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Savaş YEŞİLYURT

A SELF-DETERMINATION APPROACH TO TEACHING WRITING IN PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHER EDUCATION

PH.D. THESIS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

TABLE OF CONTENTS I

ABSTRACT VI

ÖZET VII

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS VIII

LIST OF TABLES IX

LIST OF FIGURES X

ABBREVIATIONS XI

CHAPTER ONE 1

1. INTRODUCTION 1

1.1. Background of the Study 1

1.2. Statement of the Problem 3

1.3. Aim of the Study 5

1.4. Research Questions 5

1.5. Strengths and Limitations of the Study 5

1.6. Significance of the Study 6

1.7. Methodology 7

1.7.1. Subjects and settings 7

1.7.2. Instruments 8

1.7.3. Data collection 10

1.7.4. Data analysis 10

1.8. Key Terminology 11

1.9. Conclusion 13

CHAPTER TWO 14

2. LITERATURE REVIEW 14

2.1. Introduction 14

2.2. Writing 14

2.2.2. Teaching writing in EFL classrooms 17
2.2.2.1. The purpose of teaching writing 19
2.2.2.2. Product-based and process-based approaches 21
2.2.2.3. Types of writing activities 27
2.2.2.4. Classroom tasks and homework assignments 29
2.2.2.5. Evaluation of papers 32
2.2.2.6. Technology in L2 writing 35
2.2.3. Importance of writing in L2 teaching and learning 37
2.2.4. Motivation in L2 writing 39
2.2.5. Research methodology in L2 writing studies 46
2.3. L2 Motivation 50
2.4. Self-Determination Theory 52
2.4.1. Mini theories of self-determination theory 53
2.4.1.1. Cognitive evaluation theory 53
2.4.1.2. Organismic integration theory 54
2.4.1.3. Causality orientations theory 57
2.4.1.4. Basic needs theory 58
2.4.2. Basic psychological needs 59
2.4.3. Intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation continuum 60
2.4.3.1. Intrinsic motivation 61
2.4.3.2. Extrinsic motivation 62
2.4.3.3. Amotivation 63
2.5. Educational Studies from SDT Perspectives 64
2.6. L2 Studies from SDT Perspectives 68
2.7. Research Methodology in SDT Studies 70
2.8. Conclusion 73

CHAPTER THREE 75
3. METHODOLOGY 75
3.1. Introduction 75

3.2. Participants 76
3.2.1. Participants of the questionnaires 76
3.2.2. Participants of the interviews 79
3.3. Materials 79
3.3.1. Instruments used in the collection of the quantitative data 81
3.3.1.1. Background information section 81
3.3.1.2. The Basic Need Satisfaction Scale 81
3.3.1.3. The Perceived Writing Competence Scale 82
3.3.1.4. The Perceived Autonomy Support Scale 82
3.3.1.5. The Writing Motivation Scale 83
3.3.2. Instruments used in the collection of the qualitative data 84
3.4. Data Collection Procedures 85
3.5. Data Analysis 86
3.5.1. Analysis of the quantitative data 86
3.5.2. Analysis of the qualitative data 87
3.6. Conclusion 88

CHAPTER FOUR 89
4. DATA ANALYSIS 89
4.1. Introduction 89
4.2. Analysis of the Quantitative Data 89
4.2.1. Analysis of the data obtained through the WMS 90
4.2.2. Analysis of the data obtained through the PWCS 102
4.2.3. Analysis of the data obtained through the PASS 104
4.2.4. Analysis of the data obtained through the BNSS 108
4.2.5. Writing course grades of the participants 112
4.2.6. Intercorrelations among the results of the WMS, PWCS, PASS, BNSS, and writing course grades of the participants 115
4.2.7. Conclusions related to the findings from the analysis of the quantitative data 121

4.2.7.1. What are the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers in writing courses from SDT perspectives? 121
4.2.7.2. Do the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers for writing courses vary according to their genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes and types of high school they graduated from? 123
4.2.7.3. How are the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers related to their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic need satisfaction levels, and writing grades? 124
4.3. Qualitative Data 125
4.3.1. Students' thoughts and feelings related to writing in English and writing classes in their departments 125
4.3.2. Writing activities, tasks and assignments carried out in writing classes 129
4.3.3. Participants' perceptions of their instructors as autonomy supportive or controlling 130
4.3.4. Pre-service EFL teachers' motivations to write in English or to engage in writing activities 132
4.3.5. Participants' views about how they could be better motivated for writing courses and more proficient in writing in English 133
4.3.6. Summaries of the findings from the qualitative data 134
4.4. Conclusion 136

CHAPTER FIVE 137
5. CONCLUSIONS 137
5.1. Introduction 137
5.2. Findings and Discussion 137
5.3. Pedagogical Implications 140
5.4. Strengths and Limitations of the Study 142
5.5. Further Research 143
5.6. Conclusion 144

REFERENCE LIST 145

APPENDICES 167

APPENDIX A: Instruments Used in the Collection of the Quantitative Data 167

APPENDIX B: Email Contents Related to the Permissions for the Use or Adaptation of the Data Collection Instruments 172

APPENDIX C: Interview Questions Used in the Collection of the Qualitative Data 176

APPENDIX D: Informed Consent Form 177

APPENDIX E: Written Permissions for the Application of Questionnaires and Interviews from the Administrations of Faculty of Arts and Humanities and Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty 178

CURRICULUM VITAE 180

ABSTRACT

PHD THESIS
A SELF-DETERMINATION APPROACH TO TEACHING WRITING IN PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHER EDUCATION
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The purpose of this study was to investigate pre-service EFL teachers' motivational patterns in writing classes from a self-determination theory perspective. The study also tried to explore the variances in these motivational patterns according to certain variables such as gender, grade, department, day-time/evening classes, and type of high school of these pre-service EFL teachers. The other main concern of the study was to find the relationship between the motivational types and perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, satisfaction levels of psychological needs, and writing grades of them.

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected from 275 students of the ELL Department of Faculty of Arts and Humanities and the ELT Department of Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty of Atatürk University in the 2007-2008 Academic Year. The quantitative data were collected through four different scales and the qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews.

The analyses of the data showed that pre-service EFL teachers' amotivation level was low. In other words, they had high level of motivation for writing in English and their writing courses. Another important result is that their intrinsic motivation was significantly higher than their extrinsic motivation. Among the types of extrinsic motivations, more self-determined ones were higher than less self-determined ones. There were variances among the scores of the participants especially according to the variable of department. ELT students' scores were generally higher than those of the ELL students. According to the data obtained from interviews, one of the most important reasons of this variance was the differences between classroom populations of the departments. ELL classrooms were determined to be more crowded than the ELT classrooms and this seemed to affect the results.

Among the motivational patterns, whereas amotivation has significant negative correlations with extrinsic (except for external regulation) and intrinsic motivation types and perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic need satisfaction levels, and writing grades of the participants, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation types were positively correlated with perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, satisfaction levels of psychological needs, and writing grades of the participants. However, more self-determined extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation types were more significantly correlated with them.

The results also demonstrated that higher basic need satisfaction levels, perceived autonomy support, and perceived writing competence were strong predictors of both higher more self-determined motivation and greater success in writing courses. The qualitative data demonstrated that participants thought that the right to choose the activities and topics in writing courses, variety of creative writing, provision of informative feedback, low populated classrooms which would allow an efficient and enough interaction between the teacher and students were some of the other important factors influencing their motivation and success in writing courses. Another, probably the most important, result of the study is that it showed that self-determination theory is a good model which can be used in the investigation of the motivation of EFL writers.

ÖZET

DOKTORA TEZİ
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BÖLÜMÜNDE YAZMA ÖĞRETİMİNE
ÖZ-BELİRLEMECİ BİR YAKLAŞIM
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Bu çalışmayla, İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının yazma dersindeki motivasyon türlerinin öz-belirleme teorisine göre incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Çalışma ayrıca, bu motivasyon türlerinin İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının cinsiyeti, sınıfı, bölümü, birinci veya ikinci öğretimde olmaları, mezun oldukları lise türü gibi değişkenlere göre gösterdikleri farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmayı da amaçlamıştır. Bu çalışmanın bir başka amacı ise bu motivasyon türleri ile öğrencilerin algılanan yazma yeterliği, algılanan özerklik desteği, üç temel psikolojik ihtiyaçlarının giderilme seviyeleri ve yazma notları arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymaktı.

Bu çalışmada, 2007-2008 akademik yılında, Atatürk Üniversitesi Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı ve Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği'nden 275 hazırlık sınıfı ve birinci sınıf öğrencisinden hem nicel hem de nitel veriler toplanmıştır. Nicel veriler dört farklı ölçekle, nitel veriler ise yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmelerle toplanmıştır.

Toplanan verilerin analizleri İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının motivasyonsuzluk seviyelerinin düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu da onların İngilizce'de yazma ve yazma derslerine ilişkin yüksek motivasyona sahip oldukları anlamına gelmektedir. Önemli başka bir sonuç katılımcıların içsel motivasyonlarının dışsal motivasyonlarından belirgin bir biçimde yüksek olduğudur. Dışsal motivasyon türleri arasında, daha fazla öz-belirleme düzeyine sahip olanlar daha az öz-belirleme düzeyindeki motivasyon türlerinden daha yüksektir. Katılımcıların motivasyon skorları arasında özellikle bölüm değişkenine göre farklılıklar vardır. İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencilerinin puanları genelde İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı öğrencilerinin puanlarından yüksektir. Görüşmelerden elde edilen verilere göre, bu farklılığın en önemli nedenlerinden biri her iki bölümdeki sınıf mevcutları arasındaki farklılıklardır. İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı sınıflarının İngiliz Dili Eğitimi sınıflarından çok daha kalabalık olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Motivasyon türleri arasında, motivasyonsuzluk, dışsal motivasyon (dışsal düzenleme hariç) ve içsel motivasyon türleri, algılanan yazma yeterliliği, algılanan özerklik desteği, temel ihtiyaçların doyurulma seviyeleri ve yazma notlarıyla önemli düzeyde olumsuz korelasyona sahipken, dışsal ve içsel motivasyon türleri algılanan yazma yeterliliği, algılanan özerklik desteği, temel ihtiyaçların doyurulma seviyeleri ve yazma notlarıyla olumlu korelasyona sahiptir. Bununla birlikte, öz-belirleme düzeyi daha yüksek dışsal motivasyon türleri ile içsel motivasyon türleri bunlarla daha güçlü şekilde olumlu ilişkiye sahiptir.

Sonuçlar, aynı zamanda, yüksek temel ihtiyaç giderilme seviyeleri, algılanan özerklik desteği, algılanan yazma yeterliğinin hem öz-belirleme düzeyi daha fazla içsel olan motivasyon türleri hem de yazma derslerinde daha yüksek başarının güçlü belirleyicileri olduklarını göstermiştir. Nitel veri öğrencilerin, yazma derslerindeki etkinlik ve konuları seçme hakkı verilmesinin, çeşitli yaratıcı yazma etkinliklerinin, bilgi verici geri dönüt sağlanmasının ve öğretmenle öğrenci arasında iyi ve yeterli iletişime olanak sağlayacak öğrenci sayısı az olan sınıfların yazma derslerindeki motivasyon ve başarılarını etkileyen diğer etkenler olduklarını düşündüklerini ortaya koymuştur. Çalışmanın bir başka, belki de en önemli sonucu, öz-belirleme teorisinin öğrencilerin yazma derslerindeki motivasyonlarını incelemede kullanılabilecek iyi bir model olduğunu ortaya koymuş olmasıdır.

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Erzurum-2008 Savaş YEŞİLYURT

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

Table 2.1. Factors in developing motivation to write 41
Table 3.1. Distribution of participants according to their departments, day-time/evening classes, grades and genders 76
Table 3.2. Distribution of participants from the ELL and ELT departments according to their high school types 77
Table 3.3. Distribution of participants from the ELL Department according to their high school types 78
Table 4.1. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, amotivation and their subscales 91
Table 4.2. The highest and lowest scored items of the WMS 100
Table 4.3. Subscale means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among these subscale means 101
Table 4.4. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the PWCS 104
Table 4.5. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the PASS 105
Table 4.6. The highest and lowest scored items of the PASS 107
Table 4.7. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the BNSS and its subscales 109
Table 4.8. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the writing grades of different groups 113
Table 4.9. Intercorrelations among all of the scales-and their subscales used in the collection of the quantitative data 116

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

Figure 2.1. The self-determination continuum with types of motivation and regulation 55
Figure 4.1. Variance in the amotivation levels of the participants according to day-time/evening classes 92
Figure 4.2. Variance in the extrinsic motivation levels of the participants according to their grades 93
Figure 4.3. Variance in the extrinsic motivation levels of the participants according to their departments 93
Figure 4.4. Variance in the external regulation levels of the participants according their grades 95
Figure 4.5. Variance in the introjected regulation levels of the participants according to their departments 96
Figure 4.6. Variance in the intrinsic motivation for knowledge levels of the participants according to their departments 98
Figure 4.7. Variance in the intrinsic motivation for accomplishment levels of the participants according to their departments 99
Figure 4.8. Variance in the perceived writing competence levels of the participants according to their departments 102
Figure 4.9. Variance in perceived autonomy support of the participants according to their grades 106
Figure 4.10. Variance in the scores of the BNSS according to gender 109
Figure 4.11. Variance in the scores of autonomy subscale according to gender 110
Figure 4.12. Variance in the scores of competence subscale according to departments .. 111
Figure 4.13. Variance in the scores of relatedness subscale according to gender 112
Figure 4.14. Variance in the writing grades of the participants according to their departments 114

ABBREVIATIONS

BNS: Basic Need Satisfaction

BNSS: Basic Need Satisfaction Scale

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

EM: Extrinsic Motivation

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

IM: Intrinsic Motivation

L1: Native Language

L2: Second Language/Foreign Language

M: Mean

Max.: Maximum

Min.: Minimum

PAS: Perceived Autonomy Support

PASS: Perceived Autonomy Support Scale

PWC: Perceived Writing Competence

PWCS: Perceived Writing Competence Scale

S.D.: Standard Deviation

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

WMS: Writing Motivation Scale

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will offer an overview of the thesis. It will highlight the background of the research problem, the theoretical framework of the thesis and the main argumentation and its development in the thesis. It will also give a description of the participants and data collection instruments of the study, briefly explain the data collection and analysis procedures, and finally, give an organization of the whole thesis.

1.1. Background of the Study

The starting point and to some degree the overall objectives and scope of this research originate in the interest in exploring the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers on the basis of the motivational model proposed by self-determination theory (SDT) and the antecedents and consequences of these motivational patterns. Before starting to describe the procedure of this exploration, some general information will be given on both L2 (throughout this thesis, L2 will be used in the meaning of both second and foreign language) writing and SDT.

Writing is one of the basic language skills that should be developed integratively with other skills, listening, speaking, and reading for an effective language teaching and learning. It has many contributions to L2 learning process from various perspectives: It is used as a means of teaching grammar and vocabulary; it allows learners to express their thoughts and feelings in a more organized way; it helps learners develop their cognitive and creative skills since it forces them to have control over many different aspects of language such as content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, etc. simultaneously (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Despite all these and other numerous benefits of writing in L2 teaching, teaching of writing skill may have sometimes been behind the teaching of other skills and it has been generally considered as the last ring of the chain of language learning. For this reason, writing is put into last order in the list of skills to be taught in most L2 teaching course and research books (Chastain, 1988). The reasons of this situation may be related to the attitudes and affective variables of the learners as well as the approaches and practices of L2 teaching theorists and practitioners.

One of the most important factors related to learning is motivation, which is considered as the second important factor in learning after aptitude (Gass & Selinker, 2001). Writing is an effort demanding activity and it is very difficult for many language learners to reach a high level of achievement in L2 writing (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Hinkel, 2006). Therefore, this nature of writing may make the learners feel incompetent in writing, demotivate them and undermine their engagement in writing activities.

Depending on this assumption, this study is concerned with Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' motivation in writing. It aims to investigate their motivation patterns in writing courses on the basis of the motivation model proposed by SDT. SDT, a model of motivation, personality and optimal functioning, which proposes that people have an innate tendency for personal growth, psychological development, mastering challenges in the environment, and integrating experience into self-concept (Deci & Ryan, 1985a), has been the basis of numerous studies from different research areas such as *human behaviours* (e.g., Knee & Zuckerman, 1998), *health* (e.g., Vansteenkiste, Soenens & Vandereycken, 2005; Williams, Gagné, Ryan & Deci, 2002), *parenting* (e.g., Deci, Driver, Hotchkiss, Robbins & Wilson, 1993), *work* (e.g., Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gagné, Senécal & Koestner, 1997), *sports* (e.g., Gagné, Ryan & Bargmann, 2003; Ntoumanis, 2001; Reinboth & Duda, 2006) and *exercises* (e.g., Ryan, Frederick, Lepes, Rubio & Sheldon, 1997), *environmentalism* (e.g., Pelletier, Tuson, Green-Demers, Noels & Beaton, 1998), *daily well-being* (e.g., Sheldon, Ryan & Reis, 1996), *politics* (e.g., Losier, Perreault, Koestner & Vallerand, 2001) etc., particularly, in recent three decades.

There have been a great many research activities on self-determination in educational area as well (e.g., Anderman & Leake, 2005; Assor, Kaplan & Roth, 2002; Black & Deci, 2000; Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999; Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 2001; Flink, Boggiano & Barrett, 1990; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Katyal & Evers, 2004; Lepper, Henderlong Corpus & Iyengar, 2005; Poulsen, Rodger & Ziviani, 2006; Reeve, 2006; Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2003). These studies generally focused on the motivational types of students and the factors affecting these motivational types such as learning environment, teachers' communicative styles, use of feedback, rewards, etc. They reported results demonstrating the superiority of self-determined motivation types over the others and

positive effects of autonomy supportive learning climates, informative feedback, and performance-based non-contingent rewards on such types of motivation.

Among the studies which investigated learner motivation from SDT perspective, few were related to L2 learning motivation. L2 researchers made some attempts to adapt this theory to the field of L2 teaching (e.g., Carreira, 2005; Noels, 1997; 2001a; 2001b; Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999; 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000; Vandergrift, 2005) in recent years. These studies claimed that SDT allowed comprehensive and in-depth analyses of L2 learner motivation. They also showed the importance of intrinsic and self-determined types of extrinsic motivation for L2 learning. In addition, they revealed that there were associations between different types of motivations and social contexts and educational practices. In line with these results, it was decided to apply the motivation model of SDT to the investigation of L2 writing motivation. As mentioned above, there are many aspects of L2 writing motivation which have not been investigated fully. In addition, it has been proven that SDT proposes a very useful and a versatile motivation model. It has been extended to L2 motivation area successfully as well. SDT reveals direct associations between different practices of teachers and motivation types of their students. This nature of the theory may help teaching practitioners identify the most effective ways of enhancing learners' motivations and performances. Besides these advantages, previous research have showed that SDT can be applied to different areas of research. It was assumed that application of this model to the investigation of pre-service EFL teachers' motivations in writing courses and writing in English would also be useful to discover different aspects of their L2 writing motivations and provide solutions for the motivational problems in writing classes.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Motivation is one of the most important and complex phenomena in L2 teaching as it is in all educational settings (Brown, 1987; Dörnyei, 2001; Gass & Selinker, 2001). It is claimed that motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate language learning and without sufficient motivation, abilities of students, appropriate curricula and effective teaching on their own do not ensure students' achievement in language learning (Dörnyei,

2005, p. 65). However, development of motivation in students is not an easy task for teachers and development of motivation in writing is a much more difficult task because of the more complex and difficult nature of L2 writing than other language skills (Graham, Harris & Mason, 2005). The assumption that writing is a skill which requires students to make great effort to achieve it makes it more vital to focus on this issue.

The studies on motivation to write have developed only recently (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006) and more studies are needed to understand the complex nature of writing motivation. It is claimed that there are many aspects of motivation which need to be explored (Bruning and Horn, 2000). Within this study, it was predicted that investigating EFL students' motivation in their writing courses from a self-determination basis would contribute to the exploration of many aspects related to it. There are many studies in both educational field and, specifically, L2 teaching area supporting this prediction (e.g., Assor & Kaplan, 2001; Ratelle, Guay, Vallerand, Larose & Senécal, 2007; Street, 2003; Carreira, 2005; Noels, 1997; 2001a; 2001b; Noels et al., 1999; 2001; Noels et al., 2000; Vandergrift, 2005). These studies both support the adaptability of SDT to the investigation of learning motivation and present results showing the importance of self-determined motivation types for the achievement of students. In addition, these studies report relationships between various teaching styles and classroom contexts and motivational profiles of students and suggest some ways to enhance their self-determination. However, this theory has not been extended to L2 writing motivation research yet. As explained above, development of motivation in L2 writers is not an easy task and the previous research has not proposed models which allowed ultimate exploration of and solutions for the motivational problems in L2 writing. In addition, there has not been much research that investigated learners' motivations in different L2 language skills, and accordingly in writing, specifically. The problems related to L2 writing research are not limited to only these, of course. This study is expected to provide some clues for overcoming such problems in both the investigation and development of motivation in L2 writing classrooms.

Depending on the findings of the studies in the field of education in general and L2 teaching, it was predicted that it would be useful to investigate the problem of pre-service EFL teachers' motivations in writing courses from the perspective of SDT. The findings

from such an investigation will help us determine the sources of motivational problems in EFL classrooms and lead us to use or search the ways which would allay possible problems. The findings may also be useful in motivation development in English writing courses at other levels of education in Turkey.

1.3. Aim of the Study

The main concern of this study was to determine the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in writing courses from a SDT perspective. The research also aimed to seek the possible variances among the motivational patterns according to some subject variables such as genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, and types of high school (high schools in Turkey correspond to the secondary schools in the UK) of the participants. Another aim of this study was to analyze these motivational patterns in terms of their relations to these pre-service EFL teachers' perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades.

1.4. Research Questions

With these concerns presented above, the following research questions are expected to be answered by this research:

1) What are the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in writing classes from the perspective of the motivation model proposed by SDT?

2) Do these motivational patterns vary according to their genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes and high school types?

3) How are the motivational patterns of these pre-service EFL teachers related to their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades?

1.5. Strengths and Limitations of the Study

One of the most important strengths of this study is its comprehensive data, which were gathered through different data collection tools. The data collected through both four

different questionnaires, some questions in the background information section and interviews allowed an in-depth and multi-faceted analysis of L2 writing motivation patterns, perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic need satisfaction levels of pre-service EFL teachers in addition to their thoughts, feelings and experiences related to the writing skill and their writing courses. In addition, use of self-determination model provided information about both the levels and patterns of motivation of the participants. By this study, also, the relationships between motivation patterns of the students and different classroom practices were explored. The research gave the opportunity to collect information about the relationships between different classroom practices and different motivation patterns. In this way, it can be predicted what practices and motivation patterns might be the antecedents of writing achievement.

This study provided some clues about what should be done to develop students' motivation and enhance their writing achievement as well. Maybe, the most important strength of this study is that it showed how useful it could be to adapt the motivation model proposed by SDT to the investigation of L2 motivation.

Besides its strengths, there are also some limitations of the study. These limitations are, generally, related to its participants and research design. The study was limited to 275 students since there were only preparatory and first year students who were taking writing courses at the time of administration of this research. In other words, this research was limited to the pre-service EFL teachers who were taking writing courses at the time of data collection. The data of this study were collected through only questionnaires and semi-structured interviews and the research was a descriptive one in nature. In the future, L2 writing motivations of Turkish EFL learners from different levels and contexts may be investigated through different research designs, data collection procedures and instruments and with different participants. In further research, the motivation of SDT may also be adapted to the investigation of other language skills of Turkish EFL learners.

1.6. Significance of the Study

There have been numerous studies that extended SDT to various areas of educational research. Among them, only a few were related to L2 motivation. Therefore,

one significant aspect of this study is that it is one of the initial attempts to adapt SDT to the investigation of L2 writing motivation. Since the theory has been proved to be appropriate for motivation research in many different areas of inquiry and contexts of life (e.g., Wilson, Rodgers, Blanchard & Gessell, 2003; Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004; Ratelle et al., 2007; Knee & Zuckerman, 1998; Williams et al., 2002; Deci et al., 1993; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ntoumanis, 2001; Ryan et al., 1997), it was predicted that this model could also be used in the analyses of pre-service EFL teachers' motivation in L2 writing courses as well.

There are also studies reporting a need for further exploration of the writing contexts, goals, writing activities, tasks, and assignments, teachers' interaction with students, their ways of evaluation and providing feedback, etc. to enhance writing motivation of students (Bruning and Horn, 2000). By this study, in addition to analyses of the motivational profiles of students, the issues mentioned will have been investigated as well.

By this study, it is also expected to make implications about the antecedents and consequences of different motivation types of L2 writing students. Therefore, some useful recommendations can be made about the practices which would enhance the motivation and, accordingly, the success of learner success in L2 writing courses. From the perspectives given above, it is believed that this study will contribute to both the research and the instructional practices in L2 writing.

1.7. Methodology

In this section, the subjects and settings of the study, the data collection instruments, the methods and techniques used in both the collection and analyses of the data are introduced. Firstly, the subjects and settings; secondly, the materials used in data collection; thirdly, data collection; and, finally, data analysis procedures of the research will be explained.

1.7.1. Subjects and settings

The participants of this study consisted of 224 female and 51 male students among English Language and Literature (ELL) and English Language Teaching (ELT) preparatory

and first year students. This corresponds to 85% of all 325 preparatory and first year students of the two departments. These students were selected as the participants since they were the only students who were taking writing courses at the time of administration of this research. The participants were from mainly four different groups: The ELL preparatory students who were taking a 4-hour "Writing Skills" course; the ELL first year students who were taking, a 2-hour, in the first semester, and, 4-hour, in the second semester, "Written Expression" course; the ELT preparatory students who were taking a 5-hour "Writing Skills" course; and the ELL first year students who were taking a 3-hour "Advanced Reading and Writing Skills" course.

The participants of the interviews, which were carried out to gather the qualitative data of the study, were selected from these 275 students. From different groups, 15 students were chosen, on a voluntary basis, to interview with. Later, eight of these interviewees' transcriptions were selected and analyzed. While deciding on what transcriptions will be analyzed, in addition to the quantity and quality of the responses, a balanced distribution among different groups was taken into consideration.

1.7.2 Instruments

The data of this study were collected through both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. For the collection of the quantitative data, four different scales were used. These scales were the Writing Motivation Scale (WMS), the Perceived Writing Competence Scale (PWCS), the Perceived Autonomy Support Scale (PASS) and the Basic Need Satisfaction Scale (BNSS).

Writing Motivation Scale (WMS): This scale was used to measure the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers for writing courses from the perspective of SDT. The scale consisted of three basic and six subtypes of motivation differing from each other according to their degree of self-determination: amotivation, extrinsic motivation (with its three subtypes: external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation) and intrinsic motivation (with its three categories: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish and intrinsic motivation for stimulation). The fourth and most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, integrated regulation was not included in the

WMS since SDT studies in L2 teaching/learning area in the past excluded this subtype due to their doubt and findings that the participants could not make distinctions between it and identified regulation (Noels et al., 1999; Vandergrift, 2005; Noels, 2001b; Noels et al., 2000). The WMS was adapted from academic motivation, self-regulation, and self-determination scale samples in previous self-determination research for which the necessary references are given in *Methodology*.

Perceived Writing Competence Scale (PWCS): This scale consisted of 10 items. In these items, there were statements related to competence in different aspects of writing in English and writing courses.

Perceived Autonomy Support Scale (PASS): By this scale, students' perceptions of their writing instructors as autonomy supportive or autonomy suppressive were tried to be explored. There were 14 items in this scale. The participants were asked for their perceptions of autonomy support in different phases and dimensions of their writing instruction.

Basic Need Satisfaction Scale (BNSS): This scale was taken from Gagné (2003) who adapted it from Ilardi, Leone, Kasser & Ryan, (1993). It consisted of three different subscales and 21 items. By this scale, it was intended to measure to what extent the participants felt their basic psychological needs, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, were satisfied.

The participants were asked to express their degree of agreement with the statements in the scales by marking the numbers on a five-point Likert scale attached to them. All the scales and the references needed for both the design and use of them are described in 'Methodology' in detail; and given in 'Appendices'. In addition to the data collected through these scales, writing grades of the participants were obtained as quantitative data as well.

In the collection of qualitative data, to allow students to convey their other thoughts that may probably be related to the focus of the study, semi-structured interviews including five questions were used. By these questions, participants' views on the importance, difficulty and place, among four basic skills, of writing and writing course in their education and life in general; the writing activities they carry out in writing classes; their

writing instructers' autonomy support; their motivations for writing and writing classes; what they think about how they can be motivated better and more successful in writing in English and in writing classes were interrogated. When needed, some further questions were asked to the participants as well. In addition, a consent form was (Appendix D) given to all participants to sign before the interviews. A digital audio recorder was used to record the responses of the interviewees. The responses were then transcribed and turned into written data. These texts were used in the analyses of the verbal data obtained from the participants.

1.7.3. Data collection

The data of this study were collected in two different stages. Initially, the quantitative data were collected from 275 participants using four different scales. All the scales were given to the participants on the same sheet. There were also a background information section attached to the scales interrogating information about their genders, ages, grades, departments, day-time and evening classes, and types of high school the participants graduated from, etc. The questionnaires were given to the participants during regular classes and it took the participants 35-40 minutes to complete them.

After the initial analyses of the data from the scales, some participants, on a voluntary basis, were selected for interviews. Interviews were administered in different times depending on their availability. Some subjects wanted to participate in the interviews together with their friends. They were interviewed together with their friends but the questions were posed to them one by one. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed. The texts obtained from the transcription process were revised and necessary notes were taken. Then, the responses were categorized according to their relevance to each other.

1.7.4. Data Analysis

The quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed in different phases. First, the quantitative data collected through four scales and writing grades of the participants were analyzed. This was realized by finding descriptive statistics such as maximum and

minimum scores, means, standard deviations, etc., by making variance and correlation analyses and forming tables and figures by the help of SPSS 16.00. Later, the findings obtained from the analysis of quantitative data were summarized in terms of the extent they answered the research questions of the study.

The qualitative data were analyzed in order to determine whether they supported the findings from quantitative data and to explore the aspects which could not be measured by the questionnaires. In the analysis of the qualitative data, the guidelines given in Cresswell (1998) were used as a model: After the interviews were audio-taped and transcribed, they were revised in order to find noteworthy information, the information found was categorized, and then, they were reported and evaluated in terms of their contributions to the answers which were sought for the research questions of the study. In the final stage of data analysis, the findings from both quantitative and qualitative instruments were evaluated together and conclusions were reported.

1.9. Key Terminology

This section includes the terms and conceptions which will be frequently referred to throughout the thesis and their definitions.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT): SDT is an organismic dialectical model of motivation, personality and optimal functioning that is based on the premise that people have an innate tendency for personal growth, psychological development, mastering challenges in the environment, and integrating experience into self-concept and which may be either supported or discouraged by their social contexts (Deci & Ryan, 1985a). SDT proposed different types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). It also stresses the need for satisfying three basic psychological needs, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, of people, which are essential for the facilitation of self-motivation and effective functioning (Baard et al., 2004).

Three Basic Psychological Needs: SDT emphasizes the essence of three innate basic psychological needs; autonomy, competence, and relatedness for facilitating optimal

functioning of the natural propensities for psychological growth, integrity, constructive social development, and personal well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 68).

Autonomy: The need for autonomy refers to the strivings of people to be the origin of their behaviours or to have a voice in determining them. It involves the desire for internal perceived locus of causality during activities.

Competence: The need for competence refers to people's strivings to control outcomes and to experience effectance; and to understand the instrumentalities leading to desired outcomes and to be able to affect these instrumentalities.

Relatedness: The need for relatedness involves people's desires to relate to or care for others and to feel a satisfying and coherent involvement with the social environment (Deci & Ryan, 1991, p. 243).

Extrinsic Motivation: Extrinsic motivation refers to engaging an activity in order to attain some outcomes separate from this activity rather than for the enjoyment of it. There are four different types of extrinsic motivation. They are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60).

External regulation: External regulation is the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation. Externally regulated behaviours depend on the reasons which are completely separate from them. In this type of regulation, people do any activity because of external sources such as getting a reward or avoiding a punishment.

Introjected regulation: Introjected regulation refers to a degree more self-determined type of extrinsic motivation than external regulation. It involves the activities performed by people in order to avoid shame and guilt or to attain esteem and self-worth.

Identified regulation: Identified regulation is a more self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. In this type of motivation, people do behaviours since they find them personally valuable, important, and useful.

Integrated regulation: Integrated regulation is the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. It involves a choiceful behaviour that is fully assimilated with individuals' other values, needs and identity (Dörnyei, 2001, p.28).

Intrinsic Motivation: Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity for its own sake and for the pleasure and satisfaction from participation in this activity (Pelletier et

al., 1998). Intrinsically motivated people do activities for the fun or challenge inherent in them rather than because of external pressures or rewards (Ryan and Deci, 2000a). Intrinsic motivation is divided into three categories; intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation.

Intrinsic motivation to know: This motivation type refers to the intrinsic motivation for doing an activity for the pleasure concerning the development of knowledge and new ideas.

Intrinsic motivation to accomplish: This intrinsic motivation type is related to attempting to realize a goal or master a task.

Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation: Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation is related to engagement in an activity for the enjoyment, fun, or excitement associated with it (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senécal & Vallieres, 1992).

Amotivation: Amotivation refers to the lack or absence of motivation. Amotivated people do not see any relationships between the behaviours they do and their outcomes (Ratelle et al., 2007).

1.10. Conclusion

In this section, introductory information on the background, aims, research questions, strengths and limitations, significance and methodology of the study (subjects and settings, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures) and the key terminology that will be confronted with throughout the thesis was given. In *Literature Review*, the theoretical framework relevant to L2 writing and SDT will be given; in *Methodology*, the subjects, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures will be described in detail; in *Data Analysis*, quantitative and qualitative data of the research will be analyzed and demonstrated in tables and figures; finally, in *Conclusion*, findings of the study, pedagogical implications and recommendations, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research will be presented.

