandan, katılımcılar portfolyo değerlendirmesi, öğretmen tarafından sunulan yazılı geribildirimin rolü, analitik puanlama ve bütüncül puanlama konularında düşük derecede inanmaktadırlar. Her bir inanç maddesi tartışma bölümünde detaylı bir şekilde ele alınmıştır. Bu bulgular doğrultusunda, gerekli çıkarımlar ilgili bölümde sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler : İngilizce yazma, İngilizce yazma öğretmeni, İngilizce yazma öğretmeni inançları, ölçek geliştirme, ölçek doğrulama.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L1	Native language
L2	Second language, target language
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
WBI	Writing beliefs inventory
TEWBI	Teachers' English writing beliefs inventory
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
IBCW	Inventory for Beliefs about Chinese Writing
IBEW	Inventory for Beliefs about English Writing
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index
NFI	Normed-fit index
NNFI	Non-normed-fit Index
CFI	Comparative Fit Index

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter involves seven sections. It begins with the discussion of the statement of the problem. Next section presents the aim of the study. The third section elaborates on the significance of the study. Then, the research questions which guide the study are given. In the fifth section, the assumptions of the study are explained. In the sixth section, some possible limitations of the study are presented. Lastly, some key terms are defined.

Statement of the Problem

The communication demands of globalization in the 21st century requires eloquent written communication skills in English, and this makes English writing instruction a must. However, it is only recently that L2 writing instruction has been paid attention in the applied linguistics and second language teaching fields (Cheung, 2011; Matsuda, Canagarajah, Harklau, Hyland, & Warschauer, 2003). Due to this negligence, writing has been the 'Cinderella' skill in second language teaching, which has a very short history dating back only to 1960s. Furthermore, in the Turkish context, both L1 and L2 writing instruction have been reported to be a problematic area (Durukafa 1992; Göğüş, 1978; Gökalp & Gonca, 2001; Inal, 2006; Yalçın 1999). Despite these problems and the importance of developing the English writing skills in today's globalized world, L2 writing instruction, particularly from the perspective of the writing teachers has not been researched in detail, but remained as an almost untouched territory in the field. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the

writing instruction in L2 (English) with a focus on EFL instructors' writing beliefs in the Turkish context.

In the field of L2 writing, while many studies focused on the writing needs of students, research on the needs of ***teachers*** who are learning how to teach writing is scarce (Casanave, 2009; Hirvela & Belcher, 2007; Hochstetler, 2007; Lee, 2010; Reichelt, 2009). Because L2 writing has been relatively less focused as a component of teacher education (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007), writing instruction is often stated to be provided by ill-prepared and unskilled writing teachers in most countries (Johns, 2009). Therefore, this might indicate that L2 teacher education programs have failed to achieve their goal to raise successful and effective writing instructors (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007).

Any attempt for improvement in any educational system is closely linked with teachers (Bybee, 1993; Levitt, 2002; Pajares, 1992; Tobin, Tippins, & Gallard, 1994) since teacher beliefs can exert a huge impact on their teaching behaviors and accordingly on student learning. Therefore, to remedy the problems in L2 writing instruction, first, we should start with teachers. It is a known fact that teachers hold certain beliefs about how language in general and writing skill, in particular, is learned and should be taught. Borg (2006) asserts that the majority of the classroom practices stem from teachers' belief systems. Therefore, exploring these teacher beliefs - what Freeman (2002) calls 'hidden syllabus' –is of crucial importance in the quality of writing instruction. In this sense, a great many studies revealed how teachers' beliefs had an impact on and shape their decision-making processes and their instructional practices (Bailey, 1996; Bandura, 1986; Bartels, 1999; Borg, 1998, 1999, 2003; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Nunan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1996, 1998; Savascı-Acıkalın, 2009; Yero, 2002). To date, although teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction (Borg & Burns, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009), speaking skill (Dincer & Yesilyurt, 2013), reading skill (Kuzborska, 2011), listening skill (Graham, Santos, & Brophy, 2014) have been investigated, little attention has been paid on teachers' beliefs about writing in ESL/EFL contexts (Yiğitoğlu & Belcher, 2014), specifically in terms of the nature of writing, teaching writing and assessing writing, which are the pillars of English writing instruction. This research scarcity in the field is also the case in Turkey; where no study investigating L2 writing teachers' beliefs exists. Heeding Hirvela and Belcher's (2007) call for more research on writing teacher education in order to

fill in this important gap in the field, the present study aims at examining EFL instructors' writing beliefs.

Several nationwide educational reforms were initiated in 1997, 2005, and 2012 in Turkey. However, it has been recognized that changing the curriculum does not guarantee a subsequent change in teachers' instructional practices (Kırkgöz, 2007, 2008). Shifts in the curriculum do not necessarily lead to changes in teacher beliefs and in turn teachers' adoption of these changes in their classrooms. Actually, a number of studies indicated that teachers still follow traditional teaching methods in language education in Turkey (e.g. Kırkgöz, 2007). These empirical studies demonstrated that no reform can be successful unless it takes teachers' beliefs into consideration. As such, in order to initiate an influential writing teacher education reform, the foremost important step is to examine language instructors' beliefs about English writing instruction. Only in this way, can the reform be successful. In fact, teacher beliefs lie behind this discrepancy in that teacher beliefs act as a filter through which teachers perceive, interpret, and adopt new knowledge. In a similar way, Breen, et al. (2001) noted that:

> Any innovation in classroom practice-from the adoption of a new technique or textbook to the implementation of a new curriculum- has to be accounted within the teachers' own framework of teaching principles. Greater awareness of such frameworks across a group teacher within a particular situation can inform curriculum policy in relation to any innovation that may be plausible in that situation (p. 472).

In Turkey, pre-service language teachers are taught to teach writing through general language teacher education programs because professional writing teacher education is not delivered as a distinct and specific field (Uysal, 2007). Therefore, there is a need for well-planned professional writing teacher preparation programs in order to train and equip language instructors with required knowledge and skills relevant to English writing instruction. Lee (2010) analyzed the effects of in-service teacher development programs on writing teachers. The study indicated that writing teacher training programs promoted the teachers' learning as teachers as well as their identities as writing teachers. Within this context, English writing instruction is delivered by language instructors who may see themselves more as teachers of language rather than teachers of writing (Lee, 1998; Reichelt, 1999). Therefore, it is highly possible that these instructors may have misconceptions and unrealistic beliefs about writing and writing instruction in English. Given that teacher beliefs guide their instructional decisions and classroom practices, it is an urgent task to examine

teacher beliefs about writing and writing instruction in English in order to take necessary steps in both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs.

In order to understand teacher beliefs, proper data collection instruments should be used. Psychometrically reliable and valid data can only be gathered through administering psychometrically reliable and valid data collection instruments. The fact that questionnaires or inventories that yield reliable and valid results are scarce in the field of language teaching (Dörnyei, 2007), the present study will address this gap in developing a writing beliefs inventory which is psychometrically reliable and valid.

Aim of the Study

Even though teacher beliefs relevant to other language skills and components, especially grammar instruction, has been well-documented (e.g. Borg, 2001, Borg & Burns, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009), teacher beliefs about L2 writing instruction has been paid considerably less attention (Yiğitoğlu, 2011). The present study aims to fill in this critical gap in the field of second and foreign language writing education. To this end, the purpose of this study is twofold:

The primary aim of this study is to develop and validate a psychometrically reliable and valid Teachers' English Writing Beliefs Inventory (TEWBI) which can be used for investigation of teacher beliefs about writing and writing instruction in English in both second and foreign language contexts. Therefore, the TEWBI mainly serves as a window to writing beliefs language instructors hold rather than deepening insights into the background of their beliefs.

The secondary aim is to examine Turkish EFL instructors' beliefs about the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing in English at the tertiary level. More specifically, it attempts to explore the major and minor beliefs, EFL instructors hold toward the nature of L2 writing, teaching L2 writing, and assessing L2 writing.

To this end, Chapter 1 involves statement of the problem, aim of the study, significance of the study, research questions, assumptions of the study, limitations of the study, and definitions of key terms.

Chapter 2 presents the review of literature on paradigm shift in research on teaching, teacher beliefs in language teacher education, teacher beliefs in L2 writing instruction, teacher

beliefs and the nature of L2 writing, teacher beliefs and teaching L2 writing, and teacher beliefs and assessing L2 writing.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology. It involves the theoretical framework, research design, participants, procedures of developing the TEWBI, initial pilot study, final pilot study, formal data collection, data analysis, and timeline of the study.

Chapter 4 includes the results of the psychometric properties of the inventory (reliability and validity), the results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and the results of descriptive statistics (mean, frequency, percentages, standard deviations).

Chapter 5 discusses the results of the study in accordance with research questions, draws conclusions, and presents pedagogical implications of influential English writing instruction in the Turkish EFL context. It ends with offering suggestions for further research.

Significance of the Study

An extensive body of research on teacher beliefs exists, both in general education (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996) and in language teacher education (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006, 2015; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1992a; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Bernis, 2013). However, even though research on teacher beliefs has become a major area of inquiry in the field of language teaching for three decades (Phipps & Borg, 2009), there is far less research on teacher beliefs about writing instruction when compared to other language skills (Borg, 2015), and there is no study on investigating writing beliefs of EFL instructors in the Turkish context.

The need for a comprehensive examination of such a complex phenomenon in various contexts is echoed by scholars. For example, Borg has called for much more studies investigating teacher cognition in reading and writing instruction in L2 and FL education (2015). Heeding Borg's (2015) call, this study attempts to explore language instructors' beliefs about writing instruction in English in an EFL context. Within this context, the present study hopes to function as a gateway for the investigation of teacher beliefs in the field of English writing instruction in Turkey as well as in other EFL contexts. The results of this study would contribute to the theoretical knowledge base regarding Turkish EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing instruction.

This study might benefit various stakeholders in English writing instruction including teachers, students, teacher educators, and researchers. This study is important for language teachers because examining teachers' implicit beliefs through which they make instructional judgments and decisions, choose instructional materials, strategies, and approaches, and implement certain instructional practices in the process of teaching L2 writing is important since they impact their classroom practices (Arnold & Turnbull, 2007; Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2001; Borko & Putnam, 1996; Cabaraoglu & Roberts, 2000; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996; Farrell & Bernis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Freeman, 1992; Johnson, 1994, 1999; Kuzborska, 2011; Meijer, Verloop, & Veijard, 2001; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards, 1998; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Richardson, 1996; 2003; Rokeach, 1968; Schommer, 1994; Stern & Shavelson, 1983; Thu, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1997). On the practical side, without a closer examination of what EFL instructors' beliefs are, it seems possible to improve writing teachers and promote writing teacher education since "the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of teachers" (Barber & Mourshed, 2007, p. 16). Researchers cannot fully understand teachers and their practice without understanding their beliefs that determine what they do in the classroom; therefore, a close examination of their beliefs is a "necessary and valuable avenue of educational inquiry" (Pajares, 1992, p. 326). In line with this premise, improving the quality of EFL writing instruction in Turkey begins with deeper and full understanding of EFL instructors' consciously or unconsciously held beliefs so as to conceptualize their instructional practices in English writing instruction. As it was revealed in Johnson's (1992) study, ESL teachers with different theoretical beliefs may perceive the nature of literacy instruction in a different way. It is vital to conduct a close examination of instructors' beliefs about writing in order to be able to make sure that their beliefs do not differ greatly from their colleagues.

Besides, teacher beliefs about language are concerned with the approaches and methods adopted by teachers in the process of teaching (Richards & Rogers, 1986). In a similar vein, Woods (1996) claimed that teachers' beliefs about what language is, how it is learned and how it should be taught lead to different instructional practices in the classroom. As such, language instructors' beliefs about what is writing, how writing can be learned, and how it should be taught may give rise to distinct classroom practices. Teachers who possess different beliefs about the nature of English language may adopt different teaching approaches and strategies in the process of language teaching and teach in a different way in

their language classes. Likewise, language instructors' beliefs about the nature of English writing may guide different classroom practices. For example, if a language instructor believes that writing is an innate gift, he/she may not pay the same effort/attention to low achievers as high achievers. Next, language instructors' different beliefs about teaching English writing may lead them to adopt different writing approaches in writing classes. For instance, a language instructor who believes that writing is best taught through a product-centered approach may emphasize the end-product over the processes students go through. Since these beliefs are, as Kagan (1992, p. 65) defined 'unconsciously held assumptions', it is prerequisite to bring these beliefs to the level of conscious awareness (Farrell & Ives, 2015). This can be accomplished through encouraging language teachers to articulate their beliefs (Farrell, 2008). At this point, this study is an attempt to develop a reliable and valid instrument through which language instructors' beliefs about English writing instruction can be examined and explored. Similarly, Farrell (2008) argued that many language teachers are not aware of both their beliefs and to what extent these beliefs are reflected in their classroom practices. This study will help language instructors become aware of their beliefs and motivate them to reflect upon their classroom practices. This kind of awareness has paramount importance for teachers since it is the first step of a "process of reducing the discrepancy between what we do and what we think we do" (Knezedivc, 2001, p. 10). Next, teachers can further develop their teaching repertoire by becoming aware of their beliefs (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Shulman, 1996), and create a new writing teacher identity to promote successful and effective writing instruction (Lee, 2011).

Therefore, this study is an attempt to make language instructors become aware of their implicit writing beliefs. Arnold and Turnbull (2007) believe that impacting and changing teachers' lesson planning, decision-making and classroom practices should start with teachers' examining their own beliefs about language learning and teaching. Given that there is a well-established notion in the literature that "teachers teach as they have been taught" which is based on Lortie's (1975) apprenticeship of observation, EFL instructors may have misconceptions or outdated beliefs, which guide their classroom practices, about English writing instruction that need to be dispelled. Similarly, one of the common beliefs among teachers is that "that's the way I learned so." EFL instructors who learned to teach writing thorough product-oriented approach are likely to gravitate towards teaching L2 writing in a similar direction or approach (i.e. product-oriented approach).

Regarding teachers' professional growth, beliefs are among the major determinants of teachers' openness and willingness for continuing professional development and teacher learning activities (Borg, 2015; Kagan, 1992; Richards, 1998). At this point, examination of teacher beliefs can promote the improvement of teachers' professional development through making teachers fully aware and conscious of the consistency and inconsistency between their beliefs and classroom practices (Zheng, 2015). It has been well-documented that understanding teachers' beliefs is an essential requirement for a closer understanding of teaching process and teacher learning (Borg, 2003, 2006; Freeman, 2002; Woods, 1996). In order to facilitate teacher learning and growth, it is proposed that teachers' preexisting beliefs should be addressed, teachers should be encouraged and provided with opportunities to make their implicit beliefs explicit and supported to challenge their favorable or unfavorable beliefs. Similarly, it is pointed out that "professional growth comes from reconstructing our experiences and then reflecting on these experiences so that we can develop our own approaches to teaching" (Farrell & Ives, 2015, p. 607). It should be noted that unless teachers identify and scrutinize their beliefs, they are likely to maintain their teaching without changing it (Stuart & Thurlow, 2000). From the constructivist point of view, teachers' beliefs need to be surfaced and acknowledged if the teachers are to adopt and implement recent developments and innovation in writing teacher education.

Teachers are or should be viewed as social change agents. In order to be able to initiate a writing teacher education reform, we should begin with changing teacher beliefs since these beliefs "lie at the very heart of teaching" (Kagan, 1992, p. 85). For an influential writing teacher education reform, Tillema's (1995) "congruence hypothesis" should be taken into consideration. According to this hypothesis, only when there is congruence between teacher beliefs and the underlying principles of any innovation, teachers adopt that innovation. Hence, a comprehensive and influential writing instruction reform should start through taking a picture of the current situation of writing instruction in Turkey. Given that teacher beliefs are the major determinants of their instructional practices in writing classes, exploring their beliefs will act as a strong basis for the reform or innovation. Change is more probable to occur only when there is congruence between teacher beliefs of teaching and learning and the theories underlying the reform. What's more, according to Nespor (1987), teacher beliefs are much more powerful than teacher knowledge in determining teacher behaviors, and therefore teacher change. In line with this, Smylie (1988, cited in Richardson, 2003, p. 5) concluded that "teachers' beliefs are the major predictors of teacher change". It should be

noted that central and strong beliefs held by language instructors about writing instruction can act as a major barrier to implement recent writing developments. Since teacher beliefs act as a filter through which teachers perceive, translate, interpret, modify, and adopt new knowledge and ideas (Abelson, 1979; Fang, 1996; Fives & Buehl, 2012; Johnson, 1999; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Pennington & Richards, 1997; Schommer, 1990; Shavelson, 1983; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Woods, 1996), these beliefs should be explored and addressed before any innovation or reform movement.

This study is important for students because it has been well-documented in the teacher education literature that teacher beliefs guide their classroom practices and accordingly affect student learning. Therefore, understanding teachers' thoughts and practices can contribute to a deeper understanding of the interaction between these components and their effects on student achievement (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Moreover, Green (1971) suggested that teaching deals with the formation of beliefs. In this process, teachers' beliefs exert strong impact on students' beliefs. In other words, if teachers hold unrealistic or negative beliefs about English writing instruction, students may be influenced by these beliefs accordingly since 'apprenticeship of observation' plays a central role in the development of beliefs (Lortie, 1975). In order to be able to prevent teachers' misformation or mismodification of students' beliefs, it is a priority to examine teachers' own beliefs. Based on the beliefs teachers hold, in-service teacher development programs can be arranged in order to remedy the unrealistic or problematic beliefs (if any).

Given that teacher beliefs are among the major determinants of teacher learning, when teachers stop learning, so do their students. There is empirical evidence in the literature that teacher beliefs affect student beliefs in the process of teaching (e.g. Fang, 1996; Kern, 1995; Samimy & Lee, 1997). For example, it was revealed in Kern's (1995) study that teacher beliefs is an important factor in shaping and influencing not only their own classroom practices but also their students' beliefs about language learning and teaching. This study further revealed that students' beliefs are usually consistent with those of their teachers. In another study, Fang (1996) demonstrated that there was a close similarity between the teacher and the students' descriptions of good writing. As such, in Fang' words, "the vocabulary those pupils used in describing the criteria of good writing bears striking resemblance to that of their teacher's" (p. 253). It was clear that teacher beliefs exerted considerable influence on the perceptions of the students about writing. This showed that

teacher beliefs not only guide their instructional practices but also shape the students' beliefs and perceptions, as well. In the same vein, Wing (1989) found that teachers' theoretical beliefs about literacy development affected their classroom practices and influenced their students' perceptions of the nature and uses of reading and writing. It stressed that teachers' beliefs can determine the nature of classroom practices and have vital effects on students' early perceptions of literacy practice. A similar finding was found in Kern's (1995) study in that there were overall similarities between teachers' beliefs and students' beliefs about language learning. Thus, in order for teachers to modify students' beliefs, they need to become fully aware of their own beliefs. To do so, this study will help teachers identify and assess their own beliefs about English writing instruction.

This study is important for policymakers and curriculum designers because it hopes to make great contribution to language and writing teacher education programs. Through exploring teacher beliefs, it will inform teacher education programs and support the design of English courses and teacher education programs because gaining deeper insights of teacher beliefs plays a critical role since they have profound impacts on the next generation of language teachers and policymakers, who will eventually shape the future of language education (Met, 2006). Moreover, examination of teacher beliefs will make policymakers become more sensitive in implementing educational innovations through deepening their understanding. Furthermore, curriculum designers will bring teachers' beliefs into consideration when determining an L2 writing instruction curriculum.

Besides, in order to support and promote effective writing teacher education in Turkey, it is imperative that policymakers and curriculum designers increase their understanding of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning L2 writing. Fenstermacher (1979) asserted convincingly that if policy-makers expect teachers to change their practices, it is vital that teachers existing beliefs be explored. The results of this study will inform the policymakers about the central/peripheral and strong/weak beliefs language instructors possess. They will have the opportunity to take the necessary steps in order to modify and refine the unrealistic and erroneous beliefs.

Exploring teachers' beliefs helps policymakers anticipate the success and effectiveness of any new reform or innovation. More specifically, for example, in recent years, process-oriented and genre-based pedagogies have dominated the L2 writing instruction. Teachers are expected to teach writing according to these recent approaches. Yet, teachers adopt and

implement these approaches to the extent which these practices are filtered by their beliefs. Moreover, even if teachers have sufficient knowledge and skills relevant to these approaches, this does not mean that they will use them in their writing instruction. As a first step, teachers should believe in the usefulness and effectiveness of those approaches because beliefs are more important predictors than knowledge in using a new strategy or approach (Richardson, 2003). If teachers' beliefs are congruent with the new knowledge to be learned, these beliefs can facilitate learning and acquisition. However, if there is an inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and the underlining principles of new knowledge, these beliefs impede learning and acquisition (Clement, Brown, & Zietman, 1989, as cited in Kagan, 1992).

This study is important for teacher trainers because according to the professed beliefs of language instructors, the content of the teacher development programs can be arranged. This will increase the effectiveness of the INSET programs which are notorious for their ineffectiveness (Atay, 2008; Uysal, 2007) even though INSET programs have utmost importance and are the most common source used to contribute teachers' professional competence and development (Kennedy, 1995). The reason of this failure is clear because there is ample evidence that teacher education programs ignoring teachers preexisting beliefs may not accomplish the desired change in teachers (e.g. Kettle & Sellars, 1996; Weinstein, 1990).

It is believed that training in behaviors is not enough for teachers to adopt a new strategy or technique, and that teacher beliefs should accompany with the underlying assumptions of that strategy or technique. For changing and refining teacher beliefs, the first step is to examine the beliefs. Relatedly, Kagan (1992) suggested that "we cannot expect any program of in-service teacher education to effect change in teachers' behaviors without also effecting change in their personal beliefs" (p. 77). In line with this claim, Breen et al. (2001) noted that:

> Any innovation in classroom practice-from the adoption of a new technique or textbook to the implementation of a new curriculum- has to be accounted within the teachers' own framework of teaching principles. Greater awareness of such frameworks across a group of teachers within a particular situation can inform curriculum policy in relation to any innovation that may be plausible in that situation (p. 472).

A central focus of these programs should be belief change. This study is important as an attempt at changing and modifying teachers' beliefs. According to Richardson (1996), in-

service teacher development programs are more successful in changing teachers' beliefs than pre-service teacher education programs. It has been well-documented that beliefs are better predictors of behaviors or actions than knowledge. In a similar vein, any innovation needs to address teachers' beliefs if it is to be successful and influential. Insights gained through closer and comprehensive examination of teacher beliefs will lead to enable in-service teacher development programs to integrate knowledge about teacher beliefs into the content of INSET programs. This will lead INSET programs to create opportunities for teachers to examine their beliefs about writing and become more conscious of how their own beliefs relate to the way they perceive, process and act upon knowledge during writing instruction.

Any change in behavior should be preceded by changes in beliefs because beliefs function as a spirit of behavior. In other words, beliefs are the underlying foundation of any behavior. Relatedly, Richardson (1996) claimed that changes in teachers' beliefs precede changes in their practices. What's more, Williams and Burden (1997) concluded that beliefs can be "far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems, and (are) better predictors of how teachers behave in the classroom" (p. 56). Therefore, the content of the INSET programs should be redesigned and involve both behavioral and cognitive aspects of teaching because the affective and evaluative aspects of beliefs act as a filter (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992) that determine what is acceptable or unacceptable, favorable or unfavorable, good or bad, whenever teachers are faced with new knowledge. For example, a group of teachers may receive the same training about effective writing strategies, yet implementing or adopting these strategies in the writing classes may differ among teachers because of their favorable or unfavorable beliefs about these strategies.

This study is important for researchers in the field of writing teacher education because it will develop a writing beliefs inventory through which researchers can examine writing beliefs held by language teachers in different contexts. In other words, because beliefs cannot be directly observed and measured, and therefore must be inferred from what individuals say, intend, and do (Pajares, 1992), it is important to develop a psychometrically reliable and valid instrument in order to be able to explore writing teachers' beliefs. Furthermore, exploring teachers' beliefs that lie behind their instructional practices can provide a golden opportunity for researchers to diagnose the needed and absent skills and practices in the writing classroom. Specifically, in the Turkish context in which students suffer from writing

problems (Durukafa, 1992; Gökalp & Gonca, 2001; Inal, 2006; Yalçın 1999), shedding light into this dark spot is likely to benefit the writing instruction. Incorporating issues related to teachers' beliefs in writing instruction programs can be a giant step toward the development of this skill in Turkey.

This study, thus, tries to provide a clear picture of EFL instructors' belief systems with regards to the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing in English in Turkey as an EFL context. The implications of this study can be used as steps towards reshaping teachers' beliefs and establishing a new writing teacher identity (Lee, 2011; Li, 2007). Moreover, there is a need for a writing teacher education reform and this study can be a starting point for this reform movement. Findings of this study can be useful for writing teachers, prospective teachers, teacher trainers, policymakers, and curriculum designers.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the psychometric properties of the TEWBI?
    a. Is the TEWBI a psychometrically reliable instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?
    b. Is the TEWBI a psychometrically valid instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?
2. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about L2 writing?
    a. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about the nature of L2 writing?
    b. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 writing?
    c. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about assessing L2 writing?

Assumptions of the Study

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions were made:

1. Responses by the language instructors were indicative of their actual beliefs and thoughts on the questions asked of them, and they honestly report their beliefs about writing in English.
2. The population was a representative sample of language instructors in the Turkish EFL context.

3. The survey was an appropriate data collection technique for exploring and clarifying teachers' beliefs.
4. Participants' responses were recorded in a reliable manner.
5. The newly developed TEWBI was psychometrically reliable and valid data collection instrument for this study.
6. All of the items were fully understood by the participants.
7. The TEWBI had a high content validity in that it comprises all relevant constructs in writing instruction.

Limitations of the Study

As with any research study, the present study has several limitations. These limitations can be listed as follows;

1. The most significant limitation of the study is that it relies solely on a self-report instrument which captures EFL instructors' writing beliefs. One of the critical drawbacks of self-report data is that it is subject to social desirability bias.
2. It does not involve other data collection methods such as interviews and classroom observation. Thus, it lacks methodological triangulation.
3. The study has a descriptive and correlational design, which does not involve the exploration of cause-and-effect relations.
4. The study has employed a factor analysis method in order to develop a writing beliefs inventory. However, it should be noted that, as Kachigan (1991) pointed out, factor analysis method has been criticized as being subject to the "Garbage In, Garbage Out" principle because it reduces the variables to a smaller number (p. 258).
5. Due to time and financial constraints, it was not possible to reach all the EFL instructors across Turkey. Therefore, the results can only be generalized to participants who have similar characteristics and environments that are similar to the participants and setting in this investigation.
6. This study has only focused on teacher beliefs about writing instruction. Teachers' actual classroom practices can also be examined to validate their beliefs and the relationship between their beliefs and classroom practices can be investigated.
7. The length of the inventory may cause the participants to be bored when completing the survey. Because the participants complain about their workload. They are often

burdened with these kind surveys. Their general attitudes towards questionnaires might harm the reliability of the results.

Definitions of Key Terms

a. *Writing* is an important part of language learning, it is essentially a reflective activity that requires enough time to think about the specific topic and to analyze and classify any background knowledge (Chakraverty & Gautum, 2000, p. 22).

b. *English as a foreign language (EFL)* is the use of English in a non-English-speaking environment. According to Richards, Platt, & Platt (1992), EFL refers to "the role of English in countries where it is used as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication (e.g., government, business, industry) within the country" (pp. 123–124).

c. *English as a second language (ESL)* refers to "the role of English for immigrants and other minority groups in English speaking countries . . . who use English at school or at work" (Richards et al., 1992, p. 124). This term also refers to the study of English by speakers who have different native languages.

d. *Belief* is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior (M. Borg, 2001, p. 186).

e. *Writing Beliefs* refer to personal and psychological theories, evaluations and judgments about the nature of writing, how it is learned, how it should be taught, the learners and writers, learning to teach, self and the teaching role held by writing teachers to be true (Adapted from the belief definition of Breen, et al. 2001, p. 472).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter, first, will provide a brief background regarding the paradigm shift in research on teaching. Then, teacher beliefs in language teacher education along with related studies will be discussed. Next, specifically, teacher beliefs in L2 writing instruction will be investigated including relevant studies. In addition, teacher beliefs and the nature of writing, teacher beliefs and teaching writing, and teacher beliefs and assessing writing will be discussed in line with the current research and empirical studies, respectively. Finally, distinguishing features of beliefs will be synthesized.

Paradigm Shift in Research on Teaching

Teaching does not occur in a vacuum. It is a complex process which constitutes cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Lynch, 1989). Therefore, teaching cannot be conceptualized as a simple matter of pouring knowledge and skills into empty heads. Research on teaching has witnessed several paradigms for 50 years. Traditionally, research on teaching has focused on teachers' actions and their observable effects and how these teachers' behaviors affected student achievement. This line of research is known as the *process-product paradigm* which centers on the relationship between teachers' classroom practices, students' classroom actions, and student achievement. This paradigm assumed that there was a linear and unidirectional relationship between teacher

behaviors and their observable effects on student behaviors and achievement. That is, it favoured the following linear interaction among the variables;

Teacher actions → Student actions → Student achievement

It was also assumed that effective teacher actions lead to effective student actions and these contribute to student achievement. Process-product paradigm, which was referred to "micro-perspective" for the behavioral aspects of teaching (behavioral process underlying effective teaching) (Richards, 1990), was the dominant conceptual model of teaching in the 1970s. This paradigm was derived from the teaching model proposed by Dunkin and Biddle (1974, cited in Borg, 2015). Their teaching model demonstrated the interactions between presage variables (e.g. teachers' personal characteristics and experiences), context variables (e.g. learners' personal characteristics), process variables (e.g. teacher-student interactions), and product variables (e.g. learning outcomes, student achievement). The research in this paradigm attempted to depict one-way and linear causality and how teachers' classroom actions impacted students' classroom actions and ultimately student achievement (Doyle, 1977; Freeman, 2002). Richards (2008) reported that, traditionally, teaching was seen as a knowledge-transmission process. Within the transmission model, the process-product paradigm focused on teaching with regard to the learning outcomes.

In the 1980s, several developments led to a paradigm shift in research on teaching. First, the advents in the field of cognitive psychology and the increasing influence of constructivism gave prominence to the role of thinking on behavior (Fang, 1996; Johnson, 1992a, 1992b; Richards & Nunan, 1990). It was underlined that understanding teachers and teaching process necessitates understanding their cognitive processes rather than focusing solely on observable teacher behaviors. Second, there was a growing understanding of the fact that teachers served a much more active and critical role in guiding instructional processes than they were recognized previously. Third, it was recognized that studying observable teacher behaviors and the concern for linking those behaviors with student achievement were not adequate for a complete understanding of teaching as a complex process. According to Calderhead (1987), the reason behind the paradigm shift through which teacher thinking became prominent was the dissatisfaction with behaviorist approaches to research of teaching in the 1970s.

Research on teaching has started to focus on teachers' cognitive processes rather than on teacher behaviors, student behaviors, and student achievement. To put it in a different way,

teaching is no longer associated with only observable behaviors, but rather with unobservable cognitive processes of teachers and students as well as the social construction of knowledge (Zheng, 2015).

Similarly, teachers are viewed as active decision-makers rather than a "mechanical implementers of external prescriptions" (Borg, 2006, p. 7). This recent tradition has proposed that understanding teacher cognition is vital for a complete understanding of the teaching process and teachers' instructional practices. It has been recognized that teaching is more than behavior (Shulman, 1986); rather, it is, in fact, thoughtful work (Freeman, 1990). That is, teaching is not only a behavioral activity but also a cognitive activity, and teacher beliefs about teaching, teachers, and learners exert a profound impact on their instructional practices (Freeman, 1992).

After the 1980s, the research has focused heavily on the relationship between teachers' thought processes and their teaching behaviors and actions.

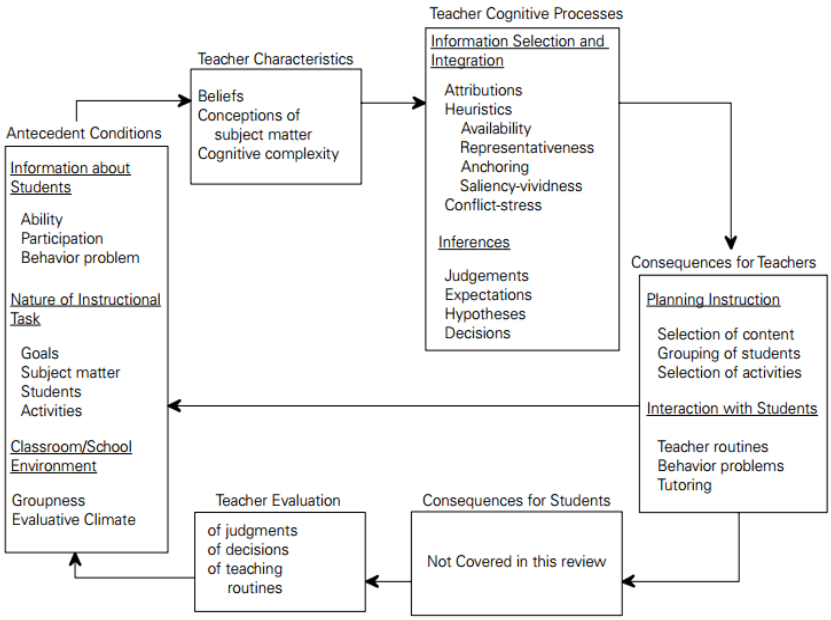


Figure 1. Overview of the dimensions of research on teachers' judgments, decisions, and behavior (Shavelson & Stern, 1981, p. 461).

According to the diagram, there was a close interaction between teacher cognition and classroom practices. Rather than a linear interaction, a cyclical relation was emphasized. The

researchers noted that "the figure is circular in order to show that the condition that infers a decision will, in all likelihood, be changed somewhat by the consequent behavior of the teacher" (p. 460). Similarly, the model illustrates a mutual relationship between cognition and classroom practice in that teacher cognition influence classroom practices, and in turn, these practices shape posterior cognitions.

In the similar line, another model illustrating the mutual relationship between thoughts and actions was proposed by Clark and Peterson (1986, p. 257).

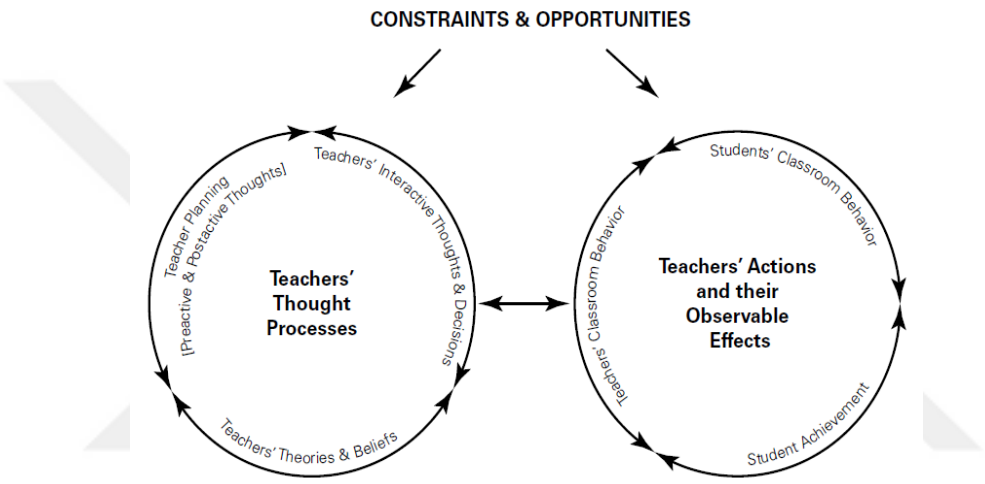


Figure 2. A model of teacher thought processes and teachers' actions

The model was composed of two main components. The action component involved the observable aspects of the classroom (i.e. teacher behavior, student behavior), whereas the thought process covered the unobservable psychological aspects of teaching (i.e. thoughts and beliefs). There was a bi-directional interaction between these two components as indicated by the arrows referring that thoughts impact the behaviors and in turn, are influenced by the behaviors. In addition, the constraints and opportunities mediated these two components in the process of teaching. The researchers pointed out that "the process of teaching will be fully understood only when these two domains are brought together and examined in relation to one another" (1986, p. 258).

Recently, Borg (2003) has developed a diagram concerning teacher cognition and classroom practice (p. 88).

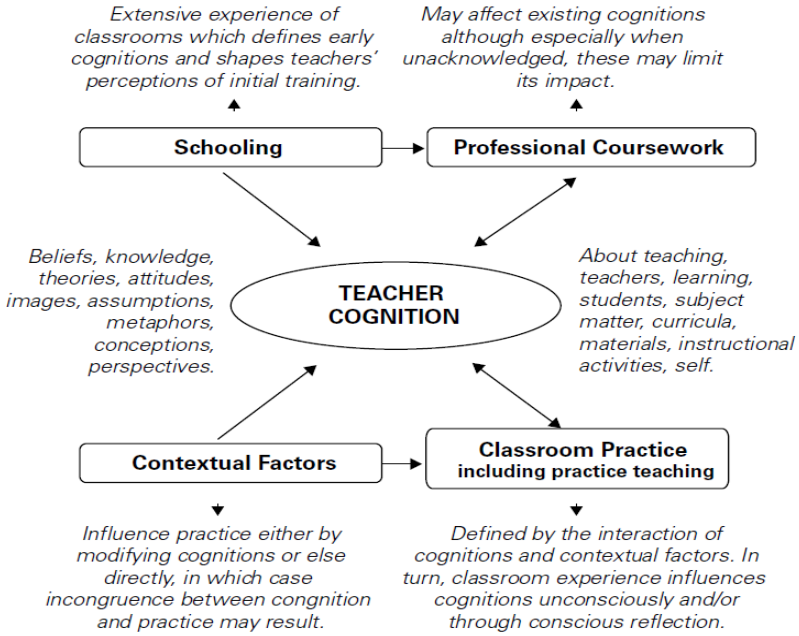


Figure 3. Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice

Figure 3 represents how teacher cognition functions as a pivotal factor in teachers' professional lives. It has been recognized that teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom practices (Borg, 2015). The model illustrates teacher cognition involving various psychological constructs. It demonstrates the relationship among teacher cognition, teacher learning (through schooling and professional education), and classroom practice. There is a uni-directional relationship between schooling and teacher cognition referring that teachers' experiences as learners influence their cognition, and not vice versa. Besides, the diagram also indicates that there is a mutual relationship between classroom practice and teacher cognition in that teacher cognition guides teachers' classroom practices, and in turn is modified by teachers' classroom practices. Contextual factors play a mediating role in determining the degree of congruence of teacher cognition and classroom practices.

Richards (1990) referred to teachers' mental processes as 'macro-perspective' concerning the cognitive aspects of teaching (cognitive processes underlying effective teaching).

Research adopting this perspective pays much importance to teacher cognition, which includes thinking, knowledge, and belief system (Borg, 2015). Among others, one component of teacher cognition that has received substantial attention is teacher beliefs.

Distinguishing Features of Beliefs

Although there is an increasing interest in understanding teacher beliefs in the literature (Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Richardson, 1996), there is no consensus on the definition of teacher beliefs. A plethora of terms or concepts are used to define this messy or blurry construct (Pajares, 1992), and it is difficult to find a clear and single definition of it. Relatedly, Campbell (1963) coined the phrase 'terminology forest' to emphasize the abundance of the terms used synonymously to define the beliefs. (p. 100). Similarly, Pajares (1992) articulated that "defining beliefs is at best a game of player's choice" (p. 309) in that each research approaches and defines it from his/her own perspective. There is an extensive proliferation of terms to define this complex and dynamic concept such as teacher perspectives (Goodman, 1988) teaching ideology (Sharp & Green, 1975), conceptions (Thompson, 1984), personal theories (Breen, 1991; Richards, 1998), explicit propositions (Nisbett & Ross, 1980), preconceptions (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Horwitz, 1985; Huang, 1997; Wubbels, 1992), preconceived ideas (Horwitz, 1987), preconceived notions (Horwitz, 1988), propositions (Phipps & Borg, 2009), personal practical knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987), implicit theories (Clark, 1988; Munby, 1982; Woods, 1996), personal knowledge (Kagan, 1992; Vibulphol, 2004), principles (Bailey, 1996), pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton, 1999), maxims (Richards, 1996), implicit assumptions (Kagan, 1992), knowledge structures (Roehler, Duffy, Hermann, Conley, & Johnson, 1988), and so forth. Accordingly, there is a wide range of definitions to teacher beliefs such as:

- "personal theories that teachers hold regarding the nature of the broader educational process, the nature of language, how it is learned, and how it may be best taught" (Breen et al., 2001, p. 472).
- "teachers' psychologically held thinking, conceptions, and understandings about teaching and learning" (Zheng, 2015, p. 14).
- "an individual's judgment of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do" (Pajares, 1992, p. 316).

- “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that one felt to be true” (Peacock, 2001, p. 178).
- “a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality of given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action” (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000, p. 388).
- "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught" (Kagan, 1992, p. 65).
- “psychologically held understandings, premises, and propositions about the world” that are accepted as true by the individual holding the belief (Richardson, 1996, pp. 103-104).
- “a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior” (M. Borg, 2001, p. 186),
- “propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change” (Borg, 2011, p. 2).
- “propositions about all aspects of their work which teachers hold to be true or false” (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 381).
- “statements teachers [make] about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what ‘should be done,’ ‘should be the case,’ and ‘is preferable’” (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004).

Overall, Pajares (1992) synthesized a substantial number of studies on teacher beliefs and identified a list of 16 essential findings from these studies that; (1) beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate even against contradictions caused by reason, time, schooling or experience; (2) individuals develop a belief system that houses all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission; (3) the belief system has an adaptive function in helping individuals define and understand the world themselves; (4) knowledge and beliefs are inextricably intertwined, but the potent affective, evaluative and episodic nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted; (5) thought processes may be precursors to and creators of belief, but the filtering effect of belief structures ultimately screens, redefines, distorts or reshapes subsequent thinking and

information-processing; (6) epistemological beliefs play a key role in knowledge interpretation and cognitive monitoring; (7) beliefs are prioritized according to their connections or relationship to other beliefs or other cognitive and affective structures; (8) belief substructures, such as educational beliefs, must be understood in terms of their connections not only to each other but also to other, perhaps more central, beliefs in the system; (9) by their very nature and origin, some beliefs are more incontrovertible than others; (10) the earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter. Newly acquired beliefs are most vulnerable to change; (11) belief change during adulthood is a very rare phenomenon, the most common cause being a conversion from one authority to another or a gestalt shift; (12) beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan and make decisions regarding such tasks; (13) beliefs strongly influence perception, but they can be an unreliable guide to the nature of reality; (14) individuals' beliefs strongly affect their behaviour; (15) beliefs must be inferred, and this inference must take into account the congruence among individuals' belief statements, the intentionality to behave in a predisposed manner, and the behaviour related to the belief in question; and (16) beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student gets to college (pp. 324-326).

In addition to the definition of beliefs, it is equally important to explicate the distinguishing characteristics of beliefs from other relevant constructs, especially from knowledge in order to enhance the clarity of this complex and messy phenomenon (Pajares, 1992). Moreover, Pajares (1992) further maintained that a clearer distinction between beliefs and knowledge can lead to a better understanding of beliefs. However, differentiating beliefs from knowledge is a challenging endeavor because both are "inextricably intertwined" (Pajares, 1992, p. 325). For instance, for some researchers, beliefs subsume knowledge (e.g. Rokeach, 1968), for others, beliefs are part of knowledge (e.g. Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). In other words, knowledge can be viewed as a vital source of beliefs while Kagan (1992) stated that teacher beliefs are "a particularly provocative form of personal knowledge" and suggests that teachers' professional knowledge can be accurately regarded as beliefs (p. 65). On the other hand, it has been also well-documented that beliefs function as a filter through which knowledge and information are perceived and interpreted (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Tillema, 1995). In essence, although it is not clear whether beliefs consist of knowledge or knowledge is composed of beliefs, what is clear is that both are

among the major determinants of an individual's behaviors. Still, it is reported in the literature that each construct has basic distinguishing features from each other.

Based on Abelson' (1979) study, Nespor (1987) suggested that there are at least four different features of beliefs differentiating it from knowledge including existential presumption, alternativity, affective and evaluative loading, and episodic nature. Existential presumption refers to personal propositions or assumptions about the existence or nonexistence of various kinds of phenomena. Alternativity means personally created ideal situations that may differ from reality. Affective and evaluative loading refers to that beliefs can rely more heavily on affective and evaluative dimensions than knowledge systems do. Lastly, episodic nature beliefs are kept in episodic memory with information obtained from experience and cultural sources of knowledge transmission. Episodic memory involves beliefs together with information about personal experience, events, and episodes. Knowledge, on the other hand, is stored in semantic memory.

Table 1

The Distinguishing Features of Beliefs and Knowledge

Beliefs	***Knowledge***
a stronger affective and evaluative dimension	a stronger cognitive dimension
individual's personal judgment of the truth	a strong truth condition
episodic nature	semantic nature
disputable, more inflexible/rigid/stable, and less dynamic	undisputable, more flexible/rigid/stable, and more dynamic
more subjective	more objective
personal values	factual propositions

Note: These features have been synthesized from a number of studies (e.g. Ernest, 1989; Fenstermacher, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Lundeberg & Levin, 2003; Nespor, 1987; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; 2003).

Teacher Beliefs in Language Teacher Education

While in general education, studies on teacher beliefs have started to appear in the 1980s, the research on language teacher beliefs has emerged in the 1990s (Freeman, 2002). Thus, language teacher cognition is still a young field of inquiry (Borg, 2015), and there has been an increasing interest in this field for three decades (Zheng, 2015). It is safe to claim that the investigation of teacher beliefs is among the well-established and well-documented research areas in the field of language education.

Although a plethora of studies has been conducted on students or pre-service teachers' beliefs in the field of language teaching, research on teachers' beliefs remains 'lightly travelled' as Pajares noted (1992, p. 326). Similarly, Fang (1996) pointed out that not much research on teacher beliefs target the beliefs systems of university-level teachers. More often, studies conducted on belief have focused on students or pre-service teachers' beliefs. Most probably because of the convenience of students and difficulty in reaching in-service teachers as participants. With this gap in mind, this study focuses on university-level teachers', more specifically, language instructors', beliefs about English writing instruction.

Horwitz opened the window on this important area of research in the field of language teaching with the BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory). Horwitz (1985) developed this inventory to assess both teachers and students' beliefs on a variety of issues related to language learning and teaching. The purpose of this inventory is twofold; (a) it aims at finding out the reasons behind teachers' adopting certain teaching practices, and (b) it aims at determining the discrepancies and similarities between teachers and students' beliefs about language learning and teaching. Even though Horwitz (1985) calls her belief inventory (BALLI) a teacher version, most of the items relate to learners rather than teachers. Nevertheless, researchers, as well as teacher educators in the same field, have used it to elicit either teacher beliefs or student beliefs (e.g. Kern, 1995). There are a number of studies which have employed Horwitz's (1987) BALLI in various teaching contexts (e.g.; Kern, 1995; Kunt, 1997; Park, 1995). BALLI has contributed to explore both teacher and students' beliefs about language learning and teaching. Through administering BALLI, some studies have attempted to find out the relationship between teacher and students beliefs about langue learning and teaching (e.g. Kern, 1995; Samimy & Lee, 1997). Horwitz (1987) identified that beliefs about language learning can be examined for teacher and learners and the BALLI "has high content and construct validity" (p. 65). However, BALLI was criticized as it was

created through the input Horwitz received from in-service SL/FL teachers about what they "believed students believed" about SL/FL learning, not through input from students themselves (Kuntz, 1996).

There is considerable research on teachers' beliefs in relation to specific curricular domains in language teacher education (Borg, 2015) such as grammar instruction (e.g. Basturkmen, Lowen, & Ellis, 2004; Borg, 2003; Graham, 2011; Morina, 2016) literacy and reading instruction (Chiou, 2004; Gebel, 2000; Johnson, 1992; Meijer, Verloop, & Veijard, 2001), communicative language teaching (Saengboon, 2002; Thompson, 1996), use of technology (Lam, 2000), code-switching (Macaro, 2005), target language use (Levine, 2003), the role of textbook in the curriculum (Allen, 2008), oral production in the classroom (Cohen & Fass, 2001), vocabulary instruction (Konopak & Williams, 1994), and internationally published materials (Zacharias, 2005).

Regarding language teaching and learning, through administering the BALLI (Horwitz, 1987), Kern (1995) aimed to compare students' beliefs about language learning and teaching with those of their teachers and with those of their peers of another instruction. 288 first-year French students together with their 12 instructors participated in the study. It further examined the evidence of change in students' beliefs over a 15-week period. The results indicated that there were overall similarities between students' beliefs and teachers' beliefs as well as students' pre and posttest responses. Students' beliefs about language learning were usually congruent with those of their instructors. One can infer from this finding that among others, teachers' beliefs are one of the important factors influencing students' beliefs about language learning. Teacher intervention did not change students' beliefs and attitudes, and there was a remarkable resistance in students' beliefs at the end of the semester.

With respect to L2 reading instruction, Johnson (1992) examined the extent to which ESL teachers hold theoretical beliefs which reflect the methodological domains of skill-based, rule-based, and function-based approaches toward L2 teaching. She also analyzed the extent to which teachers' theoretical beliefs were congruent with their classroom practices. She found that the majority of subjects (60%) hold clearly defined beliefs which invariably mirror one of the methodological approaches to second language teaching. Besides, the results of the study were in line with the notion that ESL teachers teach in accordance with their beliefs and that the differences in beliefs may give rise to differences in the nature of literacy instruction. One can conclude that ESL teachers teach in congruence with their

theoretical beliefs and that different theoretical beliefs lead to different instructional practices in literacy instruction. There was a negative relationship between teachers' years of teaching experience and their theoretical orientation in that the less experienced adopted the most recent approach (i.e. function-based) while the more experienced embraced the least recent one (i.e. skill-based). It can be argued that teacher beliefs were not influenced by the theoretical changes in the field and that the dominant methodological approaches of their times impacted the ESL teachers' theoretical beliefs. She concluded that an accurate portrayal of the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices will assist to have a more complete picture of the mental activities teachers employ during literacy instruction.

More recently, Zheng (2015) examined language teachers' beliefs through adopting complexity theory in order to find out the interconnectedness of the components and dynamic processes and interactions among these components of the belief system. Adopting a case study approach involving six Chinese secondary school EFL teachers, Zheng used semi-structured interviews, stimulated recall interviews, and observations in order to collect the data. The findings of the Zheng's (2015) study were congruent with prior studies (e.g. Breen et al, 2001; Phipps & Borg, 2009) that language teachers' beliefs about EFL teaching and learning governed their instructional practices in the classroom and that their practices were guided often more than one's beliefs.

Research on teacher beliefs also compared the beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. For example, Richards, Tung, and Ng (1992) investigated the beliefs and repeated practices of 249 secondary school teachers of English in Hong Kong. The study indicated that there were differences in experienced and novice teachers' beliefs. Novice teachers more likely believed that grammar theories of language are useful to language teaching and that writing is the most important skill at both elementary and secondary school. Whereas experienced teachers felt that training and in-service support are most important for their teaching, inexperienced teachers believed that their personal philosophy of teaching is most important.

Teacher beliefs have attracted researchers' attention in bilingual contexts, as well. For example, Flores (2001) attempted to explore teachers' beliefs and their relation to their self-reported practices in a bilingual education context. 176 bilingual educators' beliefs were surveyed through an inventory (The Survey of Bilingual Teachers' Epistemological and Teaching Practices) and their practices were examined through interviews. The major finding was that the majority of the bilingual education teachers believed the importance of

language and culture in the acquisition of knowledge. It was revealed that beliefs are dynamic in that bilingual teachers' beliefs were impacted by personal experiences and these beliefs were modified during teacher education. In addition, there was a significant relationship between bilingual teachers' stated beliefs and their reported practices.

Among others, grammar instruction has attracted much more attention in the field of language teacher cognition research (Borg, 2015). The possible reason may be that grammar instruction is one of the most hotly debated and controversial issues in language teaching. Thus, teacher beliefs relevant to grammar instruction have been examined in various contexts, such as in Catalonia (Pahissa & Tragant, 2009), in Malaysia (Ashari, 1994), in Kosovo (Morina, 2016), in Taiwan (Chiou, 2004), in Australia (Burns, 1992), in Zimbabwe (Nyawaranda, 1998), in Greece (Katradis, 2016), in Spain (Gebel, 2000), in Canada (Shi & Cumming, 1995), in Georgia (Polat, 2009), in Hong Kong (Andrew, 1997; 1999; 2003; Tsui, 1996, 1999), in Malta (Borg, 1998, 1999, 2001), in New Zealand (Barnard & Scampton, 2008), in Singapore (Chia, 2003; Farrell, 1999; Farrell & Lim, 2005), in the UK (Burgess & Etherington, 2002), and in Turkey (Çapan, 2014; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Uysal & Bardakçı, 2014).

Burgess and Etherington (2002) surveyed 48 language teachers' beliefs about grammar and grammar instruction in the UK. Teachers reported positive attitudes towards formal instruction in that they believed that formal instruction contributes to the development of their students' proficiency and that conscious knowledge of grammar plays a significant role in students' language use. The majority of teachers (over 90%) articulated that their students want them to present grammar points explicitly. The teachers favored most the integration of focus-on-form approach to teaching grammar.

