A CASE STUDY: THE POTENTIAL IMPACT OF TASK-BASED
INSTRUCTION ON EFL LEARNERS' WRITING SELF-EFFICACY

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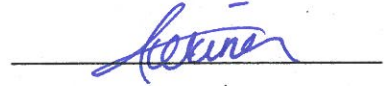

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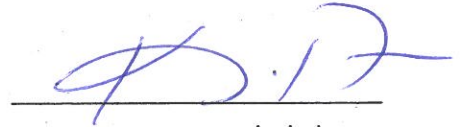
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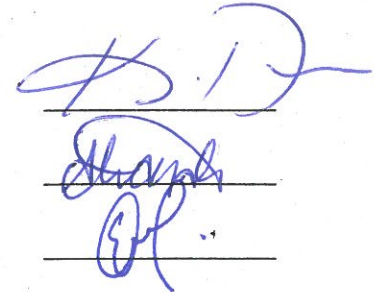
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ABSTRACT

A CASE STUDY: THE POTENTIAL IMPACT OF TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION ON EFL LEARNERS' WRITING SELF-EFFICACY

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Master's Thesis, Master's Program in English Language Teaching
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The study investigates the impact of task-based instruction (TBI) on EFL learners' writing self-efficacy and the potential factors which influence the sense of efficacy. The study comprised 28 intermediate level students who were studying English at Izmir University School of Foreign Languages. They were selected through random clustering and trained for four weeks through the principles of task-based instruction. They were instructed to complete creative and problem-solving tasks, based on task-oriented collaborative writing. In order to collect data, both quantitative and qualitative research paradigm were applied. Data collection tools were a task-based writing self-efficacy scale (TBWSES) and written reports collected from all participants. The scale was created by the researcher by ensuring validity and reliability using factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha item analysis on SPSS. The items in the scale were questions about the intended learning outcomes of the training. In order to obtain correlational analysis, learners were given the scale twice, before and after the training. Responses in the scales were analyzed using SPSS to perform paired sample t-test. The aim was to investigate the potential impact of the training on learners' writing self-efficacy. In addition, qualitative data analysis was done using the data obtained from written reports. The aim was to gain a deeper understanding of inhibitive and facilitative factors which influence learners' sense of efficacy in second language writing.

Key words: Task-based Instruction, Learner Self-efficacy, Teaching Writing Skill

ÖZ

ÖRNEK OLAY İNCELEMESİ: GÖREV TEMELLİ ÖĞRENMENİN
İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN YAZMA
ÖZ YETERLİLİĞİNE POTANSİYEL ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışma, görev temelli öğretim tekniğinin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin yazma öz yeterliliği üzerine olan etkisini ve öz yeterliliği etkileyen potansiyel faktörleri incelemiştir. Çalışmaya, İzmir Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'nda okuyan ve dil seviyesi orta düzeyde olan 28 öğrenci katılmıştır. Katılımcılar uygun öreneklememe yöntemi ile seçilmiş ve dört hafta boyunca görev temelli öğrenme tekniği ile eğitilmiştir. Öğrencilerden yaratıcı ve problem çözmeye dayalı yazma görevlerini işbirlikli öğrenme yöntemi ile tamamlamaları istenmiştir. Veri toplamak için hem nicel hem nitel yöntemler uygulanmıştır. Veri toplama araçları tüm katılımcılardan toplanan görev temelli yazma öz yetkinlik ölçeği ve yazılı raporlardır. Ölçek, araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiştir ve sosyal bilimler istatistik analizi (SPSS) programı aracılığı ile faktör analizi ve Cronbach's Alpha analizleri yapılarak güvenirlik ve geçerliliği test edilmiştir. Ölçek maddeleri, verilen eğitimle hedeflenen kazanımlarla ilgilidir. Ölçek, korelasyon analizi yapmak için eğitim öncesi ve sonrası olmak üzere iki defa uygulanmıştır. Ölçekteki soruların incelenmesi için t-testi uygulanmıştır. Amaç, verilen eğitimin öğrencilerin yazma öz yetkinliğine olan etkisini araştırmaktır. Ek olarak, yazılı raporlardan toplanan nicel verilerin analizleri yapılmıştır. Amaç, öğrencilerin yabancı dilde yazma öz yetkinliğini engelleyen veya kolaylaştıran faktörleri tam olarak anlayabilmektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Görev Temelli Öğrenme, Öğrenci Öz Yeterliliği, Yazma Becerisinin Öğretimi

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

TBI: Task-Based Instruction

TBWSES: Task-Based Writing Self-Efficacy Scale

TBL: Task-Based Learning

TBLT: Task-Based Language Teaching

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference

ESL: English as a Second Language

L1   First (Native) Language

L2   Second Language

Ss   Students

SLT   Social Learning Theory

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Overview

In this chapter, a brief summary of the issues concerning the theoretical framework of the study, the statement of the problem, research questions, purpose and significance of the study have been discussed.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

Task-based instruction (TBI) brings together a number of philosophical perspectives and research traditions. These include experiential learning, socio-constructivist learning, collaborative teaching and learning, and student-centered learning. TBI mostly attracted the attention of second language acquisition (SLA) researchers who coined this term in reaction to common teaching implications of teacher-dominated, form-oriented second language classroom practices (Long & Norris, 2000). As Van den Branden (2006) stated, task-based instruction has introduced the "top-down" process into the world of language education (p. 1). This approach to language teaching requires learners to work collaboratively, supporting one another to maximize learning and task outcomes. According to Swain and Lapkin (2000), collaborative dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building is a significant component of this type of learning. In a study, they demonstrated that "through such dialogue students engage in co-constructing their L2 knowledge and in building knowledge about it" (p. 254).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

According to Grabe and Kaplan (1998), "although theories of writing have been developed and implications have been suggested by researchers, there is not a major consensus to allow for significant advances in writing instruction compared with the achievements in reading instruction" (p. 37). As such, there seems to be dissatisfaction with the implications of studies which have investigated methodology of writing. Therefore, this study might address this particular problem with its teaching implications in practical sense by presenting an alternative method to teaching writing – task-based instruction.

Another issue which will be addressed in the present study is the investigation of learners' writing self-efficacy. Pajares et al. (2007) claimed that self-beliefs about writing have received modest attention both from researchers in the field of composition and from self-efficacy researchers since the focus was generally on teaching mathematics rather than teaching writing skills either in first or second language (p. 141). It is apparent that the potential impact of perceived academic self-efficacy on language learning is not a prevalent topic in the field of language teaching. This study will presumably contribute to literature by investigating the causal structure of promoting or inhibiting learners' efficacy expectations about carrying out collaborative writing tasks. Moreover, collegiate writing instructors might consider self-efficacy beliefs in language teaching and gain fresh and new insights into learners' beliefs about their capabilities.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

One major aim of the study is to explore the impact of task-based instruction training on EFL learners' perceived writing self-efficacy. More specifically, the present study will investigate to what extent TBI contributes to learners' self-efficacy beliefs about creative and collaborative writing along with using appropriate style in writing. Moreover, it is also directed that this study will be an experiment to explore the dimensions of the potential impact areas of task-based teaching of writing.

1.5 Research Questions

1. To what extent does task-based instruction affect English language learners' writing self-efficacy?

2. What are the facilitative and inhibitive factors in the development of self-efficacy in writing?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is motivated by an attempt to explore the issues of teaching writing and developing self-efficacy of language learners. The literature says for the former issue that "although much has already been learned about second language writing processes, so much more lies undiscovered" (Krapels, 1990, p. 53). This study is important to reveal the areas which need to be explored about teaching writing. Moreover, it is evident that there is not much research designed to implement TBI to

develop writing skills compared to speaking. It is important to provide an alternative approach to composing writing since the writing process is demanding due to the cognitive load it puts on learners. In this respect, task-based learning (TBL) might lessen the demanding nature of writing and the cognitive load of learners and this is likely to produce positive results. With the results of this study, more attention might be directed to task-based teaching of writing. Moreover, the methodology in this study has been designed considering the universals of composing because TBL is an approach which can be used not only in the current EFL context, but also in other teaching contexts such as teaching immigrants in the ESL context. Therefore, it might provide insights to researchers or instructors from different domains.

As for the latter issue, developing self-efficacy of language learners, it was claimed by Jabbarifar (2011) that although there is a growing body of research which indicates how self-efficacy pertains to almost every aspect of one's life, including foreign language learning, apparently, it has not received much attention compared to other cognitive and affective issues in foreign language learning (p. 117). Yet still, the findings from several studies found that students' confidence in their writing capabilities influence their writing motivation as well as various writing outcomes in an educational context (Pajares, 2003, p. 144). Considering that there is a positive correlation between efficacy beliefs and learning, this area of language learning needs more attention from researchers. This study will contribute to the field not only by increasing the number of studies which focus on writing self-efficacy but also by suggesting implications to discover the forces and impacts in motives and the beliefs of learners.