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter gives an overall theoretical framework of the two major phenomena concerned in this study; L2 writing and SDT. Firstly, writing, in the sense of a major language skill taught in L2 classrooms, will be introduced with some basic issues which have been frequently dealt with by the researchers who have studied on it. There are, of course, too many things to tell on writing, and it will naturally be impossible to include all of them in this study. Nevertheless, some important ones, in particular, those that can be associated with the focus of this research, in its most general sense, writing motivation and SDT, will be referred to. Secondly, SDT, which is a theory of motivation and personality developed by Deci and Ryan focusing on the importance of people's evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioural self-regulation (Ryan, Kuhl & Deci, 1997); and the studies in the areas of education, L2 teaching/learning, and L2 writing from the perspective of this theory will be explained.

2.2. Writing

Writing is regarded as a skill in which many adult native speakers can never achieve a high level of expressiveness even in their first language (Hedge, 1988). Accordingly, people's ability to express their ideas in a second or foreign language is thought to be a great achievement (Celce-Murcia, 2001); and, even after years of training, most L2 writers' texts cannot reach the levels of those of the novice L1 writers (Hinkel, 2006). This nature of writing resulted in the consideration of writing as more complex and more difficult than other three basic language skills, reading, speaking, and listening (Kroll, 2001; Liu & Braine, 2005).

Many reasons, most of which are common for both L1 and L2 writing, are given for this problematic and difficult nature of L2 writing.. First of all, the use of intonation, tone (Ivanıč & Camps, 2001), body language, facial expression, eye contact, hesitations and all other means that are used in oral communication is not possible in writing (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). This lack of immediate feedback, as Olshtain (2001) states, imposes

greater demands on writing to compensate for all of these disadvantages. Writing requires simultaneous control over a number language systems such as a high degree of organization, accuracy, the use of complex grammatical devices, a careful choice of vocabulary, paragraph structure, cohesive devices, grammatical patterns, and sentence structures (Hedge, 1988, p. 5). Namely, it requires students to integrate all cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social factors (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006) and the ability to take the ways which must be shaped for a particular audience and a particular purpose into considerations (Kroll, 2001, p. 230). In addition, writing should be consciously learned while speaking can be acquired naturally as a result of being exposed to it (Harmer, 2004). Most of the writing carried out in classrooms is not concerned with the context and time in which students learn the L2. This case decreases the interest of the students to write and their performances in it. Furthermore, it takes very long time for most students to master the writing skill. In addition, in many L2 writing classrooms, writing is often associated with the mechanics of writing such as handwriting, grammar, spelling and punctuation rather than with content. This is also discouraging and demotivating for the students (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Many further difficulties of writing, of course, may be added to those listed above.

Besides these difficulties, several advantageous and good sides of writing that make it necessary to include writing in L2 teaching curricula are reported as well. It is indicated that, by writing, a further physical dimension is added to the learning process by the use of hands besides eyes and ears (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Writing consolidates the learning in other areas, such as new structures and vocabulary, it helps students remember the new items they have learnt (Hedge, 1988) and gives students the chance to be conscious of their language learning process (O'Brien, 2004) since they can monitor their writing more than they can monitor their speech since many structures appear more frequently in writing than other skills and ,while writing, they have the time to go back and think about their writing (Scott and Ytreberg,1990). This allows the observation of the language learning process and the diagnosis of the problematic areas (Hedge, 1988). In-class writing activities might also have superiority in that they require all the students to participate in them. These activities help students organize their thoughts into coherent and fluent forms and develop

their cognitive skills, too (Chastain, 1988). Finally, writing itself has a value for individuals as well since evidencing that they have put their ideas or feelings on a certain issue on the paper provides a great satisfaction for students (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990).

In addition to its contribution in educational contexts, writing has many socially and psychologically positive effects to human life. It allows individuals to maintain their communication with others beyond the limits of place and time. Writing is an important vehicle of gathering, preserving and transmitting information. It also serves as a means for self-expression. Thanks to writing, it is possible for people to explore themselves, fight their loneliness and note down their experiences. By the use of writing to express one's feelings, people can feel psychologically better as well (MacArthur, Graham & Fitzgerald, 2006, p.1).

Besides all these reasons, there is also a general belief that people are not considered fully educated unless they know how to read and write in the language(s) they speak (Chastain, 1988). Communicating through writing is a key to success at school, in the workplace and in society (Norman & Spencer, 2005). Chastain, again, emphasizes that, although, in the sense of conversation, both of the productive skills, speaking and writing, should be practiced, writing has a unique feature in that it allows individuals to practice alone. Namely, it is a solitary activity; it does not need the company of others to occur.

Another important issue, in addition to its difficulties and benefits, related to teaching writing is that writing, in spite of its crucial role and contributions in language teaching, is considered to be the last ring of four basic language skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing, therefore teaching of this skill is realized finally. Also, it is seen as homework rather than an activity for classroom by some foreign language teachers (Demirel, 2003, p. 108). Reichelt (2001) states that many L2 writing researchers see writing as a means of overall language acquisition or as a support skill for other L2 skills rather than as an end itself (p. 589). According to Chastain (1988), this tendency to view writing as the least useful of the four language skills may give an impression that it is less important so it can be sacrificed to spend more time on the other three skills. But, as it can be clearly understood from the reasons explained above, the case is not so.

Fortunately, negative views on writing have been changing and the developments are promising. In addition, because of increasing globalization and need to communicate in foreign languages (especially through the Internet), L2 writing has become an issue to be focused on in L2 studies and has turned into an area of inquiry in its own right (Silva & Brice, 2004). In line with these developments, studies on L2 writing and the importance given to this area have attained a noteworthy attention by the researchers and language teachers. Depending on this fact, Silva & Brice (2004) defines this age an exiting time to work in the area of L2 writing (p. 84). Below, some major issues related to L2 writing and L2 writing instruction will be explained.

2.2.2. Teaching writing in EFL classrooms

The field investigating writing in general and teaching writing in L2 contexts is not an old one. The research related to this field of study goes back only to 1960s. Nevertheless, since then, in a nearly 50-year time, research on this field has experienced a great development (Matsuda, Canagarajah, Harklau, Hyland & Warschauer, 2003). In 1970s, the interest in L2 writing significantly increased by the belief of researchers that understanding the complex process of writing in a L2 would help the improvement of L2 writers' performances. However, it was the late 1980s and early 1990s when there were dramatic innovations in the approach and methodology of L2 writing emerged together with the application of, first, cognitive and later socio-cultural theories and methods to the study of writing (Hedge, 2000; MacArthur et al., 2006; Matsuda et al., 2003). In 1980s, the socio-cultural theories, which focused on the social interaction and cultural context of writing, approached writing as a meaningful social activity and tried to integrate the cognitive, affective and social aspects of writing motivation, began to gain importance against the merely cognitive approaches. And, only after 1980s, L2 writing took its right place in L2 studies such as composition studies, applied linguistics, TESOL, foreign language education, bilingual education, etc. (MacArthur et al., 2006; Matsuda et al., 2003).

Studies on L2 writing have investigated it from various perspectives. Some investigated the historical development of the studies on this issue, some were concerned

with the methods of inquiry in this field of study (e.g., Reichelt, 2001), and some focused on the pedagogical approaches to L2 writing (e.g., Matsuda et al., 2003).

In 1980s, L2 writing studies were based on L1 writing studies (O'Brien, 2004). But later, it was recognized that there were important differences between L1 and L2 writing. In addition to the requirements of writing in general, L2 writing also needs to take the cultural, rhetorical, and linguistic differences between the two languages into account. As it was understood that adoption of L1 theories and practices to the contexts of L2 writing was misguiding, new approaches and practices which would consider the differences between L1 and L2 writing were sought (Hinkel, 2006; Way, Joiner & Seaman, 2000).

Most of the studies in L2 writing have been related to writing in English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL or EFL) contexts (Reichelt, 2001; p. 578), because English has been regarded as a dominant and a universal language in every sphere of life and research. Additionally, the studies in this field focused on higher education contexts since they were regarded to have more plentiful examples of L2 writing (Silva & Brice, 2004).

The studies related to ESL/EFL writing investigated various issues related to this area and found numerous results many of which contradicted each other. The major concerns of these studies have been, basically, goals of writing, role of it in L2 learning, different approaches to teaching writing, techniques to be used in teaching writing, first and L2 writing, writing tasks given by teachers, extensive reading and writing, grammar treatment in teaching writing, students' motivations to write, strategy training, influence of technological developments on teaching writing, computer use in the teaching and evaluation of writing, and so on (e.g., Kroll, 2001; Matsuda et al., 2003; O'Brien, 2004; Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Reichelt, 2001; Silva & Brice, 2004).

Some major issues related to writing and teaching writing will be explained below according to their relations to the focus of this research. Some of these issues will be presented together because of their close relationship to each other.

2.2.2.1. Purpose of teaching writing

One of the most significant problems in teaching writing is the lack of a unified sense of purpose of writing within foreign language curriculum and the debates on this issue have not even come to an end yet (Reichelt, 2001). However, two major goals, in general, have been attributed to teaching writing in language classrooms. One of them is the use of writing as a means of practice of language structure while the other is to use it as a means of communication (Chastain, 1988, p.244). In both, practice and communicative senses, writing has been considered to be making invaluable contributions to overall language learning.

Of course, the ideal is to see these two goals inseparable and try to realize them at the same time and to make efforts to include both types of goals of writing in the class being aware of their differences. Because these two aspects are mutually interactive and beneficial, and the activities in the classroom should be held in a way that will allow students to communicate while learning language forms (Chastain, 1988) since grammar always has an essential role for effective written communication (Frodesen, 2001). But the level of integrating these two goals depends on numerous variables. L2 writing teaching is carried in a countless variety of settings and these different settings cause variation in the goals and the ways of teaching of writing (Kroll, 2001). The goals of teaching language, the teacher, needs and levels of students, the contexts in which the language is being learnt, and so on, may be counted among these variables.

Reichelt, (2001) and Harmer (2004) suggest that teachers, before beginning writing instruction, should discuss and decide on the purpose of this instruction by considering the following questions that could help them in this process: *What role will writing play for students outside the classroom? What is the purpose of writing within the FL classroom itself: Is it to work on accuracy in orthography and morphology; to reinforce and learn new vocabulary; to practice various structures; to provide further experience in purposive use of the target language through interaction and creation of meaning; to learn to create compositions appropriate for some particular audience and purpose; to learn and communicate about aspects of the target language, including literature and culture; to support acquisition of speaking, reading, and listening skills?*; etc. (p. 579). Exploration of

the purpose in L2 writing teaching would be useful for both researchers and practitioners of this field.

Considering different factors and following the guidelines suggested above, the goal of writing teaching can be determined. Then the two goals can be integrated or one of them can be preferred to the other. There is no problem with putting emphasis on the practice or communicative role, of course, but one should not be completely sacrificed in favour of the other.

In conventional approaches, teaching writing was mostly regarded as only a tool by which the teacher could measure students' command of the grammar and vocabulary he had taught to them, in advance, in classes; and, to support the acquisition of speaking, reading and listening skills (Reichelt, 2001). Therefore, the focus was only on the mechanical properties, basic rules of spelling, punctuation and capitalization (Olshtain, 2001, p.208) of writing. Here, the concern of teachers was how their students learn through writing not how to teach them writing (Silva & Brice, 2004). Accordingly, evaluation of papers was based on the accurate use of grammar, spelling and mechanical features of writing such as handwriting, punctuation, margins, etc. In this manner of evaluation, all mistakes and errors committed by students were corrected and criticized by the teacher. Namely, the focus was generally on incorrect forms. This case demotivated students and created unproductive and inappropriate orientations to writing. There was no much concern for the content, purpose or audience as well. This led students not to think the message they would convey but the grammar instead (Chastain, 1988).

On the other hand, in more recent approaches recognizing the aim of teaching writing as teaching students to express themselves in writing, writing has been regarded as a social and interactive activity by which the writer conducts a 'dialogue' expecting responses and selecting appropriate information, ideas, and expressions to influence these responses (Hedge, 2000). This approach has led teachers to try to find the ways to present real writing examples with authentic materials for authentic readers to students. Students become more motivated for writing when there are more real readers such as other students, visitors, etc. rather than the single unreal reader, teacher. Their pieces of writing can become real means of communication with these readers (Hedge, 1988).

The purpose chosen for teaching writing influences, to a great extent, the approach to teaching writing, activities to be designed for students, evaluation of the writing of students, etc., too. Below these issues will be explained beginning with the two main approaches to teaching writing in L2 teaching settings.

2.2.2.2. Product-based and process-based approaches

There have been two general approaches in L2 writing teaching: product-based and process-based approaches (Harmer, 2004). The first one focuses only on the outcome that is reached at the end of writing activity whereas the second is concerned with the experiences lived by the students in creating that outcome.

Product-based approach finds grammar and mechanics of writing more important than the ideas being expressed and centres around the result of writing rather than the steps of preparation of a good piece of writing. This approach is referred to as the product-based approach because its primary focus is on the completed written product, not on the strategies and processes involved in the production or on the nature of any learning that might be required (Kroll, 2001, p. 220). Therefore, this nature of the approach does not give us anything about the instructional needs and experiences of learners.

The modern and common trend in teaching writing today is process-based approach. Recently, both pedagogical literature and research in L2 writing have focused on process approach to writing and demonstrated positive results related to this approach (Caudery, 1997; Reichelt, 2001). Especially, a noteworthy progress has been evidenced in the studies attempted to understand the progresses in writing (Graham & Harris, 2000). Most writing courses have also been following a process approach in teaching writing irrespective of the types of writing tasks and assignments and levels of students, etc. (Kroll, 2001).

By process-based approach, it is expected to gain insights into how to teach writing by trying to understand the mental operations students experience during writing and what makes a good writer. In this type of writing, students benefit from writing process by gaining control over the cognitive strategies for composing and paying attention to the features of texts (Hedge, 2000). They know that writing covers a sequential and interrelated process of creating and criticizing rather than a product to be handed in at a time. Process-

based instruction also increases the time devoted to pre-writing activities by students, and their success in writing and develops more positive attitudes toward writing instruction in students (Akyel & Kamışlı, 1997).

Process approach sees writing as an act of discovery (O'Brien, 2004). In this discovery process, students employ some strategies to manage composing a text doing some activities such as setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making a draft, reading and reviewing it, then revising and editing (Hedge, 2000, p. 302). Namely, in this approach, it is recognized that writing is a complex process requiring many different operations to go on simultaneously (Graham et al., 2005; Hedge, 1988). Thinking on these complex processes would support teachers in designing effective and useful classroom contexts and practices.

Hedge (2000, p.303-304) reports some findings from the studies conducted to investigate the process of writing and the strategies, which can be defined as the qualities of good writers, used by the writers in this process as follows: *(1) planning is a thinking activity to which writers return again and again during composing rather than a single phase; (2) writers have individual strategies for getting started to write, (3) the process of writing is recursive and generative, with students re-reading their work, assessing it, reacting, and moving on; (4) revising take place throughout the process and generally involves considerable changes; although all the writers pay attention to surface-level features, the better writers deal with them at the end of the process whereas poorer writers do such things throughout the process; (5) writers are concerned with linguistic problems least; (6) once the ideas have been written down and developed, writers begin to edit for surface-level features such as accuracy in grammar, word-choice, spelling and punctuation.*

Hedge (1988, p. 21), in an earlier publication, labels the stages of writing as 'being motivated to write', 'getting ideas together', 'planning and outlining', 'making notes', 'making a first draft', 'revising and planning', and 'editing and getting ready for publication'. However, she emphasizes that this is a recursive process in which the students can go backwards and forwards between drafting and revising rather than being a linear

one. For these stages to be completed successfully by the students, readers, feedback and enough time should be provided to them.

It can be inferred from these findings that teachers need to take both the individual strategies of writers and the general recursiveness of the writing process into consideration. They should also make students know that the responses to their writing by the teacher will be given through stages in a recursive way. In addition to the writing process to be followed and the strategies used by the writers, the awareness in student that the organization of writing should be appropriate to its purpose and audience is required to be built as well (Hedge, 2000).

In accordance with the process approach, three major writing *activities (or phases)*, which are done throughout the writing process and in which the stages and strategies explained above are followed, are proposed in L2 writing literature (Hedge, 1988; Chastain, 1988). These writing *activities (or phases)* are called ***prewriting***, ***writing*** and ***post-writing***.

In ***prewriting***, first, the function, purpose, and the audience of the writing are determined. This is also the stage in which the possible content and the plan of the writing process are decided on. These types of activities are especially important for the students who generally cannot get motivated to write and do not know how to begin to write.

Getting started in writing causes a great waste of time and constructs a big source of discouragement for students (Kroll, 2001). The first thing to be done by the teacher at this stage is to find ways to motivate students. The teacher can begin with trying to reduce students' reluctance and heighten their interest. Chastain (1988, p. 254), suggests the following requirements which, he believes, helps the teacher achieve this: *The students (1) should be interested in the topic; (2) should have some reasons for writing on that topic; (3) should have several ideas and some information needed to write about the topic; and (4) should be aware of the system the teacher will use to evaluate their composition.*

Brainstorming, trying to put ideas together, discovering a purpose, planning, developing a sense of direction, developing a sense of audience for whom they are writing for, listing the main ideas and their sub-categories and clustering words and phrases are regarded as indispensable activities to be carried out and as the initial supports in terms of

helping students get started writing by the studies related to L2 writing (e.g., Chastain, 1988; Hedge, 1988, 2000; Kroll, 2001).

Among the practices suggested above to support students to get started writing, brainstorming is used as a more umbrella term which might cover several of others. Students' brainstorming on the selected topic, before beginning to write, supports them to form schemata, generate needed vocabulary, organize their ideas and activate their imagination. This process also provides students with self-confidence and increases their interest and motivation. Teachers should encourage students by sharing some experiences of him or using some teaching materials. They should make students feel that they have many alternatives to start.

A similar solution for the problem of being unable to get started to write is the use of freewriting-which is different from the term freewriting given below under the heading of *Types of Writing Activities*. By freewriting, it is aimed to help learners generate ideas and overcome the problem of 'writer's block'. During freewriting, students write as quickly as possible without stopping. Thus they concentrate on the content and they can discover the theme to write on (Hedge, 1988, p. 46).

Writing on real events is another way to get started writing. Students might have more ideas about the events they hear or read and can put these ideas on the paper in an easier way. Reading also has many benefits in writing. Using readings serves as models, provides input helping the development of awareness of the students of English language writing style, etc. Readings can be used in the assignments of summarizing, paraphrasing, interpreting and synthesizing concepts as well. Actually, to be a good writer, one needs to be a proficient reader in the target language. Therefore, writing teachers should include enough reading in their classes (Kroll, 2001, p. 225).

The second type of writing activities (or phases) is ***writing***, or *the process of composing*. After getting students motivated, increasing their interest, providing them with some information and determining the purpose and intended audience, the writing process begins. In this stage, making a first draft, reading over and reviewing, bringing new ideas or rearranging the written ones are tried to be accomplished. This stage is a recycling process of planning, drafting, reviewing, replanning, revising, etc. (Hedge, 1988).

The first thing to be considered in this stage is the time to be allotted for writing tasks. Teachers should give students the time that would be much enough for planning, creating and criticizing phases and prevent them from one-shot, all-night, last-gasp approach to composition writing. Enough time would also enable students to express themselves better and show better performances in writing (Chastain, 1988).

To allow students to get started to write and concentrate their energy on the creative process, it is recommended to use freewriting and avoid criticism since it hinders the flow of writing and results in hesitation and blockage of ideas. Freewriting also stimulates the flow of thought and encourages students to continue writing for long durations (Chastain, 1988, p. 256).

Chastain (1988) cites three stages suggested by Murray (1980) for the composing process: *rehearsing, drafting and revising*. During these stages, writers move from exploration to clarification. Rehearsal begins in prewriting session as vocabulary, ideas and feelings are generated by the teacher and by the class. Then, by the help of the teacher, students outline and organize their writing. After they have finished writing, they revise how good they have expressed their thoughts and feelings on the paper. In revision, writers have two goals: *shaping meaning* and *improving language*. First they try to create the exact meaning they want to convey, then to strengthen the language and grammar used; especially, good writers have a tendency to focus on content first and leave details related to spelling, punctuation and grammar until later (p. 23). While shaping the meaning, five steps (Elbow, 1981) are followed: *(1) Fixing readers and purpose in mind, (2) reading over raw writing and marking important parts, (3) finding the main point, (4) putting the parts in order on the basis of the main point, and (5) making a draft*. And during the improvement of the language, tightening and cleaning up the language and removing mistakes in grammar and usage are carried out.

To sum up, this stage of composing focuses primarily on two things, first *what* to say, then *how* to say it most effectively. The next and last writing activity or phase is *postwriting*.

Postwriting is related to finding someone to read the paper and to respond it. Students need feedback to learn to what extent they can achieve the goals expected to be

reached, to increase their effectiveness as writers, maintain their motivation to continue writing and search for the ways to communicate better. This stage includes the processes of *marking* by the teacher; students' *redrafting* their writing by evaluating, rethinking, and rewriting some parts of their texts; and *editing*, which is the stage of checking for accuracy and making final revisions (Hedge, 1988, p. 145).

As mentioned above, evaluation by the teacher, in the traditional approach, was based on the mechanics of writing and grammatical accuracy rather than the content. On the contrary, in the process-based approach, it is the content which is focused on. The teacher responds to the written papers as real readers do (Chastain, 1988).

This differentiation is similar for the approaches of good and bad writers to their own writing. Whereas good writers are not concerned with grammar, vocabulary, etc. during the writing process much, poor writers are delayed, to a large extent, with these aspects of writing and miss the content (Hedge, 1988; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2001).

Two types of reacting to papers of the students are cited: *responding* and *feedback* (Harmer, 2004, p. 42). Harmer expresses that while responding deals with content, providing feedback deals with the form. There should be a balance between feedbacks and responses since students need encouragement from the teacher related to both the appropriateness and correctness in writing. If students are provided with only negative feedback, they become discouraged and amotivated and avoid writing complex sentences. They need also positive feedback to improve their writing throughout and at the end of the writing process. MacArthur et al. (2006) indicates that without effective feedback, students do not assess and revise their writing. According to the findings of Semke (1984), whereas responses, comments on content only, and informative feedback contribute the writing of students and make them spend more time on writing, over-corrective feedback demotivates them and brings about negative attitudes to writing. The responses and feedback from the teacher are very essential in that students will try to form the final version of their papers relying on them.

Although process-based approach to writing teaching provides us with many advantages and benefits, there are also criticisms about it as well as about every approach. One criticism is that time limits and large classes are great obstacles to apply this approach.

Especially in large classes and cases in which time is not adequate, the process-based writing may not work at desired levels. Another problem with this approach is that it does not address the realities of those students who are writing in academic contexts such as time constraints again and demands of various discourse types (Hedge, 2000, p. 319). Therefore, the most appropriate way is to use the best of both approaches in order to develop the aspects of writing most needed by students. While deciding on one of these approaches, specific needs of students should be taken into account.

These two approaches are not the only approaches to teaching writing, of course. There are several other approaches such as communicative writing, task-based writing, collaborative curriculum development, etc. as well. However, it is assumed to be true to give these two major approaches since they serve as the two ends of a continuum. The other approaches are somehow related to these two major approaches, included in them, or between the two ends of the continuum.

2.2.2.3. Types of writing activities

While designing a syllabus for writing course, the writing teacher needs to take the following aspects into account: *(1) how much writing students are expected to complete during the term, divided into less formal work such as journals and more formal work such as assignments? (2) What the timelines and deadlines are for working on and completing papers? (3) How many of the formal writing assignments will be done in class as "timed" pieces? (4) What aspects of the composing process will be presented? (5) What aspects of English grammar and syntax, if any, will be directly addressed in class? (6) What will be seen to constitute "progress" in acquiring improved writing skills as the term moves along? (7) How much reading will be covered? (8) How do the student's grades or a decision of credit/no credit will be determined* (Kroll, 2001, p. 223)*?*

As can be understood from the aspects listed above, during the design of writing course syllabus writing teacher basically decides on or determines what he would do throughout writing courses and how to do them. Namely, he decides on the types of writing activities and manner, time, duration, amount, and evaluation of these activities. Different

types of writing activities are appealed to in different stages and contexts and for different purposes.

Writing activities are generally put into three groups: *controlled, guided* and *freewriting* activities. As understood from the labels given to them, writing activities vary according to the degree of being tightly controlled to being completely free (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990).

Controlled writing activities are the ones which are put into practice with novice writers and use the techniques of straight copying, matching pictures and texts, organizing and copying, delayed copying, copying book and dictation. The purpose of such activities is, initially, to reinforce the use of language rules (Kroll, 2001). These techniques generally ask students to rewrite or copy the existing texts. Students add very little or nothing from themselves.

Guided writing is generally used with the students who have progressed in writing. It utilizes the techniques of completion such as fill-in or text completion exercises, dictation, letters/cards/invitations, text conversion, revision and editing focused exercises, sentence combining, guided paraphrase, text elicitation, etc. In these activities, some parts of the text are given, in advance, and students are asked to complete it by the aids from teacher or other teaching materials (e.g. books). Guided writing serves to focus students' attention on language features that are difficult for them (Frodesen, 2001).

It is believed that students need to engage in whole pieces of writing; and this is not possible with guided or controlled exercises (Hedge, 1988). Therefore, in *freewriting*, students are asked to produce complete texts in response to a variety of writing stimuli, such as pictures, texts which have been read, on any topic presented to or selected by them (Kroll, 2001, p. 222). In freewriting, learners use their own language and the teacher just initiates or helps them. In addition, in freewriting activities, students are regarded as writers writing for a purpose and audience, drafting a piece of writing, revising it and sharing it with others (Hedge, 1988).

The techniques commonly used in freewriting are dialogues, descriptions, letters, stories, and so on. In freewriting activities, the teacher does not correct all the mistakes. S/he tries to encourage students to write as much as possible. However, this is not always

easy for learners. They usually do not know how to begin. To overcome this problem, the teacher should do some warming-up activities such as talking about the subject, forming word stars or vocabulary charts and collecting related vocabulary.

Freewriting generally focuses on the content whereas controlled and guided writing aims to practice the language (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Decision on which types of activities will be used depends on the learner variables and learning contexts (Frodesen, 2001, p. 240).

Besides the categorization given above, writing activities can be grouped as *personal writing* such as diaries, journals, shopping lists, recipes, etc., which are written for oneself; *study writing* such as note-taking, making summaries, essays, bibliographies, etc.; *public writing* such as letters of inquiry, complaint, letters to the editor, form filling, applications, etc.; *creative writing* such as writing poems, stories, drama, etc. (this type of writing is made for oneself but shared with others); *social writing* which includes the writing used to establish and maintain social relationships the most common examples of which are personal letters, invitations, notes with congratulations, telegrams, and telephone messages; and, *institutional writing* which is related to professional roles such as memoranda, reports, reviews, business letters, contracts, curriculum vitae, etc. (Hedge, 1988, p. 96). It is possible to add several different taxonomies of writing activities. However, it is supposed to be enough to present these major categories.

2.2.2.4. Classroom tasks and homework assignments

Two of the most important components of any writing course are told to be writing assignments and the feedback to be provided to learners for these assignments without which there are not many reasons for the students to write. But, firstly, the appropriate writing tasks and assignments should be decided on and provided to the students by the teacher.

Kroll (2001) suggests a set of guidelines to be followed to construct assignments which would assure both the success of the students and contribution to the goals of the course: *(1) a writing assignment should be presented with its* ***context*** *clearly delineated such that the student understands the reasons for the assignment; (2) the* ***content*** *of the*

task/topic should be accessible to the writers and allow for multiple approaches; (3) the ***language*** *of the task and the instructions it is embedded in should be clear, comprehensible, and transparent; (4) the* ***task*** *should be focused on enough to allow for completion in the time or length constraints given and should further students' knowledge of classroom content and skills; (5) the* ***rhetorical specifications (cues)*** *should provide a clear direction of the likely shape and format of the finished assignment including appropriate references to an anticipated audience (6) the* ***evaluation criteria*** *should be identified so that students will know in advance how their output will be judged* (p. 226).

Another important point is that since students learn to write by writing, the tasks and assignments which will provide the opportunity to write as much as possible should be included in writing courses (Kroll, 2001, p. 226). These tasks and assignments should also provide the students with the opportunities to practice different forms and functions in writing in order to develop the skills they need in producing written texts. Writing tasks need to reflect the characteristics of good writing as well (Hedge, 1988).

While selecting writing tasks, teachers should make sure that the types of writing they choose are proper for the ages, interests and levels of their students. Considering these factors, the activities such as writing postcards, various kinds of letters, filling in forms such as job applications, writing narrative compositions, reports, newspapers, magazine articles, dialogues, playscripts, advertisements, or poems can be given to students as writing tasks or assignments in writing classes. In the groups made up of individuals having different interests, levels and ages, the writing tasks considered to be generally relevant, useful and enjoyable should be chosen (Harmer, 1998, p. 80). Writing activities should be encouraging, moderately challenging and motivating. For the writing tasks and assignments in L2 language writing classes, three categories are suggested; practical writing tasks, emotive writing tasks and school-oriented tasks.

Practical writing tasks are the writing activities such as various types of lists (things to do, things to be completed, shopping lists, and so on), notes, short messages, simple instructions, etc. the focus of which is primarily on spelling and morphology.

Emotive writing tasks include the examples of personal writing such as letters to friends, narratives of personal experiences, personal journals and diaries. In this type of

writing, the writing format, appropriate use of expressions and grammar accuracy can be taught to the learners. Of course, these types of writing are more suitable for more advanced learners than those of practical writing.

School-based writing is the one which is most frequently used among these three types of writing. Because, one of the most important functions of writing in students' life is the function it plays in school. Students use writing mostly when they write assignments, summaries, answers to questions or a variety of essay-type passages.

All these three types of writing tasks are useful for language learning and they should be paid attention, both at the linguistic accuracy level and message transmission level. When the content and organization are combined with the accepted formal features, students will benefit from the writing skill in their overall language best (Olshtain, 2001).

In modern approaches to writing, the main function of writing is considered to be the communication of individuals' thoughts and feelings to others. When learners write in accordance with this approach, they have a purpose to write and, at the same time, an audience to read their writings. The audience awareness is very important in the decision on the ways of organizing the text (Thompson, 2001) and in the selection of appropriate content and style (Hedge, 1988). Parallel with this approach, content-based writing instruction has flourished in recent years (Silva & Brice, 2004). Cameron (2001, p. 155-156) proposes writing letters and e-mail messages to be sent to authors of books, pen friends overseas, magazines, schools in other countries, students in other classes, etc.; simple stories written for the students of foreign language in the same schools with them; and, articles about class events and reviews of books, films or television programmes, written for a class or school magazine or computer bulletin board as the tasks that may be utilized in content-based writing instruction.

A further issue related to writing tasks and assignments is that understanding of the task conditions that would contribute the motivational development in writing students is very crucial in order to provide an effective writing instruction (Bruning and Horn, 2000, p. 32). Therefore, writing assignments must be designed, sequenced and structured in a manner that would allow the teacher to know the learning goal of each paper and gains of the students from them (Kroll, 2001).

There are certainly no exact formulas which will result in perfect writing (Kroll, 2001). We can just decrease the numbers of problems and it is possible only through writing (Hedge, 2000). It is essential to write often and at length to become a good and fluent writer. The teacher might help this process by encouraging students to choose texts which are interesting for them such as passages from the books they read and enjoyed, some texts which they would find themselves from the internet or from other types of literary or non-literary written sources. The opportunity to choose the topic they would write can make their writing task more meaningful and motivating. The teacher might also encourage the extended writing of learners by leading them to write whatever they like on a topic they find interesting and have knowledge on with no pressure of the worry about the accuracy of spellings or grammar. In this type of writing activity, the teacher does not correct the mistakes but provides students with informative feedback (Cameron, 2001).

At the very beginning of this section, it was asserted that two of the most important components of writing courses were writing assignments and the feedback to be provided to learners for these assignments. The first one, writing assignments, was discussed in this section. The other, evaluation of them, will be given under the succeeding heading.

2.2.2.5. Evaluation of papers

One of the most difficult sides of teaching writing is the stage of evaluating papers. All writing teachers experience great problems with deciding what to grade and how to grade them (Hamp-Lyons, 2003; Silva & Brice, 2004). To lessen this difficulty, some steps and strategies may be determined by the teachers.

One of these steps, as the initial step in the evaluation of the writings of students, is to determine the goals of evaluation. Teachers should focus on both the general and specific goals, on the time and types of feedback they will provide, the ways they can make the feedback more effective in its contribution to improvement of the students; how students can utilize feedback for future writing, and so on (Ferris, 2003; Kroll, 2001).

Another step may be to specify the evaluation criteria, Hedge (1988) lists five steps in deciding on the evaluation criteria of writing by asking some questions about *the aims "What form of written text, function of writing, and levels of writing 'skill' are in focus?"*

the approach "Does the activity place emphasis on process or product in writing?, Is the approach one of modelling or creativity? motivation "In what ways does the task motivate the intended students: a) Through the subject matter? b) Through the methodology of the task? task design "What are the principles at work in the design of the task? What methodology is involved in its use? and, task adaptation "How could the task be adapted for most effective classroom use (p. 162) *?*

It is also possible to decide on the aspects of writing which would be graded. Content or form may be focused during the grading process (Ashwell, 2000). However, there are also many points to be graded in writing such as unity, focus, coherence, sufficiency, and value; organization of the paper, paragraph structure, sentence style and structure, spelling, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and punctuation. The general belief related to evaluation of writing of students is that both the content and the form are important aspects and they both should be considered (Chastain, 1988). In the evaluation process, the teacher should see himself as a writing teacher not a grammar teacher and the course as a writing course not as grammar. S/he should also decide on *when* to correct errors, *who* will correct them, *which* errors to correct and *how* to correct errors. While deciding on these issues, s/he should take the circumstances of the individual student, the goals of the course and the stage of the composing process a particular draft reflects into consideration (Kroll, 2001, p. 230).