With respect to literacy instruction, there is more substantial research on both pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs about L1 writing instruction than L2 writing instruction, especially in the USA. To name a few, while Chambless and Bass (1996), Flario-Ruane and Lensmire (1990), and Norman and Spencer (2005) studied with pre-service teachers, Fang, (1996), McCarthey (1992), and Mosenthal (1995) investigated in-service teachers' beliefs about L1 writing instruction. For example, McCarthey (1992) analyzed the effects of a staff development program on the conceptions of writing held by three elementary teachers in an in-service context. The program lasted for one year in which workshops and classroom-based training activities took place. One of the major findings of the study was that there

were definite changes in teachers' conceptions of writing in line with the goals of the program. Teachers' conceptions changed especially with regard to teacher-student interactions, the goals of writing instruction and teachers' classroom practices.

Teacher Beliefs in L2 Writing Instruction

Because of the communication demands of globalization in the 21st century, everyone needs to write and communicate eloquently in English. The effect of globalization necessitates more and better communication across languages, and with the advent of the Internet, a huge part of this communication is conducted through writing (Silva, 2016). In this sense, today's modern literate societies necessitate a variety of writing activities, such as messages, e-mails, reports, presentations, brochures, notes, visual aids, and articles in almost every sphere of life, including highly competitive business sector, international communication, and education (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Therefore, "the ability to control the written medium of language" has a prime importance (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 3).

What's more, writing skill is one of the main pillars of language teaching and learning. However, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996) postulated, "probably half of the world's population does not know how to write adequately and effectively" (p. 87). Similarly, Murcia (1991) expressed that there are a great many people who don't know how to write even in their own language. Still, not until recent years, ESL and EFL writing instruction has not lured a lot of attention in the field of applied linguistics and second language teaching as a distinct field of inquiry (Matsuda & De Pew, 2002; Silva & Brice, 2004; Matsuda et al., 2003). Writing is considered the Cinderella skill in language teaching; therefore, it has been paid less attention. Specifically, in the context of Turkey, this pillar has not been given sufficient emphasis by either L1/L2 researchers or practitioners of literacy studies (Göğüş, 1978; Gökalp & Gonca, 2001; Inal, 2006).

According to Silva (1990), 1945 was "the beginning of the modern era of L2 writing teaching in the United States" (p. 11). Before 1945, as Matsuda (2003) states because of the predominance of the audiolingual approach, writing had not been paid attention in second language studies. Matsuda (2003) pointed out that this negligence even goes back to the late nineteenth century because of the supremacy of spoken language over written language known as language as speech movement in Europe. This speech movement was supported by two well-known applied linguists: Henry Sweet and Paul Passy (2003). Again, in the

United States, it was between the 1940s and the 1960s when the negligence of writing reached its peak due to the impact of the work of Bloomfield and Fries who saw language as speech (Matsuda, 2003). Therefore, the research attempts in L2 writing is rather recent (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). In the mid-1960s and early 1970s, second language writing instruction started to be a part of ESL programs with the increasing number of international tertiary-level students and the problems of settled L2 students in writing in the United States (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Matsuda, 2003). In fact, it was the 1960s when second language writing history flourished and attracted a lot of experts' attention (Leki, 1992; Matsuda, 2003; Silva, 1990).

Writing is not a one-dimensional skill that can be explained by a single theory, but it is a multifaceted and multidimensional phenomenon (Cumming, 2001; Ur, 1996). There are cognitive, affective, linguistic, and sociocultural aspects of writing which make writing difficult to master. Cognitive aspects of writing refer to the fact that the writer has to have control over a lot of cognitive processes at the same time (Nunan, 1989). Hayes and Flower (1980) believe that writing is a cognitively demanding activity and process in which processing of different activities can have an overload on the cognition of writer. Working memory, attention, strategies, and skills and demanded cognitive processes cause cognitive load and make the writing skill complicated.

Affective aspects of writing include writers' intentions, beliefs, needs, attitudes, goals, predispositions, and cost/benefit estimates (Beach & Bridwell, 1984, as cited in Hidi & Boscolo, 2008; Hayes, 2000). Another aspect of writing is composed of linguistic factors which involve a good command of lexis, syntax, spelling, punctuation, and word and phrase choice (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). Kobayashi and Rinnert (2012) referred this aspect as meta-knowledge which includes writing conventions (e.g. discourse markers), rhetorical features (e.g. argumentative structures), and linguistic knowledge (e.g. language awareness). Sociocultural dimension of writing, on the other hand, points to the fact that the writer should be able to predict to whom s/he is writing, the needs of the audiences (audience awareness), the context, and more importantly the values and culture of the society. In fact, writing is a type of communication in which the writer has to be fully aware of the needs of audiences or addressees. Alexander, Schallert, and Hare (1991) stated that sociocultural knowledge is a background in the social context in which particular cultural values and frame

of references are prevalent. These aforementioned dimensions which stem from the nature of writing make writing skill difficult to describe, teach and learn.

Other factors that pose serious challenges for teachers of writing stem from the writing instruction (Casanave, 2009; Cumming, 2001; Lee, 2011). Unlike other language skills, writing is not an ability gained naturally; rather it requires practice, experience, training, and instruction. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), "writing is a technology, a set of skills which must be practiced and learned through experience" (p. 6). Therefore, writing is a skill, which is learned consciously through instruction; thus, any problems with writing instruction or the instructional context are directly related to the success of how these complex set of writing skills are learned.

Studies revealed certain factors that cause problems in writing instruction in the world and in Turkey (Abu Rass, 2001; Durukafa, 1992; Frizler, 1995; Göğüş, 1978; Gökalp & Gonca, 2001; Harris, Schmidt, & Graham, 2002; Jenkinson, 1993; Myers, 1997; Pincas, 1988; Raimes, 1996; Richards, 2002; Yalçın, 1999). Curriculum constraints are one of these factors. Reichelt's (2009) comprehensive study revealed that L2 writing instruction is seen as only a means of reinforcing and supporting foreign language learning through focusing on mechanical aspects such as grammatical structures and vocabulary in Poland, and in the USA (Reichelt & Bryant, 2001), in Spain (Chaudron, Martin Uriz, & Whittaker, 2005) rather than writing as a separate necessary skill. Similarly, in Japan, process-oriented approaches were not adopted by L2 writers (Dyer & Friederich, 2002).

Other factors are the exam-burdened atmosphere in which writing is seen as a necessary skill for passing specific exams, crowded classes, and teacher overload. As one of the parts of school-leaving, year-end, and entrance exams, L2 writing instruction is seen as a means of preparing students for these exams in Poland, in China, and in Spain (Chaudron, Martin Uriz, & Whittaker, 2005). Large and teacher-centered class (Casanave, 2009; Reichelt, 2009; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006) is another factor. For instance, writing teachers face difficulties in implementing process-oriented pedagogies including multiple drafts, multiple revisions, teacher-student conferences and providing sufficient feedback to students' papers (Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006). Teacher overload is also another factor that makes writing difficult to teach (Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006; You, 2004). Since writing is a time-consuming activity, it demands teachers to devote extra time.

Insufficiency and inefficacy of writing courses in teacher education programs is also mentioned by Lee (2010), Casanave (2009), Hochstetler (2007), and Reichelt (2009) as a factor that poses challenges for teachers of writing. Uysal (2007) emphasized the lack of "professional preparation opportunities" for L2 writing teachers (p. 239). Furthermore, according to Hirvela and Belcher (2007), L2 writing was not successfully integrated in teacher education programs. In the same way, Hyland (2007) lamented that the problem of the teacher education programs in the USA is that they adopted the pedagogies based on composition theory, cognitive psychology, or traditional grammars. However, these programs did not touch upon the recent writing pedagogies like genre. In fact, these programs educate teachers of language rather than teachers of writing.

Another important factor is the appropriateness and implementation of Western writing pedagogies (Casanave, 2009). There exist conflicts between theories of writing instruction and the practices of L2 writing teachers in classrooms (Hedgecock, 2010; Zhu, 2010). In this sense, Clachar's (2000) study on Turkish teachers' attitudes toward Western writing approaches to the teaching of writing revealed that four teachers out of seven opposed to Western writing pedagogies including process and rhetorical approaches as these pedagogies are different from Turkish literacy practices.

Lack of an underpinning theory of writing pedagogies is also an important factor that constitutes a problem in L2 writing instruction (Matsuda, 2003; Silva, 1990; Uysal, 2007). There are a number of writing pedagogies each of which emphasizes a different aspect of L2 writing like mechanics of writing, processes of writing, the writer, the reader, context of writing, language use, genres, and so on (Cumming, 2001; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hyland, 2003; Matsuda, 2003) without a valid theory to support their pedagogical suggestions. Therefore, Silva (1990) calls for realistic theories of L2 writing which combine the writer, the audience, the text, the context, and their interaction.

Finally, constituting the psychological aspect of teaching, beliefs can influence the quality of language learning and teaching. In fact, as an integral part of language learning, beliefs play a significant role on the way and degree of learners' learning and on the way teachers learn and teach. Therefore, these beliefs about language learning and teaching in general and about writing, in particular, may have an impact both on teachers' effectiveness and learners' performance in writing classes. Specifically, related to writing skill, a number of researchers have investigated both learners and teachers' beliefs about writing from different

perspectives (e.g. Burns, 1992; Diab, 2005; Kim, 2015; Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001; Lee, 2009, 2011; Palmquist & Young, 1992; Sengupta & Xiao, 2002; Shi & Cumming, 1995; Silva, 1992; Tsui, 1996; White & Bruning, 2005; Wu, 2003, Yang & Gao, 2013; Yiğitoğlu, 2011). One of the early empirical studies on learners' writing beliefs was conducted by Palmquist and Young (1992). They looked at writing in terms of whether it is a gifted ability and whether the belief in the notion of giftedness plays an important role in students' expectations about writing. The results suggested that belief in giftedness may have deleterious effects on student writers' performance. Silva (1993) investigated ESL/EFL graduate students' perceptions about differences between writing in L1 and L2 and how ESL writing teachers should reflect these differences in their practices. Findings revealed three categories of perceived differences including process (planning, writing, and reviewing), rhetoric (audience, paragraph, directness, culture, style, and organization), and language (sentences, phrases, vocabulary, and printing conversations). These differences in students' perceptions were reflected in the practices of ESL writing teachers. Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) focused on university students' beliefs about themselves as writers and about their experiences of learning through writing. The researchers concluded that students' perceptions about their writing are crucial for them to have a positive identity in writing. In her dissertation, Wu (2003) investigated 198 Taiwanese college business-major students' writing beliefs regarding their L1 (Chinese) and FL (English), and the relationship between their writing beliefs and writing strategy use. Their different writing beliefs influenced their writing processes and choice of writing strategies. Another study which is based on students' writing beliefs was conducted by White and Bruning (2005). They investigated how students' implicit writing beliefs affect their writing quality. The results showed that overall writing quality would be higher for students with higher levels of transactional beliefs than for those with high levels of transmissional beliefs. Very recently, Sanders-Reio, Alexander, Reio, and Newman (2014) have investigated the relationship between 738 undergraduate students' beliefs about writing with their writing self-efficacy, writing apprehension, and writing performance. The results revealed that the participants' beliefs about writing did relate to their writing self-efficacy, writing apprehension, and writing performance and they did predict unique variance in the students' grades for their written work.

Beside students' beliefs, more importantly for and as the scope of this study, teachers' beliefs also exert a huge impact on their teaching practice (Bailey 1996; Bandura, 1986; Bartels, 1999; Borg, 1998, 1999, 2003; Breen, et al., 2001; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Nunan, 1992;

Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1996, 1998; Savascı-Acıkalın, 2009; Yero, 2002) and thus, affect the quality of language learning and teaching. In fact, teachers' beliefs are so important that they "lie at the heart of teaching and learning" (Burns, 1992, p. 64). There have been many studies putting forward that teachers' beliefs influence their classroom practices (Artzt & Armour-Thomas, 1999; Borg, 2003, 2006, 2015; Burns, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Lee, 2009; Pajares, 1992; Reed, 2002; Tsai, 2006). This situation holds true with the teachers of writing as well. For example, if the teachers like to write, they may want their students to write more than teachers with negative attitudes toward writing (Claypool, 1980, cited in Daisey, 2009). Teachers with negative attitudes toward writing may not prefer conferencing with students about writing (Bizarro & Toler, 1986, cited in Daisey, 2009), and may not want to make conversations with students about their own writing (Lane, 1993, cited in Daisey, 2009). Furthermore, because of the culture-specific beliefs, teachers may not use some strategies like peer reviewing and teacher-student conferencing (Li, 2007). For instance, in teacher-centered classrooms where teacher authority is dominant, students may not rely on their peers' ideas and thoughts as they accept only the teacher as an authority (Li, 2007). In fact, teachers' beliefs about writing which are affected by culture and social context mold them accordingly. It should be noted that from a socio-cognitive perspective, values, attitudes, and experiences exert a powerful influence on learning and teaching as well (Vygotsky, 1978). However, the research on teacher beliefs about L2 writing instruction has attracted extremely less attention (Borg, 2015; Yiğitoğlu, 2011; Yiğitoğlu & Belcher, 2014).

Both as a language skill and research area, L2 writing skill can be considered as a Cinderella skill in that relatively little attempt has been made to explore FL and/or SL teachers' beliefs about English writing instruction (e.g. Burns, 1992; Diab, 2005; Kim, 2015; Lee, 2011; Sengupta & Xiao, 2002; Shi & Cumming, 1995; Tsui, 1996; Yiğitoğlu, 2011). Yet, the need for such investigation clearly exists.

Recently, as a qualitative study through employing interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis of written feedback teachers provided to students, Yiğitoğlu (2011) has investigated ESL writing teachers' beliefs about themselves as language learners and as writers in their first and second language(s). She aimed to explore how ESL writing teachers' beliefs about and practices of teaching L2 writing are affected by their experiences in L1 and L2 writing. In addition, she attempted to yield deeper insights into the relationship between teachers' self-perceptions and their instructional practices. To do so, 3 native and 2 non-

native writing teachers were involved in the study. During a 15-week semester, the ESL writing classes were periodically observed and audio-recorded. She interviewed each writing teacher twice using stimulated recall technique with respect to both their classroom instructional practices and instruction provided in the margins of student papers. The findings revealed that language learning, in general, was a significant source for both native and non-native teachers' cognitions. This finding supported what Lortie (1975) called "apprenticeship of observation". Both native and non-native teachers' self-perceptions as language learners appeared to impact their beliefs about the learning and teaching of L2 writing. Next, the teachers' memories of their own language teachers also appeared to guide their decisions about what materials to use and how to present materials during L2 writing classes. The non-native teachers reported that they sometimes had to step out of their language experience so as to provide better help their students. Next, L2 writing teachers without advanced L2 literacy skills were influenced primarily by their L1 writing experiences. On the other hand, L2 writing teachers with advanced L2 literacy skills were greatly influenced by their L2 writing experiences. Overall, being an advanced writer, whether in their L1 or L2, was an important contributor to L2 writing teachers' cognitions. It can also be inferred that native teachers' self-perceptions as advanced writers, whether in their L1s and L2s, appeared to shape their L2 writing instruction. On the other hand, non-native teachers perceived themselves as highly proficient L2 writers and this self-perception positively guided their instruction, especially their empathy towards students' errors as L2 writers. Both native and non-native teachers' self-perceptions as writers influenced their instructional practices. All of the participants seemed to make use of any advanced writing expertise they possess, whether in L1, L2, or both. She speculated that because of the differences in native and non-native writing teachers' language learning and writing experiences, their beliefs about L2 writing may vary greatly.

In order to find out the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices, Burns (1992) examined six ESL teachers' beliefs and writing instruction practices in beginning ESL classes in Australia. She found "an extremely complex and interrelated network of underlying beliefs, clustering around five major areas which appeared to influence the instructional practices and approaches used by the teachers" (p. 59). These were: (1) the nature of language as it relates to beginning language learning; (2) the relationship between written and spoken language; (3) the nature of beginning language learning and strategies relevant to language learning of this stage; (4) learner characteristics, their ability to learn,

and their ability to learn English; (5) the nature of the language classroom and the teacher's role within it. It was clear that the differences in teachers' beliefs about these issues result in differences in their practices in writing instruction.

Another recent study was conducted in an EFL context, Korea. Kim (2015) has investigated Korean university teachers' cognition (their thinking, decision making, and classroom practices) in EFL writing instruction. She has attempted to examine the effects of contextual factors, prior language learning, teaching experience, and teacher education on teachers' cognition and classroom practices. The study had adopted a mixed method methodology. Through a questionnaire survey, which was developed by herself (2015), she collected 86 writing teachers' beliefs and practices. The questionnaire involved ten writing topics including nature of L1 and L2 writing, approaches to writing instruction, techniques for teaching writing, enhancement of writing strategies, teacher feedback and error correction, assessing writing, textbooks and materials, writing instruction policy, past experiences as learners of English/English writing, and professional development. These data were analyzed quantitatively through descriptive and inferential statistics. The qualitative phase of the study involved follow-up interviews and classroom observation with the participation of three EFL writing teachers. The results of the quantitative analysis revealed that Korean writing teachers strongly believed about process-oriented writing, paragraph writing, sharing with peers, enhancement of planning strategies, direct English writing, written commentaries, and varied assessment tasks, whereas they had weak beliefs about the product approach, grammar focused technique, journal writing, and translated writing. Besides, these teachers favored the change of the college entrance exam, and the revision of the national teacher education curriculum to involve writing assessment. They also believed the positive effects of ongoing professional development programs in developing their writing knowledge. Furthermore, the results of the qualitative analysis showed that all three writing teachers had similar thinking about EFL writing instruction. Their beliefs about writing instruction generally were in line with their decisions and practices. Especially their language learning experiences were major determinants of the consistencies between their beliefs and practices. On the other hand, national writing instructional policy was the major contextual factor leading discrepancies between their beliefs and policy-driven practices. The researcher concluded that EFL writing teachers' beliefs guiding their classroom practices are malleable and sensitive to various policy contexts. These writing beliefs can

and should be formed through professional development programs in order to improve the effectiveness of writing instruction.

Teacher Beliefs and the Nature of L2 Writing

Although L2 writing skill is one of the main pillars of language teaching and learning, it is one of the most neglected skills in the process of language teaching. Writing skills can be recognized as the Cinderella skill in language teaching. Specifically, in the context of Turkey, this pillar has not been given sufficient emphasis by either L1/L2 researchers or practitioners of literacy studies (Göğüş, 1978; Gökalp & Gonca, 2001; Inal, 2006). However, in recent years, ESL and EFL writing instruction has attracted a lot of attention in the field of applied linguistics and second language teaching as a distinct field of inquiry (Matsuda & De Pew, 2002; Silva & Brice, 2004; Matsuda et al., 2003).

Still; cognitive, linguistic, sociocultural, and psychological dimensions of writing instruction make it even more difficult to teach and learn. To begin with, the cognitive dimension of writing involves the cognitive processes the writer should have a good command of at the same time (Nunan, 1989). These recursive processes include brainstorming, drafting, rewriting, revising, etc. According to Hayes and Flower, these writing processes are cognitively demanding and can lead to overload on writer's cognition. As for the linguistic dimension of writing, the writer needs to master lexis, syntax, spelling, punctuation, and word and phrase choice (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2006). In Kobayashi and Rinnert's (2012) words, the writer should have sufficient meta-knowledge which is comprised of writing conventions (e.g. discourse markers), rhetorical features (e.g. argumentative structures), and linguistic knowledge (e.g. language awareness). Next, Alexander, Schallert, and Hare (1991) stated that sociocultural knowledge is a background in the social context in which particular cultural values and frame of references are prevalent. Since writing is a kind of communication with the reader, the writer has to be aware of the needs of the target audience (audience awareness). More importantly, writing is a cultural and social activity in which the writer should be able to address the values and norms of the culture of the society. The last but maybe the most critical one is the psychological dimension of writing. Teacher and students' beliefs, attitudes, expectations, perceptions, and predispositions constitute this dimension (Beach & Bridwell, 1984, as cited in Hidi & Boscolo, 2008; Hayes, 2000). It has been well-documented in the language teacher cognition

literature that teacher beliefs exert a powerful impact on their instructional decisions, classroom behaviors and ultimately student learning (Borg, 2015). Similarly, students' attitudes toward both the writing teacher and writing course determine their success in the process. Furthermore, both teachers and students' misconceptions and unrealistic beliefs may have detrimental effects on their teaching and learning process.

Another controversial issue in L2 writing instruction is the differences and similarities between L1 and L2 writing. For years, some researchers have argued that L2 writing differs greatly from L1 writing (e.g. Silva, 1993) while others believed that L1 writing has similar features to L2 writing (Akyel & Kamışlı, 1997). Yet, there is a consensus on one issue that L2 writing is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon because it requires learned skills such as reading and knowledge about the topic, writing a lot, having rich vocabulary, having a good command of language, knowing grammar, punctuation and writing conventions (Uysal, 2008). For example, with regard to the differences between L1 and L2 writing, Silva (1993) investigated ESL/EFL graduate students' perceptions about differences between writing in L1 and L2 and how ESL writing teachers should reflect these differences in their practices. The subjects were thirteen ESL/EFL students speaking six different languages. There were three categories of perceived differences including process (planning, writing, and reviewing), rhetoric (audience, paragraph, directness, culture, style, and organization), and language (sentences, phrases, vocabulary, and printing conversations). Eight out of thirteen subjects perceived differences in writing in L1 and L2. They believed that L2 writing was more form focused, time-consuming, less fluent, less sophisticated, and less expressive of the writer's thoughts and feelings because of L2 linguistic limitations (especially vocabulary and grammar) and L1 interference. With regard to rhetorical concerns, most differences were reported in audience in L1 and L2 and paragraph structures. Regarding language, subjects perceived most differences in vocabulary and sentences. Ten of the thirteen subjects reported that they had difficulty in expressing their thoughts and intentions clearly because of their limited vocabulary in L2. The subjects' suggestions mostly centered around linguistic concerns especially grammar and vocabulary. At the end, Silva (1993) suggested that writing teachers and course designers expect and take into consideration ESL/EFL students will bring strongly held and well-developed beliefs about writing and writing instruction to class. On the other hand, the study of Akyel and Kamışlı (1997) revealed that EFL writing instruction affected students' both L1writing and L2 writing. They reported that the composing strategies were used in both L1 and L2 writing. Overall, the

writing instruction students had in English exerted positive influence both on their writing processes and attitudes towards L1 and L2 writing.

With regard to the factors affecting students' writing performance, there exist a number of sources which determine the quality of students' written texts. Students' L2 language proficiency is an important factor in determining their L2 writing performance (Bardovi-Harlig 1995; Cumming 1989; Hyland, 2003; Manchon, 2012; Uysal, 2008; Weigle, 2002). Because of limited L2 proficiency, students are adversely influenced by lexical and syntactic choices. Besides, students need to have sufficient knowledge about L2 writing genres and sociocultural norms of the target society (Leki & Carson 1997; Silva 1997; Swales 1990). These factors more severely affect the students who have low language proficiency in L2 and therefore need to rely heavily on the L1 knowledge they had acquired (Manchón, Roca de Larios, & Murphy 2000; Manchon, 2012; Zimmerman 2000). Next, composing ability or competence also affects students' writing performance (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hyland, 2003). Cultural factors have a considerable impact on how students write and their writing performance (Hyland, 2003). The value attached to both L1 and L2 writing is shaped by the culture of the society in which the writing instruction takes place. Within this context, students develop their cultural beliefs about writing. Students should feel that writing is an important means of self-expression, communication, and information-gathering (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). According to these cultural beliefs, writers adopt or disregard writing strategies and approaches. For example, Clachar's (2000) study on Turkish teachers' attitudes toward Western writing approaches to the teaching of writing revealed that four teachers out of seven opposed to Western writing pedagogies including process and rhetorical approaches as these pedagogies are different from Turkish literacy practices. Apart from the factors related to L2 language and L2 writing instruction, L1 writing ability and skills play an important role in the quality of writing (Uysal, 2008). Students should have adequate writing expertise in their native language in order to transfer some strategies from L1 to L2 writing. Effective writing is associated with higher levels of cognitive and affective engagement. Effective writing is a matter of actively developing thought in the course of writing rather than of simply transcribing preconceived thought into words (Baaijen, 2012). For instance, it was revealed in White and Bruning's (2005) study that the participants with higher transactional scores had higher writing quality scores than those with lower transactional scores. Finally, teacher expertise is among the most significant predictors of student success in L2 writing (Kaulaity, 2007). This entails that teachers should have

sufficient knowledge and skills about L2 writing. More importantly, they should have writing expertise both in their L1 and L2 writing. This expertise will govern their classroom actions which affect student learning in writing classes.

The issue of innateness is also hotly debated in L2 writing instruction (Palmquist & Young, 1992). There two opposite views: on the one side, writing is a skill and can be learned and improved through instruction, on the other side, writing is an innate gift, therefore it cannot be learned and developed through explicit instruction. According to Manchon (2012), L2 writing is a dynamic and usage-based process in which the frequency of input and use is one of the main factors. From the perspective of dynamic usage-based theory (Langacker, 2000), writing is learned by practice and experience. In the same vein, Uysal (2008) put forward that writing is learned consciously through schooling. There exists research on the notion of innateness and its effects on the writing process. For example, Palmquist and Young (1992) looked at writing in terms of whether it is a gifted ability and whether the belief in the notion of giftedness plays an important role in students' expectations about writing. 247 postsecondary students enrolled in introductory writing courses at two institutions participated in the study. The results indicated that higher levels of belief in giftedness were correlated with higher levels of writing apprehension, lower self-assessment of writing ability, lower levels of confidence in achieving proficiency in certain writing activities and genres, and lower self-assessments of prior experience with writing instructors. All in all, the results suggested that belief in giftedness may have deleterious effects on student writers. This study is important in showing how beliefs in the notion of giftedness exert an influence on students' expectations about writing. The students who thought they lacked the necessary gift for writing may not want to take the writing course, and even if they were in need of writing course, they may not make an effort to improve their writing skill. The writers were suspicious whether the belief in the notion of giftedness may shape the way the teachers value and respond to students themselves. They concluded that if the students and teachers believe that writing ability can be learned and taught, they approach writing in a positive way.

Another study examining the effects of the nature of writing beliefs (transmissional vs. transactional beliefs) on the writing quality was conducted by White and Bruning (2005). They investigated how students' implicit writing beliefs affect their writing quality. To this end, first of all, they conducted a preliminary examination of the factor structure of the

Writing Beliefs Inventory (WBI) designed to identify implicit beliefs about writing. The scale was based on the transmissional and transactional reading beliefs of Schraw and Bruning (1996, 1999). 180 university students (130 females, 50 males) enrolled in an introductory educational psychology course were administered the survey. The results revealed that there were two uncorrelated dimensions of implicit writing beliefs inventory including transmissional and transactional beliefs. Then, the researchers conducted Experiment 2 with the participation of 170 students enrolled in an introductory educational psychology course. They used the revised Writing Beliefs Inventory (WBI), Reading Beliefs Inventory (RBI) a writing self-efficacy scale, a writing apprehension scale, a background writing experience questionnaire developed for the study, and an 877-word story, The Book of Sand. They conducted three types of analyses in Experiment 2. In the first, they examined the factor structure of the revised Writing Beliefs Inventory (WBI). In the second analysis, they examined writing quality scores of individuals with higher and lower levels of writing beliefs using analysis of variance. In the third analysis, they examined relations among writing beliefs, motivational constructs, and background writing experiences. The results of the first analysis revealed that the Writing Beliefs Inventory includes 15 items with two dimensions, namely, *transmissional beliefs* and *trasnsactional beliefs.* The former refers to the beliefs that writing is the transmisson of information from authoritative sources to the reader. Therefore, transmissional beliefs reflect limited cognitive and affective engagement during writing process. The latter refers to the beliefs that writing is a means of developing their understanding of the concepts they write about and their own views. Therefore, transactional beliefs include greater levels of affective and cognitive engagement. With regard to writing beliefs and writing quality, participants with low transmissional scores had higher writing quality scores than those with high transmissional scores. On the other hand, participants with high transactional scores had higher writing quality scores than those with low transactional scores. In this sense, these results further support the relationship between writing beliefs and writing quality. In experiment 3, 129 students in an introductory educational psychology course took the same survey that of experiment 2 with four more items added to the dimension of transactional beliefs. The researchers concluded that the findings supported their hypotheses that overall writing quality would be higher for students with higher levels of transactional beliefs than for those with high levels of transmissional beliefs. They suggested that writing beliefs be considered when writing is taught to students.

In addition, there is a controversy between the notions that writing is an interactive social practice and writing is a solitary and individual activity (Casanave, 2004; Manchon, 2012). For the former, writing is an attempt to communicate with the reader and requires a sense of audience (Casanave, 2004; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996), while for the latter, writing is a way for self-expression and involves the universal set of cognitive skills. From the lens of sociocultural theory, writing is a socially situated activity through which students can use scaffolding collectively (Manchon, 2012). Thus, learning to write requires learning the social and cultural norms of the target language. In fact, writing is comprised of both individual cognitive processes and socially situated practices. Therefore, it is safe to claim that writing is a socio-cognitive activity which involves skills in planning and drafting as well as knowledge of language, context, and audience (Hyland, 2003; Weigle, 2002).

The notion of transfer in writing is a "perennial issue" in L2 writing research (Manchon & de Haan, 2008, p. 2). There is empirical evidence in the literature that writing skills or competence can be transferred from L1 to L2 writing, from L2 to L1 writing, and both (bidirectional). Language transfer can be simply defined as "the influence of a person's knowledge of one language on that person's knowledge or use of another language" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 1). Likewise, transfer in writing refers to writing knowledge that writers receive through writing instruction and experience in L1 and L2 can affect ways of writing essays across languages. Similarly, Multi-Competence Theory holds that "since the first language and the other language or languages are in the same mind, they must form a language super-system at some level rather than be completely isolated systems" (Cook, 2003, p. 2). Multicompetence is defined by Cook as "knowledge of two languages in one mind" (2008, p. 17). As such, knowledge of L1 and L2 writing takes place in the same mind as merged systems rather than completely isolated systems. As the writer expands his/her writing knowledge either in L1 or L2, his/her L1 and L2 writing knowledge overlaps and merges. Besides, the Dynamic Systems Theory (Herdina & Jessner, 2002) assumes that all factors are dynamically interconnected, and therefore there is a dynamic interaction between complex systems in the mind. From this point of view, the knowledge systems of L1 and L2 writing can be interconnected and influence each other. Knowledge of a language may influence writing development in all other languages. (De Angelis & Jessner, 2012).

It has been reported that writing knowledge that writers receive through writing instruction and experience in L1 and L2 can affect the ways of writing essays across languages. There

exists bidirectional influence of writing training/experience across L1 and L2 writing rather than unidirectional (Manchon, 2012). A number of studies have identified instances of bidirectional transfer in writing (e.g. Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2008; Uysal, 2008). In addition, there is empirical evidence in the literature that expert writers can transfer their cognitive abilities and metacognitive strategies from L1 to L2 writing (Hyland, 2003). Hence, students' L1 background writing knowledge should be valued and seen as a resource rather than a negative factor that is inferior to English (Uysal, 2008). On the other hand, there are some concerns about the transfer of some writing features. According to Hyland (2003), linguistic and rhetorical conventions may interfere with writing in the L2 (Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 2003).

There are a number of studies which examined the presence and the direction of transfer (e.g., Berman, 1994; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002; 2004; Uysal, 2008). Overall, they concluded that transfer of writing skills can be bidirectional depending on the writers' experiences and training in L1 and L2 writing. For instance, Kobayashi and Rinnert (2007) attempted to address the issue of L2 to L1 transfer in that the authors examined the effects of L2 English writing experience on L1 Japanese writing. Adopting a social cognitive (Flower, 1994), or socio-cognitive approach (Riazi, 1997; Villamail & de Guerrero, 1996) they, in particular, investigated the effects of more advanced Japanese writers' L2 (English) instruction/experience in overseas settings on the development of argumentative writing in L1 (Japanese). Using a qualitative case study together with background questionnaire and in-depth follow-up interviews, the study made comparisons among L1 and L2 essay writing produced by three groups of Japanese writers (Group 1: No overseas writing instruction/experience in overseas settings, Group 2: Two semesters university-level instruction/experience in English-speaking countries, and Group 3: Three or more years post-graduate instruction/experience in English-speaking countries). The findings indicated that the writers with extensive overseas experience, Group 3, wrote much longer essays than the Group 2 and 1 writers. Moreover, the analysis of the written essays revealed that some writing features transferred from L2 writing training to L1 argumentation texts involving knowledge of counterargument and several elements of introductions and conclusions. Overall, it can be inferred from the study that L2 writing experience that students gained through overseas education may exert influence on the transfer of some writing features. However, the degree of transfer of these features varied among the three groups of Japanese writers. The factors affecting the transfer of these features were determined as (1) the amount

and content of L1 and L2 writing/experience, (2) language proficiency, (3) disciplinary knowledge/training, and (4) affective traits of individual writers (e.g., motivation).

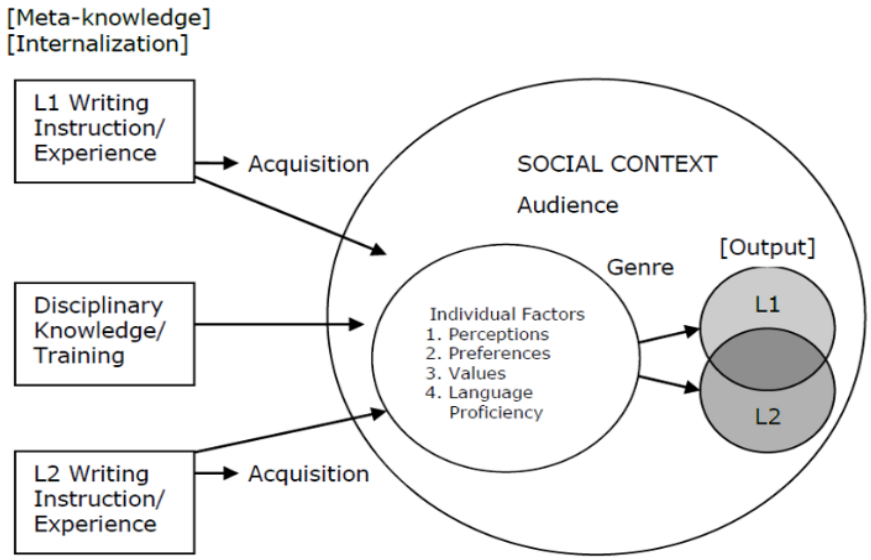


Figure 4. Factors affecting transferability of writing features across languages (Adapted from Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2007)

Figure 4 indicates that the boxes on the left show L1 and L2 writing instruction/experience and the disciplinary knowledge/training which interacts with them. They all make contributions to the writer's accomplishment of the writing task. It indicates that only metaknowledge about target language writing is not sufficient for transfer, but it should be combined with L1 and L2 writing instruction, as well as disciplinary knowledge. Only through this way, the knowledge can be internalized and acquired. Having filtered the knowledge from individual factors, the writers produce the output which is also influenced by social context, audience, and genre.

There exist a number of studies focused on the transfer of writing features from L1 to L2 (e.g. Cumming, 1989; Hirose, 2003; Kobayashi, 2005; Kubota, 1998). For example, the study conducted by Kobayashi (2005) revealed that Japanese novice writers transferred their L1 writing experience to their English (L2) opinion writing. Besides, it was found that some factors may impact the transfer of writing features from L1 to L2 including the nature of the L2 writing instruction, development of an awareness of audience, and individual writers'

perceptions and preferences. In addition to these factors, sufficient exposure and sufficient motivation can also facilitate the transfer from L1 to L2 (Cummins, 1980, 1991).

With regard to reverse transfer of L2 to L1, there exists less attempt (e.g. Berman, 1994; Eggington, 1987; Shi, 2003). For example, Berman (1994) explored that students with experience on argumentative writing in their L1 (Icelandic) or L2 (English) were able to transfer that knowledge bidirectionally, from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1. Because of L2 language proficiency, it is easier for them to transfer the writing features from L2 to L1 than from L1 to L2.

Uysal (2008) examined the presence and bidirectional transfer of rhetorical patterns in 18 Turkish participants' writing. Along with a background questionnaire, the participants were asked to write two argumentative essays in their L1 (Turkish) and L2 (English). These essays were analyzed and stimulated recall interviews were conducted in order to reveal the reasons behind certain rhetorical patterns and their transfer. The results indicated the existence of some rhetorical preferences and their bidirectional transfer. These results accord with the findings of Enginarlar (1990), Oktar (1991), and Atakent (1999) who found evidence for transfer of L2 knowledge to Turkish in addition to an L1 to L2 transfer. She (2008) found that although L2 proficiency appeared to be a barrier for participants to transfer their L1 writing knowledge to their L2 writing, the participants with advanced L2 proficiency could not necessarily transfer all the writing features to their L2 writing such as initial thesis statement. On the other hand, transitions could be transferred to L2 writing by the ones who had very low L2 proficiency. In light of these findings, Uysal (2008) speculated that if the threshold is the case for the transfer of L1 writing features to L2 writing, that threshold level may vary according to certain patterns. She further maintained that L2 proficiency may not be the only factor that impeded the transfer of L1 or L2 writing knowledge. Apart from L2 language level, L1 writing knowledge and lack of L2 writing experience may also play a critical role in the transferability of writing competence (Kubota, 1998; Uysal, 2008). Overall, among the factors which hampered L1 or L2 writing transfer, in addition to L2 proficiency, she (2008) identified inadequate L1 writing instruction, insufficient L2 writing experience, topic, audience concerns, and individual or emotional traits.

It is acknowledged that general writing competence exists across languages (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2007) in that writers who were good at writing in their L1 were also good at writing in their L2 (Cumming, 1989; Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Ito, 2004; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996).

Nevertheless, there may be a “threshold level” of L2 proficiency (Ito, 2004, p. 52). The ones with lower level of L2 proficiency than this threshold level cannot develop L2 writing competence. Yet, according to Kobayashi and Rinnert (2007), high L2 proficiency does not guarantee advanced writing competence in L2. They (2006) speculated that writing competence may develop to some extent independently of other language skills.

Teacher Beliefs and Teaching L2 Writing

Even though it is one of the most important skills in language teaching, the beginning of the modern era of L2 writing teaching only dates back to the mid-1940s (Silva, 1990). Until those years, L2 writing teaching had not been paid enough attention because of the influence of the audiolingual approach in language teaching (Matsuda, 2003). With the developments in the USA and Europe, L2 writing instruction has grabbed attention from ESL programs. Indeed, in the 1960s, L2 writing flourished and attracted a lot of experts’ attention (Leki, 1992; Silva, 1990). Accordingly, L2 writing research has been neglected by the researchers.

Research paradigms of writing can be divided into four main approaches. Between the 1940s and 1960s, influenced by structuralism and behaviorism, controlled composition (guided composition) was a popular teaching approach to writing. Hyland (2003) argued that "for many who adopt this view, writing is regarded as an extension of grammar - a means of reinforcing language patterns through habit formation and testing learners' ability to produce well-formed sentences" (p. 3). The main focus of this paradigm was error-free and accurate writing (Pincas, 1962). Hence, “the writer is simply a manipulator of previously learned language structures” (Silva, 1990, p. 13). As Raimes (1991) states emphasis on form was the main concern of teaching all skills including writing at that time. In fact, writing served as a subsidiary skill aiming at reinforcing the linguistic structures and functioned under the service of other language skills, especially speaking with the influence of the popularity of Audiolingual method at that time. The major teaching methods involved guided composition, gap filling and substitution exercises (Hirvela, Hyland, & Manchon, 2016). Within this context, accuracy was central to writing instruction. Hence, the end-written product was the focus of L2 writing. Later, in the mid 1960s, the approach of teaching writing changed into current-traditional rhetoric. With the introduction of “contrastive rhetoric” by Kaplan (1966), the focus of writing instruction shifted form sentence-level to discourse-level structures. The main concern in this type of writing was “a logical

construction and arrangement of discourse forms" (Silva, 1990, p. 14). In this approach, learning to write "becomes an exercise in acquiring linguistic knowledge and gaining control over vocabulary choices, syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices. The goal of writing instruction is training in accuracy, stressing the importance of formal aspects of writing with the prized goal of avoiding errors" (Hyland, 2016, p. 146). This approach typically involves the following four-stage process (Hyland, 2016):

- *Familiarization:* Students are exposed to some grammar and vocabulary within a text,
- *Controlled writing:* Students are required to manipulate the fixed patterns,
- *Guided writing:* Students are asked to imitate the model texts,
- *Free writing:* Students are asked to write a text through employing the patterns they have learned.

In 1970s and 1980s, as controlled composition and current-traditional rhetoric could not satisfy learners and writers, and with the crucial developments in the field of the cognitive psychology and composition and L2 studies, the focus shifted from features of L2 written texts to the composition processes in L2 writing (Matsuda, 2003; Uysal, 2007). For the first time, Zamel (1976) put forward that writing is a process rather than a product. Raimes (1991) expressed that in place of "accuracy" and "patterns" came "process," "making meaning," "invention," and "multiple drafts" (p. 409). From the perspective of process approaches, writing is seen as a non-linear, complex, recursive, multi-faceted, exploratory, creative, and generative process through which writers express their own meanings (Cumming, 2001; Emig, 1983; Flower; 1979; Perl, 1980; Silva, 1990; Zamel, 1982). In this sense, Hyland (2015) regarded this approach as writer-oriented approach since the writer rather than the form is central to teaching writing. Regarding writing pedagogy, process writing emphasized learning writing by writing (Hirvela et al., 2016). Writing processes and strategies are the pillars of the writing skill. The content was emphasized over the form and the cognitive processes the writers possess were closely focused such as generating, executing/writing, reviewing/revising, etc. According to Hyland (2015, p. 156), the following potential recursive steps are involved in a writer-oriented approach to writing instruction:

- *Selection of topic*- by teacher and/or students,
- *Prewriting*- brainstorming, notetaking, outlining, journal writing, etc.,
- *Composing*- getting ideas down on paper,

- *Response to draft*- teacher/peers respond to ideas, organization, and style,
- *Revising*- reorganising, style, adjusting to readers, refining ideas,
- *Response to revisions*- teacher/peers respond to ideas, organization, and style,
- *Proofreading and editing*- checking and correcting form, layout, evidence, etc.,
- *Evaluation*- teacher evaluates progress,
- *Publishing*- by class circulation, presentation, blog, noticeboard, website, etc.,
- *Follow-up tasks*- to address weaknesses.

However, there are some reservations about this approach. Among others, the major concern is that this approach does not address the social aspects of writing instruction and has no bound to context and community (Hirvela et al., 2016).

In the 1990s, the "social turn" (Trimbur, 1994, p. 109) exerted an influence on the approaches of writing, then the process approach was substituted by post-process approaches (Atkinson, 2003), that is, genre-based pedagogies (Matsuda, 2003). This time, the focus shifted from the cognitive aspect of L2 writing to social aspect of L2 writing (Matsuda, 2003). This wind led a socialization into the academic community movement (Horowitz, 1986). In fact, the main concern in this approach has become the reader and addressee instead of the writer (Silva, 1990). Regarding genre approaches, writing is not just a process, rather it is the ability to write for different purposes with appropriate linguistic and rhetorical tools and it varies from one context to another (Halliday, 1994). Writing is a socially situated activity through which texts are constructed for certain purposes relevant to target communities. The main tenets of this approach include collaboration, peer interaction, and scaffolding. In this sense, genre pedagogies are based on the Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner's (1990) views (Hyland, 2016). Some advantages of genre-based writing instruction can be listed as follows (Hyland, 2016, p. 148):

- *Explicit*- makes clear what is to be learnt to facilitate the acquisition of writing skills,
- *Systematic*- provides a coherent framework for focusing on both language and contexts,
- *Needs-based*- ensures that course objectives and content are derived from students' needs,
- *Supportive*- gives teachers a central role in scaffolding students' learning and creativity,

- *Empowering*- provides access to the patterns and possibilities of variation in valued texts,
- *Critical*- gives students the resources to understand and challenge valued discourse,
- *Consciousness raising*- increases teachers' awareness of texts to advise students on writing.

However, the common limitation of all aforementioned writing approaches is that they pay attention to only one aspect of writing like sentence-level, discourse-level, writing processes, the writer, the reader, genres, and writing as a social activity (Hyland, 2003; Silva, 1990; Uysal, 2007). Yet, it has been concluded that "while every act of writing is in a sense both personal and individual, it is also interactional and social, expressing a culturally recognized purpose, reflecting a particular kind of relationship and acknowledging an engagement in a given community" (Hirvela et al., 2016, p. 51). On the other hand, it was also noted that there is no underpinning and complete theory of writing which encompasses all these aspects of writing (Silva, 1990) because no single theory can account for the multi-faceted nature of L2 writing in a comprehensive way (Cumming, 2016).

There are different views and beliefs on effective practices in the writing classrooms. Some teachers may believe that a fluency-first approach does not make sense with L2 writing students while others may contend that personal and expressive writing focusing on fluency and depth of expression benefits students even in academic contexts (Casanave, 2004). On the other hand, while there may be teachers who believe that L2 writing students should be taught the formal structures and conventions for the kinds of writing they will probably need, including explicit instruction in genre; time should not be wasted on other kinds of writing (Casanave, 2004), it is also possible to come across the ones who believe that writing is a product constructed from the writer's good command of grammatical and lexical knowledge (Hyland, 2003). For some, good writing means syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy whereas, for others, it should concern with creativity and self-expression. Some teachers may value the social nature of writing and adopt text-focused pedagogies, and some others believe in the effectiveness of the cognitive nature of writing and use writer-centered process pedagogies in their writing classrooms. Overall, each writing approach has focused on a certain aspect of writing such as end-product, writer, reader, text, etc. These approaches, however, ignore other important aspects and realities of writing instruction. Therefore,

writing teachers should adopt a mixture of more than one approach in teaching writing (Hyland, 2003).

In order to explore the writing beliefs and practices in an EFL context, Tsui (1996) analyzed a two-and-half year experience of an EFL teacher in Hong Kong. Because the writing teacher had negative L2 writing experiences as a learner, she was not satisfied with the product-centered approach to writing instruction, she decided to implement process approaches in her writing classes. Although this new approach obtained a positive reaction from both the teacher and the students, students wrote fewer compositions because it was time-consuming and students started to make more grammatical mistakes than before. This was a problem because accuracy was essential for the public examinations. Head of the department also did not support the innovation. Because of other contextual factors, she had to apply a modified version of the process writing together with the product-centered approach. This study was important in demonstrating how teacher' beliefs and practices changed over time. In addition, it highlighted the role of instructional and curricular constraints which limit teachers' capacity to implement instructional decisions and practices they desire.

Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) centered on university students' beliefs about themselves as writers and about their experiences of learning through writing. 30 students enrolled in two freshman composition classes completed a 74-item inventory which measures student writing approaches. Having been administered the inventory, 13 students with the highest scores were interviewed. The results revealed five types of student writing approaches, namely, elaborative, which views writing as deeply personal and as a medium of expressing personal meaning; low self-efficacy, thinking about writing as a painful task; reflective-revisionist, which implies willingness to take charge in writing to make meaning for themselves and for the audience; spontaneous-impulsive, which profiles an impulsive and unplanned approach; and the procedural approach, which represents a method-driven strategy based on strict adherence to rules and minimal involvement. The researchers concluded that investigating students' perceptions about their writing is crucial to help them have a positive identity in writing. If the teachers are aware of the students' approaches to writing, they can have a more sensitive paradigm as well as increased insight into specific student needs.

Recently, Yang and Gao (2013) examined Chinese university teachers' beliefs and practices in EFL writing instruction. Through multiple data collection tools including class

observations, interviews, and course materials, the researchers gathered data from four experienced teachers over two semesters. The findings showed that all the teachers believed that they integrated both product and process approached to writing in their teaching. However, they had different beliefs about the focus and function of prewriting, multiple drafts, teacher written feedback, peer review, and the teacher's role in students' learning to write. Although three of the four teachers' beliefs and practices were consistent, one teacher's practices had contradictories in some cases. Underlying reasons behind the inconsistency of their beliefs and practices about teaching writing included teachers' previous experiences as EFL learners and teachers, the degree of their understanding of students' capabilities, self-reflection, and peer influences. They concluded that teachers' beliefs and practices should be considered in designing and implementing programs for L2 writing teachers.

In addition to writing approaches, writing strategies (also known as writing processes) also play a vital role in predicting both the writing performance of writers and the quality L2 writing instruction. Even though the notion of learner strategies is a well-documented research area in language teaching (e.g. Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; McDonough, 1999), L2 writing strategies have attracted researchers' attention in recent years (Petric & Czarl, 2003). Oxford (1990) defined learning strategies as "specific actions taken by learners to make the learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). She further maintains that "Learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process. Although learning is certainly part of the human condition, *conscious* skill in self-directed learning and in strategy use must be sharpened through training" (p. 201). Likewise, since L2 writing is both social and individual process, learners should learn how to learn to write and be able to take control of their own writing process to become independent writers. At this point, based on Cohen's (1998) definition of learner strategies, Petric and Czarl (2003) defined writing strategies as "actions or behaviors consciously carried out by writers in order to make their writing more efficient" (p. 189).

Traditionally, writing was recognized to be a linear process that constituted three distinct stages of pre-writing, writing, and revising. This belief was challenged by the prominent work of Janet Emig (1971). Having analyzed the writing processes of eight twelfth graders through protocol analysis, Emig (1971) demonstrated that the composing process of students

was recursive rather than linear and unidirectional. In light of this finding, Flower and Hayes (1981) developed the cognitive process theory of writing. Regarding the sub-processes of writing, planning refers to "the purposeful act of representing current meaning to oneself" (Flower & Hayes, 1984, p. 124). This process involves the interpretation of the writing task, idea generation, focusing, organization of ideas, and goal setting. The second sub-process is translating/composing which is the act of putting the ideas into the written text. This process can be interrupted by reviewing in order to facilitate both planning and composing (Flower and Hayes, 1981). The third process is reviewing/revising which is one the most crucial aspects of the writing process. It is an act of "evaluating either what has been written or what has been planned" (Hayes & Flower, 1983, p. 209). This process is more than simply finding grammatical errors and editing these errors, rather it is "a process of reseeing what one writes" (Murray, 1978, p. 92).

In L2 writing education, there are empirical studies which compared effective and less effective writers. These studies concluded that the major reason behind the effectiveness in writing performance was writing strategy use (e.g. Victori, 1999). There are a wide range of writing strategies that the students can employ in their writing process such as planning, translating, monitoring, rehearsing, generating ideas, organizing, goal-setting, evaluating, revising, and questioning, etc. (Raimes, 1987; Sasaki, 2000). Yet, research has indicated that L2 writers differ in their use of writing strategies according to their L2 proficiency. For example, Chamot and Kupper (1989) discovered that effective writers employed more meta-cognitive strategies like planning and cognitive strategies such as substitution and elaboration. In a similar way, Sasaki (2000) found that more-skilled learners showed a tendency to adopt more rhetorical refining whereas less-skilled ones used more translating.

Victori (1999) analyzed the difference between two groups of Spanish EFL writers (effective versus less effective writers) in their use of metacognitive knowledge and writing strategies. The two effective writers found to be much more conscious about their own writing problems, the nature of writing task, and their own approach to writing. On the other hand, the two less effective writers appeared to use inefficient strategies which led to more limited and inappropriate knowledge of the writing task. In light of these findings, Victori (1999) suggested that an effective EFL writing instruction raise learners' consciousness of the different types of strategies needed for effective L2 writing and make learners be aware of their own weaknesses in their writing process. Similarly, Joe and You (2001) examined nine

successful university students in Taiwanese EFL context and found that these good EFL writers had substantial metacognitive knowledge and strategies which are crucial for effective writing performance in English. More specifically, not only they wrote through adopting recursive writing processes like planning/writing/revising, but also they were knowledgeable about the rhetorical conventions, coherence, organization, and audience awareness. Overall, these writers possessed both declarative and procedural knowledge about writing in English. The authors (2001) concluded that EFL writing programs should involve explicit training on metacognitive knowledge and use of writing strategies. Next, with regard to the degree of similarity between composing processes in L1 and L2, Silva (1993) investigated the research on L1 and L2 writing in order to find out the differences and similarities between these two processes. This study was a reaction against the predominant movement at that time to teach L2 writing by employing the methodology transferred from teaching L1 writing. It was considered that writing processes were common in any language and had the same phases including planning, executing, and revising. Yet, Silva (1993) argued against adopting such a simplistic and reductionist approach because he explored that L1 and L2 writing processes differ profoundly regarding morphosyntactic, lexicosyntactic and text levels. More specifically, he found that the L2 writing process includes less planning and reviewing, with the attention in revising focused heavily on grammar. He proposed that teachers tailor the available writing strategies to the "L2 students' rhetorical and linguistic resources" (p. 671). In this sense, one can infer from Silva's (1993) study that teachers should be aware of these differences and therefore train their students about L2 writing strategy use in writing instruction.

Among others, beliefs about language learning in general and writing instruction, in particular, may determine writing strategy use. Relatedly, Yang (1999) found that there was a bi-directional relationship between learners' beliefs and their use of learning strategies. Similarly, a number of studies have reported that beliefs about language learning, years of language learning or L2 proficiency, gender, attitude, and learning experience were among the major determinants of the use of language learning strategies in the process of language learning (e.g., Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green, 1991, Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Phillips, 1991; Ramirez, 1986; Yang, 1992).