In this chapter, a brief summary of the theoretical framework, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, and significance of the study have been discussed. In the next chapter, literature on writing pedagogy, task-based instruction and the concept of self-efficacy have been reviewed. The third chapter examines the methodology in detail. It explains the participants, instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures and limitations of the study. The fourth chapter presents data analysis which contains the summary of the collected data, the analysis, and the summarized findings. The last chapter is the conclusion which covers the findings, implications as well as suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Overview

This study examines the impact of task-based writing on EFL learners' perception of writing and on the improvement of sense of efficacy through collaborative writing tasks. An experimental study was conducted to investigate whether the implementation of task-based writing could improve students' self-efficacy and perception of the writing skill.

This chapter presents background information on the second language writing and teaching of writing in historical perspective to its current place in task-based instruction. This is followed by a more detailed discussion of key precepts of tasks and teacher's role in task based learning. Also, review of literature was presented to refer to self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, self-efficacy in language teaching and writing. Each section and subsection was numbered according to APA 6th edition rules to present ideas in a detailed and organized way.

2.2 Second Language Writing

According to Byrne (1988), although writing seems to be making marks on a flat surface, it is much more than the production of graphic symbols. He said "we produce a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order and linked together in certain ways" (p.1). In this regard, writing is not only producing one sentence after another. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1998), "writing is a *technology*, a set of skills which must be practiced and learned through experience" (p. 6). "Technology" is defined as "the application of scientific knowledge for practical purposes" (Oxford Dictionary, 2015). When this statement is contemplated, writing can be interpreted as a skill that requires the use of linguistic knowledge for practical purposes such as to communicate, to remember, to call to action, to narrate, or to create.

Writing is a medium of communication between writer and reader, which involves "the encoding of a message; that is, translating one's thoughts into language" (Byrne, 1988, p.1). Although the main purpose of writing is to communicate a particular message to a reader, in some cases the writer may not

know to whom the message will be put across. For this reason, a writer has to make sure that the message has been conveyed without causing confusion or misinterpretation in reader's mind. That is, "a writer has to create a context and, therefore, has to be fully explicit" (p. 3). Moreover, writing involves devices such as punctuation, capitalization or underlining, which help convey meaning. These are some of the reasons that make writing a skill which needs special attention. There are also other characteristic features of writing which can be considered to distinguish it from speaking as a productive skill. In written communication, neither is there interaction between reader and writer nor immediate feedback is provided by the reader; thus, a writer may need to anticipate reader's reactions and integrate them into the text (Byrne, 1988, p.3). While this seems to put writing at a disadvantage, the fact that writing is a permanent source of information is a major advantage. This, obviously, gives the reader the opportunity to read the text at his or her own pace and reread it as often as needed.

Despite the fact that getting accustomed to L1 writing is relatively easier than getting accustomed to writing in L2, this is a skill which cannot usually be developed without effort and practice in both cases. Grabe and Kaplan (1998) stated that people can learn to speak or listen without assistance from other people; however, that is not the case for reading and writing. Most people do not know how to read and write until they attend primary education and they learn consciously how to develop these skills with the assistance of their teachers or tutors. By this time, their command of the spoken language is quite developed but their experience of the written language is still very limited; as a matter of fact, writing is a totally new experience for most of them. According to Byrne (1988), most children acquire writing in a laborious way; in other words, they develop this skill in a way that takes considerable time and effort. As the nature of the task is demanding, many children do not enjoy writing. Furthermore, the tendency of learners' negative attitude towards writing is partly because "out of school, it has little value for them as a form of social interaction, although in most cultures the ability to write carries prestige" (Byrne, 1988, p. 5). In this regard, it is not hard to imagine that most children leave school without becoming really proficient in writing and only a few of them carry this skill into their adult life in an attempt to use it professionally.

In light of this, language teachers need to make some pedagogic assumptions regarding the writing process and proficiency level of L2 learners. Byrne (1988) suggested that L2 teachers should not assume that their learners are proficient at writing in their mother tongue, or that they are equipped with the necessary organizational skills for writing effectively. This is because, as mentioned above, their previous experience of learning to write was probably frustrating and that was likely to result in adopting a negative attitude towards writing. More importantly, although global transfer -the ability of transferring L1 skills into L2 skills- is observed in other skills, it may not be succeeded easily when it comes to writing. In other words, even if a learner has inherent talent in L1 writing, this may not be transferred to the foreign language excellently (Byrne, 1988, pp. 5-6).

2.3 Teaching Second Language Writing

Writing is a kind of productive skill in which interlanguage developmental process can be observed concretely not only by instructors but also learners themselves. Although, compared with other skills, this puts writing at an advantage, the complexity of both writing and teaching writing needs serious consideration. As it was suggested by Silva (1990), "to be effective teachers of writing, English as a second language (ESL) professionals need an understanding of what is involved in second language (L2) writing" (p. 11).

Silva (1990, p. 18) not only defines L2 writing as "purposeful and contextualized communicative interaction, which involves both the construction and transmission of knowledge" but also explains the five basic elements of writing (Figure 1). He suggested that one of the basic elements of L2 writing is *the L2 writer* – the person who needs to be addressed in terms of personal knowledge, attitudes, and characteristics; cultural orientation; language proficiency; motivation, and so on. The second element is *the L1 reader* which is the primary audience while the third one is *the L2 text*. Genre, aims, modes, discourse structures, inter-sentential phenomena, syntax, lexis and print-code features are some of the essentials of texts that need to be considered. As it is seen in the figure below, *the contexts* - cultural, political, social, economic, situational, physical- for L2 writing is another basic element of L2 writing. Moreover, *the interaction* of these elements in a variety of settings is needed to fulfill the purposes of L2 writing.

CONTEXT

Writer ⟷ Text ⟷ Reader
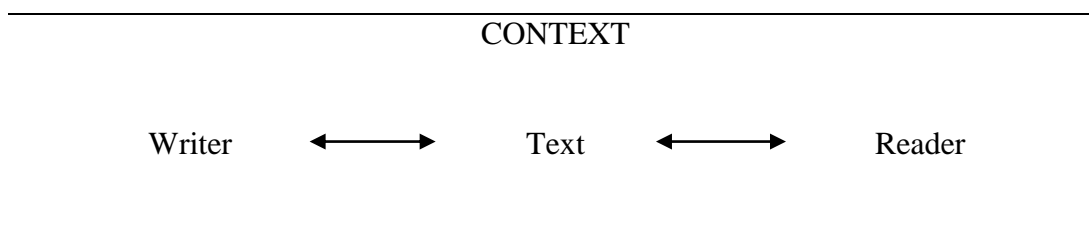
Figure 1. Elements of second language writing (Silva, 1990)

Grabe and Kaplan (1998) suggested that there are certain instructional notions that run through many themes. First, the writing assignment should be at the level that learners can handle. Even beginner level learners can complete writing tasks as long as they are designed according to their level of proficiency. Second, students need to be given opportunities to work in groups on a regular basis. This will provide them with a non-threatening environment to compare their work with others. Third, there should be a wide variety of activities so that students can explore ideas and information in multiple ways. Fourth, "students should also explore many aspects of language form and language use through these activities". In this way, learners can notice effective uses of language and explore a variety of writing situations. This will, apparently, raise student awareness about language (p. 301).

Byrne (1988) claimed that writing is a skill worth developing in the foreign language on pedagogical grounds (p. 7). He supported his claim by suggesting a variety of pedagogical purposes writing serves (p. 6). First of all, for some learners, writing might be a more secure way of expressing oneself compared with *speaking* as a productive skill. These learners might benefit from writing in order to build and retain knowledge. Writing also has an important role in providing the learners with some "tangible evidence" for the progress they make in the language. Moreover, writing is prone to including activities that integrate skills effectively. This is important in order to increase L2 exposure. Writing also provides variety in a language class; that is, it serves as a break from oral work creating a quieter and released atmosphere. Another pedagogical purpose that writing serves is to assess leaners' language proficiency. Therefore, it is often needed for formal and informal testing (pp. 6-7). Regarding these propositions, teachers can make good use of writing by integrating it with other skills and using it as an essential tool of teaching and assessment.