The effect of grammar teaching on writing development (e.g., Andrews, Torgerson, Beverton, Freeman, Locke, Low, Robinson & Zhu, 2006; Frodesen & Holten, 2003; Devet, 2002) is an issue which has attracted interest of many researchers. Similarly, teachers' feedback on grammar in the evaluation of writing of the students is a problematic issue (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990). In providing feedback on grammar, Frodesen (2001) gives the following guidelines and suggestions: (1) *Indirect feedback is generally more useful and more desired by the students than direct correction of errors. (2) Teachers should not provide feedback on errors in any one piece of writing-this can be overwhelming to students- but should focus on several errors the teacher considers as most needing attention. (3) Deciding which errors most deserve attention requires consideration of many student variables (e.g., metalinguistic knowledge, proficiency level) and the*

instructional situation. (4) Teachers can alert students to areas of concern in early drafts also, so that all the attention to language errors does not need to be given with the last draft, when many students find they do not have sufficient time to address them effectively (p. 246).

The feedback given to students can vary in type, too. The feedback can be provided in an oral or written form or the feedback can be provided by the teacher or peers of the students. The teacher and other students in the classroom, by the feedback they provide, can question, prompt, support and provide ideas and language which will help students write in a clear and organized way and make their paper accessible to the readers (Hedge, 2000).

Ferris, (2003) summarizes the general conclusions reached in previous research on the role of feedback in L2 writing in a list as follows:

1. *Feedback is most effective when it is delivered at intermediate stages of the writing process.*
2. *Teachers should provide feedback on all aspects of student texts, including content, rhetorical structure, grammar and mechanics.*
3. *Teacher feedback should be clear and concrete to assist students with revision. At the same time, teachers need to be careful not to appropriate student texts.*
4. *Teacher feedback must take individual and contextual variables into account.*
5. *ESL writers attend to teacher feedback and attempt to utilize it in their revisions.*
6. *Teacher-student writing conferences may be more complex with L2 writers.*
7. *There is a great deal of variation in what students talk about during peer feedback and how they interact with one another – which may be related to how the teacher models feedback and structures peer response sessions.*
8. *Research evidence is conflicting about the degree to which students utilize peer feedback in their revisions.*
9. *Students appear to enjoy peer feedback and find it helpful (p. 122).*

These generalizations show the importance and role of feedback in L2 writing development and give the guidelines to follow for a more effective provision of feedback.

For the whole evaluation process to be successful and the feedback to be meaningful, students should be supported by the process in which they will self-monitor

and control their writing process (Xiang, 2004) and work with their own errors, revising and correcting their coded errors, or using error awareness sheet or both; this may probably compensate for the detrimental effects of error correction, too (Reichelt, 2001). Students may also be involved in the design of grading criteria. This would make them aware of what makes a good piece of writing (Hedge, 1988).

In addition to the provision of most appropriate feedback, the establishment of the balance between objectivity and subjectivity is an important and problematic aspect of evaluation of writing (Beck, 2006). Despite the fact that objectivity is one of the main principles of grading, there are many cases in writing which should be evaluated from a subjective perspective, in particular, when the communicative aspect of writing is pursued.

In the evaluation of writing tasks and assignments, various factors such the characteristics of language learning and educational context, the goals of writing teaching, individual differences of the learners, etc. should be taken into account (Silva & Brice, 2004). To make a successful evaluation writing teachers need to be trained in all phases and aspects of this complex procedure.

2.2.2.6. Technology in L2 writing

The rapid development of technology has had great influences on both the teaching and use of writing as well as it has influenced every area of life. The use of computers and technology has been rapidly expanding in L2 writing pedagogy (Silva & Brice, 2004, p. 75), and correspondingly, research related to the use of technology in L2 composition has shown a dramatic growth (e.g., Hyland, 2002; Howell-Richardson & Bish, 1997; Li, 2000). In recent years, teachers have been constantly using computers (in particular, word processors) as an aid to composition due that they assist the students who have problems with handwriting and that they allow students to write their ideas in any order as they come into their mind (Hedge, 2000).

Three important issues have been centred on in terms of the relationship between technology and L2 writing. They are the effects of computer use on L2 composition, interactive computer use such as e-mail changes and Web-based writing and computer-assisted language learning (Matsuda et al., 2003).

Computer-assisted language learning studies have become common, in the last three decades, first in L1 and then in L2 instruction and the effects of computer use in both actual writing process and evaluation stages, in particular, provision of feedback were investigated. The results showed that computer use facilitated both writing and revisions after the provision of computer-mediated feedback by the teacher (Matsuda et al., 2003). In addition, students spend voluntarily more time for writing on the computer than they do while writing in paper-and-pencil and find the writing task more motivating (O'Brien, 2004; Reichelt, 2001).

The role of e-mail and other forms of synchronous communication in L2 writing has attracted a great attention as well. E-mail, to a significant extent, has replaced face-to-face and telephone communication. Accordingly, the Internet has become the dominant means of English-language writing for many people who speak it as a second or foreign language.

In Matsuda et al. (2003), the findings of Wang (1993) displaying that students completing student-teacher dialogue journals via e-mail write more, ask more questions, receive lengthier replies and used a greater variety of language functions than those using paper and pencil (p. 163) both in and inter different classrooms are reported. Matsuda et al. also presents further research findings (Barson & Debski, 1996; Kern, 1996; Soh & Soon, 1991; Tella, 1991) showing that e-mail exchanges encourage risk-taking, increase authenticity and facilitate student collaboration, audience awareness, willingness to revise and motivation (p.163).

Another issue that L2 writing researchers have focused on in terms of the relationship of technology to L2 writing conveyed by Matsuda et al. (2003) is Web-based writing. When students believe in the purpose, advantageous and relevance of the Web-based activities they are more engaged in them. The highly public and multi-functional nature of Web provides a writing medium which would help them explore and develop their relationship with their community, culture and world.

This common use of computer technology and Internet is considered to be as much important as many other factors in writing and writing teaching. These two means provide limitless sources for language learners to practice their writing. This fact brings about the

need to train students in keyboarding, word-processing, etc. for effective utilization of them (O'Brien, 2004).

2.2.3. Importance of writing in L2 teaching and learning

Writing has many contributions to L2 teaching and learning process from the perspectives of both conventional, which has seen the function of writing in language learning as a facilitator or means of learning grammar, vocabulary and spelling of a particular language and the modern approach which sees writing as a communicative action itself.

As known very well, the principal function of language is communication, therefore learning a L2 naturally means learning to communicate with the people who speak that language (Raimes, 1983). As we can use spoken language to communicate, we use written language for this purpose as well. So, it can be accepted that writing is an important means of communication. Olshtain (2001; p. 207) emphasizes the special status of writing within the communicative framework of language teaching and indicates that communication of a variety of messages to close or distant, known or unknown readers is achieved through writing. She also refers to the extreme importance of communication in the modern world in both traditional paper-and-pencil or the most technologically advanced electronic mail and the need for the encouragement and nutrition of writing as a communicative activity in language teaching contexts.

Of course, the communicative function of writing is not the only reason which makes writing as an important factor in L2 teaching. In addition to the communicative function of writing, several other uses of writing in foreign language teaching can be cited. Writing can be utilized as a vehicle in classroom-based L2 learning (Harklau, 2002) and, as mentioned above, as an important means of reinforcement of the grammar rules, vocabulary, and spelling taught to students in the classroom. Writing leads students to go beyond the knowledge they gain in the classroom and to take risks with the language; via the struggle of the students during writing activities, it reinforces students' learning in general and their thinking power and, it lets students to find different ways of expressing themselves (Raimes, 1983).

Harmer (1998) gives these contributions of writing as the reasons to teach writing. He reports that writing is taught in L2 classrooms since (1) it serves as a reinforcement to learning of the target language thanks to an ongoing learning experience provided by the mental activity during writing (many learners find writing valuable and suitable for themselves because it allows them to think and produce language in a slower way) and in this sense, writing can be regarded as a reflective activity rather than a rush and bother of interpersonal face-to-face communication and (2), as a skill in its own right, it meets the conversational needs of the learners in writing (p. 79).

Teachers can also use writing activities to provide a change of pace during the class period. When students get tired or bored with oral work, teacher can switch to reading or writing. In such cases, writing may be more interesting to the students as it is a challenging activity requiring a greater in-depth knowledge of the grammar system than the receptive skills. Writing practice can also serve as a medium for conscious attention to language forms that is not possible in the other language skills. In addition, writing activities can be used by teachers as a means of evaluating students' progress in concept acquisition as well as in writing ability (Chastain, 1988, pp. 246-247).

One of the most important contributions of writing to language learning process is claimed to be *written assignments*. Thanks to written assignments, students get prepared for the course more seriously. Another, maybe, a more noteworthy benefit of written assignments is that they extend the amount of contact with the target language (Chastain, 1988, p.247). As well known, in foreign language contexts the opportunity to contact with the language being taught and the time of classes are very limited. Writing plays a compensatory role from this perspective.

Written homework also helps the learning of the grammar. It does this in different ways. By writing assignments, students ascertain whether they understand the forms and functions of the grammar; prepare themselves for communication activities; and, have opportunity to clarify remaining uncertainties and make needed corrections on their papers. Another benefit of written homework is that students can come to class with something concrete that will help them participate in class. And last, the assignment of daily written homework shows students that they have new material to learn every day (p.247). In short,

is can be said that writing plays a crucial role in L2 teaching/learning thanks to the contributions provided by the utilization of it in many different ways and contexts and with various activities in and outside the classroom.

2.2.4. Motivation in L2 writing

Motivation is an essential and problematic component in all educational settings. The development of motivation in students is not an easy task for teachers. The complex nature of L2 writing (Graham et al., 2005) makes it more difficult to motivate students in writing than many other areas of education. At the beginning of this chapter, it was stated that writing was a difficult skill which required great efforts to achieve in it.

As well as those on writing and teaching writing, the studies on motivation to write have developed recently. Such research started at the end of 1970s. Before this date, there were few studies on psychological aspects of writing. The motivational and affective aspects of writing were ignored because of the focus of the researchers merely on the cognitive aspect of it (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006).

It was in 1980s when researchers first began to concern with the affective and motivational aspects of writing together with the belief that writing was a complex phenomenon that cannot involve only cognitive and metacognitive processes (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006; Lam & Law, 2007). The shift from cognitive approach to social-constructivist approach was one of the main factors that led researchers to think about the affective and social aspects of writing. Also the increase in the number of the studies on writing naturally reflected on the studies on the writing motivation. As well as the importance, contributions, and vitality of writing for the general academic success, the need to explore factors affecting motivation has been felt strongly (Lam & Law, 2007). According to the social-constructivist approach, the communicative function of writing, collaborative writing, and use of writing in natural settings should be emphasized (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006). One of the most important components of the affective factors is motivation as it affects all phases of writing process (Lam & Law, 2007).

In parallel with the shifts from the approaches centering only on the cognitive aspects of writing to those emphasizing the affective and social aspects of writing, some

important studies (e.g., Harris, Graham & Mason, 2006; Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Winstead, 2004) related to the importance of motivation and, in particular, the difficulty of motivating students to write were carried out. It was attempted to show that despite the social and intellectual benefits of writing, the nature of writing brings about great motivational challenges. To overcome these challenges, different strategies may be followed.

According to Lam and Law (2007), motivation to write, first of all, is related to the instructional practices of teachers. In line with this argument, Bruning and Horn (2000) provides a comprehensive guideline related to the practices of the writing teacher for developing writing motivation in students. Their study proposes four main clusters of activities to be administered by the writing teacher:

(1) Nurturing functional beliefs about writing,

(2) Fostering engagement using authentic writing tasks,

(3) Providing a supportive context for writing, and

(4) Creating a positive emotional environment (p. 25).

Bruning and Horn (2000) presents these clusters of activities and related motivation-enhancing conditions in a table. This table and important aspects of their explanations about the items they give in the table are presented below:

Table 2.1. Factors in developing motivation to write

Cluster	Related Motivation-Enhancing Conditions
Nurturing functional beliefs about writing	Creating a classroom community supporting writing and other literacy activities Displaying the ways that teachers use writing personally Finding writing tasks that assure student success Providing opportunities for students to build expertise in areas they will write about Using brief daily writing activities to encourage regular writing Encouraging writing in a wide variety of genres
Fostering student engagement through authentic writing goals and contexts	Having students find examples of different kinds of writing (e.g., self-expressive, persuasive, entertaining) Encouraging students to write about topics of personal interest Having students write for a variety of audiences Establishing improved communication as purpose for revision Integrating writing into instruction in other disciplines (e.g., science, math, social studies)
Providing a supportive context for writing	Breaking complex writing tasks into parts Encouraging goal setting and monitoring of progress Assisting students in setting writing goals that are neither too challenging nor too simple Teaching writing strategies and helping students learn to monitor their use Giving feedback on progress toward writing goals Using peers as writing partners in literacy communities
Creating a positive emotional environment	Modelling positive attitudes toward writing Creating a safe environment for writing Giving students choices about what they will write Providing feedback allowing students to retain control over their writing Utilizing natural outcomes (e.g., communication success) as feedback source Training students to engage in positive self-talk about writing Helping students reframe anxiety, stress as natural arousal

(Bruning & Horn, 2000, p. 28).

The first task of writing teachers is to nurture the functional beliefs of the students about the nature of writing. For this purpose, they should primarily inform students about the nature and potential difficulties and challenges of writing. Then they should make them aware of their own writing capabilities. A successful writing requires students to concentrate and engage in writing for long periods integrating their cognitive, motivational and linguistic skills. To engage in such a difficult and complex activity, students should have the perception that writing has a value for them. Another important factor is that, to be successful in writing, learners need to believe that they are competent enough in writing (Bruning and Horn, 2000, p. 28). This feeling can be established by students' perceived

value and expectancy of success (Lam & Law, 2007). And, it is positive feedback provided throughout the writing process and moderately challenging tasks that would invoke students' perceptions of competence positively. Provision of opportunities to students for choice and input and promotion of teacher-student and student-student interaction in the classroom are other effective ways in nurturing the functional beliefs of students about the nature of writing.

The second task proposed to writing teacher by Bruning and Horn (2000) is fostering student engagement through authentic goals and contexts. To be succesful in this task, it should be shown to students that they can express their thoughts and feelings by writing meaningfully and purposefully. This leads students to engage in writing through their intrinsic qualities and with minimum external rewards to keep them motivated to write.

Most of the foreign language students have opportunities to write only in classrooms. But the writing activities carried out in classrooms are mostly artificial which do not interest students much because of the absence of real purposes such as persuasion, description, expression, etc. The quality of the writing of students is determined generally by the quality of the writing of their teachers provided to them. Therefore, teachers should be models for students with both their approaches to writing and the writing examples they provide. They should see writing as an important tool for intellectual and social development in order to create positive motivational conditions for their students' writing and design authentic literacy tasks which require the use of writing meaningfully for communication and enjoyment. These tasks provide students with the opportunities for challenge and self-improvement, student autonomy, interest-based learning and social interaction. Teachers should also select the writing tasks and assignments which are moderately challenging and support them with guidance and feedback during the process of writing to allow students to monitor their progress and experience success (Bruning and Horn, 2000, p. 30).

The third task in developing motivation to write is providing a supportive context to develop the requisite writing skills through task framing, practice, and feedback conditions that would be helpful in building skills and motivation. Context is very important in

teaching writing. Because it is context that determines the characteristics, goals of writing, decisions related to the processes of writing and level of the skill for the writing tasks and of the writing that would be realized. Students need to trigger the motivational resources hidden in the tasks, which should be divided into manageable parts, given to them, in their own interest, and in the feedback provided to them during the writing process (Bruning and Horn, 2000, p. 31).

In the context of writing, the *control* of writing tasks by the students is also very crucial in terms of their motivation to write. In Lam & Law (2007), the issue of control is given in relation to autonomy, which is a more umbrella term, the opportunity to make choices and to have control. Autonomy is considered to be one of the three basic psychological needs which are fundamental and universal for all people. Together with the satisfaction of the other two psychological needs, competence and relatedness, the satisfaction of the feeling of autonomy in individuals helps a healthy development and success in all spheres of life (Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Deci and Ryan, 2002). The same is valid for writing instruction as well. When teachers, parents and others in the surrounding support students to feel more autonomous in all phases of writing, it would be more motivating for their engagement and maintenance in writing.

In Bruning and Horn, (2000, p. 30) it is also conveyed that cognitively complex learning activities and assignments are found to be more motivating and more interesting by the students since such tasks allow them to improve themselves and to control their own learning. However, complexity of tasks and assignments should be at the optimal levels. They should also be supported by the definition of the goals of writing and the success level. In this way, students can make judgments about to what extent they can meet the requirements of the tasks and assignments and establish relationship between their efforts and success. This allows them to see the meaning of the writing they produce.

Students need to expect that they can successfully complete the tasks given to them. The tasks which are extremely difficult and which the students have little or no chance to complete are not found interesting. On the other hand, the tasks which do not require them to invest any effort do not have much value for the students since they do not contribute the feelings of competence and satisfaction (Lam & Law, 2007). Too simple or too complex

tasks which are beyond the abilities of students can decrease the interest and accordingly the motivation to write. In the case of too complex tasks, students may get overexcited and lose control over their writing process. Similarly, too simple tasks may also create boredom and disinterest in students. Thus, the tasks chosen to be given to students should be both challenging and achievable.

The last suggestion given in the table is the creation of a positive emotional environment which refers to the expression of ideas and feelings safely. Since everyone engaging in writing has some negative feelings about it (Bruning and Horn, 2000, p. 33), they need to be supported emotionally. Especially the novice writers may find themselves incapable of meeting the standards of writing because of their lack of knowledge and experience in it. This causes a sense of loss of control, anxiety and unproductive writing skills in them. Similarly, experienced writers may have some problems with writing, in particular, during starting to write. The problems experienced by both novice and experienced writers can lead them to avoid writing. In the preceding sections, it was emphasized that to be a good writer one should write as much as possible. This avoidance from writing would, of course, inhibit students' development in writing.

To remove the negative emotions of the students and to create a positive emotional environment, Bruning and Horn (p. 33) proposes some solutions. Firstly, students should be convinced that writing is an enjoyable activity and that they can be successful in it. In this way, their negative approaches to writing can be turned into positive ones. This can be achieved by providing positive reinforcement. Teachers should focus on good writing rather than the poor ones and praise the students. They should also give their students the chance to express themselves freely. The engagement of students in writing should be encouraged by giving them optimal challenging tasks and giving them enough time to make plans and organizations. Teachers should also create in students the sense that their teacher is warm and interested in them. There must be a mutual trust and caring between them. Secondly, students should have the feelings that they can control their process of writing. This can be achieved by, primarily, giving them the topics on which they have knowledge and then by training them about writing strategies. These two attempts can make students have a sense of control and get motivated to write better. Another solution to overcome the

negative emotional atmosphere is trying to turn negative self-talks of the writers into positive ones. Many writers, irrespective of their writing ability or the level of the difficulty of the task, have negative thoughts about their writing performances. They criticize both their abilities in writing and the conditions of the contexts in which writing activities are carried out. To decrease or remove students' negative self-talks, students should be aided to understand that the anxiety they feel and the difficulties they experience are natural (Bruning and Horn, 2000, p. 34).

Related to the context of writing instruction, Lam, Pak and Ma (2002) lists the factors such as challenge, real-life significance, curiosity, autonomy, recognition, and evaluation as crucial components of the development of student motivation to write. One of the factors included in this study differently from Bruning and Horn (2000) is curiosity which is defined as the desire to explore, discover, understand and know which is intrinsic to people's nature and is a potentially central motivator of the educational process (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, p. 245). Curious student writers can see the writing process as a problem-solving process and find it intellectually challenging. This increases their motivation to write. Recognition of the student effort by the teacher is another crucial factor in developing motivation to write. Students whose effort rather than their intelligence are praised are likely to be more motivated since they make a relation between their effort and performance and study harder. Evaluation may also be very important in developing motivation. When evaluation is only related to the product at the end of the process, students' focus would be on the product not on the process. This would prevent them from reflecting on the ways to improve themselves in writing (Lam & Law, 2007). Therefore, evaluation should include the specific tasks and strategies used by students to succeed in these tasks.

There are also some factors adversely affecting the motivations of students to write such as no knowledge about the topic, complexity of the writing task, solitary nature of the writing with no immediate feedback, the effort needed to persist in the task, etc. One of the requirements to overcome these demands of writing is interest which is defined as enduring predisposition to engage with particular content, such as objects, events or ideas and characterized by increased attention and concentration (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006; p. 145).

Another issue which has been commonly studied with regard to writing motivation is self-regulation. Self-regulation is the ability to self-initiate thoughts, feelings, and actions used to reach the goals of improving writing skills and enhancing the quality of the text which has been written. It enables students to manage the complexity of writing. Self-regulation includes the components of person, behaviour and environment. The self-regulation related to behaviour refers to individuals' observation of their behaviours and modification in it to reach their goals. The self-regulation related to environment refers to the feedback the writers would take from their environment. And, the self-regulation related to the person refers to learners' use of their affective states and cognitive processes (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006, p. 150).

Different approaches describe L2 motivation in different ways. For instance, while cognitive approach claims that motivation to write is nourished and sustained by writers' cognitive resources, the social-constructivist approach points out that writing is a meaningful activity with its own motivation as long as it is utilized as a means to convey thoughts and feelings of students related to classroom activities and other personal experiences (Hidi and Boscolo, 2006, p. 153).

The variables such as age, proficiency level, educational background, and learning styles may be added to these factors whose impact on motivation to write was discussed up to now (Frodesen, 2001). Therefore, language teachers should consider all these variables to take the precautions to detect and reduce or eliminate their potential negative effects (Chastain, 1988).

2.2.5. Research methodology in L2 writing studies

A great deal of the studies on teaching writing have attempted to review the research carried out in advance in order to present the common issues and developments in the field of teaching writing and writing research and different approaches to these issues (e.g., Chastain, 1988; Devet, 2002; Hidi and Boscolo, 2006; Ivanıč, 2004; Lam & Law, 2007; MacArthur et al., 2006; Matsuda, 2003; Matsuda et al., 2003; Reichelt, 2001; Richgels, 2003).

Besides these reviews, there have been numerous original researches as well. The research on L2 writing teaching adopted both descriptive (either qualitative or quantitative) designs, which collected their data in natural settings without any experimental manipulation, and experimental designs. Among the studies which could be overviewed within this study, several examples of such designs were evidenced.

The following studies can be given as examples for quantitative writing researches. In their study, Lam & Law (2007) investigated the relationship between instructional practices and writing motivation with secondary-school students and teacher interns. This study found that there was a close positive relationship between writing motivation and instructional styles that support students with authentic writing activities and autonomy and taking their knowledge and interest into consideration. In another quantitative research, Li (2000) investigated the effects of different types of task-based e-mail activities on the writing development of ESL students in a process-oriented writing class. The tasks were different from each other in terms of purpose, audience interaction and task structure. Results showed that students produced syntactically and lexically more complex texts in e-mail tasks with audience interaction and the self-selection of the topics and content of the tasks was found to contribute both the quality and quantity of the writing of students. This study may also be regarded as an example of experimental (or quasi-experimental) designs in terms of its data collection procedure.

The examples of experimental or quasi-experimental studies were not so few as well. In one of such studies, Ashwell (2000) tried to measure the influences of different types of feedback on students' writing. In this experimental study, Ashwell did not report a significant difference between form feedback and content feedback in terms of their impact on students' revision of their papers. Another experimental study on the roles of different types of feedback in ESL student writing was that of Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005). This study compared the effects of types of corrective feedback: direct, explicit written feedback and student-researcher individual conferences; direct, explicit written feedback only; no corrective feedback on three types of errors (prepositions, the past simple, and the definite article). The results showed that effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback varies for different error types. In a more recent research on the effects

of feedback, Miao, Badger and Zhen (2006) investigated the effects of peer and teacher feedback on the improvements of Chinese EFL writing students by an experimental research in which the groups of students supported by teacher and student feedback were compared. According to the textual and questionnaire data and video recordings and interviews, it was found that both teacher and peer feedback resulted in improvements in students' writing; however peer feedback provided students with a higher degree of autonomy.

There are also experimental studies on several other topics concerning writing. In their two studies, Graham and his colleagues (Graham et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2006) investigated the effect of self-regulation on students' writing and the results showed that, especially when supported with peer feedback, the instruction of self-regulatory skills resulted in better performances in students' writing in both quantity and quality. Xiang's research (2004) which focused on the importance of both feedback and self-monitoring reached findings that self-monitoring, which was reported to help teachers provide effective feedback to their students, was effective in developing planning and organization skills of the students in their English writing. Another example that can be introduced as an experimental research example is that of Ellis and Yuan (2004) by which the effects of different types of planning conditions, pretask planning, unpressured on-line planning, and no planning, on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy of the written products of the L2 learners were searched. This study demonstrated, in the most general sense, that planning, irrespective of its type, is essential for both quantity and quality of learners' writing. Several other examples can be added to these examples of experimental research in the area of L2 writing such as those carried out by Liu and Braine (2005) and Lee (2003), and those listed by Reichelt (2001, pp. 594-598).

The following are the studies whose research designs are mixtures of qualitative and quantitative ones. Rinnert and Kobayashi (2001) used both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments, in Japan, by which they investigated the perceptions of four groups of EFL students and their teachers as readers of their peers' or students' English compositions. They were asked to evaluate and provide feedback for their friends' or students' compositions. Rinnert and Kobayashi attained the results that as the L2 writing

awareness and experience of the readers increased their evaluations and feedback they provided become more related to the clarity, logical connections, and organization rather than only to the content of the compositions. Petrić and Czárl's study (2003) can also be defined as a mixed type research design. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in order to validate a writing strategy questionnaire. In another mixed type research, Street (2003) investigated the relationship between the attitudes of pre-service teachers about writing and their practice of teaching writing. The main concern of this study was to highlight the effects of self-confidence on successful writing. Street collected the data of this research through case studies. As a result, it was concluded that teacher educators should help pre-service teachers feel confident in writing by providing positive writing experiences.

Qualitative research is the last research design the examples of which in L2 writing will be given in this section. One of such studies is that of Colby and Stapleton (2006) in which pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching writing to elementary students were investigated. Pre-service teachers were asked to report their experiences of teaching writing. Their reports demonstrated a professional development in pre-service teachers while they were reflecting, learning, participating in and teaching writing and revealed their needs for scaffolding in the learning process and the design and organization of the field-based experience with the components of working with small group of students, teaching in groups of three and receiving support and feedback from various sources. Beck's (2006) study on the differences between students' perceptions of criteria for effective writing and criteria of their teacher emphasized the need for establishing shared criteria between the teacher and students and the negotiation of expectation for writing tasks. Sullivan and Lindgren (2002), through observations and interviews, sought the effects of promotion of self-assessment and reflection on adult L2 learners' writing. The results of this study demonstrated that all of the participants found this technique useful since it allowed them to be aware of their writing behaviours.

Studies can, of course, be qualitative or quantitative and experimental or naturalistic at the same time. Therefore, it is not always easy to put any research into one of the research design categories. However, it would not be wrong to assume that although

qualitative or mixed type research designs provide more in-depth description and understanding of the phenomena which are being investigated (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Street, 2003), as O'Brien (2004) noted, there is a tendency among L2 writing researchers to carry out quantitative and short studies rather than longitudinal qualitative and experimental ones.

2.3. L2 Motivation

Motivation, a notion which is considered to be a key to success in learning a L2 as well as in every type of endeavours, is defined, in general, as *an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves people to a particular action* (Brown, 1987, p.114). In a more comprehensive definition, it is described as "*the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out*" (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p.64). Specifically in L2 area, it is defined as "*the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language* (Gardner, 1985, p. 10); or, "*the effort which learners put into learning a L2 as a result of their desire to learn it*" (Ellis, 1994, p. 715). Of course, it is possible to increase the numbers of definition for the concept of motivation.

As can be inferred from the definitions, motivation is a factor which determines individuals' choice of a particular action, the persistence with it, and the effort spent on it. Namely, it is related to *why* people decide to do any activity, *how long* they are willing to sustain it and *how hard* they are going to pursue it (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 614). Brown (1987, p. 114) conveys some desires and needs that were presented by Ausubel (1968) as the basic components underlying the construct of motivation. They are (1) the need for *exploration,* (2) the need for *manipulation*, (3) the need for *activity*, (4) the need for *stimulation*, (5) the need for *knowledge*, and (6) the need for ego *enhancement.*

Studies on L2 motivation go back to the beginnings of 1970s. One of the best known studies on L2 learning motivation was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972) in those years. Within their *socio-educational model*, which emphasized the importance of

the socio-psychological aspects of L2 acquisition (Mori, 2002), they attempted to define the effects of motivation on language learning by investigating it in two basic types, *instrumental* and *integrative* motivation (Brown, 1987, p.114).

Instrumental motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals (e.g., finding a good job, translation), while *integrative* motivation refers to learning that language by the wishes to integrate oneself into the culture of the community in which it is being spoken, to identify oneself with and become a part of that community. The integrative motivation was proven to be more effective than instrumental motivation in learning a L2. The dichotomy of instrumental and integrative motivation was investigated in terms of whether the sources of motivation for language learning were the people learning the language or someone else outside (whether they are intrinsic or extrinsic). Gardner and Lambert focused their further studies on the integrative aspects of L2 motivation which involves a positive attitude toward the community of the target language being learnt and a desire to interact and integrate with the members of that community (Dörnyei, 2003; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu, 2004) in the decades following 1970s (e.g., Gardner, 1985, 2001; Lambert, 1974). Despite the objections to and criticism of most of its arguments, the dominance of their motivation theory lasted until the end of the 20th century (Carreira, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001; Mori, 2002; Noels, 2001).

By the beginning of the 21st century, having seen some inadequate sides of the current models and expecting that exploring the factors which affect this central and problematic issue for both educational psychologists and practitioners in a deeper sense would allow to facilitate the L2 learning process (Anderman & Leake, 2005), some alternative L2 motivation models such as expectancy-value theory, self-efficacy theory, SDT, attribution, and goal theories (e.g., goal-setting theory) appeared to redefine L2 motivation (Carreira, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001; 2003; Mori, 2002; Noels, 2001). Although these motivation models have proposed different ways of concerning motivation, they were all formulated by the purpose of attaining a deeper understanding of the concept of motivation and finding ways to enhance motivation and benefit from it more effectively in L2 teaching/learning settings.

Among these models, one of the most influential ones has been SDT, which is central to this dissertation's concerns. The initial attempts to extend SDT, a motivation and personality theory developed by Deci and Ryan (1985a), to L2 learning were made by Noels and her associates (e.g., Noels, 1997; 2001a; 2001b; Noels et al., 1999; 2001; Noels et al., 2000). Several other studies followed them (e.g., Carreira, 2005; Vandergrift, 2005). Findings of these and other relevant studies will be presented under the heading of *L2 Studies from SDT Perspectives*. In addition, the studies which adapted SDT to educational contexts in general will be exemplified in the section *Educational Studies from SDT Perspectives* below. But before the introduction of these studies, SDT and its major components and premises will be given first.

2.4. Self-Determination Theory

SDT is a theory of motivation and personality developed by Deci and Ryan focusing on the importance of humans' evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioural self-regulation (Deci and Ryan, 1985a; 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan et al., 1997). Over the past 30 years, this theory has been extended to a variety of areas (Reeve, 2002). The examples related to self-determination research in different fields of study are given in the following sections.

According to SDT, there are some crucial issues to be focused on in terms of developing happiness and success in people. The most commonly cited and emphasized ones of them are the three basic psychological needs, competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Poulsen et al., 2006; Ratelle et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2003; Deci & Ryan, 2000b); intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation (Carreira, 2005; Guay, Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2000a); and, autonomy-supporting and controlling environments and factors for behaviours (Gagné, 2003; Nix, Ryan, Manly & Deci, 1999; Reeve et al., 2004), etc. These issues will be given in detail below. But before explaining these phenomena, the mini theories of self-determination will be explained since each mini theory highlights different aspects of this theory.

2.4.1. Mini theories of the SDT

SDT consists of mini-theories each of which contributes to different aspects of the theory. They are Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Organismic Integration Theory, Causality Orientations Theory, and Basic Needs Theory. These theories are coherent and integratable with each other (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

2.4.1.1. Cognitive evaluation theory

The first one of the mini-theories composing SDT is cognitive evaluation theory which primarily aims to describe the effects of social environment on individual's intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Individuals are defined as intrinsically motivated when their motivation is based on the inherent satisfaction of the behaviours but not on the contingent outcomes or reinforcements which are separable from these behaviours. Intrinsically motivated people engage in the activities freely, and their activities are sustained by the experience of interest and enjoyment (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

This mini-theory concerns with the issues of perceived causality and perceived competence, the expected tangible rewards and verbal rewards, social contexts and internal events, and relatedness in terms of their effects to facilitate or thwart the intrinsic motivation of individuals (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 2001).

Intrinsic motivation is investigated, generally, in its relation to perceived locus of causality, whether people see the source of their behaviours themselves or someone outside (e.g., Deci et al., 2001; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri & Holt, 1984; Ryan, Mims & Koestner, 1983). Such investigations show that when the locus of behaviour is more external, the intrinsic motivation of people decreases; and when the locus is more internal it increases (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon & Roth, 2005; Koestner et al., 1984; Deci & Ryan, 2002). Whereas tangible rewards cause an external perceived locus of causality since they are regarded as the attempts to control behaviours and thwart intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971; Phillips & Lord, 1980; McCullers, Fabes & Moran, 1987), verbal rewards such as praises or informative feedback invoke the internal perceived locus of causality and enhance intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999).

Nurturing or weakening these two perceptions is related to different types of social environments which are, in terms of the degree they affect the intrinsic motivation, labelled as autonomy supportive (informational), controlling (autonomy suppressive), and amotivating. Use of expected rewards, threats of punishment, deadlines, imposed goals, surveillance and competition are all conveyed as the components of controlling contexts and referred to as the factors that decrease intrinsic motivation of people or lead them to get amotivated (Deci, Betley, Kahle, Abrams & Porac, 1981; Deci & Ryan, 1985b). On the contrary, provision of choices (Zuckerman, Porac, Lathin, Smith & Deci, 1978), designing tasks that will make individuals feel competent in the activity they are performing, and giving positive feedback are considered to be the components of autonomy supportive contexts and increase intrinsic motivation of people.