Moreover, learners should be conscious about available language learning strategies, be knowledge about choosing an appropriate strategy for certain tasks, and know how to

effectively apply these language learning strategies throughout their learning process (Chamot, 1993; Cotterall, 1990; Yang, 1996). Hence, learning strategy training has paramount importance in promoting their learning because language learners are not good at choosing and applying appropriate learning strategies. Similarly, with respect to L2 writing instruction, teachers should create opportunities for students to explore a variety of writing strategies. Furthermore, writing teachers should present writing strategies through explicit modeling (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). The studies on learning strategies have demonstrated that training on strategy use can lead learners to become more successful in the language learning process. In addition, successful language learners are different from the poor ones in using more and appropriate learning strategies (e.g. Abraham & Vann, 1987; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Huang & Van-Naerssen, 1987; Victori, 1999). For example, Sengupta (2000) investigated the effects of giving instruction in revision strategies to writers of English as a second language in a secondary school setting. The results proved that explicit training on these strategies exerted a huge impact on the quality of the students' final texts.

One other controversial issue in L2 writing instruction is the role and use of instructional materials (textbooks, course books, audio, video, digital materials). Instructional materials are one of the critical components of writing instruction. They function as a hidden curriculum imposing attitudes toward knowledge, teaching and learning, the role and relationship of the teacher and student, and values and attitudes related to gender, society, etc. (Littlejohn & Windeatt, 1989). In fact, textbooks function as "the backbone for the courses" in language classes (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 125). Research has demonstrated that instructional materials have crucial roles for writing teachers as models, references, scaffolding, and stimulus throughout the writing instruction (Hyland, 2003). Similarly, it has been acknowledged that these kinds of materials exert a positive impact on both instructors and their instruction since these instructional materials can serve as a reliable guide to both language instructors and learners in the long journey of writing instruction (Harmer, 1991). On the other hand, there are also some concerns with regard to overuse of these materials in writing instruction because it has been pointed out that overdependence on these kinds of materials can hamper the creativity of teachers and deskill them in the process of writing instruction. Actually, teachers may overuse the printed materials and solely teach these materials in that they orchestrate the classroom practices instead of teachers. In fact, it has been noted that simply equipping teachers with instructional materials including textbooks may not necessarily ensure the desired and expected effectiveness in writing instruction. In

this sense, with the underlying teaching philosophy in their mind, teachers should employ these kinds of materials (printed, audio, video, digital) as resource and supplementary function in providing teachers rationales for what they do in writing instruction (Allwright, 1990) and be used judiciously without letting these materials to control the flow of teaching and hinder the use of authentic and teacher-generated materials. What is more, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) urged writing teachers to generate their own materials and to supplement textbooks in L2 writing instruction.

Traditionally, reading and writing were recognized as separate skills and were taught in a separate way (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Nelson & Calfee, 1998). While the former was a receptive skill focusing on comprehending the writer's message, the latter was considered as a productive skill through which the writer delivers his/her messages to readers (Brandt, 2001; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Nelson & Calfee, 1998; Tierney & Pearson, 1983). It was in the 1980s when the researchers recognized and attempted to examine the interrelatedness between reading and writing skills. At that time, it is likely that the scholars may have influenced the effects of cognitive psychology and realized the underlying sub-processes in reading and writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Stotsky, 1982; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991; Zamel, 1992). Having understood the connection and interaction between reading and writing, in recent years, researchers have advanced the language curricula in which reading and writing skills are integrated (Belcher & Hirvela, 2001; Grabe & Zhang, 2013; Graham & Hebert, 2011; Hirvela, 2004). However, despite the increasing recognition of the integration of reading and writing, it has been reported in the literature that not both skills have been paid the same degree of attention and focus. In other words, reading has had the priority over writing in language classrooms (Harklau, 2002; Reichelt, 2001). Within this context, there exist several studies investigating the role of reading on writing and writing performance (e.g. Lee, 2005; Lee, 2015; Lee & Hsu, 2009). Testing a hypothesized structural model, Lee (2005) has attempted to explore the relationship of writing in English as a foreign language by Taiwanese university students to a variety of factors including writing apprehension, writer's block, free reading, self-initiated writing, and students' beliefs about and attitudes toward the instructional activities. Through employing structural equation modeling (SEM), Lee tested the interrelationships among the factors and their impacts on the students' writing performance. Overall, the study revealed that free voluntary reading was the only significant determinant of students' writing performance. In a similar way, another Taiwanese-based study was conducted by Lee and Hsu (2009) in order to investigate

the effects of sustained silent reading on students' writing performance. In this experimental study, the extensive reading group read books for two semesters while the control group was delivered traditional language instruction. The students were asked to write descriptive essays on which their pre and posttest grades can be compared including five subscales as content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. As it was expected, the results showed that the extensive reading group experienced significant improvement on all subscales while the control group did not. Very recently, through a one-year experimental study, Lee (2015) examined the mutual influence of reading and writing and attempted to find out whether reading can enhance writing performance and whether writing can improve reading comprehension. More specifically, the study aimed to explore the effects of extensive reading, extensive writing, and regular instruction (serving as a control) on writing performance, reading comprehension, knowledge of grammar, and attitudes of Korean middle school students learning English as a foreign language. The results demonstrated that both extensive reading and extensive writing had positive effects on the development of reading comprehension, writing performance, and grammar knowledge. Furthermore, the extensive-reading group made a significant improvement in writing and reading comprehension. However, the treatment did not reveal significant improvement in grammar knowledge. Regarding students' attitudes, the treatment of extensive-writing group did not enhance students' willingness to continue to write while the treatment of extensive-reading group led stronger willingness to maintain reading books as well as a significant decrease in reading anxiety. The author concluded that the priority given to reading over writing in language curriculum in Korea along with the exams may impact students' attitudes toward reading and writing.

With respect to reading-writing connection, proper textual borrowing and plagiarism are other central concerns in L2 writing. While proper textual borrowing refers to the appropriate use of sources, plagiarism is the inappropriate use of sources. More specifically, plagiarism can be defined as "presenting language or ideas which are derived from another work as if they were one's own" (Pecorari, 2016, p. 329). This issue is so important that Hyland (2009) suggested that proper textual borrowing be one of the central components of writing assessment. Nevertheless, Weigle and Montee (2012) found that raters have different views on the acceptability of textual borrowing in the process of testing, and they concluded that this issue is even more challenging for students. Because different cultures have different perceptions, attitudes, and practices with regard to plagiarism, there are no clear-cut rules,

and it is a controversial issue. Moreover, the development of the Internet makes it more complicated and crucial to teach how to use texts properly because of the accessibility of texts via the Internet (Bloch, 2001). It has been pointed out that because of different cultural norms and beliefs, EFL/ESL students may have different perceptions about textual borrowing. For example, with the influence of Confucian traditions in the Chinese context, Chinese students may be more prone to plagiarism (Matalene, 1986). Nevertheless, in addition to culture, lack of training source text use has also been reported among the factors of plagiarism (Bloch, 2001). There are a number of students in EFL/ESL contexts who do not know how to quote, cite, and paraphrase source texts in their writing (Pittam, Elander, Lusher, Fox, & Payne, 2009). At this point, connecting reading and writing can be a valuable opportunity for teachers in order to teach proper textual borrowings and avoidance of plagiarism in writing classes. In this sense, explicit training on proper textual borrowing should be a crucial component of L2 writing instruction, especially in EFL contexts because of cultural differences.

The role and use of new technologies are also discussed in L2 writing education. New technologies or information and communication technologies (ICT) are exerting a profound influence on all aspects of L2 writing including the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing (Hyland, 2016). The effects of new technologies on writing can be listed as follows (Hyland, 2016, p. 40):

- change creating, editing, proofreading, and formatting processes,
- combine written texts with visual and audio media more easily,
- encourage non-linear writing and reading processes through hypertext links,
- challenge traditional notions of authorship, authority, and intellectual property,
- allow writers access to more information and to connect that information in new ways,
- change the relationships between writers and readers as readers can often ‘write back’,
- expand the range of genres and opportunities to reach wider audiences,
- blur traditional oral and written channel distinctions,
- introduce possibilities for constructing and projecting new social identities,
- facilitate entry to new online discourse communities,

- increase the marginalization of writers who are isolated from new writing technologies,
- offer writing teachers new challenges and opportunities for classroom practice.

Today, the diversity and flexibility of digital sources and tools as well as mobile technologies are mushrooming, and they are providing novel ways and options for people to interact through writing (Ware, Kern, Warschauer, 2016) such as wikis, cloud storage, teleconferencing, blogs, Second life, websites, etc. (Cooke-Plagwitz, 2008). To illustrate some, on the one hand, blogs are started to be used in writing classes in order to promote students' self-expression and to create a sense of ownership (Bloch, 2008), wikis are employed as a means for collaborative generation of texts in which authentic tasks and audiences are involved, on the other. There were some reservations about technology use in writing classes. Some earlier studies revealed that students planned less, revised less, and focused overwhelmingly on sentence-level issues during writing with computers (Barker, 1987; Haas, 1989, cited in Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Thus, in the early 1990s, researchers approached computers more cautiously and suggested judicious use of these technological tools in writing instruction. Today, writing researchers possess more positive attitudes toward and perceptions of computer-assisted writing instruction. Similarly, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) have rightly pointed out that;

> It is now understood that computers cannot teach novice writers how to think, plan, or revise nor can they magically transform inexperienced writers into proficient writers- or replace teachers' roles in providing instruction and feedback. Nonetheless, computer can make many dimensions of the writing process easier, rendering writing more enjoyable, improving student attitudes, and reducing anxiety about writing, particularly among ESL writers (p. 345).

Especially in ESL/EFL contexts, computers should be considered as a priceless opportunity for both teachers and students. In this direction, Pennington (2003) asserted that "those charged with instructing ESL students in writing cannot afford to remain outside these developments…, teachers should be prepared to bring computers into the center of their own pedagogical practice" (p. 287). With regard to the benefits of technology in writing instruction, Ferris and Hedgcock concluded that technology can promote "more integrated planning, more extensive revisions, more (and better) collaboration, more time on task, and higher quality end products" (p. 350). They further maintained that technology use can enhance student attitudes, motivation, and confidence in L2 writing. Yet, researchers

convincingly articulated that technology cannot and should not replace writing instruction by the teacher. Besides, for some researchers, it is almost impossible for teachers to keep up with and incorporate these ever-growing technologies into their writing classroom (e.g. Chen & Bryer, 2012). Still, teachers should be the central component of the writing instruction. They should decide upon and govern the technologies to be employed in their instruction, but should not be guided by these massive resources.

One of the crucial issues in teaching L2 writing is to create opportunities for collaborative writing. It can be simply defined as "it is the production of a text by two or more writers" (Storch, 2016, p. 386). The theoretical rationale lying behind collaborative writing is social constructivism and sociocultural theory (Dewey, 1974; Vygotsky, 1978), which proposes that knowledge is socially constructed through a collaboration of people in a community. Relatedly, Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000) pointed out that writing can develop "among individuals, not in individual" (p. 44). Based on the work of Ede and Lunsford (1990), Storch (2016) emphasized three distinct features of this activity as process, product, and text ownership. Regarding process, collaborative writing includes considerable interaction between/among the writers in the process of composing. With regard to product, collaborative writing brings about the generation of a single product. The third feature of collaborative writing is "the sense of a shared ownership" of the product in which all the writers play an active role from beginning to the end (p. 386). Through creating a learner-centered environment, collaborative writing gives responsibility for learning to students. In addition, it promotes both the cognitive and social dimensions of students (Wigglesworht & Storch, 2012). In this sense, it provides students with enhanced writing development opportunities. For example, Crinon and Marin (2010) emphasized the role of collaboration in the deductive reasoning and their study revealed that peer collaboration improved students' strategic understanding and led to an overall development of their writing strategies, as well. With the proliferation of Web 2.0 tools such as blogs and wikis, the scope and nature of collaborative writing have been changed. For instance, through employing wikis, writers have a chance to access and contribute to their text at the same time.

Teacher Beliefs and Assessing L2 Writing

With the ever-growing significance of communication via writing, effective and appropriate writing assessment along with effective writing instruction has become more important than

ever. In the past three decades, as an area of research inquiry, L2 writing assessment has developed extensively (Weigle, 2016). Effective writing assessment is "an ongoing process involving both teachers and students, not merely a procedure for assigning a quantitative score to a single product or series of performances" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 300). In this sense, writing assessment and writing instruction are a mutually-informing process through which while writing assessment governs the classroom instruction through diagnosing the weaknesses and strengths of students and informing teachers of their own effectiveness, writing instruction prepares students to do their best in writing assessment. Hence, writing teachers should incorporate assessment systems into their instructional practices and employ divergent alternatives in assessing students' writing performances (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).

Traditionally, in the 1950s and 60s, with the influence of measurement theory, since the reliability of scoring was heavily emphasized, the objective writing tests based on grammar and usage were employed extensively. In addition, during this period, assessment practices were also governed by the influence of behaviorism in which writing was regarded as form (Yancey, 1999). In the 1970s and onwards, the advances in cognitive psychology impacted both writing instruction and writing assessment. During this period, indirect measures of writing were heavily criticized and then replaced with direct measures of writing such as timed essays scored holistically (Weigle, 2016). In the early 1990s, writing assessment witnessed portfolio assessment with the influence of sociocultural theory in L2 writing (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000). Direct assessment involves measurement based on student-generated writing activity and actual writing samples. Indirect assessment, on the other hand, refers to the evaluation of writing performance through assessing "verbal reasoning, error recognition, or grammatical accuracy, all of which may be related to writing performance in some way, but only indirectly" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 303). When compared to indirect measures of writing, direct assessment is "far more credible to students, parents, teachers, and employers than indirect tests because they involve the writing and scoring of an actual writing sample" (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000, p. 11). Still, direct writing tests are criticized because of their reliability issues. It is demanding for writing teachers to be consistent in scoring students' writing (Weigle, 2002). In order to handle this problem, teachers can develop a "clear, specific, and level-appropriate scoring criteria" which promote teachers' consistency in assessment (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 303). A valid measure "actually measures what it purports to measure" (Cohen, 1994, p. 38). Both reliability and

validity are equally important in writing assessment since they are interconnected. While reliable scores without validity are meaningless, valid scores without reliability are meaningless, as well.

Writing portfolios are valuable and valid means of evaluating students' writing. These include "multiple-writing samples, written over time, purposefully selected from various genres to best represent a student's abilities, progress, and most successful texts in a particular context" (p. 220)". They are important in incorporating assessment into instruction. More importantly, both teacher and students can engage in the process of assessment. Besides, they are one of the alternative assessment media for indirect measures of writing such as multiple-choice tests and for single-essay writing scored in a holistic way (Brown & Hudson, 1998). According to Hyland (2015), portfolios create a golden opportunity for raising students' meta-cognitive awareness in the writing process. With regard to benefits of portfolio assessment, it "offers distinct advantages over traditional, summative evaluation of individual writing assignments and can maximize the interactive, heuristic, and recursive elements of process-based composing pedagogy" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 339). According to Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000), common features of carefully designed writing portfolios include:

- *Collection:* It includes multiple samples of student writing, and therefore is a central source of face validity of portfolio assessment.
- *Range:* Students write for a wide range of genres, purposes, forms, and audiences. These wide range of tasks and performances demonstrate high face validity of portfolios.
- *Context Richness:* This feature refers to the interconnection between assessment and instruction in writing classes.
- *Delayed Evaluation:* This features provides sufficient time for revision and fosters students' motivation.
- Selection: This gives students the opportunity to have a chance for self-representation and promotes self-assessment ability.
- *Student-Centered Control:* Writing portfolios give more control to students in the assessment process.

- *Reflection and Self-Assessment:* portfolios encourage students to reflect on their writing and to take control over their own learning. This leads to independent writers and promotes self-assessment.
- *Growth Along Specific Parameters:* In portfolio assessment, students' progress is determined via certain parameters and criteria.
- *Development Over Time:* Writing portfolios can provide a valuable means for assessing students' progress over time.

However, portfolio assessment is not without its limitations. Regarding reliability and validity, there exist some criticisms on the appropriateness of portfolios. Even though the validity issue can be addressed sufficiently since portfolios include multiple writing samples, reliability is much more problematic. The wide range of writing samples hampers fair and reliable rating. Similarly, teachers have difficulty in comparing students' selected writing samples. In order to deal with these problems, writing teaches can prepare explicit instructions in order to ensure consistency and reliability in the process of compilation and assessment (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).

There exists an ongoing debate on scoring approaches (holistic, analytic, and primary and multiple trait scoring) in writing assessment. There is no consensus whether writing teachers should employ holistic scoring through which a single score is given to each essay or an analytic through which different scores are given to different aspects of writing such as ideas, organization, accuracy, and so on. For classroom assessment, some researchers suggested analytic scoring for the purposes of diagnosing students' strengths and weaknesses (e.g. Hamp-Lyons, 1991). However, for large-scale assessment including placement purposes, there is no conclusive evidence whether holistic scoring or analytic scoring can work best (Weigle, 2016). Process writing proponents favor holistic scoring since it focuses on strengths and is more appropriate for the multiple-draft process. On the other hand, holistic scoring does not yield specific dimensions of writing separately and are not good for diagnostic purposes (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Unlike holistic scoring, analytic scoring tries to evaluate different aspects of writing such as content, cohesion, organization, style, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, mechanics, and so on. This scoring may be more appropriate for novice writing teachers since it has explicit descriptors. Because of its explicitness, writers can receive more consistent and explicit feedback through employing analytic scoring. Yet, analytic scoring is criticized because it is noted that "the quality of a writing

sample is much more than the sum of its parts" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 314). That is, dividing texts into different parts can harm the written discourse. A third scoring method is primary and multiple trait scoring, which is to some extent similar to analytic scoring in that they both include different dimensions of writing. Yet, primary and multiple trait scoring is different from both holistic and analytic scoring in assessing writing performance within a specific writing context and without predetermined scoring criteria (Hamp-Lyons, 2003). Trait-based scoring can lead teachers "to identify the qualities or traits of writing that are important to a particular context or task type and to evaluate writing according to the salient traits in a specific context" (Hamp-Lyons, 2003, p. 176). In this sense, the scoring criteria are determined with respect to particular prompts, tasks, topics, genres with reference to the context in which writing performance will be assessed (Weigle, 2002). To illustrate, if the aim is to assess students' performance in argumentative writing, primary trait scoring evaluates primarily the development of the argument. On the other hand, multiple trait scoring focuses on some other criteria such as the thesis statement, arguments, opponent's arguments, and so on (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). However, one of the major drawbacks of trait-based scoring is that teachers need to allocate substantial time to prepare different scoring guides for each writing task. Regarding scoring, automated essay scoring (AES) systems remain a controversial issue among writing specialists. AES can simply be defined as the incorporation of computer technology in evaluating and scoring the written texts (Shermis & Barrera, 2002; Shermis & Burstein, 2003). The research on AES has revealed that computers can be used as a more effective cognitive tool (Attali, 2004). Especially, with the influence of the process-oriented approach to L2 writing, teachers are overloaded with feedback practices. The multiple-drafts generated by students require multiple feedback from teachers. At this point, AES is promoted to be very effective and efficient in providing feedback to a large number of students in a very short period of time (Page, 2003). Equally important, these kinds of scoring systems such as Project Essay Grader (PEG), Intelligent Essay Assessor (IEA), E-rater, and IntelliMetric have proven to be high accuracy and reliability values (Dikli, 2006). On the other hand, there are some criticisms for AES as; (1) it cannot judge human creativity; (2) it has vulnerability to students' cheating; and (3) it uses statistical criteria without the direct influence of writing experts (Page & Petersen, 1995). Overall, McAllister and White (2006) concluded that "virtually none of the work in computer-assisted writing assessment is automatic to the point of being autonomous yet, but rather requires numerous human-computer interactions; thus, computers are assisting in the

partially automated writing assessment process" (p. 246). In this sense, it should be noted that AES systems are still developing, and they are, therefore, at their infancy.

The use of rubrics in writing assessment has long been the issue of debate among researchers. A rubric used to assess students' writing is an effective and efficient means of providing diagnostic and summative feedback for students' writing (Ene & Kosobucki, 2016). It can simply be defined as "a guide listing specific criteria for grading or scoring academic papers, projects, or tests, and an instrument that describes a specific level of performance within a scale" (Crusan, 2015, p. 1). In this sense, rubrics constitute the constructs to be performed and measured. They can be referred as a rating scale or scoring guide. However, it has been claimed that rubrics can be a better alternative to scoring guides since the former tends to result in higher objectivity, reliability, and validity (Dempsey, Pytlik, Zillig, & Bruning, 2009). Scholars purport several benefits of rubrics in writing assessment. To begin with, rubrics lead to objectivity and consistency in evaluation (Crusan, 2010). Next, rubrics involve clearly defined teacher criteria and thus guide students in indicating how their writing will be evaluated (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014; Weigle, 2002) in that they can increase consistency in the feedback students receive (Rezaei & Lovorn, 2010). As an important tenet of assessment, transparency can be promoted via rubric use (Crusan, 2015). There exists substantial research pointing out that rubrics can also be employed as instructional tools in order to clarify teacher expectations and to encourage students in assessing their own writing and thus promote self-assessment (Andrade & Du, 2005; Reddy & Andrade, 2010; Sundeen, 2014; Wang, 2014). As such, rubrics can play a key role as instructional tools in conducting the formative assessment to support learning (Reddy & Andrade, 2010). As a potential formative instructional tool, rubrics can give rise to incorporate writing assessment into writing instruction, to articulate teacher expectations, and to create opportunities for students to evaluate their own performance. Besides, because students can be informed about the evaluation criteria, rubrics can increase the validity of assessment. In an attempt to investigate the effects of instructional rubrics, Andrade (2001) designed an experimental study with the participation of 242 eighth grade students. Overall, the study revealed that training students about the instructional rubrics can improve writing quality. Furthermore, Jonsson and Svingby (2007) attempted to validate such claims in favor of rubrics that enhanced consistency of evaluation, the possibility to improve validity, and improvement of learning. To this end, the authors investigated several databases involving research on rubrics and reached 75 rubric studies. Having analyzed these studies, they concluded that (1)

rubrics can enhance the scoring reliability; (2) the validity of scoring was not improved, and (3) rubrics appeared to promote learning and instruction through making expectations and criteria explicit. Regarding teacher side, rubrics can inform teachers about their own teaching performance and effectiveness. In order to explore how rubrics used formatively can enhance student performance, Panadero and Jonsson (2013) carried out a meta-analysis of rubric studies. The results of the analysis of 21 rubric studies revealed that rubrics foster self-efficacy, lessens student anxiety, reduce procrastination, and guide students. In addition to students, rubrics also benefit teachers in planning and learning student development. Similarly, Diab and Balaa (2011) found that Lebanon university EFL students had positive attitudes to the use of rubrics and that the use of rubrics had a positive influence on students' writing quality. On the other hand, the use of rubrics is not without criticisms. It is claimed that rubrics can hinder the teacher's evaluation of writing (Wilson, 2006). Rubrics can also standardize the scoring of student writing. This standardization can cause to standardize the text (Kohn, 2006).

Another crucial concern in L2 writing is responding to students' writing. Providing feedback has gained prominence with the influence of Flower and Hayes's (1981) cognitive theory of writing, which underlined multiple drafts, providing feedback to these drafts, students' revision, etc. In recent years, the paramount advances in technology have exerted a huge influence on feedback practices and delivery modes in L2 writing (F. Hyland, Nicolas-Conesa, & Cerezo, 2016). Accordingly, the potential advantages and drawbacks of computer-mediated (CM) feedback have been the focus of interest in many studies (e.g. Burston, 2001; Milton, 2006; Ware & Warschauer, 2006). One of the major advantages of CM feedback is that both synchronous and asynchronous response can be employed by/for both teachers and students in the writing process. Next, CM environments can facilitate to reach invaluable online resources such as corpora, which can improve both the quality of feedback and students' writing, and ultimately leads to autonomous writing development (F. Hyland et al., 2016). The authors (2016) further maintained that technology promotes "a reflective, active response and engagement with teacher feedback which offers a potential for raising student' awareness of genre-specific conventions, developing their independent learning skills, and improving their written products" (p. 439). In essence, the main strength of CM feedback is that it encourages more active and autonomous writers who can take responsibility in their own learning. Yet, writing teachers may have some questions in mind regarding the value of this kind of feedback because it is impossible to establish an affective

or psychological interaction between student and the programs, which is the case between teacher and students. Thus, it has been recommended that CM feedback should be more fruitful when incorporated with the face-to-face teacher and peer feedback in writing classes (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Another issue which is discussed hotly in L2 writing is the sources of feedback (teacher feedback, peer feedback, teacher-student conferences, self-feedback). To begin with, teacher feedback on student writing is an indispensable aspect of writing instruction. The research on teacher written feedback has started with the seminal work of Zamel (1985). Zamel, through investigating fifteen ESL writing teachers, found that teachers appropriated and misunderstood the students' writing for which teachers' remarks were inconsistent, abstract, and arbitrary. Besides, ESL teachers approached student writing as final products to be edited because these teachers perceive their students as language learners rather than developing writers. Overall, he suggested responding to student writers not that much to student writing. On the other hand, it has been acknowledged that teachers feel that providing written feedback is crucial (Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011). In Ferris and Hedgcock's (2005) words, "teacher feedback also provides the opportunity for instruction to be tailored to the needs of individual students through face-to-face dialogue in teacher-student writing conferences and through the draft-response-revision cycle, during which teachers assist students through their written commentary at various points" (p. 185). However, some other researchers considered teacher feedback as ineffective and as an "exercise in futility" (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981, p. 1), "arbitrary and idiosyncratic" (Sommers, 1982, p. 149), leading to appropriation of students' texts (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1985) focusing heavily on sentence-level issues (e.g. Diab, 2005; Goldstein & Kohls, 2009), unclear and inconsistent (Zamel, 1985), lack of revision strategies (Zamel, 1985), unhelpful and inappropriate (Goldstein, 2006; Goldstein & Kohls, 2009), provided solely in indirectly (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). There are empirical studies on the effectiveness of teacher feedback in the literature. One of the findings is that students can successfully make use of teacher feedback in their subsequent drafts (e.g. Ferris, 1997). The majority of students in Ferris' (1997) study incorporated their teacher's commentary into their revisions. Regarding students' perceptions of teacher feedback, there are a number of studies conducted in both L1 and L2 writing (e.g. Arndt, 1993; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996). Overall, the common findings of these studies are that students appreciate and value teacher feedback and students

expect feedback involving both praise and constructive criticism. In light of the research on teacher feedback, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) suggested the following guiding principles of written teacher feedback that (p. 190):

- The teacher is not the only respondent.
- Written commentary is not the only option.
- Teachers do not need to respond to every single problem on every single student draft.
- Feedback should focus on the issues presented by an individual student and his or her paper, not on rigid prescriptions.
- Teachers should take care to avoid "appropriating," or taking over, a student's text. Final decisions about content or revisions should be left under the control of the writer.
- Teachers should provide both encouragement and constructive criticism through their feedback.
- Teachers should treat their students as individuals and consider their written feedback as part of an ongoing conversation between themselves and each student.

Another important way of providing feedback to students is face-to-face teacher-student writing conferences. White and Arndt (1991, p.131) pointed out that "conferencing is a procedure in which the teacher/reader and the writer work together on what the writer has written, motivated by a concern with clarifying the writer's intentions, purpose, and meanings". It is a valuable means of joint negotiation of meaning. Through conferencing, Zamel (1985) argued that "dynamic interchange and negotiation is most likely to take place when writers and readers work together face-to-face Instead of limiting our responses to written comments and reactions, which by their very nature are "disembodies remarks" (Sommers, 1982, p. 155) that proceed in only one direction, we should set up collaborative sessions and conferences during which important discoveries can be made by both reader and writer" (p. 97). Several advantages of these conferences have been reported. It is believed that writing conferences are more economical in time and energy when compared to written feedback (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Next, the immediacy of feedback and interaction is another advantage of these conferences (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999). Finally, writing conferences may be more appropriate for the learning styles of learners such as auditory learners. Some researchers (e.g. Arndt, 1993; Zamel, 1985) investigated students' and teachers' attitudes toward writing conferences, and they concluded that as pedagogical

tools, these conferences are valuable means of clarification and negotiation. In Arndt's (1993) study, while students appreciated both written feedback and writing conferences, teachers favored conferences. However, there are some reservations about writing conferences. To begin with, these conferences may be appropriate for every student's learning style in that some students may be good at understanding oral feedback. Next, there may be some inhibited and noncommunicative students for whom these conferences are a daunting task. Similarly, Goldstein and Conrad (1990) articulated that "ESL students bring with them diverse cultures and languages that potentially affect how students conference and how their teachers respond to them" (p. 459). As such, in some cultures, especially in Asian cultures, it is culturally not appropriate to question a teacher since teachers are considered an authority.

One of the controversial issues in L2 writing instruction is corrective feedback or error correction. Although students value and expect error correction provided by their teachers (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; F. Hyland, 1998; Lee, 2004), the empirical studies still have no conclusive results on the effectiveness of error correction in developing student writing (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2004; Hyland, 2016). There are two different camps on this issue. Some researchers argue that error correction does not lead students to improve their subsequent writing in the long-term (e.g. Fazio, 2001; Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998; Truscott, 1996, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008) whereas others believe that error correction contributes students to improve their writing in short and long-term (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2006, 2010; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Zamel (1985) argued that teacher feedback was often incomplete, idiosyncratic, arbitrary, and sometimes, incorrect. In the same vein, Truscott suggested that teachers adopt 'correction-free approach' in their writing instruction, focusing on writing practice rather than correcting students' errors (1996, 2007). He further argued that allocating time to correct errors is a waste of time, and teacher should focus on more important issues (i.e. ideas) in writing classes. Contrary to Truscott's (1996) claim, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) asserted that there is sufficient empirical evidence that error correction can contribute to students' writing development in both short and long term. Similarly, Bitchener and Ferris (2012, p. 96) concluded that:

> (1) Written CF clearly helps students to revise and edit their texts more successfully, and these are important skills and strategies for student writers to develop; (2) longitudinal evidence, while somewhat problematic as to design, also indicates that correction can have a positive influence on student accuracy over time- at least for some students on some types of

> errors; and (3) both students and instructors believe in written CF, so they may be motivated to apply it (as to students) and to implement it (as to teachers) as effectively as possible (p. 96).

They further claimed that none of the studies they analyzed in their study reveal any evidence on the harmful effects of written CF.

Relatedly, research has centered on the nature of feedback provided by teachers (form/content, explicit/implicit, direct/indirect, focused/unfocused). Some researchers found that explicit and focused feedback was more effective for students' writing accuracy (e.g. Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012) while others demonstrated that less explicit feedback with a metalinguistic explanation was more influential in students' writing accuracy (e.g. Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). There exists evidence that students receiving feedback both on form and content improved form and content of their writing during revisions (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1997). On the other hand, it is also believed that teacher should not mix feedback on content with feedback on form (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). There are different types of errors. Treatable errors include tenses, subject-verb agreement, noun endings, articles, pronouns, and so on since they "occur in a patterned, rule-governed way". On the other hand, untreatable errors are word choice and word order because "there is no handbook or set of rules students can consult to avoid or fix those types of errors" (Ferris, 1999, p. 6). Treatable errors are tended to be marked indirectly while untreatable errors are marked directly in order for students to determine and correct the errors. Direct feedback "provides some form of explicit correction of linguistic form or structure above or near the linguistic error and usually involves the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, and/or the provision of the correct form or structure" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 65) while indirect feedback "indicates an error has been made but it does not provide a correction or explicit meta-linguistic information" (p. 65). For most researchers, indirect feedback overwhelmingly contributes to students' development of L2 proficiency as well as metalinguistic knowledge (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). On the part of students, it was found that indirect feedback contributed much to their development (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Leki, 1991). Still, it should be noted that students' L2 proficiency matters. Same feedback practices may not be effective in different proficiency levels. Similarly, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) suggested that direct feedback is more appropriate for lower-level students because of their limitation in self-editing practices. For example, Ferris (2006) found that students

employed direct feedback more consistently and effectively than indirect feedback. However, it has been reported that indirect feedback is more effective for long-term improvement than direct feedback (Ferris, 2006). The possible reason for this long-term effect may be that indirect feedback requires more cognitive engagement in the problem. On the other hand, recently, van Beuningen, de Jong, and Kuiken (2008, 2012) and Bitchener and Knoch (2010) have found that although there were positive short-term effects for both direct and indirect feedback, the former had a more significant long-term effect than the latter. Still, research on the effectiveness of direct and indirect types of feedback has yielded conflicting results (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Lalande, 1982). Within this context, much more research is needed in order to present more conclusive results to the feedback literature (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Hyland, 2016). According to Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), there are stronger arguments in favor of selective correction since it is less cognitively demanding to teachers and students. Besides, the most serious and frequent errors can easily be emphasized, and it, therefore, facilitates students' writing development. On the other hand, students prefer comprehensive feedback. Survey research conducted on this issue indicated that students desired all of their errors to be corrected (Komura, 1999; Leki, 1991). Overall, scholars have recommended that teachers center on the global or serious, frequent, and stigmatizing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). However, the studies conducted to determine the effectiveness of focused and unfocused feedback revealed inconclusive results (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). At this point, there should be more empirical studies in order to explore the impact of direct vs. indirect and focused vs. comprehensive feedback on students' writing ability (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012).

An alternative means of providing feedback is peer feedback. Both L1 and L2 composition specialists articulated many benefits of peer response (e.g. Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Elbow, 1973, Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1985). With regard to L2 writing, especially some pioneers of the process approach (e.g. Zamel, 1985) favored peer feedback over teacher feedback and considered effective for developing language via interaction. On the theoretical side, peer feedback accords with the underlying philosophies of cognitive theory of writing and social constructivism (Emig, 1971; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Zamel, 1985, 1987). Furthermore, peer feedback promotes intellectual as well as the linguistic development of peers, which is in line with the Vygotskyan view that "cognitive development results from social interaction" (Carson & Nelson, 1994, p. 18; Mangelsdorf, 1992; Vygotsky, 1978). On the practical side, peer response can share and reduce the burden of writing teachers in

providing feedback (Erten, 2000). With respect to autonomous learning, students can take active roles in their learning process (Hirvela, 1999). Students can have a chance to be provided feedback from authentic readers (Mittan, 1989). Students can have a chance to receive feedback from multiple sources (Mittan, 1989). Students can develop critical skills when responding to their peers (Leki, 1990). Peer response increases students' self-confidence and reduces their anxiety as they see the strengths and weaknesses of their peers (Leki, 1990). Finally, peer response can create a sense of community among peers (Hirvela, 1999; Liu & Hansen, 2002). Nevertheless, some researchers warned teachers against transferring the techniques used in L1 contexts (Silva, 1993, 1997). In L2 contexts, because of linguistic and affective hindrances, peer feedback can be more challenging and culturally inappropriate (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Other concerns include that peer feedback is not effective in improving students writing (Connor & Asenavage, 1994), and it may harm even students (Leki, 1990). However, Villamil and de Guerrero (1998) examined the effect of peer revision on L2 writing and found that it had a positive influence on the quality of the final draft. Some may consider that peer feedback functions as "inviting the blind to lead the blind" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 135). In this sense, training students on peer response is needed in L2 writing classrooms. For example, Berg (1999) trained students on giving effective peer response to writing. She found that this training had a positive influence on the students' revision types and on the quality of their texts. Besides, students may not have the adequate linguistic proficiency to be able to respond to their peers' texts. More importantly, regarding cultural issues, students from different cultural backgrounds may have different expectations from and attitudes toward peer response. For example, collectivist cultures (e.g. Japanese and Chinese) emphasize the group harmony while individualist cultures (e.g. American) focus heavily on individual learning (Carson & Nelson, 1994). With respect to affective dimension of peer response, students may not feel secure both in giving and receiving peer feedback. L2 students may have strong convictions about the need for expert feedback for their writing, and if this practice is accomplished by their peers rather than their instructor as an expert, these L2 students may experience anxiety about not receiving sufficient and appropriate feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). In the same vein, Erten (2000) examined EFL learners' perceptions of peer feedback in the Turkish context. The qualitative analysis of retrospective protocols revealed that the majority of pre-service teachers had positive perceptions. However, some students had reservations on the use of peer feedback. In contrast, Zhang (1995) surveyed 81 college and university ESL

writers, and found that students extensively favored teacher feedback over peer or self-feedback. Zhang (1995) suggested that writing teachers in EFL/ESL contexts be critical in employing peer feedback because L2 students differ from L1 students in cognitive, affective and linguistic aspects. In essence, other researchers recommend that "it is not advisable to either use peer feedback exclusively or to abolish it altogether" (Ferris, 2003, p. 112; Zhang, 1995).

The role of teacher beliefs on the provision of feedback should be explored since these beliefs can determine their feedback practices in writing classrooms. There is ample research which centers on students' perceptions of, attitudes toward, or teachers' perceptions of written feedback. For example, very recently, in the Turkish EFL context, Vanlı (2013) has investigated both EFL students' expectations of, preferences for, and handling of teacher feedback and their instructors' perceptions of written feedback as well as their expectations of the students. Employing both quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (student and teacher interviews) data collection instruments, she (2013) explored that (1) students held a high perception of grammatical accuracy, vocabulary choice, and punctuation, respectively with respect to different areas of teacher feedback; (2) students expect their teachers to mark all their writing errors; (3) students value teacher feedback and want more teacher feedback; (4) students give more importance to their teachers' feedback on their ideas; (5) students see their teachers as the major sources to apply; (6) students expect both negative and positive feedback; (7) students expect their teachers to be consistent in providing feedback; (8) male and female students differ in their perceptions of some of teacher feedback; (9) students' departments are one of the determining factors in affecting students' perceptions of feedback; (10) there is a discrepancy between students' perceptions of teacher feedback and teachers' feedback practices in that students want comprehensive feedback while their teachers prefer selective feedback; and (11) there is a positive correlation between students' self-efficacy writing beliefs and their perceptions of feedback. Overall, she concluded that both students and teachers believed that teachers play a significant role in improving students' writing ability.

In another study involving both students and teachers, Zacharias (2007) aimed to explore teacher and student attitudes toward teacher feedback in Indonesia. To this end, both questionnaire and interviews were conducted with the participation of both students and teachers. The results of both quantitative and qualitative analyses showed that the majority

of both students (93%) and teachers (95%) believed that teacher feedback is of utmost importance to improve students' writing. This result was also supported by the qualitative data. The reasons behind these results are that (1) teachers are believed to have higher linguistic competency; (2) teachers are considered to provide security for poor students; (3) teachers are believed to be the source of knowledge, and (4) teachers control the grades. In this sense, students consider teacher feedback as more 'qualified', 'experienced', 'accurate', 'valid', 'reliable' and 'trustworthy' (p. 51). With respect to the emotional aspect of the teacher feedback, the majority of students stated that they felt excited (75%) when receiving teacher feedback. Besides, the qualitative data revealed that the amount of teacher feedback overwhelmingly influenced students' feelings. Students sometimes had difficulty in comprehending teacher feedback because of the coding, general feedback, content-based feedback, complex language, contradictions with students' expectations.

With respect to teachers, Lee (2009) examined teachers' perceptions of feedback in relation to their practice. Her study revealed ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and written feedback practice. Her investigation of teachers' beliefs and practice in written feedback was twofold: In the first phase, she made a feedback analysis based on 174 texts collected from 26 teachers and conducted follow-up interviews with seven teachers. In the second phase, she administered a questionnaire to 206 secondary teachers and conducted follow-up interviews with 19 teachers. While the first phase of the study explored teachers' actual written feedback, the second phase was an attempt to probe teachers' beliefs and their reported practice through interviews. These ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and their feedback practice were as follows; (Mismatch 1) teachers pay most attention to language form but they believe there's more to good writing than accuracy; (Mismatch 2) teachers mark errors comprehensively although selective marking is preferred; (Mismatch 3) teachers tend to correct and locate errors for students but believe that through teacher feedback students should learn to correct and locate their own errors; (Mismatch 4) teachers use error codes although they think students have a limited ability to decipher the codes; (Mismatch 5) teachers award scores/grades to student writing although they are almost certain that marks/grades draw student attention away from teacher feedback; (Mismatch 6) teachers respond mainly to weaknesses in student writing although they know that feedback should cover both strengths and weaknesses; (Mismatch 7) teachers' written feedback practice allows students little room to take control although teachers think students should learn to take greater responsibility for learning; (Mismatch 8) teachers ask students to do

one-shot writing although they think process writing is beneficial; (Mismatch 9) teachers continue to focus on student written errors although they know that mistakes will recur; and (Mismatch 10) teachers continue to mark student writing in the ways they do although they think their effort does not pay off. Lee (2009) concluded that to find out the main reasons behind their practices, teachers can be given opportunities to explain, analyze and reveal the concerns related to feedback with the purpose of clarifying the gap between their beliefs and practice.

Through adopting a survey research, Gul, Tharani, Lakhani, Rizvi, and Ali (2016) attempted to examine the practices and perceptions of teachers with respect to written feedback. The study revealed that the majority of teachers perceive written feedback as an important means for guiding and leading students to develop their writing. Actually, for teachers, both written and verbal feedback were equally important. They believed the importance of discussing the written feedback with the students, but because of the time constraints, most of the time teachers have to skip it. The majority of teachers used direct feedback rather than indirect feedback. Generally, these teachers did not prefer to use grading rubrics. There were several determining factors of the amount and quality of feedback. Among others, the most significant factor was teachers' lack of formal training in giving feedback (17%). In addition, contextual and personal factors also affected that their feedback practices including time, teacher-student relationship, and especially the institutional policies and culture.

Kaivanpanah, Nemati, and Sharifi (2014) have examined 30 Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers' written feedback perceptions and their classroom practices in writing classes. Through questionnaire survey and the analysis of teachers' written feedbacks on 300 students' texts, the authors (2014) found that all of the Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers believed that teachers should provide feedback to their students. The majority of teachers (76.6%) considered that teachers should give comprehensive feedback while the rest (23.3%) articulated that selective feedback is preferable. Almost all of the teachers (96.6%) had the opinion that writing teachers should provide feedback primarily on organization (i.e., coherence, cohesion, and unity) of the students' writing. Similarly, the majority of teachers (76.6%) believed that teachers should focus on the content of students' essays. With regard to error correction strategy, the majority of teachers (76.6%) recognized that writing teachers should prefer indirect feedback rather than direct feedback. Almost half of them (43.3%) favored written feedback, 5 teachers (16.6%) preferred writing conferences, and almost half

of the teachers (40%) preferred to use both techniques. As for their classroom practices, teachers focused primarily on the grammatical accuracy and mechanical errors (i.e., spelling, grammar, vocabulary, capitalization, and punctuation) (91.4%) rather than on organization (i.e., cohesion, coherence, and unity) (7.3%). This showed that there is an important discrepancy between teachers' perceptions and classroom practices in giving written feedback. Regarding the directness of the feedback, the results revealed that teachers' perceptions were not consistent with their practices in that almost all of the teachers preferred to provide direct feedback rather than indirect feedback. Next, there is also a mismatch between teachers' perception and classroom practices in providing coded and uncoded feedback. Overall, it is clear that writing teachers' perceptions of providing feedback were not reflected in their classroom practices. The authors concluded that writing teachers should be aware of the congruence and/or discrepancy between their perceptions and practices in writing instruction.

Very recently and relatedly, Crusan, Plakans, and Gebril (2016) have surveyed 702 second language writing instructors' writing assessment literacy including their knowledge, beliefs, and practices. They have collected the data with a 54-item survey instrument, developed by the researchers, through an online survey tool. The survey included both Likert scale items and open-ended response items. More specifically, the study has aimed to explore (1) how second language writing teachers have obtained assessment knowledge; (2) what second language writing teachers' beliefs about writing assessment are; (3) what second language writing teachers' assessment practices are; and (4) what the impact of linguistic background and teaching experience on writing assessment knowledge, beliefs, and practices is. The participants were from both ESL and EFL tertiary institutions in 41 countries from five continents. The quantitative data were analyzed through employing descriptive and inferential statistics. The qualitative data were coded around three themes of knowledge, beliefs, and practices along with a sub-theme of rubrics. With respect to knowledge of writing assessment, the results revealed that about 80% of the participants had training in writing assessment while 20% of the instructors had no training. The places to learn writing assessment were in coursework, in-service/pre-service training, and in professional conferences, respectively. Regarding the knowledge of several common aspects of writing assessment, overall, the teachers appeared to be knowledgeable about the concepts. Over 80% articulated they were knowledgeable about writing task design, rubric use, portfolios, and integrated writing tasks. Nevertheless, 79.8% stated that they were not sure about the

rubric design. Contrary to these positive responses, the results of open-ended response items indicated that about 40% (of the171 respondents) commented that their training for the teaching of writing was primarily on the job, especially as tutors in writing centers. Besides, 30% reported that they learned on their own through self-study: teaching, observation, and reading. With regard to instructors' beliefs about writing assessment, there are mixed beliefs about scoring and writing assessment. While 66% of the instructors believed that scoring of writing is always inaccurate, 60% of them disagreed that scoring is a subjective process. In addition, 55% of the participants considered it difficult to achieve inter-rater reliability, whereas 80% agreed that rater training is not helpful. Next, 53% believed that working with colleagues during scoring is difficult. Moreover, 53% of the teachers reported that writing exams provide a good estimate of writing ability. With respect to self-assessment, while 29% agreed, 32% disagreed. 60% of the teachers believed that content should be given more weight than grammar when scoring. As for the beliefs about assessment methods, 80% agreed that portfolios are good tools for writing assessment while self-assessment was a suitable writing tool for 73%. Surprisingly, 70% of the instructors agreed that multiple-choice items were a suitable method for assessing writing while only 35% believed in the appropriateness of essay exams. Besides, teacher-made tests were better than standardized writing exams for 57% of the participants. 65% responded positively about integrated writing assessment. Regarding general feelings about writing assessment, about 87% of the instructors felt that they are good writing instructors and 92% of them believed that assessment has an important role in the teaching of writing. 85% of the participants agreed that assessment provides good feedback to students and 90% believed that assessment is not time-consuming. The results of the written comments relevant to teacher beliefs showed that a substantial number of instructors articulated responses stating frustration and challenges in assessing writing. With regard to teachers' writing assessment practices, 80% of the instructors reported that they use scoring rubrics while 50 % indicated that they conduct rater-training sessions. 80% of the participants reported that they encourage their students to do self-assessment, and 62% reported using portfolios. Furthermore, about 60% articulated that they use technology in their writing classes, and 68% reported using integrated writing assessment. 63% expressed that they discuss assessment results with their colleagues. As for the results of inferential analyses, the linguistic background of participants significantly influenced both their practices and knowledge about writing assessment. Non-native teachers had a higher level of assessment literacy and a wider range of writing assessment

practices. In addition, teaching experience of the instructors significantly impacted their beliefs about writing assessment and assessment literacy. Instructors with fewer years of teaching experience varied significantly from their more experienced colleagues in their beliefs about writing assessment. With regard to assessment literacy, more experienced instructors had less assessment knowledge. Besides, the least experienced group of teachers possessed higher assessment knowledge than the participants with 11-20 years of teaching experience. All in all, the authors suggested that teacher training programs take these factors into account in order to be able to equip the teachers with the required knowledge and skills to survive in the dynamic educational environments. They further concluded that equipping writing teachers with writing assessment literacy will make them more effective in writing assessment practices in writing classes.

As put forth by the aforementioned studies and in light of the related literature on teachers' beliefs about L2 writing instruction, teacher beliefs have been investigated substantially with regard to curricular-specific domains such as grammar instruction, reading instruction, vocabulary, and so on. In addition, with respect to L2 writing instruction, generally there exist topic-specific studies which have been carried on students and teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward assessing writing, teacher written feedback, peer feedback, writing approaches, writing strategies and so forth rather than teacher beliefs about L2 writing instruction as a single entity (e.g. Crusan, Plakans, & Gebril, 2016; Lee, 2009, 2011; Tsui, 1996; Vanlı, 2013). In addition, the previous studies are either small-scale or topic-specific studies which may not adequately reflect the multifaceted and complex nature of L2 writing. In this sense, there is a clear and important gap in L2 writing literature regarding the investigation of teachers' writing beliefs. Therefore, with the scarcity and incomprehensiveness of the research on teacher beliefs about writing instruction in ESL/EFL context in mind, the present study, focusing on writing as a whole, aims to explore teacher beliefs about L2 writing comprising the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing in the Turkish EFL context. Furthermore, it is hoped that through adopting a more comprehensive approach, this study will demonstrate a complete and clear portrayal of the current situation of EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing instruction.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This study was carried out in three phases (Development Phase, Validation, and Investigation Phase) in order to answer the research questions given in Chapter 1. The overall and major objective of the present study was to develop an inventory on English writing teachers' beliefs. To this end, certain steps were taken in two main phases. The purpose of the Development Phase was to develop a writing beliefs inventory based on a tentative theoretical framework for English writing beliefs. The purpose of the Validation Phase was to validate the newly developed model with three subscales. The Investigation Phase aimed at exploring EFL instructors' writing beliefs through using this newly developed inventory. Besides, it was aimed to discover possible relationships between EFL instructors' writing beliefs (dependent variable) and certain background variables including gender, institution, general teaching experience, writing teaching experience, and educational degree (independent variables). Therefore, this chapter begins with the presentation of the tentative theoretical framework because there is no study which proposed a theoretical framework before. It is followed by research design, participants, the development procedures of the TEWBI, data collection, and data analysis.

Theoretical Framework

It has been well-documented in the literature that beliefs are among the major determinants of people's behaviors (e.g. Borg, 2015; Zheng, 2015; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). Besides, these beliefs serve as a filter through which people interpret new knowledge they encounter

in their lives. In the same vein, *the theory of planned behavior* is the theoretical basis of the present study. This theory has become one of the most influential conceptual frameworks for the study of human action (Ajzen, 2012). According to this theory, human behaviors are guided by three kinds of beliefs (Ajzen, 2002, p. 665): (a) beliefs about the likely consequences of other attributes of the behavior (behavioral beliefs); (b) beliefs about the normative expectations of other people (normative beliefs); and (c) beliefs about the presence of factors that may further or hinder performance of the behavior (control beliefs). In other words, behavioral beliefs concern with favorable and unfavorable attitude toward the behavior. Normative beliefs bring about perceived social pressure. Control beliefs generate perceived behavioral control in the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior (p. 666). In this sense, beliefs form the foundations of attitudes, as do subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. These three factors (attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) all are influenced by one's beliefs and together shape an individual's intentions, which are eventually manifested in certain actions.

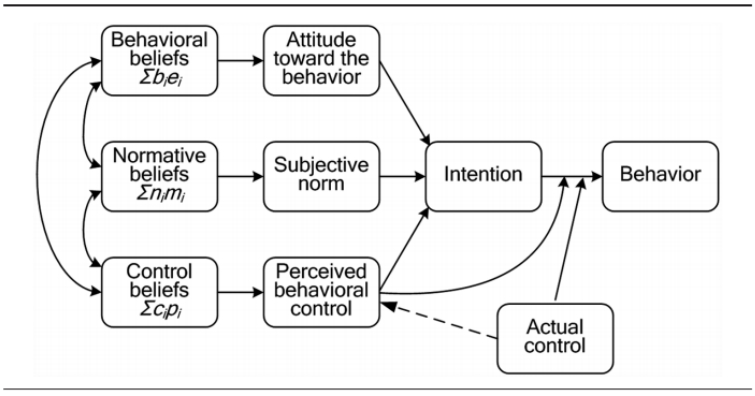


Figure 5. Theory of planned behavior (Adapted from Ajzen (2012, p. 19)

According to this model, it is obvious that beliefs are the very basis for intentions and behavior. In the theory of planned behavior, a behavior is guided by intentions. Intention can be predicted by attitude, perceived norms, and perceived behavioral control for which beliefs provide the basis. In essence, Ajzen (2012) concluded that "beliefs lead people to perform, not to perform a given behavior" (p. 21). These three aspects, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perception of behavior control, result in a behavioral intention. Ultimately, with a sufficient degree of actual control over the behavior, individuals can conduct their intentions under appropriate conditions. Intention is accepted as the immediate

antecedent of behavior (Ajzen, 2002). Underlying the importance of examination of beliefs in behavior change, Ajzen (2012) noted that "exploration of behavior, normative, and control beliefs allows investigators to identify important determinants of socially significant behaviors, thereby gaining a better understanding of how we might go about modifying behavior in a desirable direction" (p. 22). Likewise, because writing is a multi-faceted activity, there is no complete and single theory of writing, which can cover all aspects of writing such as cognitive, affective, linguistic, sociocultural, and so forth (Silva, 1990). Therefore, a tentative framework on which the present study is based has been developed. This framework of English writing beliefs has guided the development of the TEWBI.