How to teach writing is an issue in most of the cases. According to Byrne (1988), an effective way would be to enable learners to "see the purpose of writing and make measurable progress through the performance of realistic and relevant tasks" (p. 7). Pincas (1982) predicated an ideal approach to teaching writing. She indicated that writing should be taught in order to fulfill three main aims: to widen the scope of writing, to render it as communicative or functional as possible, and to accomplish its own aims rather than reinforcing grammar and vocabulary lessons. She developed this point by explaining that writing assignments should be extended beyond "the artificial, unrealistic school type compositions of traditional teaching" by practicing as many varieties as possible (p. 2). She also stated that these varieties should be chosen considering normal communicative purposes or functions that writing is used for in everyday life. To illustrate, students can fill in a job application form or they can create posters for an event or they can write birthday cards. These different genres require the development of various forms of written English. As such, students can gain insight into the skills for effective writing by using different kinds of lexical items and language structures for different communicative purposes. Also, it is well known that when students are given a particular purpose, they are motivated by a desire to accomplish the task they are given. As Pincas suggested, "for all ages, and all levels, motivation is increased if writing is placed in a realistic context" (p. 4). In this regard, tailoring writing classes in accordance with this approach might be considered as one of the writing teacher's essential responsibilities.

2.3.1 Teaching writing at intermediate level. Considering that intermediate level learners presumably have mastered basic skills and have experience in writing, they need to arm with some additional skills such as analyzing and evaluating the information they gather from written or spoken source and involve the gathered information in writing, which requires completion of relatively complex tasks. Grabe and Kaplan (1998) pointed out that "the intermediate student is one who is able to write on a basic level and now must use writing to learn a wide range of other academic information" (p. 303). In essence, learners can do a written work on a "more extensive scale" as writing may become "a goal" in itself at this level (Byrne, 1988, p. 7).

By the time a student reaches intermediate level of language proficiency, s/he is expected to have some control over language in terms of application of language structures and vocabulary use. That is, at this level "learners need to be able to organize more complex sets of information and develop fluency with a wider range of genres and formal structures of written discourse" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1998, p. 303). Moreover, learners at this level advance the range of words and syntactic structures they use in their written assignment. At the same time, learners develop the sense of purpose and audience in their writing (p. 303). In order to gain more insight into the intended outcomes of intermediate level, it can be helpful to overview the descriptive and illustrative scales (Table 1) of Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages (pp. 27-62). CEFR was described as follows in the report published by The Council of Europe (1999, p.1):

> The Common European Framework of Reference provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively.

Table 1

Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages: Writing descriptors for B2 (Intermediate) level (The Council of Europe, 1999, p.1)

	Descriptive and illustrative scales
Overall written production	Can write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest, synthesizing and evaluating information and arguments from a number of sources
Overall written interaction	Can express news and views effectively in writing, and relate to those of others
Correspondence	Can write letters conveying degrees of emotion and highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences and commenting on the correspondent's news and views
Reports & Essays	Can write an essay or report that develops an argument systematically with appropriate highlighting of significant points and relevant supporting detail Can evaluate different ideas or solutions to a problem Can write an essay or report which develops an argument, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view and explaining the advantages and disadvantages of various options Can synthesize information and arguments from a number of sources

Creative writing	Can write clear, detailed descriptions on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest Can write a review of a film, book or play Can write clear, detailed descriptions of real or imaginary events and experiences marking the relationship between ideas in clear connected text, and following established conventions of the genre concerned

2.4 Approaches to Second Language Writing

Silva (1990) pointed out that although developments in ESL composition have been influenced by and, in some cases are parallel to the developments in the teaching of writing to native speakers of English, the context constructed by ESL composition entails "somewhat distinct perspectives, models and practices" (p. 11). The origin of the principles, methods, and implications have been found to concur with the beginning of the modern era of second language teaching in the United States and since then, about 1945, several influential approaches emerged.

Controlled composition is said to have developed its roots in Charle Fries' oral approach, which paved the way of the Audiolingual Method (Silva, 1990). The underlying principle of this approach is grounded on behavioristic psychology which sees learning as habit formation. To that end, learning to write in a second language was not more than an exercise for language structure. In order to achieve linguistic accuracy, learners were given short texts in which the activities generally involved slot-fillers and other form-based exercises (Hyland, 2003). As learners were guided to work on fixed patterns, the teacher provided feedback with the intent of identifying and correcting problems to improve students' command of language use.

> The writer is simply a manipulator of previously learned language structures; the reader is the ESL teacher in the role of editor or proofreader, not especially interested in the quality of ideas or expression but primarily concerned with formal linguistic features. (Silva, 1990, p.13)

Today, controlled writing techniques are used in writing classes with the purposes of building vocabulary, providing language scaffolding and increasing the confidence of novice writers (Hyland, 2003). Although it is still referred to as a way of teaching language, Hyland proposes some concerns about the activities based on this approach in terms of teaching writing effectively. One of the foremost doubts is whether grammar and syntax knowledge can be the best measures of good writing.

The fact that a learner produces accurate sentences may not mean that he or she can produce appropriate written texts. If the focus is restricted to grammar, learners might lack the sense of structuring text coherently. Or learners might hesitate to take risks while writing as they focus on linguistic accuracy rather than conveying the meaning across. There is a high degree of probability that it hinders making progress in writing. Another concern is that learners are presented with language patterns in short fragments. That is, learners are exposed to texts created for coursebooks rather than analyzing authentic texts in real situations. This might not only restrict language development but also confuse students when they need to write in other situations. Last but not least, if learners see writing only as surface forms, they might lack the understanding of writing as a communicative tool. As Hyland (2003) stated, "students need an understanding of how words, sentences and larger discourse structures can shape and express the meanings they want to convey" (p. 5).

Once it was seen that learners could not transfer the skills mastered through habit formation to communicative use outside the classroom, the idea of forming a set of habits for language practice was seriously challenged (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). Therefore, in 1960 and onwards, some theoretical approaches revealed distinct aspects of language learning and teaching. As for writing instruction, this period "brought an increasing awareness of ESL students' needs with regard to producing extended written discourse" (Silva, 1990, p.13). The approach that emerged to fill this vacuum was *current-traditional rhetoric* or simply *functional approach*. The central concern of this approach was that "particular language forms perform certain communicative functions and that students can be taught the functions most relevant to their needs" (Hyland, 2003, p. 6). In other words, classroom procedures associated with this view of writing instruction uses functions as the means for achieving communicative purposes of writing.

Today, this approach is still influential at higher education institutions which aim to teach academic writing to L2 students (Hyland, 2003). One major interest of this approach is paragraph development through logical construction and arrangement of discourse forms. The focus in composing paragraphs is not only given on the paragraph's organizational components, e.g. topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence, but also is on the development of different types of paragraphs e.g. comparison, contrast, casual analysis (Silva, 1990). Often, fixed

patterns are provided for students and they are guided to generate sentences based on these prescribed structures. In other words, "the writer fills in a pre-existing form with provided or self-generated content" (p. 14). Although the paragraphs are extended to essay level production and different types of essays have their own particular organizational patterns, writing, based on this instructional approach, "is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns" (p. 14). In other words, L2 students compose writing in a larger discourse compared with sentence level production, but they are not encouraged to write freely. In this regard, the nature of guided composition instruction makes it a bridge between free composition and controlled composition.

Experts were in search of a new approach for writing instruction due to the dissatisfaction with controlled composition and the current-traditional approach. "Many felt that neither approach adequately fostered thought or its expression" (Silva, 1990, p. 15). Meanwhile, there was an emphasis on "cognition, thinking process" for language acquisition. Noam Chomsky was one of the prominent figures of this period. He argued that human cognition was an important element of language acquisition. Thus, it could not possibly take place through habit formation (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). The attention to human cognition led to the development of *the process approach*. The underlying principle of this approach was that form is not predetermined; rather, content, ideas, and the need to communicate would determine it. "Composing means expressing ideas, conveying meaning. Composing means thinking" (Raimes, 1983, p. 261 as cited in Silva, 1990, p. 15). In essence, the fundamental assumption of writing process is a "non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983, p. 165 as cited in Hyland, 2003, p. 11). In other words, from a process perspective, writing is recursive and a written work can be reviewed, evaluated, and revised before finalizing it. Moreover, each activity may require another one without calling for a fixed order in the process (Hyland, 2003).

As for the classroom context, a positive, encouraging, and collaborative workshop environment is entailed by this approach. Since in a process based writing class, the writer is the center of attention -someone who is the producer of ideas and responsible for expression of meaning- the teacher is expected to minimize

interference with the students' writing process but provide help. It is emphasized that L2 learners have to be provided with help for getting started, for drafting, for revising and for editing (Silva, 1990). These are activities implemented to develop learners' metacognitive awareness of the process.