Social contexts have also effects on people's perception of relatedness, which is related to intrinsic motivation, as well as their perceptions of competence and autonomy. Research showed that when people have satisfactory relationships with their environment, their intrinsic motivation is enhanced. Cognitive evaluation theory tries to link these social-contextual elements to different types of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

2.4.1.2. Organismic integration theory

Whereas cognitive evaluation theory is concerned with the social elements that influence intrinsic motivation of people, namely in general with intrinsic motivation, organismic integration theory focuses on the internalization of extrinsic motivation, that is, its main focus is on the extrinsic motivation.

When people are not intrinsically motivated they need something external to lead them to do any activity. However, according to SDT, external factors are not so effective, since they thwart the sense of autonomy, in motivating people to act. They should somehow be internalized to be effective. Organismic integration theory concerns with the internalization and integration of values and regulations and explanation of the development and dynamics of extrinsic motivation, the degree to which individuals' experience autonomy during extrinsically motivated behaviours and the processes through which people take on the values of their groups and cultures. One basic subject of this

theory is the concept of "internalization" which can be defined as 'the attempt of people to transform external regulation into self-regulation' (Deci & Ryan, 2002; p. 15). When a regulation is internalized it becomes a part of integrated self and the basis of self-determined behaviour.

The degree of the internalization of extrinsic motivation is investigated in terms of a continuum. The extent to which the behaviours are autonomous or controlled determines the level of their internalization. Organismic integration theory proposes a taxonomy of regulation for extrinsic motivation which differs in the degree to which they represent autonomy. In this taxonomy, types of regulation of behaviour are ordered according to the extent they emanated from the self. This taxonomy is illustrated in Figure 2.1, which is given in Deci & Ryan (2002) together with the types of motivation as a part of the whole self-determination continuum. In this figure, amotivation, types of regulation of extrinsic motivation (external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation), and intrinsic motivation are given.

Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Type of Regulation	Non-regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Quality of Behaviour	Nonself-determined ←========== → Self-determined					

Figure 2.1. The self-determination continuum with types of motivation and regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 16).

At the left end of the figure is amotivation. Amotivation is defined as the lack of intention to act. There may be various reasons for people to be amotivated for some activities. Having a feeling of being unable to do an activity, lack of self competence in it and the belief that the activity or the outcomes of it do not have value are some reasons that cause amotivation in people. At the other end of the figure, intrinsic motivation is located which is defined as "the state of doing an activity out of interest and inherent satisfaction". Between the two ends of the continuum, regulation types of extrinsic motivation are illustrated. From left to right, they are ordered as external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation.

External regulation is the least autonomous form of extrinsic motivation and is related to the motivation to obtain rewards or avoid punishment. In external regulation, the reason for doing an activity is to satisfy external demands. In addition, it has an external perceived locus of causality which was discussed among the factors inhibiting intrinsic motivation above.

Introjected regulation is the degree of external regulation which was internalized but not accepted as one's own. It is partially internalized but not regarded as a part of integrated self. Introjection is a type of internalization which is still quite controlling. Individuals with introjected regulation do things in order to avoid shame or guilt or gain ego enhancements and feelings of worth. Namely, their behaviour is based on contingent self-esteem. Ego-involved attempts lack intrinsic motivation.

Identified regulation is a more self-determined form of extrinsic motivation than the ones explained above. In identified regulation, the goal or regulation of the behaviour has a value and is important for personal reasons. Thus, with identification the external regulation is transformed into true self-regulation. In addition, individuals have a higher degree of perceived autonomy and accordingly a higher level of internal perceived locus of causality. However, some internalizations may not reflect one's own beliefs or values.

Integrated regulation is the least controlled type of extrinsic motivation. When identifications are evaluated as equal with or appropriate for the personally supported values, goals, and needs which are already part of the self, this type of regulation occurs. Since integrated regulation has many qualities common with intrinsic motivation, it results in more positive outcomes than the other regulation types of extrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, it is still extrinsic in that the behaviours governed by it are done for personally important outcomes not for the inherent interest and enjoyment in them. Although their values are integrated with the self, they are used for the outcomes which can be separated from it.

Deci and Ryan (2002) reports some factors which would promote both the internalization and integration processes. The first is the need for relatedness. Individuals whose need of relatedness is satisfied tend to internalize the regulation of their behaviour. The satisfaction of relatedness is promoting internalization and integration to some extent,

but it should be supported by the nurturance of perceived autonomy. Autonomy is another crucial factor in promoting internalization and integrated regulation. The degree to which the sense of autonomy is supported determines whether the internalization will be partial (as in introjection) or will be much fuller (as in integration). The degree of integration of regulation of behaviour is related to people's understanding of its meaning from themselves and their sense of choice, volition, and freedom from external demands.

The type of regulation of extrinsic motivation is basically related to the support provided to individuals from their environments. The more supported the individuals the closer the regulation of their behaviours to intrinsic motivation. The continuum of regulation also parallels with the relative autonomy continuum (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

2.4.1.3. Causality orientations theory

Causality orientations theory is mainly concerned with people's inner resources developed through the interactions with social contexts. This theory attempts to describe individual differences in people's tendencies to orient to the social environment (Deci & Ryan, 2002; p. 10). It claims that people have three orientations each of which represents a different degree of self-determination. They are autonomous, controlled, and impersonal (or amotivating) causality orientations. People have each of these orientations to some degree (Deci & Ryan, 1985b).

The *autonomy orientation* involves the actions that are based on a sense of volition and an awareness of personal standards and goals. Such actions are defined as being freely chosen, self-initiated and self-regulated (Soenens, Berzonsky, Vansteenkiste, Beyers & Goossens, 2005, p. 430). The autonomy orientation shows people's tendencies toward intrinsic motivation and well integrated extrinsic motivation. It is positively related to self-actualization, self-esteem, ego development and other indicators of well-being (Deci and Ryan, 1985b). The *controlled orientation* involves being influenced by external forces such as threats, deadlines and internalized expectations concerning how one should behave. It is related to external and introjected regulation. The *impersonal orientation* involves focusing on indicators of inadequacy and not behaving intentionally. It is related to amotivation, lack

of intentional action, low self-esteem and depression (Deci and Ryan, 1985b; Soenens et al., 2005, p. 430).

There is a general relationship between causality orientations and regulatory styles, behavioural outcomes, aspects of personality and well being indicators. While autonomy orientation have positive outcomes, controlled and impersonal orientations, respectively, result in much more negative outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

2.4.1.4. Basic needs theory.

The last of the mini-theories of SDT is basic needs theory that was formulated to explain the relation of motivation and goals to health and well-being, in part by describing associations of value configurations and regulatory styles to psychological health, across time, gender, situations and culture (Deci & Ryan, 2002; p. 10). According to this theory, there is direct relation between the satisfaction of basic psychological needs, competence, relatedness, autonomy, and mental health and well-being. Studies (e.g., Baard et al., 2004; Ilardi et al., 1993; Kasser & Ryan, 1999) support the positive effects of the satisfaction of these basic psychological needs on people's well-being and their psychological health. These needs are common for all people irrespective of their ages, genders, and cultures, but the ways and means by which they are satisfied may vary according to such variables (Deci & Ryan, 2002; p. 22).

The concept of well-being has been treated in two ways. Whereas the first, which equates it with happiness, focuses on hedonic or subjective well-being, the second approach, which defines it as being fully functioning, focuses on eudemonic well-being. The second is the one supported by Deci and Ryan (2002). They report that there is close relationship between the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs and eudemonic well being.

Related to satisfaction of needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, two different concepts are suggested (Kasser and Ryan, 1996). When the direct satisfaction of needs is attributed to *intrinsic aspirations,* relatively less direct satisfaction is related to *extrinsic aspirations.* Intrinsic aspirations refer to people's wish for affiliation, personal growth, and community contribution; and extrinsic aspirations refer to the wishes for

wealth, fame, and image. It is advocated that it is intrinsic aspirations not extrinsic aspirations which support the eudemonic well being.

However, extrinsic aspirations may function as the substitutes for basic needs in the cases where the satisfaction of them is not possible (Deci, 1980). When social contexts do not support the satisfaction of intrinsic aspirations with autonomy-supportive, secure, and warm atmosphere, people may tend to pursue extrinsic aspirations. This generally results in negative consequences (Kasser, Ryan, Zax & Sameroff, 1995) which pose serious risks to physical and psychological well-being (Williams, Cox, Hedberg & Deci, 2000).

2.4.2. Basic psychological needs

Deci and Ryan, in accordance with their SDT, emphasize the importance of three basic psychological needs, competence, relatedness, and autonomy, as the indispensable components for the psychological and physical growth, functioning, and well-being of all individuals. Satisfaction of these psychological needs is as vital as the satisfaction of the physiological ones that are required to be nurtured for the survival, maintenance and enhancement of the functioning of the body. These three psychological needs are universal and innate requirements. The nutrition and satisfaction of them is needed for the enhancement of self-motivation and mental health (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

One of these three needs is **competence**. The need for competence refers to the feeling of being capable to perform a task and successfully interact with the environment (Anderman & Leake, 2005; Poulsen et al., 2006). This is the need which leads people to challenging activities in life. But these challenges need to be optimal for the capacities of people to let them maintain their motivation and feeling of competence (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Too easy or difficult activities undermine people's motivation and accordingly their success in every domain of life. Competence is defined as a felt sense of confidence and effectance in action not an attained skill or capability and considered to be very closely related to motivation (Yashima et al., 2004).

The need for **relatedness**, or in another term, belonging (Alderman & Leake, 2005), is defined as the feeling of being connected to others, caring for or being cared for by

others, and a sense of belongingness both with other individuals and the community. It is the tendency to connect with and be integral to and accepted by others. It is related to the psychological sense of being with others in secure communion or unity (Deci & Ryan, 2002; p. 7). People who experience a good feeling of relatedness to others live their life happily and feel in security. Satisfaction of this feeling leads people to a healthy personality development and well-being.

The need for **autonomy** refers to the case in which the origin of behaviours and activities is the people performing them. In other words, it is the sense of self control of people. When people act from interest and integrated values and experience their behaviour as an expression of the self, they are described as autonomous. The concept of autonomy should not be mistaken with *independence,* which means not to rely on external sources or influences. When the fulfilment of these needs is supported by the social context, the tendencies of engagement, mastery and synthesis are facilitated; but otherwise, if they are overwhelmed by the environmental factors, individuals' motivation, growth, integrity and well being are diminished (Deci & Ryan, 2002; pp. 8-9).

2.4.3. Intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation continuum

The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is one of the most important concerns of SDT. This theory investigates the concept of motivation in terms of its quality rather than its quantity. According to it, the basic types of motivation quality are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Besides this general taxonomy, this theory deals with different forms and degrees of these two motivation types. It analyzes intrinsic motivation in the dimensions involving knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation; whereas it attributes four different types of regulation to extrinsic motivation, as mentioned under the heading of *Organismic integration theory* above, such as external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. In addition, the concept of amotivation is also concerned with next to these issues as the case in which people display an absence of motivation.

Vallerand & Ratelle (2002) explains four important features of motivation in its dealing with these different types of motivation. The first feature is that people may have

different types of motivation at the same time. Also, different types of motivation appear at three levels of generality, global, contextual, and situational levels. While our global motivation is intrinsic, our contextual and situational motivation may be extrinsic. The second feature is that people around us may influence our motivation quality. The third feature of motivation presented by Vallerand & Ratelle is that it produces important consequences at three levels of generality. At the global level, motivation is seen as an individual difference that applies from one situation to another and yields general consequences. At the contextual level, these consequences differ according to the context which influences motivation at the corresponding level. At the situational level, motivation is associated with important consequences in a specific activity at a particular time. The fourth and last feature of motivation is related to recursive bottom-up influence of situational motivation on contextual motivation. The positive outcomes of engaging in intrinsically motivating activities at the situational level may result in intrinsic motivation at contextual levels, or vice versa. Distinguishing intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation gives the opportunity to make a complete analysis of motivation (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002, pp.39-40).

2.4.3.1. Intrinsic motivation

According to SDT, the most effective type of motivation is intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in it (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; 2000b). This type is conveyed to be built on the needs of competence and self-determination (Noels et al., 2000).

A three-part taxonomy is proposed for intrinsic motivation such as intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002). Intrinsic motivation to know involves the pleasure and satisfaction from learning, exploring and understanding new things. Intrinsic motivation to accomplish is related to engaging in activities for the pleasure and satisfaction from trying to master a task or to accomplish something. Finally, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation refers to engagement in an activity for the stimulating

sensations such as enjoyment, fun or excitement associated with it (Noels et al., 2000; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

When people perceive the activities they do as optimally challenging, interesting to learn, exciting, funny or enjoyable to do, their motivation may be called intrinsic. Such perceptions of people make people more volitional to engage in and maintain their activities.

2.4.3.2. Extrinsic motivation

Another type of motivation, according to SDT, which is regarded as much less effective when compared to intrinsic motivation, is extrinsic motivation. However, it still implies an existence of motivation. Extrinsic motivation exists when an activity is done for instrumental reasons such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment (Noels et al., 2000) rather than the reasons which are inherent in it. That is, extrinsically motivated behaviour is undertaken for the outcomes which are separate from the actual behaviour and they are invoked by contingencies (Noels et al., 1999).

As stated in the section in which *organismic integration theory* was explained, extrinsic motivation has four types that vary in their degree of self-determination and ordered along a self-determination continuum ranging from non-self-determined to self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

The first type of extrinsic motivation is *external regulation*. In this type of regulation, people do activities to reach a reward or avoid a negative end state. Getting money and high marks are examples of rewards whereas avoidance from punishments or reprimands is an example of negative end states. External regulation is the least self-determined type of extrinsic motivation.

The second type of extrinsic motivation is *introjected regulation*. It is defined as the first step of internalization. Here people bring the prompts which they take from their environments inside themselves. The reasons of the behaviours are internalized, but the motivation for them is not self-determined because people find these behaviours necessary to avoid feeling shame and internal pressure (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002, p. 42).

The third type of extrinsic motivation is *identified regulation*. People perform the activities with a sense of volition when they internalize the reasons of these activities and judge them valuable. This type of extrinsic motivation is relatively self-determined in that people perform some behaviours because of finding them personally important.

The last type of extrinsic motivation is *integrated regulation* by which individuals can harmonize the sense of choice with other structures of the self while performing behaviour. This is the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002, p. 43).

The basic distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation lies in the reward that is associated with the activity. When the reward for the activity is the feeling of competence and self-determination, the behaviour is intrinsically motivated; and, when the reward is something that is separate from the behaviour and follows it, the behaviour may be defined as extrinsically motivated at this time (Deci et al., 1981).

2.4.3.3. Amotivation

Amotivation, which is proposed as another construct of motivation by Deci and Ryan (1985b), is the state of displaying an absence of motivation. In cases that there are no contextual supports and when people do not see any relation between their behaviours and the outcomes of these behaviours, or do not perceive any extrinsic or intrinsic reasons for engaging any activity, they do not want to perform them (Poulsen et al, 2006). They do not believe the usefulness in engaging in the activities. Their engagement in them is caused by external forces. By this nature, amotivation involves no self-determination (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

Amotivation is associated with low self-determination and, accordingly, low development, success, and well-being (e.g., Fairchild, Horst, Finney & Barron, 2005; Noels, 2001a; Noels et al., 2000; Poulsen et al, 2006). In the cases of amotivation, people are likely to quit what they are doing as soon as possible because of not having any reasons to do it.

2.5. Educational Studies from SDT Perspectives

In recent decades, the principles proposed by SDT have been widely adapted to the educational contexts as well as they have been to other numerous spheres of inquiry and settings of life (Reeve, 2002) such as *human behaviours* (e.g., Knee & Zuckerman, 1998), *health* (e.g., Vansteenkiste et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2000; Williams & Deci, 2001; Williams et al., 2002; Zeldman, Ryan & Fiscela, 2004), *parenting* (e.g., Deci et al., 1993), *work* (e.g., Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunow & Kornazheva, 2001; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gagné et al., 1997; Miskel, 1974), *cultural contexts* (e.g., Chirkov, Ryan, Kim & Kaplan, 2003; Chirkov, Ryan & Willness, 2005; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon & Kaplan, 2006), *sports* (e.g., Gagné et al., 2003; Ntoumanis, 2001; Reinboth & Duda, 2006; Reinboth, Duda & Ntoumanis, 2004; Vallerand, Deci & Ryan, 1987) and *exercises* (e.g., Edmunds, Ntoumanis & Duda, 2006; Matsumoto & Takenaka, 2004; Ryan et al., 1997), *environmentalism* (e.g., Osbaldiston & Sheldon, 2003; Pelletier et al., 1998), *daily well-being* (e.g., Hahn & Oishi, 2006; Niemiec, Lynch, Vansteenkiste, Bernstein, Deci & Ryan, 2006; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe & Ryan, 2000; Sheldon & Bettencourt, 2002; Sheldon et al., 1996), *politics* (e.g., Losier et al., 2001), etc. The results of the studies in all these areas generally demonstrate that the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs and provision of autonomy supportive climates or environments enhance the intrinsic motivation in people for the behaviours and activities they would perform and this brings about positive outcomes in their daily well-being, persistence and success in their activities, and happiness in life.

In the field of education, the research from the perspective of SDT has been conducted to investigate various components of this theory in school settings. Educational researchers have studied on the satisfaction of the three basic innate psychological needs of students and its reflection on their performances (e.g., Anderman & Leake, 2005; Filak & Sheldon, 2003), amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of students (Lepper et al., 2005; Poulsen et al., 2006; Ratelle et al., 2007), the effects of autonomy-supportive and controlling behaviours or communicative styles of teachers (e.g., Assor et al., 2002; Black & Deci, 2000; Flink et al., 1990; Katyal & Evers, 2004; Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al, 2004; Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio & Turner, 2004) and parents (e.g., Grolnick, Gurland,

DeCourcey & Jacob, 2002; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Joussemet, Koestner, Lekes & Landry, 2005; Ng, Kenney-Benson & Pomerantz, 2004; Ryan, Stiller & Lynch, 1994) on students' motivational profiles, other factors such as extrinsic rewards (Deci et al., 1999; Deci et al., 2001; Harackiewicz, 1979; Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2003), praise (Henderlong & Lepper, 2002) and feedback or grades (Butler & Nisan, 1986) influencing them positively or negatively and the relationships between these motivational profiles and student engagement and performance in the classes and so on.

Vansteenkiste, Lens & Deci (2006) reports that, among all these issues, educational studies within SDT have generally centred on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, autonomous and controlled regulations of behaviours and the contextual factors promoting or hindering these motivation profiles and regulations.

In the research by which age differences in extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of 3rd-grade through 8th-grade students and the associations of these motivation types to the academic outcomes were investigated, Lepper et al. (2005) found that as the ages of the students increased their intrinsic motivation decreased and there was no difference between their extrinsic motivation levels according to their ages. In addition, their study demonstrated a positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and academic outcomes and a negative correlation between extrinsic motivation and academic outcomes.

One of the most commonly studied concepts of SDT by educational researchers is autonomy support in the classroom. In one of the studies on the phenomenon of autonomy, Miserandino (1996) researched into individual differences in perceived competence and autonomy in primary students and reported that students' low-level perceived autonomy and competence had negative impact on their engagement and performance in school whereas the stronger perceptions of autonomy and competence had just the opposite outcomes. Black and Deci (2000) examined the effects of instructors' autonomy support and students' autonomous motivation on their learning with university organic chemistry students and got the similar results which showed that students' perceptions of their instructors as autonomy supportive predicted high levels of self-regulation, perceived competence and enjoyment in the learners and a decrease in their anxiety. In addition, high level of autonomous motivation was found to be positively related to perceived competence

and performance of the students. A more recent study (Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand & Brière, 2001) focused on the relationship between autonomy support and types of self-regulation. Its findings indicated a positive correlation between autonomy supportive contexts and more self-determined motivation types, introjected regulation, integrated regulation, and intrinsic motivation. It also revealed a positive correlation of controlling contexts with amotivation and external regulation. Further studies (Reeve et al., 2004; Assor et al., 2005; Vansteenkiste, Zhou, Lens & Soenens, 2005) on autonomy support in different educational fields and contexts classroom reached the results which supported the findings related to positive effects of autonomy support on students' intrinsic motivation, involvement and performance in learning.

Another frequently studied issue of the educational researchers who investigated motivation from the perspective of SDT has been the other contextual factors, in addition to teachers' communicative styles, that promote or hinder the motivation profiles and regulations proposed by this theory. Effects of rewards, feedback, etc. have been researched. The studies of Butler and Nisan (1986), Deci et al. (2001) and Henderlong and Lepper (2002), which may be defined as meta-analytic studies, emphasize that feedback and rewards (both praises and material rewards) might undermine or enhance self-determination of the students according to whether they have informational or controlling functions. When these tools are used as controlling factors they have negative effects on the intrinsic motivation and, accordingly, persistence and performance in learning. Contrary to this, when they are utilized for informational purposes they can enhance the intrinsic motivation and success of the students.

Although it has not been focused on as frequently and broadly as the other constructs of SDT, the role of basic psychological need satisfaction of students in their motivation and performances has been emphasized as well. In their study, Anderman & Leake (2005) analyzed the basic psychological needs as the ABCs of motivation. They stated that the satisfaction of these needs contributed to students' motivation and accordingly to their success. They made some suggestions which would help the satisfaction of these needs.

For the autonomy, it is recommended to try to make students feel a sense of control over their learning process and to give them the right to make some choices, to take students' interest into consideration and help them see the value of the tasks they are given, to avoid external rewards when the students are already intrinsically motivated, to support them in their attempts to self-regulate their behaviours and to allow them to involve in making some decisions in the classroom.

For the belonging, which is described as students' sense of connectedness to their teachers, classmates and their overall school environment in educational contexts, Anderman and Leake (2005) suggests the practices of fostering a classroom atmosphere of mutual respect between the teacher and students and among students, recognizing efforts and characteristics of students, establishing interaction and help among students, providing both positive and negative one-to-one feedback related to students' performance and behaviour and trying to be as objective as possible to provide all students with equal participation.

And, for the satisfaction of the sense of competence, teachers are suggested to design moderately challenging tasks for students, to help students break their tasks into manageable smaller parts and stages to facilitate their self-confidence and sense of progress, to support students to monitor their progress and decide what they should do to improve themselves by providing them with informative feedback, to use different types of assessment, to avoid causing the cases the students will compare themselves with others and to model students in using strategies to overcome difficulties (p. 195-196).

It is possible to conclude that the application of different concepts of SDT to the contexts of education showed that the satisfaction of basic psychological needs as well as creating autonomy supportive learning environments is positively correlated with the self-determined types of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. These all together facilitate the persistence, engagement and success of the learning process. Reeve (2002) reports the two major results of the educational research on the basis of self-determination studies as follows: They are (1) autonomously-motivated students thrive in educational settings, and (2) students benefit when teachers support their autonomy.

2.6. L2 Studies from SDT Perspectives

In recent years, in particular, in the last decade, the studies investigating language learning/teaching motivation from SDT perspective have increased. The initial attempts to adapt the constructs and principles of this theory to L2 teaching/learning studies were those of Noels and her colleagues, Clément, Pelletier, and Vallerand (e.g., Noels, 1997; 2001a; 2001b; Noels et al., 1999; 2001; Noels et al., 2000).

Noels et al. (1999) investigated the relationship between teachers' autonomy support and useful feedback provision and students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivational profiles. According to the data collected through various scales, perceptions of the teacher's communicative style as autonomy supportive and provision of useful feedback were associated with stronger feelings of intrinsic motivation of the students and such feelings were evaluated to have significant positive effects on language learning.

In a more recent study (2000), which was defined by its authors as one of the initial attempts of a complete extension of SDT to the investigation of motivation in L2 learning (p. 57), Noels et al. aimed to explore how conceptualization of extrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and SDT, would contribute to the understanding of L2 learning motivation. In this study, they tried to find out L2 learners' amotivation, extrinsic motivation with its different categories, and intrinsic motivation with its types of knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation by a descriptive study the data of which were gathered by several scales. They also gave students questionnaires to measure their perceptions of competence and autonomy as the antecedents of self-determination (pp. 66-67). Their findings showed that higher level of autonomy and self-determination was correlated with enhanced competence in the learning task, low anxiety and less probability in the students to give up L2 learning.

In her study, by which she intended to analyze the motivational profiles, feelings of autonomy and competence, integrative orientations and perceptions of teachers' communication style of the students who were attending a Spanish language course, Noels (2001), according to the results of her intercorrelation analyses, found out that, especially, when supported with positive feedback and perceiving the teacher as autonomy supportive predicted a stronger level of intrinsic motivation in the students. The correlation analyses demonstrated a positive correlation between integrative orientation and more self-regulated

types of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation as well. The integrated orientations and intrinsic motivation of the students were also intercorrelated with their perceived competence in Spanish. On the other hand, amotivation was determined to be negatively correlated to all other results found in that study.

There are also some studies which are particularly concerned with the concept of autonomy support which may be regarded to be related to SDT rather than to be an adaptation of it to the L2 motivation investigation (e.g., Benson, 2006; Chan, 2001; 2003; Chan, Spratt & Humpreys, 2002; Hyland, 2004; Luke, 2006). These studies reported positive outcomes of autonomy in L2 learning.

In addition, some recent meta-analytic studies (e.g., Carreira, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001; 2003) cited L2 motivation research based on SDT. Such studies both discussed the utility of SDT in L2 motivation research and analyzed the findings of the earlier studies. Among these studies, whereas Dörnyei (2001; 2003) refers to the researchs mentioned above, Carreira (2005) reports some other examples conducted in the L2 learning contexts in Japan. This study reports the findings of these studies to be similar to those of Noels and her colleagues. None of the studies cited in this section is specifically related to one of the four basic language skills, listening, speaking, reading, or writing. All these studies extended SDT to the L2 motivation at the global level taking language as a whole not in specific skills.

One example which sought the relationships between the motivational model of SDT and a particular language skill was that of Vandergrift (2005). In this study, Vandergrift investigated the motivational orientations, metacognitive awareness and L2 listening proficiency of the adolescent learners of French. However, it was not intended to measure amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of the learners in their listening skill. The general motivational profiles of the subjects in learning French, their listening proficiencies and metacognitive awareness were correlated. The study revealed a positive correlation between metacognitive awareness and motivation of the students. It also showed that amotivation predicted a low level of listening proficiency. In addition, moderate correlations were determined between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and listening

proficiency of learners. This study claimed to have provided some evidence for the applicability of SDT to different language learning contexts.

2.7. Research Methodology in SDT Studies

Most of the studies overviewed within this dissertation are mostly quantitative in their data collection procedures. Among these quantitative studies, there were a great many which gathered their data through treatment of some experiments. On the contrary, the ones whose research designs are qualitative are notably fewer. In addition, there are also some examples which have the characteristics of two or more of these research designs at the same time.

The studies which attempted to investigate the effects of some factors on the motivational profiles of people for some activities generally adopted experimental designs. The following examples all used experimental methods. In their study, Zuckerman et al. (1978) investigated the effects of choice on the intrinsic motivation of undergraduate students. They wanted the subjects to solve puzzles. Some of the participants were given limited time and the puzzles already chosen by the researchers whereas others were provided the choice about the puzzles to be solved and time allotments. The results showed that freedom to choose was associated with greater intrinsic motivation. In another study with undergraduate students, Deci et al. (1981) tried to find out the effects of competition on intrinsic motivation. As the tools of the experiment, puzzles were used. While one group of subjects was instructed to complete the puzzles faster than others, the other group was requested to do their best. The analyses of the data they collected showed that competition undermined the intrinsic motivation of the subjects since it was regarded to be a controlling factor on them. Reeve and Deci (1996) reached the similar results in their investigation of the effects of competitive situation on undergraduate students' intrinsic motivation.

The study of Flink et al. (1990) also revealed similar results indicating that the controlling strategies of teachers predicted low self-determination and performance of the students. Reeve et al. (2002) conducted a research to determine the role of existence of a rationale in the identification of external motivation of the college students. Their results demonstrated that presence of a rationale for any activity contributes the identification

process and this process, accordingly, leads extrinsically motivated behaviours to become self-determined. Butler and Nisan (1986), Deci (1971), Grouzet, Vallerand, Thill and Provencher (2004), Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973), Pritchard, Campbell and Campbell (1977), Vansteenkiste, Matos, Lens and Soenens (2007) and Harackiewicz, Abrahams and Wageman (1987) are some other examples of experimental studies within self-determination literature. The number of the experimental studies related to SDT is, of course, too many to be exemplified in this section.

Quantitative studies compromise a great deal of the self-determination research as well. In most self-determination studies, different constructs of this motivation model, such as basic psychological need satisfaction, amotivation, extrinsic, and intrinsic motivation, were measured and correlated with the other qualities, perceptions, thoughts or feelings of people such as their perceived competence, perceived autonomy support, engagement and performances in different activities, etc. The following studies are some of such studies.

Black and Deci (2000) compared the effects of university students' course-specific self-regulation and perceptions of their instructors' autonomy support on their adjustment and academic performance in the organic chemistry course. This study presented some findings indicating that the students who entered this course on a relatively autonomous basis reported higher perceived competence, interest/enjoyment, lower anxiety and grade-focused performance and those who perceived their instructors' style as autonomy supportive had higher levels of autonomous self-regulation, perceived competence, interest/enjoyment and lower levels of anxiety. This study showed a direct relationship between teachers' autonomy support and students' performances in the course. Wilson et al. (2003) researched the link between psychological need satisfaction, exercise regulations and motivational consequences proposed by SDT. This study presented positive intercorrelations among higher competence, autonomy, more self-determined exercise regulations, more positive exercise behaviours and attitudes and physical fitness of people. Another example for quantitative researches is that of Assor et al (2005) by which they aimed to determine the relationship between directly controlling behaviours of teachers and their students' motivation and engagement in the courses. The correlation analyses showed that directly controlling behaviours of teachers were antecedents of higher anger and

anxiety, and accordingly, amotivation and less self-determined motivation of the students. This also reversely affected their engagement during the classes. In a similar study, Vansteenkiste et al. (2005) obtained the findings, which were consistent with those of Assor et al. (2005), that autonomy support predicted positive learning attitudes, academic success and personal well-being whereas controlling predicted just opposite outcomes.

Some of the studies which adapted self-determination motivation model to the investigation of L2 motivation can also be given as examples for quantitative self-determination researches. Noels et al. (1999) utilized quantitative data collection instruments to investigate the relationship between teachers' autonomy support and useful feedback provision and students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivational profiles. They found results that showed a positive correlation between autonomy support and useful feedback and students' intrinsic motivation and positive learning outcomes. In another study, Noels and her colleagues Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand (2000), aimed to explore the relationship between students' motivational profiles and their perceptions of competence and autonomy. The higher level of autonomy and self-determination was found to predict increased competence in the learning task and low anxiety and less probability in the students to give up L2 learning. Noels (2001), in a more recent study, obtained data that indicated a positive correlation between students' perceptions of their teacher as autonomy supportive and a stronger level of their intrinsic motivation. She reported also a positive correlation between integrative orientation and more self-determined types of motivation and a negative correlation between amotivation and all other results found in that study.

There are also qualitative and mixed type research designs in this area of inquiry. However, when compared to the experimental and quantitative ones, their number is not so great. One mixed research was carried out by Ntoumanis, Pensgaard, Martin and Pipe (2004). This study investigated students' amotivation in compulsory school physical education and its causes. The data of this research were collected through both questionnaires and interviews. Results demonstrated that the causes of students' amotivation were their learned helplessness beliefs, low need satisfaction, and contextual factors; and, it was displayed by non-attendance, low involvement in the class, and low intention to continue exercises after leaving the school. Students' suggestions for reducing

amotivation were reported to be basically related to the enhancement of positive emotions, need satisfaction and structural/organizational changes. In another mixed type research, Jiang, Prosser and Hawkins (2005) researched the relationship between students' self-concept and perceptions of their school activities. The data collected through interviews and questionnaires showed that students were contended with the activities which aroused fun, enjoyment and satisfaction of their curiosity. It was also found that the students with higher levels of self-concept experienced higher levels of contentment with school activities than other students. Other findings of this study were related to the judgment of importance of the school subjects. The activities which had educational, health and pragmatic value were regarded as important activities as long as they carried enough fun and enjoyment. It was also reported that the students participated in this study were influenced by intrinsic rewards rather than external benefits.

One of the few qualitative studies was that of Griffin (2006). In this study, Griffin investigated the academic motivation of black college students and, according to the findings, reported that SDT, socio-cognitive theory, and attribution theory could not explain Black high-achievers' motivation and a multi-dimensional framework was needed.

In sum, according to the broad review of the studies in many different fields which investigated motivation from the perspective of SDT, it can be told that the studies related to SDT are mostly quantitative and experimental in their research designs. On the contrary, the mixed type and qualitative ones are not so many.

2.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, the issues of L2 writing teaching and SDT were investigated. One of the most noteworthy facts related to writing is that it is considered to be a difficult skill to be developed. The second important point emphasized is that the research and teaching of writing has been neglected, at least, until the recent decades. Different purposes and approaches in L2 writing teaching were described in this chapter as well. Writing activities and their evaluation and motivation in writing were other topics explained in relation to the subject of L2 writing teaching. SDT, its main components, its application to educational, L2 teaching/learning, L2 writing contexts were explained in terms of their possible

relations and contributions to the main focus of this study, right after a brief introduction to L2 motivation.

Related to SDT, it was shown that it was a very versatile theory which has been applied to almost every setting of inquiry and life. The examples of the adaptation of this theory to educational contexts were very great in number as well. In addition, several studies which extended this theory to the field L2 teaching/learning have been conducted, in particular, since the beginning of the 21st century. However, there were few examples for the studies which investigated L2 writing from the perspective of this theory.

The studies overviewed within this research indicated that the fostering of the feeling of self-determination of the individuals and satisfaction of their basic psychological needs, competence, autonomy and relatedness resulted in positive outcomes in terms of academic achievement and overall well-being of people.

