English Language Teaching
Vol. 2, No. 3, pp.103-118, 2015

The Relationship of Iranian EFL Learners' Beliefs about Writing with their L2 Writing Self-Efficacy and Performance

Marzieh Rezaei[*]
Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch
Ehsan Rassaei
Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch Islamic Azad University

Abstract

This paper discusses the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' beliefs about writing with their L2 writing self-efficacy and performance. The participants of this study were 70 female and male Iranian undergraduate learners ranging in age from 20 to 35. Among three dimensions of beliefs about writing, *recursive*, *audience orientation* and *transmission belief*, recursive orientation and transmission beliefs had positive significant correlations with learners' writing performance. This means that those who consider writing as a process but not a product as well as those who regard writing as a means for reporting what authorities think are more successful writers than others. The results showed that beliefs about writing correlate with students' writing performance. In this study, it was found that no statistically significant relationship between audience orientation belief and learners' writing performance. In other words, Iranian EFL learners do not pay attention to the needs of their readers. Moreover, there was significant relationship between learners' beliefs about writing and their L2 writing self-efficacy. Also self-efficacy was shown to have a major impact on the students' performance in this research. The results help teachers to predict influential effects of students' beliefs on their L2 writing performance.

Keywords: beliefs about writing, writing self-efficacy and L2 writing performance

[*] Islamic Azad University Shiraz Branch, Shiraz, Iran
-Received on:07/01/2016 Accepted on: 17/03/2016
Email: *mrezaeikh@gmail.com*

1. Introduction

Recently, beliefs about writing and reading have been the focus of L2 research, yet researchers in the field of L2 writing acquisition are trying to answer many questions regarding the effects of belief on the students' L2 writing performance, so this article investigates the relationship of Iranian EFL learners' beliefs about writing and their L2 writing self-efficacy and performance. To test whether beliefs about writing (one's beliefs about his/her own writing skills) have correlation with the students' writing self-efficacy (one's confidence about one's own capabilities in writing) it makes teachers aware of this social cognitive view of writing to improve their students' performance in writing courses. The results of this study can help teachers to pay more attention to the learners' sense of recursive belief, which considers writing as a process not a product. Furthermore, teachers should encourage students to take part in their own writing cognitively instead of just reporting what authorities think. Also, the students should be aware of the needs of their readers.

2. Literature Review

2.1 What is Writing?

Writing has been known as an important language skill because it reinforces grammatical structures, vocabulary and idioms that EFL teachers teach to the students. As technology advances, writing is becoming more prominent in every aspects of life (National Commission on Writing, September 2004). There are different types of writing style among which those emphasizing the cognitive, social and dynamic process not a static one, are more prominent. In these styles the writers try to think and find the way to put their ideas together (Ismail, 2011).

According to Gregorian (2007) "[t]hose who improve themselves by learning to read and write with understanding and clarity, do so not only for themselves and their family, but also for our nation as well." (p. 2). In a subsequent study Gregorian and Garnegie (2007) mentioned that the matter of writing is the matter of transferring information from one person to another and to the next generation.

There is a strong relationship between writing process knowledge and writing performance (Lin, Monroe, & Troia, 2007; Saddler & Graham, 2007). Graham, Schwartz, and MacArthur (2007) proposed that skilled writers have more knowledge about the composing process than the less skilled ones. Skilled writers, compared to poor writers, show greater knowledge about genres, and demonstrate more strategies during the process of writing (Englert, Raphael, Fear, & Anderson, 1988; Graham et al., 1993).

According to Seow (2002), writing is "the process not product", and this process consists of four main stages: planning, drafting, responding and revising and editing. Figure 1 depicts the process as:

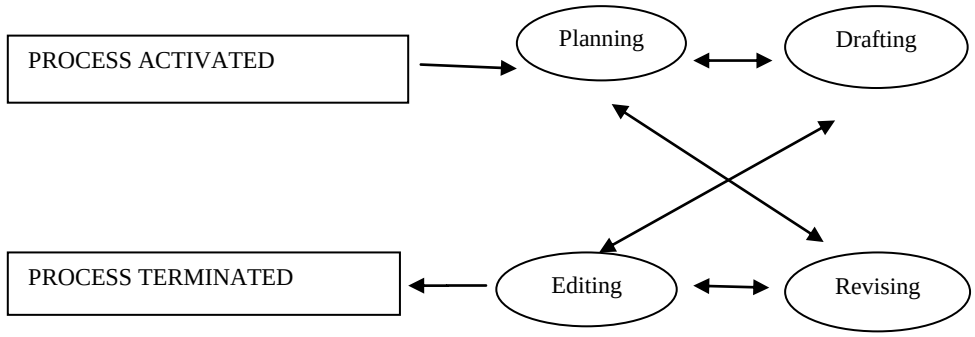

Figure 1. The writing process (Seow, 2002)