> This is achieved through setting pre-writing activities to generate ideas about content and structure, encouraging brainstorming and outlining, requiring multiple drafts, giving extensive feedback, seeking text level revisions, facilitating peer responses, and delaying surface corrections until the final editing. (Raimes, 1992 as cited in Hyland, 2003, p. 12)

2.4.1 Task-based approach in writing. Willis (1996) identified the aim of a task as "to create real purpose for language use and provide a natural context for language study" (p. 1). She pointed out that the emphasis in TBL is on understanding and conveying meaning in order to complete the task successfully. She also stated that tasks are goal-oriented and they should have an outcome (p. 24). With regards to completing a writing task, it is suggested by Richards and Renandya (2002) that:

> Opportunities for production may force students to pay close attention to form and to the relationship between form and meaning. It is assumed that this combination of contextualized, meaningful input and output will engage learners' general cognitive processing capacities through which they will process and reshape the input. In other words, tasks will likely create a rich linguistic environment capable of activating the leaners' intuitive heuristics (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), which are natural cognitive processes used both consciously and unconsciously for developing the somewhat separate rules systems that underlie language comprehension and production. (p. 97)

Hyland (2003) described tasks as "the routes learners take to solve the problems in the classroom", and adds that "the importance of tasks results from the fact that learning to write involves engaging in activities rather than learning discrete items" (p. 112). He also stated that when students are assigned tasks, they are provided with an opportunity to determine their "learning experiences" and their "understanding of texts and a control of writing skills" (p. 112). In this regard, tasks are important "tools" not only to enrich variety in a writing class but also to

encourage writing, which is accomplished by creating different settings for different purposes rather than introducing a topic and asking students to write a text about it.

Tasks in the L2 writing class are put into two groups: *real-world tasks* and *pedagogic tasks* (Hyland, 2003, p. 113). The former is based directly on the learners' target communicative goals. In other words, the design of the task reflects the question: to what extent it is related to the real world. The more it mirrors the real-world, the more it is authentic and suitable for task-based language teaching (TBLT). On the other hand, the latter one, pedagogic tasks, cannot be said to be detrimental to learning process. On the contrary, they do have a place in TBLT and they are useful instruments to promote discrete skills generally needed to fulfil the task objectives. In L2 writing, they are designed to develop learners' genre knowledge and composing skills as well as sub-skills such as punctuation, pre-writing abilities, or understanding of rhetorical forms (p. 113). Hyland (2003) suggested that such tasks should contribute to students' ultimate communicative goals rather than being taught in isolation.

Skehan (1996) developed a scheme showing the sequence of a task on the ground of work by Candlin (1987) and Nunan (1989). The scheme (Table 2) distinguishes three factors which contribute to the difficulty of tasks and they are helpful to assess the appropriateness of tasks when analyzed on the basis of these factors. When the table is examined, it is apparent that it starts with *code complexity*. It is associated with syntactic and lexical difficulty and range. *Cognitive complexity* is related to content of what is said and it is classified into two areas: processing and familiarity. *Processing* is concerned with the amount of active thinking during the task cycle while *familiarity* involves the extent to which a learner has relevant aspects of schematic knowledge. Another factor which is associated with task complexity is *communicative stress*. It deals with the five distinct factors which have impact on the pressure of communication. *Time pressure*, as is also understood from the term, is specific period of time in which a task needs to be completed. *Modality* is grounded on the theory of Ellis (1987 as cited in Skehan, 1996, p. 52). He contrasted skills and suggested that speaking leads to more pressure than writing, and listening causes more pressure than reading. Therefore, a teacher needs to consider the pressure of these skills while designing a task. *Scale* requires to measure the number of task-based related factors such as the number of participants. *Stakes* is associated

with the level of importance to carry out a task. In other words, the extent of meeting objectives defines the importance of the task. If students only complete a task, without an outcome (a report or error analysis) the stakes are low. If, on the other hand, students learn how to use language correctly at the end of the task, that means objective is met and stakes are high (Willis, 1993 as cited in Skehan, 1996, p. 52). *Control* refers to the amount of participant influence on a task. In other words, it is associated with how learners can deal with the task cycle. If, for example, participants can negotiate and share roles in groups, it is possible to make inference that the control is higher. The purpose of following such a scheme is to allow a teacher to choose a well-designed task and to have an effective balance between fluency and accuracy and to provide the opportunity for restructuring the language in further language use (p. 53).

Table 2

Task sequencing features

Code complexity
Cognitive complexity
Cognitive processing
Cognitive familiarity
Communicative stress
Time pressure
Modality
Scale
Stakes
Control

Hyland (2003) pointed out that although writing tasks vary remarkably regarding their focus, with the demands they make on learners, the scaffolding they provide for writers, and the extent of their connection to the real-world, they have features in common which need to be regarded when designing and evaluating tasks. Hyland suggested some implications for writing task design in light of five core components put forward by Nunan (1989, pp. 116 - 120). The first component is task *input* which can be provided by textual, visual, aural, electronic, or multimedia data.

A range of diverse sources can be utilized as input as long as they present language or inform about writing (Tomlinson, 1998 as cited in Hyland, 2003). The *goal* of a task, a further element, is defined as "general intention that lies behind it, relating to the objectives of the unit and beyond these to those of the syllabus (Richards, 2011 as cited in Hyland, 2003). Task goals may not be stated explicitly yet still they always need to be considered by teachers or task designers in order to meet learner needs and course outcomes. Another consideration of task design is *setting*, which has two dimensions. *Physical setting* refers to where the learning will take place whilst *social setting* concerns how learners are asked to engage with the activities, basically, the interaction patterns during the task. Setting is an important aspect of task design as it offers variety. Students do not have to complete all of their writing assignments in the classroom; in other words, teacher may consider to balance in-class and out-of-class assignments. Moreover, writing does not have to be an isolated, private act. In fact, working on a writing task cooperatively is required in real life, especially in work places. Therefore, its advantages are worth considering to provide real-life rehearsal. To illustrate, when the unit in the coursebook deals with business, students can be assigned to write a sales report in groups and they can be encouraged to do some research to make the activity more meaningful. Teacher and student *roles* is another element of task-based writing. Although teacher's role might vary according to task type or the stage of a particular task, basically he or she is suggested to be a facilitator during the task phase, adopting less controlling roles. Students, on the other hand, are active participants who are responsible for their own learning process. *Activity*, "which specifies how the input will actually be used", is the final component of tasks. As the indented goals and the types of knowledge might vary in writing classes, the focus of the activities might diverge as well. To illustrate, activities which are designed to deal with mechanics target to develop graphological skills and focus on handwriting, punctuation, and paragraphing skills. *Language scaffolding* tasks, on the other hand, aim to develop linguistic and rhetorical skills needed to engage in different genres.

2.4.1.1 Key precepts of task-based approach. As defined by Skehan (1996), "for present purposes a task is taken to be an activity in which meaning is primary, there is some sort of relationship to the real world, task completion has some priority, and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome" (p. 38). "It is the

challenge of achieving the outcome that makes TBL a motivating procedure in the classroom" (Willis, 1996, p. 24). Although there are some criticisms related to using task-based activities in the classroom, it is favored by many teachers and researchers. One major reason to advocate TBL is the potential contribution of task-based approach to the second language acquisition processes (Skehan, 1996).

Tasks are considered to be valuable in terms of providing input to learners and opportunities for meaningful language use (Swain, 1995 as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002). Ellis (2009) argues in his paper that most of the recent critiques about TBL stem from the misunderstanding of what a task is and its underlying theories. He suggested that task-based teaching is not devised particularly to replace traditional, form-focused approaches; on the contrary, tasks can be integrated into this kind of educational context as they are susceptible to variation.

The range of task objectives might differ according to level of the learners and attained goals of the course. Thus, the existing tasks can be modified by the instructor, on the basis of learner needs and intended learning outcomes. Skehan (1996) suggested three components - fluency, accuracy and restructuring - to meet the learning objectives from three aspects. When implementing a task, prioritization of these goals need to be considered. "A focus on development, for example, is likely to prioritize restructuring, with accuracy and fluency being more secondary" (p. 50). Therefore, "task-based learning should work towards a constant cycle of analysis and synthesis; that is, there should be balanced development towards the three goals of restructuring, accuracy and fluency". Moreover, task sequencing and methodological implementation of tasks need to be taken into account to be able to obtain achievement in task-based learning (p. 51). According to Ellis (2009),

> Many tasks are integrative; they involve two or more skills. TBLT, like other kinds of language teaching, entails both design and methodology. That is, decisions need to be taken regarding which type of tasks to include in a course and what the content of tasks will be, and, crucially, how to sequence the tasks so as to best facilitate learning. (p. 224)

In a typical task-based class, the variations presented in Table 3 need to be considered so as to determine the learning outcomes.