In Chapter Three, the participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and a summary of the data analysis of the study will be described. Firstly, the subjects will be introduced. Secondly, four different scales used in the collection of quantitative data together with a background information section and interviews used in qualitative data colection will be described in detail. Thirdly, data collection procedure will be explained. And, finally, a summary of the data analysis of the research will be given.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The main purpose of this study, as emphasized previously, is to describe the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers from the perspective of SDT and to explain the factors and variables affecting or having relation with these motivational patterns. The study was designed to examine its subject matter without any control or manipulation on the subjects and the contexts of the study in which it was carried out and try to describe the phenomenon of the study as it naturally occurs. In accordance with the purpose of the study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected, and therefore the design of this research can be defined as a mixture of qualitative and quantitative research designs.

The data of the study were collected from the students of the English Language Teaching Department (ELT) of Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty and the English Language and Literature Department (ELL) of Faculty of Arts and Humanity of Atatürk University in 2007-2008 Academic Year. The students were preparatory and first year students who were taking one of "Writing Skills", "Written Expression" and "Advanced Writing and Reading Skills" courses.

For data collection, a survey consisting of four different questionnaires were administered to the participants; and after the analyses of the results of these questionnaires, and according to the responses given, some participants were selected and interviewed.

Before the data collection procedure, written permissions for the application of both questionnaires and interviews were requested from the administrations of Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty and Faculty of Arts and Humanities. In addition, the participation in questionnaires and interviews were on a voluntary basis and an informed consent form defining the purpose and other details of the research was given to each interviewee in order to ensure them that their responses would be confidential and be used for only scientific objectives and that the participation was completely voluntary.

In the following sections, the participants, the instruments used for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, and the data collection procedures will be described in detail; and, a brief explanation of data analysis procedure will be given.

3.2. Participants

The participants of questionnaires and interviews will be introduced separately under different headings. After an in-depth description of the subjects who participated in the questionnaires, those who were interviewed with the purpose of collecting the qualitative data will be introduced.

3.2.1. Participants of the questionnaires

The participants who responded to the questionnaires were 275, 224 female and 51 male, ELT and ELL preparatory and first year students who were taking writing courses in their departments during the data collection process. Nearly 85% of 325 preparatory and first year students participated in the research. The reason for limiting the research to only these levels of students was that the research was limited to the pre-service EFL teachers who were taking wring courses and only they were taking writing classes at the time of the administration of the survey.

The participants will be introduced below according to their responses to the questions interrogating subject variables such as genders, ages, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, and types of high school they graduated from. They were initially described according to their distribution by departments, day-time/evening classes, grades and genders. This distribution is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Distribution of participants according to their departments, day-time/evening classes, grades and genders

Department	ELL								ELT			
Day/Evening	Day-time				Evening				Day			
Grade	Prep.		First		Prep.		First		Prep.		First	
Gender	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
	33	6	56	13	20	12	53	7	29	6	33	7
	39		69		32		60		35		40	
	108				92				75			
	200								75			
Total	275											

As is seen in Table 3.1, of 275 participants, 62 females and 13 males were from the ELT Department and 162 females and 38 males were from the ELL Department. Among the participants from the ELL Department, 89 females and 19 males were day-time class students; and 73 females and 19 males were evening class students. There was no evening class in the ELT Department.

There were 29 female and six male preparatory and 33 female and seven male first year students from the ELT Department. The preparatory year students from the ELL Department were 33 female and six male day-time class and 20 female and 12 were male evening class students. The first year students from this department were 56 female and 13 male day-time class and 53 female and seven male were evening class students.

The participants were in the 17-22 age range. Of all the participants, 12% were 17-18, 63% were 19-20 and 25% were 21-22 years old. Most of the participants' ages were, as seen, either 19 or 20.

In the section of the survey designed to gather background information about the participants, there was also an item requiring participants to give information about the high schools they had graduated from. Most of the participants of the study reported that they had graduated from Super High Schools. Nearly 63%, 150 female and 24 male, of the participants graduated from these types of high schools. The participants who had graduated from Anatolian High Schools had a rate of 22%, 45 female and 15 male; those from Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools were 6%, 10 female and seven male; those from High Schools were 5%, 11 female and three male. The rest, 4%, eight female and two male, were from other types of high schools. The distribution of the participants from the two departments according to the high schools they graduated from and the percentages of them are shown in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2. Distribution of participants from the ELL and ELT departments according to their high school types

Department	ELL			ELT			**TOTAL**
Gender	F	M	Total	F	M	Total	-
Super H. School	122	23	145	28	1	29	174
Anatolian H. School	28	11	39	17	4	21	60
Anatolian Teacher T.H. School	1	-	1	9	7	16	17
High School	5	3	8	6	0	6	14
Other Types of H. Schools	6	1	7	2	1	3	10
TOTAL	162	38	200	62	13	75	275

According to the values given in Table 3.2, it is possible to draw a conclusion that there exist some differences between the participants from the ELT and ELL departments in terms of the school types they graduated from. The percentage, 73% (122 female and 23 male), of the participants from the ELL Department who graduated from Super High Schools was much higher than that, 39% (28 female and one male), of the ones from the ELT Department. On the other hand, while there was only one, 0.5% (one male), participant from the ELL Department who had graduated from Anatolian Teacher Training High School, 21%, 16, (nine female and seven male), of the participants from the ELT Department graduated from these schools. The percentages of the participants who graduated from Anatolian High School, High School, and other types of high school do not considerably vary according to their departments. They were 19.5% (28 female and 11 male) and 28% (17 female and four male); 4% (five female and three male) and 8% (six female); and, 3.5% (six female and one male) and 4% (two female and one male) respectively for the ELL and ELT departments.

Table 3.3 illustrates the variances among the participants in terms of the types of high school they graduated from according to their programs within the ELL Department.

Table 3.3. Distribution of participants from the ELL Department according to their high school types

Day-time/Evening	Day-time			Evening			Total
Gender	F	M	Total	F	M	Total	
Super High School	65	12	77	57	11	68	145
Anatolian High School	17	6	23	11	5	16	39
Anatolian Teacher T.High School	-	-	-	-	1	1	1
High Schools	3	1	4	2	2	4	8
Other types of high schools	4	-	4	2	1	3	7
TOTAL	89	19	108	72	20	92	200

From Table 3.3, it is seen that there were also differences between the day-time and evening class students within the ELL Department according to the school types they graduated from. The rates of the day-time and evening class students graduated from Super High School seemed very close to each other with the rates of 71% (65 female and 12 male) and 74%, (57 female and 11 male). The rate of the participants in day-time classes and graduated from Anatolian High School was 21% (17 female and six male) and the rate of the participants in evening classes and graduated from Anatolian High School was 17% (11 female and five male). Those who were in day-time classes and graduated from High

School had a rate of 4% (three female and one male); and the rate of the participants in evening classes and graduated from High School was 4% (two female and two male). The rate of the participants in day-time classes and graduated from other types of schools was also 4% (four female), and the rate of the participants in evening classes and graduated from other types of schools was 3% (two female and one male). Finally, as mentioned above while there were no participants at day-time classes who graduated from Anatolian Teacher Training High School, there was only one in the evening classes (one male).

In the section designed to gather background information about the participants, their writing grades were asked as well. However, no further explanations about them will be given in this section since they will be referred to in *Data Analysis* in detail in terms of their relation to the scores of the questionnaires.

3.2.2. Participants of the interviews

The interviewees of the study were selected according to their responses to the question "To help us get further information on this topic would you like to discuss this topic in greater detail with the researcher?" There were nearly 70 participants who said "Yes" to the question. Their responses to the WMS and their writing course grades were analyzed and variances were checked. Ensuring that their scores from the questionnaire and writing grades were not similar, and that there was a balance in gender distribution, two or three participants from each group were invited for the interviews. Of 15 interviewees, five were from the ELT Department; and, 10 were from the ELL Department. From these 15 interviews, eight with more fully responses were chosen and analyzed.

3.3. Materials

Two types of instruments, questionnaires and interviews, were used to collect the data of the study. First a survey consisted of four scales was administered to the participants. Then, according to the results obtained from the scales, some participants were selected and interviewed. In this section, these two instruments will be described and the judgments for the use of them will be explained in detail.

The bulk of the data was collected through a four-part questionnaire. Questionnaires were utilized in this research since they are the most widely used instruments to collect information from subjects. They include questions or statements to which the participants are expected to respond anonymously. They are especially used for collecting data related to phenomena that cannot be observed or measured directly and easily, such as attitudes, motivation, and self-concepts (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Seliger & Shohamy, 1990, p. 172).

There are rational reasons for using questionnaires in data collection. Some of the advantages are listed in Seliger & Shohamy (1990; p. 172) as follows: (1) they are self-administered and can be administered to large group of participants and this makes it more economical to administer them than other procedures; (2) they can assure anonymity; for this reason, participants tend to share information more easily; and (3) the data collected through them are more uniform and standard since the same questionnaire is given to all subjects.

Considering the benefits of questionnaire use and the appropriateness of it for the subject matter of the study and the number of subjects of the dissertation, this research utilized questionnaires in collecting the major data. A five-point Likert scale was used in the questionnaires. The items were designed in a way to make the respondents indicate their agreement or disagreement with the statements given. There were scales from 1 to 5 for each statement. Each number corresponded to a level of agreement or disagreement of the participants with the statements. The response “Strongly disagree” was corresponded to 1, “Disagree” to 2, “Moderately agree” to 3, “Agree” to 4, and “Strongly agree” to 5. The participants were asked to mark the number which would best reflect their opinions on or agreement levels with the statements in each item. The neutral, “Neither agree nor disagree”, choice was not used since the participants might have a tendency to cluster their responses in that choice and avoid giving exact responses.

Four different questionnaires were used in this research. Various strategies and methods were appealed to in designing them. While one of the questionnaires was used without any modification; the other three were adapted by the researcher, after a long review of the instruments used before by other researchers in relevant studies. For the

adaptation and direct use of the instruments, permissions were obtained from the researchers who designed them. These procedure will be explained in detail below within the parts allotted for the description of each of the instruments used in the data collection of the study. The instruments will be described below in the order which they were given to the participants on the same sheet. After the background information part, there were the BNSS, the PWCS, the PASS and the WMS.

3.3.1. Instruments used in the collection of the quantitative data

In this section, the background information section the BNSS, the PWCS, the PASS and the WMS which were utilized in the collection of the quantitative data will be described.

3.3.1.1. Background information section

In this section, information related to the genders, ages, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, types of high school, last writing grades of the participants was pursued assuming that there might be correlations between some of these variables and the responses of the participants to the questionnaire items or variances among their responses. The participants were also asked to write down their student numbers in case they will be needed to contact them for both the interviews and other reasons.

3.3.1.2. The Basic Need Satisfaction Scale

The first section after the one aiming to reach the background information of the participants was the BNSS (see Appendix A). Gagné (2003) adapted this scale from its original version 'The Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale' used by other researchers before (Deci et al., 2001; Ilardi et al., 1993; Kasser, Davey & Ryan, 1992). Deci and Gagné were contacted to get the required permission for the use of the scale with no modifications in this study and further publications related to it (see Appendix B).

There were three groups of items in this scale each aiming to measure the satisfaction levels of participants' three different basic psychological needs, autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The items 1, 4, 8, 11, 14, 17 and 20 had the statements

designed to measure the satisfaction level of autonomy of the participants; 3, 5, 10, 13, 15 and 19 aimed to determine the satisfaction level of the need for competence; and, 2, 6, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18 and 21 included the statements related to the other basic psychological need, relatedness. The items 3, 4, 7, 11, 15, 16, 18, 19, and 20 had negative expressions. Therefore, the responses given to them were reversely scored. The reason why this scale was used in the research was that the satisfaction levels of the three basic psychological needs might have effects on or relationships with participants' motivation types for writing classes and writing in general in English.

3.3.1.3. The Perceived Writing Competence Scale

The PWCS (see Appendix A) was designed after revising the competence scales given in some previous studies such as Ntoumanis (2001), and those presented on the webpage of Self-Determination Theory: An Approach to Human Motivation and Personality in the website of University of Rochester (http://www.psych.rochester.edu/SDT/measures/comp.html) with references to Williams, Freedman and Deci (1998) and Williams and Deci (1996).

The PWCS consisted of 10 items each designed to measure how competent the participants feel in writing in English and in writing classes. The 10th item in the scale was negative, therefore it was reversely scored. This scale was used to analyze whether there are relationships between perceived writing competence and the motivational types of the participants.

3.3.1.4. The Perceived Autonomy Support Scale

There were 14 items in this scale (see Appendix A). The items were formed after a review of many different scales used in the studies from various areas (Assor et al., 2002; Chan, 2001, 2003; Ntoumanis, 2001; Standage, Duda & Ntoumanis, 2006; Spratt, Humphreys & Chan, 2002) and those presented on the webpage of Self-Determination Theory: An Approach to Human Motivation and Personality in the website of University of Rochester (http://www.psych. rochester.edu/SDT/measures/auton_learn.html) with references to Black and Deci (2000); Williams, Saizow, Ross and Deci (1997) and

Williams and Deci (1996). Correspondences needed were made with some of these researchers as well (see Appendix B). The items taken from these studies were adapted to both the area of foreign language writing and foreign language teaching contexts in Turkey. The last item of this scale, which was negative, was reversely scored. The reason why this instrument was used in the data collection was that there was strong relationship between teachers' autonomy support and the motivation levels and types of learners. The similar results were assumed to occur in the present study as well.

3.3.1.5. The Writing Motivation Scale

This instrument was the main data collection tool of the study as the basic purpose of this study was to determine the motivation types of the participants from the perspective of SDT and then to analyze them according to the results obtained from the other instruments and subject variables.

No scale directly aiming to measure motivations towards writing, L2 writing, or writing courses from the perspective of SDT could be found. Thus, in the formation of the scale, the ones used in other areas of L2 teaching/learning (Noels et al., 2000; Vandergrift, 2005) or completely different disciplines (Baldwin and Caldwell, 2003) and those given on the webpage of Self-Determination Theory: An Approach to Human Motivation and Personality in the website of University of Rochester (http://www.psych.rochester.edu/SDT/measures/selfreg_acad.html) with references to Ryan and Connell (1989) (the original SRQ-A version), Deci, Hodges, Pierson and Tomassone (1992); Black and Deci (2000); Williams and Deci (1996), Vallerand et al. (1992) were adapted to both the focus and context of this study after permissions were taken from the researchers who had designed or used them before (see Appendix B). In this way, a measure of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation for writing in English and writing classes was designed.

The WMS (see Appendix A) consisted of 33 items falling into three basic and six sub-dimensions. By this instrument, the amotivation, extrinsic motivation (external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation) and intrinsic motivation (knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation) of the participants were expected to be measured.

The items numbered 1, 8, 15, 22, 27 and 32 had the statements referring to amotivation; 2, 9, 16, 23, 28 and 33 to external regulation dimension of extrinsic motivation; 3, 10, 17, 24 and 29 to introjected regulation dimension of extrinsic motivation; 4, 11, 18, 25 and 30 to identified regulation dimension of extrinsic motivation; 5, 12 and 19, to knowledge dimension of intrinsic motivation; 6, 13, 20 and 26 to accomplishment dimension of intrinsic motivation; and 7, 14, 21 and 31 to stimulation dimension of intrinsic motivation.

3.3.2. Instruments used in the collection of the qualitative data

Interviews were the other data gathering tool in the study. They were used by the intention, to some extent, to verify the data obtained from the scales and to have a deeper understanding of participants' thoughts, feelings and experiences related to writing in English in general and writing courses in their department, the writing activities, tasks and assignments they are given to carry out, their writing instructors' communication styles with them as autonomy supportive or controlling, their reasons to write and engage in or carry out the writing tasks and assignments given to them and their thoughts about how they could become better motivated for writing courses and more proficient in writing in English. Before each interview, a consent form (see Appendix D) designed to inform the interviewee about the process and content of the interviews was given to them. They were asked to sign it in order declare their willingness to participate in the research.

There were five questions (see Appendix C) addressed to the interviewees. However, some extra questions were also asked in the course of interviews. The questions were formulated to learn participants' views on the importance, difficulty and place, among four basic skills, of writing and writing course in their education and life in general; the writing activities carried out by them in writing classes in and out of the classroom; their learning climate created by their teachers; their motivations for writing and writing classes; what they think about how they can be motivated better and more successful in writing in English and in writing classes; and so on. A digital audio recorder was used to record the responses of the interviewees. The responses were then transcribed and turned into written data. These texts were used in the analysis of the verbal data obtained from the participants.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

The data of the study were collected from seven different groups of preparatory and first year students from the ELL Department of Faculty of Arts and Humanities and the ELT Department of Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty of Atatürk University at the right beginning of the second semester of the 2007-2008 Academic Year. Before starting to collect the data of the study, required written permissions (see Appendix E) were obtained from the administrators of both faculties. In addition, as mentioned above the permissions to use or adapt instruments or some items of them were asked from the relevant researchers as well.

For the pilot study, the scales were administrated to 40 first year the ELT Department students. Four different scales were given to the participants on the same sheet. The completion of responding the items of the scales took nearly half an hour. During the pilot study, the problems with the scales were aimed to be detected.

After the pilot study, the reliability analysis of the adapted or newly formed scales was carried out. Although no alterations were made on the BNSS, its reliability was also analyzed in case the change of contexts might influence the level of reliability. The reliability coefficients for the scales were respectively α=0.72 for the BNSS; α=0.91 for the PWCS; α=0.84 for the PASS; and α=0.82 for the WMS. The reliability analyses were repeated after the main research. New reliability coefficients were found as follows:

The BNSS: α=0.74

The PWCS: α=0.89

The PASS: α=0.84

The WMS: α=0.80

As a result, the values of reliability indicated that the scales used in the research were reliable.

The questionnaires were administrated during regular classes of the students. The completion of responding the items of the questionnaires took nearly half an hour. They were given to the participants on a voluntary basis. Of 325 ELL and ELT preparatory and first year students, 275 (85%) completed the questionnaires. A question asking if they would like to participate in the interviews to be conducted on the same topic was added to

the end of the questionnaires. After the initial analysis of the questionnaire results, among 70 voluntary students, 15, 10 ELL and 5 ELT preparatory and first year students were selected for interviews according to their scores from the WMS and their writing grades. Among these 15 interviewees, eight whose responses were more fully were selected and analyzed.

Although interviews with the participants were planned to be on one-to-one basis some of the participants wanted to participate in the interviews with their friends. Thus, they were taken to the interviews together, but were posed the questions individually. The others, who wanted to participate in the interviews alone, were interviewed as it was planned. The approximate duration of each interview was 25-30 minutes. Each interviewee was given a consent form to sign in order to declare that they participated in the research voluntarily. In the consent form the participants were also informed about the details of the interview. The interviews were audio-taped and transcribed later.

3.5. Data Analysis

The data of this study were analyzed in three steps. The quantitative data collected through the scales and the qualitative data collected from interviewees were analyzed separately. Later, the results obtained from these two different sources were analyzed in terms of their relation to each other.

3.5.1. Analysis of the quantitative data

In the analysis of all the quantitative data, 16.00 version of SPSS for Windows was used. Means for each instrument, for their sub-dimensions, the descriptive statistics (descriptives, frequencies, cross-tabulation, etc.) for each item in the scales were calculated; correlation analysis between the means of the scores obtained from the scales were carried out; variance and multivariate variance analyses, independent-samples T test, comparison of means were computed and illustrated through the tables and graphs formed in SPSS 16.00. The analyses centred on the results of the WMS. As stated in preceding sections, the purpose of this study was to determine the motivation types of pre-service EFL teachers from the perspective of SDT. Therefore, the results obtained from other scales and subject

variables of the study were analyzed and evaluated in terms their relations to the motivational patterns of the participants.

3.5.2. Analysis of the qualitative data

The data collected through interviews were analyzed to find out if they would verify the findings from questionnaires and to explore what other or further information different from or in addition to quantitative data they provided. The analysis of the qualitative data was carried out in some steps following the guidelines given in Creswell (1998). First, after the transcription of interviews which were audio-taped before, they were compiled. Second, the transcribed forms of interviews were revised and some notes were taken related to noteworthy points in terms of the focus of the study. Third, the data were described by the researcher according to their value, potential of complementing the quantitative data and the insights they provided to lead an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Fourth, the statements were listed and were grouped into categories. Fifth, the percentages and frequencies of some different responses to interview questions were calculated, then depending on these percentages and frequencies, some conclusions were tried to be reached about the views, feelings and experiences of the interviewees related to the L2 writing and L2 writing classes. Finally, conclusions from the data were presented.

After these steps of analyzing the qualitative data, the results were related and compared to the findings from the scales. Especially, participants' thoughts, feelings and experiences related to writing in English and writing classes in their departments; writing activities, tasks and assignments they were given to carry out; their writing instructors' communication styles with them as autonomy supportive or controlling; their reasons to write and engage in writing tasks and assignments given to them; and their thoughts about how they could become better motivated for writing courses and more proficient in writing in English were focused on.

3.6. Conclusion

In this section, the contexts and participants of the study, the data collection instruments, the procedure of the research and the ways followed in the analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data collected in accordance with the purposes and focus of the study were described.

In *Data Analysis*, the analyses of the qualitative and quantitative data will be presented in detail. First, the analysis of the data collected through scales will be reported in the order planned according to the relevance they have with the main purpose and focus of the research. After the analysis of the results of the WMS, the analyses of the results of the other three scales will be given. The results obtained from these three scales and the findings related to the variables in the background information section analyzed statistically will be evaluated in terms of their relations to and the variances occurring due to them in the scores of the WMS and its three basic and six sub-dimensions. And, the results will be shown in tables and graphs. Once the quantitative analyses were given completely, the analyses, the outline of which was given above, of the qualitative data will be explained in detail. In the following chapter, finally, the results and findings from both the quantitative and qualitative data will be harmonized. The noteworthy and significant ones will be evaluated. The general inferences and evaluations will be reported.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, the methodology of the study was described. The participants, the procedure, the instruments of the research were introduced in detail, and some information was given about the analyses of the data collected throughout the research. As explained in the preceding chapter, the data of this study were collected through various types of instruments and data collection procedures. First, a questionnaire consisting of four different scales with a section of background information was given to participants; later, the documents verifying the information about the writing grades of the participants were attained from the two departments, ELL and ELT and, finally, some participants from both the ELL and ELT departments were interviewed to get their feelings and thoughts about writing in English in general and their writing classes.

In this section, the analyses of the data of this study will be presented. First, the analyses of the quantitative data, then those of the qualitative ones will be given. After the description of these two types of data, some relationships will be sought between them in terms of the contributions they will make to the process of answering the research questions of the study.

4.2. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

The quantitative data were collected through four different scales and some questions in the background information section in front of these scales which were given to the participants on the same sheet. By these scales and questions, it was intended to find out the participants' motivational profiles for writing and writing courses; their self-perceived writing competence; their perceptions of the autonomy support they are provided in writing courses; their basic psychological need satisfaction levels-autonomy, competence, and relatedness; their average writing grades; and, some variables among them such as genders, departments, grades, day-time or evening classes, and types of the high school they graduated from.

Data obtained from different scales were analyzed separately. Among the quantitative data, those obtained from the WMS (see Appendix A) were analyzed first since the major concern of this study, as it was stated in previous chapters, was to explore the motivational profiles of the pre-service EFL teachers in writing courses. Later, the data of the PWCS (see Appendix A), the PASS (see Appendix A), the BNSS (see Appendix A) were analyzed in turn. After the description of the data from all these instruments, their relations to the results of the WMS will be sought. In addition, the writing scores, and other variables of participants such as genders, grades, departments, being students in day-time or evening classes, and types of high school, which were learnt through the questions given in the background information section, were analyzed in terms of their associations to these results by the help of variance and correlation analyses conducted in SPSS 16.00.

4.2.1. Analysis of the data obtained through the WMS

The first and main research question of this research was "*What are the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in writing classes from the perspective of the motivation model proposed by SDT?"* This part of the data analysis aims to seek the answer for this question. First, the scores obtained from the WMS will be described, and then the variances expected to occur according to some variables and their correlations with the scores of other scales will be searched.

This scale was used to determine the motivational profiles of the participants from the perspective of SDT, which investigates motivation in the categories of amotivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation, and in the sub-types of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. An overall mean for the whole scale was not measured, because, in the SDT literature, these different types of motivation have not been considered to be additive but different degrees of a continuum (Calder & Staw, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1985a). Rather, means for each general dimension and their sub-dimensions were calculated. These means, and, if any, extreme means for individual items will be presented in this section below. The order of presentation of these means will be the same as the one which was followed in the design of the scale.

In Table 4.1, minimums and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations of the subscales of amotivation, extrinsic motivation, different regulatory types of it, and intrinsic motivation, its three different types, are illustrated.

Table 4.1. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, amotivation and their subscales

Subscales	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. D.
Amotivation	275	1.00	4.33	1.99	.58
Extrinsic Motivation	275	1.88	4.69	3.23	.51
External Regulation	275	1.00	4.50	2.74	.69
Introjected Regulation	275	1.80	5.00	3.35	.60
Identified Regulation	275	1.80	5.00	3.68	.56
Intrinsic Motivation	275	1.55	5.00	3.67	.72
Intrinsic Motivation–Knowledge	275	1.67	5.00	3.81	.76
Intrinsic Motivation–Accomplishment	275	1.75	5.00	3.85	.72
Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation	275	1.00	5.00	3.39	.88
Valid N	275				

As can be figured out from Table 4.1, the subscale amotivation has the lowest mean among all. This mean (1.99) of the scores given to the items (1, 8, 15, 22, 27 and 32) of the amotivation dimension shows that the levels of participants' amotivation towards writing and writing courses are not high. This may point to a relatively high motivation of the participants to write and engage in writing activities in writing classes. The independent-samples T test and One-Way ANOVA analyses showed that the participants' levels of amotivation did not vary much according to their genders, grades, departments, and high school types. By the use of these tests, the significance values for these variances were found to be insignificant ($p>0.05$). The only notable difference was observed between the amotivation levels of day-time and evening class students within the ELL Department (Figure 4.1).

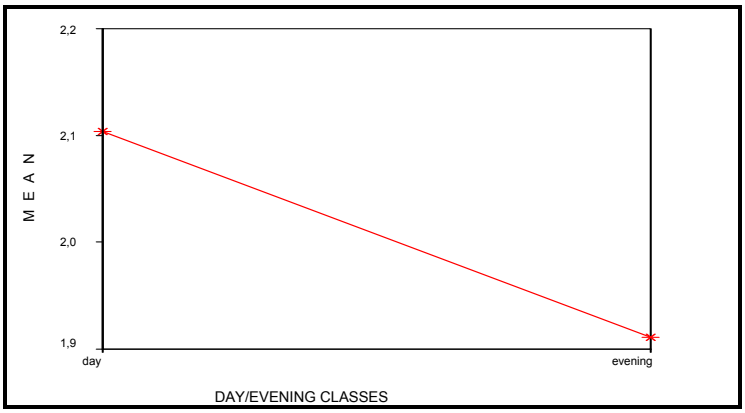


Figure 4.1. Variance in the amotivation levels of the participants according to day-time/evening classes
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 4.1 points to a higher level of amotivation among the day-time class students and, accordingly, a greater degree of motivation of evening class students. According to the findings, it can be concluded that the participants, in general, are motivated for writing courses and their levels of amotivation or motivation do not vary very much according to the subject variables.

Contrary to the mean obtained from the responses given to the items designed to measure the amotivation level of the participants, the means of the other dimensions may be accepted to be relatively high. In addition, as it can be seen from Table 4.1, the levels of extrinsic motivation (3.23) of the participants are lower than their intrinsic motivation (3.67) in general. The scores of the regulation types in extrinsic motivation differ from each other as well. Of the four different regulatory styles, external regulation is the one which was scored lowest (2.74). The means of the scores for these styles increases (introjected= 3.35; identified regulation= 3.68) as they get closer to the intrinsic motivation end of extrinsic/intrinsic motivation continuum.

The average score obtained from the responses of the participants to the items (2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 11, 16, 17, 18, 23, 24, 25, 28, 29, 30 and 33) which were formed to measure the global extrinsic motivation of them was 3.23. Relying on this mean, it can be assumed that participants' extrinsic motivation is moderately high. This may refer to the existence of the reasons the source of which is not inherent in the activities but external to them in writing motivation of the participants. No significant differences were found among the extrinsic

motivation scores of the participants according to their gender, day-time/evening classes, high schools they had graduated from as well. On the other hand, in T-test for Equality of Means analysis, the variance between the mean scores of preparatory and first year and ELL and ELT students were found to be significant.

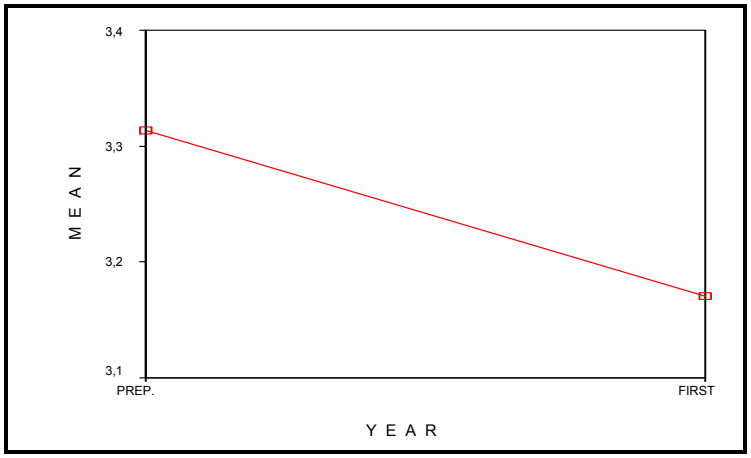


Figure 4.2. Variance in the extrinsic motivation levels of the participants according to their grades
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

It can be deduced from Figure 4.2 that preparatory year students are more extrinsically motivated in writing courses than first year students. Namely, they carry out writing activities such as writing tasks and assignments for the reasons which are separate from these activities more than first year students.

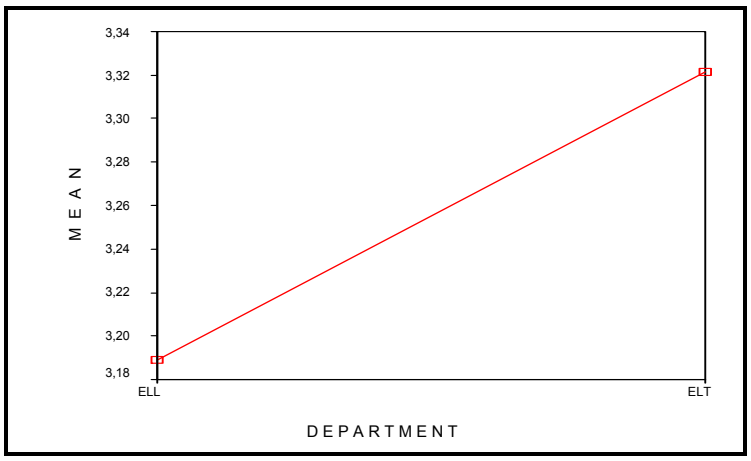


Figure 4.3. Variance in the extrinsic motivation levels of the participants according to their departments
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

General extrinsic motivation levels also vary according to the departments of the students. The participants who are the students of the ELT Department have higher degrees of extrinsic motivation for writing courses. However, this does not mean that the intrinsic motivation of them are lower than that of ELL students since, as stated above, these two types of motivation are not contradictory to each other and they may exist in the same individual at the same time.

Among the types of motivation, the mean of only external regulation, which was measured by the items numbered 2, 9, 16, 23, 28 and 33, is close to that of amotivation. The other means are significantly higher than it. As can be remembered from the previous chapter, external regulation leads people to do activities because of external forces such as attaining a reward or avoiding a punishment. Therefore, when these reasons do not exist, the activities are not performed. By this nature, external regulation is the type of motivation which is closest to amotivation.

The mean (2.74) for this dimension is the second lowest one among the 10. According to this data, it is possible to say that the participants' reasons to write or to carry out writing tasks are not much external. Namely, they do not write for the reasons that they want to show others how good they are at writing in English, not to get in trouble, they are supposed to do it by their parents, teacher, friends, etc., it is the rule, they want the teacher to say nice things about them, and they might get a reward (e.g., high grades) if they do well. The other reasons expressed in the items of the other subscales are scored higher than these ones and they may be regarded as more effective reasons in students' motivation in writing. As in amotivation scale, the scores of external regulation do not vary according to the genders, departments, day-time and evening classes, and types of high school the participants graduated from. However, there are differences among their scores according to whether they are preparatory or first year students. The result of T-test for Equality of Means showed that the preparatory and first year students' scores from this subscale differ from each other at the significance level of 0.01 with the means, respectively, 2.89 and 2.65.

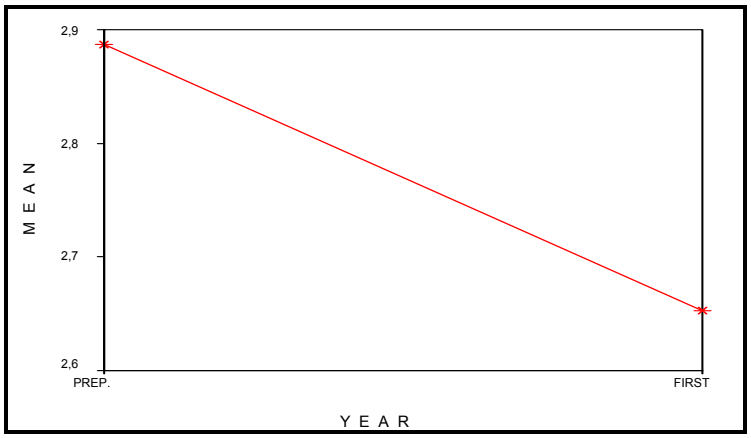


Figure 4.4. Variance in the external regulation levels of the participants according their grades

*Variance is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The only significant variance among the external regulation scores of the participants was detected between preparatory and first year students. As illustrated in Figure 4.4, this subtype of motivation is higher among the preparatory year students than first year students. This shows that their reasons and efforts to do writing activities depending on their wishes to show others how good they are at writing in English, to avoid the trouble they will get in if they do not do them, to meet the suppositions of their parents, teacher, friends, etc., make their teacher say nice things about them, and to get a reward if they do well (high grades) are more effective than those of first year students.