Planning (Pre-writing): it stimulates thoughts for getting started. The planning stage consists of the following activities:

A. *Group brainstorming*: Members discuss ideas about a topic. There are no right or wrong answers in this stage.
B. *Clustering:* Students form words related to the topic. The words are linked by lines to show perceptible clusters. According to Proett and Gill (1986), clustering is a simple powerful strategy and "[i]ts visual character seems to stimulate the flow of association . . . and is particularly good for students who know what they want to say but just can't say it" (p. 6).
C. *Rapid pre-writing:* within limited time students should write down simple words and phrases about the topic. This can help them to think rapidly.
D. *WH-Questions:* students generate who, where, how, what, when and why questions about the topic.

Drafting: in this stage, writers focus on the fluency not grammatical accuracy.
Responding: responding, intervenes between drafting and revising. It is the teacher's first reactionto students' drafts. Responses can be oral or in written forms. One of the reasons for failing writing programs is that the stage of responding takes place at the end when the teacher wants to evaluate the students. The response should be in the forms of helpful suggestions and

questions rather than comments like:" The structure is OK but the meaning is vague."

Revising: after the teacher gives feedback to the students' writing, the students revise the text. I n this stage the text should be clear to the reader.

Editing: in this stage students try to tidy the text in order to submit it to the teacher for evaluation. Editing consists of students' own or their peer's work for grammar, spelling, punctuation, diction, sentence structure and accuracy of the textual material such as quotations, examples and the like.

2.2 Metacognitive Strategy Use for Writing

According to Lin, et.al, (2007) metacognition considers reflection of one's thinking processes. Through the process of planning, monitoring and evaluating, individuals are able to apply their strategies to their thinking and learning, which is necessary for completion of a task. Wong (1999) defined metacognition in writing as a writer's "awareness of the purposes and process of writing, as well as the self-regulation of the process and attending thoughts, feelings, and actions" (p.83). Raphael, Englert, and Kirschner (1989) proposed three types of metacognitive knowledge for writing and studied their relationship with instructional contexts. The three types of metacognitive knowledge for writing include the followings:

1. Declarative knowledge, which represents a writer's knowledge about the topic, purpose, audience, structure and organization of a writing task.
2. Procedural knowledge, which concerns a writer's knowledge about how to conduct the composing steps, including planning, drafting, revising and editing.
3. Conditional knowledge, which involves an individual's awareness of knowing when and where to apply different procedures for writing.

There are different metacognitive strategies equivalent to each stage of the writing process. For the planning stage, the equivalent strategies include identifying the writing purpose, activating prior knowledge about the topic, and formulating the draft. The strategies used for the drafting stage are: "self-questioning" and "progress-monitoring". In the last stage, responding stage, writers evaluate their written products. They consider the text understandable for readers. As the self-evaluation is very important for a writer's metacognitive activity, this stage is very significant. (El-Hindi, 1997; Englert et al., 1988; Raphael et al., 1989).

2.3 The Relationship between Writing Achievement and the Use of Reading Comprehension Strategies

Writing is a process which needs hard work, severe reading, and an extensive practice. Many students think that writing is a very hard work. There are many reasons for this attitude toward writing and one of them is inadequate reading comprehension. Reading needs an effective mental process. Skilled reader uses some strategies for comprehensive reading, such as relating the text to one's own experience, summarizing the information, concluding and asking questions on the text, and so on. An effective reading process influence one's writing achievement. Demirel, (1993) found a high correlation between reading comprehension and academic success. His findings also support this view.

2.4 Mechanical and Substantive Writing Skills

There are many differences between mechanical and substantive writing skills (e.g., Boston, 1986; Graham et al., 1993). Mechanical skills focus on surface level like: grammar, spelling, punctuation, and style (e.g., American Psychological Association, 2001; University of Chicago Press, 2003), while substantive writing skills pay more attention to global skills like: organization, clarity, and cohesion.