- Focused Tasks vs. Unfocused Tasks

Although meaning is primary in task-based instruction, *focused tasks* put 'form' in the center during the implementation of a task. They require use of specific linguistic features as learning outcomes either by design or by the use of methodological procedures (Ellis, 2003, p.141). This is said to be a good alternative way of measuring whether learners have acquired a particular language structure or lexical items. This is mainly because of using language under 'real operating conditions' (Johnson, 1998 as cited in Ellis, 2003, p.142). Many second language acquisition researchers argue that "only when learners demonstrate they are able to use a feature spontaneously in communicative activity can they be said to have acquired it" (Ellis, 2003, p. 142). That is to say, tasks can be evidence of what learners are able to do when they are using language unconsciously, which can be considered to elicit *implicit knowledge* rather than *explicit knowledge* (p. 142). On the other hand, *unfocused tasks* might require specific modes of discourse and this might lead learners to use certain linguistic features; however, the goals of these tasks are not to elicit those linguistic structures; rather, these linguistic features are found when the learner productions resulted from the performance of tasks are analyzed (Ellis, 2003, p. 141). Unfocused tasks require attention to the form(s) that emerge as gaps in learners' language knowledge. These gaps arise and are identified in the context of communicative activities.

It is possible to say that TBLT, in the case of both focused and unfocused tasks, handles grammar, language form(s), in meaning-oriented lessons without interrupting students' learning process yet providing remedies afterwards. Using corrections as a part of a form-focused activity serves three main functions (Willis & Willis, 2008). First and foremost, "it helps prevent fossilization" (p. 133). Since language production is not usually free of errors, learners, especially weak learners may need explicit teaching of particular language forms. Form-focused language scaffolding is notably important in writing to prevent fossilization. As Hyland (2003) proposed, "an inductive, discovery-based approach to writing can work well for high-proficiency students, but risks disadvantaging weaker learners" (p. 122). Another function of form-focused teaching is 'motivating learners'. Most language learners see correction as a necessary part of language learning process and they bear teacher feedback in mind when revising their papers. The last function obtained through error correction is providing 'useful negative feedback'. That is, learners

become aware of appropriate language use more efficiently and quickly when they are given negative feedback.

- Closed Tasks vs. Open Tasks

Closed tasks are the ones in which production alternatives are restricted and the goal is intended to be very specific. There is only one possible outcome, and one way of achieving it. Comparing activities or spot the difference tasks are examples of these kinds of tasks. (Willis, 1996, p. 28). *Open tasks,* however*,* are those in which learners are free to decide on the solution as the solution is not predetermined by the teacher or the task designer. In other words, open tasks are 'loosely structured' and the outcome of the task can have varieties. For example, learners can exchange information about a journey they have recently made. The content of the information would vary from learner to learner, depending on their own experiences.

Table 3

Task features (Ellis, 2003)

Task Design	Task Outcome
- **Focused Tasks:** Employed to elicit use of specific linguistic features	- **Closed Tasks:** Highly structured and have very specific goals
- **Unfocused Tasks:** Designed to elicit general samples of learner language	- **Open Tasks:** Loosely structured, with a less specific goal

2.4.1.2 Implementing tasks. Although task-based teaching is seen as an effective way of developing naturalistic processes and acquisition of second language, it entails careful application. Therefore, choosing the appropriate task is not the only responsibility of a teacher. In fact, what matters most is how it is implemented (Skehan, 1996). Ellis (2009) proposed a number of principles which might reduce the number and scale of the possible problems that arise in the implementation of TBLT (p. 241). These principles are as follow:

1. The tasks must be modified according to the proficiency levels of students. To illustrate, teachers are supposed to take the task type [input providing or output-prompting] into consideration in accordance with the level of learners.

2. Tasks which are tried and revised by the teacher can help to ensure that they result in appropriate L2 use. Therefore, testing tasks before they are implemented in actual classes can be crucial to promote incidental learning.

3. For TBLT to work, methodological features of a task need to be understood clearly by a teacher. The teacher, for instance, should be able to make a clear distinction between situational grammar exercise and focused task.

4. The purpose and the rationale of performing tasks need to be discerned not only by teachers but also by L2 learners. This might provide more motivation and increase participation.

5. Ideally, the teachers involved in teaching a task-based course must be involved in the development of the task materials. This is important to sequence a task-based classroom and implement the tasks properly.

A typical task-based lesson needs the consideration of three stages (Table 4). In the *pre-task* stage, teacher is expected to prepare students to perform the task in a way that promotes acquisition (Ellis, 2006). There is not a fixed pattern to carry out this part of the lesson. Learners can observe a model of how to perform the task or they can be presented the frame of the lesson during this phase. The next stage of the lesson is *during task* phase which is considered to be the 'must section' by researchers (e.g. Ellis, 2006). In this stage, students are expected to carry out actual task performance. The focus could be either on fluency or accuracy. Teacher can set a time limit according to the objectives of the particular lesson. As for the *post-task* phase, the last stage of the lesson, students can be provided with an opportunity to repeat performance of the task or they can reflect on task performance. Reporting what they have done during the task phase or reviewing other learners' work are other alternatives for this stage.

Table 4

A framework for designing task-based lessons (Ellis, 2006)

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	- Framing the activity (establishing the outcome of the task) - Planning time - Doing a similar task
B. During task	- Time pressure - Number of participants
C. Post-task	- Learner report - Consciousness raising - Repeat task

Although there is a tendency to design a task-based lesson in three progressive stages, it was suggested by Ellis (2006) that a task-based lesson is basically designed to perform a task completion activity by a group of students. In essence, "only the 'during task' phase is obligatory in task-based teaching" (p. 80). However, he also pointed out that 'pre-task' and 'post-task' stages might be non-obligatory but might serve an essential role for maximal language development.

Ellis (2009) stated that researchers developed a variety of approaches to task implementation (p. 225). He presented three of them in a table (Table 5). The common characteristic of these three approaches is the authenticity, which requires creating contexts for natural language use. Another shared characteristic is the emphasis of form although the difference in the methodology of form teaching draws attention. In addition, whilst learner-centeredness is prerequisite for Skehan (1998a) and Long (1985), Ellis (2003) does not consider group-work as an essential characteristic. His argument is that "the nature of the interactions that take place in TBLT will depend on three factors: the proficiency level of students, the design features of the task and the method of implementation". The higher the level of the students is the more interaction is likely to occur. Another difference which needs careful consideration is the design of the tasks as focused or unfocused tasks. Skehan favors only unfocused tasks whereas Long and Ellis support using unfocused tasks along with focused tasks. Another featured characteristic of these three approaches is the rejection of traditional approaches. In contrast to Long and Skehan's belief, Ellis advocates using traditional structural teaching. He stated that "Long and Skehan view traditional structural teaching as theoretically indefensible while I see it as complementary to TBLT" (p. 225).

Table 5

A comparison of three approaches to TBL (80s, 90s, 2000s) (Ellis, 2009)

Characteristic	Long (1985)	Skehan (1998a)	Ellis (2003)
o Natural language use	Yes	Yes	Yes
o Learner-centeredness	Yes	Yes	Not necessarily
o Focus on form	Yes – through corrective feedback	Yes – mainly through pre-task	Yes – in all phases of a TBLT lesson
o Tasks	Yes – unfocused and focused	Yes – unfocused	Yes – unfocused and focused
o Rejection of traditional approaches	Yes	Yes	No

Skehan (1996) advocates implementing the tasks that contribute to fluency and more importantly accurate language use. He suggested that *pre-task* activities could be designed to teach new language elements which will be relevant to task performance. Constructing relevant language for a task can be implemented in an explicit or implicit way. Another aim of implementing a pre-task stage would be to lessen the cognitive load that learners will encounter during the task stage (Van Patten, 1994 as cited in Skehan, 1996). "The main factor affecting performance *during* the task is the choice of task itself, with the goal being to target tasks which are of the appropriate difficulty" (Skehan, 1996, p. 55). That is, tasks should be in the frame of comprehensible input and comprehensible output. Bad task choice, either too difficult or too easy, is likely to cause ineffective language acquisition. In addition to task choice, teachers should be able to modify a given task in order to alter the difficulty and manipulate the way in which attention is directed. In other words, teachers should be aware that the factors which affect task difficulty are susceptible to variation (p. 55). In the *post-task* phase teachers should keep in mind that tasks are not implemented only to improve fluency but also to increase accuracy. Therefore, they should involve activities which aim to test or review the language that is used.