The second regulatory type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. To measure introjected regulations of the participants for writing courses, five items (3, 10, 17, 24 and 29) were included in the WMS. In these items, the reasons such as the belief in the necessity of writing for successful language learning, the expectation that their teacher will think they are good students, impressing their classmates, the feeling of proud of themselves when they are successful in writing, the avoidance of feeling bad if they do not try, and the satisfaction when they do well in writing classes were included. The participants were asked to express their degree of agreement with these reasons to perform writing activities. The mean of the scores of these items was found to be 3.35. From this mean, it can be concluded that introjected regulation is more effective in participants' engagement in writing than external regulation. No significant variance was found among

the scores of the participants according to their genders, grades, their being enrolled in day-time or evening classes, and the types of high school they graduated from. The only significant difference ($p < 0.05$) was measured between the participants from the ELL and ELT departments.

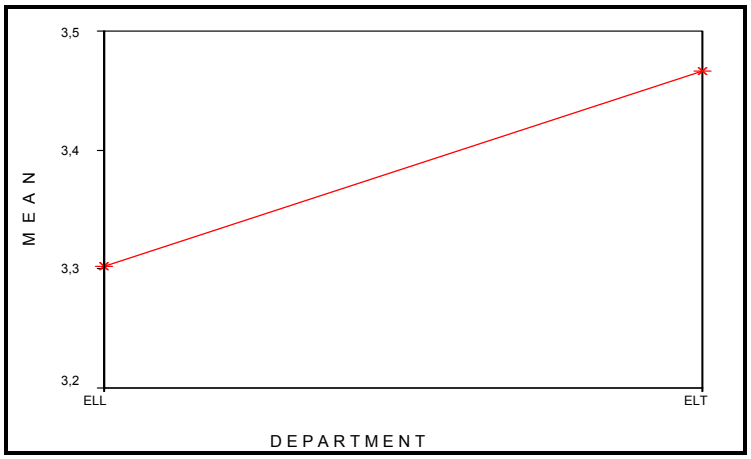


Figure 4.5. Variance in the introjected regulation levels of the participants according to their departments
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The introjected regulation of the students showed variance in favour of the ELT Department students as well. ELT Department students' introjected regulation scores revealed that those students wanted to write in English or to do writing tasks given to them by their teachers since they thought it was necessary to do writing activities if one wanted to be successful in language learning; they wanted their teacher to think they were good students, they wanted to impress the other students in the class, they would feel bad about themselves if they did not try and do well in writing classes, and they would feel proud of themselves if they could do well to a greater extent than ELL students.

The mean of the third regulatory type, identified regulation, was found to be 3.68. Among the extrinsic motivation types, this dimension is the one which was scored highest. Namely, the reasons such as seeing it as a good way to gain lots of skills which could be useful in other areas of language learning, to get better at writing, to maintain good relationships with classmates and to determine the level of their proficiency in writing were evaluated by the participants as the mostly adopted ones of extrinsic motivations. This can be accepted to be common for the majority of the sample of the study, The independent-

samples T test and One-Way ANOVA analyses revealed no significant difference among the responses of the participants in terms of their genders, grades, departments, their being enrolled in day-time or evening classes, and types of high school they graduated from.

The second main type of motivation according to the taxonomy of SDT is intrinsic motivation. The items designed to measure the intrinsic motivation of the participants to write or to carry out writing activities were those numbered 5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 14, 19, 20, 21, 26, and 31. Means were found for both the intrinsic motivation in general and its sub-types: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish, and intrinsic motivation for stimulation. First, the mean of the general intrinsic motivation will be given and analyzed in terms of variances in it according to some variables and then the means and other findings related to each sub-dimension will be described individually.

The mean of intrinsic motivation was calculated to be 3.67. This figure shows that the intrinsic motivation levels of the participants are higher than their extrinsic motivation levels (M: 3.23). This result may be associated with that the reasons inherent in the writing activities are considered by the participants to be more important than those which are external to them. It is possible to generalize this inference to all participants irrespective of the subject variables such as participants' genders, grades, day-time or evening classes, departments, and types of high school.

The first sub-scale of intrinsic motivation is intrinsic motivation for knowledge which was measured by the 5^{th}, 12^{th} and 19^{th} items of the WMS. Intrinsic motivation for knowledge is related to the feeling of satisfaction, pleasure or excitement in learning or exploring new things. The mean of the scores given to these items was measured to be 3.81, which can be interpreted to be very high. Accordingly, it can be argued that the desire to learn plays a great role in students' motivation to write or to carry out writing tasks and assignments. The data obtained for this sub-scale do not vary for different participants much depending on the variables which were expected, at the beginning of the study, to affect the scores given to the items by the participants. The means measured for the female and male, preparatory and first year and day-time and evening class students were found to be very close to each other. There was no significant variance among the means according to high school types as well. The only significant variance ($p< 0.05$) among the participant

scores were evidenced according to the departments they were attending for which the following two means were reached: the ELL Department: 3.75 and the ELT Department: 3.98.

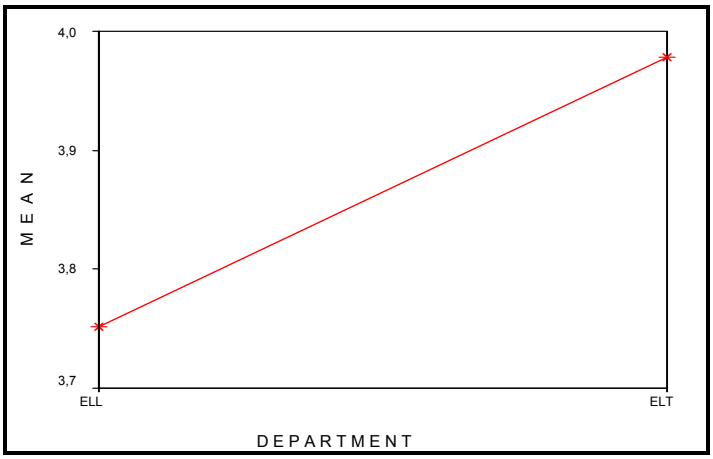


Figure 4.6. Variance in the intrinsic motivation for knowledge levels of the participants according to their departments
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As it is clear in Figure 4.6, ELT students' intrinsic motivation is higher than that of ELL students in general as well as their extrinsic motivation. Both groups' intrinsic motivation is at a greater level than their extrinsic motivation but there is a significant difference in their intrinsic motivations. The probable reasons or antecedents of these results will be explained in further sections.

As the second category of intrinsic motivation, the motivation of the participants for accomplishment was investigated. To measure the dimension of accomplishment, four statements (6, 13, 20 and 26) were introduced to the participants, for which they would mark their degree of agreement. Among all, this sub-scale was scored highest by the participants; and, the mean of it was found to be 3.85. This means that the participants find the reasons, the contribution of carrying out hard writing tasks to the improvement of the performance in writing, the pleasure felt in perfecting the abilities in L2 writing, the good feeling when performing in writing better than expected, and the personal satisfaction for mastering difficult writing activities, more valuable than others. The independent-samples T test and One-Way ANOVA analyses did not display significant variances among the

scores for this sub-scale, according to most of the subject variables. However, a highly significant variance was found between the participants from the ELL and ELT departments. The mean of the scores of the participants who were the students at the ELL Department was 3.77 whereas the one measured for the ones from the ELT Department was 4.08. The variance between these two means was significant at the level of 0.01.

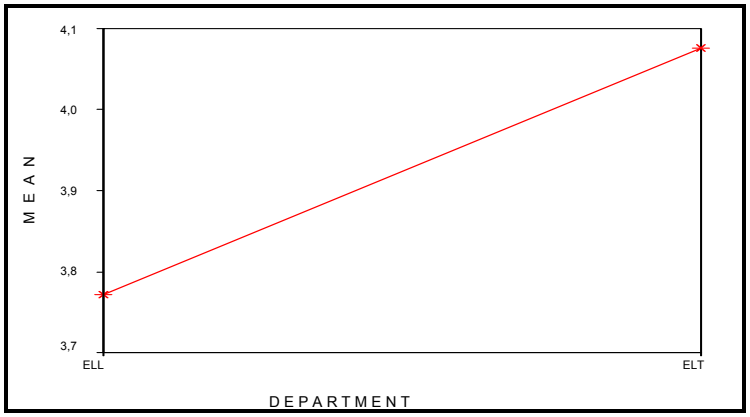


Figure 4.7. Variance in the intrinsic motivation for accomplishment levels of the participants according to their departments
*Variance is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Among the three types of intrinsic motivation, the only one that differs according to the departments of the participants is their intrinsic motivation for accomplishment. The reasons for carrying out writing tasks since the participants think that carrying out hard writing tasks will improve their performance, they have a pleasure while they are perfecting their abilities in L2 writing, they feel good when they do better than they thought in writing English, they feel a lot of personal satisfaction when they master difficult writing activities are more adopted among the ELT Department students than those who participated in the research from the ELL Department.

The last sub-scale of intrinsic motivation and writing motivation questionnaire is the intrinsic motivation for stimulation. This dimension of intrinsic motivation refers to the feelings of happiness, joy, excitement, interest, fun, etc. during any writing activity. It consisted of four items (7, 14, 21 and 35). The mean (3.39) measured for these items showed that this sub-scale was the lowest scored one among the sub-types of intrinsic motivation. As in most of the subscales analyzed above, no significant variances were

detected among the scores of the participants according to the variables the relations or effects of which were planned to be investigated at the beginning of this research such as genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, and high school types.

Comparing the means of the three dimensions of intrinsic motivation, it can be drawn as a conclusion that the intrinsic motivation of the participants to write or to engage in writing activities in the classroom is primarily based on their desire to accomplish and know, and lastly, on stimulation. When compared to the other self-determined types of motivation, the participants' scores for stimulation are low; and this may be interpreted in a way that students' feelings of happiness, joy, excitement, interest, or fun during writing activities are not very high. Namely, as can be understood from the findings given above, students' motivations to write are related to other reasons rather than the stimulative ones.

The analyses of the highest and lowest scored items in the whole scale revealed similar results as well. The highest means belonged to the subscales introjected regulation (item 3), identified regulation (items 4, and 11), and intrinsic motivation for accomplishment (items 6 and 26); and, the lowest scores belonged to the items included in the subscale of amotivation (items 8, 22, 27, and 32). The only exception among the lowest scores was the item numbered 17. It was an item of a subscale, introjected regulation, which was, as a whole, scored high. These scores parallel the means which were found for the subscales of the WMS. They do not significantly differ according to the variables the effects of which was planned to be observed, in advance, by the researcher. These highest and lowest scores are presented in the following table.

Table 4.2. The highest and lowest scored items of the WMS

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. D.
Item 3	275	1.00	5.00	4.45	.74
Item 4	275	2.00	5.00	4.47	.71
Item 6	275	1.00	5.00	3.95	.90
Item 8	275	1.00	5.00	1.88	.84
Item 11	275	1.00	5.00	4.31	.78
Item 17	275	1.00	5.00	1.98	.94
Item 22	275	1.00	5.00	1.56	.82
Item 26	275	1.00	5.00	4.12	.90
Item 27	275	1.00	5.00	1.75	.81
Item 32	275	1.00	5.00	1.69	.85
Valid N	275				

It should also be added that amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation, and their sub-categories comprise the parts of a continuum. They cannot be added to each other to reach an overall motivation of the participants. In addition, they are not contradictory to each other; they may exist in a person simultaneously. They are intercorrelated to each other as well. Accordingly, the results obtained for different dimensions in this research are also correlated with each other. The correlations among amotivation, extrinsic motivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, intrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation for knowledge, intrinsic motivation for accomplishment, and intrinsic motivation for stimulation subscales are illustrated in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3. Subscale means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among these subscale means

Subscales	**Subscales**										
	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Amotivation	1.99	.58	1								
2. Extrinsic Motivation	3.23	.51	-.13*	1							
3. External Regulation	2.74	.69	.23**	.82**	1						
4. Introjected Regulation	3.35	.60	-.23**	.91**	.61**	1					
5. Identified Regulation	3.68	.56	-.46**	.73**	.26**	.68**	1				
6. Intrinsic Motivation	3.67	.72	-.65**	.38**	-.05	.45**	.68**	1			
7. IM–Knowledge	3.81	.76	-.56**	.34**	-.03	.39**	.61**	.89**	1		
8. IM–Accomplishment	3.85	.72	-.55**	.41**	.01	.47**	.67**	.90**	.73**	1	
9. IM–Stimulation	3.39	.88	-.64**	.29**	-.09	.37**	.59**	.93**	.75**	.72**	1

Note: IM: Intrinsic Motivation; N=275
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As seen in Table 4.3, the subscale amotivation has significant negative correlations with the other subscales except for external regulation. Amotivation and external regulation subscales are significantly and positively correlated to each other ($p < 0.01$). The other subscales have positive and very significant correlations among themselves. These intercorrelations support the fact, cited above, that different motivation types may exist at the same time. These results are in line with those of previous research (e.g., Noels et al., 2000).

The findings obtained through the WMS will also be analyzed in terms of their relations to the results obtained by the analyses of the other scales, the PWCS, the PASS, and the BNSS and the writing grades of the participants in the further sections of this chapter. First, the data obtained from these instruments will be described and then the

relations of them to the motivational types discussed above and to each other will be introduced.

4.2.2. Analysis of the data obtained through the PWCS

In this section, the data collected through the PWCS will be analyzed. This scale was included in the data collection procedure since a close relation was expected between the participants' perceptions of their competence in writing and their motivational types for writing and writing courses. To measure the self-perceived competence of the participants, they were asked to express the degree of their agreement with 10 statements included in the scale. The scale was not divided into different dimensions and it was analyzed as a whole. As an initial step to analyze the data of this scale, an overall mean was calculated. The mean found was 2.94. Later, it was investigated if this mean varied according to the subject variables, genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, and high school types.

The independent-samples T test and One-Way ANOVA analyses revealed that the scores of the participants for this scale did not vary according to their genders, grades, day-time/evening classes, and types of schools they graduated from. However, the means found separately for the ELL (2.88) and ELT (3.08) departments were significantly different from each other ($p < 0.05$).

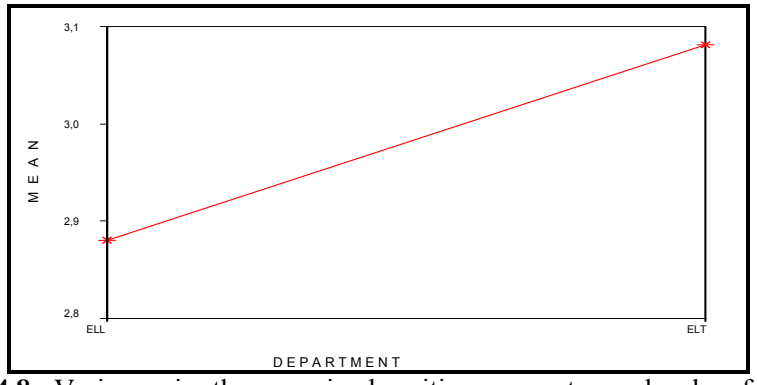


Figure 4.8. Variance in the perceived writing competence levels of the participants according to their departments
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As can be understood from Figure 4.8, ELT students' perceptions of their writing competence are more positive than those of ELL students. This may be related to various factors such as writing teachers' communication styles with the students or the satisfaction

levels of basic psychological needs, etc. These relations, if any, will be explained within the correlation analyses among the data obtained from different instruments below under the heading of *Intercorrelations among the results of the WMS, the PASS, the BNSS, the PWCS and Writing course grades of the participants*.

Among the 10 items, the 5th and 8th were the ones with which the participants agreed least. These items included the statements "I think I am very good at writing" and "I am very satisfied with my performance at writing". The means of the scores were 2.56 and 2.51 in turn. From this result, it can be concluded that the participants do not find themselves very good at writing and are not satisfied with their performances at writing. Such views of the participants do not vary depending on the variables mentioned above.

On the other hand, the 2nd and 7th items of the scale were scored highest by the respondents with the means of 3.15 and 3.37. When compared to the others, the participants agreed with the statements in the items "I am capable of meeting the requirements of the writing classes" and "After working at writing for a while, I feel very competent" to a relatively higher extent than other statements. This means that they generally find writing activities or writing courses optimally challenging and manageable. The participants also believe that engaging in writing for a while increases their feeling of competence in writing. The complete list of the statements in the scale will be given in the Appendices; and, the descriptive statistics of the whole scale are given in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the PWCS.

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. D.
Item 1	275	1.00	5.00	2.94	.93
Item 2	275	1.00	5.00	3.15	.84
Item 3	275	1.00	5.00	2.97	.91
Item 4	275	1.00	5.00	3.01	.89
Item 5	275	1.00	5.00	2.56	.96
Item 6	275	1.00	5.00	2.68	.93
Item 7	275	1.00	5.00	3.37	.96
Item 8	275	1.00	5.00	2.51	.95
Item 9	275	1.00	5.00	3.05	1.08
Item 10	275	1.00	5.00	3.13	1.21
Mean	275	1.10	5.00	2.94	.69
Valid N	275				

As can be seen in Table 4.4, the means of the other items in the scale are not very different from each other. In addition, the variance analyses showed no significant

difference in these means according to the variables of genders, grades, the ELL and ELT departments, day-time/evening classes, and types of high schools, too.

In brief, it can be stated that the participants' perceptions of their competence in writing are neither very high nor very low. They find themselves moderately competent in writing and in writing courses in their departments.

4.2.3. Analysis of the data obtained through the PASS

In this section, the results reached by the analysis of the data gathered through The PASS will be explained. The descriptive statistics such as minimum and maximum scores, means, standard deviations and variances in them in terms of some of the subject variables will be given.

By this scale, it was aimed to find out the participants' perceptions of their writing teachers as autonomy supportive or autonomy suppressive. It was intended to explore whether they had the right to decide on or choose the objectives, activities, materials, methods and topics; the opportunity to ask questions and express their thoughts freely; the flexibility about the deadlines of the writing assignments; and, the chance to plan, be responsible for and evaluate their own learning during the writing instruction process held in the classroom. For this purpose, 14 statements, in the form of 5-point Likert scale in which 5 refers to a complete agreement and 1 to the lowest level of agreement, were introduced to the participants and they were asked to indicate the degree of their agreement with them by marking the number most corresponding to their views.

From the scores provided by the participants, a general mean was drawn for the scale. Later, the results related to different aspects were analyzed. The means for the scale in general and for each item in it are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the PASS.

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. D.
Item 1	275	1.00	5.00	3.48	1.03
Item 2	275	1.00	5.00	3.05	1.04
Item 3	275	1.00	5.00	2.94	1.10
Item 4	275	1.00	5.00	3.48	1.02
Item 5	275	1.00	5.00	4.28	0.89
Item 6	275	1.00	5.00	3.28	1.05
Item 7	275	1.00	5.00	3.53	1.06
Item 8	275	1.00	5.00	3.66	1.08
Item 9	275	1.00	5.00	3.71	1.00
Item 10	275	1.00	5.00	3.55	1.01
Item 11	275	1.00	5.00	4.13	0.88
Item 12	275	1.00	5.00	3.61	1.02
Item 13	275	1.00	5.00	3.77	0.96
Item 14	275	1.00	5.00	3.03	1.17
Mean	275	1.29	4.93	3.54	0.58
Valid N	275				

The mean of the scores of the PASS is 3.54. When considered that the highest possible score is 5, this mean can be accepted as a high value. Therefore, it is possible to define participants' perceptions of their teacher autonomy support positive. Their responses showed that they do not feel under too much control or pressure; and, to some extent, their thoughts and wishes about the content, method, evaluation in the writing instruction process are taken into consideration by their writing teachers. This may imply the existence of an autonomy-supportive teaching style.

The responses to this scale were analyzed to find out whether they vary according to the subject variables, genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, or types of high school. The variance analyses, which were made through the independent-samples T test and One-Way ANOVA, did not reveal significant differences among the responses of the female and male, day-time and evening class, ELL and ELT students, and the students who had graduated from different types of high schools.

However, as can be seen in Figure 4.9, there was a variance between the mean scores of preparatory and first year students which was significant at the 0.01 level. From the mean score (3.68) found for the preparatory year students, it can be indicated that they feel more autonomous in writing courses than first year students whose mean score is 3.44.

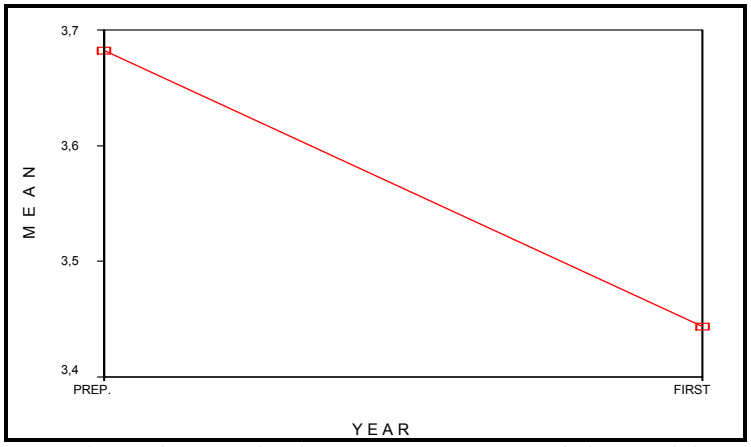


Figure 4.9. Variance in perceived autonomy support of the participants according their grades
*Variance is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

This implication may be associated with various factors such as the teacher of the groups, the content of the course, the number of the students taking the course, etc. These factors will be be investigated in the section of *Analysis of the Qualitative Data*.

In the scale, the 2nd, 3rd and 14th items were given the lowest scores. They were related to deciding on the writing activities which would be carried out in the classroom, choosing the materials to be used in the writing course (e.g. the course book), and the pressure felt about the accuracy of the tasks. Their scores were 3.05, 2.94, and 3.03 respectively. On the other hand, the highest levels of agreement of the participants were with the 5th, 9th, 11th and 13th items which were scored 4.28, 3.71, 4.13, and 3.77. These items covered the statements related to the opportunity to tell the opinions, ideas, and suggestions in the classroom, the flexibility and tolerance about the deadlines of the assignments, asking questions to the teacher freely, and being responsible for one's own learning. As can be understood from the Table 4.5, the scores, ranging from 3.28 to 3.66, of the other items were similar to each other.

When the scores of each item of the scale were analyzed, it was noticed that although there were no significant differences between the general scores of ELL and ELT students for the whole scale, their agreement levels to some statements in the scale were significantly different (Table 4.6). The participants from the ELT Department scored, especially, the 1st, 2nd, 8th, 9th and 13th items notably higher than ELL students did. On the

contrary, the 7th item was given higher scores by ELL students. According to T-test for Equality of Means analyses, the variances in these means were significant at 0.01 (for the 7th, 8th and 13th items) and 0.05 levels (for the 1st, 2nd, and 9th items). Depending on these findings it can be claimed that the participants from the ELT Department feel that they are allowed to be involved in deciding on the objectives of the writing course they are given and choosing the activities to be carried out in writing classes; that they are encouraged to work in their own ways and made responsible for their learning; and that they have flexibility about the deadlines of the assignments. The responses of ELL students on these issues are not so positive as those of the participants from the ELT Department whereas their views about that their ideas are taken into account in choosing the topics they will write on are more positive.

Table 4.6. The highest and lowest scored items of the PASS.

Items	Department	N	Mean	S.D.
Item1	ELL	200	3.41	1.04
	ELT	75	3.68	.95
Item2	ELL	200	2.97	1.03
	ELT	75	3.27	1.04
Item7	ELL	200	3.70	.96
	ELT	75	3.08	1.17
Item8	ELL	200	3.54	1.08
	ELT	75	4.00	1.00
Item9	ELL	200	3.62	.99
	ELT	75	3.95	1.00
Item13	ELL	200	3.64	.96
	ELT	75	4.12	.87

Consequently, it can be thought that the students who participated in this research feel autonomous rather than controlled in writing classes basically in their interactions with their writing teacher. They are not exposed to pressure by their teachers and have freedom to convey their thoughts, feelings and suggestions to their teachers and classmates. However, they do not feel so much autonomous in other aspects of writing process such as deciding on the materials and activities in the writing instruction process. These results vary according to some differences among the participants. Nevertheless, it would not be right to generalize them to all ELT and ELL settings since there may be numerous factors influencing the emergence of such results such as different teaching styles, teaching materials, the population of the classroom, different experiences the students had had, etc.

4.2.4. Analysis of the data obtained through the BNSS

The last of the scales the results of which will be analyzed in this section is the BNSS. As emphasized in the chapter *Review of Literature*, one of the main concerns of SDT is the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, of people. They are regarded to be essential for a healthy psychological development and well being in life. They also influence the success in every sphere of life. Accordingly, they have great importance in motivation development in students as well. For this reason, this scale was utilized and it was tried to explore to what extent the participants felt that their basic psychological needs were satisfied. It was assumed that there might be close associations between the levels of satisfaction of these needs and the participants' motivational profiles for writing and writing classes. The satisfaction of these needs was also supposed to have effects on students' perceived writing competence and their success in writing. On the other hand, their satisfaction may be influenced by these factors and the perceptions of their learning climate, etc.

The BNSS was composed of three subscales designed to measure the satisfaction levels of the needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness individually. The subscale *autonomy* consisted of the items 1, 4, 8, 11, 14, 17 and 20; the subscale *competence* consisted of the items 3, 5, 10, 13. 15 and 19; and, the subscale *relatedness* included the items 2, 6, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18 and 21. Among the items, there were some negative statements and they were reversely scored. In the analysis of the data gathered via this instrument, the first step was to find the means, primarily, for the whole scale, and for each of the three subscales respectively. Later, other analyses were administered.

The overall mean of the scale was found to be 3.63; and the possible highest score was 5.00. Therefore, it would not be wrong to define it as an expression of a high level of satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs. The means of the scores given to items in the three subscales of the BNSS, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, were 3.58, 3.37, and 3.88 in turn. These means may also be interpreted to be relatively high. All these means are shown in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the BNSS and its subscales.

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. D.
Autonomy	275	2.00	4.86	3.58	0.49
Competence	275	1.67	4.83	3.37	0.55
Relatedness	275	1.88	4.88	3.88	0.53
Mean	275	2.57	4.86	3.63	0.40
Valid N	275				

The results drawn from this scale and its sub-dimensions were investigated in terms of whether they vary across the participants according to variables of gender, grade, department, day-time/evening classes, and type of high school graduated from. Such analyses were made first for the general mean of the whole scale. According to the analyses through the independent-samples T test and One-Way ANOVA, no significant variance could be found between the mean scores of preparatory and first year, ELL and ELT, and day-time/evening class students. They did not vary according to the types of high school they graduated from either. The variance in the mean of the scale were related to the variable of gender ($p < 0.01$).

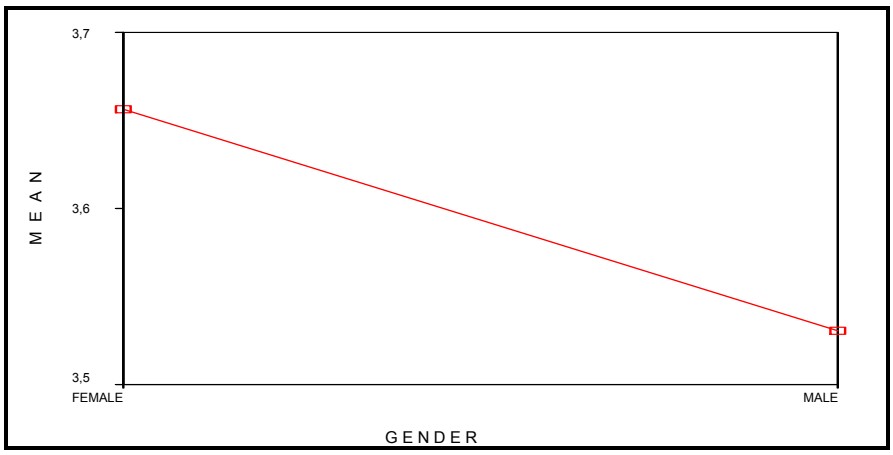


Figure 4.10. Variance in the scores of the BNSS according to gender
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 4.10 refers to a higher degree of perception of the satisfaction of basic psychological needs in favour of the female participants. This may imply the fact that they feel that satisfaction of these needs is supported by the people in their surroundings and the other conditions of life. However, it may not be generalized to all subscales of the scale. To

be certain about it, the same variance analyses were conducted to the scores of the subscales, too.

The mean of the items (1, 4, 8, 11, 14, 17 and 20) in the autonomy subscale was calculated as 3.58 (Table 4.7). The mean of this scale had variance, as presented in Figure 4.11 below, according the gender variable ($p < 0.05$). However, there were no significant differences due to other subject variables.

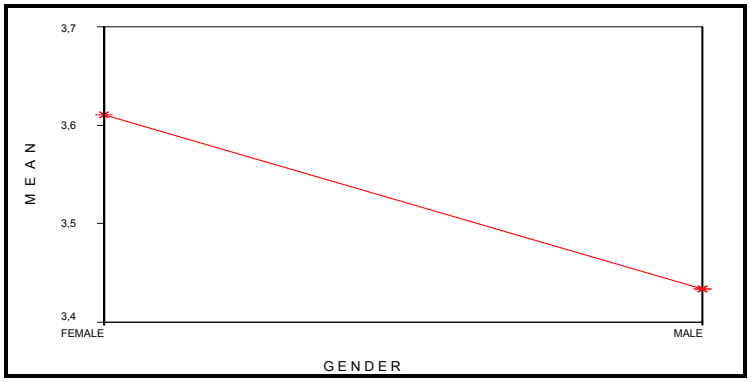


Figure 4.11. Variance in the scores of autonomy subscale according to gender
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As seen in Figure 4.11, the average score of the female participants for the autonomy subscale is notably higher than that of the males. According to this finding, it can be argued that female students feel more autonomous in life than male ones.

The second basic psychological need of people is competence. To be successful and happy in life, people need to have the belief that they are competent enough to overcome the challenges of life. The items, in the BNSS, designed to figure out the views of the participants about the degree of satisfaction of their need for the feeling of competence were the 3rd, 5th, 10th, 13th, 15th and 19th ones. The mean (3.37) of this subscale is the lowest one among the three. The only significant variances in the scores were observed according to the departments (Figure 4.12) of the participants ($p < 0.05$). No significant differentiation was seen among the scores of the participants according to their genders, grades, being enrolled in day-time/evening classes, and high school types.

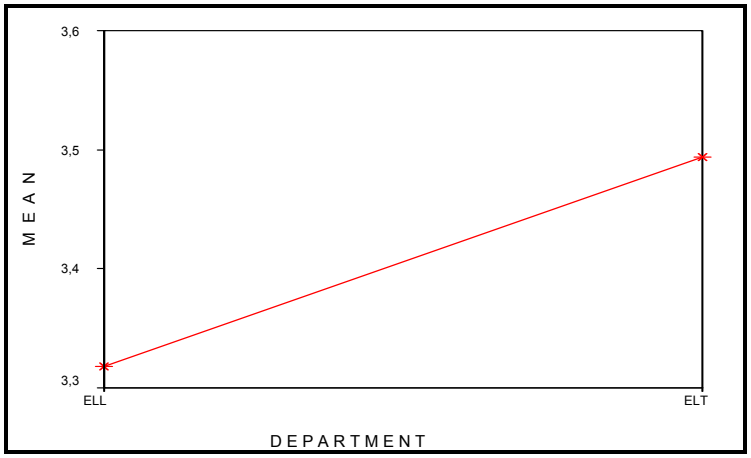


Figure 4.12. Variance in the scores of competence subscale according to departments
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 4.12 displays a higher mean of the ELT students than ELL students. According to this result, it can be stated they feel more competent in life. This may be related to the fact that they entered university with higher points than the ELL students. However, this is only one of the numerous possibilities; therefore, it would not be appropriate to attribute the variance between their levels of feeling of competence merely to this factor.

The third and last of the subscale of the BNSS was relatedness. Relatedness refers to the relations of individuals to the people in their surroundings. When individuals have positive and effective relationships with their environments and these relationships contribute their happiness, well being, and success in life, they can feel that their need for relatedness is satisfied. To explore the views of the subjects on the satisfaction levels of this need, eight items (2, 6, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18 and 21) with which they would mark their degree of agreement were given to them. The agreement level of the participants with the statements in these eight items was highly positive. The mean measured for their scores was found to be 3.88, the highest mean among those reached for the three subscales of the BNSS.

The satisfaction level of the need for relatedness of the participants is significantly higher than those of the other two. Subjects' responses show that they like the people they interact and get along with them; have a lot of social contacts; find people around friendly and caring towards them; think that the people around like them; etc. These results were also analyzed to determine if they vary according to some variables as well. Whereas there

was no significant differentiation in the scores of the participants in this subscale according to whether they are ELL or ELT, preparatory or first year and, day-time/evening class students; or, according to which types of high school they graduated from, their scores varied significantly according to gender variable (Figure 4.13).

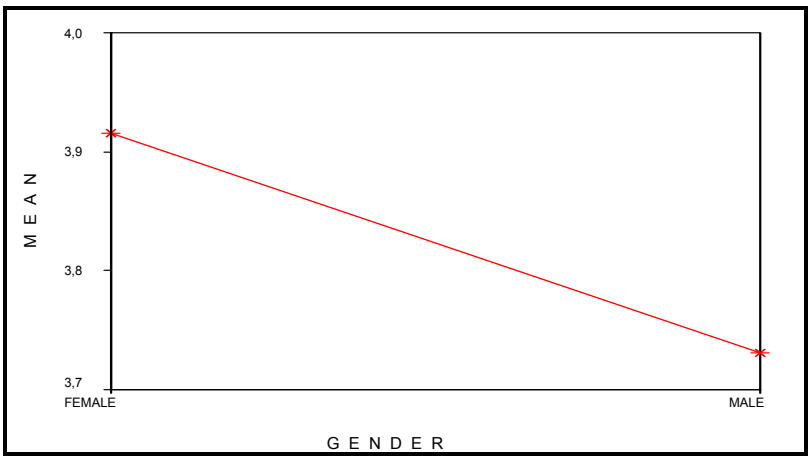


Figure 4.13. Variance in the scores of relatedness subscale according to gender
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The mean calculated for the scores of the female participants is greater than that of the male ones. This indicates that their conceptions of their relationships with the people they have contact in their daily life are more positive than those of the male participants of the research. This result is similar to those found for some other scales described above. For instance, the variances in the scores of the BNSS and the autonomy subscale of it are both in favour of female participants.