As researchers mentioned, expert editors use both, substantive editing and mechanical editing approach. Beginning students in writing and inexperienced teachers use mechanical skills. In contrast, experienced students and teachers use both approaches (Boston, 1986; Taylor, 1990).

Some researchers consider mechanical skills as scales for evaluations because they are more rule-governed; however, empirical research indicate that substantive and mechanical writing skills are independent of one another and teachers should teach both skills.

2.5 Beliefs about Writing

Recently, the new social cognitive view of writing "beliefs about writing" is the focus of L2 research. Many scholars have explored whether this kinds of beliefs relate to writing performance or not. Many students think that writing is a very difficult task. Boice (1982) noted that "even the most successful writers…often emphasize the frustrations more than the rewards…" Mateos et al. (2011) described these beliefs as "filters leading students to represent the task of writing to themselves in a particular way," with the various models of writing created by these beliefs leading to "different engagement patterns" (p. 284).

The empirical study done by Charney et al. (1995) and Palmquist and Young (1992) showed that some people consider writing as a special innate

gift that one either has or lacks. This especial point of view can be an excuse for those with weak writing performance. This is the teachers' duty to become aware of their students' ideas in order to prevent them from developing such a negative attitude.

2.6 Transmissional and Transactional Beliefs about Writing

According to White and Bruning (2005) two implicit beliefs that students hold about writing are transmission and transaction which are influenced the students' level of engagement in their writing. Writers with transmissional writing beliefs have lower levels of affective and cognitive engagement during the writing process. Conversely, writers with transactional writing beliefs would engage greater levels of affective and cognitive engagement. In transmissional beliefs writers consider writing as a means of transmitting information from authorities to the reader without integrating their own knowledge. By contrast, those with transactional beliefs participate in writing by using their background knowledge about the topic in addition to applying what they have learnt from the authorities. Researchers in this study found that expert writers pay more attentions to the purpose of the writing and the readers' interests and needs.

2.7 Writing Self-efficacy

Like many other abstract phenomena, self-efficacy is not easy to define but social cognitive theory views self-efficacy as a person's beliefs about his/her own abilities. Writing self-efficacy beliefs are defined as individuals' judgments of their competence in different writing tasks (Pajares & Johnson, 1996). According to Bandura, (1997) people's beliefs in their own efficacy influence all the activities they do, the amount of effort they spend, and the quality of their performance. Bandura has defined four sources of self-efficacy. The first is one's views about previous performances. If somebody views his/her activities as being successful, one's self-efficacy raises, in other case one's self-efficacy declines. The second is vicarious experience which is gained through observing others influences people's self-efficacy in addition to verbal persuasion. The last source of self-efficacy is internal feedback from one's own physical states like anxiety, stress, and mood.

Now, we can understand why individuals' performance differs even though they have similar knowledge and skills. Klassen in 2002 introduced self-efficacy beliefs as one of the strongest predictors in writing performance.

2.8 Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy

For many years, researchers have been paid more attention to the relationship between gender and self-efficacy. In general, they report that boys and men are more confident than girls and women in academic areas related to mathematics, science, and technology (Meece, 1991; Pajares& Miller, 1994;

Wigfield, Eccles, &Pintrich, 1996). Conversely, in language arts areas, male and female students show similar confidence even though the girls are more successful (Pajares, in press)

Researchers found that gender differences in every field are originated from gender orientation—the stereotypic beliefs that students hold about their gender —rather than gender itself (Eisenberg et al., 1996; Hackett, 1985; Matsui, 1994; Harter, Waters, & Whitesell, 1997). To prove this fact, Pajares and Valiante (in press) asked middle school students to report how strongly they recognized with characteristics stereotypically associated with males or females in American society. When gender orientation beliefs were controlled there was no significant relationship between gender differences in writing self-efficacy.