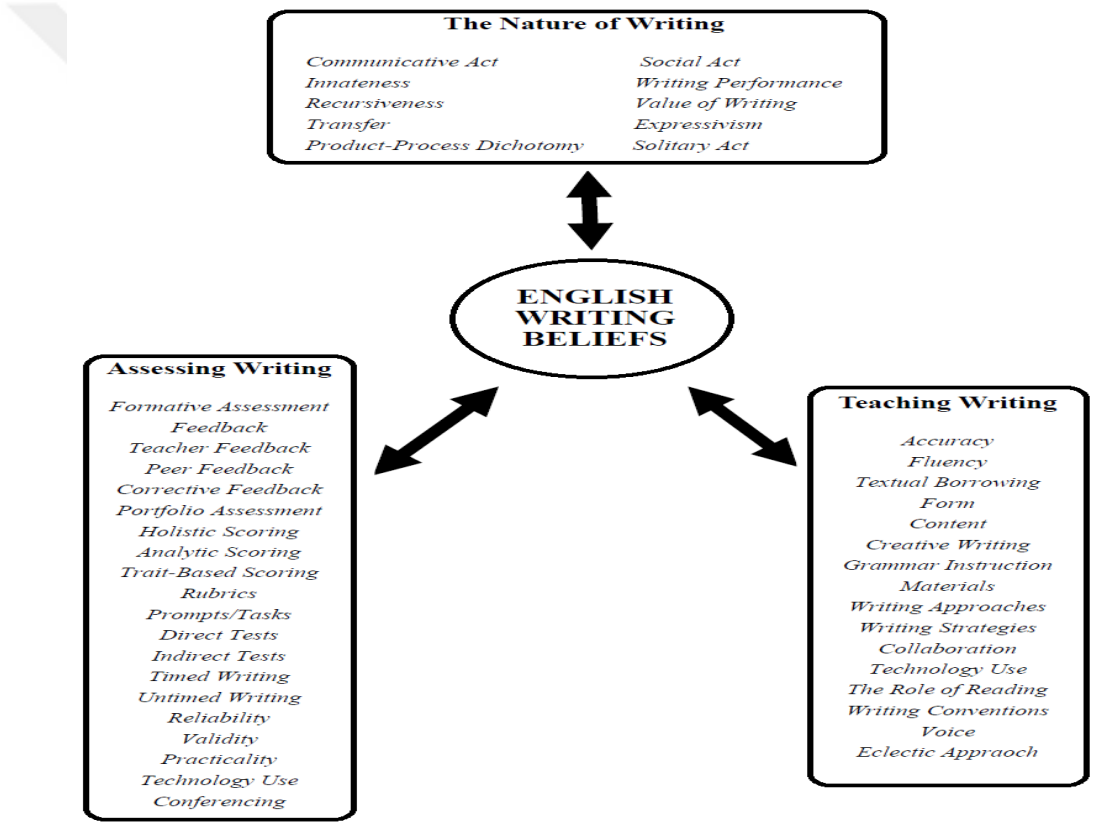


Figure 6. The tentative framework for English writing beliefs

According to this tentative framework, there are three broad constructs which constitute English writing beliefs, namely, the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing. More specifically, the nature of writing beliefs involves the role and importance of writing such as communicative, social, individual role, and so on. Next, it also covers

whether writing is an innate gift or a skill that can be learned through instruction. In addition, it includes the debate whether writing is a recursive process or a linear activity. Another equally important issue, transfer, is contained in this construct. The possible factors affecting writing quality are also included. Moreover, the value attached to writing is covered, as well. Regarding the construct of teaching writing, accuracy vs. fluency debate is included. In addition, another controversial issue which is form vs. content is considered. Textual borrowing is crucial in developing students' writing ability. The role of grammar instruction is covered. Students should be provided with the opportunity to conduct creative writing in writing instruction. The benefits and drawbacks of instructional materials are among the hotly discussed topics in L2 writing education. Writing approaches (product-centered, process approach, genre-based approach, or eclectic approach) constitute the major part of teaching writing. Besides, writing strategies play a key role in determining students' writing performance. The role of collaborative writing should be touched upon in this construct. There is an increasing recognition in the use of new technologies in teaching L2 writing. The interconnection between reading and writing skill has been recognized recently. Furthermore, English writing conventions should be involved especially in EFL contexts. Finally, voice is also worth to be touched upon in the process of teaching writing. With regard to assessing writing, summative vs. formative assessment is an important issue of debate in L2 writing assessment. Providing feedback to students' writing constitute an important part of writing assessment. Different sources of feedback including teacher, peer, self, and conferencing should be employed in the process of writing assessment. Portfolio assessment along with the issues of reliability, validity, and practicality are covered. Various scoring types including holistic, analytic, and trait-based should be considered in the process of writing assessment. In addition, writing teachers should be knowledgeable about designing proper prompts and tasks. The role of rubrics as instructional tools should also be touched upon. The advantages and disadvantages of direct vs indirect and timed vs. untimed writing tests should be understood. Lastly, the effects of technology use should be well awarded in assessing writing.

Research Design

The present study is a descriptive study adopting a quantitative methodology. Descriptive research is employed when the researcher wants to describe a specific phenomenon without

any intervention as it takes place in its natural environment. Therefore, it addresses the "what" question rather than how/when/why questions. In addition, the major purpose of this kind of research design is to investigate, describe, explain, and validate findings (Borg & Gall, 1989). Likewise, the present study attempts to develop a writing beliefs inventory and to investigate EFL instructors' beliefs about English writing instruction. Furthermore, descriptive research reports the results of descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages, mean, and standard deviation. More specifically, this study has adopted survey research, which is one of the descriptive research methods. According to Johnson (1992), surveys are used to "examine one or more variables for larger numbers of entities" (p. 104). Survey research is generally employed to explore thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings. At this point, this study is set out to examine language instructors' writing beliefs. Survey research can involve both qualitative and quantitative methodology. This study is based solely on quantitative research methodology. The quantitative inquiry "is systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 34). In line with these underlying assumptions of quantitative research, the present study aims to yield reliable and generalizable results. To do so, as a valuable and most common data collection instrument in quantitative research and applied linguistics, questionnaire/inventory survey was employed in this study. There are distinct advantages of questionnaire/inventory surveys such as (1) questionnaires enable researchers to obtain a large amount of data in a short period of time (Dörnyei, 2003); (2) they can provide useful information on an event, a belief, or an attitude (Farhady, 1995); (3) they can gather broad and generalizable data (Patton, 2002); and (4) researchers can reach a wide range of participants from a wide range of institutions (McDonough & McDonough, 1997).

Administering questionnaires/inventories is one of the valuable and necessary means in order to be able to examine this complex phenomenon in a wide range of tertiary-level institutions in Turkey. It has been reported that "beliefs cannot be inferred directly from teacher behavior because teacher can follow similar practices for very different reasons" (Kagan, 1992, p. 66). Similarly, there is considerable evidence in the literature that because of social, psychological, and contextual factors, teachers' beliefs may not be manifested in their actual classroom practices (Borg, 2003, 2006, 2015; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1986). In other words, classroom observations may not yield teachers' actual beliefs and not lead to reliable results with respect to teacher beliefs. Within this context, questionnaires or

inventories provide important avenues for examination of teachers' beliefs. Because beliefs were not directly observable phenomena, questionnaires/inventories have been widely used to examine teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning in general and with relevant to specific curricular domains such as reading, writing, grammar, and so on (Borg, 2015). One of these inventories was the BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) developed by Horwitz (1985, 1988), which has been widely used to examine both teachers and students' beliefs about language learning and teaching. Another rationale for adopting quantitative research is that the primary aim of this study is to develop a writing beliefs inventory and through this instrument to take a general picture of EFL instructors' beliefs about English writing instruction across Turkey. Next, there are several studies on language teachers' beliefs relevant to L2 and/or FL writing instruction in the literature (e.g. Burns, 1992; Diab, 2005; Sengupta & Xiao, 2002; Shi & Cumming, 1995; Tsui, 1996). Yet, almost all of these were small-scale studies aiming at having a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. In contrast, the present study aims to reach a wide range of participants from various institutions in Turkey in order to be able to take a general picture of the situation, in this case, teachers' writing beliefs.

Participants

In order to develop and validate the TEWBI, the researcher recruited a total of 653 EFL instructors (183 males and 470 females) from 51 different universities (41 states and 10 privates) (Appendix 1). Because the present study was a three-phase study including Development, Validation, and Investigation Phases, the researcher collected the data from different participants for different phases. In fact, two different datasets were created. 311 EFL instructors participated in the first (Development) phase. For the second (Validation) and third (Investigation) phases, 342 EFL instructors were recruited (Appendix 2). The researcher used the same dataset for validating the TEWBI and investigating EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing.

311 EFL instructors took part in the first phase. Table 2 summarizes specific demographic information of these EFL instructors, including their gender, institution, general teaching experience, writing teaching experience, and educational degree.

Table 2

Demographic Information of Participants of the Development Phase

		f	%
Gender			
	Male	103	33.1
	Female	208	66.9
Institution			
	State	175	56.3
	Private	136	43.7
General Teaching Experience			
	0-3 years	47	15.1
	4-10 years	168	54
	11-20 years	70	22.5
	21 and over years	26	8.4
Writing Teaching Experience			
	0-3 years	86	27.7
	4-10 years	164	52.7
	11-20 years	52	16.7
	21 and over years	9	2.9
Educational Degree			
	Undergraduate (BA)	154	49.5
	Graduate (MA and PhD)	157	50.5
	Total	311	100

The first phase which aimed to develop the TEWBI involved 311 EFL instructors who were teaching English in preparatory classes at 29 universities in Turkey. Of these universities, 23 were state and 6 were private universities. Because of the natural distribution of gender in language teaching, the majority of the participants were female (66.9%), and the rest 33.1% were male instructors. 175 instructors were teaching at state universities (56.3%) while 136 out of 311 were from private universities (43.7%). Regarding their language teaching experience, only 15.1% of the instructors were novice with 0-3-year experience. The majority of the participants had 4-10-year experience (54%), followed by the instructors with 11-20-year experience (22.5%). The percentage of the instructors with 21 and over year-experience was 8.4. With respect to instructors' teaching experience in writing, 27.7% of them had 0-3-year experience. Half of the participants (52.7%) had 4-10-year experience. 16.7% of the instructors were in 11-20-year experience group. Only 2.9% of the instructors had 21 and over year-experience. With regard to the highest educational degree the instructors have gained, they were grouped into two categories as undergraduate (BA) and graduate (MA & Ph.D.) because there were only 16 instructors who had Ph.D. degree. At this point, the percentages of the undergraduate and graduate instructors were so close to each other that the former had 49.5% while the latter had 50.5%.

In addition, the second phase of the present study aimed to validate the model of TEWBI and its sub-scales/sub-constructs. To this end, 342 EFL instructors from 32 universities participated in the second phase of the study. Table 3 displays the demographic background of 342 instructors, including their gender, institution, general teaching experience, writing teaching experience, and educational degree.

Table 3

Demographic Information of Participants of the Validation and Investigation Phase

		f	%
Gender			
	Male	80	23.4
	Female	262	76.6
Institution			

	State	231	67.5
	Private	111	32.5
General Teaching Experience			
	0-3 years	27	7.9
	4-10 years	145	42.4
	11-20 years	116	33.9
	21 and over years	54	15.8
Writing Teaching Experience			
	0-3 years	63	18.4
	4-10 years	155	45.3
	11-20 years	94	27.5
	21 and over years	30	8.8
Educational Degree			
	Undergraduate (BA)	161	47.1
	Graduate (MA and PhD)	181	52.9
	Total	342	100

Again, the majority of the participants were female (76.6%), and males had 23.4 percentage. The data were gathered from 24 state and 8 private universities. Therefore, the participants from state universities had 67.5% while the ones who were teaching at private universities had 32.5%. Regarding their language teaching experience, 7.9% of the instructors possessed 0-3-year experience while 42.4% of them had 4-10-year experience. Besides, 33.9% of the participants were with 11-20 year-experience. The percentage of the instructors who had 21 and over year-experience was 15.8%. With respect to language instructors' teaching experience in writing, 18.4% of them had 0-3-year experience. About half of the participants (45.3%) possessed 4-10-year experience. While 27.5% of the instructors had 11-20-year

experience, only 8.8% of them were with 21 and over-year experience. Furthermore, educational degree the language instructors hold was categorized as undergraduate (BA) and graduate (MA & Ph.D.). Because there were only 16 Ph.D. holders, the researcher grouped MA and PhD holders under graduate. While the undergraduate instructors possessed 47.1%, the graduate instructors had 52.9%.

The third phase, Investigation Phase, investigated EFL instructors' writing beliefs and relationships between dependent (i.e. writing beliefs) and independent variables (i.e. gender, institution, general teaching experience, writing teaching experience, and educational degree) thorough administering the newly developed TEWBI. To do so, the data collected for the Validation Phase were used. Therefore, the participants of both Validation and Investigation Phases had the same demographic characteristics.

Sampling

A sample is a subset of the target population. In order to yield accurate results, it is crucial to adopt an appropriate sampling method so that researchers can save a substantial amount of time, effort, and cost. With the help of proper sampling, researchers do not need to reach the whole target population for the representativeness and generalizability of the results. In this sense, a proper sample should be similar to the target population regarding certain characteristics such as age, gender, educational background, and so forth. There are two main types of sampling as probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling methods are primarily employed in quantitative studies (Creswell, 2015) and refer to "selecting a relatively large number of units from a population, or from specific subgroups (strata) of a population, in a random manner where the probability of inclusion for every member of the population is determinable" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 713). This kind of sampling methods aims to reach representativeness. Likewise, the main objective of the present study is to develop a writing beliefs inventory, which necessitates having an appropriate sample in order to represent the entire population in an accurate way. Within this context, the present study has adopted a stratified random sampling method, one of the random sampling methods, because the main aim of the present study is to have a sound representativeness. One of the most important advantages of this sampling method is to provide more accurate samples which reflect the population accurately through reducing selection bias. Stratified sampling occurs when "the researcher divides the population into

subgroups (or strata) such that each unit belongs to a single stratum (e.g., low income, medium income, high income) and then selects units from those strata" (Teddlie & Yu, 2007, p. 79). Since there are seven geographic regions in Turkey, the target population was divided into seven subgroups or strata according to geographic location of the institutions. These strata are Marmara (7 institutions), Black Sea (4 institutions), Aegean (2 institutions), Central Anatolia (8 institutions), Eastern Anatolia (1 institution), Southeast Anatolia (3 institutions), and Mediterranean (3 institutions). As a result, a total of 653 EFL instructors from 28 different provinces participated in the present study, which is expected to be a sound sample of the target population.

Procedures

The Development Process of the TEWBI

Because devising a good questionnaire or inventory is a demanding task (Gillham, 2000), several steps were taken in order to develop reliable and valid data collection instrument of the present study. In the process of scale development, the researcher heeded the suggestions and processes put forwarded by Dörnyei (2003) and DeVellis (2016). At this point, the construction process of the TEWBI is essentially based on the specific guidelines DeVellis remarked on (2016, pp. 107-147).

1. Determine clearly what it is you want to measure: Having decided upon the topic of the study, which is writing beliefs, an initial advisor-advisee conference was held so as to discuss the preliminary constructs of the writing beliefs inventory since it is the first crucial step to establish the theoretical background in developing any questionnaire or inventory (Farhady, 1995). Following this conference, four draft writing constructs were determined including nature of writing, the value attached to writing, writing approaches, and writing assessment. A tentative theoretical model was formulated since there is no complete theory of writing (Silva, 1990). Next, the researcher has searched for belief inventories in language teaching and specifically in L2 writing instruction. The researcher has examined the BALLI which is one of the widely used inventories of learning beliefs developed by Horwitz (1985, 1987). In particular, in the field of L2 writing instruction, the researcher has encountered two important survey studies; Wu (2003) and Kim (2015). These previous survey studies have made a great contribution in identifying the draft constructs of the TEWBI. Relatedly, Dörnyei (2003) stressed that it is crucial to adopt certain theoretical guidelines in order to

select the content of the questionnaire. Doing a comprehensive review of related literature is one important means that can serve for this purpose. In fact, a systematic review of literature guided item construction rather than data from qualitative data is believed to enhance the external validity of the inventory, as well as increase the validity relevant to the content of the inventory. In addition, with these draft writing constructs in mind, the researcher has carried out a comprehensive review of L2 writing education literature. Hundreds of research articles, lots of Ph.D. dissertations, and at least 20 L2 writing books have been examined in order to develop a tentative theoretical framework for English writing beliefs. As a result of this examination, 10 tentative writing constructs were developed. Below, Table 4 demonstrates the sources and generated writing beliefs constructs for the present study. The researcher and his advisor have discussed in detail on final constructs, because there were several overlapping constructs within these 10 constructs, and they were combined into 3 broad writing constructs as the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing.

Table 4

The Sources of the Generated Belief Constructs

Source	**Genre**	**Generated Belief Construct**
Casanave (2004)	Book	Writing assessment
Weigle (2002)	Book	Writing assessment
Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Writing assessment
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Writing assessment
Hyland (2003)	Book	Writing assessment
Uysal (2008)	Book	Writing assessment
Kroll (2003)	Book	Writing assessment
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Writing assessment
Crusan (2010)	Book	Writing assessment
Huot (2002)	Book	Writing assessment

Manchon and Matsuda (2016)	Book	Writing assessment
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Writing assessment
Yaylı (2012)	Research Article	Writing assessment
Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000)	Book	Writing assessment
Casanave (2004)	Book	Feedback
Hyland (2003)	Book	Feedback
Weigle (2002)	Book	Feedback
Kroll (2003)	Book	Feedback
Bitchener (2008)	Research Article	Feedback
Hyland and Hyland (2006)	Book	Feedback
Ferris (2010)	Research Article	Feedback
Ferris (2003)	Book	Feedback
Evans et al. (2010)	Research Article	Feedback
Rollinson (2005)	Research Article	Feedback
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Feedback
Manchon (2012)	Book	Feedback
Ferris and Hedgcock (2005)	Book	Feedback
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Feedback
Bitchener and Ferris (2012)	Book	Feedback
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Feedback
Manchon and Matsuda (2016)	Book	Feedback
Uysal (2008)	Book	Feedback
Casanave (2004)	Book	Teaching writing
Hyland (2003, 2009, 2015)	Book	Teaching writing
Kroll (1990, 2003)	Book	Teaching writing

Uysal (2008)	Book	Teaching writing
Weigle (2002)	Book	Teaching writing
Silva and Matsuda (2001)	Book	Teaching writing
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Teaching writing
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Teaching writing
Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Teaching writing
Manchon and Matsuda (2016)	Book	Teaching writing
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Teaching writing
Cimasko and Reichelt (2011)	Book	Teaching writing
Silva and Nicholls (1993)	Research Article	Teaching writing
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Teaching writing
Ferris and Hedgcock (2005)	Book	Teaching writing
Manchon (2012)	Book	Teaching writing
White and Bruning (2005)	Research Article	Teaching writing
Carson and Leki (1993)	Book	Teaching writing
Zimmerman and Bandura (1994)	Research Article	Teaching writing
Belcher and Hirvela (2001)	Book	Teaching writing
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Teaching writing
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Nature of writing
Casanave (2004)	Book	Nature of writing
Hyland (2003)	Book	Nature of writing
Manchon (2012)	Book	Nature of writing
Uysal (2008)	Book	Nature of writing
Weigle (2002)	Book	Nature of writing
Elbow (1998)	Research Article	Nature of writing

Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Nature of writing
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Nature of writing
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Nature of writing
White and Bruning (2005)	Research Article	Nature of writing
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Nature of writing
Silva and Nicholls (1993)	Research Article	Nature of writing
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Nature of writing
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Transfer
Hyland (2003)	Book	Transfer
Manchon (2012)	Book	Transfer
Uysal (2008)	Book	Transfer
Kroll (2003)	Book	Transfer
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Transfer
Weigle (2002)	Book	Transfer
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Transfer
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Value of writing
Silva and Nicholls (1993)	Research Article	Value of writing
Kroll (2003)	Book	Value of writing
Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Value of writing
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Value of writing
Manchon (2012)	Book	Value of writing
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Value of writing
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Value of writing
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Value of writing
White and Bruning (2005)	Research Article	Value of writing

Hyland (2003)	Book	Value of writing
Weigle (2002)	Book	Value of writing
Casanave (2004)	Book	Writing approaches
Hyland (2003, 2004, 2009, 2015)	Book	Writing approaches
Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Writing approaches
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Writing approaches
Zimmerman and Bandura (1994)	Research Article	Writing approaches
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Writing approaches
Cimasko and Reichelt (2011)	Book	Writing approaches
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Writing approaches
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Writing approaches
Manchon (2012)	Book	Writing approaches
Elbow (1973)	Research Article	Writing approaches
Manchon and Matsuda (2016)	Book	Writing approaches
Sommers (1980)	Research Article	Writing approaches
Zamel (1982)	Research Article	Writing approaches
Uysal (2008)	Book	Writing approaches
Ferris and Hedgcock (2005)	Book	Writing approaches
Kroll (1990, 2003)	Book	Writing approaches
Casanave (2004)	Book	Writing performance
Hyland (2003)	Book	Writing performance
Uysal (2008)	Book	Writing performance
Manchon (2012)	Book	Writing performance
Silva and Nicholls (1993)	Research Article	Writing performance
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Writing performance

Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Writing performance
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Writing performance
Weigle (2002)	Book	Writing performance
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Writing performance
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Writing performance
Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Writing performance
Uysal (2008)	Book	Writing process
Casanave (2004)	Book	Writing process
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Writing process
Weigle (2002)	Book	Writing process
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Writing process
Uysal (2008)	Book	Writing strategies
Casanave (2004)	Book	Writing strategies
Hyland (2003)	Book	Writing strategies
Wu (2003)	PhD Dissertation	Writing strategies
Kaulaity (2007)	PhD Dissertation	Writing strategies
Grabe and Kaplan (1996)	Book	Writing strategies
Baaijen (2012)	Research Article	Writing strategies
Lavelle and Bushrow (2007)	Research Article	Writing strategies
Sanders-Reio (2010)	PhD Dissertation	Writing strategies
Taylor (2008)	PhD Dissertation	Writing strategies
White and Bruning (2005)	Research Article	Writing strategies
Lavelle and Zuercher (2001)	Research Article	Writing strategies
Ferris (2010)	Research Article	Writing strategies

2. Generate an item pool: With respect to these three constructs, a comprehensive item pool was generated including 409 items for the nature of writing, 566 items for teaching writing, and 431 items for assessing writing. Because there were a number of redundant and overlapping items, a set of advisor-advisee conferences were held in order to decrease the number of the items. After considerable time and effort, the conferences resulted in a total of 94 items including 32 items for nature of writing, 33 items for teaching writing, and 29 items for assessing writing.

3. Determine the format for measurement: A Likert-scale response format was selected since this is widely used in instruments measuring opinions, beliefs, and attitudes (Dörnyei, 2003). More specifically, the number of response options has been determined as a six-point Likert scale in order to prevent participants' tendency to choose the middle category (i.e. neutral). Another rationale behind this choice is that since the present study has aimed to develop an inventory, it is vital to ensure the dispersion of the responses among options. However, it has been reported that less motivated participants may not allocate sufficient cognitive effort for an accurate answer and be prone to adopt a satisfying strategy through choosing simply neutral option (Krosnick, Judd, & Wittenbrink, 2005). Besides, the tendency to the middle category is also related to the cultural background of the participants. For example, it was found that Asian students are more prone to choose middle point than North American students (Chen, Lee, & Stevenson, 1995, cited in Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Likewise, Turkish respondents may have a similar tendency in completing the survey. Within this context, heeding the Dörnyei and Taguchi's suggestion (2010), the researcher has omitted the neutral category and employed a six-point option scale as strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), slightly disagree (3), partly agree (4), agree (5), and strongly agree (6). Before an initial piloting of the TEWBI, a final advisor-advisee conference was held in order to make the last revisions relevant to the format of the inventory. Initially, the title of the inventory has been discussed in order to give sufficient information about the area of investigation and to activate the background knowledge of the respondents. Besides, a general introduction, as well as specific instruction, took place on the opening page of the inventory. These two parts aim to inform the participants about the purpose of the study and how to complete the survey, underline that there is no right or wrong answers, ensure confidentiality, request sincere and honest responses, and thank participants for their participation. In addition, the layout of the TEWBI has been handled, which is one of the important dimensions of the construction of the instrument. The layout should be able to attract the participants' interest and should

encourage them to sustain their motivation throughout the completion. Thus, the researcher preferred to choose a booklet format which looks compact and short and is easy to read. Next, the place of the background questions (i.e. gender, institution, general teaching experience, writing teaching experience, and educational degree) has also been discussed. In order for background questions not to negatively affect other items (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), the researcher put these types of questions on the very last page of the inventory (Nardi, 2006).

4. Have initial item pool reviewed by experts: The draft format of the inventory was e-mailed to a panel of knowledgeable researchers in the L2 writing field. 2 native and 3 non-native L2 writing experts were asked for their opinions and feedback about the appropriateness of the writing statements. More specifically, 3 non-native writing experts were from Gazi University (Department of Foreign Language Teaching), Pamukkale University (Department of Foreign Language Teaching), and Boğaziçi University (Department of Foreign Language Teaching) and 2 native writing experts were from Arizona State University (Department of English) and Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey (English Department). With the feedback received from these L2 writing experts in mind, the statements were revised accordingly.

5. Consider inclusion of validation items: Some additional items were included to help in determining the validity of the final scale. Besides, there are 18 reverse-scored items in the TEWBI in order to prevent the participants choose only one side of the scale and to reduce the negative effects of the acquiescence bias (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Heeding this, the items 2, 3, 4, 8, 17, 30, and 32 in the nature of writing sub-scale, the items 4, 20, and 27 in teaching writing sub-scale, and the items 5, 12, 15, 17, 21, 26, 27, and 29 in assessing writing sub-scale were in reverse order to make sure the participants would answer the instrument carefully.

6. Administer items to a development sample: The TEWBI was pre-piloted with the participation of five writing tutors working at a writing center of a Turkish state university. The comprehensibility of the items was checked and necessary revisions were made, accordingly. In addition to the pre-piloting, as a second piloting, the TEWBI was administered to a total of 70 EFL instructors (16 males and 54 females) from 20 different institutions (16 states and 4 privates) in order to check its psychometric property (i.e. reliability). With respect to internal consistency, Cronbach alpha value of the inventory

turned out .89. The three sub-scales of the inventory also had good Cronbach alpha values as .72 for the nature of writing, .86 for teaching writing, and .76 for assessing writing. In light of these internal consistency results, it can be safe to claim that both the inventory and its sub-scales have a good reliability value (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Since the participants of the second piloting phase had similar characteristics with those of the formal study, these 70 participants were involved in the formal study as well (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

7. Evaluate the items: After the administration of the scales to 311 EFL instructors from various state and private universities, the researcher dealt with data screening and reduction procedures. The results of these procedures revealed 11 outliers (extreme cases), leaving 300 cases for EFA. This analysis was used to evaluate the performance of the individual items in order to constitute the final constructs of the inventory. Having determined the number of the factors/constructs of the TEWBI, the researcher employed CFA in order to validate the TEWBI and its constructs.

8. Optimize scale length: It is central that scale length should be manageable for the target participants. Therefore, some items with lower factor loadings, highest cross-loadings, low conceptual consistency and making least contribution to internal consistency can be omitted (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). With these suggestions in mind, the researcher dropped the items with low factor loadings and lower-average correlations with the other items in order to raise the reliability. As a result, the final version of TEWBI resulted in a total of 57 writing items with three sub-scales as the nature of writing (21 items), teaching writing (21 items), and assessing writing (15 items).

Data Collection

Among others, data collection has a vital role in determining the quality of the research. In a similar line, Gillham (2008) pointed out that "the essential point is that good research cannot be built on poorly collected data …" (p. 1). With this in mind, the researcher has paid considerable attention to this issue. Therefore, the researcher has attempted to create a large dataset. In order to increase the participation rate, he travelled to lots of cities and universities and collected data via pen and paper surveys rather than postal or online surveys.

Having these piloting procedures been conducted successfully, the formal study was carried out in three phases with the participation of a total of 653 EFL instructors from 51 different Turkish state and private universities. Initially, 311 EFL instructors completed the 94-item writing beliefs inventory for EFA in determining the latent writing beliefs constructs (Appendix 3). Then, another 342 participants participated in validating the model through CFA. The results of the EFA revealed that the TEWBI is a reliable and valid belief instrument constituting a total of 57 items as 21 nature of writing items, 21 teaching writing items, and 15 assessing writing items (Appendix 4). Finally, the CFA resulted in a validated model of TEWBI with three subscales.

Before starting to collect the data, it was compulsory to apply for the Ethics Committee Approval in Gazi University (Appendix 5). This report indicates that the data collection instrument and procedures do not have any potential harm to participants. The researcher applied for this approval in February 2016, and the committee approved the application in March 2016.

Piloting the Data Collection Instrument

A pilot study is vital in enhancing the quality of an instrument, which can provide important information such as the appropriateness of its layout, necessary revisions of double-barreled items, and an addition of extra items (Gillham, 2000). Similarly, Fowler (1993) states that the purpose of the piloting is to "find out how the survey instrument works under realistic conditions" (p. 100). Furthermore, piloting functions as a "dress rehearsal" which fosters the quality of the results (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 145). With these in mind, the researcher has conducted two piloting studies in the present study. The initial pilot study aimed to assess the practical dimensions of the survey administration while the final pilot study aimed at employing the revised inventory with the actual research participants and to explore the psychometric property (i.e. reliability) of the TEWBI.

The researcher pre-piloted the TEWBI with five writing tutors working at Gazi University Academic Writing Center in April 2016. This piloting phase was carried out as a face-to-face conference between the researcher and the participants. The main purpose of the initial piloting was to check the comprehensibility of the items. Some spelling and grammatical mistakes were determined by the participants in this process. The researcher wrote down these mistakes and revised them accordingly. The revision procedures were conducted in

order to facilitate the comprehensibility and hence to increase the reliability of the TEWBI. From the results of the first piloting, it was indicated that the testing time takes between 25 and 40 minutes.

Having made the necessary revisions, the researcher re-piloted the inventory between May and July 2016 via one of the most common online survey softwares (i.e. Google Docs). The TEWBI was pilot-tested with a total of 70 EFL instructors from 20 different universities, who shared the same context with the participants of the formal study. The main aim of this final piloting was to explore the psychometric properties of the TEWBI including reliability. The reliability of the 94-item inventory turned out .89. This high-reliability index can be an indicator of the good internal consistency of the items (Cohen et al., 2007). This phase was a crucial step before the formal study. The omitting, revising, and adding procedures were conducted in order to increase both the reliability and validity of the TEWBI. Table 5 displays the demographic background of 70 EFL instructors, including their gender, institution, general teaching experience, writing teaching experience, and educational degree.

Table 5

Demographic Background of Participants of the Piloting Phase

		f	%
Gender			
	Male	16	22.8
	Female	54	77.2
Institution			
	State	49	70
	Private	21	30
General Teaching Experience			
	0-3 years	1	1.4
	4-10 years	35	50

	11-20 years	19	27.2
	21 and over years	15	21.4
Writing Teaching Experience			
	0-3 years	13	18.6
	4-10 years	33	47.1
	11-20 years	17	24.3
	21 and over years	7	10
Educational Degree			
	Undergraduate (BA)	28	40
	Graduate (MA & PhD)	42	60
	Total	70	100

The piloting phase of the present study aimed at measuring the psychometric property of the TEWBI. To this end, 70 EFL instructors from 20 universities participated in this phase of the study. The majority of the participants were female (77.2%), and males had only 22.8 percentage. The data were gathered from 16 state and 4 private universities. Therefore, the participants from state universities had 70% while the ones who were teaching at private universities had 30%. Regarding their language teaching experience, only 1.4% of the instructors possessed 0-3-year experience while half of them (50%) had 4-10-year experience. Besides, 27.2% of the participants were with 11-20-year experience. The percentage of the instructors who had 21 and over year-experience was 21.4%. With respect to language instructors' writing teaching experience, 18.6% of them had 0-3-year experience. About half of the participants (47.1%) possessed 4-10-year experience. While 24.3% of the instructors had 11-20 year-experience, only 10% of them were with 21 and over-year experience. Furthermore, educational degree the language instructors hold was categorized as undergraduate (BA) and graduate (MA & Ph.D.). Because there were few PhD holders, the researcher grouped MA and Ph.D. holders under graduate. While the undergraduate instructors possessed 40%, the graduate instructors had 60%.

The Formal Study

The data of the formal study was collected between September 2016 and February 2017. The data were collected in two phases. The data for the first phase were gathered in developing the TEWBI while for the second phase the data were gathered in validating the TEWBI. For the former aim, the researcher could reach 311 EFL instructors. For the latter aim, 342 participants were involved in the study. These processes took over 6 months. Dörnyei (2007) articulated that "there is ample evidence in the measurement literature that questionnaire administration procedures play a significant role in affecting the quality of the elicited responses" (p. 113). He (2007) further noted that administering questionnaires by hand is more influential than postal and internet surveys. This can also increase the rate of the participation. Hence, the researcher decided to administer the TEWBI by hand and as pen-paper format through meeting the participants in order both to obtain more sincere responses and to reach as many instructors as the researcher can. The major reason behind this was that the researcher aimed to increase the participation rate and thus the reliability of the study. A total of 653 EFL instructors from a wide range of different universities participated in the study. The department and preparatory school authorities were contacted previously via e-mail communication to get their approval to administer the TEWBI in their institutions. Before conducting the study, the researcher had applied with the required formal documents including a petition, ethics commission approval issued by Gazi University, and a sample of data collection instrument (i.e. the TEWBI). Having evaluated the researcher's application, except for two, all the institutions replied positively. Then, the researcher copied the inventory and travelled 17 provinces (i.e. Sivas, Nevşehir, Niğde, Tokat, Çanakkale, İstanbul, Bolu, Düzce, İzmir, Samsun, Kayseri, Adana, Bursa, Kocaeli, Karabük, Sakarya, and Balıkesir) and 31 universities (i.e. Cumhuriyet University, Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Ömer Halisdemir University, Gazi Osman Paşa University, 18 Mart University, İstanbul Medeniyet University, Hacettepe University, METU, Abant İzzet Baysal University, Düzce University, İstanbul University, Ege University, 19 Mayıs University, Erciyes University, Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Ankara Social Sciences University, Çukurova University, İstanbul Technical University, Boğaziçi University, Kocaeli University, Karabük University, Sakarya University, Gazi University, Dokuz Eylül University, Ankara University, Balıkesir University, Yıldız Technical University, Uludağ

University, Ufuk University, Atılım University, and University of Turkish Aeronautical Association) by his car. In addition, the researcher reached some universities through personal communication with his friends who taught in these institutions. The researcher requested them to collect the data from their colleagues. In doing so, the participants were informed about the purpose of the study. They were ensured that all the data gathered would be kept confidential so that a third party would not have access to the data. Next, the front page of the TEWBI involved brief instruction related to completion of the inventory. Having informed the participants about the procedures, the researcher handed out the inventory. The researcher requested the participants to complete the inventory in 10 days and to hand the completed inventory to the secretary of the institution. Besides, the researcher also requested secretaries for delivering the inventories to his address. For some universities, the researcher had to travel and gather the completed inventories from the participants. The aforementioned procedures were applied to two data collection phases. While the data for the developing phase were recruited through 94-item inventory, the data for the validation and investigation phases were collected with the newly developed inventory. After the data collection procedures had been completed, the inventories were made ready for further statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

The data analysis of the present study constitutes analyzing the data collected through the TEWBI. More specifically, for the Development Phase, the data gathered from 311 EFL instructors were analyzed through IBM SPSS 22 for Windows. EFA was adopted for this phase. For the Validation Phase, the data gathered from 342 EFL instructors underwent CFA through LISREL 8.80 program for Windows. For the Investigation Phase, descriptive (frequency, percentage, standard deviation, and mean) were used for the data gathered from 342 EFL instructors. Both Validation and Investigation Phases made use of the same dataset.

Both EFA and CFA are widely employed in scale development and validation process. While the former is used in earlier phases of scale development and construct validation, the latter is usually employed in later phases following the determination of the underlying structure. In the EFA phase, the researcher aims to specify the number of factors whereas CFA is "a type of structural equation modeling (SEM) that deals specifically with measurement models, that is, the relationships between observed measures or indicators

(e.g., test items, test scores, behavioral observation ratings) and latent variables or factors" (Brown, 2006, p. 1). Since CFA has hypothesis-driven nature, it is essential to prespecify all underlying factors for the tentative model. Especially in the process of the scale development, CFA is adopted to investigate the latent structure of the data collection instrument (e.g. inventory). In other words, CFA is used to explore construct validation of a scale. If the factors are presumed to be intercorrelated, the researcher can conduct a second order factor analysis for further analysis. The main purpose of the second-order factor analysis is to elaborate the correlations among first-order factors.

The present study has employed a second order CFA in order to confirm the theorized model including one main construct (i.e. writing beliefs) and three sub-constructs (i.e. the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing). The model of this study posits that writing beliefs construct involves three underlying sub-constructs and each sub-construct is measured using a certain number of items. The factor indicators of the first-order factors, namely, the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing are continuous. The first-order factors are indicators of the second-order factor, writing beliefs. More specifically, the main construct (i.e. writing beliefs) has become second-order construct while the sub-constructs (i.e. the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing) have been referred as the first order construct.

With respect to research questions, in order to answer the first research question, the researcher has employed EFA and CFA.

1. What are the psychometric properties of the TEWBI?
    a. Is the TEWBI a psychometrically reliable instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?
    b. Is the TEWBI a psychometrically valid instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?

The second main and sub-questions were answered through using descriptive statistics in SPSS.

2. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about L2 writing?
    a. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about the nature of L2 writing?
    b. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 writing?
    c. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about assessing L2 writing?

The researcher employed Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 in order to quantitatively analyze the data obtained for the first phase of the study. Besides, SPSS was used to identify the outliers of the data to be analyzed by LISREL program. The following procedures were followed in order to make the raw data more appropriate for certain statistical analysis. At this end, the following statistical procedures were used, respectively.

Before conducting the EFA and CFA, data screening procedures (e.g., missing data, outliers), together with an appropriate missing data strategy should be carried out to ensure that the sample data are appropriate for the analysis. In the data screening and cleaning process, first of all, the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm technique was executed in order to estimate and manage the missing data in SPSS. This technique is the most reliable, sensitive, and preferable among others. In this process, missing data were determined and replaced. Upon replacing the missing data, the researcher dealt with the outliers which are the values that are extreme and inconsistent with the rest of the dataset. In order to prevent these outliers to distort seriously the statistical results, the possible extreme cases were identified through the Mahalonobis Distance method ($p<.001$). This method was applied to both datasets; Development and Validation dataset. Besides, there may be some response set in surveys whereby the participants may choose only one side of the questionnaire. In order to prevent this problem and the negative effects of "acquiescence bias", the researcher worded the items both positively and negatively (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 205). In a similar vein, the researcher recoded negatively worded values which the researcher included in order to avoid a response set and the effects of acquiescence bias in the survey. Regarding the data reduction process, as the most common and well-known method, factor analysis was employed in order to explore the underlying factors or subscales. First, a principal component analysis was employed. In order to verify the suitability of the data for EFA, Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Barlett, 1950) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974) should be performed. Dimitrov (2005) put forward that Bartlett's test of Sphericity should have a significance of $p<.05$ and the KMO value should exceed .60. In order to identify the number of the factors, three techniques were adopted including the scree plot (Cattell, 1966), Kaiser criterion (Kaiser, 1960), and proportion of variance. Next, as it was assumed that there was a correlation among the factors, direct-oblimin was performed in order to ensure the interpretability of the factors and to determine the links between the observed variables and underlying factors (Byrne, 1998). In the final

stage, the subscales and their factors were determined under the light of these results of the factor analyses. Furthermore, regarding CFA, various fit indices were used for assessing the fit of the model including absolute and incremental fit indices. Whereas the former constitutes the Chi-Squared test (X^2), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) and the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), the latter involves Normed-fit index (NFI), Non-normed-fit Index (NNFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

These analysis procedures were followed respectively to answer the research questions in the present study:

1. Factor Analyses (i.e. EFA and CFA) were used for developing and validating the TEWBI in this study. The former was used for the first phase, Development Phase, of the study while the latter was used for the second phase, Validation Phase, of the study. Through these analyses, the following research question was aimed to answer: "What are the psychometric properties of the TEWBI? (a) Is the TEWBI a psychometrically reliable instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context and b) Is the TEWBI a psychometrically valid instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context)".
2. Descriptive statistics including percentages, means, frequencies, and standard deviates were computed in order to deal with the EFL instructors' responses to the TEWBI items as well as the demographic information of the participants. Descriptive statistics enables the researchers to present the data in a more meaningful and simpler way, which allows readers to comprehend and interpret the data easily. First of all, the negatively worded items were reverse-scored. These descriptive analyses were employed to answer the second research questions, namely, "What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about L2 writing? (a) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about the nature of L2 writing? b) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 writing? and c) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about assessing L2 writing?

Survey Reliability and Validity

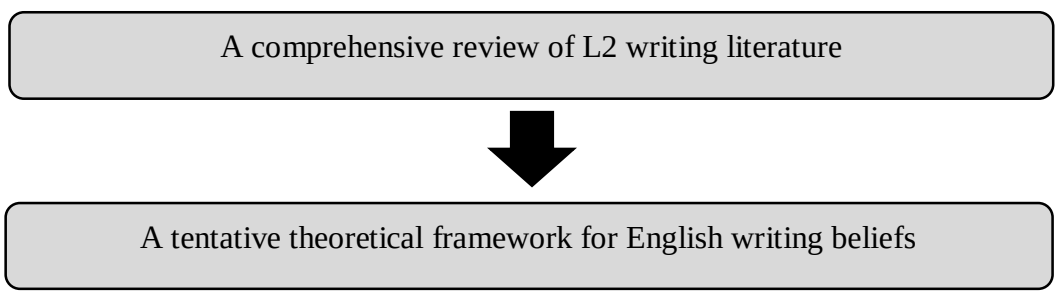
Ensuring reliability and validity in scale development studies is crucial. Unfortunately, Dörnyei (2007) lamented that "questionnaires that yield scores with sufficient (and well

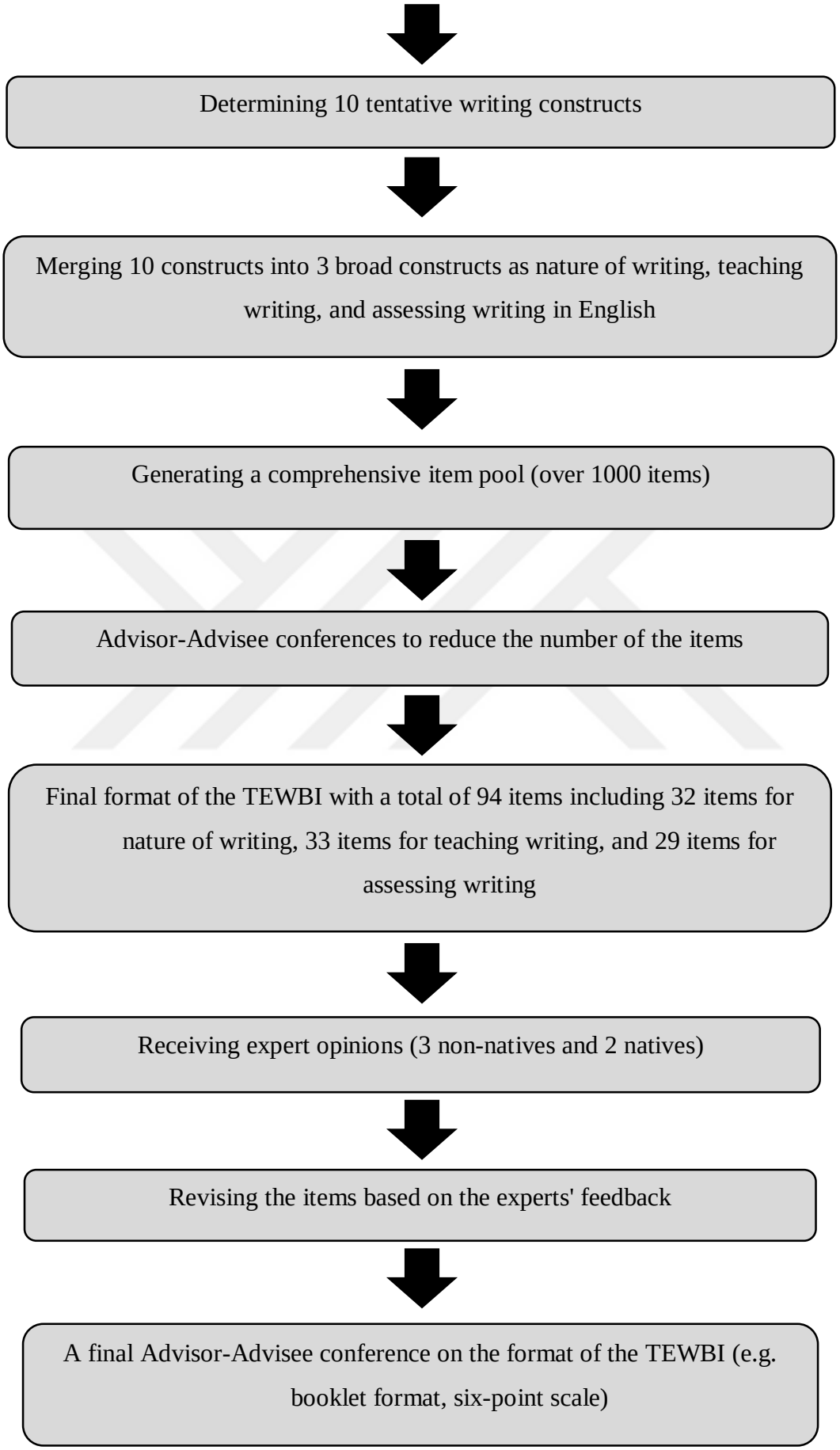
documented) reliability and validity are not that easy to come by in our field" (p. 102). With this in mind, the researcher paid considerable attention to these two vital phenomena in the present study. In order to ensure reliability and validity, the researcher applied a number of ways. Reliability refers to consistency. As the most used technique for reliability analysis, internal consistency assumes that all instrument items should measure the same underlying dimension. It measures the degree to which responses are consistent across the items of a measure (Kline, 2016). Regarding instrument reliability, there are several ways that can be adopted. Because it was not feasible to administer the TEWBI twice to the same EFL instructors in the present study, the researcher preferred Cronbach Alpha method to determine reliability (Mackey & Gass, 2016). As such, high-reliability index is the indication of the sound internal consistency of the statements (Cohen et al., 2007).

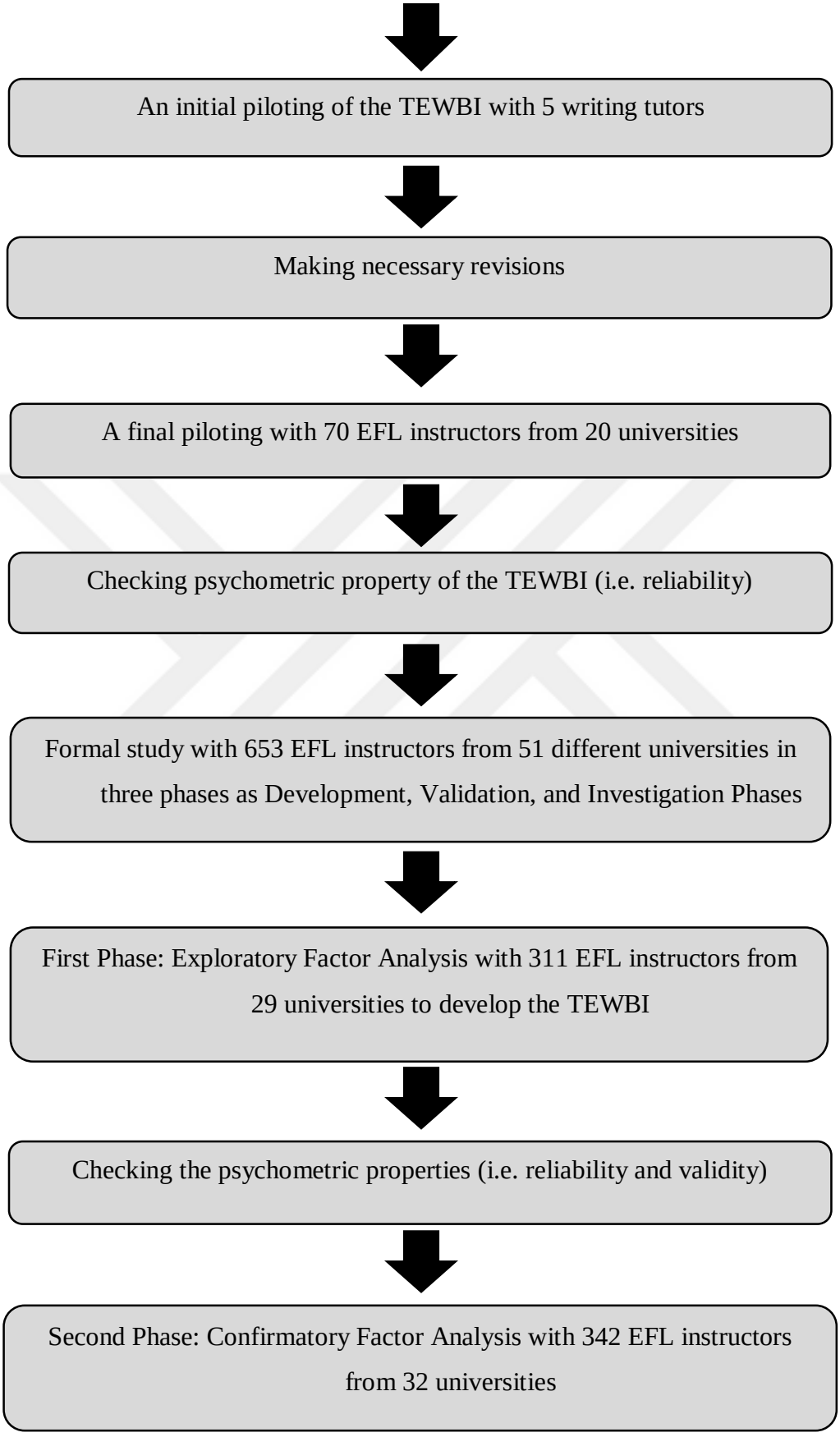
Validity is "the extent to which the test is an indication of what it purports to be" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 180). In other words, it is to what extent a survey is successful in measuring what it is assumed to. It is essential in the process of questionnaire development. There exist many types of validity, such as content, face, construct, criterion-related, and predictive validity. In the present study, the researcher attempted to ensure content, face, and construct validity among others. Content validity refers to "the representativeness of our measurement regarding the phenomenon that we want information about" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 159). If one aims to investigate foreign language anxiety, S/he need to cover all skills and sub-skills in foreign language teaching. Likewise, the researcher attempted to examine EFL instructors' writing beliefs in English, and therefore the researcher should be sensitive to the full range of English writing education. Specifically, the three dimensions of writing as the nature of writing, teaching writing and assessing writing were examined and addressed in detail. In order to increase the content validity of the TEWBI, the researcher consulted with a panel of experts from the field of L2 writing. 2 native and 3 non-native L2 writing experts reviewed the initial inventory items. In light of their feedback, some revisions were made. This procedure was believed to enhance the content validity of the TEWBI. Furthermore, the original version of the TEWBI was piloted in order to assess the clarity and comprehensiveness. Face validity, which is closely related to content validity, refers to "the degree to which a test looks right, and appears to measure the knowledge or abilities it claims to measure, based on the subjective judgments of the examinees who take it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other psychometrically unsophisticated others" (Mousavi, 2012, p. 267). Besides, very recently Mackey and Gass (2016) defined

face validity as "the familiarity of our instrument and how easy it is to convince others that there is content validity to it (p. 159)". In fact, these two types of validity are interconnected in that if the instrument has a high content validity, its face validity is high, as well. Face validity constitutes the perceptions of the participants in the survey. Therefore, it can also be called the surface credibility of the instrument (Bachman, 1990). According to Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), "If an instrument has face validity, then both teachers and students perceive it to measure what it purports to measure" (p. 304). Since, in the present study, the TEWBI involves only L2 writing statements and the participants have L2 writing experience, it is safe to claim that the survey has a high face validity. According to Mousavi (2012), the perception of the participants can be promoted through (1) "carefully constructed, well thought-out format and (2) items that are clear and uncomplicated" (p. 267). Both of these suggestions have been taken into account in this study. Another crucial validity type in second language research is construct validity since the variables that are investigated in L2 research are complex and not directly observed and measured phenomena such as aptitude, anxiety, belief, and so on (Mackey & Gass, 2016). It refers to "the degree to which the items are a test reflect the essential aspects of the theory on which the test is based" (Mousavi, 2012, p. 151). In other words, according to Mackey and Gass (2016), construct validity is "the degree to which the research adequately captures the construct of interest" (p. 159). Anastasi and Urbina (1997) defined this type of validity as "the extent to which the test may be said to measure a theoretical construct or trait" (p. 126). This validity is closely related to factorial validity which can be assessed by carrying out EFA such as principal components or a confirmatory analysis using structural equation modeling. In the present study, construct validity was ensured through EFA and CFA. First, a tentative model on writing beliefs was developed and then the latent variables were explored through EFA. Next, these constructs and the model were validated through CFA.

The following flowchart summarizes the process of the development and validation of the data collection instrument of the present study; the TEWBI.