4.2.5. Writing course grades of the participants

The writing grades used in this research were participants' average writing grades at the end of the first semester of the 2007-2008 Academic Year. As can be remembered from the earlier sections, the sample of this research consisted of the students from six different groups (ELT preparatory; ELT first year; ELL day-time preparatory, ELL day-time first year; ELL evening preparatory; and ELL evening first year students). There were four different instructors who taught writing to these groups. Therefore, it is naturally expected that the grades of the participants from the writing course examinations would be different, at least, due to factors related to these different writing instructors. Other several factors

such as the university entrance scores of the participants, the group with which the writing course was taken together, the course book which was followed, the content of the writing course, the hours a week allotted for the writing course, etc. would also inevitably influence the grades of the students. Since this is not an experimental research it was not possible to control such factors (in fact, it is mostly impossible to control many of the variables). Therefore, an overall mean for the sample, and individual means for the two different departments, for day-time and evening groups, for the first and preparatory classes, and for each of the six groups were found in order to be able to describe the writing grades of the participants more fully. These means are given below in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. Minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the writing grades of different groups

GROUP	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. D.
Whole Group	275	33	91	65	9,51
ELL Department	200	39	83	62	7,06
ELL Department Day-time	108	43	80	61	7,01
ELL Department Day-time Prep.	39	50	80	64	8,67
ELL Department Day-time First	69	43	74	60	5,55
ELL Department Evening	92	39	83	62	7,16
ELL Department Evening Prep.	32	53	83	66	7,69
ELL Department Evening First	60	39	72	60	6,00
ELT Department	75	33	91	72	10,67
ELT Department Prep.	35	33	89	68	12,59
ELT Department First	40	62	91	76	7,01

As seen in Table 4.8, most possible means of participants' writing grades were calculated. It should be noted, again that, the instructors of these groups were different, and therefore, it was not possible to make direct implications. Furthermore, analyzing each mean individually would not be easy and practical. So, the analyses related to the grades were carried out generally according to the overall mean of the whole group. However, if to make some general comparison of the means given in the table, it can be told that the mean score of the ELT students are significantly higher than that of the ELL students. This may be related to, besides many other factors, that ELT Department students' university entrance scores are higher than those of the ELL Department students. Also, within the two departments, the scores of the preparatory students are higher than first year students' scores.

As mentioned above, the variance analyses were made on the overall mean. It was investigated if writing grades vary according to the variables of genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes, and types of high school of the participants. In these analyses, the ANOVA and independent-samples T test were used. As a result, no significant variance could be detected among the writing grades of the participants according to their genders, grades, day-time/evening classes within the ELL Department, and high school types. On the contrary, significant variance were found between the scores of ELL and ELT students (Figure 4.14).

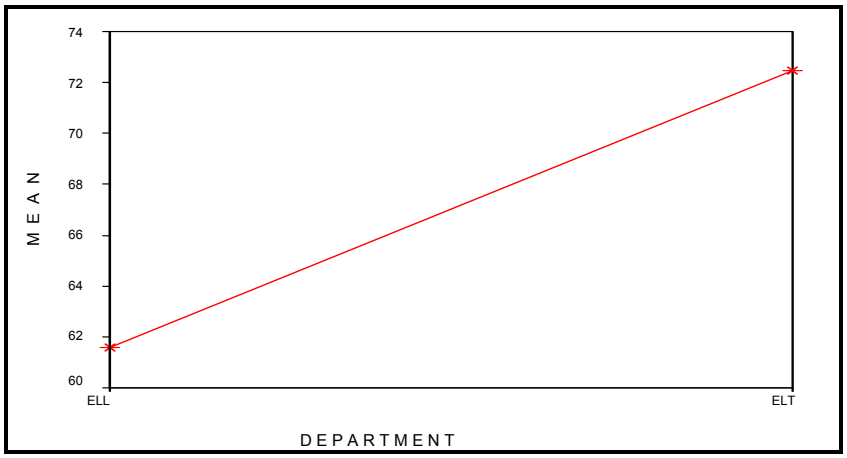


Figure 4.14. Variance in the writing grades of the participants according to their departments
*Variance is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As the scores of the several subscales of the scales, the writing grades of the respondents from the ELT Department were found to be higher than those from the ELL Department. This, of course, does not guarantee that ELT students are more successful than ELL students because the conditions and the writing teachers of these students were different from each other. Therefore, this variance will, probably, be more meaningful in the correlation analysis between the writing grades and different motivational patterns of the students.

4.2.6. Intercorrelations among the results of the WMS, PWCS, PASS, BNSS, and writing course grades of the participants

Under the previous five headings, the data obtained through different quantitative data collection instruments were described. Namely, the information provided in these sections served as, basically, the introduction of the data. Now, in this section, the data obtained and described in the previous sections will be analyzed in terms of the relations, correlations or associations they have with each other. It will be discussed which results might be the antecedents or consequences of the others in the following lines. First, a table (Table 4.9) will be presented which displays the intercorrelations among the results attained from different scales.

The intercorrelations among the results of the subscales of WMS were reported before. Here, the intercorrelations between these results and the results of the PWCS, PASS and BNSS, and writing grades of the students will be explained. In addition, their correlations with each other will be given as well. These correlations are illustrated in Table 4.9. The order of their illustration in the table is consistent with the one followed in the sections in which the data obtained from different instruments of this research were described above. And they will be reported in the same order, too. First, the correlation of the amotivation subscale to the results of the PWCS, the PASS, the BNSS, and its subscales autonomy, competence and relatedness and, finally, to the writing grades of the participants will be conveyed.

As can be remembered from the previous analyses, amotivation had negative correlations with the other subscales of the WMS. According to the correlation analyses, it was found out that it had also significantly negative intercorrelations with the results of the PWCS, PASS, BNSS (and its subscales autonomy, competence and relatedness) and, finally, with the writing grades of the participants. Namely, as the amotivation levels of the students get higher, their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, the satisfaction degrees of their basic psychological needs in general and individually, and their grades from writing course examinations decrease.

Table 4.9. Intercorrelations among all of the scales-and their subscales- used in the collection of the quantitative data

Scales and Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Amotivation	1															
2. Extrinsic Regulation	-,13*	1														
3. External Regulation	,23**	,82**	1													
4. Introjected Regulation	-,23**	,91**	,61**	1												
5. Identified Regulation	-,46**	,73**	,26**	,68**	1											
6. Intrinsic Motivation	-,65**	,38**	-,05	,45**	,68**	1										
7. IM for Knowledge	-,56**	,34**	-,03	,39**	,61**	,89**	1									
8. IM for Accomplishment	-,55**	,41**	,01	,47**	,67**	,90**	,73**	1								
9. IM for Stimulation	-,64**	,29**	-,09	,37**	,59**	,93**	,75**	,72**	1							
10. Perceived Writing Competence	-,59**	,22**	-,04	,25**	,43**	,62**	,56**	,49**	,62**	1						
11. Perceived Autonomy Support	-,26**	,19**	-,01	,23**	,33**	,37**	,30**	,39**	,31**	,27**	1					
12.Basic Need Satisfaction	-,34**	-,03	-,20**	,02	,19**	,23**	,24**	,20**	,21**	,33**	,27**	1				
13. Autonomy	-,18**	-,06	-,17**	-,01	,10	,12*	,11	,11	,10*	,19**	,19**	,77**	1			
14. Competence	-,41**	-,04	-,23**	,03	,19**	,34**	,34**	,27**	,32**	,40**	,27**	,72**	,38**	1		
15. Relatedness	-,22**	,03	-,07	,03	,15*	,11	,12*	,09	,09	,19**	,17**	,81**	,43**	,34**	1	
16. Writing Grade	-,32**	,13*	-,01	,18**	,20**	,28**	,28**	,31**	,19**	,37**	,15*	,09	,01	,17**	,04	1

Note:

N: 275

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Accordingly, it can be claimedthat when students cannot be motivated enough, their views, perceptions, feelings, success, etc. are adversely affected. This naturally means that high motivation levels have positive effects on these aspects. It is also possible to argue that students' high levels of perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, satisfaction of their basic psychological needs in general and individually, and writing grades bring about high motivation in them towards writing courses. Both of the two probabilities seem sensible.

The extrinsic motivation of the participants is positively intercorrelated with their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support and their writing grades. However, it has no significant correlations with the results of the BNSS and its subscales. The extrinsic motivation of the students and their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support and their writing grades may be regarded as the antecedents, predictors or consequences of each other.

The results reached related to the first subscale of extrinsic motivation, external regulation, were found to have significant negative correlations with the participants' perceptions of the satisfaction of their basic psychological needs in general, the need for autonomy and relatedness individually; but, they had no correlations with the satisfaction of the need for relatedness. The students who feel autonomous and competent are not externally regulated. Indeed, these two phenomena are, closely related to each other, and satisfaction of the one naturally contributes to satisfaction of the other. The people who feel autonomous do not perform activities because of the external reasons such as rewards or punishments. In addition, the participants' external regulation has no relations to their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support and their writing grades.

The analysis of the data showed that whereas the participants' introjected regulation had no correlation with their basic psychological need satisfaction levels and its subtypes, it was significantly and positively correlated to their writing competence, writing grades, and perceived autonomy support. According to these correlations, it can be claimed that the students who perceive their teachers' communication as autonomy supportive and have introjected regulation find themselves more competent in writing, and, accordingly, can be

more successful in writing examinations than those whose motivations for writing courses are externally regulated.

The scores obtained for the third and last subtype of extrinsic motivation, identified regulation, were found to be correlated with the scores of the perceived writing scale, students' perceptions of their teachers' autonomy support, their psychological need satisfaction levels in general, competence, and their writing grades at the significant level of 0.01. They were also related to satisfaction level of the need for relatedness at the 0.05 significant level. However, there were no significant relations between the identified regulation scores and the satisfaction level of autonomy need of the participants. It can be concluded that identified regulation, among the three extrinsic motivation types, is the strongest predictor of the students' success in writing. It is also strongly related to students' perceived autonomy support, perceived competence in writing, and the satisfaction of their psychological needs, competence and relatedness.

The general intrinsic motivation is the motivation type which is most strongly related to perceived writing competence of the participants. It is also significantly and positively correlated with their perceived autonomy support, their need satisfaction levels in general and satisfaction of their needs of autonomy and competence and their writing grades. Intrinsically motivated students feel more competent and have higher grades in writing than those with extrinsic motivation. There are also close positive relations between students' levels of intrinsic motivation and their views on their satisfaction level of their basic psychological needs (excluding relatedness).

Students' intrinsic motivation to know was found to have significant positive correlations with their perceived writing competence, their views on the autonomy support of their writing teachers, their perceptions of satisfaction levels of their needs for competence and relatedness and their writing grades. The level of intrinsic motivation for knowledge was determined to be a stronger predictor of the success in writing than all types of extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation for accomplishment was determined to have positive correlations with the perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, satisfaction degrees of competence in life and the writing grades at a significant level of

0.01. As well as intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish may also be defined as an effective antecedent of writing competence and success in it.

Among the three subtypes of intrinsic motivation, it is intrinsic motivation for stimulation whose positive correlation with perceived competence in writing in English is the highest. This subtype of intrinsic motivation is also strongly related to participants' perceptions of their teachers' communicative style as autonomy supportive rather than controlling, their basic psychological need satisfaction levels, in particular, competence in life, and their writing grades. Although intrinsic motivation for stimulation may be accepted to be a predictor of students' success in writing examinations, it is not as strong as the need for knowledge and accomplishment. From these correlations, it can be inferred that intrinsic motivation types are stronger predictors of achievement in writing than extrinsic motivation types. Within intrinsic motivation types accomplishment is the strongest predictor of success in writing, the second most effective one is intrinsic motivation to know, and the last one is intrinsic motivation for stimulation. However, all of the three have significant positive correlations with writing success.

In the following paragraphs, the intercorrelations among the results obtained from the PWCS, the PASS and the BNSS and writing grades of the participants will be introduced. Their intercorrelations with the motivation types will not be explained since it will be a somehow repetition of those defined above.

The perceived writing competence of the participants was found to be positively related to their perceptions of their teachers' autonomy support, the satisfaction levels of the basic psychological needs in general and individually, and writing grades. According to the correlations, it is possible to say that students' satisfaction levels of their basic psychological needs and perceived autonomy support have positive effects on their perceived writing competence and accordingly on their writing grades or vice versa.

The levels of participants' perceived autonomy support, similarly, have positive significant intercorrelations with their satisfaction levels of their basic psychological needs and their writing grades. The correlation between this scale and students' writing grades is significant at the level of 0.05. Therefore, it would not be wrong to define it as a weaker predictor of success in writing than perceived writing competence of the students.

The mean of basic psychological needs in general is strongly and positively correlated to its subtypes autonomy, competence, and relatedness at the significant level of 0.01. On the other hand, there is no correlation between it and writing grades of the students. Its subscale autonomy has correlation with the satisfaction levels of the other two subscales but not with the writing grades of the students. Similarly, the satisfaction levels of competence and relatedness are also intercorrelated to each other ($p< 0.01$). Of these two subscales, the satisfaction level of competence is significantly and positively correlated to writing grades whereas that of the other need relatedness has no correlation with them.

To summarize the results from the intercorrelations above, amotivation has significantly negative correlations with the perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, satisfaction levels of three basic psychological needs, and writing grades of the participants. Extrinsic motivation and its subtypes (except for external regulation), to different degrees, have also significantly positive correlations with their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support and writing grades. External regulation subtype has no correlations with them. External regulation, in addition, has, in general, negative correlations with the satisfaction levels of participants' three basic needs whereas the identified and integrated regulation have positive correlations and introjected regulation has no correlations with them. The intrinsic motivation levels are both significantly and positively correlated to participants' perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, writing grades, and satisfaction levels of three basic needs, in general, and need for competence. The perceived writing competence and perceived autonomy support have also significantly positive correlations with them. The satisfaction levels of basic psychological needs in general are highly consistent with the satisfaction levels of autonomy, competence, and relatedness individually. The results related to these needs are also related to each other as well. Among the three needs, the satisfaction of competence is significantly correlated to writing grades.

On the other hand, these results may be interpreted in a way that the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs and provision of an autonomy supportive climate in the classroom are closely related to perceived writing competence of the students and their intrinsic motivation for the writing courses. All these together predict a high degree of

success in writing courses. In addition, intrinsic motivation seems to be a stronger antecedent of the success in writing. These results show a requirement to try to enhance these aspects in writing classrooms.

Below, these findings will be summarized in terms of the extent they will serve to answer the research questions of these study which were produced in the *Introduction* chapter. The research questions will be listed and it will be tried to be explored to what extent and in which direction they could be answered.

4.2.7. Conclusions related to the findings from the analysis of the quantitative data

In this section, the findings attained through the quantitative data collection procedure will be introduced. They will be discussed in terms of the answers they provided to the research questions of the study.

The research questions of this study were:

1) What are the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in writing classes from the perspective of the motivation model proposed by SDT?

2) Do these motivational patterns vary according to their genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes and high school types?

3) How are the motivational patterns of these pre-service EFL teachers related to their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades?

The answers found for these research questions will be displayed respectively.

4.2.7.1. What are the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in writing classes from the perspective of the motivation model proposed by SDT?

To find answers for the first research question of the study, it was attempted to explore pre-service EFL teachers' motivations for writing courses from the perspective of SDT. The data collected through a writing motivation scale showed that the subjects' motivation levels for writing courses were at a moderately high level. This allows us to

analyze to what degree their existing motivation for writing in English in general and for writing courses have extrinsic or intrinsic nature from the self-determination theory perspective.

It was figured out that type of motivation of the subjects for their writing courses was basically intrinsic. In other words, their intrinsic motivation levels were found to be notably higher their extrinsic motivation. In addition, of the three types of intrinsic motivation, the intrinsic motivation for accomplishment was determined to be the highest. The second was intrinsic motivation for knowledge and the one scored lowest by the subjects was intrinsic motivation for stimulation. These findings make it possible to assume that the strongest and most effective reasons for students to carry out writing activities are those related to students' belief that carrying out hard writing tasks will improve their performance, their pleasure while trying to perfect their abilities in L2 writing, their feeling of a lot of personal satisfaction when they master difficult writing activities, and feeling good when they do better than they thought in writing English. The secondary important intrinsic reasons for studying or engaging in writing tasks or assignments are those of experiencing a great pleasure while discovering new techniques of expression of ideas and feelings through writing, getting satisfaction in finding out new things, and having excitement in knowing more about the L2 writing. Writing for the fun, happiness, excitement inherent in it and because of liking and finding it interesting constructs the weakest set of the intrinsic reasons for writing.

As for the subtypes of extrinsic motivation, identified regulation is the most adopted one by the students whereas the external regulation is the least. The introjected regulation was the other subtype of extrinsic motivation, which was scored between the two extreme points for external and identified regulation. From these findings, it may be proposed that performing writing activities to gain skills which could be useful in other areas of language learning and life, to get better at writing or, at least, keep the current skill level, to maintain good relationships with the classmates, to find out how good they are at writing, and since they find trying to do well in classes important are most important extrinsic motivations of the participants in writing courses. In fact, the extrinsic motivation types are found to be more important by the subjects as they become more self-determined.

In conclusion, it can be claimed that ELL and ELT students' motivation for their writing courses are generally intrinsic (self-determined) rather than being extrinsic (controlled). Below, the answer of the second research question will be introduced.

4.2.7.2. Do the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers for writing courses vary according to their genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes and high school types?

The motivation (amotivation) levels of the participants do not significantly vary according to their genders, grades, departments and high school types. However, there are differences in their amotivation levels according to whether they are day-time or evening class students. The evening class students of the ELL Department were more strongly motivated for writing courses than the day-time class students of this department.

No significant differences were found between male and female and day-time and evening class students and those graduated from different types of high school in terms of their general extrinsic motivation. On the contrary, their extrinsic motivation was found to differ from each other according to their grades and departments. Preparatory year students' extrinsic motivation was higher than that of the first year students. The extrinsic motivation of the ELL students in general was lower than that of ELT department students. The external regulation subtype of extrinsic motivation scores of the preparatory year students were, again, higher than those of the first year students. The introjected and integrated regulation types of extrinsic motivation of ELT students were higher than those of ELL students. No other variances were found in the results obtained from the other subscales among the participants according to the other subject variables.

The variance in the intrinsic motivation for knowledge and intrinsic motivation for accomplishment levels between the ELL and ELT students, are in favour of the ELT students again. ELT students have higher levels in most of the motivation types than the ELL students. In addition, the variance between them gets greater generally in more self-determined types of motivation. No other significant difference was detected in terms of different motivational patterns of the participants according to their genders, grades, day-time/evening classes, departments, and high school types they graduated from.

The answer of the second research question of this study is that, to some extent, different motivational patterns of the EFL teachers differ from each other according some of the variables, in particular, the variable of department, the effects of which were investigated in the study.

4.2.7.3. How are the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers related to their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades?

Within the data collection procedure of the study, the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers were measured through a 33-item writing motivation scale. By this scale, amotivation, extrinsic motivation (its subtypes external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation) and intrinsic motivation (its subtypes intrinsic motivation for knowledge, intrinsic motivation for accomplishment, and intrinsic motivation for stimulation) of the participants were investigated. The results reached via this investigation were correlated to those obtained from the administration of the PWCS, the PASS, the PNSS and writing grades of the students.

The amotivation level of the participants was found to have significant negative correlations with the perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades of the students. On the contrary, the extrinsic motivation and its relatively self-determined types introjected regulation and identified regulation had significant positive correlations with the perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, to some extent, psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades of the students. Especially, introjected regulation, together with the support for the satisfaction of basic psychological needs and the provision of an autonomy supportive learning climate, may be accepted to be a strong predictor of a high level of perceived competence in writing and writing grades of the students. However, intrinsic motivation and its different types were found to be more correlated to these aspects than extrinsic motivation. It can also be claimed that intrinsic motivation types, especially intrinsic motivation to accomplish and intrinsic motivation to know, are the most probable antecedents of the success in writing.

4.3. Qualitative Data

The qualitative data of this research were collected in order to support the quantitative data and to find out if there were some points which cannot be measured by the questionnaires. The qualitative data, as explained in *Methodology*, were collected through interviews with some volunteers from both the ELL and ELT departments. In these interviews, it was intended to explore the participants' thoughts and feelings related to writing in English in general and writing courses in their departments; the writing activities, tasks and assignments they are given to carry out; their writing instructors' communication styles with them; their reasons to write and engage in writing tasks and assignments given to them; and their thoughts about how they could become better motivated for writing courses and more proficient in writing in English.

The questions and the responses of the participants to them were in Turkish. Their responses were translated into English later. In the translation process, negotiations were made with some colleagues when needed. The findings related to the five general themes will be explained below with some necessary extracts from the interviews with the participants. In the presentations of the extracts, pseudonyms will be used for the participants who quoted them.

4.3.1. Students' thoughts and feelings related to writing in English and writing classes in their departments

The interviewees were asked to tell how important and difficult they found writing in English and their writing courses; and to put writing into an order among the four basic language skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in terms of its importance and difficulty for them. It was also inquired whether they like writing and writing classes and how competent they find themselves in writing.

Subjects, in general, reported that writing is very important in L2 learning. Most of them (87%) put writing in the first or second order among the four language skills. There was no interviewee who put it in the last order. The respondents gave some reasons for finding writing important in both language learning and other aspects of their academic life.

Some of the reasons they claimed to make writing essential and useful and some statements of the respondents pointing to these reasons are as follows:

- The knowledge attained through writing is more permanent. Namely, it contributes to the retention of information.
- It facilitates the learning of vocabulary and grammar.
- It is utilized as an aid to speech. Before planned speeches, as in classroom presentations, the content of the speech is written for rehearsal.

The following extract from the transcription of the responses of an interviewee exemplifies the views of the students supporting these reasons. In this extract, Ceren (pseudonym) states:

> "*...Writing provides many benefits in learning English. I, myself, believe that a word learnt and memorized by the help of writing is more permanent than that learned through merely hearing. Because, writing allows a longer retention of knowledge in the memory, and an easier perception of it later. Therefore, writing has a great impact on learning English... In addition, writing is needed for the effective use of speaking; even the people who know English at the highest level take notes before making a speech...*"

- It is the most important means of students to communicate their knowledge to the instructors in school settings, particularly in examinations, in an organized way.

The following extract from the responses of Murat is a good example for the opinions related to communicative function of writing at school.

> *"...Writing is important for us in terms of learning English and using it effectively because, in our classes, we have to express our thoughts and convey our knowledge usually by writing. Moreover, we will study at this department for four years and we will need to write in English during all examinations..."*

- It helps people mentally develop and improve themselves.

In the quotation below, Hülya's explanations related to the benefits of writing in cognitive development of the students are given. "*Writing contributes to our mental development. Because while we are writing we force ourselves to focus and find the most appropriate expressions...*"

- It is also an effective means of self-expression.

Students also believe that writing can be used in expressing our thoughts and feelings. Murat and Hülya especially emphasized this role of writing. Murat: "*...In my opinion, writing is the reflection of our insights...*" Hülya: *"...Writing helps us develop ourselves in many aspects and allows us to express our thoughts to people..."*

Most interviewees also agreed upon the difficulty of writing. They told that they found writing in English as a difficult activity. However, this does not mean that they cannot succeed in writing activities. There are students who regard writing as a difficult activity but, at the same time, both feel competent in writing and like it. For example, Funda told that she liked and enjoyed writing in English and writing courses very much. However, at the same time, she reported that she experienced difficulties in writing courses since writing is an effort demanding task. She expressed her ideas in the following words: "*...In writing courses, I cannot do many things and prove myself but I actually like writing very much. I usually write what I feel...*" Some major reasons attributed to difficult nature of writing by the students are:

- Writing requires the control of different components at the same time such as content, grammar and organization.
- Writing is an effort demanding and a mentally challenging activity.
- For writing effectively, people need to have a background.

The following statements of the interviewees can be given as examples for their perceptions of writing as difficult due to the reasons listed above.

> **Hülya**: *"...You put great efforts onto writing since you try to find appropriate expressions and you need to care grammar accuracy and forms of writing..."* **Esra**: *"...I think I cannot succeed in writing, because to be able*

write effectively we need to have a background in it but I do not have such a background. Therefore, I do not feel I am competent in writing and, accordingly, I do not like it... **Funda**: *"...Writing is difficult since it has its own criteria..."*

These statements reflect the reasons why students think writing is a difficult task. Besides these general reasons, students also reported some other reasons for the difficulties they experience during the writing activities. Most frequently expressed one of such reasons is the inadequacy of their knowledge of vocabulary to express themselves effectively. The following quotation is a good example of such reasons. In this quotation, Tolga said:

"...I find writing difficult. I have the greatest problem with this course... ...While writing, I cannot find appropriate words; maybe, it is the reason of the difficulty I experience in writing..."

The subjects who gave such reasons were mostly the ones who told that they did not like writing and felt incompetent in it. In this respect, it is possible to claim that there is a correlation between the experiences of difficulty and low perceived competence in writing and students' negative feelings towards it.

During the interviews, the participants stated that they generally liked writing. However, they emphasized that they did not like the activities with time limits and which imposed pressure on them. The responses of the subjects demonstrated that the students who felt incompetent themselves in writing liked writing less than other students. For instance, Tolga said that he did not like writing because, most probably, he could not be successful in it.

As to perceived competence of the respondents, it is possible to say that 50% of them evaluate themselves moderately competent, whereas 25% find themselves incompetent in writing and the rest claim to be competent in it.

4.3.2. The writing activities, tasks and assignments carried out in writing classes

The subjects were asked to give information about the writing activities they carried out. There were participants from seven different preparatory and first year classes of the ELL and ELT departments; and there were four different instructors who taught writing in these classes. Therefore, some differences were expected among the activities of the participants according to their classes.

According to the statements of the subjects, it was figured out that there were no differences between the activities of the students taught writing by the same instructors. Moreover, the differences between the activities of the groups taught by different instructors were not so great.

The participants of this study can be divided into four major groups in terms of the writing activities they are given by their instructors.

1. Group: Different paragraph writing techniques such as description, cause-and-effect, narrative, etc. and essay writing. (A course book was followed.)

2. Group: Paragraph, composition, letter, newspaper, and interview.

3. Group: Paragraph writing, and different writing examples (e.g., manual). (A course book was followed.)

4. Group: Descriptive, expository, narrative composition examples, and poem writing usually as group studies.

The students from different groups had different interpretations on their writing activities. The interviewees from the groups in which a course book was followed stated that depending on a course book limited them. They also suggested that they could have carried out more various types of writing activities. The activities carried out by the second group were interpreted to be few in number and variety as well. According to their statements, it was understood that their classroom was too crowded and they cannot present their writing in the classroom and take enough informative feedback from their instructor. The subjects from the third group expressed that they did various types of writing activities although sometimes the course book limited them. The interviewees who were the members of the last group reported they carried out different types of writing activities such as poem writing, narration etc.; and presented them in the classroom. They told that they

could take encouraging and informative feedback from their instructor during these presentations. However, it was stated that it would be better if they could get more theoretical information from the instructor in some aspects of writing in English.

The commonest problem stated by the interviewees was that they could not get enough informative feedback, especially in the crowded classrooms. This problem was emphasized by several interviewees. In the following extract from one of the interviews, interpretations of the students on this issue are exemplified. İpek expressed her complains of this problems as follows:

> *"...I do not know whether I make mistakes or not in my papers since our instructor does not have the opportunity to evaluate our tasks and assignments because of the overcrowded population of the classroom. I wish my writing instructor saw my papers and gave feedback to me; I think it would be very useful. If our classroom was not so crowded, our interaction could be better as well..."*

The types of activities were presented with an assumption that there might be close relationship with these writing activities and motivational patterns of the students for writing and writing courses. The data supported this prediction and it was inferred that the more the activities are interesting, optimal challenging, and supported with informative feedback the stronger the self-determined motivation of the students is.

4.3.3. Participants' perceptions of their instructors as autonomy supportive or controlling

According to the answers of the subjects to the questions posed to them to explore their perceptions of their instructors' autonomy support in writing classes, it was seen that there was no interviewee who stated that her/his instructor was autonomy suppressive or discouraging. Murat interpreted their instructors' autonomy support in a broad sentence as follows:

> *"...I can say that we are given the feeling of freedom in writing classes....We are given the right to tell our opinions on the topics, deadlines,*

etc. of writing activities given by our instructor; and we feel that they are taken into account.... We are given two or three choices about the topics in the examinations as well....”

Esra reported similar thoughts, too:

“...The feature of our instructor which I like most is his approval of our efforts. This is not only my opinion; the whole class think so.... He makes the writing courses enjoyable with his jokes and being friendly to us.... The instructor gives us the right to choose writing topics....”

However, there were some differences among the respondents’ perceptions of autonomy support in the writing courses due to some other factors. For example, the students who followed a course book in their writing classes indicated that their autonomy in choosing the topics or methods of their writing activities may sometimes be limited by the book. One of the interviewees who participated in the research from the classes in which the instruction is based on a course book conveyed her thoughts as follows.

“...I want to be able to do every type of writing activities that I can do in Turkish in English too. But I cannot. This is not related to our instructor... ...We follow a course book and its content is limited. The topics and methods of what we will write depend on the course book. Therefore, it limits our choice of different writing activities...”

Another notable difference among the participants’ perceived autonomy support was related to the provision of informative feedback by their instructor. It is reported by the subjects that, in the crowded groups, in particular ELL first year classes, instructors, as exemplified in one of the quotations given above, do not have the chance to provide enough feedback to their students. It was also stated that crowded classrooms made it very difficult for the instructors to have a good interaction with the students as well. This case also affects students’ perceived autonomy support and motivational types in writing courses.

4.3.4. Pre-service EFL teachers' motivations to write in English or to engage in writing activities

During the interviews, the participants' motivational patterns, according to SDT, were also questioned. They were asked to tell their reasons to write in English or to do the writing activities (e.g., tasks in the classroom and assignments). The most frequent answers were concerned with the reasons for believing that writing was essential in language learning and for the satisfaction of learning new things and mastering a hard task like writing, and for the feeling of enjoyment in writing. Namely, although the respondents reported that when the activities were boring they did it since it was the rule, their general motivation was intrinsic or most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, identified regulation, in nature. The only two respondents' answers indicated to a complete amotivation and external regulation, which is least self-determined type of motivation. Two extracts reflecting these two types of motivation are given below respectively.

> Metin: *"...I enjoy writing, and usually write for this reason..."* Ceren: "*...While writing I feel free... ...In addition, I believe that if you want to improve your English you need to write. Thus, I like writing..."*
>
> Esra: "*...Since I do not feel competent in writing and do not like it the other skills seem to me more enjoyable... ...I fear to write..."*

Whereas the first two extracts may be regarded as cues for the positive feelings about writing and the belief in its usefulness, the last exemplifies the cases of amotivation for writing.

The motivational patterns of the subjects, as can be seen in the examples above, were closely related to their responses to the questions interrogating their thoughts and feelings on writing and their perceived autonomy support. The students with self-determined motivation like writing whereas those with external regulation or amotivation do not like it.

4.3.5. Participants' views about how they could be better motivated for writing courses and more proficient in writing in English

The last theme determined according to the data collected through interviews was related to participants' views about how they could get better motivated for writing courses, and accordingly, more proficient in writing in English. The subjects were asked to tell what they thought should be done to enhance their motivation and performance in writing. Most of the responses were related to their instructors. The evaluations on the activities and the writing topics were not few as well. These and other most frequent demands of them were as follows.

- ❖ Instructors should be encouraging, supporting, and guiding.
- ❖ Instructors should provide enough informative feedback.
- ❖ We should be autonomous to choose writing topics.
- ❖ There should be a variety of writing activities.
- ❖ The topics should be interesting and relevant.
- ❖ Writing should be used for the communication of thoughts and feelings.
- ❖ Instructors should try to make students understand the value of writing and like it.
- ❖ Novel (e.g., interpretations of the classroom presentations, films, etc.) and optimal challenging activities should be included in the writing course.
- ❖ More effective ways to enhance student participation should be found.
- ❖ Creative writing should be encouraged by both the instructor and the course book.
- ❖ We should not rely on the course book too much.
- ❖ Limitations and pressures such as deadlines and focus on accuracy should be lessened.
- ❖ Individual differences among students should be taken into consideration.
- ❖ Instructors should support students with examples and directions.

Below, the extracts which include some of these suggestions at the same time are given. Ceren suggested:

"...The instructor should be encouraging, supportive, guiding... ...He should criticize my papers but at the same time show his approval of my effort. He can say "I expected you to use those structures; you can do better"; in this way, he may encourage us for writing... ...The course book should not limit students' creativeness..."

İpek focused on the necessity of different types of writing activities and interaction between the instructor and the students.

"...If we do different writing activities it will be better; we sometimes get bored with learning the same things. More challenging activities may be included in the course, because when we are not forced, we do not do anything... ...It would be better if we could have more and better interactions with our instructor, but it is not possible because of the crowdedness of the classroom..."

The example for the suggestions related to choosing writing topics are given below by the expressions of another interviewee, Murat.

"...The greatest role in increasing students' motivation is that of the instructor. He can give the students the right to choose writing topics, or give them interesting topics himself. This will enhance students' engagement in the writing activities..."

The suggestions above were ordered according to their frequency, from most frequent to least frequent ones, in the interviews. The most frequent ones among these suggestions reflect the views of nearly 60% of the interviewees whereas the least frequent ones are based on the statements of, at least, 25% of them. These findings obtained from the qualitative data with their most notable and noteworthy aspects in terms of the focus of this research will be summarized below.