2.9 Self-efficacy and Performance

Researchers maintain that self-efficacy effects people's performance directly. Pajares & Frank (1995) mentioned that self-efficacy influence human behavior in three ways. First, they influence choice of behavior. People tend to do the actions which they are proficient in. In contrast, they avoid doing the activities in which they are not sure of. Second, they help to determine how much effort people will expend on an activity .The higher the self-efficacy, the greater the effort spending. Finally, self-efficacy beliefs influence individuals' thought and their reactions. People with high self-efficacy feel calm in doing difficult tasks while, people with low self-efficacy are anxious in dilemmas. Self-efficacy influences academic motivation, learning, and achievement (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1995). Students who feel competent for doing a task, participate more, work harder and persist longer when they encounter difficulties, in comparing to those who disbelief their capabilities.

2.10 Research Questions

The current study was launched to investigate the relationship of Iranian EFL learners' beliefs about writing with their L2 writing self-efficacy and performance. Specifically the present reseach attenmpted to answer the following three questions:

1. Do EFL learner's beliefs about writing relate to the EFL learner's writing performance?
2. Do EFL learners' beliefs about writing relate to their self-efficacy?
3. Does EFL learners' self-efficacy relate to their writing performance?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants took part in this study were 70 female and male students of Payam-e Noor University in Shiraz. All of them were the students at last term translation and their first language was Persian. Two intact classes were provided as samples. The average participant age was 25.

3.2 Instruments

Three instruments used in this study are as follow:

3.2.1 Beliefs about writing Questionnaire

The questionnaire examined in this study to investigate learners' beliefs about writing was adapted from White and Bruning (2005). The original questionnaire consisted of three subscales each with ten items: *Transmissional* beliefs (e.g., "The most important reason to write is to report what authorities think about a subject.") *Recursive* beliefs (e.g. "writing requires going back over it to improve what has been written."), and *Audience* beliefs (e.g. "good writers adapt their message to their readers").

3.2.2 Self-efficacy Questionnaire

The second questionnaire used in this study relates to self-efficacy writing. This instrument was adapted and modified from the writing self-efficacy scale used by Pajares, Hartley, and Valiante (2001). Eleven items on the writing self-efficacy scale measure how confident the participants feel about their writing abilities. The aspects of writing for self-evaluation on the scale include ideas and content, organization, paragraph formatting, voice and tone, word choice, sentence fluency and conventions. Moreover, the instrument measures the participants' confidence level on the scale of 0-100, as it has been theoretically proven that a 0-100 response design is psychometrically stronger than the traditional Likert format for a self-efficacy scale of writing abilities (Pajares, Hartley &Valiante, 2001).

3.2.3 Writing performance Test

Writing performance was assessed via the grade each participant gained for a writing passage he/she was asked to write. To ensure inter rater reliability, two experienced researchers graded each paper. Each of these instructors received and discussed the directions for rating the paper.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The students were asked to answer the questions after being provided with the directions. It took 15 minutes to answer both the belief questionnaire and self-efficacy writing questionnaire. After completing the questionnaires, the learners were asked to complete the writing task. For the writing task, as mentioned before, the participants were provided with a passage. The

participants' writing performance was assessed through a summarizing task. The participants were presented with 350- word passage regarding marriage and were asked to read it for 15 minutes. Then the text was collected and the participants were asked to summarize the passage in 15 minutes.

3.4 Scoring and Data Analysis

The self-efficacy questionnaire was based on a Likert scale ranging from "Can't do it" to "Completely sure I can do it". The participants were asked to read each item and chose the true option, which was true of them. The students were asked to rate the self-efficacy scale within the range of 0 to 100. Furthermore, as suggested by Pajares, Hartley, and Valiante (2001) the students were informed that the 0-100 range score represents the following self-efficacy measures:

0-10 can't do it,
20-40 medium,
50-60 sure I can do it,
70-100 sure completely I can do it.

The belief questionnaire consisted of three subscales as mentioned in "Instrument" section. This questionnaire was also based on Likert scale ranging from "Strongly agree" to" Strongly disagree". The students were asked to read each item and according to his/her own beliefs choose a number between1-5. The students were informed that the 1-5 score represents the following measures:

Strongly disagree (1) disagree (2) neutral (3) agree (4) strongly agree (5)

For analyzing the data, the mean score for each subscale was first calculated (Transmission, recursive and audience). To answer the research questions correlational analyses were used to determine the extent of the relation between the research variables. SPSS software was used to examine the correlation between these three kinds of beliefs about writing and the students' writing performance and self-efficacy.