2.4.1.3 Teacher role in task-based learning. In a TBL framework, most of the emphasis is on the learners who are expected to participate actively in task completion process (Willis, 1996). Although TBL encourages learners to be in the

center in the acquisition process, the teachers' role needs to be made explicit. According to Willis (1996), "the teacher is involved in setting tasks up, ensuring that learners understand and get on with them, and drawing them to a close" (p. 41). This is her description of the teacher's role in a nutshell. She also stated that although his or her role varies according to aim of the task, the teacher still has overall control. In the pre-task phase, for instance, the teacher can be "the course guide" (Willis, 1996, p. 41) where the topic, overall objectives of the course and the components of the task are introduced. During the task phase, "teacher can monitor from a distance" (p. 24) without interrupting student-student communication since this part of the task is supposed to be designed to encourage doing tasks independently. If students make mistakes, the teacher is advised to take notes and make corrections in the post-task phase. Otherwise, students can be discouraged from feeling free to communicate and taking risks. As for the last phase of the task, the teacher acts as "language guide" (Willis, 1996, p. 41) where the focus is language structure. The teacher can have tutorial sessions with the groups or might explain general language problems to the whole class in order to increase accuracy.

Willis and Willis (2008, pp. 148-149) examined the role the teacher fulfills in the task-based classroom from six perspectives:

1. *Leader and organizer of discussion:* The lead-in sessions, right before the students carry out the actual tasks, generally begin with teacher-led discussions. In some cases, especially when the proficiency level of the group is low, it is possible to conduct "the whole task sequence in teacher-led form". This is especially necessary when the group is not used to working collaboratively and when they need to move to group work gradually.

2. *Manager of group/pair work:* The teacher is responsible for organizing group/pair work to get the best out of students. Monitoring groups carefully is also important to make sure that all groups are on track.

3. *Facilitator:* The term is defined as "a person or thing that makes an action or process easy or easier (Oxford dictionary, 2015). The teacher's role is crucial to adjust tasks by taking the possible challenges that learners might face into consideration and to modify them in accordance with the level of learners.

4. *Motivator:* A motivator is "a person who promotes interest in or enthusiasm for something" (Oxford dictionary, 2015). It is essential that a teacher provide learners

with encouragement through positive comments on their achievements. Being positive does not necessarily mean that teachers have to be completely uncritical or that mistakes should be ignored. In fact, learners should realize not only the gaps in their knowledge but also the progress they have made.

5. *Language 'knower' and adviser:* This involves teacher involvement in learner discourse in order to help learners with meaning. The temptation to correct learners should be resisted and teacher should consider himself/herself a group member with greater language knowledge and experience.

6. *Language teacher:* Sometimes it is essential to adopt the traditional teacher role, explaining, demonstrating, and eliciting appropriate language forms. When there is a need for explicit teaching, this should come at the end of a task sequence.

In his paper, Ellis (2009) put forward counter arguments against the claims made by Swan (2005) with regards to teacher's role during task-based language teaching. According to Swan, TBLT subordinates teacher's role as a source of new language. Ellis criticized this argument reminding that "TBLT can include a pre-task and post-task phase, where opportunities arise for the explicit teaching of language" (p. 236). He also stated that teachers might provide linguistic resources and explicit grammar if they feel that learners are in need of it.

2.5 Self-efficacy

Psychological theories have always impacted teaching methods on a vast scale. The fact that psychology sheds light on human nature and the nature of learning is a primary reason of its influence on education. Therefore, many learning theories have emerged from disciplines of psychology. One of these theories was Behaviorism. Behavior-oriented psychologists such as Watson, Pavlov, Thorndike and Skinner dominated much of the theories in psychology in the first half of the 20th century (Jabbarifar, 2011, p. 117). This theory stipulates stimulus and response as certain conditions for learning. In other words, Behavioristic Views suggest that human-animal training is similar and operant conditioning is a fundamental way of learning. As the approach to understand human behavior was a mechanical one, theorists started debates regarding whether there exist some other mediating factors that regulate human behavior (p. 117). In 1986, Bandura introduced Social Learning Theory (SLT). The theory stemmed from the debates on understanding how humans

execute courses of action. His theory puts a heavy focus on how individuals operate cognitively on their social experiences and how these cognitions then affect their behavior (Pajares, 2003, p. 139). This has made a great contribution to social learning theories by broadening the views of human functioning with the principle of cognitive processes, a mediator between stimulus and responses.

The concept of self-efficacy within the social cognitive theory of human behavior was introduced by Bandura. Perceived self-efficacy is defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce a particular level of performance which is designated either by themselves or by an authority" (Bandura, 1994, p. 2). The key to this theory is the fact that it is "a view of human behavior in which beliefs that people have about themselves are regarded as critical elements in the exercise of control and personal agency" (Jabbarifar, 2011, p. 118). That is to say, "self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" (Bandura, 1994, p. 2). Taking these into account, it is possible to say that there is a strong relationship between the capabilities and subjective awareness of individuals and the beliefs they hold.

This socio-cognitive perspective emphasizes the role of "self-referent beliefs" (Pajares, 2003, p. 139). According to Bandura (1994), a high assurance in doing tasks can augment human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways (p. 2). To illustrate, difficult tasks are seen as challenges to be mastered rather than threats by people with a strong sense of self-efficacy. This optimistic outlook provides them with intrinsic motivation to become engrossed in activities. Moreover, they are aware that the key to success is perseverance and determination. Therefore, they do not give up their actions in the face of failure. They believe that they can control threatening situations and this efficacious outlook leads to personal accomplishment by reducing stress and anxiety. In contrast, people who are uncertain about their capabilities view difficult tasks as threats and tend to avoid doing them due to lack of confidence. Their aspirations and commitment to the target goals are not strong enough to pursue them. Furthermore, when faced with challenging tasks, they concentrate on the obstacles they will encounter rather than the accomplishments they will attain. As they cannot quickly recover their sense of efficacy, they tend to reduce the effort they make after failures or setbacks. In other

words, "they lose their faith in their capabilities" and "they fall easy victim to stress and depression" (p. 2).

One of the concepts which is commonly associated with self-efficacy is outcome expectations and their direct effect on motivation. It was hypothesized that both self-efficacy and outcome expectations affect motivation; however, Bandura (1986) suggested that self-efficacy plays a larger role because "the types of outcomes people anticipate depend largely on their judgments of how well they will be able to perform in given situations" (p. 392). The influences on the "choices they make, the effort they expend, the persistence and perseverance they exert when obstacles arise, and the thought patterns and emotional reactions they experience" (Pajares, 2003, p. 140) can be determined by their self-efficacy perceptions. The perceptions are liable to modification and there is more than one base for it. Bandura (2003) put forward four sources of self-efficacy information which include performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal.

According to the theorist, *performance accomplishments* is "especially influential" because it is based on "personal mastery experiences" (Bandura, 1977, p. 195). While successes build a robust belief in one's personal self-efficacy, repeated failures and the ones that occur early in the course of events lower it. Experience in overcoming obstacles is required to develop a resilient sense of efficacy. As Bandura suggested, occasional failures might strengthen self-motivated persistence if one experiences that obstacles can be overcome by sustained effort (p. 195). Likewise, the negative impact of occasional failures is likely to be reduced if one can develop strong efficacy expectations through repeated success. That is to say, each and every failure may not have to undermine one's existing sense of efficacy yet timing and the total pattern of experiences in which failures occur are significant to be affected by the negative consequences of mishaps (p. 195).

Another important way of creating and enhancing self-beliefs of efficacy is the *vicarious experiences* which rely on inferences from social comparison. "Seeing others perform threatening activities without adverse consequences can generate expectations in observers that they too will improve if they intensify and persist in their efforts" (Bandura, 1977, p. 197). In the same vein, observers' efficacy expectations can be affected negatively if the model fails despite high and persistent

effort. Observers also make an analogy between themselves and the social model in terms of perceived similarity in personal qualities and the courses of actions. The more similar the model is to the observer the more influence is wielded. Although vicarious experience is regarded as a significant basis of self-efficacy beliefs, it is suggested by Bandura (1977) that "it is a less dependable source of information about one's capabilities than is direct evidence of personal accomplishments" (p. 197). As a consequence, developing efficacy expectations by social modelling is likely to be "weaker" and "more vulnerable to change" (p. 197).

Verbal persuasion, also called social persuasion, is a third way of establishing self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, p. 198). Uttering suggestions and instructions can be an alternative in order to lead people to believe that they have what it takes to succeed. One interesting fact about social persuasion is one's consideration of negative persuasion as more serious than positive persuasion. Bandura (1994) maintains that "people who have been persuaded that they lack capabilities tend to avoid challenging activities that cultivate potentialities and give up quickly in the face of difficulties (p. 3). However, verbal persuasion is generally used to encourage people who entertain doubts about their own performance. This manner "is widely used because of its ease and ready availability" (p. 198). Although people persuaded verbally that they are armed with capabilities are likely to devote greater effort to achieve a task, social persuasion is not as effective as one's own accomplishments because it has some limitations. One possible origin of the limitation is that efficacy expectations induced in this manner do not provide an authentic experiential base for them. Simply put, the best way of persuading people that they can accomplish an intended goal or cope with a difficult task is through experience which includes personal achievement. Another argument is that when expectations of personal competence are raised by persuasion, necessary conditions should be arranged for corrective performance. Otherwise, it will most probably result in failure and this might "discredit the persuaders and further undermine the recipients' perceived self-efficacy" (p. 198).