Determining 10 tentative writing constructs
Merging 10 constructs into 3 broad constructs as nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing in English
Generating a comprehensive item pool (over 1000 items)
Advisor-Advisee conferences to reduce the number of the items
Final format of the TEWBI with a total of 94 items including 32 items for nature of writing, 33 items for teaching writing, and 29 items for assessing writing
Receiving expert opinions (3 non-natives and 2 natives)
Revising the items based on the experts' feedback
A final Advisor-Advisee conference on the format of the TEWBI (e.g. booklet format, six-point scale)


An initial piloting of the TEWBI with 5 writing tutors
Making necessary revisions
A final piloting with 70 EFL instructors from 20 universities
Checking psychometric property of the TEWBI (i.e. reliability)
Formal study with 653 EFL instructors from 51 different universities in three phases as Development, Validation, and Investigation Phases
First Phase: Exploratory Factor Analysis with 311 EFL instructors from 29 universities to develop the TEWBI
Checking the psychometric properties (i.e. reliability and validity)
Second Phase: Confirmatory Factor Analysis with 342 EFL instructors from 32 universities

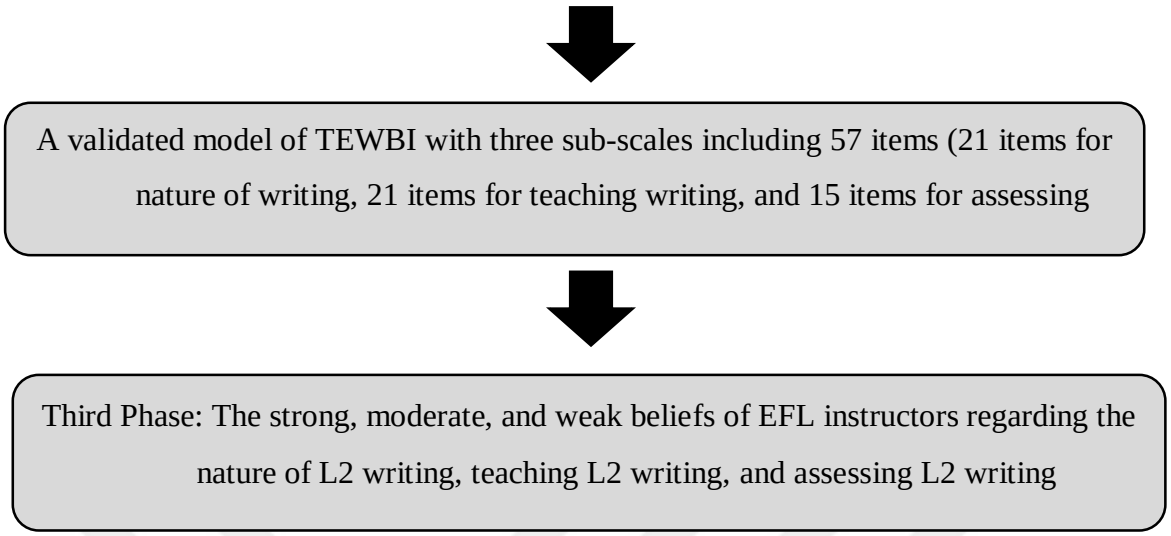


Figure 7. The processes of development, validation, and investigation of the TEWBI

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this section is to report on the quantitative analysis with descriptive statistics of the gathered data. It involves the results of three main phases: Development, Validation, and Investigation Phases. It begins with the results of the first phase, Development Phase, of the study. This phase includes the results of EFA which was used for determining the latent factors of the TEWBI. Next, it moves on to show the results of the second phase, the Validation Phase, of the study. This phase constitutes the results of CFA which aimed to validate the structure of the TEWBI and its sub-scales. Finally, the third phase, the Investigation Phase, involves the results of the descriptive statistics about the TEWBI including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The first research question will be answered through the results of both Development and Validation Phases with EFA and CFA. The second and third research questions will be addressed through the results of the Investigation Phase with descriptive statistics.

The Results of the Development Phase of the Study

The first phase of this study provides the findings from 311 instructors' responses to 94-item inventory in order to find out the latent factors of the TEWBI. The results of this section will address the first research question and its sub-questions below.

RQ1. What are the psychometric properties of the TEWBI?

- ***a. Is the TEWBI a psychometrically reliable instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?***
- ***b. Is the TEWBI a psychometrically valid instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?***

Reliable and valid data can only be gathered via reliable and valid data collection instruments. Still, Dörnyei (2007) lamented that "questionnaires that yield scores with sufficient (and well documented) reliability and validity are not that easy to come by in our field" (p. 102). Especially, in the field of second language writing, which can be called as Cinderella skill in language teaching, there exists little research on teacher beliefs about L2 writing. With this gap in mind, the researcher aimed at developing a sound instrument to measure EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing. Since no previous study has focused on the issue addressed in the first question, the first step of the present study was to develop a theoretical framework of L2 writing beliefs. For this purpose, the researcher conducted a close and comprehensive examination of the L2 writing literature and determined the draft writing constructs. Based on these constructs, a tentative theoretical framework was set. The details of this framework were detailed in Chapter 3. The number of the items was reduced to a manageable number (94 items) and the draft inventory, using a six-point Likert scale format, was reviewed by five L2 writing experts. The researcher piloted the inventory twice as initial and final piloting. Then, he conducted the survey with the participation of 653 EFL instructors from various state and private Turkish universities in two data collection phases.

Before the formal study, the draft inventory was piloted with 70 EFL instructors from 20 universities (4 privates and 16 states). The aim of this piloting process was to determine the psychometric characteristics (i.e. reliability) of the TEWBI. Table 6 below presents the reliability index of the draft inventory and its sub-scales regarding piloting phase.

Table 6

Reliability Index of the TEWBI and its Sub-scales for the Piloting Phase

		(α)
Reliability Index		
	The Nature of Writing Sub-Scale	.72
	Teaching Writing Sub-Scale	.86
	Assessing Writing Sub-Scale	.76
	The TEWBI	.89

The piloting results showed that the TEWBI had a high internal consistency with Cronbach alpha value .89. Likewise, the three sub-scales of the inventory also had good Cronbach alpha values as .72 for the nature of writing sub-scale, .86 for teaching writing sub-scale, and .76 for assessing writing sub-scale. On the basis of these high internal consistency results, it is safe to claim that both the TEWBI and its sub-scales have a good reliability index (Cohen et al., 2007). In addition, the high-reliability index is the manifestation of the good internal consistency of the items (Cohen et al. 2007) in this inventory. This results can also be an indication of a sound theoretical framework developed on writing beliefs.

Factor analysis is the most widely employed data reduction technique which omits the redundancy from a large dataset and extracts a few correlated factors constituting certain related items (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Most beliefs studies (e.g., Horwitz, 1999; Kim, 2015; Liao, 2002; Wu, 2003; Yang, 1992) adopted factor analysis in order to identify the dimensions of this abstract phenomenon. Next, the data obtained from a total of 653 EFL instructors for the formal study as a result of two data collection stages were entered into the excel and then transferred to SPSS software for further analysis including construct validity and reliability. Before employing EFA and CFA, several data screening procedures (e.g. missing data and outliers) were executed. These procedures are required for finding out whether certain assumptions are met or not for factor analysis of the data. First of all, in order to estimate and handle the missing data, the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm technique was executed to in SPSS, which is one of the most reliable, sensitive, and appropriate missing data strategy among others. In doing so, missing data analysis was done via SPSS and missing data were determined. Since the rate of the missing data to whole data

was below 5%, this technique was used safely. Having handled the missing data, the researcher analyzed the outliers of the data. These possible extreme cases were determined through Mahalonobis Distance method ($p<.001$) via SPSS. The results of this analysis revealed that there were 11 and 21 extreme cases for the collected data for the first phase and for the data collected for the second and third phases, respectively. These cases were omitted from the survey data in order not to distort the results. As a result, 300 cases were ready for the EFA. Next, the same procedures were carried out for the data collected for the second and third phases, leaving 321 cases for CFA. The sample sizes were large enough for both EFA and CFA as 300 cases are the minimum number for a sound factor analysis (DeVellis, 2016; Nunnally, 1978; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987).

There are two main stages of factor analysis: factor extraction and factor rotation (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). In the present study, with regard to factor extraction stage, Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was adopted for analyzing and identifying the factors/constructs of the TEWBI. Since the TEWBI is comprised of three sub-scales, each scale was analyzed separately. As a rule of thumb, the data should be examined through Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Barlett, 1950) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974) in order to be verified as suitable and adequate for EFA. According to Dimitrov (2005), it is essential that Bartlett's test of Sphericity should have a significance of $p<.05$ and the KMO value should exceed .60. Table 7 shows the results of KMO and Barlett's test of Sphericity of three sub-scales below.

Table 7

The Results of KMO and Barlett's Test of Sphericity

		The Nature of Writing Sub-scale	Teaching Writing Sub-scale	Assessing Writing Sub-scale
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.85	.92	.87
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1442.023	2082.147	1038.599
	df	210	210	105
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000

Regarding three sub-scales of the TEWBI, the results showed that Bartlett's (1954) tests of sphericity were significant for all three sub-scales; (X^2 (210) = 1442.023, p<.01), (X^2 (210) = 2082.147, p<.01), and (X^2 (105) = 1038.599, p<.01) indicating that the assumption of sphericity was not violated (Field, 2013). In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures of sampling adequacy were .85, .92, and .87 which indicated that the sample size of three sub-scales was suitable and adequate for EFA (Field, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

With respect to factor rotation, there exist two main rotation techniques as orthogonal (e.g. Varimax) and oblique (e.g. direct-oblimin) rotation. The former techniques assume that there is no correlation among the factors while the latter ones assume that there is a correlation among the factors. Besides, oblique rotation techniques are the most common rotation method in social sciences as factors are mostly correlated with each other (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). Thus, for factor rotation stage, direct-oblimin technique was performed in order to interpret the factors and to explore the relations between the observed variables and underlying factors (Byrne, 1998). Direct-oblimin is used in this study because the researcher assumed that there was a correlation among sub-scales. In order to determine the number of the factors of each sub-scale, three techniques were adopted including scree plot (Cattell, 1966), Kaiser criterion (Kaiser, 1960), and proportion of variance. The results revealed 3 initial factors for the nature of writing sub-scale, 3 initial factors for teaching writing sub-scale, and 2 initial factors for assessing writing sub-scale. Yet, Green, Salkind, and Akey (2000), and Stevens (1996) put forward that eigenvalue-greater-than-one criterion frequently reveals inaccurate results in determining the number of factors. Therefore, in light of the factor loadings and the graphic image of scree plots (Appendices 6, 7, and 8), a series of factor analyses were carried out through omitting low loaded-items in order to determine the most optimal factor structure for the sub-scales. Finally, the results turned out a one-factor solution for each sub-scale. Regarding factor loadings, they ranged from .43 to .62 for the nature of writing sub-scale, .38 to .67 for teaching writing sub-scale, and .37 to 59 for assessing writing sub-scale (Appendices 9, 10, and 11).

With regard to the reliability of the TEWBI and its sub-scales, internal consistency values were calculated via SPSS. The results of the Cronbach Alpha values can be seen in the following table below.

Table 8

Reliability Index of the TEWBI and Its Sub-scales for Formal Study

		(α)
Reliability Index		
	The TEWBI	.94
	The Nature of Writing Sub-Scale	.85
	Teaching Writing Sub-Scale	.90
	Assessing Writing Sub-Scale	.84

The results revealed that the TEWBI had a perfect reliability value with .94. This is the indication of the perfect internal consistency among the items and sub-scales. In addition, the sub-scales also had good reliability including .85 for the nature of writing, .90 for teaching writing, and .84 for assessing writing. When the results of the pilot study and formal study were compared, it was also found out that various factor analysis procedures increased the internal consistency among items.

All in all, the results of the various factor analysis procedures resulted in a one-factor solution for each sub-scale. Based on the results of the analyses, 37 items were omitted from the inventory because of low factor loadings and reliability issues. As a result, the TEWBI turned out a 57-item inventory with 21 items for the nature of writing, 21 items for teaching writing, and 15 items for assessing writing. Furthermore, the reliability indexes of the inventory and sub-scales were extremely high. These findings indicate that the TEWBI is a sound data collection instrument with high-reliability values.

The Results of the Validation Phase of the Study

The second phase of the present study reveals the findings from 321 instructors' responses to 57-item inventory in order to validate the TEWBI. The results of this phase will address the first research question.

CFA techniques were used for the purpose of confirming the hypothesized-three sub-scale structure of the TEWBI in the present study. In this process, the researcher aimed at verifying

and validating the underlying constructs of the TEWBI via LISREL. Since CFA has a hypothesis-driven nature (Brown, 2006), the researcher first specified the underlying factors/constructs through employing EFA on the basis of a tentative writing beliefs model. There are different applications of CFA. Among others, the present study adopted second-order factor analysis since it was presumed that there was an inter-correlation among the sub-scales. The main aim of this kind of factor analysis is to elicit the correlations among the first-order factors (Brown, 2006). According to the theorized framework, the present study involved one main construct (i.e. writing beliefs) and three sub-constructs (i.e. the nature of writing, teaching writing, and assessing writing). These three sub-constructs are the first-order factors which are the indicators of the second-order factor (i.e. writing beliefs). First, first-order factor analysis was carried out in this study. This analysis displayed fit indexes and the correlations among the three sub-constructs. Upon exploring the inter-correlations among the sub-constructs, the researcher conducted second-order factor analysis in order to examine the interrelatedness among the main construct and its sub-constructs. This analysis resulted in a good fit.

The path diagrams of the model represented 57 continuous observed variables (factor indicators) displayed in small rectangles and the latent variables shown in ellipses (Appendix 12). First, first-order factor analysis was conducted in order to explore the correlations among the sub-constructs of the TEWBI. The results showed that there were high correlations among these sub-constructs in that it was .82 between the nature of writing and teaching writing, .77 between the nature of writing and assessing writing, and .87 between teaching writing and assessing writing (Appendix 12). Upon finding out these results, the researcher executed second-order factor analysis in order to examine the correlations among the TEWBI and the three sub-scales. The results revealed that there were high correlations among the TEWBI and its sub-constructs. The correlation between the TEWBI and the nature of writing sub-scale was .85, the TEWBI and teaching writing sub-scale was .96, and the TEWBI and assessing writing sub-scale was .91 (Appendix 13).

In this phase, the model-fit indices were calculated in order to explore whether the model has a good fit or not. In doing so, Hu and Bentler's (1999) fit indices criteria were heeded (Appendix 14). Among the most widely respected and reported fit indices, absolute and incremental fit indices were used to assess the model fit in the present study. The former constitutes the Chi-Squared test (X^2), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA),

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) and the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI). The latter involves Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). As an absolute fit index, the Chi-Square value (X^2) has a number of severe limitations due to the sample size of the data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Because of the restrictiveness of the Chi-Square test, relative/normed Chi-Square (X^2/df) can be used as an alternative (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977), which minimizes the negative effect of sample size on the model. There exist various acceptable ratios for this index. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), 2.0 is acceptable, whereas 3.0 is regarded as an acceptable ratio for Kline (2005). It can range as high as 5.0, though (Wheaton et al, 1977). In the present study, Kline's (2005) ratio was accepted as a threshold for the model fit. As "one of the most informative fit indices" (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 859), RMSEA index should be lower than .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). SRMR index can range from zero to 1.0. The well-fitting models should obtain indices less than .05 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000), yet indices as high as .08 can be acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). GFI and the AGFI are sensitive to the sample size of the data, and thus they have an upward bias with large samples (Bollen, 1990). In fact, because of the detrimental effect of sample size on these two fit indices they should be relied upon together with other indices (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Regarding incremental fit indices, NFI should be ≥ .90 while NNFI should have ≥ .95 for good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Likewise, for CFI, ≥ .95 is recognized as the cut-off criterion for good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The results of these fit indices were displayed in Table 9 below.

Table 9

The Results of the Model Fit Indices in the Present Study

Fit Indices	Values
Relative X^2 (Chi-Square/df)	2.15
RMSEA (90%)	.044 (.042 – .046)
SRMR	.049
GFI	.82
AGFI	.81
NFI	.93
NNFI	.96
CFI	.96

The results of the CFA for the TEWBI and its sub-constructs indicated that as absolute fit indices, Relative X^2 value was 2.15, which was lower than the cut-off criterion (Kline, 2005), RMSEA had .044 (90% CI= .042 – .046), which was lower than the cut-off value of ≤ .06, and SRMR had .049, which was lower than the cut-off values of ≤ .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). These values were good fit to data. Next, GFI and AGFI values were .82 and .81, respectively. Even though these values were not good fit to data (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the values were still acceptable when the other indices were thought together. Regarding incremental fit indices, NFI index of .93 was greater than the threshold of ≥ .90 and NNFI and CFI values of .96 were greater than the threshold ≥.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). On the basis of these findings, it was revealed that the model fits the data well.

Because the data of the Validation and Investigation Phases were gathered from different EFL instructors those of the Development Phase, it was crucial to conduct a reliability analysis. The data collected from 342 EFL instructors were analyzed in order to find out the internal consistency via SPSS. The Cronbach Alpha values of the 57-item TEWBI and its sub-scales were displayed in Table 10 below.

Table 10

Reliability Index of the TEWBI and its Sub-scales for Validation Phase

		(α)
Reliability Index		
	The TEWBI	.93
	The Nature of Writing Sub-Scale	.82
	Teaching Writing Sub-Scale	.90
	Assessing Writing Sub-Scale	.83

Again, the results showed that the TEWBI had a perfect reliability value with .93. (DeVellis, 2016). This is the indication of the perfect internal consistency among 57 items and sub-scales. Besides, the sub-scales had good reliability values in that the nature of writing sub-scale had .85, teaching writing sub-scale had .90, and it was .84 for assessing writing sub-scale. All in all, in light of the results of EFA and CFA, the TEWBI is a reliable and valid instrument that can be used to measure EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing.

The Results of the Investigation Phase of the Study

This third phase of the study provides the findings from 321 instructors' responses to 57-item inventory in order to explore what EFL instructors believe about L2 writing together with their strong, moderate, and weak beliefs about L2 writing. The dataset used in this phase was the same dataset used in the second phase of the study. The second research question was answered in this section.

RQ2. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about L2 writing?

- ***a. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about the nature of L2 writing?***
- ***b. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 writing?***
- ***c. What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about assessing L2 writing?***

In order to answer the research question, the researcher executed descriptive statistics including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation to check general tendencies and spread of the responses in the data. The six-point scale was clustered into three main

categories as weak belief, moderate belief, and strong belief so as to be the items interpreted easily. The weak belief category involves strongly disagree and disagree responses. The moderate belief category includes slightly disagree and partly agree options. The strong belief category constitutes agree and strongly agree options. The responses were given with their percentages. Table 11 below presents the results of the descriptive analysis for the nature of writing sub-scale. The responses were ranked according to the mean of response.

Table 11

The Results of Descriptive Analysis of the Nature of L2 Writing Sub-scale

		Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**	**Mean**	**SD**
1	Writing is a way to communicate with the reader.	0	0	0	5	38	57	**5.51**	.59
18	Motivation is essential for effective writing.	0	0	0	8	48	44	**5.35**	.64
13	Possessing appropriate thinking and reasoning skills is essential for effective writing in English.	0	1	3	14	42	41	**5.20**	.82
8	The way we write varies from one social context to another.	0	1	2	16	41	40	**5.17**	.83
12	Writing is a tool for self-expression.	0	2	3	13	41	41	**5.17**	.89
7	Writing is an activity to convey information.	0	1	2	18	50	30	**5.04**	.82
14	Limited English proficiency may hamper writing performance in English.	0	0	3	20	47	30	**5.02**	.80
2	Writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings.	0	1	2	19	54	24	**4.98**	.76
15	Writing is a process that can be achieved after writing and revising multiple times.	0	1	4	19	49	27	**4.97**	.83
19	Inadequate knowledge of writing strategies may cause low writing performance in English.	0	1	7	14	48	30	**4.97**	.92
11	Writing is a skill that can be taught through instruction and practice.	0	1	3	20	49	27	**4.96**	.85
4	Writing is a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences structured according to a system of rules.	0	2	5	21	47	25	**4.87**	.90

20	Turkish writing strategies (e.g. outlining, drafting, revising) can be transferred to English writing.	0	4	8	29	39	20	**4.61**	1.05
16	Cultural factors have considerable impacts on students' writing performance in English.	0	5	6	31	41	17	**4.60**	1.00
*21	Writing is an internally motivated activity.	0	2	8	32	42	16	**4.57**	.97
6	Writing is a mechanism through which we acquire advanced language competencies.	2	4	8	26	44	16	**4.52**	1.12
17	Students' writing performance in English is very much influenced by their writing ability.	1	5	9	28	40	17	**4.51**	1.08
3	Writing is a recursive process in which writers go back and forth in their text, continually plan, write, and revise without a certain order.	2	17	8	18	32	23	**4.28**	1.45
5	Writing is a socially situated activity.	1	6	11	36	38	8	**4.27**	1.01
10	It is possible to transfer English writing knowledge and skills to Turkish writing.	1	6	12	35	38	8	**4.24**	1.06
9	Discourse level competencies are the most important parts of writing in English.	1	5	17	42	29	6	**4.08**	1.02

Note: The values of strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, partly agree, agree, and strongly agree are given in percentage (%).

* The item was reverse-scored.

Table 11 above displays the distribution of the responses given to the nature of writing sub-scale. The mean scores of the items ranged from 5.51 to 4.08. The strongest belief among the participants was about the audience-centered writing. The instructors believed that reader should be taken into account while writing (M=5.51, SD=.59). In addition, 92% of the instructors believed that affective dimension (e.g. motivation) of writing is of crucial for effective writing (M=5.35, SD=.64). Besides affective factors, the importance of cognitive factors was also strongly highlighted (M=5.20, SD=.82). 83% of the participants had a strong belief on the cognitive skills such as appropriate thinking and reasoning skills in writing instruction. Next, 81% believed that the social nature of writing exerts a huge influence on the way instructors teach (M=5.17, SD=.83). This indicates the participants were mostly guided by text-based pedagogies (Hyland, 2003). In the same vein, 40% of the instructors had a moderate level of belief that writing is an internally motivated activity (M=4.57, SD=.97). Moreover, most of the participants had an expressivist orientation towards teaching writing (M=5.17, SD=.89). 82% of the instructors held the belief that writing is a medium that can be used for self-expression. Another important belief the participants strongly held

was that writing is a medium for transmitting the knowledge (M=5.04, SD=.82). This belief was held by 80% of the participants. Another important point the participants underlined was that it is required enough language proficiency to write well (M=5.02, SD=.80). According to 77% of the instructors, the nature of writing in L2 necessitates having adequate English language proficiency. Next, 78% recognize writing as a medium for self-discovery and creativity. This indicates that the participants strongly believed writing enhances mental abilities (M=4.98, SD=.76). Most of the participants believed that writing is a recursive process rather than linear (M=4.97, SD=.83). The importance of adequate writing strategies in effective writing was strongly believed by 78%. They held the belief that in order to perform well in L2 writing, instructors should train students on effective writing strategies (M=4.97, SD=.92). 76% of the instructors strongly believed that writing can be learned through instruction and enough practice. Writing was not seen as a natural ability or an innate gift (M=4.96, SD=.85). Moreover, 72% approached writing simply as putting one's ideas into paper through words, clauses, and sentences. This belief also has a high mean score (M=4.87, SD=.90). Apart from the strong beliefs held by the EFL instructors, there existed some other beliefs held in moderate strength. For instance, participants had a moderate level of belief on the transfer issue. While 59% had a strong belief that Turkish writing strategies can be employed in English writing (M=4.61, SD=1.05), 46% of the participants strongly believed English writing knowledge and skills can be used in Turkish writing (M=4.24, SD=1.06). Besides, cultural factors were moderately believed to have an influence on writing in English (M=4.60, SD=1.00). About half of the participants had a strong belief on the cultural dimension of writing. 60% believed that writing is a gateway for acquiring advanced language competencies (M=4.52, SD=1.12). About half of the instructors had a belief that writing ability has an influence on writing in English. Interestingly, only half of the participants (55%) had a strong belief about the recursive nature of writing (M=4.28, SD=1.45). Regarding this item, 19% had a weak belief, which means almost one-fifth of the instructors approached writing as a linear process. 59% moderately believed the importance of the discourse level competencies in English writing (M=4.08, SD=1.02).

Table 12

The Results of Descriptive Analysis of the Teaching L2 Writing Sub-scale

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
7	Instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to master various genres of writing (e.g. essay, CV, recipe, letter of complaint, and research article, etc.).	0	0	2	7	39	52	**5.39**	.74
6	Instructors should tailor writing tasks to the real-world writing needs of their students.	0	0	1	10	52	37	**5.23**	.68
4	Creative writing such as free writing and journal writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression.	0	0	0	15	50	35	**5.20**	.67
14	English writing skills cannot be acquired by writing alone but also need to be supported with extensive reading.	0	2	3	14	36	45	**5.17**	.92
1	Explicit instruction on how to write in English should be a part of English writing courses.	0	0	1	14	57	28	**5.12**	.68
9	Instructors should train students about English writing conventions (e.g. thesis statement, topic sentence, deductive organization, etc.) to generate effective text.	0	0	5	14	43	38	**5.12**	.87
12	Instructors should create a habit of rewriting, revising and editing in students through writing multiple drafts.	0	1	4	14	46	35	**5.09**	.87
21	Instructors should present English writing strategies (e.g. outlining, webbing, planning, free writing, rereading, revising, editing, etc.) through explicit modeling.	1	0	4	15	47	33	**5.07**	.89
20	Instructors should make use of authentic text models in English writing instruction.	0	0	5	17	46	32	**5.03**	.88
5	Besides printed materials, other kinds of teaching materials (audio, video, digital) should be used in English writing instruction.	0	1	5	17	45	32	**5.02**	.89
10	Instructors should provide opportunities for students to do collaborative writing.	0	1	2	18	49	30	**5.02**	.85
16	Instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to develop their individual voice in English writing classes.	0	2	4	14	52	28	**5.02**	.84
13	Instructors should use and promote technologies in their English writing classrooms.	0	1	4	20	42	33	**5.01**	.87

2	Students should be trained how to do proper textual borrowings from multiple sources.	0	1	5	18	43	33	**5.00**	.90
15	Instructors should employ guided writing to make students gain accuracy in English writing.	0	0	2	25	53	20	**4.91**	.72
19	Instructors should adopt a mixture of more than one approach in teaching English writing.	0	3	3	18	50	26	**4.91**	.94
11	Writing instruction should involve extensive practice under expert guidance.	0	1	7	24	46	22	**4.80**	.91
17	Genre knowledge development (writing for different audiences and purposes) should be one of the significant dimensions of English writing instruction.	0	2	8	25	46	19	**4.73**	.92
8	Instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product.	2	8	14	34	26	16	**4.20**	1,21
*3	Effective English writing instruction means emphasizing upon surface-level conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) to improve the quality of student writing.	5	10	17	20	36	12	**4.05**	1.37
18	The focus of attention should be on the social and cultural factors that shape English writing.	2	12	32	34	17	3	**3.63**	1.05

Note: The values of strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, partly agree, agree, and strongly agree are given in percentage (%).

* The item was reverse-scored.

The distribution of participants' responses on teaching writing presented in Table 12 above. Regarding writing approaches, almost all of the participants had a strong agreement on using genre-oriented teaching in English writing classrooms (M=5.39, SD=.74). However, one-third of the participants (33%) moderately agreed on the importance of genre knowledge development in English writing instruction (M=4.73, SD=.92). More interestingly, two-thirds expressed moderate agreement on the role of social and cultural factors in shaping English writing (M=3.63, SD=1.05). 81% were in favor of process writing approach. Most of the participants strongly agreed that students should gain rewriting, revising, editing habits in writing instruction (M=5.09, SD=.87). Similarly, 80% of the instructors showed a strong tendency toward developing an individual voice in writing classes (M=5.02, SD=.84). Additionally, 85% of the participants expressed strong agreement on creative writing activities in writing instruction (M=5.20, SD=.67). On the other hand, 48% showed moderate and 10% of the participants had weak agreement on treating writing as a process. These

findings indicate that the process writing approach was not comprehended completely among the participants. As for product-centered writing instruction, only 48% expressed agreement on emphasizing upon surface-level conventions to improve students' writing. 15% disagreed and 37% moderately believed the item (M=4.05, SD=1.37). In addition, 73% were in favor of guided writing to make students gain accuracy in English writing (M=4.91, SD=.72). Likewise, 68% had a strong agreement that extensive practice is required under expert guidance for effective writing (M=4.80, SD=.91). Yet, 76% of the instructors had a strong tendency toward adopting a mixture of more than one approach in writing classes (M=4.91, SD=.94). Moreover, the majority of the participants (81%) thought that writing should be taught through integration with reading skill (M=5.17, SD=.92). Similarly, 78% favoured using authentic texts models in writing instruction (M=5.03, SD=.88). A very high percentage of EFL instructors (89%) thought that writing tasks should meet students' real-world writing needs (M=5.23, SD=.68). Besides, the belief, students should be provided with enough opportunities for collaborative writing, was strongly favoured by 79%. Next, a large majority of the participants (85%) agreed that explicit instruction should be involved in writing classes (M=5.12, SD=.68). In the same vein, 81% of the instructors strongly expressed that English writing conventions such as thesis statement, topic sentence, deductive organization, and so forth should be taught in writing classrooms (M=5.12, SD=.87). In addition to English writing conventions, most participants (80%) underlined teaching English writing strategies through explicit modeling (M=5.07, SD=.89). With respect to integration of technology in writing instruction, 75% expressed strong agreement on promoting technologies in writing instruction (M=5.01, SD=.87). In order to prevent plagiarism in English writing, 76% of the instruction strongly favoured teaching proper textual borrowing from multiple sources (M=5.00, SD=.90).

Table 13

The Results of Descriptive Analysis of the Assessing L2 Writing Sub-scale

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Partly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
10	Feedback is crucial in assisting students to move through the stages of the writing process.	0	0	1	12	47	40	**5.26**	.69
2	Instructors should use rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing to assess students' writing.	0	0	0	13	50	37	**5.22**	.67
8	Writing assessment should include both in-class (timed) and out-of-class (untimed) writing.	0	0	1	10	58	31	**5.18**	.64
12	Instructors should apply explicit and systematic scoring criteria to ensure fair assessment.	0	0	1	16	54	29	**5.09**	.70
6	Corrective feedback has the ability to help learners develop effective revision and self-editing skills.	0	0	2	18	54	26	**5.03**	.74
3	Students' writing ability should be assessed through the collection of multiple samples of writing.	0	1	6	21	48	24	**4.89**	.85
1	Instructors should incorporate ongoing assessment practices in English writing instruction.	0	1	4	21	53	21	**4.88**	.83
13	New technologies should be integrated into English writing instruction in providing feedback.	0	2	8	25	40	25	**4.77**	1.00
5	Instructors should allow students to evaluate their own writing (self-assessment).	1	3	7	25	37	27	**4.76**	1.06
4	Peer feedback should become an important component of English writing classes.	1	3	6	33	34	23	**4.63**	1.06
14	Students receive more focused and comprehensible feedback during teacher-student conferences than they do through written feedback.	0	3	9	30	42	16	**4.57**	.98
11	Portfolio assessment is the best way of assessing students' writing in English.	1	4	9	36	33	17	**4.47**	1.05
*7	Teacher written feedback may be the least effective form of feedback for students.	3	11	16	25	33	12	**4.10**	1.2

*15	Only one aspect of writing (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, organization, etc.) should be assessed at a time since the constructs of writing are complex and multifaceted.	5	20	21	24	26	8	**3.28**	1.3
*9	Writing texts should be scored holistically since writing is a single entity.	9	27	29	18	15	2	**3.11**	1.28

Note: The values of strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, partly agree, agree, and strongly agree are given in percentage (%).

* The item was reverse-scored.

The distribution of participants' responses on assessing writing sub-scale displayed in Table 13 above. With regard to feedback, a very high percentage of the EFL instructors (87%) strongly agreed that feedback is vital for students' writing development (M=5.26, SD=.69). Similarly, a large majority of the participants (80%) strongly believed the influence of corrective feedback in developing students' writing (M=5.03, SD=.74). Regarding the sources of feedback, peer feedback had the highest mean score (M=4.63, SD=1.06). 57% of the instructors moderately favoured peer feedback as an important component in English writing instruction. Student-teacher conferences follow this item with the mean score of 4.57. Only 45% showed a strong agreement on the effectiveness of teacher written feedback for students' writing development (M=4.10, SD=1.29). With respect to types of assessment, a large majority of the EFL instructors expressed strong agreement on in-class (timed) and out-of-class (untimed) writing practices (M=5.18, SD=.64). In addition, 72% strongly agreed that the collection of multiple samples of writing should be used in assessing students' writing (M=4.89, SD=.85). Relatedly, 74% of the participants were in favor of incorporating ongoing assessment practices in writing instruction (M=4.88, SD=.83). However, a moderate percentage of the participants (64%) thought that students should have the opportunities for self-assessment practices (M=4.76, SD=1.06). Interestingly, only half of the participants strongly supported the portfolio assessment. The rest of the participants had moderately agreed (45%) or disagreed (5%) on this item (M=4.47, SD=1.05). Almost half of the participants (45%) showed moderate agreement on assessing only one aspect of writing at a time. Additionally, 34% disagreed with using this type of assessment (M=3.28, SD=1.34). Yet, likewise, about half of the participants (47%) had a moderate agreement of holistic scoring and 36% showed disagreement (M=3.11, SD=1.28). As for scoring practice, a large majority of the participants (87%) were in favor of using rubrics in assessing students' writing (M=5.22, SD=.67). In the same vein, a very high percentage of the instructors (83%)

had a strong tendency toward employing explicit and systematic scoring criteria in writing assessment (M=5.09, SD=.70). With respect to technology integration in writing assessment, a moderate percentage of the participants (65%) favoured the integration of new technologies into English writing classrooms (M=4.77, SD=1.00).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings reported in the previous chapters in relation to the following research questions; (1) What are the psychometric properties of the TEWBI? (a) Is the TEWBI a psychometrically reliable instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context? b) Is the TEWBI a psychometrically valid instrument to measure English writing teachers' beliefs in EFL context?) and (2) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about L2 writing? (a) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about the nature of L2 writing? b) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 writing? and c) What are EFL writing teachers' beliefs about assessing L2 writing?). These research questions are answered in two main phases as Development/Validation and Investigation. The findings of these phases are discussed in this chapter.

The current study was an attempt to develop and validate an L2 writing beliefs inventory and to investigate EFL instructors' writing beliefs by using the newly developed inventory. This was done in various steps in three main phases. In the first phase (Development), through a comprehensive review of the literature, a theoretical framework was developed for L2 writing beliefs. Initially, 10 writing constructs were determined. Then, these constructs were merged into three broad constructs. Based on the theoretical framework and three writing constructs, a large item pool was created. Through various advisor-advisee conferences, the number of the items was decreased to a manageable number. The draft inventory including 94 items was reviewed by a panel of five L2 writing experts in order to increase the face and content validity. Next, the draft inventory was pre-piloted with five writing tutors and then re-piloted with the participation of 70 EFL instructors from various

state and private universities. With respect to formal study, two different datasets including a total of 653 EFL instructors were created in the present study. The 311 EFL instructors were recruited for the first phase (Development) of the study. This phase aimed to identify the latent structure of the TEWBI through EFA. The analysis yielded a total of 57 items with 21 items in the nature of writing, 21 items in teaching writing, and 15 items in assessing writing. For the second and third phases (Validation and Investigation) of the study, the different dataset including 321 instructors was used. In the second phase, the researcher employed CFA in order to validate the structure of the inventory and its sub-scales. The results revealed a good fit to data. The results of the EFA and CFA showed that the TEWBI is a psychometrically a sound scale. Next, in the third phase (Investigation), the data were used in order to explore EFL instructors' strong, moderate, and weak writing beliefs. To address the research questions proposed for the purposes of the present study in Chapter 1, various data analysis techniques were adopted. Each analysis and its results are presented and discussed separately in this chapter.

Discussion of the Findings of the Development and Validation Phases

As one of the psychological aspects of teaching and learning, beliefs exert a huge impact on the quality of language education (Borg, 2015). In fact, beliefs influence the way and degree of learners' learning and the way teachers learn and teach. In this context, beliefs held by both learners and teachers affect the effectiveness of teachers and the performance of learners in language education in general and in writing instruction in particular. Teachers' beliefs are crucial that they "lie at the heart of teaching and learning" (Burns, 1992, p. 64). Regarding the writing skill, there exist a number of studies that focused on learners' and teachers' beliefs about writing from various perspectives (e.g. Burns, 1992; Crusan et al., 2016; Diab, 2005; Kim, 2015; Palmquist & Young, 1992; White & Bruning, 2005; Wu, 2003, Yang & Gao, 2013; Yiğitoğlu, 2011). Yet, the need for developing and validating a sound writing beliefs inventory clearly exists in the field of L2 and FL writing instruction. Several researchers focused on writing beliefs and developed belief scales/inventories (e.g. Crusan et al., 2016; Sanders-Reio, 2010; White & Bruning, 2005; Wu, 2003). The devised belief statements of these studies and the items developed in the TEWBI appeared to have considerable similarities, which increased the validity of the TEWBI.

Adopting a descriptive study design with mixed methodology, Wu (2003) developed two belief inventories in order to explore 198 Taiwanese college business-major students' L1 (Chinese) and FL (English) writing beliefs. The researcher (2003) attempted to find out the most and the least frequently held writing beliefs among Taiwanese students. In addition, the researcher (2003) also investigated the relationship between students' writing beliefs and their writing strategy use. To do so, Wu (2003) developed the Inventory for Beliefs about Chinese Writing (IBCW) to measure students' beliefs about Chinese writing and the Inventory for Beliefs about English Writing (IBEW) to determine students' beliefs about English writing. The researcher (2003) took several steps in order to develop these inventories. First, the researcher (2003) referred to a number of widely used inventories of learning beliefs (e.g., Horwitz, 1987, 1999; Wen & Johnson, 1997; Yang, 1992) in order to define her objectives. Next, the researcher (2003) conducted a focus group interview with nine students. Based on the results of the interviews, the researcher (2003) generated the categories and wrote the draft items of the two inventories. Then, she pilot-tested the two inventories in order to check the testing time, testing procedures, and other required changes. IBCW constituted 30 items under 5 major areas including the meaning of Chinese writing, features of a good Chinese composition, difficulties of Chinese writing, satisfaction with Chinese writing course, and effectiveness of different writing strategies. In the IBEW, there were 6 major categories with 34 items. The categories were the meaning of English writing, features of a good English composition, difficulties of English writing, satisfaction with English writing course, and effectiveness of different writing strategies, and differences between Chinese and English writing. Besides, 5 open-ended questions were added to the end of each inventory, which aimed at eliciting more detailed information regarding writing problems students encounter in their Chinese and English writing. In addition to two inventories, an individual background questionnaire was used to explore some background information including grade, gender, learning experience abroad, writing training outside of the school, level of Chinese proficiency and English proficiency, and learning goals for taking the English writing course. Additionally, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS) was employed in order to explore and control the social desirability response bias of the participants. The main aim of the MCSDS was to help with the validation of the two beliefs inventories. Because the examination of the psychometric properties of the composite beliefs system survey can violate the assumptions and are thus problematic, the researcher (2003) did not calculate the reliability and validity of the two

inventories. More specifically, there were some items in the IBCW and the IBEW which did not measure the same latent dimension. Moreover, there were some items in the IBCW and the IBEW which were not related to a single factor. Yet, in order to increase the content validity of the inventories, the researcher (2003) consulted with two experts (Elaine Horwitz & Diane Schallert). Besides, the two inventories were piloted to check their clarity and comprehensiveness. Furthermore, as an alternative option to validate the items in the inventories, the researcher (2003) included the MCSDS. She employed these means to contribute to validity. In terms of quantitative phase of the study, the researcher (2003) used SPSS for descriptive statistics and factor analysis. The results of factor analytic procedures revealed that the IBCW had 4 factors with 29 items and the IBEW had 6 factors with 35 items. Regarding the qualitative phase of the study, the researcher (2003) analyzed the open-ended questions qualitatively. Furthermore, the researcher (2003) observed students' writing classrooms in order to gain an in-depth understanding of their writing processes in Chinese and English. In addition, two types of individual interviews were conducted in the qualitative phase of the study. Apart from interviews and observations, the researcher (2003) collected documents to gain more accurate insights into students' writing experiences. In the qualitative component of the study, in order to ensure the trustworthiness, she used methodological triangulation, member check, outside auditor, and a reflective journal. To sum up, the researcher made use of descriptive analysis, factor analysis, comparative analysis, and qualitative analysis in order to answer the research questions. More specifically, the researcher (2003) found out the most and least frequently held beliefs through descriptive and factor analysis. Next, cross-tabulation was used in order to explore the differences in Chinese and English beliefs about writing.

The researcher (2003) explored the most frequently held beliefs about Chinese writing, the least frequently held beliefs about Chinese writing, the most frequently held beliefs about English writing, and the least frequently held beliefs about English writing. Regarding the meaning of writing in Chinese, the overwhelming majority believed that writing is a mean to express one's ideas or feelings. Most of the participants expressed that they can reflect their inner world through writing in Chinese. More than half of the participants believed that writing in Chinese is a way to communicate with others. These results indicated that writing in Chinese is a medium for expressing themselves, communicating with others, and reflecting their inner world. With respect to beliefs about the features of a good Chinese writing, most participants believed that content should be creative and interesting. Majority

of them believed that the sentences flow well in a good Chinese composition. Many of them expressed that a good Chinese composition should have main points supported by examples. With regard to the beliefs about negative feelings for Chinese writing, most participants believed that among the four language skills, writing in Chinese is the most difficult. Majority of the participants had the belief that logical thinking was the most important factor in being a good Chinese writer. More than half of the students believed that high language proficiency in Chinese was the most important one. Majority of the students believed that logical thinking is the most important factor in being a good Chinese language writer. More than half of the participants believed that English aids Chinese writing. Regarding the beliefs about the effectiveness of different Chinese writing strategies, the majority of the participants considered four writing strategies (outlining, rereading, revising, and editing) quite useful to improving the quality of their compositions. On the other hand, there were several least frequently held beliefs about Chinese writing. For example, the students did not strongly believe that a good Chinese composition employs good word choice and beautiful sentences. Next, the participants did not favor a good Chinese composition requires many idioms and proverbs. The participants did not feel anxious when writing in Chinese. The students disagreed that English interferes with their Chinese writing. Finally, they did not have the belief that Chinese writing is difficult.

As for the beliefs about English writing, there existed the most and least frequently beliefs held by the students. With respect to the beliefs about features of a good English writing, the majority of the participants believed that a good English composition should be creative and interesting. An overwhelming majority expressed that the sentences should flow well in a good English composition. More than half of the participants believed that main points supported by examples were essential in a good English composition. Regarding the beliefs about the difference between English writing and Chinese writing, most of the participants expressed that English writing was different from Chinese writing in organization. Again, most of the participants expressed that English writing was different from Chinese writing in format. Next, the majority of them believed that English writing was different from Chinese writing in sentence structure. More than half of the students believed that they were different in rhetoric. With regard to the beliefs about negative feelings about English writing, most participants endorsed the concept that writing in English was the most difficult among the four language skills. More than half of them expressed that they felt anxious when writing in English and they lacked confidence in their English writing ability. Most participants

believed that a high level of English proficiency was the decisive factor in being a good English language writer. In addition, most participants believed that logical thinking was the key factor. Regarding the beliefs about the satisfaction with the English writing instruction, most participants responded that they liked the course design and thus were quite satisfied with their English writing instruction. As for the beliefs about the effectiveness of different English writing strategies, the majority of the participants considered writing strategies (outlining, rereading, revising, editing, using dictionary, and translating) as quite useful to improve the quality of their writing. However, there existed several least frequently held beliefs about English writing. For instance, the participants disagreed that they can express their ideas or feelings through writing in English. Next, the participants did not strongly believe that they can communicate with others through writing in English. Furthermore, they expressed disagreement that they can reflect their inner world through writing in English. In addition, they did not have the belief that the process of English writing primarily means "translation from Chinese into English". The students disagreed that a good English composition employs good word choice and beautiful sentences. Moreover, the students did not have a strong belief that a good English composition requires many idioms and proverbs. They did not favor the item that Chinese interferes with English writing. In addition, the participants did not believe strongly that Chinese aids their English writing. Lastly, they disagreed that English writing is difficult. In Wu's (2003) study, the results of the cross-tabulation revealed that there were some differences between students' beliefs system in Chinese and English writing regarding negative feelings toward writing, satisfaction with the writing course, the meaning of writing, the effectiveness of outlining, and the role of logical thinking. In congruent with some of the statements Wu (2003) involved in the inventory, some statements of the present study echoed Wu's (2003) beliefs items in the Nature of Writing and Teaching Writing Sub-scales as writing is a way to communicate with the reader, possessing appropriate thinking and reasoning skills is essential for effective writing in English, writing is a tool for self-expression, limited English proficiency may hamper writing performance in English, writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings, inadequate knowledge of writing strategies may cause low writing performance in English, writing is a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences structured according to a system of rules, writing is an internally motivated activity, Turkish writing strategies (e.g. outlining, drafting, revising) can be transferred to English writing, instructors should tailor writing tasks to the real-world writing needs of their students,

creative writing such as free writing and journal writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression, Instructors should present English writing strategies (e.g. outlining, webbing, planning, free writing, rereading, revising, editing, etc.) through explicit modeling, instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product.

Approaching writing beliefs as transmissional and transactional, White and Bruning (2005) attempted to identify whether beliefs existed in writing, and if so, then explore how these beliefs affected writing processes. The researchers hypothesized that writers holding transmissional beliefs have limited cognitive and affective engagement during writing while the writers who have transactional beliefs reflect higher cognitive and affective engagement in the process of writing. In other words, writers with mainly transmissional writing beliefs would conceptualize writing as a medium to transfer information from authoritative sources to the audience in a way that restricts the ideas the writer expressed. In this context, the written product would be deficient in idea-content development and other dimensions of a qualified writing. On the other hand, writers with predominantly transactional writing beliefs would conceptualize the aim of writing as a means to create a text by employing their critical thinking in an active way. As a result of this kind of cognitively engaged process, the written product would have in-depth idea-content development and higher quality of writing regarding other dimensions such as voice and fluency. In addition, the authors attempted to explore the relations between writing beliefs and writing quality. The relationship between writing beliefs and several variables related to writing including writing efficacy, writing apprehension, and background writing experiences were also investigated. In doing so, the researchers based on the findings of transmissional and transactional beliefs in reading and extended the methods employed in reading beliefs research. The developed conceptual models of writing beliefs guided their project. In the first phase of the study, the researchers developed an implicit beliefs inventory based on the conceptual models of transmissional and transactional beliefs, which were previously determined categories of transmissional and transactional implicit beliefs in reading (Schraw & Bruning, 1996, 1999).

EFA was employed to find out the patterns of beliefs (independent variable). Besides, the researchers sought to investigate the relationships between implicit writing beliefs and several variables including writing efficacy, writing apprehension, and prior writing experiences. In the second phase of the study, the researchers aimed to modify the inventory

based on the data of the first phase and find out how implicit beliefs might relate to measures of writing quality which focused on six criteria as idea-content development, organization, sentence fluency, word choice, voice, and conventions. The researchers hypothesized that writers with high levels of transactional and low levels of transmissional beliefs would have higher scores of overall writing quality. In contrast, they (2005) anticipated that writers with low levels of transactional beliefs and high levels of transmissional beliefs would have lower scores of writing quality. Initial Writing Beliefs Inventory (WBI) with 36 items was conducted to measure transmissional and transactional beliefs of writers. The responses of the participants were analyzed through principal axis analysis, followed by oblimin and Varimax rotations of the factors. Because of the low correlations between factors, the researchers (2005) used Varimax rotation to maximize the variance between factors. The ultimate analysis yielded a two-factor solution with 15 statements accounting for 28% of the variance. The first seven statements, accounting for 15% of the variance, constituted the transmissional writing beliefs factor because these statements emphasized that writing is a medium to transmit knowledge from authoritative sources to the reader without higher levels of cognitive engagement during the writing process. The remaining eight statements, accounting for 13% of the variance, represented the transactional writing beliefs factor because these items reflected writer's high cognitive engagement during the writing task. As a result of this initial analysis, the total internal consistency of the inventory was .73.

In the second phase of the study, the researchers (2005) refined the inventory and then investigated the relationships between independent (i.e. writing beliefs) and dependent variables (e.g. writing quality). For this aim, Writing Beliefs Inventory (WBI), Reading Beliefs Inventory (RBI) (Schraw & Bruning, 1996), a writing self-efficacy scale (Shell et al., 1995), a writing apprehension scale (Daly & Miller, 1975), a background writing experience questionnaire, and an 877-word story were used. 15-item WBI was analyzed through factor analysis. The analysis procedures resulted in two-factor solution as transmissional and transactional beliefs. The former factor, which accounted for 25% of the variance, was represented by five statements while the latter factor, which accounted for 14% of the variance, included four statements. The overall Cronbach alpha value was .75, which was slightly higher than that of in the first phase. Upon analyzing the WBI, the researchers (2005) examined the relationships between belief scores and writing quality scores through ANOVA analyses. The results revealed that there were statistically significant main effects of both transmissional and transactional writing beliefs on total

writing quality. Students were categorized as low in transmissional writing beliefs had higher overall writing quality scores whereas the ones with low transactional beliefs scored lower on overall quality. More specifically, there were meaningful differences between transmissional writing beliefs and four of six writing criteria including idea-content development, voice, organization, and conventions. In addition, significant effects for transactional writing beliefs were found on two of the six writing criteria as organization and sentence fluency. Regarding other variables (i.e. writing efficacy, writing apprehension, and prior writing experiences), the researchers (2005) hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between transmissional beliefs and writing apprehension while there would be a negative relationship between transactional beliefs and writing apprehension. Moreover, they (2005) expected that various prior writing experiences would be related to transmissional and transactional beliefs according to the type of background experience. Next, it was assumed that meaningful correlations between transmissional and transactional writing beliefs and writing efficacy would emerge.

In the third phase of the study, the same sets of measures, which were used in phase two, were employed. The researchers (2005) added four new statements to the transactional writing beliefs factor in order to increase the Cronbach alpha and thus to strengthen the inventory. Again, factor analyses procedures were carried out which resulted in 19-item WBI with .73 overall reliability value. All in all, the findings supported their hypotheses in that overall writing quality would be higher for writers holding higher levels of transactional beliefs than for writers who have higher levels of transmissional writing beliefs. Next, it was evident in the data that the writers with higher levels of transactional writing beliefs had higher scores in specific qualities of writing including idea-content development, voice, writing organization, conventions, and sentence fluency. However, there were no significant main effects of writing beliefs on word choice of the writers. The researchers (2005) concluded that it was more likely that there is a significant and positive correlation between transactional writing beliefs and writing efficacy and self-expression and writing for pleasure. That is, the higher the writers have transactional beliefs the more confident they are in the ability to write and the more pleasure they have in their writing process. Besides, they (2005) proposed that transmissional and transactional writing beliefs would be evident in writing and that writers can hold high and low levels of each belief. Moreover, these writing beliefs appear to affect the writing quality and writing process. Furthermore, prior writing experience appeared to have a meaningful difference on the writers with high and

low levels of transactional beliefs. The authors (2005) had the implication that it is possible to measure the implicit writing beliefs held by individuals and that these implicit beliefs affect the writing quality.

These kind of transmissional and transactional writing beliefs (White & Bruning, 2005) were covered in the Nature of Writing and Teaching Writing Sub-scales in the present study. For example, the following statements were touched upon in general including writing's main purpose is to give other people information, I try to quote authorities as often as possible in my writing assignments, one of my writing goals is to have make as few changes as possible, I keep going back to my writing to try to improve it, writing is often an emotional experience, I always want to go back to edit my writing, writing helps me see the complexity of ideas, writers views should show through in their writing, my thoughts and ideas become more clear to me as I write and rewrite, I am trying to develop a distinctive style as a writer, writers need to immerse themselves in their writing. In the current study, the aforementioned statements were mentioned through the following writing beliefs statements involved in the Nature of Writing and Teaching Writing Sub-scales as writing is a way to communicate with the reader, writing is a tool for self-expression, writing is an activity to convey information, writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings, writing is a process that can be achieved after writing and revising multiple times, writing is an internally motivated activity, writing is a recursive process in which writers go back and forth in their text, continually plan, write, and revise without a certain order, instructors should create a habit of rewriting, revising and editing in students through writing multiple drafts, instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to develop their individual voice in English writing classes, and students should be trained how to do proper textual borrowings from multiple sources.

Through a three-phase exploratory and correlational study, Sanders-Reio (2010) examined the relationships between domain-specific beliefs about writing, writing self-efficacy, and writing apprehension, and their connections to writing performance. In the first and second phases, the researcher (2010) modified existing measures of two of the independent variables (i.e. writing self-efficacy and writing apprehension) and developed and validated a new measure of beliefs about writing (Beliefs about Writing Survey). In addition, in this phase, she added additional items to the draft writing survey in order to strengthen the reliability of data. In the third phase, she (2010) investigated the relationships among the independent

variables (i.e. Beliefs about Writing Survey, Writing Self-efficacy, and Writing Apprehension) and their influence on the dependent variable (i.e. writing performance). Writing performance of the participants was assessed through a single writing sample: a structured five-page paper. She hypothesized that some writing beliefs can be adaptive (i.e. predictive of high writing performance) while others can be maladaptive (i.e. predictive of weak writing performance). Besides, she predicted that writers with high writing self-efficacy and low writing apprehension would have high writing performance whereas writers with low self-efficacy and high writing apprehension would have weak writing performance. The researcher employed correlational analyses and a hierarchical regression analysis in order to answer the research questions. Regarding independent variables, writing apprehension was assessed with Writing Apprehension Test (Daly & Miller, 1975). The researcher added three items to this scale to enrich the WAT. As a foundation of the self-efficacy scale in the study, the researcher used Zimmerman and Bandura's (1994) Writing Self-Regulatory Efficacy Scale. The researcher added 35 additional items to this scale, resulting in a total of 60 items. For the investigation of beliefs about writing, the researcher (2010) developed a Beliefs about Writing Survey based on the participants' perceptions about good writing and good writers. Actually, this survey was an expansion of Writing Beliefs Inventory (WBI) developed by White and Bruning (2005). Sanders-Reio (2010) added some items and categories to this inventory, resulting in a total of 54 belief statements under 14 categories together with transmissional and transactional beliefs categories including transmissional, transactional, writing is an innate gift, basics (mechanics) first, address substantive issues first, writing is an iterative process, minimize revision, write to impress, use plain English, adapt to the audience/be clear, development is important, use established formulas and formats, mechanical errors are shameful, and writing supports thinking.