In order to score the students' performance in their writing the independent clauses in their writing and their correct sentences were counted. Then, the ratio of correct sentences to independent clauses was estimated. The scores would be between 0-1.Grading was based on Cooper (1997) that suggests rubrics such as: sentence structure, capitalizations, spelling, agreement and word order.

4. Results and Discussion

As it is depicted in Table 1, the mean score for beliefs of 70 learners is 3.88 and the mean score for their self-efficacy is 63.49. Also the mean score for students' performance is .68

As it is depicted in Table 2 the mean score for recursive process is 3.53. For more information about the mean, maximum and minimum of other beliefs' subscales you can refer to this table.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Beliefs, Self-Efficacy and Performance

	N	*Min*	*Max*	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*
beliefs	70	2.07	4.90	3.8864	.57322
self-efficacy	70	13.63	96.00	63.4914	17.23618
performance	70	.20	1.00	.6826	.20776
valid N (list wise)	70				

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of Beliefs' Subscales

	N	*Min*	*Max*	*Mean*		*SD*
				Statistic	*Std. Error*	
Transmission	70	1.00	5.00	3.2383	.09688	.81059
Recursive	70	1.00	5.00	3.5376	.08784	.73496
Audience	70	2.25	4.75	3.7937	.07110	.59488
Performance	70	.20	1.00	.6826	.02483	.20776

For analyzing and determining whether beliefs about writing, includes three aspects of beliefs: Audience Orientation, Recursive Process, and Transmissions related to writing self-efficacy and writing performance, a number of correlations were estimated. The results are presented below.

Table 3
Correlations between Beliefs and Self-Efficacy

		beliefs	*self-efficacy*
beliefs	Pearson Correlation	1	.669**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	70	70
self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.669**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	70	70

As it is reported in Table 3, data analysis shows that the correlation between beliefs about writing and writing self-efficacy is .669 and p-value is .000. This level of Pearson correlation shows that there is a statistical relationship between beliefs about writing and writing self-efficacy.

Table 4 shows s statistically significant correlation between beliefs about writing and writing performance (r=.553, p value =.000). This level of Pearson correlation shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between beliefs about writing and writing performance.

Table 4
Correlations between Beliefs and Writing Performance

		beliefs	*performance*
beliefs	Pearson Correlation	1	.553**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	70	70
performance	Pearson Correlation	.553**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	70	70

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

As table 5 indicates there is statistically significant correlation between 2 subscales of learners' beliefs, namely *transmission* ($p< 0.05$, $r=0.24$) and *recursive* beliefs ($p <0.05$, $r=0.26$) and their performance. No statistical correlation was found between beliefs regarding *Audience* and learner's performance ($p>0.05$, $r=0.05$).

Table 5
Correlations between Beliefs' Subscales, and Writing Performance

		transmission	*Recursive*	*Audience*	*performance*
transmission	Pearson-Correlation	1	.183	.192	-.248*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.130	.112	.039
	N	70	70	70	70
recursive	Pearson-Correlation	.183	1	.404**	.262*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.130		.001	.029
	N	70	70	70	70
audience	Pearson-Correlation	.192	.404**	1	.050
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.001		.678
	N	70	70	70	70

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As it was reported in Table 6, a statistically significant relationship was found between learners' self-efficacy and their writing performance ($r=0.52$, $p<0.001$).

The current study investigated the relationship between learners' beliefs about writing and writing performance by exploring three subscales of learners' beliefs about writing. It also investigated the relationship between learners' beliefs and their writing self-efficacy. Finally, it examined the relationship between learners' self-efficacy and their L2 writing performance.

Table 6
Correlations between Self-Efficacy and Writing Performance

		self-efficacy	*performance*
self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	.520**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	70	70
performance	Pearson Correlation	.520**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	70	70

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

The results indicated that learners' beliefs about writing are correlated with the writing self-efficacy and performance. In this regard, Palmquist et.al (1992) found that beliefs about writing affect students' writing performance. In contrast, Perry (2011) mentions that it would be sheer false to state that certain writing beliefs predict especial writing quality. More specifically, the results revealed that among three subscales of learners' beliefs, transmission and recursive beliefs are significantly related to learners' performance. This means the students who cognitively and emotionally engage more in their writing process and those who believe writing is a process are more proficient in writing than others.The results support Graham et al. (1993) who stated that "the knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs that students hold about writing play an important part in determining how the composing process is carried out and what the eventual shape of the written product will be" (p. 246).