The fourth constituent source of information that can affect perceived self-efficacy in coping with challenging situations is *emotional arousal*. This view has emerged from the fact that people are apt to rely on psychological arousals such as anxiety and stress in judging their capabilities (Bandura, 1977, p. 198). Therefore,

they tend to "interpret their stress reactions and tension as signs of vulnerability to poor performance" (Bandura, 1994, p.3). Bandura pointed out that it is not the intensity of emotions that determine one's efficacy beliefs but rather how this self-arousal is perceived and interpreted. People who have a high sense of efficacy try to alter their negative emotional proclivities by reducing stress reactions when faced with psychological arousal because of a threatening situation. They usually modify their self-beliefs of efficacy (p. 3). On the other hand, fears often lead to deficits in situations where people are beset by self-doubts. They regard their arousal as a debilitator and avoid stressful activities. This "impedes development of coping skills and the resulting lack of competency provides a realistic basis for fear" (Bandura, 1977, p. 199). The essence of the matter is "fears and deficits are interdependent" (p. 199).

Zimmerman (2000) stated that although all participants may develop a strong outcome expectancy using proper techniques, they still might differ in their perceived capabilities to transfer these techniques outside the treatment session. "Bandura labeled this individual difference *self-efficacy* and sought to measure it using task-specific scales" (p. 83). Moreover, he sought to assess the level, generality, and strength of self-efficacy across activities and contexts. The *level* of self-efficacy pertains to its dependence on the difficulty of a particular task while *generality* refers to the transferability of self-efficacy beliefs across activities. As for the *strength* of self-efficacy, it is measured by the amount of one's certainty about performing a given task. To be able to measure these properties of self-efficacy judgments, questionnaire items that are "task specific, vary in difficulty and, capture degrees of confidence" are used (p. 83).

2.5.1 Academic self-efficacy. The sense of efficacy, either strong or weakened, is not innate; in other words, people are not born with a determined outlook or perception. Rather, it is established and strengthened by different channels such as social experiences, achievements, suggestions or psychological states. In most situations, a weakened sense of efficacy can be restored by treatment and its effects tend to generalize to other situations. Therefore, developing a strong sense of self-efficacy is essential in all aspects of one's life, particularly in academic life in which high level of scholastic achievement is requisite.

Bandura's theory inspired many fields of study which attempted to predict and explain a wide range of human functioning. Moreover, over the last 34 years, the notion of self-efficacy aroused the interest of educational researchers from diverse fields of inquiry. According to Pajares (2003), currently there is a growing interest and a body of research into the influence of self-beliefs on academic motivation. This is most probably because of the assumption that "the beliefs that students create, develop, and hold to be true about themselves are vital forces in their success or failure in school" (p. 140). In other words, what students do is affected to a good extent by their evaluation of personal efficacy.

Schunk (1984) stated that students' approach to tasks may differ according to their level of self-efficacy. Students with low sense of efficacy for acquiring cognitive skills are more likely to avoid tasks whereas students who hold a high sense of efficacy are prone to participate more eagerly. He also pointed out that self-efficacy is also a key determinant of student motivation. Similarly, students who judge themselves more efficacious can devote more effort for learning and persist longer when confronting obstacles compared with the ones who doubt their capabilities (p. 4). To state this in a different manner, "the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence and resilience" (Pajares, 1996, p. 544).

There are a variety of research studies investigating the factors which presumably affect learning self-efficacy. One element suggested by Winne (1985) was about how learning self-efficacy can be affected by instruction presented by a teacher. The more an instruction is comprehensible to students, the more they are likely to feel efficacious. That is to say, simple and clear instruction might help learners to feel stronger sense of efficacy. Moreover, an instruction combined with symbolic models such as films or short clips can promote skill development better than explanations alone (Schunk, 1984, p. 15). Another factor which might have a major impact on sense of efficacy is modeling. "Students acquire much information about their capabilities from knowledge of how others perform" (Schunk, 1991, p. 216). Therefore, teachers and peers, as classroom models, are significant to obtain vicarious efficacy information. This, however, may not always result in positive consequences. When learners observe failures, it leads to lower sense of efficacy and off-task behavior. Conversely, successful peer models or a teacher as a mastery model can exert beneficial effects on students' self-efficacy.

Teacher feedback is one of the essential elements which promote self-efficacy. "To develop self-efficacy, students need clear information that they are acquiring knowledge and skills, mastering the material, and so on" (Schunk, 1984, p. 28). During complex skill learning or when the acquisition of information becomes problematic, teacher can provide remedies through feedback. It is hypothesized that performance feedback influences self-efficacy by highlighting performance outcomes and patterns (p. 28). Feedback on student progress can sustain motivation as well as enhance self-efficacy. A teacher can provide feedback on the ability or the performance effort of a student. Although Schunk (1983) demonstrated that ability feedback for success ("You have a real talent for this") fosters self-efficacy better than effort feedback ("You have worked hard"), it still leads to motivation and resilience (p. 853).

2.5.1.1 Self-efficacy in second language learning. Brown (1998) stated that the introduction of Bandura's (1986) theory, a view of human behavior in which the beliefs that people have about themselves are critical elements in the exercise of control and personal agency, was the point at which a new variable, self-efficacy, emerged as a crucial determinant of learners' success in English as foreign language (as cited in Jabbarifar, 2011, p. 118).

> If people have positive self-efficacy about learning a second language, then they have the power and abilities to reach this goal. On the other hand, people with low self-efficacy feel that they do not have the power and abilities to learn a language thus admitting failure from start. (Barnhardt, 1997, p. 3 as cited in Jabbarifar, 2011, p. 118)

Raoofi et al. (2012) examined the studies which put self-efficacy in the center of investigation. Their aim was to see to what extent self-efficacy had been investigated in contexts of language learning since "it is supposed to be the most influential predictor of performance after aptitude" (p. 62). They found that the results of the studies (Dennissen et al., 2007; Multon, et al. 1991; Pajares, 1996; Pajares & Schunk, 2001) confirmed the literature by indicating that "self-efficacy strongly predicted performance" (p. 63). Moreover, a case study carried out by Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011) revealed that there was a positive relationship between

self-efficacy and learner autonomy and also self-efficacy and academic success (p. 1284).

Raoofi et al. (2012) also investigated the studies which aimed to discover the factors affecting self-efficacy within the contexts of second language learning and they classified these studies into three categories: strategies, contextual variables and sources of self-efficacy and styles (p. 64). It was suggested that the use of learning strategies is significantly associated with self-efficacy beliefs. In a qualitative study, Wong (2005) determined that there was a positive relationship between language self-efficacy and use of language learning strategies (p. 262). In addition to learning strategies, contextual variables and sources of self-efficacy were suggested as another factor which might influence sense of efficacy. With regard to this, Raoofi et al. (2012) stated that:

> Both internal and external factors such as learners' interest, successful experiences, peers' successful performance, knowledge in the content area, positive feedback from others, social and cultural context all affect the development of learners' self-efficacy beliefs. (p. 65)

Researchers, Wang and Pape (2007) conducted a study which included three Chinese young learners as participants who were learning English as a second language in the US. The study revealed that the factors influencing sense of efficacy include learners' past experience, the level of English proficiency, self-awareness of language level, attitudes toward English language and the target community, interest, social persuasion, task difficulty level, physiological and emotional state, and the social-cultural context (p. 371).

In their review paper, Raoofi et al. (2012) indicated that there is a general lack of research conducted on the relationship between learning styles and self-efficacy in language learning (p. 65). They claimed that they had found only one study conducted by Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) that examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in second language learning. The researchers had found that there was a significant relationship between EFL participants' emotional intelligence and their confidence level. The study also revealed that the three components of emotional intelligence, which are emotional awareness, interpersonal relationship and problem-solving, were good predictors of self-efficacy.

2.5.1.2 Self-efficacy in second language writing. According to Pajares (2003), there exists consistency in research findings in terms of the positive relationship between writing self-efficacy beliefs and writing performances (p. 144). One study was conducted by Sanders-Reio et al. (2014) in order to test a model in which beliefs about writing, writing self-efficacy, and writing apprehension predict writing performance. In the study, The Beliefs About Writing Survey, the Writing Self-Efficacy Index, and the modified Writing Apprehension Test were administered to 738 undergraduates. The results revealed that the participants' beliefs about writing related to their writing self-efficacy, apprehension, and performance. Moreover, writing beliefs provided prediction for the participants' written work albeit modestly. The researchers contended that although the correlations between the beliefs about writing and writing performance are modest, these relations are worth considering (p. 9).