The Beliefs about Writing Survey investigated the beliefs about writing tasks and skills, the processes involved in performing these tasks and skills, and various attributes of writing. The researcher conducted PCA with Varimax rotation in order to examine the psychometric properties of the three surveys used to measure the independent variables. With respect to data screening and cleaning, the data were scrutinized for missing data, skewness, kurtosis, variance, standard deviations, and outliers. Missing data were replaced with the group mean on the subscale. Outliers were examined through both scatter plots and Mahalonobis distance technique. A 14-factor solution was selected. Initial analyses resulted in 77 items under 14

subscales. Additional analyses such as scree plot and Kaiser criterion produced a 10-factor solution, explaining 42.38% of the total variance. The Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .68 to .90 for the subscales of the survey. As a result, the 10 factors emerged as Expert Orientation, Superficial Strategies, Writing Supports Thinking, Minimize Revision, Mechanical Errors Are Shameful, Use Plain English, Writing Is an Innate Gift, Address Substantive Issues First, Writing Is a Personal and Emotional Experience, and Basics (Mechanics) First. Some of the statements from Sanders-Reio's survey were addressed in the TEWBI including good writers keep their audience in mind; good writers are oriented toward their readers; good writers are logical and convincing; the key to good writing is conveying information clearly; one of the most important things about writing is the quality of the thinking it conveys; revision is a multi-stage process, writing is a process of reviewing, revising, and rethinking; the most important reason to write is to report what authorities think about a subject; good writers include a lot of quotes from authorities in their writing; writing helps me understand better what I'm thinking about; writing helps new ideas emerge; skillful writers don't revise much; papers with grammatical and spelling mistakes are embarrassing; good writers use plain language; the ability to write is a gift that some people have and some people don't; writers are born, not taught; grammar is important, but it is not as essential as the point the writer is trying to make; writing is often an emotional experience; and students need to master the basics of writing—grammar, punctuation, and spelling—before they learn to write anything complex.

The researcher (2010) divided the factors into two groups as adaptive and maladaptive beliefs. While the former has a positive relation to students' grades and supports the writing process, the latter is associated with poor grades on writing assignments. Five factors of the Beliefs about Writing Survey were theorized to be adaptive including Expert Orientation, Substantive Issues First, Use Plain English, Writing Is a Personal and Emotional Experience, and Writing Supports Thinking. On the other hand, four factors, namely, Superficial Strategies, Minimize Revision, Writing Is an Innate Gift, and Basics (Mechanics) First were theorized to be maladaptive.

In the third phase, the researcher used the data collection instruments developed and revised in the first two phases to explore the relationships among the independent variables (i.e. beliefs about writing, writing self-efficacy, and writing apprehension) and their influence on writing performance. The results of the hierarchical regressions revealed that beliefs about

writing, writing self-efficacy, and writing apprehension explained between 13% (Content and Language) and 19% (overall grade) of the variance in the writing performance grades. More specifically, the beliefs about writing explained more variance than did either writing self-efficacy or writing apprehension (ranged from 7.8% of the grade for Development to 11.8% of the overall grade). All in all, a combination of students' beliefs about writing, their writing self-efficacy beliefs, and their writing apprehension explained approximately 15% of the variance in writing performance of the students.

In the current study, in consonant with Sanders-Reio's (2010) study, both adaptive and maladaptive writing beliefs were involved in the TEWBI as follows; writing is a way to communicate with the reader; possessing appropriate thinking and reasoning skills is essential for effective writing in English; writing is a tool for self-expression; writing is an activity to convey information; writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings; writing is a process that can be achieved after writing and revising multiple times; writing is a skill that can be taught through instruction and practice; writing is a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences structured according to a system of rules; writing is a recursive process in which writers go back and forth in their text, continually plan, write, and revise without a certain order; explicit instruction on how to write in English should be a part of English writing courses; instructors should create a habit of rewriting, revising and editing in students through writing multiple drafts; instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to develop their individual voice in English writing classes; students should be trained on how to do proper textual borrowings from multiple sources; instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product; and effective English writing instruction means emphasizing upon surface-level conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) to improve the quality of student writing.

Recently, another exploratory study through which L2 writing instructors' assessment literacy was explored has been conducted by Crusan, Plakans, and Gebril (2016). In order to collect the data, the researchers (2016) have developed a 54-item survey instrument. The questionnaire involved the items which were formulated to elicit what second language writing teachers know about writing assessment, how they have learned what they know, their beliefs about writing assessment, and common classroom practices in tertiary-level writing courses. The survey items were sorted as writing knowledge, writing beliefs, and

writing practices. The survey was composed of multiple choice, 5-point Likert scale, and open-ended items delivered electronically to writing instructors. The preliminary items were developed after reading the related literature on assessment literacy without determining a specific construct of writing. Instead, the researchers (2016) examined the literature focused on what writing instructors should know. After a series of drafts and incorporated revisions, the researchers piloted the draft questionnaire in order to evaluate the design and implementation procedures. The Cronbach alpha value of the final version of the survey was 0.75. In the quantitative analysis phase, descriptive statistics and Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests were carried out along with follow-up tests. In addition, the qualitative data were gathered from survey comments and open coded by one of the researchers. With respect to knowledge category, two categories of information emerged in the survey as the foundations of teachers' knowledge regarding experience and training and knowledge of certain basic concepts in writing assessment. Regarding beliefs about writing assessment, there appeared three areas of beliefs including beliefs about scoring accuracy (8 items), beliefs about assessment methods used in writing assessment (6 items), and beliefs about general assessment issues in writing classes (6 items). In this category, a total of 20 items were included to cover the beliefs about writing assessment. The analysis of the written comments of writing instructors showed that a considerable number of instructors expressed frustration and challenges in assessing writing. As for the writing practices, 7 items were devoted to measure the classroom writing assessment practices of instructors. Most of the belief statements of Crusan et al.'s (2016) survey were covered in the TEWBI. The following statements were echoed in the subscale of assessing writing in the TEWBI; writing can be assessed indirectly through multiple-choice questions; essay exams are best when it comes to assessing writing skills; self-assessment can be a good technique for assessing writing; in general, writing (essay) exams provides a good estimate of writing ability; writing assessment provides good feedback for writing instruction; a portfolio is a good tool for assessing writing; when scoring writing, I believe content should receive more weight than accuracy (grammar); and self-assessment provides an accurate picture of student writing ability. In the TEWBI, the beliefs about assessing writing subscale involved the following statements, which were in line with the belief statements of Crusan et al.'s (2016) study; instructors should use rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing to assess students' writing; instructors should apply explicit and systematic scoring criteria to ensure fair assessment; students' writing ability should be assessed through the collection of

multiple samples of writing; instructors should allow students to evaluate their own writing (self-assessment); and portfolio assessment is the best way of assessing students' writing in English.

Very recently, Kim (2015) has investigated Korean university teachers' overall cognition regarding EFL writing instruction and has attempted to explore the relationship among their thinking, decision making, and classroom practices. The consistencies and inconsistencies between their beliefs and classroom practices were found out. Furthermore, she (2015) examined the influence of contextual factors and teachers' background knowledge including prior language learning, teaching experiences, and teacher education on their cognition and practices. To do so, both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were employed. She has developed a questionnaire which measured current practices and beliefs of EFL writing teachers. In addition, in order to collect the qualitative data, the researcher conducted follow-up interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis (i.e. teachers' syllabus, writing prompts, samples of feedback, classroom handouts, and students' views of teacher feedback). The questionnaire that was designed by the researcher aimed to identify EFL university teachers' thinking and beliefs about ten major areas in relation to EFL writing instruction including the nature of L1 and L2 writing, approaches to writing instruction, techniques for teaching writing, enhancement of students' writing strategies, teacher feedback and error correction, writing assessment, textbooks and materials, writing instruction policy, past experiences of learning English/English writing, and professional development programs for teaching writing. In order to increase the content validity of the questionnaire, the researcher tried to use questionnaire items which had already been developed and validated by previous studies of beliefs about language learning and teaching. Besides, she also developed other items by reviewing the related literature on L1 & L2 writing instruction. She (2015) piloted the 55-item questionnaire with a sample of university instructors to ensure the reliability. The pilot test revealed the Cronbach alpha value of .71. She (2015) made use of this piloted questionnaire to collect instructors' cognition on a four-point Likert scale without a neutral option as it was the case in the TEWBI. Both descriptive (i.e. mean, standard deviation, and percentages) and inferential (i.e. t-test and ANOVA) statistics were used in the analysis of the questionnaire. ANOVA was followed by a post-hoc test (i.e. Tukey test) to discover if any significant differences existed between groups. A number of belief items of the survey correspond to the items that were involved in the TEWBI. These items include; L2 writing is linguistically and rhetorically different from L1

writing; L2 students use writing strategies that are similar to those of L1 students; students who are good at Korean writing can be good writers of English; linguistic and socio-cultural factors influence the ways Korean students write and learn to write English; writing is a final product in which students are encouraged to follow a model text to produce a piece of writing with grammatical and lexical accuracy; writing is social and cultural practices in which students are introduced to different genres with different language and discourse features; teachers should focus on developing the content of a text students are going to write in English; it is necessary to use writing prompts to interest students in a topic and encourage them to write creatively in English; teachers need to use present a reading model before writing in English to practice integrating writing skills with reading skills; teachers should offer journal writing technique that allows students to express their thoughts and reactions in writing in English; teachers should give students much time to do pair work or group work while writing in English; when students write in English, it helps to refine rhetorical conventions to consider the audience while writing in English; teachers should correct errors in vocabulary, grammars and mechanics, when responding to a first draft; teachers should make comments on content and organization, when responding to a final draft; teachers should provide students with written comments on their writing, by combining criticism with either praise or a suggestion; teachers should offer a wide range of writing assessment tasks to evaluate students' writing performance; teachers need to design their own dimensions or categories of evaluating students' writing and assigning holistic or analytic scores to them; teachers should make a use of an eclectic approach to scoring of writing performance, by using a combination of holistic and analytic scoring developed by researchers; it is important to provide writing checklists with students to self-assess their own writing progress; teachers should use interesting authentic materials in the English writing classroom besides a textbook. Likewise, the three subscales of the TEWBI involve such belief items that align with the aforementioned items as follows; it is possible to transfer English writing knowledge and skills to Turkish writing; Turkish writing strategies (e.g. outlining, drafting, revising) can be transferred to English writing; limited English proficiency may hamper writing performance in English; cultural factors have considerable impacts on students' writing performance in English; instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product; instructors should employ guided writing to make students gain accuracy in English writing; effective English writing instruction means emphasizing upon surface-level conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, vocabulary,

grammar, etc.) to improve the quality of student writing; instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to master various genres of writing (e.g. essay, CV, recipe, letter of complaint, and research article, etc.); genre knowledge development (writing for different audiences and purposes) should be one of the significant dimensions of English writing instruction; the focus of attention should be on the social and cultural factors that shape English writing; instructors should tailor writing tasks to the real-world writing needs of their students; English writing skills cannot be acquired by writing alone but also need to be supported with extensive reading; creative writing such as free writing and journal writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression; instructors should provide opportunities for students to do collaborative writing; instructors should train students about English writing conventions (e.g. thesis statement, topic sentence, deductive organization, etc.) to generate effective text; writing is a way to communicate with the reader; feedback is crucial in assisting students to move through the stages of the writing process; students' writing ability should be assessed through the collection of multiple samples of writing; writing assessment should include both in-class (timed) and out-of-class (untimed) writing; writing texts should be scored holistically since writing is a single entity; only one aspect of writing (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, organization, etc.) should be assessed at a time since the constructs of writing are complex and multifaceted; instructors should use rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing to assess students' writing; besides printed materials, other kinds of teaching materials (audio, video, digital) should be used in English writing instruction.

Discussion of the Findings of the Investigation Phase

In the Investigation Phase (third phase) of the present study, the strong, moderate, and weak writing beliefs held by EFL instructors were explored by three subscales. The instructors who were recruited for this study had a wide range of beliefs about the nature of L2 writing, teaching L2 writing, and assessing L2 writing. Some of these beliefs were strong and moderate, whereas others were weak. In this study, the beliefs with mean scores over 5.00 out of 6.00 were accepted as strong beliefs; the beliefs with mean scores between 4.50 and 5.00 out of 6.00 were accepted as moderate beliefs, and the beliefs with mean scores below 4.50 out of 6.00 were accepted as weak beliefs.

The Strong, Moderate, and Weak Beliefs about the Nature of L2 Writing

In the present study, the most strongly held belief about the nature of writing is that "writing is a way to communicate with the reader" (M=5.51). It is clear that the respondents embraced an audience-oriented approach toward L2 writing. Especially in L2 contexts, if L2 writers are to communicate effectively, they should not misjudge their readers (Hirvela et al., 2016). This approach, also known as genre-based writing instruction, has certain advantages in writing instruction including explicit, systematic, needs-based, supportive, empowering, critical, and consciousness-raising (Hyland, 2016). An in-depth understanding of genre-based writing pedagogy "allows writing teachers to identify the kinds of texts that students will have to write in their target occupational, academic, or social contexts and to organize their courses to meet these needs" (Hyland, 2004, p. 5). It is plausible that Turkish EFL instructors are willing to expose students to various kinds of writing genres and to practice them to promote their writing skills. According to Halliday (1994), writing is not just a process, rather it is the ability to write for different purposes with appropriate linguistic and rhetorical tools and it varies from one context to another. Therefore, EFL instructors who follow genre pedagogies can lead their students to use language in communicative situations and help them create communicatively effective written texts (Hyland, 2004). This finding is congruent with the findings of the Sanders-Reio's (2010) survey. In addition, the social and cultural dimension of L2 writing was among the prominent belief items in Kim's (2015) study. In that study, Korean university teachers thought that writing is a good way for social and cultural practices through which students are introduced to various genres. However, the respondents of the Wu's (2003) study didn't think they could communicate with others through writing in English. In fact, they felt they weren't self-efficacious to communicate with readers through writing in English. In accordance with the aforementioned audience-oriented and genre-based approach, EFL instructors also held the belief that writing is socially situated activity (M=4.27). This belief suggests that texts are constructed for various purposes relevant to target communities. The sociocultural theory assumes language learning as a socially situated activity. Likewise, as one of the major components of language, writing can be claimed to be a socially situated activity (Wigglesworth & Stoch, 2012). Moreover, according to the social constructionist view, the written texts are viewed as a social act that can situate only within and for a particular context and audience (Coe, 1987). Relatedly, as

the fourth most favoured item, the majority of the EFL instructors (M=5.17) embraced the belief that "the way we write varies from one social context to another". More than half of the participants thought that cultural factors have a huge influence on students' writing performance (M=4.60). It is reasonable to discuss that the participants have a good recognition of the importance of socio-cultural factors that affect students' effective writing. This finding is in line with the Vygotskian socio-cultural theory which suggests that beliefs are formed through transformation of socially-shared activities into internalized processes (Vygotsky, 1978). In fact, beliefs develop as a result of the interaction with society. Thus, culture and context play a significant role in shaping beliefs. With this recognition in mind, the EFL instructors can equip their students with specific social and cultural patterns and conventions which are necessary for writing in English. Aligned to this belief, the majority of the respondents in Kim's (2015) study also favoured that writing involves social and cultural practices that can be used for introducing different genres. In the current study, almost all of the participants hold the central belief about the genre-based approach from which several beliefs are derived. This result shows that the surveyed EFL instructors' writing beliefs are interconnected to each other, not completely isolated. This finding also indicates that beliefs take place as a system in which some beliefs are core or strong and others are peripheral or weak (Green, 1971; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Rokeach, 1968). From this perspective, it can be proved that "belief substructures are part of belief web, and can also be thought of as connected to central or peripheral strands of that web" (Pajares, 1992, p. 318). Moreover, according to complexity theory, beliefs cannot be studied systematically without its social context (Thelen & Smith, 1994). Besides the complex structure of beliefs, writing has a multifaceted and dynamic nature as well (Hirvela et al., 2016). In this context, it is considerably reasonable that writing beliefs are interconnected with each other.

The second mostly held belief in the nature of L2 writing subscale is about the affective dimension of L2 writing instruction (M=5.35). It can be claimed that the participants are well aware of the fact that motivation exerts a huge influence on students' writing performance. In fact, "learning how to write in a second language is one of the most challenging aspects of second language learning" (Hyland, 2003, p. xiii) because writing is a recursive and laborious process as well as cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally demanding task (Hayes & Flower, 1980). In this process, writers need to invest sufficient time, energy, concentration, and determination (Kormos, 2012) since they are required to move forward and backward recurrently in the process of writing. One of the most central

determinants of learners' writing performance is motivation which determines "the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning" (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p.12). Importantly, Dörnyei (1998) asserts that:

> Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning foreign language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough to ensure students achievements (p. 117).

In addition, motivation appears to impact students' learning and performance through increasing their energy and activity level (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990); through leading students to specific goals (Blumenfeld, 1992); through fostering initiation of certain tasks and sustaining those tasks (McClelland, 1985); and through orienting learning strategies and cognitive processes (Perry, VandeKamp, Mercer, & Nodby, 2002). Along with being contextually situated (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), motivation is domain-specific (Zhang & Guo, 2012). In this sense, motivation determines how successfully individuals can orchestrate the writing processes and the quality of the final written product (Kellog, 1996). Especially, in Turkey as an EFL context, it is more challenging to motivate students and as well as to help them sustain their writing motivation because L2 writing does not play a major role in Turkish education system with lack of writing skills in traditional and national exams (Uysal, 2008). In other words, writing can be considered as Cinderella skills with no emphasis in Turkey. In this context, both teachers and students may have little or no motivation to learn and teach L2 writing. In addition to its negligence, writing in L2 is a demanding task in which writers need to take into account the cognitive, social, cultural, and linguistic factors. Because of these reasons, writing teachers should invest extra time and energy to motivate and keep learners maintain their motivation towards L2 writing. It was found that students with high motivation had the potential to be an independent, creative, and passionate writer (Tran, 2007). Furthermore, writing motivation positively and significantly correlated with self-efficacy and L2 writing proficiency (Zhang & Guo, 2012). In light of the finding of the current study, it can be discussed that since the EFL instructors participated in this study recognize the pivotal role of motivation in influencing students' writing performance, they can step up their efforts in providing a comfortable writing environment and thus in boosting students' writing development.

The third most frequent belief among the respondents is about the cognitive dimension of L2 writing (M=5.20). Almost all of the participants strongly believed that possessing appropriate thinking and reasoning skills is essential for effective L2 writing. This item focuses on the cognitive strand of the process approach to writing instruction. Because writing is a multifaceted process, writers need to skillfully coordinate the cognitive processes along with the linguistic ones (Hayes, 1996; Kellogg, 1996). Under the light of this finding, it is safe to claim that the participants have a good realization that cognitive dimension of L2 writing has a strong influence on students' writing performance. This orientation appeared with the development of Flower and Hayes' (1981) cognitive model of writing process, viewing writing processes as interactive, intermingling, and potentially simultaneous. These processes involve planning, organizing, goal setting, generating, translating, reviewing, evaluating, and editing. The adherents of this strand see writing as a problem-solving activity rather than self-expression, creativity, and an act of communication (Hyland, 2009). The notion at the heart of this model is that writing is a "non-linear, exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983, p. 165). The studies in this camp mainly center on the differences and similarities between good and poor writers or novice and expert writers in order to find out the strategies or processes good writers use when they write so that L2 students can be equipped with these strategies (Hirvela et al., 2016). However, this model of writing orientation is criticized for failing to provide any clear perspective on the social nature of writing and to disregard the different genres students need to write in academic settings (Hirvela et al., 2016). Relatedly, one of the tenets of Western writing conventions is critical thinking. Given that it is culture-specific construct; Turkish writing instructors may be considered to underestimate this skill in L2 writing instruction. This may hamper students' effective writing performance in English. In fact, students need to develop critical thinking skills not only for success in L2 writing, but also for lifelong learning. On the other hand, some warn teachers not to impose such a unique Western way of thinking in writing instruction (Atkinson, 1997; Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995; Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999). In this context, teachers should find a middle road. They may adopt some awareness raising activities towards the Western way of thinking without imposing strictly.

The fourth mostly embraced belief is that "the way we write varies from one social context to another" (M=5.17). It is clear that instructors favor the important role of social context in

composing. With the influence of Vygotskian social theory and social-interactionist theories of composition, social nature of writing gained importance, which is called "social turn" (Trimbur, 1994, p. 109). According to this orientation, writing is a social activity beyond solely cognitive process. L2 writing is affected by its immediate context where it is created. Blooming the social interest in the L2 writing field, post-process movement (Atkinson, 2003) sees writing as a social practice rather than an individual process. It shows that the participants in the present study view writing activity to be accomplished with respect to different social contexts for different purposes. It can also be interpreted that they have conceptualized the notion that writing is not a universal practice but a socially-contextualized act (Halliday, 1994; Hyland, 2003). In addition, it seems that the respondents have a clear understanding of the reader-oriented approach to writing instruction, as it was the case in different items.

Regarding the expressivist strand of process camp, there are three belief statements which are ranked as fifth, eighth, and fifteenth. The participants hold the beliefs that "writing is a tool for self-expression" (M=5.17), "writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings" (M=4.98), and "writing is an internally motivated activity" (M=4.57). Since these belief statements originate from the same writing approach and are at the same direction, they are discussed together. From the standpoint of expressivist view, "the goal of writing should be to move toward a condition in which we don't necessarily need an audience to write and speak well" (Elbow, 1981, p. 190). In other words, it disregards the audience expectations in writing. Relatedly, the EFL instructors involved in this study moderately embraced the belief that writing is not interactive and socially motivated activity, rather it is internally motivated. In addition, they ignore the social aspects and the writer-reader relations in the writing process. The adherents of this camp claim that texts should be created for expressing one's ideas and for self-discovery of writers (e.g. Elbow, 1981; Murray, 1985). Writer, rather than the text or reader, is the point of departure. Therefore, it is believed that writers have all the cognitive resources they need to write and that they do not need any kind of explicit writing instruction. To put it differently, considering writing as a creative act, the proponents of this perspective believe that writing is learned, not taught. In terms of writing pedagogy, this approach has emphasized the importance of learning how to write by writing. Yet, expressivists ignore the social context of writing where it is performed (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). The main tenets of expressivist are the enhancement of students' expressive abilities and the development of authentic voice

through free writing and journal writing activities. However, there may be some problems in adopting this orientation for L2 writing instruction in Turkey because its leaning heavily on individualism may disadvantage L2 learners from non-Western cultures. Eastern countries such as China, Japan, Thailand tend to embrace the collectivist culture in which individuals pay great attention to group harmony rather than individualism. Although Turkey is a bridge between east and west countries, it is more likely that group harmony is more focused than individualism. Therefore, EFL writing instructors should be sensitive to these concerns in L2 writing instruction if they are to use this orientation.

The sixth most frequently believed statement is that "writing is an activity to convey information" (M=5.04). It is the simplest way of approaching writing in English. Simply, writing can be considered as a good way to convey information; however, it deserves more. Today, it is widely accepted that besides conveying information, writing has a key role in transforming knowledge to create new knowledge (Weigle, 2002). This view requires low-level of writing ability in that writers just transmit the information from authoritative sources to the reader. This kind of beliefs was called transmissional beliefs in White and Bruning's (2005). These beliefs require limited cognitive and affective engagement during the composing process. The researchers (2005) found that the writers with stronger transmissional beliefs had lower writing quality scores. That is, there is a negative correlation between transmissional beliefs and writing quality of the writers. Similarly, the groundbreaking work of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) focused on knowledge-telling and knowledge-transforming model. According to this model, knowledge-telling involves very little planning or revision. Therefore, less skilled writers mostly adopt this orientation. Within this context, it is reasonable to suggest that EFL instructors adopt transactional beliefs with higher cognitive and affective engagement rather than transmissional beliefs as well as knowledge-transforming rather than knowledge-telling.

The seventh most strongly held belief among the EFL respondents is that "limited English proficiency may hamper writing performance in English" (M=5.02). The role of L2 proficiency in students' writing quality is one of the hotly debated issues (Silva, 1993). Among others, L2 proficiency has the potential to exert influence on students' writing performance especially in EFL contexts. Besides cognitive, social, and cultural factors, L2 students need to deal with linguistic factors in L2 writing. It is necessary but not sufficient asset for L2 writing process (Eisterhold, 1990). Learning to write in L1 builds upon the

linguistic resources students already have, whereas learning to write in L2 builds upon the incomplete linguistic resources students still develop (Weigle, 2002). With this in mind, it is plausible to think that learners may be hampered by language proficiency in writing in English. There are various areas in which language proficiency plays significant roles. For example, regarding textual borrowing, L2 proficiency has an effect on the use of information from source texts (Campbell, 1990). In order to summarize or paraphrase, L2 students need to have a certain level of L2 proficiency. Next, according to the language threshold hypothesis, there is an underlying common proficiency across languages, and reading or writing skills can only be transferred once this threshold level is gained (Cummins, 1980). L2 proficiency is also essential in genre-based writing instruction (Casanave, 2004). Students need to have adequate language proficiency in practicing certain genres. In literacy literature, it was found that language proficiency impacted more on students' reading performance than L1 reading ability (Grabe, 2003). It is logical to consider that the same situation may be the case for L2 writing. Kubota (1998) provided evidence that apart from L1 writing skills, low L2 proficiency, as well as lack of L2 writing experience, determine the quality of ESL essays. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) investigated the effects of various factors such as writing ability, L2 proficiency, L2 writing knowledge, L2 writing experience and confidence in the L1 and L2 compositions on the quality of L2 writing. The results revealed that not only L1 writing ability but also L2 writing proficiency affected Japanese students' L2 writing quality. Moreover, it was found that a greater variance of L2 writing score was accounted for by L2 writing proficiency rather than L1 writing ability. Through examining L1 and L2 compositions, Cumming (1989) investigated L1 writing expertise and L2 proficiency in relation to L2 writing quality. It was found that writing expertise was related to the quality of organization, content, and higher-order thinking and problem-solving skills both in L1 and L2. Thus, the ones who lacked writing expertise failed to regulate their cognition appropriately and their writing quality decreased. On the other hand, L2 proficiency acted as an additive factor promoting overall writing quality. EFL instructors with that strong belief on the importance of L2 proficiency in writing instruction may overemphasize the formal aspects of writing through an accuracy-based approach. The participants should find the middle road, and they should not focus on language at the expense of content in L2 writing instruction.

The ninth and eighteenth mostly favoured beliefs are related to the recursive nature of writing and multiple-drafting and revision processes in process approach. The EFL instructors

participated in this study moderately believe that "writing is a process that can be achieved after writing and revising multiple times" (M=4.97). This line of belief assumes that writing can be learned by writing. On the other hand, the participants weakly believed that "writing is a recursive process in which writers go back and forth in their text, continually plan, write, and revise without a certain order" (M=4.28). Interestingly, although these two belief statements originate from the same underlying orientation, the frequency of the EFL instructors embracing each belief varies considerably. As a whole, these two belief statements constitute the major part of the process approach. That is, both recursiveness and multiple drafting and revision processes are the main tenets of the process approach (Hyland, 2009). This approach gained popularity with Emig's (1971) groundbreaking study of the composing processes, which sees writing as a process rather than a product. Similarly, Applebee (1986) pointed out that the process approach "provided a way to think about writing in terms of what the writer does (planning, revising, and the like) instead of in terms of what the final product looks like (patterns of organization, spelling, grammar)" (p. 96). It was also underlined in the literature that writing is not a linear and step-by-step plan-outline-write process (e.g. Taylor, 1981). Rather, writing is seen as a non-linear, complex, recursive, multi-faceted, exploratory, creative, and generative process through which writers express their own meanings (Cumming, 2001; Emig, 1983; Flower; 1979; Perl, 1980; Silva, 1990; Zamel, 1982). Writing processes and strategies are the pillars of the writing skill. The content was emphasized over the form and the cognitive processes the writers possess were closely focused such as generating, executing/writing, reviewing/revising, etc. The following recursive processes are involved in this writer-oriented approach such as prewriting, composing, response to draft, revising, response to revisions, proofreading, and editing, etc. (Hyland, 2016). The results of this study revealed that regarding the nature of writing, the participants did not fully recognize the importance of the recursive nature of writing and multiple drafting and revision processes. One the possible reason behind this result may be the cultural factors. As Oxford (1996) expressed, strategy choice is greatly determined by the cultural background of the individuals. Furthermore, the cultural beliefs and perceptions play a significant role in the learning strategies …" (Oxford, et al., 1992). Uysal (2008) claimed that writing is seen as a craft rather than academic-scientific writing in Turkish writing instruction. She maintained that process-oriented writing strategies are not emphasized in writing instruction. The results of her study showed that most of the participants had no experience with process-oriented writing approaches and strategies.

Relatedly, Severino (1993) claimed that individuals from non-Western cultures may have little or no experience with writing multiple drafts, and thus conducting writing as a one-draft act may be considered as an art. In this context, it is reasonable that Turkish EFL instructors may consider that writing is a craft that can be done through a one-shot approach. Therefore, they may think that there is no need to rewriting, drafting and revision in L2 writing instruction. This misconception may prevent instructors from recognizing and teaching writing as a process.

The tenth most frequent belief is that "inadequate knowledge of writing strategies may cause low writing performance in English" (M=4.97). As it was mentioned above, the EFL instructors involved in the present study may not be fully aware of the importance of writing processes or strategies in L2 writing instruction. They moderately favored the role of the knowledge of writing strategies in students' writing performance. Again, this may be the result of the consideration that writing is a craft rather than a skill that can be improved through strategies. Yet, instructors should be conscious and knowledgeable about available writing strategies in order to be able to promote learners' writing strategies. Instructors should create opportunities for students to explore a variety of writing strategies. In a sense, strategy training has paramount importance in enhancing students' writing quality. The studies on learning strategies have indicated that training on strategy use can lead learners to become more successful in the language learning process. What's more, writing teachers should present writing strategies through explicit modeling (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). In addition, successful language learners are different from the poor ones in using more and appropriate learning strategies (e.g. Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Victori, 1999). For example, Sengupta (2000) examined the effects of strategy training (i.e. revision strategies) for writers of English as a second language in a secondary school setting. The results showed that explicit training on these strategies played a major role in the quality of the students' final texts. However, before that, through certain professional development programmes, instructors should be trained on how to train their students on writing strategies.

The eleventh mostly embraced belief is about the innateness of writing (Palmquist & Young, 1992). The participants moderately supported the notion that "writing is a skill that can be taught through instruction and practice" (M=4.96). This result is not surprising because it has been already claimed that writing is considered as a craft or inborn talent rather than a learnable skill in Turkish education system (Uysal, 2008). This view may cause serious

results in the process of L2 writing instruction. The instructors who consider writing is an innate gift may think that there is no need to teach students specific writing strategies, or there is no need for explicit writing instruction. For instance, Norman and Spencer's (2005) study revealed that many teachers believing writing is an innate gift less embraced the notion that writing instruction could foster writing development. Actually, this line of view is promoted by expressivist scholars, considering that writing can be learnt, not taught, and the role of a teacher is to create a cooperative environment with little interference (Hyland, 2004). The situation is essentially more like, as Hyland (2003) expressed, "while writers do not learn to write only by writing, they cannot learn to write without writing" (p.132). From the theoretical perspective, as Attribution Theory suggests, causal relationships can play a key role in determining the emotional state of individuals, leading to success or failure (Weiner, 1986). For instance, if writing performance is attributed to instruction and practice rather than innate natural talent, individuals can invest sufficient time and energy in order to succeed in it. On the other hand, if writing performance is attributed to innate gift rather than learnable skill, individuals may avoid investing necessary effort and time, which leads to failure. More recently, Uysal (2008) study revealed that most of the participants perceived writing as an uncontrollable innate ability rather than hard work or learnable strategies. She argued that if people attribute good writing to innate natural talent rather than learnable factors, it is more likely that this attribution will cause people to have low motivation in drafting and revision. In the same vein, Palmquist and Young (1992) suggest that individuals' beliefs about the causes of good performance determine the amount of energy and time they invest. From another side of the coin, there are promising statements in the literature. Norris and Manchon (2012) put forward that writing is considerably, though not exclusively, learned through instruction. However, it requires years of practice to master writing (Casanave, 2004). In addition, emphasizing conscious effort and practice, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) asserted that writing is not a natural talent; rather it requires instruction, training, practice, experience, and purpose. The dynamic usage-based theory also suggests that language is learned via experience and practice (Langacker, 2000), and it is the case for L2 writing.

The twelfth most frequent belief is that "writing is a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences structured according to a system of rules" (M=4.87). Focusing on language structures, EFL instructors may hold discrete and surface-level understanding towards writing. Such conceptualization leads teachers' attention to writing as a product and as a

result, teachers emphasize formal text units and linguistic aspects of writing (Hyland, 2003). In this sense, L2 writing mainly requires grammatical, lexical, and syntactic knowledge. This orientation is also called text-oriented teaching to writing, viewing writing as a textual product with a special focus on formal surface forms and discourse structure (Hyland, 2009). This view is a reflection of guided writing and current-traditional rhetoric approaches, which are believed to be alive in some EFL/ESL contexts. In a number of schools, "writing classes are grammar classes in disguise and students are asked to write simply to demonstrate their knowledge of syntactic rules" (Hyland, 2016, p. 146). From the pedagogical perspective, the aim of the writer is just to arrange formal surface elements coherently according to a system of rules. Writing is context-free. Therefore, writers do not need to have audience-awareness or social and cultural norms. The indication of improvement in writing is the increase in the number of morphemes, words, and clauses in students writing. The EFL instructors with this philosophy may focus heavily on form and accuracy at the expense of content. In addition, they may conceptualize writing as an extension of grammar teaching, as it was the case traditionally.

The thirteenth and twentieth mostly believed statements are about the transfer issue in writing. The respondents moderately hold the belief that "Turkish writing strategies (e.g. outlining, drafting, revising) can be transferred to English writing" (M=4.61) whereas they weakly favoured the belief that "it is possible to transfer English writing knowledge and skills to Turkish writing" (M=4.24). It seems that since Turkish (L1) is their native language, the participants have more confidence and stronger belief to transfer Turkish writing knowledge and strategies to English. On the other hand, the participants have less confidence to transfer English writing knowledge and strategies to Turkish writing because they may not master English as much as Turkish. Transfer and directionality issues are hotly debated topics in the field of L2 writing. Many scholars (e.g. Kubota, 1998; Leki, 1992; Uysal, 2008) claim that various writing strategies and expertise might transfer from L1 to L2 or vice versa. Good writers in their L1 can make use of their cognitive abilities and metacognitive strategies in their L2 writing (Leki, 1992). For example, Kubota's (1998) study revealed evidence of transfer from L1 to L2 writing. Similarly, Uysal (2008) found that her participants employed similar planning and revision strategies in their Turkish and English writing process. However, from the contrastive rhetoric standpoint, linguistic patterns and rhetorical conventions can be transferred from L1 to L2 writing, and these may hinder students' L2 writing performance (Kaplan, 1966). Likewise, teachers who adopt the early

view of contrastive rhetoric may consider transfer as a hindrance rather than a desirable activity. Relatedly, Matalene (1985) found that Chinese students are more likely to transfer cultural patterns such as old sayings, proverbs, maxims, and pieces of folklore to their L2 writing. Turkish writing education also emphasizes beautiful language and use of proverbs or maxims. What's more, such patterns are given students as a writing topic (Uysal, 2008). Within this context, it is more likely that Turkish writers may import this kind of patterns for their L2 writing, and this may hinder their writing performance. Theoretically, according to dynamic systems theory, every language that individuals learned exists in the dynamic system, and they interact with each other dynamically (De Angelis & Jessner, 2012). The researchers found that different language systems (i.e. L1 (Italian), L2 (German), and L3 (English)) dynamically affect each other (2012). According to multicompetence theory (Cook, 2008), L1 and L2 writing knowledge become gradually merged rather than as separate systems. Multicompetence is defined as "knowledge of two languages in one mind" (Cook, 2008, p. 17). It suggests that the repertoire of L1 and L2 writing knowledge has a dynamic and expanding nature, and knowledge from any language can contribute to this merged repertoire. There exist empirical studies in writing literature. For example, Kobayashi and Rinnert (2012), drawing on multicompetence theory, investigated the role of writing knowledge in constructing texts and examined how writing knowledge affects L2 writing development. They (2012) found that novice writers relied on the L1 knowledge they had gained, while experienced writers had good command on the knowledge of introduction components, reader expectations, and genre-related rhetorical patterns in both languages. The researchers concluded that as the writers acquire knowledge and skills in relation to writing, the L1 and L2 writing knowledge overlap more closely. In the same vein, Yiğitoğlu (2011) explored that L2 writing teachers who did not master L2 literacy skills relied primarily on their L1 writing experiences, whereas L2 writing teachers who mastered L2 literacy skills relied heavily on their L2 writing experiences. In this sense, EFL instructors should support students with writing knowledge from both Turkish and English. Relatedly, through biliteracy perspective on genre knowledge in writing instruction to multilingual students, Gentil (2011) underlined the role of crosslinguistic transfer of genre knowledge. He states that "the key is to identify what kinds of prior knowledge they (students) bring to the writing situation at hand so as to help them draw upon it as they develop the knowledge domain that they lack to accomplish that genre" (p. 19). Regarding directionality of transfer, one can transfer from L1 to L2 (forward transfer), from L2 to L1 (reverse transfer), from L2

to L3 or L3 to L2 (lateral transfer), and bi- or multi-directionality (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2007). In the literature, the possibility of bidirectional transfer (from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1) has been widely investigated. The findings supported bidirectional transfer (e.g. Akyel & Kamışlı, 1997; Atakent, 1999; Enginarlar, 1991; Oktar, 1991; Uysal, 2008). For example, Akyel & Kamışlı (1997) examined students' essays written both before and after the English writing instruction, and they found that the students could transfer English rhetorical knowledge to L1. Uysal (2008) found that knowledge and skills in relation to overall organization and coherence were transferred bidirectionally. Her participants transferred separate example paragraph pattern from Turkish to English. On the other hand, frequent use of transition signaling was transferred from English to Turkish. One of the pedagogical implication of bidirectional transfer may be, as Atakent (1999) suggested, English writing instruction can compensate for the lack of Turkish rhetorical instruction through positive reverse transfer. Yet, individuals should attain a certain level of language proficiency in order to be able to transfer knowledge, skills, or strategies (Cummins, 1989). This is called the threshold hypothesis. A number of studies indicated that language-related problems may constrain the effectiveness of transfer (e.g. Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Kamimura, 1996; Uysal, 2008; Wolfersberger, 2003).

The fourteenth mostly believed statement is about the role of culture in writing instruction. EFL instructors have a moderate belief that "cultural factors have considerable impacts on students' writing performance in English" (M=4.60). It is clear that language and learning are inextricably related to culture (Kramsch, 1993). Therefore, one's L1 culture may exert a huge impact on learning to write in L2 and on the L2 written texts, accordingly. The process of learning to write takes place in a context where the culture of that language dominates. Therefore, one can learn to write together with its culture. Turkish writing education has different cultural features from Western writing education. First of all, writing is seen as a craft rather than a learned skill. This misconception leads to little explicit writing instruction in Turkish education (Uysal, 2008). Next, Turkish writing instruction differs from Western writing instruction in different ways such as paragraph organization and rhetorical conventions. Uysal (2008) summarized the differences as product-centered with a heavy emphasis on grammar, organization around introduction, body, and conclusion, little amount of writing practice outside of the school, little amount of writing instruction, heavy focus on informative prose. Furthermore, Turkish students have little experience with multiple-drafting, multiple revision, and free or journal writing practices. Good writing in Turkish

writing education should be clear, fluent, vivid, detailed, without grammatical mistakes, and involve old sayings, proverbs or maxims. Uysal (2008) found that Turkish writing instruction emphasizes clarity of main ideas, organization of ideas, grammatical correctness, mechanics, and spelling, using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas and title. On the other hand, English writing instruction focuses on the organization of ideas, thesis statement, topic sentence in each paragraph, clarity of main ideas, using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas, and title. She further claimed that thesis statement, topic sentence, and cohesion can be new and strange for Turkish writers (2008) because writers are not provided with such knowledge. Furthermore, Enginarlar (1991) demonstrated that Turkish writing instruction has different writing conventions than English writing. His study revealed that Turkish students concluded their essays with a poetic ending, proverb, or a formulaic hortative remark. As it was suggested by contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966), each language has different writing conventions. Having adopted the writing conventions of their native language and culture, individuals may have difficulty in writing in L2 because the available L1 writing conventions constrain their performance. Another cultural difference in writing between Western and Eastern cultures is the use of rhetorical appeals. Relatedly, Kamimura and Oi's (1998) study indicated that while American students used rational appeals and logical reasoning with a more assertive stance, Japanese students adopted more affective appeals and strategies to trigger empathy. Similarly, because Turkish writing traces back to eastern culture, it can be safe to state that affective appeals are more common than rational ones in Turkish writing. Moreover, there are also differences between reader-responsible and writer-responsible languages (Hinds, 1987). In languages such as English, writer is responsible for effective communication in order to help the reader comprehend the text. In languages such as Japanese and Korean, on the other hand, reader is responsible for understanding the message from the text. As Clyne (1987) expressed, it is the English language culture that urges writers to generate clear and well-organized texts. That's why, coherence and cohesion are extremely important in English writing. It can be discussed that the Turkish language can be considered as reader-responsible. Turkish writers tend to start and finish their writing with an example. The possible reason for this convention may be that they may expect examples to explain the point themselves and readers to understand the message from the given examples. For example, Uysal (2008) explored that some of her participants only provided examples without a topic sentence in their writing. They stated that there is no need to write a topic sentence as long as you have good examples. Last but

not the least, there are major differences between individualist and collectivist cultures in writing. It is widely recognized that Western cultures adopted individualism, critical thinking, and questioning in education, whereas Eastern cultures emphasize group harmony. These kinds of cultural differences affect L2 writing methods or techniques in L2 writing instruction. For example, instructors should be aware of the fact that students from collectivist cultures may not be willing to participate in peer feedback activities because they avoid criticizing their peers' writing in order not to ruin the group harmony.

The sixteenth mostly favoured belief "writing is a mechanism through which we acquire advanced language competencies" (M=4.52). This line of belief views writing as a contributor for improving other language competencies rather than a means of communication. In fact, traditionally, L2 writing was widely seen as the 'handmaiden' of language learning, enhancing especially linguistic and lexical knowledge (Hirvela & Belcher, 2016, p. 596). This misconception is still subject to debate in EFL contexts (Kern, 2000). As an essential mechanism for learning (Weigle, 2002), writing can be applied to develop individuals' knowledge via reflective practices in the English-speaking world (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). In addition, writing skills and critical thinking skill are viewed as closely interconnected, and thus writing expertise can be an indication of individuals' higher-order cognitive and reasoning skills. It is argued that writing should be subordinated to develop other aspects of language in the EFL context (Homstad & Thorston, 2000). Heeding the philosophy of the audiolingual method, such beliefs devalue of the real role of writing.

The seventeenth most frequent belief among the participants is about the role of L2 writing ability or expertise on students' L2 writing performance. EFL instructors believed that "students' writing performance in English is very much influenced by their writing ability" (M=4.51). The respondents moderately hold this belief that L2 writing ability is one of the main determinants of English writing performance. It could be interpreted that because the participants may view writing as an innate gift, they less favour the role of writing ability in students' writing performance, as it was the case for explicit writing instruction. In literature, it was revealed that writing ability is significant, but not exclusive, factor in students' writing quality. For example, Kubota (1998) found that L1 writing skills, lack of L2 writing experience, and low L2 proficiency played a key role in the quality of organization. Cumming (1989) investigated the roles of L1 writing expertise and L2 proficiency on the

quality of L2 writing. The findings revealed that writing expertise was related to qualities of content and organization, attention to demanding dimensions of writing, problem-solving practices, and control strategies, not only in L1 but also in L2. Thus, the writers with insufficient writing expertise did not manage to regulate their cognition appropriately, and their writing resulted in poor quality. It is plausible that writing ability and explicit writing instruction may be closely related to each other since the latter promotes the former. Jones (1982, as cited in Raimes, 1985) compared the written texts and writing process of one poor and one good writer. It was revealed that writing strategies impacted on writers' rhetorical patterns. The poor writer focused on the text rather than the ideas, while the good writer used her ideas to produce the text. The reason behind this situation was explained by Jones as the poor writer had never been trained on how to compose, and this lack of composing competence was the reason of her difficulty in writing. With these findings in mind, it is worth noting that EFL instructors should teach students how to write through explicit instruction. Next, explicit strategy training should be incorporated into writing instruction. As it was indicated in Jones's (1992) study, if students have little or no writing expertise, they may deal with surface-level concerns, and they can have difficulty in expressing their ideas freely. Rather than grammatical competence, composing competence should be promoted in L2 writing classes. In congruent with Jones (1992), Zamel (1982) found that composing competence is more essential than grammatical competence for better writing performance. One year later, Zamel's (1983) study revealed that the skilled L2 writers revised more and spent more time on their texts than the unskilled writers. The unskilled L2 writers, on the other hand, revised less and spent less time on their texts than the skilled writers. These findings indicate that composing ability matters for L2 students. Unless they attain a certain level of writing ability, they cannot revise and write better. The common finding that Jones (1982), Jacobs (1982), Zamel (1982), and Hildenbrand (1985, as cited in Silva, 1993) noted was that it is not L2 linguistic competence, but other factors that determine students' writing performance, and composing competence may be the number one. Within this context, teachers should create opportunities for students such as practice, exposure to writing, explicit instruction of writing conventions, strategy training, etc. in order to enhance students' L2 writing ability.

The twenty-first mostly favoured belief is about the role of discourse-level competencies in writing. The participants weakly supported that "discourse level competencies are the most important parts of writing in English" (M=4.08). The EFL instructors participated in this

study believed that there are more important factors than discourse competence in L2 writing. It is more likely that because EFL instructors may consider discourse competence as more related to academic writing settings, they less embrace this belief. In this sense, they may think that discourse competence is not that important in classroom writing activities. However, as an essential component of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), it involves the ability to organize, structure, and arrange written texts. For an effective written communication, expert writers should be able to organize, construct, and arrange written messages through suitable cohesive and rhetorical devices and discourse markers which are appropriate within a specific genre. Thus, the development of discourse competence is viewed as "a key element of an individual's overall communicative competence in a language" (Bruce, 2008, p. 5). Within this context, L2 writing students should be equipped with the knowledge of appropriate cohesion, coherence, and rhetorical organization to combine ideas in the writing process. From this perspective, discourse competence is closely related to genre knowledge (Connor & Mbaye, 2002). That is, if L2 students have sufficient discourse competence, they can understand and construct texts written for various purposes and in various genres. Similarly, genre knowledge can allow students to understand different written texts with different discourse structures and to construct communicatively effective texts which are suitable for different discourse communities.

The Strong, Moderate, and Weak Beliefs about Teaching L2 Writing

In the current study, the first and eighteenth most frequently beliefs are about the role of different genres and genre-knowledge development in L2 writing instruction. Since these belief statements are in the same direction, they are discussed together. The respondents held strongly that "instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to master various genres of writing (e.g. essay, CV, recipe, letter of complaint, and research article, etc.)" (M=5.39). On the other hand, EFL instructors have a moderate belief that "genre knowledge development (writing for different audiences and purposes) should be one of the significant dimensions of English writing instruction" (M=4.73). It seems that they recognize the importance of different genres. Yet, they do not wholeheartedly support the development of genre knowledge in L2 writing instruction. One of the possible reasons behind this view may be that for instructors, raising students' awareness about various genres

is enough in EFL context. In addition, it is also more likely that because of L2 proficiency concerns of students in EFL contexts, instructors may not want to provide detailed knowledge and skills about genres. In this sense, heeding Hartwell's (1985) famous quote about the teaching of grammatical rules, EFL instructors may have thought that the development of genre knowledge in the Turkish context is "forcing starving people to master the use of a knife and fork before they can eat" (p. 380). That is, EFL instructors may suggest that Turkish students have more urgent needs other than genre knowledge in writing instruction. Apart from these possible reasons behind this belief, it can also be speculated that EFL instructors involved in this study may not have sufficient knowledge and skills in order to be able to equip their students with such knowledge and skills about genre approach. The participants might not be trained on writing approaches in detailed during undergraduate or graduate years. In fact, it can be argued that prospective teachers are trained as language teachers in general rather than writing teachers in Turkish higher education, without specific training on writing instruction in Turkey. Similarly, even though the participants of this study recognize the importance of genre approach, in practice, L2 students are just required to write about decontextualized facts with paying little or no attention to readers apart from their teacher. Within this context, their written texts are evaluated according to grammatical accuracy and clear and detailed exposition. In the same vein, Yiğitoğlu (2011) put forward that the role of metacognitive genre awareness on writing instructors' classroom practices has been ignored in the L2 writing field, and this is the case for Turkish writing education. The reason behind this situation may be that because genre-based pedagogies gained popularity with the influence of communicative language teaching camp, its importance has been recently recognized in the field of L2 writing. Despite its infancy, the majority of EFL instructors in this study favoured this pedagogy to writing instruction. This indicates the fact that beliefs exist in a dynamic and evolving system that continues to change and grow over a lifetime (Casanave, 2004). In addition, the participants may have acquired this belief from books or article through self-study, which is one of the significant sources of teachers' beliefs about L2 writing (Casanave, 2004). Having emerged as a reaction to process approaches, genre-based approach views writing mainly as an attempt to communicate with the reader (Hyland, 2004). According to this camp, good writers are the ones who are able to take into account the needs and expectations of their readers in the target contexts. This orientation allows individuals to recognize the ways how language is used to engage in specific communicative situations and to create communicatively appropriate texts for different

purposes. In other words, it is the ability to write under a variety of conditions for a variety of purposes. Drawing largely on the theory of systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1994), the work of Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1986), a genre-based orientation to writing instruction provides socially situated means of communication (Tardy, 2013). It also provides effective lens through which individuals can be exposed to the social nature of writing. Empirical studies demonstrated that genre knowledge is an essential factor in constructing the written product. Through writing on various tasks and for various purposes, students can systematically develop their linguistic, lexical, and organizational knowledge (Hyland, 2009). Classroom pedagogies of genre orientation involve scaffolding, collaboration, peer interaction, and teacher-guided learning. Genre-based pedagogies rest on the idea that learning should be built on explicit linguistic awareness, and instructors should create opportunities for students to improve their writing ability via analyzing "expert" written texts. Yet, this does not mean that learner-centered instruction is replaced with teacher-centered one. On the other hand, there are some reservations about this orientation. Especially, the adherents of the process approach concern that genre instruction can hamper learners' creativity, self-discovery, and self-expression. Furthermore, it has also been criticized for focusing primarily on texts and social contexts without paying attention to the psychological aspects of writing.

The second mostly held belief among the EFL instructors is the role of writing tasks in L2 writing instruction. The participants strongly supported the idea that "instructors should tailor writing tasks to the real-world writing needs of their students" (M=5.23). It is clear that the respondents well recognized the crucial role of writing tasks in L2 writing instruction. In fact, writing tasks lie at the heart of the writing process (Hyland, 2003). With this in mind, instructors should ensure that tasks are based on students' writing needs and interest (Weigle, 2002). That is, authenticity and interactivity should be the main tenets of writing tasks. However, it can be argued that writing tasks Turkish students are assigned may not attract their interest and be relevant to their interest. For example, Uysal' (2008) survey revealed that most of the time the students were assigned to write about a proverb, a saying of a philosopher, a maxim of a famous person, and historical or national topics, etc. Within this context, such kind of writing tasks may not be attractive and motivating enough for students. Even, these tasks may demotivate students in the process of writing.

There are five beliefs statements regarding process approaches to writing instruction in teaching L2 writing subscale. While four of them were strongly favoured by the participants, only one of them was weakly held. This is a clear indication of adoption of process approach philosophies among EFL instructors involved in the present study. The belief statements related to the process approach, or known as writer-oriented writing approach are based on expressivist and cognitivist strands. This approach is known as writer-oriented approach since it takes the writer rather than the text, as the point of departure (Hyland, 2009). Regarding the expressivist orientation, the participants strongly believed in the importance of creative writing and individual voice in English writing instruction. The third most frequent belief is that "creative writing such as free writing and journal writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression" (M=5.20). Besides, the twelfth mostly held belief is that "instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to develop their individual voice in English writing classes" (M=5.02). Free writing and journal writing are two essential mediums of creative writing. They are also known as fluency-oriented techniques in the L2 writing process. This view rest on the assumption that thinking precedes writing and that expression of ideas freely can lead to self-discovery and the development of thinking skills. In this sense, writing development facilitates cognitive development. Furthermore, considering writing as a creative act of discovery, the proponents of this view harshly resist explicit writing instruction, based mainly on grammatical accuracy (e.g. Elbow, 1998; Murray, 1985). For them, writing is learnt, not taught. They further assume that expressive and creative writing can lead to self-discovery and, as a result, to individual voice (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Furthermore, free writing and journal writing can build writing fluency, which is one of the important tenets of writing performance. One of the potential benefits of journal writing is that teachers act as real and nonjudgmental readers of students' writing, developing a sense of real audience as well (Casanave, 1993, 1995; Peyton, 1990). There exist a number of empirical studies in the literature favoring the positive effect of journal writing on writing fluency. For example, Casanave (1995) found that Japanese university students improved their writing fluency greatly through journal writing. Beside fluency, journal writing contributed students to develop their grammatical accuracy over time (Casanave, 1994; Duppenthaler, 2002). Nevertheless, there are some reservations about this orientation in the writing literature. It is argued that this view overemphasizes learner-centeredness. In addition, in ESL/ EFL contexts, its assumption is too unrealistic that all learners have similar inborn cognitive and creative talent and all they

need is just the suitable condition to express their ideas. It is safe to claim that too much attention to fluency at the expense of accuracy may not meet students' expectations, especially in EFL contexts where teachers' grammar instruction and correction are welcomed (Ferris, 1995). Relatedly, another potential drawback of fluency-oriented writing instruction may be that the tasks that are not interesting and appealing for students may demotivate them in the process of writing. It seems unlikely that fluency-first approach may be adopted in some contexts where writing is involved in traditional and national exams, and writing accuracy is one of the criteria of it. However, in other contexts like Turkey where writing is not involved in the national examination and there is no concern in relation to the accuracy, instructors can employ a fluency-oriented approach in their writing classes. Regarding the debate on accuracy and fluency, L2 writing researchers and teachers tend to agree that both are crucial for effective writing performance. Therefore, EFL instructors should invest a judicious amount of time both for writing fluency and writing accuracy.