Furthermore, the results indicated positive relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance. As Pajares et.al (1999) also indicated, high writing self-efficacy was positively associated with higher writing grades, and low writing self-efficacy was associated with lower writing performance. . In order to confirm this view, Brunning, et.al (2012) investigated three dimensions of self-efficacy (self-efficacy for writing ideation, writing conventions, and writing self-regulation). The results of their research showed that all three writing self-efficacy dimensions had positive correlation with writing performance.Komarraju and Nadler (2013), indicated that low self-efficacy students believe intelligent as innate and unchangeable.

5. Conclusions and Implications

This study investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' beliefs about writing with their L2 writing self-efficacy and performance. The findings show there is a statistically significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' beliefs about writing and their L2 writing performance, also there is a statistically significant relationship between the students' L2 writing self-efficacy and their writing performance. In addition, self-efficacy could be a strong predictor of Iranian EFL writing performance. In this research undergraduate students were investigated while future studies can be done with larger, educational samples. Also, researchers can choose varieties of writing. Furthermore, researchers can examine other dimensions of belief on students' performance. The results of this study emphasizes that language teachers pay more attentions to their students' beliefs and their self-efficacy. Students' effort should be based on their own participation in their writing cognitively and emotionally. Moreover, students should write more and more to be proficient in their writing skill.

References

Publication manual of the American psychological association (5th ed.) (2001). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.

Boice, R. (1982). Teaching of writing in psychology: A review of sources. *Teaching of psychology, 9*(3), 143-147.

Boston, B. O. (1986). *Stet! Tricks of the trade for writers and editors.* Alexandria, VA: Editorial Experts, Inc.

Bruning, R., Dempsey, M., Kauffman, D. F., McKim, C., & Zumbrunn, S. (2012). Examining dimensions of self-efficacy for writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 105(1), 25-38*

Bruning, R., Dempsey, M., Kauffman, D., & Zumbrunn, S. (2011). *Writing viewed as transmission and transaction: An empirical study of implicit writing beliefs.* Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Educaional Research Association, New Orleans.

Charney, D., Newman, J. H., & Palmquist, M. (1995). "I'm just no good at writing": Epistemological style and attitudes toward writing. *Written Communication, 12,* 298-329.

Cooper, C. R., (1977). Holistic evaluation of writing. In C. Cooper, & L. Odell (Eds.), *Evaluating writing: Describing, measuring, and judging* (pp. 3-32). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Demirel, Ö. (1993). Eğitimterimlerisözlüğü: İngilizce-Türkçe, Türkçe-İngilizce. USEM Yayınları.

Eisenberg, N., Martin, C. L., & Fabes, R. A. (1996). Gender development and gender effects. In D. C. Berliner, & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology (pp. 358-396).* New York: Macmillan.

El-Hindi, A. (1997). Connecting reading and writing: College learners' metacognitive awareness. *Journal of Developmental Education, 21*(2), 10-16.

Englert, C. S., Raphael, T. E., Fear, K. L., & Anderson, L. M. (1988). Students' metacognitive knowledge about how to write informational texts. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 11*(1), 18-46.

Englert, C., Raphael, T., Fear, K., & Anderson, L. (1988). Students' metacognitive knowledge about how to write informational texts. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 11,* 18-46.

Graham, S., & Perin, D. (2007). A meta-analysis of writing instruction for adolescent students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99(3),* 445-476.

Graham, S., Schwartz, S., & MacArthur, C., (1993). Knowledge of writing and the composing process, attitude toward writing, and self-efficacy for students with and without learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 26*(4), 237-249.

Gregorian, V. (2007). Foreword. In S. Graham, & D. Perin (Eds.), *Writing next: Effective strategies to improve writing of adolescents in middle and high schools—A report to Carnegie Corporation of New York* (pp. 1-2). Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Hackett, G. (1985). The role of mathematics self-efficacy in the choice of math-related majors of college women and men: A path analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 32,* 47-56.

Harter, S., Waters, P., & Whitesell, N. (1997). Lack of voice as a manifestation of false self-behavior among adolescents: The school setting as a stage upon which the drama of authenticity is enacted. *Educational Psychologist, 32,* 153 173.