4.3.6. Summaries of the findings obtained from the qualitative data

The findings obtained from the interviewees can be summarized in a few sentences. Writing is regarded as one of the most important, for some, the most important one,

language skills by the students. The difficult and effort demanding nature of it is also recognized. However, this does not imply a natural failure in students' writing, difficulty of writing has close correlation with some of the participants' perceived competence in it and their attitudes toward it. Another result is that students generally like writing when they are not under pressure of time limits or evaluation.

The activities carried out in different groups do not differ from each other very much. They vary according to whether a course book is followed or not, or to whether their classroom is overcrowded or not. Writing is considered to be more enjoyable by the students who are not exposed to limitations of the course book and who are free to choose the topics of their writing activities, and those who can be provided informative feedback by their instructors than other students.

The participants generally perceive their writing instructors as autonomy supportive. However, some claim that their depending on their course books and time limits in the in-classroom writing activities sometimes limit their autonomy.

According to the responses of the interviewees, it was inferred that their motivation type for writing courses, to a great extent, is identified regulation. They stated that they carried out writing tasks since they believe in the benefits of them in L2 learning. It was also expressed, by some subjects, that they experienced enjoyment during writing activities. Their motivation type can be defined as intrinsic. However, responses of the interviewees also indicated that the motivation types of them turned into external or introjected regulation when their activities were not interesting and they felt under pressure. There are also respondents who expressed that they were not motivated or just externally regulated for writing courses. These were the ones who reported a low level of competence in writing. They stated that they did not want to do writing activities, and when they did, they carried out them to avoid low grades.

Respondents proposed several suggestions which they thought could be useful in enhancing student motivation in writing courses. They stated some of them were already used by their instructors. Therefore, these suggestions do not mean that the instructors do not follow these strategies in their courses. These are suggestions which the students thought could be valid for all writing classes in general. Their suggestions were basically

related to their instructors' communicative styles (e.g., encouraging, supporting, and guiding) with them; their autonomy to choose writing topics; feedback to be provided to them; variety of activities; qualities of the topics; function of writing; instructors' role making students understand the value of writing and like it; content of the course book; limitations related to time and too much focus on accuracy; individual differences to be taken into consideration; and instructors' supports with examples and directions.

These findings from the analysis of the qualitative data collected through the interviews with some students from both the ELL and ELT departments, to a very great extent, were found to be consistent with the findings from different scales used in quantitative data collection.

4.4. Conclusion

In this chapter, the data obtained from the scales and interviews were analyzed. The results of them were described and, when necessary, correlated to each other. It was investigated whether the qualitative and quantitative data were consistent with each other. In the qualitative data section, it was also tried to determine if there were findings different from those of quantitative data. The qualitative and quantitative data were found to be, to a great extent, consistent with each other.

In *Conclusion*, the general results of this study will be presented. Some pedagogical implications will be made. And, in line with these implications, some suggestions which are believed to be useful in L2 writing motivation development and L2 writing instruction will be provided. The limitations of the study will be given. And, lastly, some assumptions related to the research which might be conducted in the future will be conveyed.

CHAPTER V

5. CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Introduction

In this study, Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' motivational patterns in writing courses from the perspective of SDT; the relationships of these pre-service EFL teachers' motivational patterns with their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support in writing courses, general basic psychological need satisfaction levels, and their writing grades; and the variances in these motivational patterns according to the subject variables of genders, departments, grades, day-time/evening classes and high school types were investigated. This investigation was carried out through quantitative and qualitative research procedures. By the analyses of the data which were collected through both questionnaires and interviews, the answers to the three research questions of this study were tried to be sought. The research questions which were tried to be answered were:

1) What are the motivational patterns of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in writing classes from the perspective of the motivation model proposed by SDT?

2) Do these motivational patterns vary according to their genders, grades, departments, day-time/evening classes and high school types?

3) How are the motivational patterns of these pre-service EFL teachers related to their perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction levels and writing grades?

In this chapter, the answers to these research questions will be evaluated under the headings of *Findings and Discussion*, *Pedagogical Implications*, *Strengths and Limitations of the Study* and *Further Research.*

5.2. Findings and Discussion

The main concern of this study was to explore the motivational profiles of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers according to the motivation model proposed by SDT. To learn different types of motivation of the participants, a writing motivation scale was used. This scale was adapted from the self-regulation, academic motivation and self-determination scales used in previous studies. By this scale, amotivation, extrinsic motivation (with its

subtypes external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation), and intrinsic motivation (with its subcategories, intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish, and intrinsic motivation for stimulation) of the students were measured.

The results showed that pre-service EFL teachers' amotivation level was very low (M: 1.99). This gave the implication that students had relatively high motivation for writing courses. Results also revealed that the subjects' intrinsic motivation in writing courses are higher than their extrinsic motivation. Among the types of extrinsic motivation, identified regulation was found to be the highest. The lowest one was external regulation. This means that their more self-determined extrinsic motivations were higher than the less self-determined ones. As for the subtypes of intrinsic motivation, their intrinsic motivation to accomplish was the highest, the second highest one was intrinsic motivation to know, and the lowest one was intrinsic motivation for stimulation. From these findings, it may be inferred that students do writing activities more for enjoyment and good feelings of accomplishing difficult tasks and learning new things more than for the enjoyment in these tasks themselves.

Subjects' perceived writing competence was found to be neither high nor too low (M: 2.94). According to the mean of the PWCS, it is possible to claim that students do not find themselves very competent in writing. In the interviews, students showed the difficulty of writing as the cause of this low level of writing competence.

The results of the PASS demonstrated that the participants' perceived autonomy support was positive (M: 3.54). The data obtained from the interviews supported this result as well. The interviewees reported that their instructors' communication with them was encouraging, friendly, supporting, guiding, and autonomy supportive. They stated that they were given the right to choose the topics they would write on and, to some extent, activities they would do; and their opinions were taken into account. The most noteworthy problem with their perceived autonomy support was related to the feedback which was provided by their teacher. Especially, the students from the crowded classrooms complained that they could not get enough informative feedback.

The basic psychological need satisfaction levels of the pre-service EFL teachers were measured to be higher than their perceived competence and perceived autonomy support in

writing courses (M: 3.63). The responses for this scale showed that the participants feel that their need for relatedness was satisfied more than their needs for autonomy and competence. The satisfaction degree of their autonomy and competence in general were in line with their perceptions of their competence in writing and the autonomy support in the writing classrooms.

The correlation analyses were conducted to explore the relations between the results of WMS and PWCS, PASS, BNSS, and writing grades of the students. Before these correlation analyses, correlations among the types and subtypes of WMS were sought. It was found that amotivation and external regulation have negative correlations with the other intrinsic motivation subscales. Amotivation was also negatively correlated with extrinsic motivation types. These results are consistent with the results of the previous research (e.g., Noels, 2001b; Noels et al., 1999). Significant findings were also obtained from the correlation analyses between the motivational patterns and the results of the other scales.

Amotivation and external regulation were found to have significant negative correlations with the results of PWCS, PASS, BNSS, and writing grades of the participants. Lower levels of amotivation and external regulation predicted high perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction, and writing grades whereas higher levels of introjected regulation, identified regulation (more self-determined types of extrinsic motivation), intrinsic motivation in general, intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish, and intrinsic motivation for stimulation predicted high degrees of perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction, and writing grades of the students.

However, intrinsic motivation was a stronger predictor of high perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic psychological need satisfaction, and writing grades than extrinsic motivation. Of the extrinsic motivation types, identified regulation was most strongly correlated with these scores. Of the intrinsic motivation types, intrinsic motivation for stimulation was most strongly related to the perceived writing competence; intrinsic motivation to accomplish was most strongly related to the perceived

autonomy support and writing grades; and intrinsic motivation to know was most strongly related to the of basic psychological need satisfaction levels of the students.

The results of PWCS, PASS, BNSS, and writing grades of the students were found to be significantly and positively intercorrelated to each other. It is possible to regard basic psychological need satisfaction, perceived autonomy support, perceived writing competence, and writing grades as the antecedents or consequences of each other. On the other hand, it is also possible to assume that students' perceptions of their basic psychological need satisfaction, autonomy support, and writing competence enhance their success in writing.

The most noteworthy findings related to the variance among the participants in terms of their motivational profiles were that the levels of ELT students' both extrinsic and intrinsic motivational types were generally higher than ELL students. One of the most probable reasons for this is, according to the expressions of the subjects during the interviews, the overcrowded population of the ELL first year classrooms. It was learnt that enough informative feedback, which is very important for learner motivation (Noels et al., 1999) could not be provided by the instructors because of the overcrowded classrooms. In addition, overcrowded population in the classrooms was reported to have thwarted the interaction between the instructors and students. Below, these findings will be interpreted in terms of their importance for the educational practices in L2 classrooms.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

One of the most important pedagogical implications of this research is that the quality of motivation is as important as the quantity of it in writing courses; and intrinsic motivations of pre-service EFL teachers in their writing classes were significantly higher than their extrinsic motivations. Also, their intrinsic motivation and more self-determined types of extrinsic motivation were stronger predictors of their success in writing classes than less self-determined motivation types.

Another important implication is related to relationship between the basic psychological needs, perceived autonomy support, perceived writing competence, and the motivational patterns of the students. The students with higher levels of perceived basic

psychological need satisfaction, perceived autonomy support, and perceived writing competence have higher degree of intrinsic motivation. This all together, when they are high enough, predict higher success in writing courses.

It can also be implicated that students find writing in English and writing courses very essential but very difficult in L2 learning. They report that they need more interaction with the teacher and more informative feedback from her/him to overcome the difficulties they experience. They also emphasize the need for various novel and creative writing activities to be able to get better motivated to engage in writing courses and develop their writing skills.

In brief, the results show the superiority of intrinsic motivation and more-self determined types of extrinsic motivation over other types of motivation in terms of their effects on the perceived competence and writing grades of the students in writing courses. The results also demonstrate the close relationship between basic psychological needs and perceived autonomy support, in turn, with motivational patterns, perceived writing competence, and success in writing courses. Therefore, the most important task of writing instructors is to enhance the intrinsic motivation and more self-determined motivation types (especially, identified regulation) of the students by organizing learning contexts in a way that will enhance students' basic psychological need satisfaction, perceived autonomy support, and perceived writing competence. It is possible to make some suggestions for achieving this task. These suggestions are based on the statements of the subjects and those given in the research in different fields (e.g., Bremer, Kachgal & Schoeller, 2003, p. 3; Bruning & Horn, 2000, p. 28; Killpatrick, Hebert & Jacobsen, 2002, p. 40).

- Instructors' communicative styles with their students should be encouraging, friendly, supporting and guiding; in other words, they should create a positive emotional environment.
- They should provide autonomy support to the students by promoting choice making about the topics, time, etc. of the writing activities; namely, they should provide a supportive context for writing.
- They should help students develop their abilities to set goals and make plans and problem solving and exploratory skills.

- ❖ They should support the students also with examples, directions, and enough informative feedback.
- ❖ The topics of the writing activities should be consistent with the interest and knowledge level of the students.
- ❖ Writing should be used for the communication of thoughts and feelings rather than only a test of vocabulary and grammar knowledge of the students.
- ❖ Instructors should try to make students understand the value of writing and like it by nurturing their beliefs about the functions of writing.
- ❖ Writing activities (both classroom tasks and assignments) should be optimally challenging.
- ❖ Creative writing should be encouraged by both the instructor and the course book.
- ❖ Students' engagement in writing activities should be fostered through authentic writing goals and contexts.
- ❖ Limitations and pressures such as deadlines and focus on accuracy should be lessened.
- ❖ Individual differences among the students should be taken into consideration.

The suggestions can be multiplied, of course. These are some of the most important ones expected to be useful in enhancing self-determined motivation of the L2 writing students and, accordingly, their performances in writing. These suggestions should be taken into consideration throughout the whole process of L2 writing teaching from planning to evaluation.

5.4. Strengths and Limitations of the Study

One of the most important strengths of this study is the comprehensive data that was gathered through different data collection instruments. The data collected through both four different scales, some questions in the background information section and interviews allowed an in-depth and multi-faceted analysis of L2 writing motivation patterns, perceived writing competence, perceived autonomy support, basic need satisfaction levels of pre-service EFL teachers in addition to their thoughts, feelings and experiences related to the

writing skill and their writing courses. In addition, the use of self-determination model provided information about both the levels and patterns of motivation of the participants.

By this study, the relationships between motivation patterns of the students and different classroom practices were explored. This study gave the opportunity to collect information about the relationships between different classroom practices and different motivation patterns. In this way, it can be predicted what practices and motivation patterns might be the antecedents of the success in writing.

By this study, some clues about what should be done to develop students' motivation and enhance their writing achievement could be attained as well. Maybe the most important strength of this study is that it showed how useful it could be to adapt the motivation model proposed by SDT to the investigation of L2 motivation.

There are also some limitations of this study related to its participants, research designs and data collection procedures and instruments. The population of this study consisted of 275 preparatory and first year students, from the ELL and ELT departments, who are taking writing courses at the time of administration of the research. In other words, this research was limited to the pre-service EFL teachers who were taking writing courses at the time of data collection. In addition, the data of this study were collected through only questionnaires and semi-structured interviews and the research was a descriptive one in nature. In the future, L2 writing motivations of Turkish EFL learners from different levels and contexts may be investigated through different research designs, data collection procedures and instruments and with different participants. In further research, the motivation model of SDT may also be adapted to the investigation of other language skills of Turkish EFL learners.

5.5. Further Research

In the future, the writing motivation of Turkish EFL learners at different levels may be studied from the perspective of SDT. With more longitudinal studies, the motivational patterns of Turkish students in English writing courses can be investigated. Experimental studies may also be conducted to measure the effects of different factors on the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of the students. The variances in the motivational patterns of

students in writing courses may also be investigated according to different variables. The motivation model of SDT can be extended to the investigation of learner motivation for other language skills as well.

5.6. Conclusion

By this study, the motivational patterns of pre-service EFL teachers for writing and writing classes were studied according to the motivational model of SDT. It was found, in brief, that their more self-determined motivation in writing courses was higher than their extrinsic motivation. Although it was found that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation patterns were correlated with high level of perceived writing competence and writing grades of the students, intrinsic motivation was determined to be a stronger predictor of them. In this study, it was also figured out that students' perceptions of their basic psychological need satisfaction and autonomy support in the classroom were positively associated with their motivational patterns, in particular, more self-determined types and success in writing courses. This study also showed that SDT may be extended to the investigation of motivation studies in L2 writing sphere.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Instruments Used in the Collection of the Quantitative Data

Dear Friends**,**

This is a survey consisting of four different scales, respectively, aiming to find out your general basic psychological need satisfaction levels; your perceived competence in writing in English and in writing classes; your perceptions of the climate of writing classes as controlled vs. autonomous; and, your motives in carrying out the writing tasks and assignments (composition, paragraph writing etc. in/out of the classroom) given by your writing teacher. All your responses to these scales will be confidential and the information obtained will not be identified as to any student. The researcher will be the only person with access to individual surveys which will be anonymous at the student level. Participation in this research is completely voluntary.

Thank you for your participation.

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Mehmet TAKKAÇ
Research Assistant Savaş YEŞİLYURT

1) Student Number:

2) Gender: Female ① Male ②

3) Age: 17-18 ① 19-20 ② 21-22 ③ 23+ ④

4) Grade: Prep. ⓪ First ①

5) Department: English Language and Literature ① English Language Teaching ②

6) Your Last Average Writing Grade: 90-100 ① 80-90 ② 70-80 ③ 60-70 ④
50-60 ⑤ 40-50 ⑥ 30-40 ⑦ 0-30 ⑧

9) Type of High School You Graduated From:

High School	①
Anatolian High School"	②
Anatolian Teachers High School	③
Science High School	④
Vocational High School	⑤
Other	⑥

A) This section aims to identify the satisfaction levels of your three basic psychological needs; competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Please mark the number which is most appropriate for your levels of agreement with each statement.

BASIC NEED SATISFACTION SCALE

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel like I am free to decide for myself how to live my life.		⑤	④	③	②	①
2. I really like the people I interact with.		⑤	④	③	②	①
3. Often, I do not feel very competent.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
4. I feel pressured in my life.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
5. People I know tell me I am good at what I do.		⑤	④	③	②	①
6. I get along with people I come into contact with.		⑤	④	③	②	①
7. I pretty much keep to myself and don't have a lot of social contacts.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
8. I generally feel free to express my ideas and opinions.		⑤	④	③	②	①
9. I consider the people I regularly interact with to be my friends.		⑤	④	③	②	①
10. I have been able to learn interesting new skills recently.		⑤	④	③	②	①
11. In my daily life, I frequently have to do what I am told.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
12. People in my life care about me.		⑤	④	③	②	①
13. Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from what I do.		⑤	④	③	②	①
14. People I interact with on a daily basis tend to take my feelings into consideration.		⑤	④	③	②	①
15. In my life I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
16. There are not many people that I am close to.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
17. I feel like I can pretty much be myself in my daily situations.		⑤	④	③	②	①
18. The people I interact with regularly do not seem to like me much.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
19. I often do not feel very capable.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
20. There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to do things in my daily life.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①
21. People are generally pretty friendly towards me.		⑤	④	③	②	①

Note: N: Negative

B) This section aims to identify your perceived competence in writing in English and in writing classes. Please mark the number which is most appropriate for your levels of agreement with each statement.

PERCEIVED WRITING COMPETENCE SCALE

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel competent while writing in English.		⑤	④	③	②	①
2. I am capable of meeting the requirements of the writing classes.		⑤	④	③	②	①
3. I am able to achieve my goals in the writing classes.		⑤	④	③	②	①
4. I feel able to meet the challenge of performing well in the writing classes.		⑤	④	③	②	①
5. I think I am very good at writing.		⑤	④	③	②	①
6. I think I do pretty well at writing compared to other students.		⑤	④	③	②	①
7. After working at writing for a while, I feel very competent.		⑤	④	③	②	①
8. I am very satisfied with my performance at writing.		⑤	④	③	②	①
9. I can get the marks that I expect from writing examinations.		⑤	④	③	②	①
10. This is an activity that I cannot do very well.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①

Note: N: Negative

C) This section aims to identify your perceptions of the climate of writing classes as controlled vs. autonomous. Please mark the number which is most appropriate for your levels of agreement with each statement.

PERCEIVED AUTONOMY SUPPORT SCALE

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. We have the right to be involved in deciding what the objectives of the writing class should be.	⑤	④	③	②	①
2. We are given the right to choose the activities which will be held in the writing classes.	⑤	④	③	②	①
3. We are given the chance to choose what materials which will be used in the writing classes.	⑤	④	③	②	①
4. We can choose what we will do as the writing activities outside the classroom.	⑤	④	③	②	①
5. Our writing teacher listens to our opinions, ideas and suggestions.	⑤	④	③	②	①
6. We are allowed to choose the methods of carrying out the writing activities in the classroom.	⑤	④	③	②	①
7. We are asked to choose the topics we will write on.	⑤	④	③	②	①
8. We are encouraged to work in our own ways to develop ourselves in writing.	⑤	④	③	②	①
9. The teacher provides flexibility to us about the deadlines of the assignments.	⑤	④	③	②	①
10. We are led to evaluate our writings by ourselves.	⑤	④	③	②	①

11. We are encouraged by the teacher to ask questions.		⑤	④	③	②	①
12. We are given the opportunity to plan our activities.		⑤	④	③	②	①
13. We are made to be responsible for our own learning.		⑤	④	③	②	①
14. We feel pressured about the accuracy and duration of the writing activities we do in/out the classroom.	N	⑤	④	③	②	①

Note: N: Negative

D) This section aims to identify your motives in carrying out the writing tasks and assignments (composition, paragraph writing etc. in/out of the classroom) given by your writing teacher. Please mark the number which is most appropriate for your levels of agreement with each statement.

WRITING MOTIVATION SCALE

I do the writing tasks and assignments (composition, paragraph writing etc. in/out of the classroom) given by our writing teacher… Because… NOTE: This statement is valid for only the items beginning with "because".		**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Moderately Agree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
1. I feel I am incapable of succeeding in writing in English.	**1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
2. Because I want to show others how good I am at writing in English.	**2.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
3. Because it is absolutely necessary to do writing activities if one wants to be successful in language learning.	**2.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
4. Because it is a good way to gain lots of skills which could be useful to me in other areas of language learning and my life.	**2.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
5. Because I experience a great pleasure while discovering new techniques of expression of ideas and feelings through writing.	**3.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
6. Because I think carrying out hard writing tasks will improve my performance.	**3.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
7. Because I like writing in English.	**3.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
8. I do not care the writing activities and assignments much.	**1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
9. Because I know I will get in trouble if I do not.	**2.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
10. Because I want the teacher to think I am a good student.	**2.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
11. Because I want to get better at writing or, at least, keep my current skill level.	**2.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
12. Because I get a satisfaction in finding out new things.	**3.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
13. Because I have a pleasure while I am perfecting my abilities in second language writing.	**3.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
14. Because it makes me happy.	**3.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
15. Doing writing activities is not interesting for me.	**1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
16. Because I am supposed to do them by my parents, teacher, friends, etc.	**2.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
17. Because I want to impress the other students in the class.	**2.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
18. Because it is a good way to maintain good relationships with my classmates.	**2.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
19. Because I have an excitement in knowing more about the second language writing.	**3.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
20. Because I feel a lot of personal satisfaction when I master difficult writing activities.	**3.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
21. Because I think it is interesting.	**3.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
22. I do not want to write English, because I don't think I	**1**	⑤	④	③	②	①

will go anywhere in it.						
23. Because that is the rule.	**2.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
24. Because I will feel bad about myself if I do not try and do well in writing classes.	**2.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
25. Because I want to find out how good I am at writing.	**2.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
26. Because I feel good when I do better than I thought in writing English.	**3.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
27. I do not know why I do writing activities.	**1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
28. Because I want the teacher to say nice things about me.	**2.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
29. Because I will feel proud of myself if I do well.	**2.2**	⑤	④	③	②	①
30. Because it is important to me to try to do well in classes.	**2.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
31. Because I feel a great excitement when I am involved in writing.	**3.3**	⑤	④	③	②	①
32. I have the impression that I am wasting my time and effort in writing.	**1**	⑤	④	③	②	①
33. Because I might get a reward if I do well (high grades).	**2.1**	⑤	④	③	②	①

Note: 1: Amotivation; 2.1: External regulation; 2.2: Introjected regulation; 2.3: Identified regulation; 3.1: Intrinsic motivation for knowledge; 3.2: Intrinsic motivation for accomplishment; 3.3: Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (These explanations and the numbers referring to different types of motivation were not included in the sheets given to the participants).

To help us get further information on this topic would you like to discuss this topic in greater detail with the researcher?

Yes ①　　No ②

APPENDIX B: Email Contents Related to the Permissions for the Use or Adaptation of the Data Collection Instruments

-----Original message-----
From: "Ed Deci" deci@psych.rochester.edu
Date: Mon, 21 Apr 2008 22:36:02 +0300
To: "Savas Yesilyurt" savas@atauni.edu.tr
Subject: Re: The Basic Need Satisfaction in Life Scale

> The general basic psychological needs scale is a slight adaptation of the
> psychological needs at work scale. We developed the work scale first; and
> the reliability and validity comes from the following articles:
>
> Ilardi, B. C., Leone, D., Kasser, R.& Ryan, R. M. (1993). Employee and
> supervisor ratings of motivation: Main effects and discrepancies
> associated with job satisfaction and adjustment in a factory setting.
> Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 23, 1789-1805.
>
> and
>
> Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Gagne, M., Leone, D. R., Usunov, J.&
> Kornazheva, B. P. (2001). Need satisfaction, motivation, and well-being in
> the work organizations of a former Eastern Bloc country. Personality and
> Social Psychology Bulletin, 27, 930-942.
>
> and
>
> Baard, P. P., Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M. (2004). Intrinsic need
> satisfaction: A motivational basis of performance and well-being in two
> work settings. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34, 2045-2068.
>
> So you explain that the general scale was a minor adaptation of the scale
> for work. The only published study I can think of that used the general
> scale is:
>
> Gagne, M. (2003). The role of autonomy support and autonomy orientation in
> prosocial behavior engagement. Motivation and Emotion, 27, 199-223.
>
> Present the reliability from the work scale, the most complete of which is
> reported in the Baard et al. study referenced above. Also review the work
> studies and the Gagne study because all of these are what provide validity
> for the general scale. Then give the web site URL for the scale and say
> research on it can be found in the Gagne paper.

> **********
> Edward L. Deci
> Professor of Psychology and
> Gowen Professor in the Social Sciences
> Department of Psychology
> P.O. Box 270266 (for U.S. mail)
> 355 Meliora Hall (for couriers)
> University of Rochester
> Rochester, NY 14610
> phone: 585-275-2461
> fax: 585-273-1100
> email: deci@psych.rochester.edu
> website: http://selfdeterminationtheory.org

-----Original message-----
From: "MarylÃ¨ne GagnÃ©" mgagne@jmsb.concordia.ca
Date: Tue, 22 Apr 2008 03:03:05 +0300
To: "Savas Yesilyurt" savas@atauni.edu.tr
Subject: Re: "The Basic Need Satisfaction in Life Scale"

> Hello, I used the Ilardi et al (1993) scale in the Gagne (2003) paper. I
> believe that the Deci et al (2001) also used the same scale, maybe
> slightly modified, I'm not sure. In any case, I'm attaching it here. You
> can get the same document on the website www.selfdeterminationtheory.org.
> All the appropriate references are in the document.
>
> Best,
>
> **
> Marylène Gagné, Ph.D.
> Associate Professor
> Concordia University Research Fellow
> Department of Management
> GM 503-49
> John Molson School of Business
> Concordia University
> 1455 de Maisonneuve W.
> Montreal, Quebec, Canada
> H3G 1M8
> 514-848-2424 ext.2775
> Fax: 514-848-4292

-----Original message-----
From: knoels@ualberta.ca
Date: Mon, 14 Apr 2008 17:51:45 +0300
To: Savas Yesilyurt savas@atauni.edu.tr
Subject: Re: 'Language Learning Orientations Scale'

> Dear Ms. (Mr.) Yeşilyurt
> You certainly have my permission to use this instrument. The items of
> the instrument should be at the end of the article you cited. You would likely need to change some items to make
them
> more suitable to the Turkish context, and to the context of English
> language learning.
> Best regards,
> Kim Noels
> PS I do have a more recent version that I could send you (if you are
> interested), but it hasn't had the same psychometric testing as the
> earlier version.
> **********
> Kimberly A. Noels
> Professor
> Social and Cultural Psychology Area
> Department of Psychology
> P220 Biological Sciences Building
> University of Alberta
> Edmonton, AB, Canada, T6G 2E9
> (office) 780-492-4717

> (fax) 780-492-1768
> website: http://www.psych.ualberta.ca/~knoels/personal/

-----Original message-----
From: Guy Roth roth@bgu.ac.il
Date: Wed, 30 Apr 2008 09:08:02 +0300
To: Avi Assor assor@bgu.ac.il
Subject: Re: ☐Scales measuring autonomy-affecting teacher behaviours☐

> Dear Savaş,
> Avi is travelling and asked to respond. You may adopt the scales as appear in
> the paper. Don't hesitate to contact us for further information.
> Good luck,
> Guy.
> ---
> Guy Roth, Ph.D.
> Education Department,
> Ben-Gurion University of the Negev,
> P.O.Box 653, Beer-Sheva, Israel, 84105.
> E-mail: roth@bgu.ac.il.
> Phone: 972-8-6461884; Fax: 972-77-3353030
> ----- Original Message -----
> From: "Avi Assor" <assor@bgu.ac.il>
> To: "'Guy Roth'" <roth@bgu.ac.il>
> Sent: Tuesday, April 29, 2008 11:54 PM
> Subject: FW: ☐Scales measuring autonomy-affecting teacher behavours☐
>
> Guy
>
> Can you send this Guy the scales he is interested in?
> I am taking of again tonight so no time for this.
>
> Take care
>
> Avi

-----Original message-----
From: Martyn Standage spsms@bath.ac.uk
Date: Tue, 22 Apr 2008 10:11:59 +0300
To: Savas Yesilyurt savas@atauni.edu.tr
Subject: Re: Standage et al., 2006

> Dear Savaş:
>
> I am happy for you to adapt the measures that I used in the 2006 paper.
> Good luck with your research.
>
> Best regards
> Martyn
>
> ---
> Martyn Standage, Ph.D., FHEA
> Motivation for Exercise, Sport, and Health [MESH]
> School for Health

> University of Bath
> Bath. BA2 7AY.
> United Kingdom
> Tel: +44 (0)1225-383087
> Fax: +44 (0)1225-383275
> ----------

-----Original message-----
From: Nikolaos Ntoumanis n.ntoumanis@bham.ac.uk
Date: Tue, 22 Apr 2008 00:09:53 +0300
To: "Savas Yesilyurt" savas@atauni.edu.tr
Subject: RE: Motivational Types

> Dear student,
>
> You have my permission. Good luck with your PhD work!
>
> Kind regards
>
> Nikos Ntoumanis
>
> ----------
> Dr. Nikos Ntoumanis, CPsychol
> Senior Lecturer in Sport and Exercise Psychology
> School of Sport and Exercise Sciences
> The University of Birmingham
> Edgbaston
> Birmingham
> B15 2TT
> UK
> Tel: +44 (0)121 4147981
> Fax: +44 (0)121 4144121
> Web: http://nntoumanis.googlepages.com
> ----------

APPENDIX C: Interview Questions Used in the Collection of the Qualitative Data

1. What do you think and how do you feel about writing in English in general and the writing courses in your department?

2. Can you give some information about the writing activities, tasks and assignments you carry out in writing classes?

3. Do you think your writing instructor is autonomy supportive or controlling?

4. Why do you write in English or engage in the writing activities given to you by your writing instructor?

5. What do you think about how you can become better motivated for writing courses and more proficient in writing in English?

APPENDIX D: Informed Consent Form

Title: "A Self-Determination Approach to Teaching Writing in Pre-Service EFL Teacher Education"

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Mehmet TAKKAÇ
Atatürk University
Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty
English Language Teaching Department

Ph. D. Student: Savaş YEŞİLYURT
Atatürk University
English Language Teaching Department
Email: savas@atauni.edu.tr
Phone: 442 231 42 17

The following information is provided to help you decide whether you wish to participate in the interview to be carried out by the aim of collecting the data required for the doctoral dissertation study the title of which was given above. You should be aware that you are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time without affecting your relationship with this department, the instructor, or the University.

The purpose of the study is to explore your views on the writing classes and writing activities such as paragraph or composition writing given to you to do in the classroom or as assignments; and your motivation types for writing in English and for writing courses in your department. Your responses to the interview questions will be audio recorded and subsequently transcribed into text format.

Do not hesitate to ask questions about the study before participating or during the interview. I would be happy to share the findings with you after the research is completed. Information resulting from this interview will be kept strictly confidential. You will be identified by a pseudonym.

There are no known risks and/or discomforts associated with this study.

Please sign this consent form. You are signing it with full knowledge of the nature and purpose of the procedures. A copy of this form will be given to you to keep.

……..	……..
Date	Date
Participant's Signature	Researcher's Signature

APPENDIX E: Written Permissions for the Application of Questionnaires and Interviews from the Administrations of Faculty of Arts and Humanities and Kâzım Karabekir Education Faculty

T.C.
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı

Servis : Personel –Yazı İşleri
Sayı : B.30.2.ATA.0.36.00.01.01-02
Konu : Anket

10.03.2008 0007

YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ BAŞKANLIĞINA

İlgi: 29.02.2008 tarih ve 71 sayılı yazınız

Bölümünüz İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı araştırma görevlilerinden Savaş YEŞİLYURT'un doktora tez çalışmasına yönelik olarak hazırlamış olduğu anketi Üniversitemiz Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü öğrencilerine uygulaması ve anket seçmelerine göre 15 öğrenci ile görüşme yapması Rektörlük Makamının 07.03.208 tarih ve 3619 sayılı yazısı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve edinçeşme tebliğ edilmesi hususunda gereğini rica ederim.

Prof.Dr.Samih BAYRAKÇEKEN
Dekan

Atatürk Üniversitesi Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi 25170 / ERZURUM
Tlf : (0) (442) 2360954 Fax : (0) (442) 2360955

T.C.
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı

Servis : Personel-Yazı İşleri
Sayı : B.30.2.ATA.0.36.00.02/
Konu : Anket uygulaması

04.03.2008 6365

YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ BAŞKANLIĞINA

İlgi:29.2.2008 tarih ve 67 sayılı yazı

Bölümünüz İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı araştırma görevlilerinden Savaş YEŞİLYURT'un doktora tez çalışmasına yönelik olarak ilgi yazınız ekinde hazırlanmış olduğu anket formunu Bölümünüz hazırlık ve I.sınıf öğrencilerine uygulamak ve anket sonuçlarına göre 5 öğrenci ile görüşme yapması Dekanlığımızca uygun görülmektedir.

Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

İlgili kurala dönüşsün
5.3.08

Prof.Dr.Samih BAYRAKÇEKEN
Dekan

Atatürk Üniversitesi Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi 25170- ERZURUM
Telefon(0442)2360954 Fax(0442)2360955 Bilgi İçin:S.ÇAKALOT 2310041
Elektronik Ağ:www.atauni.edu.tr

CURRICULUM VITAE

He was born in Erzurum, in 1977. He completed the primary and high school education in this city. In 1997, he attended to the ELT Department of Kazım Karabekir Education Faculty of Ataturk University. He graduated from this department in 2002. In the same year, he started the MA program of ELT of the Institute of Social Sciences at Ataturk University and, at the same time, began to work as an English teacher in Cumhuriyet High School in Erzurum. In 2003, he was employed as a research assistant at the ELT Department of Kazım Karabekir Education Faculty. In 2005, he completed his MA dissertation titled "The Relationship between Metalinguistic Knowledge and Foreign Language Proficiency", and started his PhD study. In 2006, he started to work as a research assistant at the ELT Department of Necatibey Education Faculty of Balikesir University. In the same year, he was appointed to Atatürk University again to complete his PhD study. His major reserach interests are L2 writing, metacognitive and affective factors, in particular, motivation in L2 learning.