With respect to cognitivist orientation, EFL instructors strongly embraced two statements, ranked the seventh and eighth, including "instructors should create a habit of rewriting, revising and editing in students through writing multiple drafts" (M=5.09) and "instructors should present English writing strategies (e.g. outlining, webbing, planning, free writing, rereading, revising, editing, etc.) through explicit modeling" (M=5.07). On the other hand, the participants weakly supported that "instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product", which is ranked nineteenth, (M=4.20). These findings indicate that EFL instructors in this study strongly favour cognitive processes in writing, but not at the expense of the textual product. With the influence of Emig's (1971) seminal study, writing was seen as a process rather than a product. Although, in practice, process approaches may not appear in writing classes in Turkey (Uysal, 2008), EFL instructors have strong belief favouring this orientation in writing instruction. The possible reason behind this finding may be that, as aforementioned, because beliefs have dynamic and evolving nature which goes on to change and grow over time (Casanave, 2004; Rokeach, 1968), instructors might acquire them later. Besides, the participants may obtain such beliefs from books or research article via self-study, which is one of the significant sources of teachers' beliefs about L2 writing (Casanave, 2004). As it was stated among the statements involved in the nature of L2 writing subscale, cultural factors exert a huge influence on writing philosophy and instruction. In Turkey, instructors may tend to see writing as a craft and one-shot activity, and this view leads to disregard

multiple drafting and multiple revision processes, and, in turn, lack of rewriting habit in L2 writing instruction. For example, Uysal (2008) observed that the majority of her participants did not have a habit of rewriting in writing process. What's more, she maintained that most participants did not experience process approaches to writing instruction. As a result of this, her participants were not trained on revision strategies in either Turkish or English writing instruction. Recursive nature of writing rest on the assumption that writing is multiple drafting and multiple revision. Relatedly, it is discussed in the literature that writing can be learnt by writing, practice, and experience (Casanave, 2004; Kroll, 2003; Vespoor & Smiskova, 2012). Similarly, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) claimed that "writing skill does not come naturally; it is gained through conscious effort and much practice. Writing involves training, instruction, practice, experience, and purpose" (p. 6). Based on the findings of this study, it seems that EFL instructors recognize the paramount importance of habit of rewriting in the development of L2 writing, and they are aware of the effect of multiple drafting on the development of rewriting habit. Regarding the presentation of English writing strategies through explicit modelling, the participants strongly believed that they should train L2 students on writing strategies via explicit modelling. Their strong belief indicates that they are willing to present English writing strategies to their students through explicit modelling. Yet, this does not demonstrate that they have sufficient knowledge and skills on English writing strategies. Relatedly, Uysal (2008) found that most of her participants did not have knowledge about revision strategies because they were not trained through process-oriented approaches. In addition to equipping L2 students with the knowledge of writing strategies, EFL instructors, more importantly, should develop their learners' metacognitive awareness on these strategies. That is, L2 students should be able to reflect on the writing strategies they employ to write. In order to raise such awareness, EFL instructors should conduct metacognitive strategy training and follow-up classroom discussion. In this way, L2 students gradually become independent strategy users in their writing process. According to Canale and Swain (1980), one of the major components of communicative competence is strategic competence, which constitutes the ability to employ a wide range of communicative strategies. Likewise, from L2 writing standpoint, L2 students should have strategic competence in writing through which they can use a variety of writing strategies independently. In literature, there are empirical studies regarding the effectiveness of teacher modelling on students' revision abilities. For instance, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) demonstrated that teacher modelling and support for revising in a strategic way can enhance

students' revision skills. They further maintained that students should be presented teacher modelling on problem-solving strategies in writing. With regard to process vs. product debate, EFL instructors do not fully support the belief that writing is a process of planning, generating, and revising at the expense of the belief that writing is a textual product. The possible explanation of this situation may be that EFL instructors were more likely schooled in the audiolingual behaviorist camp, and thus they might not disregard the product-oriented approach. While the process orientation focuses on the processes which writers experience when composing, the product orientation views writing as a product generated from the writer's mastery of linguistic and lexical knowledge (Hyland, 2003). For the process-oriented approach, writing processes or strategies such as planning, generating, drafting, revising, etc. are the pillars of the writing instruction. The content rather than the form was emphasized. However, there are some criticisms about process approach. The main criticism is that this orientation ignores the social aspects of writing instruction. In addition, it disregards the context and the community in which writing takes place (Hirvela et al., 2016). In fact, every single writing theory or approach has a strong aspect, but lacks other important dimensions. Therefore, they are all limited since they rely solely on lexical-syntactic features, discourse-level structures, cognitive processes, audience-awareness, social context, etc. (Hyland, 2003; Silva, 1990). With the complex nature of L2 writing in mind, EFL instructors seem to adopt an eclectic approach to writing instruction. As Cumming (2016) suggests, the rationale behind eclecticism in L2 writing instruction is that "the multi-faceted nature, international diversity, and varied purposes for which people perform, study, teach, and assess L2 writing mean that no single theory could ever account for L2 writing comprehensively" (p. 65).

The fourth most frequently embraced belief is about the role of extensive reading on L2 writing skill. The EFL instructors strongly believed that "English writing skills cannot be acquired by writing alone but also need to be supported with extensive reading" (M=5.17). This result shows that the participants well recognize the close connection between writing and reading skills. This view may indicate that they can make use of reading texts or sources in their writing classes. However, traditionally, reading and writing were viewed as separate skills and were taught in a separate way (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). In the 1980s, with the influence of cognitive psychology, researchers and scholars recognized that reading and writing have similar underlying sub-processes (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Zamel, 1992). With this recognition in mind, recently, researchers have integrated reading and writing skills in

language curricula (Belcher & Hirvela, 2001; Grabe & Zhang, 2013; Hirvela, 2004). In the same vein, Hedgcock and Ferris (2009) express that "few would argue against the view that reading and writing are inextricably connected" (p. 188). In EFL contexts, reading is an essential source of input for language learning. Similarly, regarding L2 writing, reading texts can also be used as a source text in the process of writing (Eisterhold, 1990). In addition, Krashen (1984) claims that self-initiated reading for pleasure can be the main contributor to writing competence. In literature, there are a number of empirical studies investigating the effect of reading on writing development (e.g. Lee, 2005; Lee, 2015; Lee & Hsu, 2009). Testing a hypothesized structural model, Lee (2005) has attempted to explore the relationship of writing in English as a foreign language by Taiwanese university students to a variety of factors including writing apprehension, writer's block, free reading, self-initiated writing, and students' beliefs about and attitudes toward the instructional activities. The study revealed that among others, free voluntary reading was the only significant determinant of students' writing performance.

The fifth and sixth mostly favoured beliefs are related to explicit instruction of English writing and writing conventions. The participants were consistent and they strongly supported these two belief statements with the same mean scores. They believe that "explicit instruction on how to write in English should be a part of English writing courses" (M=5.12) and "instructors should train students about English writing conventions (e.g. thesis statement, topic sentence, deductive organization, etc.) to generate effective text" (M=5.12). Although the participants moderately embraced the belief that writing is a skill that can be taught through instruction and practice in the nature of L2 writing subscale, here, it seems that they wholeheartedly support explicit writing instruction on English writing conventions. As it was noted above, the participants involved in Uysal's (2008) study expressed that they were not trained on process-oriented approach, and they were not familiar with certain terms such as thesis statement, topic sentence, cohesion, and so on which are related to English writing conventions. Likewise, the EFL instructors involved in the present study might not be trained on these writing conventions, and they might have had difficulties in writing in English because of the lack of knowledge on English writing conventions. Relatedly, it is noted that both L1 and L2 writing instruction have been reported to be a problematic area in the Turkish context (Durukafa 1992; Gökalp & Gonca, 2001; Inal, 2006; Yalçın 1999). There is not a structured and strict writing education, and it focuses mainly on writing around introduction, body, and conclusion with good examples or saying and beautiful language

(Uysal, 2008). Another potential problem in Turkish writing education may be that teachers just give the topic and ask students to write. To be able to write, students need to know how to make an outline, they need to have knowledge on planning, they need to know about generating and drafting stages, they need to have sufficient textual and genre knowledge to accomplish the task, and etc. Without these necessary knowledge and skills, students cannot communicate effectively in writing. With their own difficulties in English writing in their mind, the participants may strongly support these belief statements on explicit writing instruction. such kind of beliefs may also emerge through intuition and experience. In literature, researchers found that explicit writing instruction can exert significant influence on both L1 and L2 writing development (e.g. Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2008; 2012; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009). Similarly, Leki (1991) also suggests that novice L2 writers should get explicit instruction on reader expectations and cultural differences in English writing. In addition, in order to raise students' awareness of different writing conventions, teachers can also make use of contrastive rhetoric to demonstrate that English has different writing conventions such as model texts. On the other hand, there is a hot debate on the appropriateness and implementation of Western writing pedagogies in ESL/EFL contexts (Casanave, 2009). It is warned that Western writing pedagogies should not be imposed in ESL/EFL contexts. As Kubota and Lehner (2004) suggest, the aim should be empowerment and enhancement rather than assimilation. English writing conventions should be taught as an additive rather than subtractive literacy. Students L1 writing background and experiences should be valued and seen as a resource rather than a hindrance. In this sense, Turkish L2 students' preferences such as beautiful language, questions, and anecdotes can be employed for empowering L2 writing. Apart from assimilation concerns, there may be conflicts between theories of writing instruction and the practices of L2 writing teachers in classrooms (Hedgecock, 2010; Zhu, 2010). For example, Clachar (2000) investigated Turkish teachers' attitudes toward Western writing approaches to the teaching of writing and found that more than half of the participants opposed to Western writing pedagogies including process and rhetorical approaches as these pedagogies are different from Turkish literacy practices. It was noted that Turkish writing education has writing conventions different from that of Western writing. Yet, the findings of this study indicate that EFL instructors do not embrace the common belief that writing is a craft in Turkish writing education. In light of these findings, it is plausible to express that Turkish EFL instructors are open to explicit writing instruction on English writing conventions or explicit strategy training in their L2 writing

classes. Still, it cannot be foreseen that the participants' actual classroom practices are congruent with their beliefs.

The ninth most frequent belief is about using authentic text models in writing classes. The participants strongly supported the belief that "instructors should make use of authentic text models in English writing instruction" (M=5.03). It has been widely recognized that authentic text models can be a great opportunity for students to raise awareness on how texts are organized to accomplish different purposes (Hyland, 2003). The underlying pedagogical basis of using text models relies on genre-based pedagogies. First and foremost rational behind it is that L2 students can gain knowledge of different genres. As it was discussed above, teachers can also make use of model texts in order to provide explicit writing instruction. In addition, Yiğitoğlu (2011) has lamented that metacognitive genre awareness has been disregarded in the field of L2 writing. In this sense, authentic text models can be an effective means of raising students' metacognitive genre awareness in L2 writing instruction. In turn, this awareness can lead students to develop text-generating strategies. In order to demonstrate how writing varies across genres and to sensitize students, model texts of target discourse can be analyzed, examined, compared, and reflected (Hyland, 2003). This reflective process is known as 'consciousness raising' (Swales & Feak, 2000). However, there are some concerns about the authenticity of the text models. It is argued that it may not be appropriate to use pure model texts without modifying or simplifying for classroom purposes (Hyland, 2003). In light of this concern, adopting both authentic and appropriate text models is a huge burden on EFL instructors. It also requires both expertise and time. Besides, the adherents of the process-oriented approach argue that text models can hamper creativity and inventiveness through leading imitation (Zamel, 1983). Regarding L2 language proficiency, authentic texts may be too demanding and demotivate L2 students. In this situation, teachers can create their own model texts considering authenticity concerns. It was also suggested that an amalgam of authentic and created text models can be adopted in L2 writing instruction.

The tenth mostly supported belief is the adoption of various instructional materials in L2 writing instruction. The EFL instructors participated in this study strongly believed that "besides printed materials, other kinds of teaching materials (audio, video, digital) should be used in English writing instruction" (M=5.02). It seems that they have the understanding of the importance of diversity in teaching materials. It is more likely that EFL teachers may

benefit diverse teaching materials in their classroom, and thus they favor such belief. Or, they may have to follow textbooks solely, and they may have difficulty in exposing students to different materials, and thus, they might have acquired this belief intuitively. Instructional materials are key elements of L2 writing instruction and are extensively employed to stimulate, model, and scaffold writing (Hyland, 2003). In EFL contexts, teaching materials are extremely important since they are the only means of input and contacting English. Pedagogically, from the standpoint of genre-based pedagogies, instructional materials facilitate students' recognition of different genres (Hyland, 2003). Before adopting different types of instructional materials, EFL instructors should have well-comprehended the different roles that materials play in L2 writing instruction. Only when can they choose the best alternatives. Instructors should choose the instructional materials which are suitable for students' profiles, needs, interests, and curriculum objectives. On the other hand, there exist some concerns about instructional materials, particularly for textbooks, in the literature. It is argued that textbooks hamper creativity in writing instruction. Teachers may overdependently use materials and this may lead to the philosophy of teach the book. Moreover, there may be discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and the philosophy of imposed teaching material (Casanave, 2004). For effective writing instruction, teachers should be free to choose or adopt their instructional materials in the process of writing instruction since they are the ones who know their context and students best.

The eleventh mostly embraced belief is about the role of collaborative writing in writing instruction. The respondents strongly support the belief that "instructors should provide opportunities for students to do collaborative writing" (M=5.02). This view indicates that EFL instructors are well aware of the fact that writing is a social practice rather than individual or solitary activity. The underlying theoretical rationale behind the collaboration is social constructivism and sociocultural theory (Dewey, 1974; Vygotsky, 1978), proposing that knowledge is socially constructed through the collaboration of individuals in a community. Collaboration can simply be defined as "the production of a text by two or more writers" (Storch, 2016, p. 386). There are three distinguishing features of collaborative writing including process, product, and shared ownership (Storch, 2016). The first benefit of collaborative writing is that it includes considerable interaction between/among the writers in the process of composing. The second benefit of collaborative writing is that it brings about the generation of a single product with the contribution of each writer. The third benefit of collaborative writing is "the sense of a shared ownership" of the product in which all the

writers play an active role from beginning to the end (p. 386). In brief, through giving students' responsibility for learning, it promotes both cognitive and social dimensions of writing (Wigglesworht & Storch, 2012). There are empirical studies which examined the role of collaborative writing on students' writing development. For example, focusing on the role of collaboration in the deductive reasoning, Crinon and Marin (2010) found that peer collaboration improved students' strategic understanding and led to an overall development of their writing strategies. EFL instructors can use collaborative writing as classroom practices or in computer-mediated contexts through wikis and blogs.

The thirteenth mostly favoured belief is about the role of technology in L2 writing classrooms. The participants strongly believe that "instructors should use and promote technologies in their English writing classrooms" (M=5.01). Although it is most likely that the participants might not be trained through computer technologies, they have a strong belief in the importance of technology in writing instruction. This is a good indication of the dynamic and evolving nature of beliefs. Regarding the role of technology in L2 writing, technology is affecting writing in numerous ways. The growth of technology has already changed the nature of writing, teaching writing and accordingly assessing writing in important ways. Similarly, Hyland (2003) notes that "technology-based pedagogies enlivens instruction, improves students' writing skills, and facilitates collaboration and interaction both within and beyond the classroom" (p. 143). Thus, EFL instructors should be able to incorporate new technologies into their writing classes. The most common ways of computer technologies are corpora, concordancing, collaborative writing, and peer feedback practices in writing instruction. For example, it has been noted recently that collaborative online writing through wiki has a wide range of potential language learning benefits (Ducate, Lormica, & Moreno, 2011; Zorko, 2009). Especially regarding affective aspects of computer technologies, research suggests that computers can improve L2 students' motivation, confidence, and attitudes about L2 writing (Hyland, 2003). According to Pennington (2003), computers have the following benefits for L2 writers as improved writing efficiency and effectiveness; improved motivation; the improved amount of writing; more effective use of language; creative potential; and interactivity and collaboration. In addition, computer-mediated communication can empower and motivate less skilled writers through providing a sense of writing for an audience (Ware, 2004). On the other hand, teachers might not be equipped with the knowledge and skills of computer technologies. Therefore, they may be unwilling to adopt computers in their writing classrooms. Yet, the finding of the present

study revealed that the participants of this study wholeheartedly support the belief about technology integration in writing instruction. It seems that they may be familiar with computer technologies or they may be willing to learn them. Still, there are some arguments that computer technologies can undermine the human interaction. It is argued that teachers cannot be replaced by computer technologies in education, rather being supported with them (Hyland, 2003). In brief, EFL instructors should take into account the advantages and disadvantage of computer technologies in L2 writing instruction because computer technologies are not still fully supported in L2 writing classes (Casanave, 2004).

The fourteenth most frequent belief is about proper textual borrowing in L2 writing. The respondents strongly hold the belief that "students should be trained on how to do proper textual borrowings from multiple sources" (M=5.00). This belief is closely related with the statement about reading and writing connection since teachers should be careful when exploiting reading resources in their writing classes. Proper textual borrowing or source use and plagiarism or inappropriate textual borrowing are central to L2 writing instruction. Proper textual borrowing refers to the appropriate use of sources, whereas plagiarism is the inappropriate use of sources. More specifically, plagiarism can be defined as "presenting language or ideas which are derived from another work as if they were one's own" (Pecorari, 2016, p. 329). This issue is so essential that Hyland (2009) suggested that proper textual borrowing be one of the central components of the writing assessment. Because different cultures have different perceptions, attitudes, and practices with regard to plagiarism, there are no clear-cut rules, and it is a controversial issue. For example, Weigle and Montee (2012) found that raters differ on the acceptability of textual borrowing in the process of testing, and they rightly concluded that it is even more demanding for L2 learners. Moreover, the development of the Internet makes it more complicated and crucial to teach how to use texts appropriately because of the accessibility of texts via the Internet (Bloch, 2001). It has been pointed out that because of different cultural norms and beliefs, EFL/ESL students may have different perceptions about textual borrowing. For example, with the influence of Confucian traditions in the Chinese context, Chinese students may be more prone to plagiarism (Matalene, 1986). Nevertheless, in addition to culture, lack of training source text use has also been reported among the factors of plagiarism (Bloch, 2001). There are a number of students in EFL/ESL contexts who do not know how to quote, cite, and paraphrase source texts in their writing (Pittam, Elander, Lusher, Fox, & Payne, 2009). Therefore, L2 students need to have training on proper textual borrowing such as quotations, paraphrases,

summaries, etc. Relatedly, Campbell's (1990) study revealed that language proficiency exerts significant influence on proper textual borrowing in writing since such skills require a certain level of proficiency in the target language. Another potential danger of using source texts may be that if L2 students do not have sufficient composing competence, they may rely heavily on background texts in their writing. In this sense, explicit training on proper textual borrowing should be a crucial component of L2 writing instruction, especially in EFL contexts because of cultural differences.

The fifteenth mostly supported belief is about accuracy in writing instruction. The EFL instructors moderately believed that "instructors should employ guided writing to make students gain accuracy in English writing" (M=4.91). It can be speculated that because L2 writing is not included in national examination and viewed less important skill in Turkish writing education, EFL instructors may not put heavy emphasis on accuracy. Influenced by structuralism and behaviorism, the guided writing was popular between the 1940s and 1960s. Yet, it is believed that this orientation is still alive in may ESL/EFL contexts. Hyland (2003) notes that "for many who adopt this view, writing is regarded as an extension of grammar - a means of reinforcing language patterns through habit formation and testing learners' ability to produce well-formed sentences" (p. 3). Error-free writing and accuracy were the main tenets of this orientation (Pincas, 1962). Within this context, students simply practice the language structures they have learned previously. In fact, writing served as a subsidiary skill aiming at reinforcing the linguistic structures and functioned under the service of other language skills, especially speaking with the influence of the popularity of Audiolingual method at that time. The major teaching methods involved guided composition, gap filling and substitution exercises (Hirvela et al., 2016). According to this orientation, writing is context-free, and teacher is an expert whose role is to transmit knowledge to novices. However, this orientation was heavily criticized for not improving students' writing performance, and not preparing students for real-life written communication. It is also argued that syntactic complexity or grammatical accuracy may be the main determinants of good writing. For instance, L2 students can form grammatically accurate sentences in a decontextualized environment, and still may not generate appropriate written texts. The consideration of writing as a decontextualized activity is severely criticized by the adherents of genre-based pedagogies as writing is a socially situated activity for them. In light of these claims and arguments, it is safe to express that EFL instructors should adopt a balanced way emphasizing both fluency, accuracy, and other aspects of writing.

The sixteenth mostly embraced belief is about eclecticism in writing instruction. The respondents moderately support the belief that "instructors should adopt a mixture of more than one approach in teaching English writing" (M=4.91). It seems that EFL instructors do not wholeheartedly embrace this view. The rationale behind eclecticism in L2 writing instruction is that, As Cumming (2016) notes, "the multi-faceted nature, international diversity, and varied purposes for which people perform, study, teach, and assess L2 writing mean that no single theory could ever account for L2 writing comprehensively" (p. 65). The complex nature of L2 writing requires an approach which should address writer, reader, text, and social context in L2 writing instruction. Relatedly, according to Hyland (2003), L2 students need to master five types of knowledge to produce effective texts including content knowledge, system knowledge, process knowledge, genre knowledge, and context knowledge (p. 27). This can only be possible with eclecticism to writing instruction. Given that teachers' beliefs are highly eclectic (Schmidt & Kennedy, 1990), their classroom practices which are the manifestation of their beliefs can be eclectic. However, adopting more than one approach or orientation does not mean randomness or lack of theoretical basis. In contrast, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) suggest that "reasoned eclecticism requires principled decision making concerning the differential priorities that writing teachers assign to reading tasks and related literacy-oriented activities (p. 33). In light of the findings of this study, it is plausible to say that EFL instructors participated in this study are open to adopting different writing orientations in their writing classes. They should always have a theoretical drive behind their decisions, and they should employ a reasoned eclecticism.

The seventeenth mostly favoured belief is about writing practice under expert guidance. The participants moderately embrace the belief that "writing instruction should involve extensive practice under expert guidance" (M=4.80). It has been widely documented in the literature that writing requires a vast amount of practice (Casanave, 2004; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). In addition, theoretically, according to dynamic usage-based theory, experience and practice are the main tenets of language learning (Langacker, 2000), so it is the for L2 writing development. In fact, as Vespoor and Smiskova (2012) put forward, "foreign language development is a dynamic, usage-based process, in which frequency of input and use is one of the main factors" (p. 17). However, this practice is different from the practice what expressivists propose. Here, L2 students practice writing under the guidance of their teachers. In contrast, expressivists suggest that students practice writing freely without any kind of teacher intervention. The theoretical rationale behind practicing or writing under

expert guidance is the sociocultural theory. One of the main tenets of this theory is scaffolding which can be defined as "a more knowledgeable tutor working with a less expert student to provide oral feedback on a text written by the learner around a pedagogical goal" (Weissberg, 2006, p. 262). In this sense, EFL instructors act as knowledgeable experts who can demonstrate effective writing practices to novice L2 students. Actually, this kind of writing can be considered as apprenticeship training (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). It assumes that L2 students can learn how to write through working with a more knowledgeable expert on a task, and the expert person needs to model the certain actions as apprenticeship training with extensive practice. Throughout this process, L2 students can internalize and self-regulate these tasks, and they gradually become expert writers. Scaffolding does not necessarily require expert-novice interactions, but also novice-novice interaction can be possible. The gap between students' initial level (what they can do alone) and their scaffolded level (what they can do with expert guidance) is termed *the Zone of Proximal Developmen*t (Vygotsky, 1978). This process is important for students since it involves both cognitive and social interaction. Studies revealed that L2 students can attain a higher level of success through working together and with a knowledgeable person than they might have reached working alone (e.g. Donato, 2000). More importantly, with the help of joint construction, teachers and students share responsibility for generating texts until the students can stand alone.

The twentieth most frequent belief is about the role of surface-level conventions in the quality of writing. The respondents weakly believed that "effective English writing instruction means emphasizing upon surface-level conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) to improve the quality of student writing" (M=4.05). This result seems logical when compared to other responses of the participants. It was revealed that the EFL instructors emphasize other aspects of writing more than accuracy. Relatedly, according to Hyland (2009), taking accuracy as the point of departure for writing development may not be that plausible since syntactic complexity does not necessarily result in good writing. He maintains that relying solely on surface-level features of texts as an indicator of writing ability disregards the social and communicative aspects of writing (2009). The focus of surface-level conventions is one of the problems in Turkish writing education. Some participants of Uysal's (2008) study expressed that they were not taught how to express their ideas effectively and to organize their texts in specific ways; but rather, their Turkish writing teachers centered on grammar, punctuation, spelling, and form. On the other hand, in writing

literature, explicit teaching of grammar as a component of writing instruction is a matter of debate (Hyland, 2003). Similarly, Weigle (2002) expressed that students cannot write in the target language without linguistic and lexical knowledge of that language. In L2 writing, students should have ideas to express, but also they need to master the ways of expressing their ideas in an effective way (Hyland, 2004). Research findings indicate that EFL instructors should raise their students' awareness on language form. Instructors should also provide opportunities for their L2 students to improve their linguistic knowledge in order to communicative effectively in a variety of writing tasks (e.g. Frodesen & Holten, 2003).

The least supported belief is about the role of social and cultural factors in L2 writing. The EFL instructors weakly believe that "the focus of attention should be on the social and cultural factors that shape English writing" (M=3.63). Interestingly, the participants did not fully recognize the importance of social and cultural factors in writing instruction. Likewise, they also did not profoundly embrace one of the statements in the nature of L2 writing subscale that cultural factors have a significant impact on students' writing performance. This line of beliefs may indicate that the participants are more embraced with the philosophies of process approach. In fact, the findings are inconclusive, and there are no clear-cut differences among the statements. One possible explanation may be that because they may not have enough terminological knowledge about writing approaches, they may not relate the statements to their underlying philosophy. In literature, it is widely accepted that writing has a social and cultural dimension apart from its cognitive side. With the increasing popularity of social constructionist and socio-cultural theories in language learning, the focus of attention shifted from cognitive processes to social and cultural aspects of L2 writing. The underlying assumption of these theories is that learning takes place in specific cultural, social, and historical contexts. Without taking into consideration the sociocultural context where learning takes place, one cannot fully and appropriately recognize the entire aspect of learning (Villamil & de Guerrero, 2006). There are important cultural differences between Western and Turkish writing instruction. First and foremost difference is that Western culture sees writing as a learnable skill, whereas Turkish culture views writing as an innate talent and craft. These cultural differences affect the writing approaches and practices in education. For example, in the Turkish education system, explicit writing instruction is paid little attention (Uysal, 2008). Similarly, Western-based writing conventions (such as peer feedback, teacher-student conferences, multiple drafting, and so on) may not be easily adopted by writing instructors and L2 students. Furthermore,

Turkish and English writing have different rhetorical conventions. For instance, Turkish writing instruction emphasizes linguistic and lexical accuracy and writing around introduction, body, and conclusion. Turkish writers may not be familiar with topic sentence, thesis statement, and cohesion, which are of crucial in English writing instruction. Relatedly, Enginarlar (1991) observed that Turkish monolingual students concluded their essays with a poetic ending, proverb, or a formulaic hortative remark. Besides, there some studies indicating that the Turkish language may be a reader-responsible language rather than a writer-responsible language because Turkish writers make extensive use of examples without writing a topic sentence and thesis statement in their writing, with paying little attention to coherence and cohesion. Therefore, in light of these differences between Western and Turkish writing instruction, EFL instructors should further pay attention to social and cultural factors that play a major role in English writing.

The Strong, Moderate, and Weak Beliefs about Assessing L2 Writing

The most and eighth frequently held beliefs are about the role of feedback and new technologies in providing feedback in L2 writing instruction. The EFL instructors involved in this study strongly believed that "feedback is crucial in assisting students to move through the stages of the writing process" (M=5.26), whereas they moderately supported the view that "new technologies should be integrated into English writing instruction in providing feedback" (M=4.77). It is clear that although the participants wholeheartedly embraced the belief about the role of feedback in writing, they did not fully support the belief about the role of new technologies in providing feedback. In light of this finding, it can be speculated that EFL instructors may not have sufficient expertise on new technologies to provide feedback, and thus, they may be more hesitant regarding them. This finding may be contradictory that while the participants of Uysal's (2008) study noted that they were not familiar with multiple drafts and revision practices, EFL instructors of this study strongly believed the importance of providing feedback in L2 writing classrooms. It is likely that the participants of this study may simply recognize the importance of feedback, but, in practice, this belief may manifest itself as practice. With the influence of Flower and Hayes's (1981) seminal work on the cognitive theory of writing, providing feedback has considerably attracted researchers' and teachers' attention in the field of writing. This cognitive theory of writing emphasized the cognitive processes through which writers go when composing.

Among others, especially multiple drafts and revision processes are widely embraced in writing education. As one of the most important tasks of writing instructors, feedback plays a central role between these multiple drafts. Another theoretical basis of feedback is the sociocultural theory in which a knowledgeable expert scaffolds a novice learner through the 'zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978). For an effective feedback provision, EFL instructors should uncover their students' feedback preferences in L2 writing classrooms. Studies demonstrated that students want and value feedback, and it is likely that if the feedback contradicts students' expectations, this may demotivate students (Ferris, 2003). Therefore, feedback should be tailored according to students' needs and interest. In addition, the research indicated that feedback should be provided in a variety of modes such as teacher, peer, technological, and so on (Brinko, 1993). Recently, technological developments have significantly influenced feedback practices and provision modes in L2 writing instruction (F. Hyland et al., 2016). Accordingly, many studies have investigated the pros and cons of computer-mediated (CM) feedback in L2 writing (e.g. Burston, 2001; Milton, 2006; Ware & Warschauer, 2006). For example, CM environments can allow reaching invaluable online resources such as corpora and concordancing, which can improve both the quality of feedback and students' writing, and ultimately leads to autonomous writing development (F. Hyland et al., 2016). More importantly, CM feedback promotes "a reflective, active response and engagement with teacher feedback which offers a potential for raising student' awareness of genre-specific conventions, developing their independent learning skills, and improving their written products" (F. Hyland et al., 2016, p. 439). Yet, writing instructors may have some concerns regarding the value of this kind of feedback because it is not possible to develop an affective or psychological interaction between writers and the computer programs, which is the case between teacher and students. Therefore, it is recommended that in order to be more effective, CM feedback should be incorporated into face-to-face teacher and peer feedback in L2 writing classes (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

The second and fourth mostly favoured belief is about the role of rubrics and explicit and systematic scoring criteria in assessing writing. The participants strongly hold the belief that "instructors should use rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing to assess students' writing" (M=5.22). In the same direction, they also strongly embraced the view that "instructors should apply explicit and systematic scoring criteria to ensure fair assessment" (M=5.09). It seems that EFL instructors pay considerable attention to reliability, validity, and fairness issues in assessing writing. It was noted that reliability and construct

validity can be increased through well-designed rubrics (Weigle, 2002). In recent years, because of the criticism that the subjective scoring of writing cannot be reliable, rubrics has been started to be used for ensuring the validity of scoring. Furthermore, apart from a testing tool, rubrics can become a pedagogic tool if writing instructors hand in rubrics to students, and students see the scoring criteria before assessment (Hamp-Lyons, 1991, Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). In this way, because students can be informed about the evaluation criteria, rubrics can increase the validity of the assessment. Relatedly, making scoring criteria explicit to students can enhance construct validity in writing assessment since it influences students' comprehension of the task and thus their writing performance (Weigle, 2002). Yet, the participants of Uysal's (2008) study noted that the criteria were not often articulated explicitly to them in the process of writing assessment. This situation might cause validity problems in writing assessment. In addition to its explicitness, scoring criteria should be applied systematically to all writing tests in order to enhance reliability issues. A scoring rubric used to assess students' writing is an effective and efficient means of providing diagnostic and summative feedback for students' writing (Ene & Kosobucki, 2016). As a potential formative instructional tool, rubrics can give rise to incorporate writing assessment into writing instruction, to articulate teacher expectations, and to create opportunities for students to evaluate their own performance. Teachers should train L2 students if they want to use rubrics as an instructional tool. For example, Andrade's (2001) study revealed that training students about the instructional rubrics can improve their writing quality. On the other hand, there are some criticisms on rubrics. It is put forward that rubrics can hamper teachers' writing evaluation (Wilson, 2006), and they can also standardize the scoring of student writing.

The third mostly supported belief is that "writing assessment should include both in-class (timed) and out-of-class (untimed) writing" (M=5.18). This indicates that EFL instructors are well aware of the fact that one-shot approach through which L2 students are asked to write a single essay under time and place constraints is not an accurate and fair way of assessing their writing ability. In fact, speeded tests may not give a clearer picture of students' actual writing ability. Similarly, Weigle (2002) noted that in-class (timed) writing gives a very limited picture of what L2 students can succeed with writing in the real world. Another important difference between these two types of writing is that while out-of-class (untimed) writing acts as a learning activity, in-class (timed) writing functions as a testing activity. Furthermore, in-class (timed) writing can also be used to see what students can

accomplish by themselves. With the influence of social aspects of writing, out-of-class (untimed) writing can assess students' ability to make use of various resources such as their instructors, peers, or other resources, etc. (Weigle, 2002). In light of these important differences, it is noted that traditional timed writing tests were said to be abandoned by a number of school writing programs, and they adopted portfolio-based assessment (Elbow & Belanoff, 1986).

The fifth mostly adopted belief is about the role of corrective feedback for revision and self-editing skills. The respondents strongly favour the belief that "corrective feedback has the ability to help learners develop effective revision and self-editing skills" (M=5.03). Although there are hot debates about its effectiveness in writing literature, corrective feedback or error correction has been a widely adopted practice among ESL/EFL writing instructors. Similarly, it has been also reported that L2 students value and expect corrective feedback in their writing (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; F. Hyland, 1998; Lee, 2004). In relation to its effectiveness, there are different camps. Some argue that error correction does not lead students to improve their subsequent writing in the long-term (e.g. Fazio, 2001; Truscott, 1996, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008) whereas other researchers believe that error correction contributes students to improve their writing both in short and long-term (e.g. Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2010; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). More recently, Bitchener and Ferris (2012, p. 96) concluded that:

> (1) Written CF clearly helps students to revise and edit their texts more successfully, and these are important skills and strategies for student writers to develop; (2) longitudinal evidence, while somewhat problematic as to design, also indicates that correction can have a positive influence on student accuracy over time- at least for some students on some types of errors; and (3) both students and instructors believe in written CF, so they may be motivated to apply it (as to students) and to implement it (as to teachers) as effectively as possible (p. 96).

In light of these findings, it seems that corrective feedback is a potentially beneficial tool for writing instructors. Regarding affective aspects, students may be demotivated in the process of writing if they are not given what they expect and value, that is, corrective feedback. In some cultures, like in Turkey where teachers are considered as knowledgeable experts who transmit knowledge to novice students, L2 students often welcome error correction practices.

The sixth mostly embraced belief is about direct vs. indirect writing assessment. The EFL instructors moderately hold the belief that "students' writing ability should be assessed

through the collection of multiple samples of writing" (M=4.89). It could be interpreted that EFL instructors might not wholeheartedly favour direct assessment practice since they were trained in a multiple-choice testing culture. These cultural beliefs may hinder their direct assessment beliefs. In the Turkish education system, writing is not a prerequisite for academic success. Even, traditional and national exams involve multiple-choice and short answer questions without a writing part. Within this context, both teachers and students may not find strong motivators to conduct direct writing assessment. In fact, in many English exams in schools, teachers often do not assess writing skill as it takes too much time. Even if writing skill is assessed in the Turkish context, teachers often ask students to produce a single piece of timed writing with no choice of topic and no opportunities for revision. However, it is widely noted that given that writing is a multifaceted and complex phenomenon, "a single text cannot possibly be representative of a test taker's ability to write in a variety of contexts" (Weigle, 2002, p. 102). Besides, writing assessment including students' actual writing is one of the essential validity indicators (Hamp-Lyons, 1990). On the other hand, indirect writing assessment involves multiple-choice or short answers which assess students' grammar, vocabulary, and knowledge of written expression. Teachers may adopt this assessment type because of reliability concerns. Regarding test usefulness, indirect writing assessment focuses on reliability and practicality. Yet, classroom teachers should pay attention to construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, and impact as test usefulness. Overall, EFL instructors should embrace an integrated approach to writing assessment. They need to take into account the task, writer, scoring procedure, and reader in assessing students' writing.

The seventh most frequent adopted belief is about the role of ongoing assessment in writing instruction. The participants moderately believe that "instructors should incorporate ongoing assessment practices in English writing instruction" (M=4.88). It is plausible that since writing assessment requires expertise to some extent, EFL instructors may not be that willing to incorporate ongoing assessment practices in their writing instruction. In addition, they may see writing assessment as an extra burden on them in the process of writing instruction. Moreover, because they were trained as a language instructor in general rather than writing instructors specifically, they may think that writing assessment is not their responsibility in the writing process (Hamp-Lyons, 2003). Yet, assessment should be viewed as a major component of writing instruction. From the perspective of the affective aspects writing assessment practice play a key role on students' attitudes and motivation for future writing.

If EFL instructors want to develop students' writing ability, they should take an active role in assessing students' writing in a fair way. Thus, every instructor should have enough assessment knowledge (Hamp-Lyons, 2003). EFL instructors should not see assessment as the practice of assigning a final grade on students' paper; rather, they should recognize that assessment practices empower the instructional programs through washback. They should embrace an ongoing or diagnostic view of assessment which informs about students' strengths and weakness throughout the writing process. Heeding Weigle's (2002) view, EFL instructors should have a good recognition of the importance of assessment practices in developing their L2 writing instruction.

The ninth mostly favoured belief is about the role of self-assessment in writing assessment. The participants moderately believe that "instructors should allow students to evaluate their own writing (self-assessment)" (M=4.76). This indicates that EFL instructors are willing to create opportunities for students to conduct self-assessment practices in the process of writing instruction. ın fact, the underlying philosophy of self-assessment rest on Western culture in which individualism, critical thinking, and questioning play a significant role in education. In the process of self-assessment, students question their own writing individually. They need to think critically from a variety of perspectives. However, Turkish L2 writers may not be familiar with such practices in writing education because Turkish culture differs greatly from Western culture. In addition, in a teacher-centered education, self-assessment practice may not that appropriate because teachers' authority may be undermined. Teachers may not want to share responsibility for assessment since they are the knowledgeable experts in education. However, the finding of this study revealed that the EFL instructors participated in this study may not have that kind of misconceptions about self-assessment. Their belief indicates that they are open to self-assessment and can provide students with the required opportunities. There are a number of potential benefits of self-assessment practice in L2 writing instruction. first and foremost, it facilitates autonomous learning. Through this practice, students learn how to take control over their own learning which also improves metacognitive writing strategies through self-editing their writing. Beside, L2 students can recognize reader expectations and gain a sense of reader-awareness. Last but not the least, self-assessment is a great means of reflective practice. L2 students reflect upon their writing throughout the assessment process and try to recognize their strengths and weaknesses. Relatedly, reflective essays are a significant integral part of portfolio assessment. On this issue, Murphy and Camp (1996) note that "in the process of

creating portfolios, students learn to exercise judgment about their own work, monitor their own progress, set goals for themselves, and present themselves and their work to others" (pp. 113-114).

The tenth mostly supported belief is about the role of peer feedback in writing instruction. The respondents moderately favour the belief that "peer feedback should become an important component of English writing classes" (M=4.63). It can be speculated that EFL instructors may see themselves as knowledgeable experts in writing classrooms, and they may consider it is their responsibility to provide feedback in L2 writing instruction. Because they might be trained through teacher-centered culture, they may not accept their students as knowledgeable as to provide feedback to their peers, which may also undermine their authority in the classroom (Cooper & Selfe, 1990). Another possible rationale may be that the participants may not have enough expertise on peer feedback practices. The theoretical basis of peer feedback rests on the views of Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1986). That is, the underlying philosophy of peer feedback is consistent with collaborative learning, scaffolding, self-regulation, social interaction, and mediation. As an important alternative to teacher feedback, peer feedback a number of benefits from cognitive, affective, and social dimensions. Regarding cognitive dimension, peer feedback improves overall communicative competence (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Through this practice, L2 students can have active roles in their own development (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994), which facilitates self-regulated learning. It also improves critical thinking skills of L2 students (Leki, 1990). With respect to the social dimension, it is a golden opportunity for teachers to raise students' audience-awareness. It also develops communicative aspects of students' writing (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994). With regard to affective dimension, L2 students can gain self-confidence through recognizing their peers' strengths and weaknesses in L2 writing (Leki, 1990). Relatedly, Zhang (1995) observed that peer feedback is considered as less threatening and more appealing. On the other hand, there are some concerns regarding the applicability and effectiveness of peer feedback in L2 writing instruction. It has been widely articulated that this practice may not be appropriate and appealing for L2 students from collectivist cultures, who are more interested in group harmony rather than solitary achievement (Carson & Nelson, 1996). Another concern is that L2 students may not have sufficient L2 proficiency to be able to give effective feedback to their peers' writing (Nelson & Carson, 1998). Moreover, in the Turkish context, because students have long years of learning experience in traditional teacher-centered environment, L2 students may negative attitudes toward peer

feedback. In addition, they may be hesitant for their peers' feedback and favor teacher feedback over peer feedback. L2 students with low L2 proficiency level may hesitate to criticize and provide feedback to their peers with higher levels of L2 proficiency (Zhang, 1995). In light of these arguments, EFL instructors should conduct training sessions for effective peer feedback practices if they are to adopt peer feedback in their L2 writing classes. Such training sessions were reported to be effective in leading higher quality of revisions (Berg, 1999). Overall, it can be suggested that EFL instructors adopt different delivery modes of feedback in a balanced way without completely replacing written teacher feedback (Ferris, 2003).

The eleventh mostly believed statement is about the role of teacher-student conferences in writing instruction. The EFL instructors involved in the present study moderately embrace the belief that "students receive more focused and comprehensible feedback during teacher-student conferences than they do through written feedback" (M=4.57). It is more likely that even though EFL instructors have a recognition about the role of teacher-student writing conferences in writing instruction, they do not fully support this statement because they may not be familiar with the classroom practices of this feedback delivery mode. From the cultural standpoint, EFL instructors may not be comfortable with sharing their authority with their students in writing classes. In addition, in crowded class size, teachers may not want to invest extra time and energy for such conferences. During writing conferences, some students may hesitate to ask questions to their teacher (Leki, 1992). The theoretical basis of these conferences rests on the social constructionist theory which suggests that knowledge is constructed through negotiated interaction (Flower, 1994). They provide students with unique learning opportunities through collaborative learning and scaffolding. On the other hand, teachers should share the power relation appropriately without not being too directive. Besides, these conferences can only be successful if L2 students actively engage in negotiated interaction with the teacher, which builds a sense of ownership (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Therefore, teachers should plan the conferences well, and students should be well-prepared for the conferences so that the interaction should not be one-way knowledge transmission. Only when can detailed and focused discussions occur during these conferences (Zamel, 1985).

The twelfth mostly favoured belief is about the role of portfolio assessment in writing instruction. The respondents weakly support the belief that "portfolio assessment is the best

way of assessing students' writing in English" (M=4.47). It is most likely that the participants may not consider portfolio assessment as applicable in the Turkish context because of large class sizes. It can also be speculated that they may not have sufficient expertise on portfolio assessment. If they may not be assessed through portfolios in their language learning years, they may have negative attitudes towards using portfolios in writing assessment. In fact, as Weigle (2002) put forward, portfolio assessment practice is still its infancy in ESL/EFL contexts. The underlying philosophies of portfolio assessment rely on both process-oriented and genre-oriented approaches. From the process approach standpoint, portfolio assessment is a good way of providing feedback since portfolios constitute multiple drafts and multiple revisions. From the genre-oriented approach standpoint, portfolios involve a variety of writing samples in various genres written for different purposes. Portfolio assessment leads students to write more through multiple writing samples, to be more reflective upon their writing and writing development through reflective essays, and to assess their own writing more accurately through selection of their best products (Dunn, Luke, & Nassar, 2013; Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000). Important features of portfolio assessment include integrative, valid, meaningful, motivating, process-oriented, coherent, flexible, reflective, and formative (Hyland, 2009). Importantly, with respect to teacher professional development, research indicates that portfolio assessment is a good opportunity for teachers to develop professionally. For example, Hamp-Lyons (1999) found that teachers can learn to provide feedback through portfolio assessment. On the other hand, it is argued that portfolio assessment may not be applicable in L2 contexts because of time and practicality issues (Weigle, 2002). Therefore, EFL instructors who are willing to use employ portfolio assessment in their L2 writing instruction should get ready to invest sufficient time and energy for such practice.

The thirteenth mostly adopted belief is about the role of teacher written feedback in writing instruction. The EFL instructors weakly hold the belief that "teacher written feedback may be the least effective form of feedback for students" (M=4.10). It seems that the participants do not fully favor teacher written feedback in L2 writing instruction. It can be expected that educated through teacher-centered culture, EFL instructors might more favor this statement. This may be an indication that they have an eclectic orientation towards delivery modes of feedback in L2 writing. The frequency of other statements related to feedback delivery may demonstrate such an eclectic orientation because no statement related to feedback delivery mode is wholeheartedly supported by the EFL instructors in this study. If the participants do

not want to become, what Hairston (1986) termed, 'composition slaves', they need to employ alternative effective and efficient means to provide feedback to students' writing. In many ESL/EFL contexts, teacher written feedback plays a major role in responding to students' writing. Research on students' feedback preferences indicates that L2 students highly value and expect teacher written feedback (F. Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1991; Zhang, 1995). However, the effectiveness of this delivery mode is still being questioning as teacher written feedback is too vague, inconsistent, authoritarian, formalist, and insensitive (Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1985). Another potential drawback of teacher written feedback may be that teachers can take over students' language and writing process with too authoritative and direct feedback (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Zamel, 1985). Zamel (1985) further maintained that teachers provide feedback as language teachers rather than writing teachers. That is, they tend to focus on form and surface-level features rather than content, ideas and other global-level features. With these concerns in mind, teachers should provide written feedback on all aspects of writing such as ideas, content, organization, form, style, vocabulary, rhetorical structure, and etc., considering the needs of L2 students. In addition, a judicious amount of praise, constructive criticism, and suggestions should be provided (Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

The fourteenth and fifteenth mostly embraced beliefs are about the scoring approaches in writing assessment. The respondents weakly believe that "only one aspect of writing (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, organization, etc.) should be assessed at a time since the constructs of writing are complex and multifaceted" (M=3.28) and that "writing texts should be scored holistically since writing is a single entity" (M=3.11). It seems that the participants do not favor either analytic or holistic scoring in writing assessment. The possible reason behind it may be that they may not be familiar with the terminology of writing assessment. That is, they may conduct holistic scoring or analytic scoring through intuition, but they may not know the name of the terms and the differences between analytic and holistic scoring. In writing assessment literature, there exists an ongoing debate on scoring approaches. There is no consensus whether writing teachers should adopt holistic scoring via which a single score is assigned to each essay or an analytic via which different scores are assigned to different dimensions of writing such as content, fluency, accuracy, and so on. Within this context, it is plausible for EFL instructors not to fully favor one of the scoring approaches. For classroom assessment purposes, some researchers propose analytic scoring for diagnosing students' strengths and weaknesses (e.g. Hamp-Lyons, 1991). On the other hand,

for large-scale assessment purposes such as placement purposes, there is no consensus on holistic scoring or analytic scoring approaches (Weigle, 2016). The adherents of the process-oriented approach favor holistic scoring since it relies on students' strengths rather than weaknesses, and it is more applicable for a multiple-draft process. In contrast, evaluating different dimensions of writing such as accuracy, content, organization, vocabulary, spelling, mechanics, and etc. Such scoring can be more suitable for novice teachers since it involves explicit and comprehensible descriptors. With the help of these explicit descriptors, students can have more consistent and explicit feedback for their writing. However, analytic scoring is questioned because it is noted that "the quality of a writing sample is much more than the sum of its parts" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 314). It is believed that dividing texts into different parts can harm the written discourse. It is noted that although analytic scoring can be more reliable that holistic scoring (Huot, 1996), it takes longer to score analytically. Therefore, teachers should be aware of the cons and pros of different scoring approaches. They should have sufficient knowledge on both analytic and holistic scoring procedures. As Bachman and Palmer (1996) express, teachers can choose the best option which is most relevant to the context of writing. For example, teachers can employ holistic scoring for large-placement purposes if there are not sufficient time and resources. On the other hand, they can use analytic scoring for classroom contexts if there is a manageable number of students.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The communication demands of globalization in the 21st century requires eloquent written communication skills in English, and this makes English writing instruction a must. However, it is only recently that L2 writing instruction has been paid attention in the applied linguistics and second language teaching fields (Cheung, 2011; Matsuda, et al., 2003). Due to this negligence, writing has been the 'Cinderella' skill in second language teaching, writing instruction, particularly focusing on writing teachers has not been researched in detail, but remained as an almost untouched territory in the field. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the writing instruction in L2 (English) with a focus on EFL instructors' writing beliefs in the Turkish context. Even though there exist a number of scales on teacher beliefs in general education and language education, scale development on language skills, particularly on writing skill, has not grabbed enough attention.

Psychometrically reliable and valid data can only be gathered through administering psychometrically reliable and valid data collection instruments. The fact that questionnaires or inventories that yield reliable and valid results are scarce in the field of language teaching (Dörnyei, 2007), the present study will address this gap in developing a writing beliefs inventory which is psychometrically reliable and valid. Currently, there is a dearth of instruments to measure teachers' beliefs about writing instruction in EFL context. As a scale development study, the present study aimed at developing a writing beliefs inventory and exploring EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing through administering this newly developed inventory. In order to develop the inventory, the researcher heeded two experts'

advice on scale development (i.e. DeVellis, 2016; Dörnyei, 2003). The TEWBI, including the subscales as the nature of L2 writing, teaching L2 writing, and assessing L2 writing, has been developed through following the necessary scale development steps. Initially, the TEWBI included 94 items on three subscales.

There are three main phases of the study including Development, Validation, and Investigation phases. In the first phase (Development Phase), before the formal study, the researcher piloted the TEWBI. The piloting results showed that the TEWBI had a high internal consistency with Cronbach alpha value .89. Likewise, the three sub-scales of the inventory also had good Cronbach alpha values as .72 for the nature of writing sub-scale, .86 for teaching writing sub-scale, and .76 for assessing writing sub-scale. Next, for the formal study, the researcher recruited 311 EFL instructors to conduct EFA through IBM SPSS 22 programme, which aimed at determining the latent factors of the subscales of the TEWBI. The results of the EFA revealed that the TEWBI had a perfect reliability value with .94. This is the indication of the perfect internal consistency among the items and sub-scales. In addition, the sub-scales also had good reliability including .85 for the nature of writing, .90 for teaching writing, and .84 for assessing writing. Based on the results of the analyses, 37 items were omitted from the inventory because of low factor loadings and reliability issues. As a result, the TEWBI turned out a 57-item inventory with 21 items for the nature of writing, 21 items for teaching writing, and 15 items for assessing writing. Furthermore, the reliability indexes of the inventory and sub-scales were extremely high. These findings indicate that the TEWBI is a sound data collection instrument with high-reliability values.

In the second phase (Validation Phase), the researcher recruited 321 EFL instructors to conduct CFA which aimed at validating the structure of the TEWBI and its subscales. First, first-order factor analysis was conducted in order to explore the correlations among the sub-constructs of the TEWBI. The results showed that there were high correlations among these sub-constructs in that it was .82 between the nature of L2 writing and teaching L2 writing, .77 between the nature of L2 writing and assessing L2 writing, and .87 between teaching L2 writing and assessing L2 writing. Upon finding out these results, the researcher executed second-order factor analysis in order to examine the correlations among the TEWBI and the three sub-scales. The results revealed that there were high correlations among the TEWBI and its sub-constructs. The correlation between the TEWBI and the nature of L2 writing sub-scale was .85, the TEWBI and teaching L2 writing sub-scale was .96, and the TEWBI and

assessing L2 writing sub-scale was .91. In addition, the model-fit indices were calculated in order to explore whether the model had a good fit or not through following Hu and Bentler's (1999) fit indices criteria. Among the most widely respected and reported fit indices, absolute and incremental fit indices were used to assess the model fit in the present study. The results of the CFA for the TEWBI and its sub-constructs indicated that as absolute fit indices, Relative X^2 value was 2.15, which was lower than the cut-off criterion (Kline, 2005), RMSEA had .044 (90% CI= .042 – .046), which was lower than the cut-off value of ≤ .06, and SRMR had .049, which was lower than the cut-off values of ≤ .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). These values were good fit to data. Next, GFI and AGFI values were .82 and .81, respectively. Even though these values were not good fit to data (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the values were still acceptable when the other indices were thought together. Regarding incremental fit indices, NFI index of .93 was greater than the threshold of ≥ .90 and NNFI and CFI values of .96 were greater than the threshold ≥.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). On the basis of these findings, it was revealed that the model fits the data well. Because the data of the Validation and Investigation Phases were gathered from different EFL instructors those of the Development Phase, it was crucial to conduct a reliability analysis. The data collected from 342 EFL instructors were analyzed in order to find out the internal consistency via SPSS. Again, the results showed that the TEWBI had a perfect reliability value with .93 (DeVellis, 2016). This is the indication of the perfect internal consistency among 57 items and sub-scales. Besides, the sub-scales had good reliability values in that the nature of writing sub-scale had .85, teaching writing sub-scale had .90, and it was .84 for assessing writing sub-scale. All in all, in light of the results of EFA and CFA, the TEWBI is a reliable and valid instrument that can be used to measure EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing.