Ismail, S. (2011). Exploring students' perceptions of ESL writing. *English Language Teaching, 4*(2), 143-155.

Klassen, R. (2002). Writing in early adolescence: A review of the role of self-efficacy beliefs. *Educational Psychology Review, 14*(2), 173-203.

Komarraju, M., & Nadler, D. (2013). Self-efficacy and academic achievement: Why do implicit beliefs, goals, and effort regulation matter? *Learning and Individual Differences, 25,* 67-72.

Lin, C. H. S., & Wen, L. Y. M. (2007). Academic dishonesty in higher education: A nationwide study in Taiwan. *Higher Education, 54(1*), 85-97.

Lin, S., Monroe, B., & Troia, G. (2007). Development of Writing Knowledge in Grades 2-8: A Comparison of Typically Developing Writers and Their Struggling Peers. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 23*(3), 207-230.

Mateos, M., Cuevas, I., Martin, E., Martın, A., Echeita, G., & Luna, M. (2011). Reading to write an argumentation: The role of epistemological, reading and writing beliefs. *Journal of Research in Reading, 34*(3), 281-292.

Matsui, T. (1994). Mechanisms underlying sex differences in career self-efficacy expectations of university students. *Journal of vocational behavior, 45*(2), 177-184.

Meece, J. L. (1991). The classroom context and students' motivational goals. In M. L. Maehr, & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement, Vol. 7* (pp. 261-285). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

National Commission on Writing. (2004). *Writing, a ticket to work…or a ticket out: A survey of business leaders.* Retrieved from www.collegeboard.com/.../writingcom/writing-ticket-to-w.

Pajares, F. (1995). *Self-efficacy in academic settings.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (SanFrancisco, CA, April 18-22, 1995).

Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of educational research*, *66*(4), 543-578.

Pajares, F., & Miller, M. D. (1994). The role of self-efficacy and self-concept beliefs in mathematical problem-solving: A path analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 86*, 193- 203.

Pajares, F., & Johnson, M. J. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs and the writing performance of entering high school students. *Psychology in the Schools, 33*, 163-175.

Pajares, F., Hartley, J., & Valiante, G. (2001). Response format in writing self-efficacy assessment: Greater discrimination increases prediction. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 33*, 214-221.

Pajares, F., Miller, D. M., & Johnson, M. J. (1999). Gender differences in writing self-beliefs of elementary school students. Journal *of Educational Psychology, 91*(1), 50-61.

Palmquist, M., & Young, R. (1992). The notion of giftedness and student expectations about writing. *Written Communication, 9*, 137-168.

Perry, K. R. (2011) Implicit Beliefs About Writing: A Task-Specific Study of Implicit Beliefs. *Education and Human Sciences, College of (CEHS), Paper 119*; *pp. 1-8.*

Proett, J., & Gill, K. (1986). *The writing process in action: A handbook for teachers*. National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana.

Raphael, T. E., Englert, C. S., & Kirschner, B. W. (1989). Students' metacognitive knowledge about writing. *Research in the Teaching of English, 23*(4), 343-379.

Saddler, B., & Graham, S. (2007). The relationship between writing knowledge and writing performance among more and less skilled writers. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 23*(3), 231-247.

Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy and education and instruction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 281-303). New York: Plenum Press.

Seow, A. (2002). The writing process and process writing. *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice, 315*-320.

Taylor, P. S. (1990). EEI's levels of editing. In A. R. Molpus (Ed.), *The expert editor: Tips, advice, insights, and solutions* (pp. 85-86). Alexandria, VA: Editorial Experts, Inc.

The Chicago manual of style: The essential guide for writers, editors, and publishers (15th ed.). (2003). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

White, M. J., & Bruning, R. (2005). Implicit writing beliefs and their relation to Writing quality. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30,* 166-189.

Wigfield, A., Eccles, J., MacIver, D., Reuman, D., & Midgley, C. (1991). Transitions at early adolescence: Changes in children's domain-specific self-perceptions and general selfesteem across the transition to junior high school. *Developmental Psychology, 27,* 5527565.

Wong, B. (1999). Metacognition in writing. In R. Gallimore, L. P., Bernheimer, D. L., MacMillan, D. L., Speece, & S. Vaughn (Eds.), *Developmental perspectives on children with high-incidence disabilities* (pp. 183-198). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.