In the third phase (Investigation Phase), the researcher explored the strong, moderate, and weak writing beliefs by subscales through using descriptive statistics including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The beliefs with mean scores over 5.00 out of 6.00 were accepted as strong beliefs; the beliefs with mean scores between 4.50 and 5.00 out of 6.00 were accepted as moderate beliefs; and the beliefs with mean scores below 4.50 out of 6.00 were accepted as weak beliefs. With respect to the nature of L2 writing, the participants' strong beliefs were about the role of audience-awareness, motivation, cognitive dimension of writing, the importance of social context in writing, expressivism, transmissional belief, and the role of L2 proficiency in writing. On the other hand, they had weak beliefs about the recursive nature of writing, social situatedness of writing, the transfer

from L2 to L1 (reverse transfer), and the role of discourse-level competencies in writing. With regard to teaching L2 writing, the EFL instructors embraced strong beliefs about the role of genre, importance of writing tasks, creative writing, reading-writing connections, explicit writing instruction, English writing conventions, habit of rewriting, presenting English writing strategies through explicit modelling, using authentic text models, the role different instructional materials, collaborative writing, individual voice, the role of new technologies in writing classes, and the role of textual borrowing. On the other hand, the respondents adopted weak beliefs about process vs. debate, instruction on surface-level conventions, the role of social and cultural factors in writing instruction. Regarding assessing L2 writing, the participants had strong beliefs about the role of feedback, use of rubrics, in-class, and out-of-class writing, the role explicit and systematic scoring criteria, and corrective feedback. On the other hand, they held weak beliefs about portfolio assessment, teacher written feedback, analytic scoring, and holistic scoring.

Implications

The results of the present study suggest several implications for the current status of writing instruction, pre-service teacher preparation, and in-service teacher development. The development, validation, as well as application of this newly devised writing beliefs inventory, resulted in significant pedagogical implications for both L1 and L2 writing instruction. Even though it is widely recognized that teacher beliefs "lie at the heart of teaching and learning" (Burns, 1992, p. 64), there is a paucity of research on EFL instructors' beliefs about writing in EFL context. Recognizing the underlying beliefs and philosophies as driving force behind teachers' decisions and classroom practices, teachers, administrators, teacher educators, and policymakers can be better equipped with the required knowledge and skills in the process of teaching and learning. In this sense, this study contributes to a better understanding of language instructors' engagement in writing instruction. EFL instructors' beliefs provide deeper insights into the complex nature of writing instruction by informing various stakeholders about EFL instructors' level of engagement during writing instruction. These beliefs and thus their engagement have the potential to influence the quality of their writing instruction. Therefore, investigation of instructors' writing beliefs helps to create improved writing pedagogy (White & Bruning, 2005) and provide policymakers and curriculum designers more knowledge about EFL instructors.

Another important implication is that in-service teacher development programs should pay attention to the fact that EFL instructors have various beliefs which vary in strength. The participants have strong, moderate, and weak beliefs. For example, in light of the findings of the present study, it can be speculated that EFL instructors have weak belief on portfolio assessment. Besides, they may not be aware of the social and cultural factors influencing students' writing performance. Next, they may view transfer from L2 to L1 as a hindrance rather than a resource. They may not fully recognize the importance of genre knowledge development in L2 writing classes. They may not have enough knowledge on different scoring approaches to writing assessment. Herein, teacher trainers and policymakers should take into account these beliefs in designing teacher development programmes. Moreover, it should be taken into account that teachers' beliefs are not static mental representations, rather they have a dynamic and evolving nature (Cross, 2010). Therefore, there should professional development activities to change teachers' beliefs. In addition to providing theoretical or pedagogical knowledge, INSET programs should be used for belief formation of language teachers. Relatedly, research suggests that such programs are influential in changing and forming teacher beliefs (e.g. Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991). From the theoretical standpoint, social learning theory (Bandura, 1986) suggests that personal and motivational factors are among the major determinants of individual's decisions and behaviors. In other words, beliefs act as a filter through which instructors adopt new knowledge and approaches. Therefore, in designing INSET programs, teacher trainers and policymakers should take teachers' beliefs at the point of departure for an effective and successful program.

A reflective teacher is a strong and effective teacher. They should reflect upon their practice as well as beliefs throughout L2 writing instruction. Investigation of beliefs can strengthen the bridge from pre-service to in-service teachers. Within this context, teacher trainers can ask senior students to reflect upon their beliefs about L2 writing and writing instruction. In this way, they can gain deep insights about prospective teachers' beliefs and, thus, they have a chance to form these beliefs in advance. Relatedly, in pre-service teacher education, teacher trainers can attempt to link prospective teachers' beliefs about L2 writing instruction with practical applications, especially during micro-teaching or practicum sessions. Moreover, for such purposes the Because early intervention is so critical in developing and cementing the habits needed to be successful in teacher education, gathering validity evidence for the use of the TEWBI with pre-service teachers should be undertaken.

Another important means of exploring teachers' beliefs is reflective practice in which they consciously mind their beliefs via reflecting-on-action, reflecting-in-action, and reflecting-for-action (Farrell, 2013). First of all, teachers should be aware of the fact that beliefs are dynamic, evolving, and subject to change through training (Cross, 2010). Through reflection, teachers can make their implicit beliefs explicit (Tsang, 2004). Therefore, teachers should be given enough opportunity to articulate and reflect upon their beliefs in the process of writing instruction. This process can contribute both their professional development and the quality of instructional practices. In addition, literacy autobiographies can be adopted as a means of airing beliefs (Casanave, 2004). This activity explores teachers' major literacy experiences as well as their beliefs about writing.

In Turkey, pre-service teachers are taught to teach writing through general language teacher education because professional writing teacher education is not delivered as a distinct and specific field (Uysal, 2007). There is a need for well-planned professional writing teacher preparation programs in order to train and equip language instructors with required knowledge and skills relevant to English writing instruction. Within this context, English writing instruction is delivered by language instructors who may see themselves more as teachers of language rather than teachers of writing (Lee, 1998; Reichelt, 1999). For an influential writing teacher education reform, Tillema's (1995) 'congruence hypothesis' should be taken into consideration. According to this hypothesis, only when there is congruence between teacher beliefs and the underlying principles of any innovation, teachers adopt that innovation, and in turn, the reform can be successful.

Overall, this study extends the literature on EFL instructors' beliefs about L2 writing and offers a psychometrically sound and comprehensive instrument for the measure of writing beliefs. The TEWBI as a psychometrically sound instrument to investigate language instructors writing beliefs can be applied both in national and international contexts. Such applications can provide lots of comparable data in relation to beliefs about different cultures on writing instruction.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Frequency and Percentage of the Universities and the Participants

	Universities in the Development Phase	**f**	**%**
1	Nevşehir H. Bektaş Veli University	16	5,14
2	Ö. Halisdemir University	11	3,54
3	Gazi Osman Paşa University	6	1,93
4	Karamanoğlu Mehmet Bey University	4	1,29
5	İstanbul Medeniyet University	3	0,96
6	Hacettepe University	7	2,25
7	METU	7	2,25
8	Abant İ. Baysal University	4	1,29
9	Düzce University	12	3,86
10	İstanbul University	9	2,89
11	Ege University	6	1,93
12	Akdeniz University	16	5,14
13	Yıldırım Beyazıt University	11	3,54
14	Ankara Social Sciences University	5	1,61
15	Bursa Technical University	13	4,18
16	Karabük University	12	3,86

17	Sakarya University	6	1,93
18	Gazi University	15	4,82
19	Balıkesir University	4	1,29
20	Süleyman Demirel University	2	0,64
21	Necmettin Erbakan University	2	0,64
22	Afyon Kocatepe University	3	0,96
23	Kırklareli University	1	0,32
24	Ufuk University	9	2,89
25	Istanbul Kemerburgaz University	54	17,36
26	Atılım University	35	11,25
27	University of Turkish Aeronautical Association	10	3,22
28	Başkent University	20	6,43
29	İstanbul Yeni Yüzyıl University	8	2,57
	Total	311	100

Appendix 2. Universities in the Validation and Investigation Phase

1	Cumhuriyet University	18	5,26
2	18 Mart University	11	3,22
3	Selçuk University	11	3,22
4	Hacettepe University	7	2,05
5	METU	10	2,92
6	Abant İ. Baysal University	10	2,92
7	19 Mayıs University	14	4,09
8	Erciyes University	9	2,63
9	Ankara Social Sciences University	6	1,75

10	Çukurova University	14	4,09
11	İstanbul Technical University	15	4,39
12	Kastamonu University	10	2,92
13	Boğaziçi University	7	2,05
14	Kocaeli University	9	2,63
15	Gaziantep University	14	4,09
16	Sakarya University	10	2,92
17	Gazi University	12	3,51
18	Dokuz Eylül University	8	2,34
19	Ankara University	9	2,63
20	Yıldız Technical University	4	1,17
21	Dicle University	5	1,46
22	Uludağ University	11	3,22
23	Harran University	2	0,58
24	Atatürk University	5	1,46
25	Ufuk University	11	3,22
26	Atılım University	37	10,82
27	University of Turkish Aeronautical Association	10	2,92
28	Başkent University	23	6,73
29	Bahçeşehir University	9	2,63
30	İstanbul Medipol University	14	4,09
31	TOBB ETU University	6	1,75
32	Çankaya University	1	0,29
	Total	342	100

Appendix 3. The TEWBI used for Exploratory Factor Analysis (94 item)

Dear Participant,

The aim of this doctoral dissertation is to explore ***English writing teachers' beliefs about writing in English.*** It has two sections. In the first section, your writing beliefs will be investigated through *Teachers' English Writing Beliefs Inventory (TEWBI),* which includes the following parts; writing beliefs about the nature of writing in English, writing beliefs about teaching writing in English, and writing beliefs about assessing writing in English. The second section targets to gather your background information. Since this is not a test, there are no right or wrong answers. The usefulness of this survey depends upon the frankness and care with which you make the choices. Therefore, please choose one of the options that accurately reflects your opinions and beliefs. I will appreciate your sincere and valuable responses.

Thank you very much in advance for your participation
and
valuable contributions

Mehmet Karaca
PhD Candidate, ELT Department, Gazi University

Informed Consent Form

Title: The Development, Validation, and Implementation of an Inventory on English Writing Teachers' Beliefs

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Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kadriye Dilek Akpınar (Gazi University)

Purpose of the research study: The aim of this research study is to develop a Writing Beliefs Inventory and Writing Attitude Scale and to explore English Language Instructors' beliefs and attitudes about writing in English accordingly.

Risks and Benefits: There are no known risks related to this research. There are no guaranteed benefits to you. However, the research may enhance the field of second language teacher training and may contribute the improvements of the teacher-training program at Turkish universities. This research could promote the importance of teaching writing skill in the field of language teaching.

Procedures: The survey will take approximately 20-25 minutes to complete, it will be on five pages. The survey includes two sections: (a) Teachers' English Writing Beliefs Inventory (94 items), and (b) Individual Background Questionnaire (11 items).

Costs: There is no cost for you to participate in this research study.

Confidentiality: All information collected about you during the course of the study will be kept confidential. Only the researcher, Mehmet Karaca, will see the data you provide. All files, transcripts and data will be stored on external hard drive in the researcher's home, and no one except the researcher will have access to them. The results of the study will be published; however, your name and other identifying information will be kept private.

Voluntary participation: Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do decide to take part, you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

Contact Person: If you have problems, questions, complaints or concerns regarding this study, you can contact the researcher, Mehmet Karaca, at mehmetkaraca55@gmail.com or research advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal at uysalhande@yahoo.com.

Consent: By signing this consent form, I confirm I have read the information in this consent form and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I will be given a signed copy of this consent form.

I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

_____ _____

Signature of Researcher Date

I would really appreciate if you could participate in the qualitative phase (semi-structured interview) of this study. If you agree, please tick the box below and write your e-mail address.

☐ I agree to take part in the qualitative phase of the study.

e-mail: ……

SECTION A: Teachers' English Writing Beliefs Inventory (TEWBI)

	Part 1: Beliefs about the Nature of L2 Writing **I believe that …**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	Writing is a way to communicate with the reader.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Writing is a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences structured according to a system of rules.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Writing is a linear activity that follows certain steps, such as planning, generating, drafting, and revising in the given order.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Writing is representation of spoken language in a visual form.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5	Turkish writing organizational patterns may negatively influence English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Motivation is essential for effective writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Writing is a natural ability or an innate gift so only talented people can learn how to write well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Writing is a socially situated activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Students' previous experiences in Turkish writing play a central role in English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Students' writing performance in English is very much influenced by their writing ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Writing is a mechanism through which we acquire advanced language competencies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Writing is an activity to convey information.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	The way we write varies from one social context to another.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Transfer from Turkish to English writing is an important resource for English writing development rather than a hindrance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Writing is an interactive and socially motivated activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	The most important requirement of writing in English is the grammatical competence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Discourse level competencies are the most important parts of writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	It is possible to transfer English writing knowledge and skills to Turkish writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Writing is a skill that can be taught through instruction and practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Writing is a tool for self-expression.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Possessing appropriate thinking and reasoning skills is essential for effective writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Limited English proficiency may hamper writing performance in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Writing is a process that can be achieved after writing and revising multiple times.	1	2	3	4	5	6

25	Cultural factors have considerable impacts on students' writing performance in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Writing is a one-time activity through which a final written product is created.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Writing is a recursive process in which writers go back and forth in their text, continually plan, write, and revise without a certain order.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Inadequate knowledge of writing strategies may cause low writing performance in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Turkish writing strategies (e.g. outlining, drafting, revising) can be transferred to English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Writing is a solitary and individual activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Writing is an activity through which learners transform knowledge to create new knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Writing is an internally motivated activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 2: Beliefs about Teaching L2 Writing

I believe that …

		Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	Effective English writing instruction means emphasizing upon surface-level conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) to improve the quality of student writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The focus of English writing instruction should be on self-expression of feelings and opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Students should be trained how to do proper textual borrowings from multiple sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Explicit instruction on how to write in English should be a part of English writing courses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Creative writing such as free writing and journal writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Explicit teaching of grammar is an important part of English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6

7	Instructors should model effective writing practices as knowledgeable experts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Traditional product-centered instruction (stressing correct usage and mechanics) should have no place in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Instructors should tailor writing tasks to the real-world writing needs of their students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to master various genres of writing (e.g. essay, CV, recipe, letter of complaint, and research article, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Instructors should train students about English writing conventions (e.g. thesis statement, topic sentence, deductive organization, etc.) to generate effective text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Instructors should provide opportunities for students to do collaborative writing**.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Writing instruction should involve extensive practice under expert guidance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Instructors should create a habit of rewriting, revising and editing in students through writing multiple drafts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Instructors should use and promote technologies in their English writing classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	English writing skills cannot be acquired by writing alone but also need to be supported with extensive reading.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Writing fluency should be emphasized over writing accuracy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Instructors should employ guided writing to make students gain accuracy in English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Besides printed materials, other kinds of teaching materials (audio, video, digital) should be used in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	One of the major aims of the writing instruction should be to make students gain the ability to meet the reader expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The process of writing (e.g. planning, drafting, revising, etc.) is more important than the written product in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6

23	One of the most important things about writing is the quality of the thinking that it conveys.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Instructors should not impose Western style on students in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to develop their individual voice in English writing classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Genre knowledge development (writing for different audiences and purposes) should be one of the significant dimensions of English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Instructors should aim at making students write good compositions in one draft.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	The focus of attention should be on the social and cultural factors that shape English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Instructors should adopt a mixture of more than one approach in teaching English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Through collaborative drafting and editing with peers, students can gain the ability to see the text through the reader's eyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Instructors should make use of authentic text models in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Instructors should present English writing strategies (e.g. outlining, webbing, planning, free writing, rereading, revising, editing, etc.) through explicit modeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	The focus of attention should be on appropriacy rather than accuracy according to the context.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 3: Beliefs about Assessing L2 Writing **I believe that …**		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	Writing texts should be scored holistically since writing is a single entity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Corrective feedback on grammar helps students improve the accuracy of their writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

3	Only one aspect of writing (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, organization, etc.) should be assessed at a time since the constructs of writing are complex and multifaceted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Teacher written feedback may be the least effective form of feedback for students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Writing improves naturally mainly through individual practice rather than through feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Students' writing ability should be assessed through the collection of multiple samples of writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Peer feedback should become an important component of English writing classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Indirect measures of writing such as multiple-choice tests are valid indicators of students' writing ability**.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Instructors should give feedback commenting on the strengths and weaknesses of students' writing rather than assigning a score to the written product.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Instructors should allow students to evaluate their own writing (self-assessment).	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Corrective feedback has the ability to help learners develop effective revision and self-editing skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Instructors should employ pre-tested prompts for writing assessment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Writing performance is difficult to assess.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Instructors should focus on global-text level problems (e.g. coherence, organization, rhetorical issues and so on) rather than surface-level problems (e.g. grammar, punctuation, spelling, etc.)**.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Students should take an active role in writing assessment by providing feedback to peers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Writing assessment should include both in-class (timed) and out-of-class (untimed) writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Instructors should incorporate ongoing assessment practices in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Feedback is crucial in assisting students to move through the stages of the writing process.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Portfolio assessment is the best way of assessing students' writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Validity should be central to assessment in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6

21	Instructors should give feedback only on content and organization in early drafts, saving sentence-level issues for the end of the writing process.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The medium of teacher feedback (e.g. electronic vs. handwritten, audio vs. written) may affect students' writing learning outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Instructors should apply explicit and systematic scoring criteria to ensure fair assessment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Teacher feedback is more helpful over peer feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	New technologies should be integrated into English writing instruction in providing feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Timed spontaneous writing tests are a good way to reflect students' writing ability in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Instructors should provide students with indirect feedback rather than direct feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Students receive more focused and comprehensible feedback during teacher-student conferences than they do through written feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Instructors should use rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing to assess students' writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION B: Individual Background Questionnaire

Gender:	MA Major:
Institution:	PhD Major:
Teaching Experience (General):	Your Total Class hours (per week):
Teaching Experience (Writing Skill):	Class hours devoted to Writing Skill (per week):
Educational Degree: (BA) / (MA) / (PhD)	The number of students per class:
BA Major:	

Appendix 4. The TEWBI used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (57 item)

SECTION A: Teachers' English Writing Beliefs Inventory (TEWBI)

	Part 1: Beliefs about the Nature of L2 Writing **I believe that …**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	Writing is a way to communicate with the reader.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Writing is an activity through which writers discover their ideas and feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Writing is a recursive process in which writers go back and forth in their text, continually plan, write, and revise without a certain order.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Writing is a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences structured according to a system of rules.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Writing is a socially situated activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Writing is a mechanism through which we acquire advanced language competencies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Writing is an activity to convey information.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	The way we write varies from one social context to another.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Discourse level competencies are the most important parts of writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	It is possible to transfer English writing knowledge and skills to Turkish writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Writing is a skill that can be taught through instruction and practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Writing is a tool for self-expression.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Possessing appropriate thinking and reasoning skills is essential for effective writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Limited English proficiency may hamper writing performance in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Writing is a process that can be achieved after writing and revising multiple times.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Cultural factors have considerable impacts on students' writing performance in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

17	Students' writing performance in English is very much influenced by their writing ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Motivation is essential for effective writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Inadequate knowledge of writing strategies may cause low writing performance in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Turkish writing strategies (e.g. outlining, drafting, revising) can be transferred to English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Writing is an internally motivated activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 2: Beliefs about Teaching L2 Writing **I believe that …**		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	Explicit instruction on how to write in English should be a part of English writing courses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Students should be trained how to do proper textual borrowings from multiple sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Effective English writing instruction means emphasizing upon surface-level conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) to improve the quality of student writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Creative writing such as free writing and journal writing should be encouraged to develop students' written expression.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Besides printed materials, other kinds of teaching materials (audio, video, digital) should be used in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Instructors should tailor writing tasks to the real-world writing needs of their students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to master various genres of writing (e.g. essay, CV, recipe, letter of complaint, and research article, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Instructors should treat writing as a process of planning, generating, revising rather than a textual product.	1	2	3	4	5	6

9	Instructors should train students about English writing conventions (e.g. thesis statement, topic sentence, deductive organization, etc.) to generate effective text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Instructors should provide opportunities for students to do collaborative writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Writing instruction should involve extensive practice under expert guidance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Instructors should create a habit of rewriting, revising and editing in students through writing multiple drafts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Instructors should use and promote technologies in their English writing classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	English writing skills cannot be acquired by writing alone but also need to be supported with extensive reading.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Instructors should employ guided writing to make students gain accuracy in English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Instructors should provide students with meaningful opportunities to develop their individual voice in English writing classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Genre knowledge development (writing for different audiences and purposes) should be one of the significant dimensions of English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The focus of attention should be on the social and cultural factors that shape English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Instructors should adopt a mixture of more than one approach in teaching English writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Instructors should make use of authentic text models in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Instructors should present English writing strategies (e.g. outlining, webbing, planning, free writing, rereading, revising, editing, etc.) through explicit modeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 3: Beliefs about Assessing L2 Writing **I believe that …**		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Partly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	Instructors should incorporate ongoing assessment practices in English writing instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6

2	Instructors should use rubrics that describe different dimensions of writing to assess students' writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Students' writing ability should be assessed through the collection of multiple samples of writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Peer feedback should become an important component of English writing classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Instructors should allow students to evaluate their own writing (self-assessment).	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Corrective feedback has the ability to help learners develop effective revision and self-editing skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Teacher written feedback may be the least effective form of feedback for students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Writing assessment should include both in-class (timed) and out-of-class (untimed) writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Writing texts should be scored holistically since writing is a single entity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Feedback is crucial in assisting students to move through the stages of the writing process.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Portfolio assessment is the best way of assessing students' writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Instructors should apply explicit and systematic scoring criteria to ensure fair assessment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	New technologies should be integrated into English writing instruction in providing feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Students receive more focused and comprehensible feedback during teacher-student conferences than they do through written feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Only one aspect of writing (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, organization, etc.) should be assessed at a time since the constructs of writing are complex and multifaceted.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION B: Individual Background Questionnaire

Gender:	MA Major:
Institution:	PhD Major:
Teaching Experience (General):	Your Total Class hours (per week):
Teaching Experience (Writing Skill):	Class hours devoted to Writing Skill (per week):
Educational Degree: (BA) / (MA) / (PhD)	The number of students per class:
BA Major:	

Appendix 5. Ethics Committee Approval from Gazi University

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 29/05/2017-E.77346

T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Etik Komisyonu

Sayı : 77082166-302.08.01-
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 30/03/2017 tarihli ve 80287700-302.08.01- 47613 sayılı yazı.

İlgi yazınız ile göndermiş olduğunuz, Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı **Doktora Öğrencisi Mehmet KARACA'nın, Doç.Dr.Hacer Hande UYSAL'ın** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "***İngilizce Okutmanlarının Yazma İnançları***" adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun **09.05.2017** tarih ve **05** sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

İlgilinin çalışmasının yapılacağı Üniversitelerden izin alınması koşuluyla, yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiş ve karara ilişkin imza listesi ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Alper CEYLAN
Komisyon Başkanı

Araştırma Kod No: 2017-245

Ek:1 Liste

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Genel Evrak Sorumlusu
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GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
ETİK KOMİSYONU KATILIM LİSTESİ

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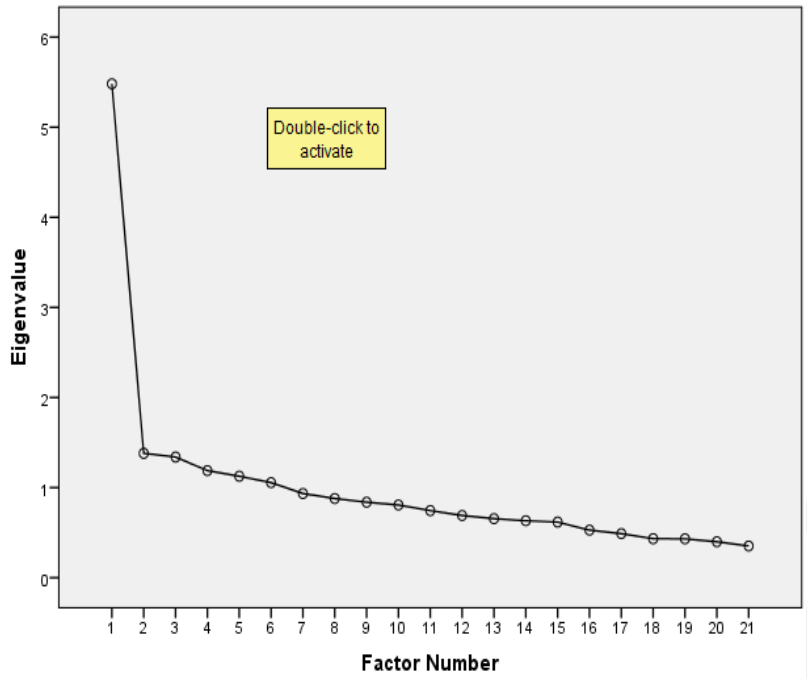
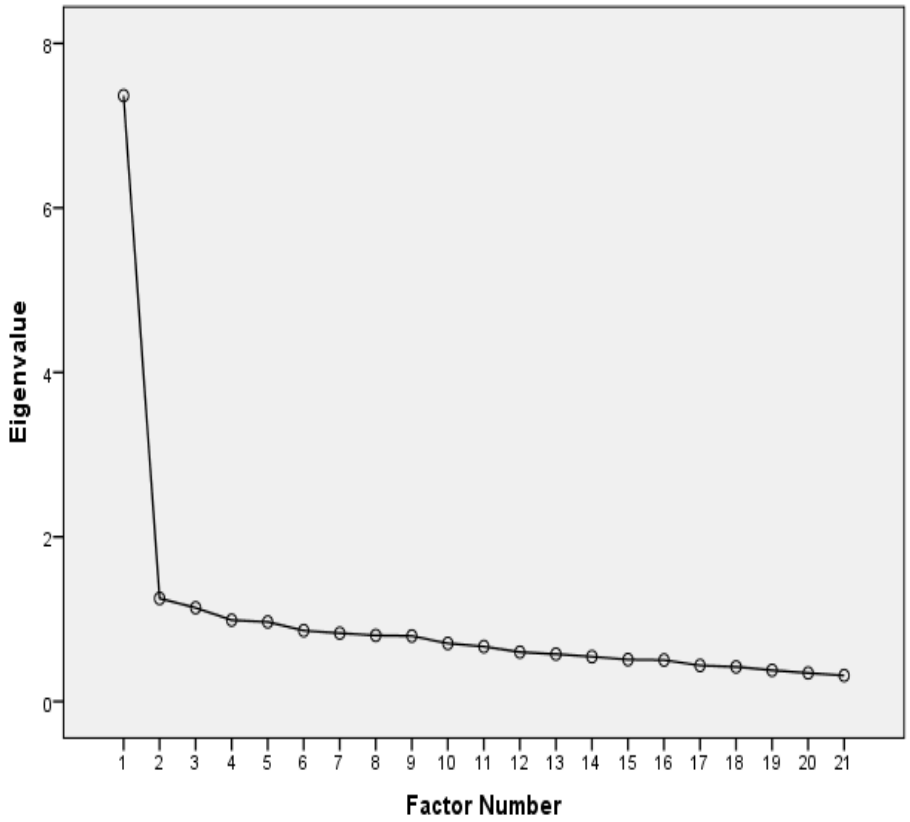
Prof.Dr.Alper CEYLAN BAŞKAN	
Prof.Dr.Mustafa N.İLHAN BAŞKAN YRD.	
Prof.Dr.Mehmet KÜÇÜKKURT	
Prof.Dr.Fatma GÜMÜŞ	
Prof.Dr.Rahmi ÜNAL	
Prof.Dr.Mehmet Sayım KARACAN	
Prof.Dr.Naciye YILDIZ	
Prof.Dr.Mustafa SARIKAYA	
Prof.Dr.İbrahim DOĞAN	
Prof.Dr.C. Haluk BODUR	
Prof.Dr.Mustafa İLBAŞ	
Prof.Dr.Füsun DEMİREL	KATILAMADI
Doç.Dr.Tuncay ÖNDER	KATILAMADI

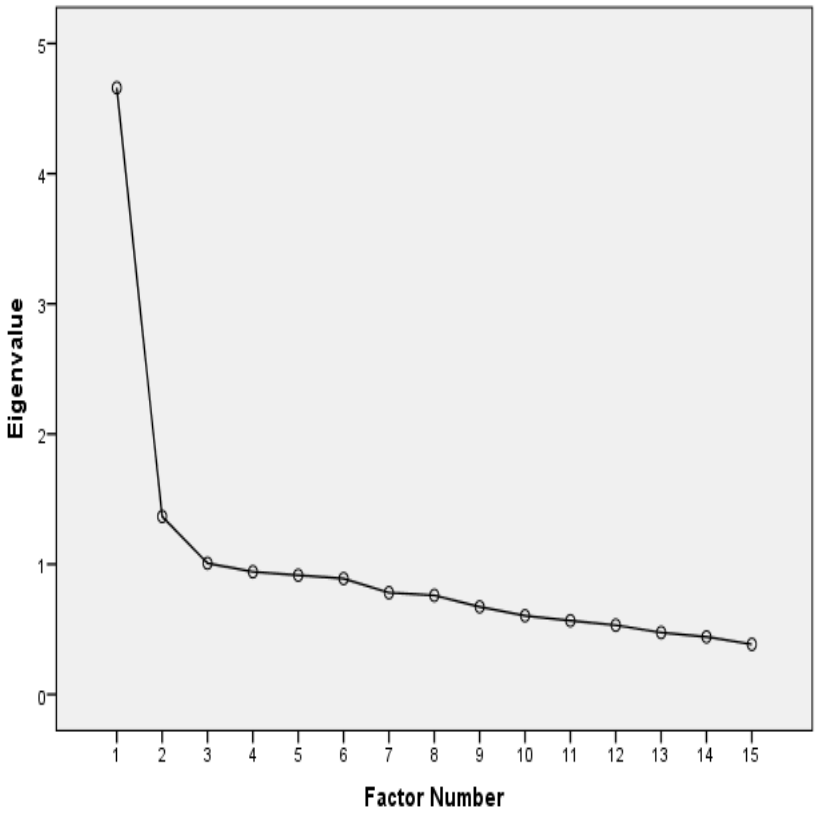
Appendix 6. Scree Plot of the Nature of Writing Sub-Scale



Appendix 7. Scree Plot of the Teaching Writing Sub-Scale



Appendix 8. Scree Plot of the Assessing Writing Sub-Scale



Appendix 9. The number of Factors and Factor Loading of the Nature of Writing Sub-scale

Sub-scale	Item Number	Factor Loadings
Nature of Writing	21	,621
Nature of Writing	22	,589
Nature of Writing	24	,585
Nature of Writing	7	,548
Nature of Writing	14	,543
Nature of Writing	28	,531
Nature of Writing	6	,514
Nature of Writing	23	,495
Nature of Writing	27	,483
Nature of Writing	25	,463
Nature of Writing	20	,458

Nature of Writing	18	,435
Nature of Writing	8	,431
Nature of Writing	1	,430
Nature of Writing	13	,423
Nature of Writing	26	,412
Nature of Writing	32	,410
Nature of Writing	12	,399
Nature of Writing	9	,363
Nature of Writing	29	,351
Nature of Writing	19	,350

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix 10. The number of Factors and Factor Loading of the Teaching Writing Sub-scale

Sub-scale	Item Number	Factor Loadings
Teaching Writing	10	,672
Teaching Writing	11	,664
Teaching Writing	13	,630
Teaching Writing	12	,620
Teaching Writing	9	,613
Teaching Writing	32	,612
Teaching Writing	31	,605
Teaching Writing	3	,603
Teaching Writing	8	,597
Teaching Writing	16	,591
Teaching Writing	4	,590
Teaching Writing	25	,580

Teaching Writing	15	,577
Teaching Writing	29	,562
Teaching Writing	5	,534
Teaching Writing	26	,509
Teaching Writing	14	,499
Teaching Writing	1	,443
Teaching Writing	19	,437
Teaching Writing	17	,427
Teaching Writing	28	,385

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

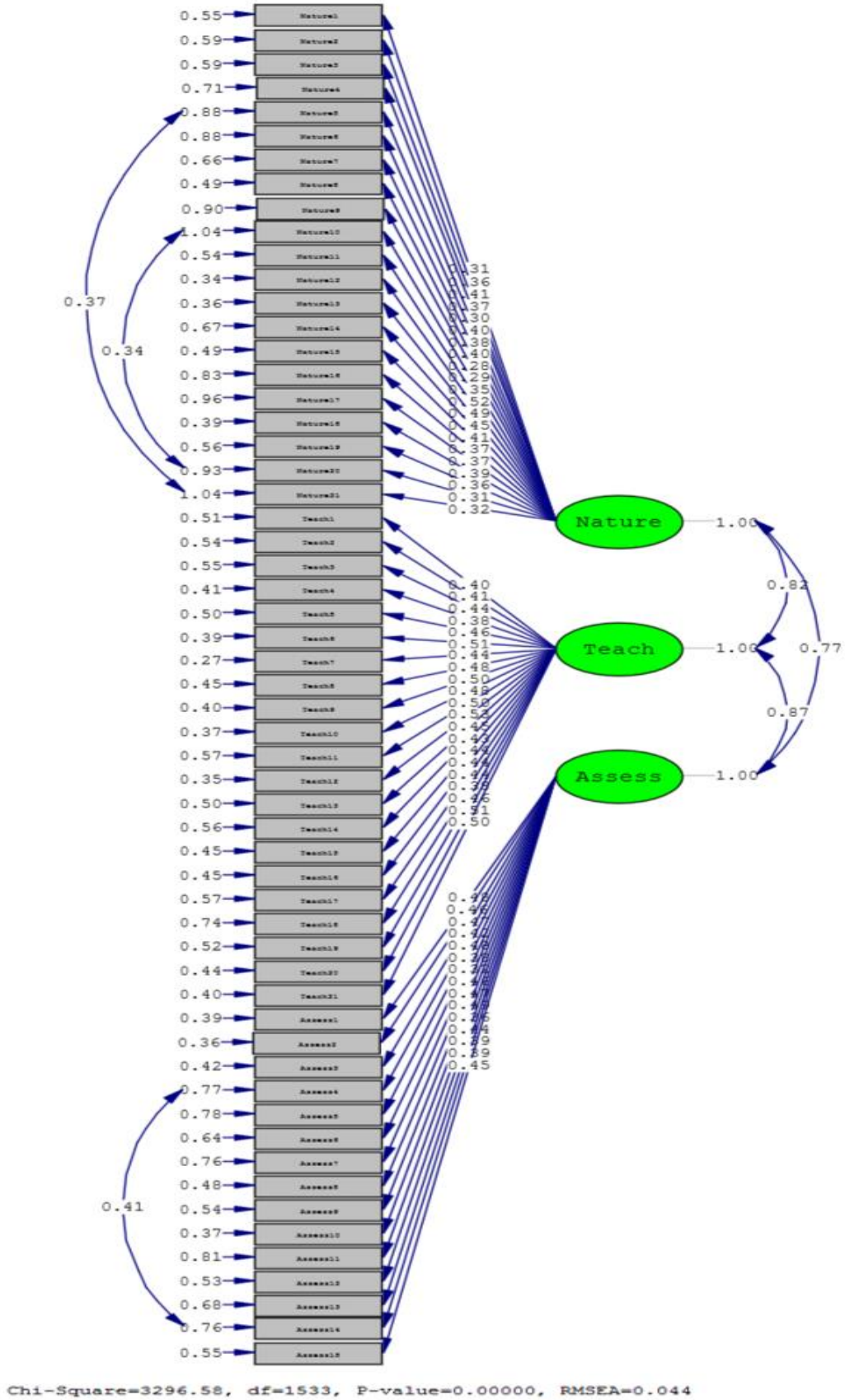
Appendix 11. The number of Factors and Factor Loading of the Assessing Writing Sub-scale

Sub-scale	Item Number	Factor Loadings
Assessing Writing	17	,598
Assessing Writing	16	,568
Assessing Writing	7	,562
Assessing Writing	3	,555
Assessing Writing	6	,542
Assessing Writing	18	,539
Assessing Writing	10	,526
Assessing Writing	1	,524
Assessing Writing	28	,519
Assessing Writing	15	,498
Assessing Writing	29	,479

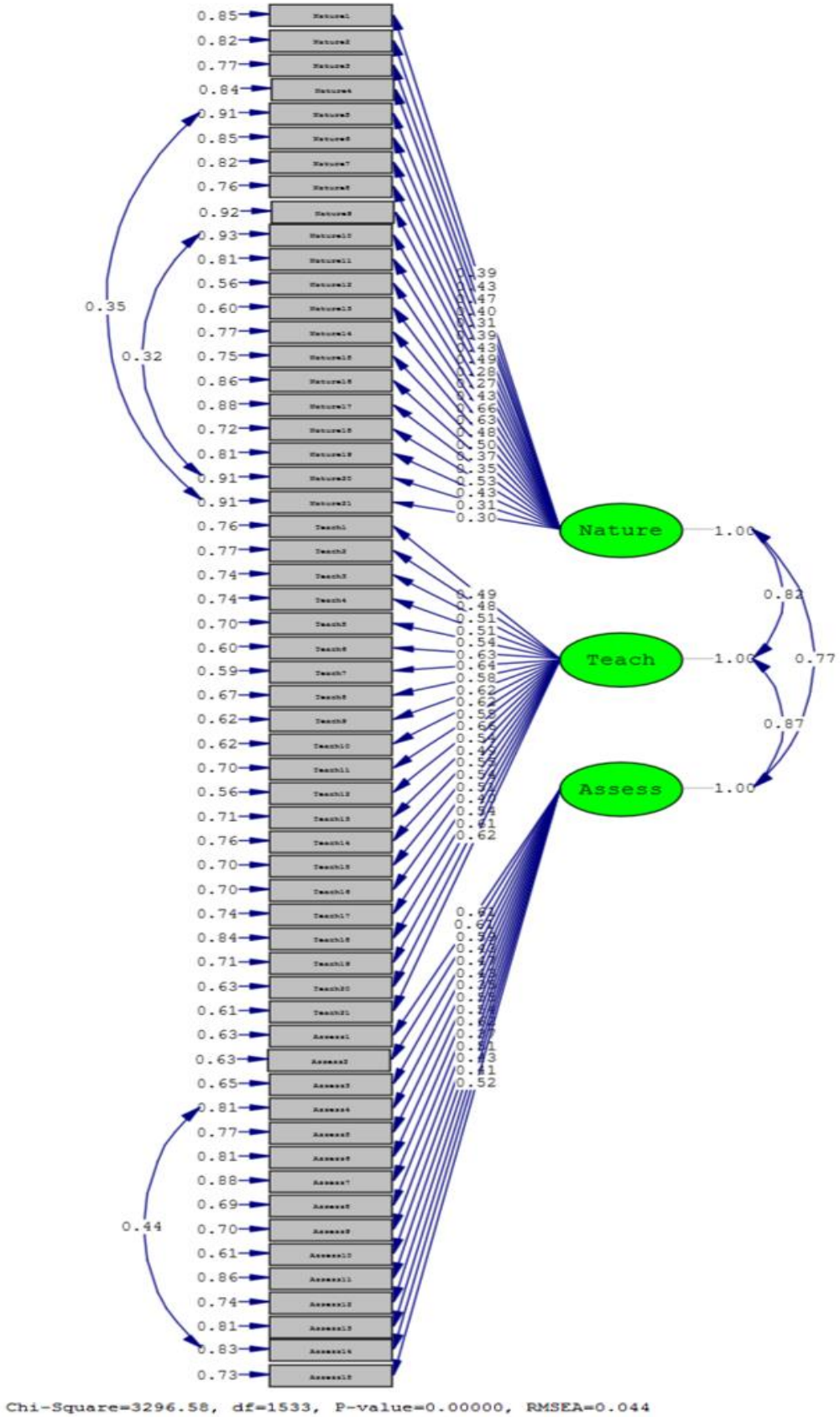
Assessing Writing	19	,467
Assessing Writing	23	,454
Assessing Writing	25	,432
Assessing Writing	11	,371

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

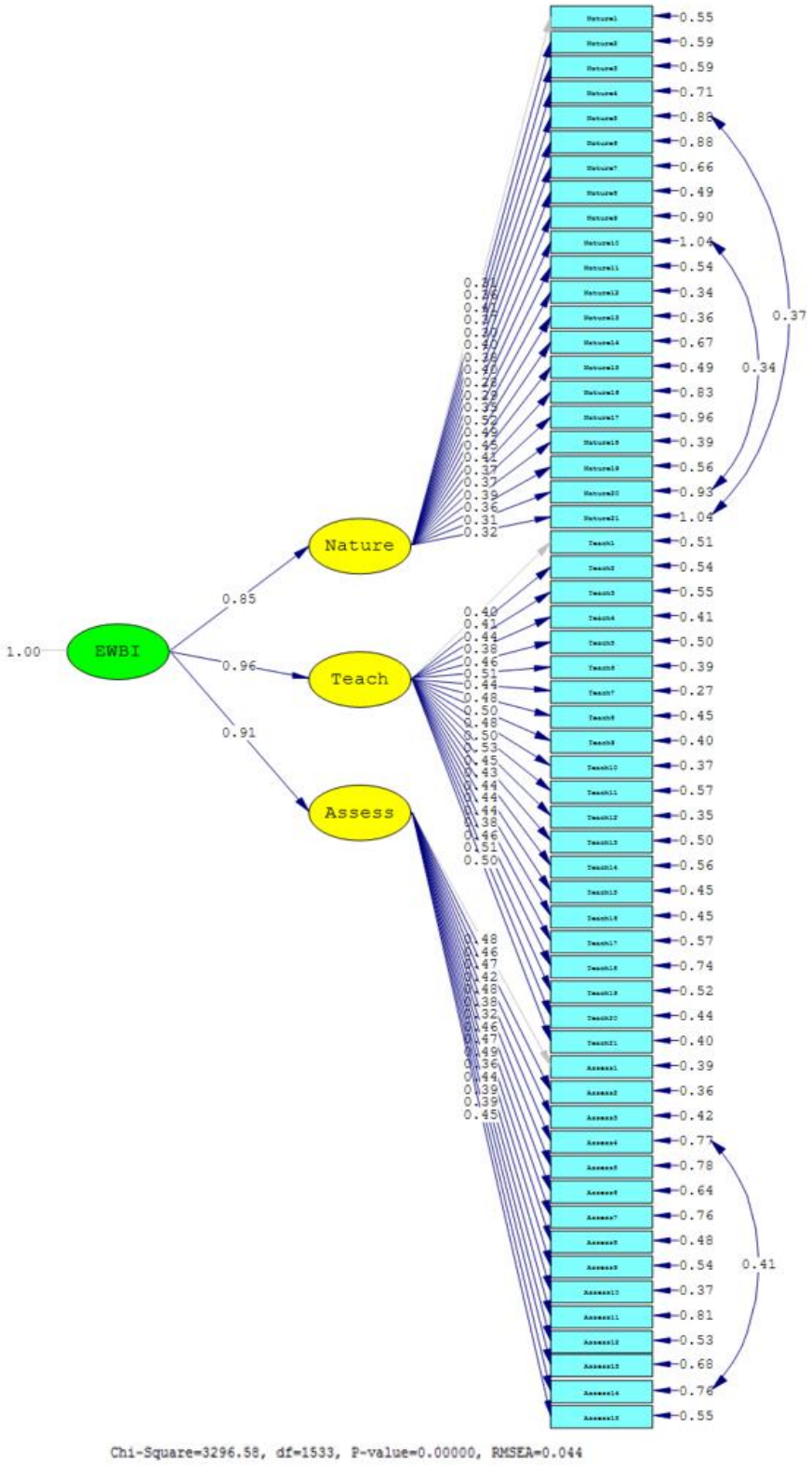
Appendix 12. Path Diagram: First-order Factor Analysis (estimates)



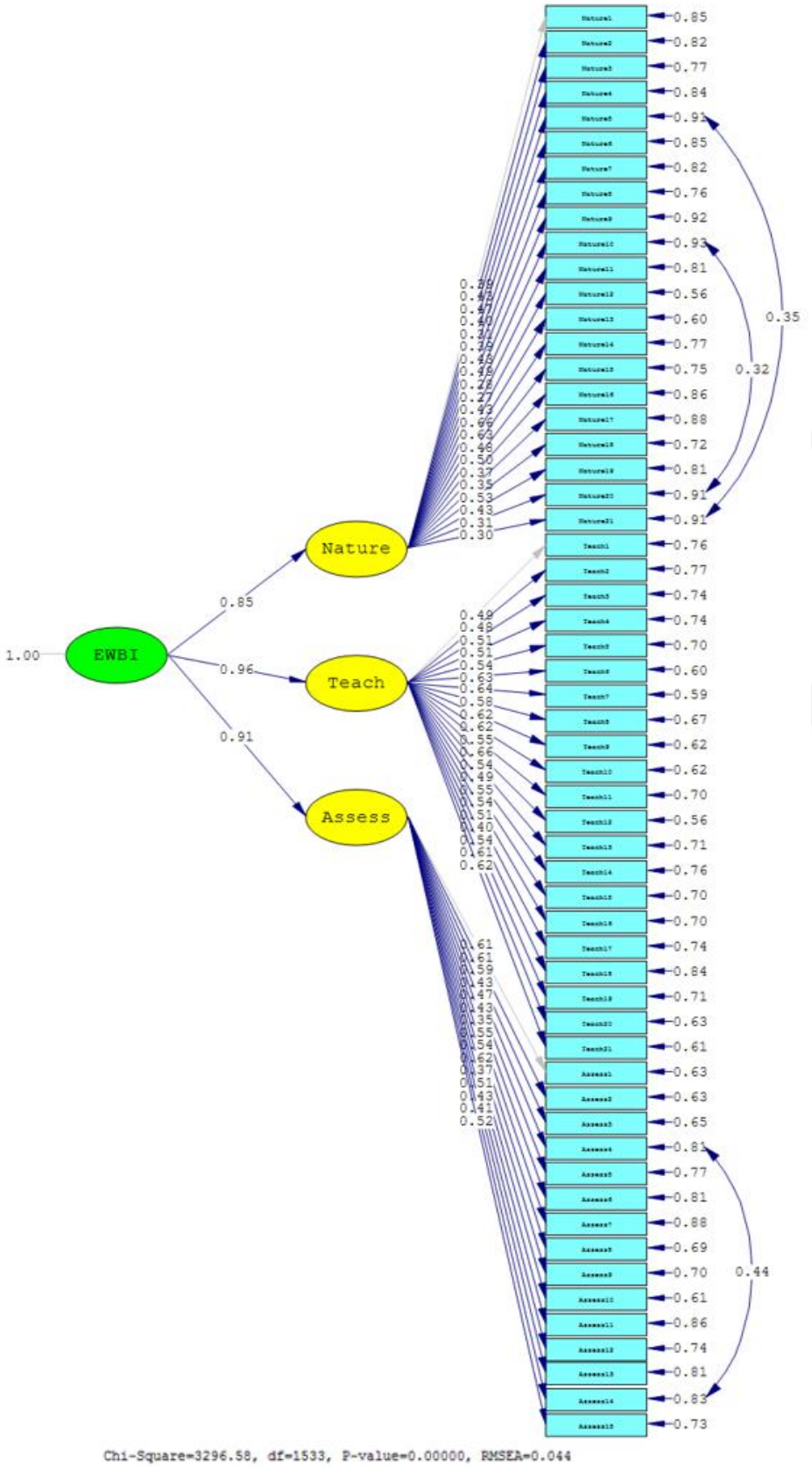
Path Diagram: First-order Factor Analysis (standardized)



Appendix 13. Path Diagram: Second-order Factor Analysis (estimates)



Path Diagram: Second-order Factor Analysis (standardized)

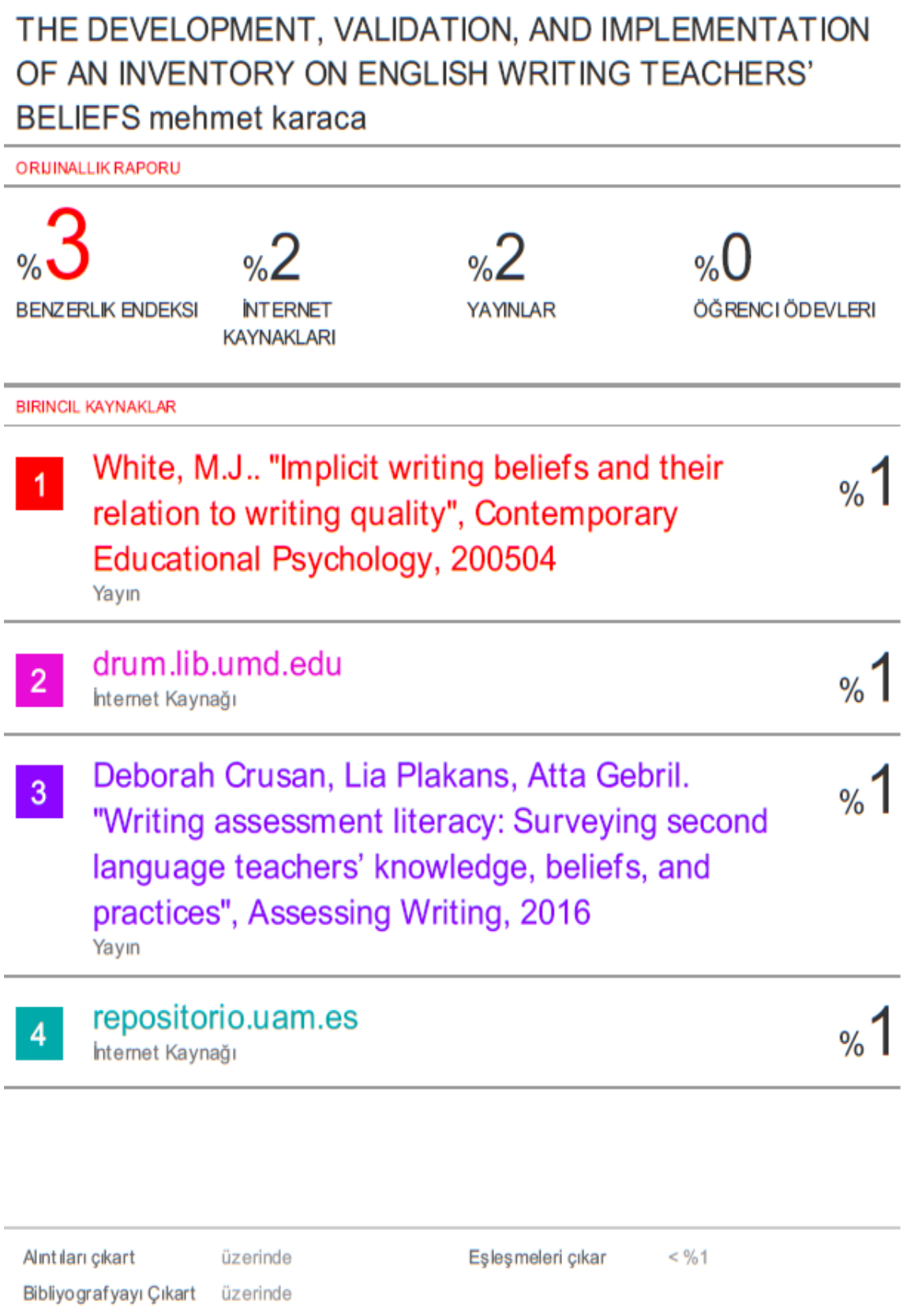


Appendix 14. Hu and Bentler's (1999) Fit Indices Criteria to Retain a Model

Fit Indices	Criteria for 'acceptable' model fit	Criteria for 'good' model fit
NFI	.87	≥ .90
NNFI	.90	≥ .95
CFI	.90	≥ .95
GFI		≥ .90
SRMR		≤ .08
AGFI		≥ .90
RMSEA	≤ .08	≤ .06
Joint Criteria	NNFI, CFI ≥ .96 and SRMR ≤ .09	
	SRMR ≤ .09 and RMSEA ≤ .06	

Note: CFI= Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index; GFI = Goodness-of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

Appendix 15. Originality Report



THE DEVELOPMENT, VALIDATION, AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INVENTORY ON ENGLISH WRITING TEACHERS' BELIEFS mehmet karaca

ORIJINALLIK RAPORU

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