As McCarthy et al. (1985) stated, even though a student knows what is expected in an effective piece of writing and the steps necessary to produce such a piece, the effective behavior will probably not result "if the person lacks the belief that he or she can achieve the desired outcome" (p. 466). In this regard, she also suggested that one's inability to solve writing difficulties might stem from his or her own decision that one is unable to solve them. In such a case, it is important to improve individual's efficacy expectations about their writing ability. Otherwise, lack of self-beliefs may inhibit writing development. Concordantly, Pajares (2003) also pointed out that students' confidence in their writing capabilities influence their writing motivation as well as various writing outcomes in an educational context (p. 144).

A study conducted by Meier et al. (1984) investigated how well efficacy expectations predicted writing performance, and whether cognitive (deep processing) and affective (anxiety) variables were related to efficacy expectations. The study demonstrated two important results. A significant finding was that "efficacy expectations can predict writing performance and that affective variables and outcome expectations are both related to the amount and accuracy of efficacy expectations of behavior" (p. 117). The interpretation was that efficacy expectations cognitively regulate whether learners will cope with obstacles, and if yes, for how long. Another notable finding was that there are strong positive relationships

between both the strength and accuracy of efficacy expectations and depth of processing. It was noted that "individuals with deep learning styles feel more confident about their abilities and may be better able to process, store, and recall efficacy information more accurately than shallow processors" (p. 118). The final result of the study was about the relationship between one's psychological state and sense of efficacy. It was found that subjects with less writing apprehension possessed greater efficacy.

Pajares et al. (2007) conducted a study to investigate the influence of Bandura's four hypothesized sources of self-efficacy on students' writing self-efficacy level. Data were analyzed to explore if the efficacy sources differ according to academic level of the participants (elementary, middle, high). It was hypothesized that mastery experience would account for the greatest proportion of the variance in the writing self-efficacy beliefs of the participants and the study confirmed the hypothesis (p. 114). This was the case for all academic levels. As for the psychological arousal, it was reported by elementary and middle school students that writing anxiety affected their self-efficacy beliefs about writing. At the high-school level, on the other hand, social persuasions proved to be influential in creating students' writing self-efficacy beliefs (p. 115).

In this chapter, related academic and scientific information has been provided from a variety of sources. The topic was analyzed from a general perspective, second language writing, giving the historical background and then narrowed down to review the main investigation area of the thesis, task-based approach to writing and self-efficacy in writing.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Overview

In this part of the study, information about research design, background information about the universe and participants, data collection procedures and tools and data analysis procedures were included. In addition, limitations of the data collection and analysis procedure were provided.

3.2 Philosophical paradigm

Research philosophy is an overarching term relating to development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge (Saunders, 2011). A paradigm, on the other hand, may be viewed as "a set of *basic beliefs* (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimates or first principles. It represents a *worldview* that defines, for its holder, the nature of the world, the individuals' place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). Paradigms are also known as organizing frameworks or disciplinary matrices (McKerchar, 2008), and hold particular characteristics, methods and practices that identify the nature and conduct of research.

The philosophical paradigm of this study is pragmatism which argues that it is possible to incorporate positivist and interpretivist paradigms. While the former paradigm is mainly related to observations and experiments to collect numeric data, the latter is applied using a small sample and evaluating this in detail to understand the views of a larger group (Kasi, 2009). In other words, positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience "through observation and measurement in order to predict and control forces that surround us" (O'Leary, 2004, p.5). On the other hand, interpretivist researchers tend to rely upon the "participants' views of the situation being studied" (Creswell, 2003, p.8) and recognizes the impact on the research of their own background and experiences.

Therefore, this study addresses both positivist and interpretive paradigms by measuring self-efficacy beliefs of participants using numeric data obtained from a

five scale rating and investigating the reports written by participants to explore potential impacts of the training on EFL learners.

3.3 Research Design

This study is a mixed method research which has attempted to explore the effectiveness of task-based instruction in the improvement of learners' writing self-efficacy and also investigate the impacts of this particular approach to writing on learners. In the study, the answers for the following questions are investigated and reported:

1. To what extent does task-based writing affect English language learners' writing self-efficacy?

2. What are the facilitative and inhibitive factors in the development of self-efficacy in writing?

Mixed methods design is defined as "procedures for collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7). The defining characteristics of the mixed methods approach involve its use of (Denscombe, 2008, p. 272):

- quantitative (QUAN) and qualitative (QUAL) methods within the same research project,
- a research design that clearly specifies the sequencing and priority that is given to the QUAN and QUAL elements of data collection and analysis,
- an explicit account of the manner in which the QUAN and QUAL aspects of the research relate to each other, with heightened emphasis on the manner in which triangulation is used, and
- pragmatism as the philosophical underpinning for the research

The research utilized *quantitative research method* in an attempt to investigate the impact of task-based writing on participants' level of self-efficacy, which is intended to be an answer to the first research question. The data were gathered using a self-efficacy scale before and after the training. The second aim of the study is to describe and clarify participants' experiences throughout the training period and to

obtain their views. Therefore, *qualitative research method* has been applied and the data were collected using written reports written by all participants who answered open-ended questions related to the training sessions they had.

3.4 Universe and Participants

The study was conducted at Izmir University School of Foreign Languages. The university is located in İzmir, a city in the western part of Turkey. The institution comprises of six faculties and two schools. The medium of instruction is purely English in ten of these programs – English language teaching, architecture, interior architecture and environmental design, business administration, international relations, international trade and finance, computer engineering, electronics and telecommunication engineering, industrial engineering, and software engineering – and 30% English in the political science and administration program.

Research participants are currently studying at prep school since the medium of instruction is either 100% or 30% English in their respective departments. All the participants took the English proficiency exam at the very beginning of the academic year. Four language skills, listening, reading, writing and reading are tested in the exam. Unless students achieve a minimum 60 points from this exam, they are obliged to study the prep class. At the end of the academic year, students must pass the exit level test to complete the requirements of prep school and the minimum exit-level for all learners is required to be intermediate.

10 male and 18 female, a total of 28 EFL learners participated in the study. The age of the participants ranges from 18 to 21. They are all Turkish and they were born in Turkey except two of them. One student was born in Germany and the other was born in Switzerland. The data were collected during the second module of the academic year which means participants were placed in a pre-intermediate (B1) class in the first module and they were studying in intermediate (B2) class during data collection; therefore, their language proficiency levels were similar.

The students were informed about the study before the data collection procedure and they all signed a consent form which indicated that they agreed to participate in the study (See Appendix A). They were in the same group during the training sessions and the lessons were implemented by the researcher.

3.5 Procedures

The abstract and research proposal were approved by Bahçeşehir University, Graduate Schools of Educational Sciences on September 18, 2015. The researcher requested permission from her manager to conduct the research in the institution she was currently working. She was told that she was allowed to carry out the research as long as participants agree to participate in and sign consent forms. After that, the researcher informed her vice director that she would like to teach an Intermediate level class in order to collect data for her thesis. She also requested to have a mixed ability class with randomly assigned students. This is the usual procedure in the school and the researcher wanted to ensure that the group will be a sample from the universe. At the beginning of module, the researcher informed her students about the research and asked them whether they would like to consent to participate in the study. All of them agreed and signed the consent forms.

3.5.1 Sampling. For writing training, which included completion of nine different tasks, participants were selected through convenience sampling. In convenience sampling "the researcher selects participants because they are willing and available to be studied" (Creswell, 2014, p. 162). The participants were in one of the Intermediate classes which were formed to include mixed ability learners from all departments and the researcher was assigned to teach this class randomly. All of the participants responded to the questions in the scale before and after the training session and they also provided answers for qualitative data.

3.5.2 Sources of Data. In the study, data were collected using two types of instruments. The first one was a Likert-type scale to which the participants responded before and after the writing training (See Appendix B). It was a tool used to collect numerical data. In addition to the quantitative data tool, the participants supplied written documents which were used as a qualitative data instrument. Learners provided written responses to open-ended questions and submitted the written reports upon the treatment sessions (See Appendix D).

3.5.3 Data Collection Procedures. In this study, participants were trained with the implementation of task-based writing classes and the data were collected from participants using two different tools. The first tool was a scale entitled "Task-Based Writing Self-Efficacy Scale" developed by the researcher. It consisted 11 likert items

divided into three dimensions. The items on the scale were intended as learning outcomes of the writing training and they comprised "can do statements" (e.g. I can find good, interesting ideas when I am writing.) The literature was reviewed for the design of the scale and it was stated that performance capabilities rather than personal qualities are measured to reveal one's self-efficacy with regard to a particular given task and the items on a measurement tool focus on *task-specific performance expectations* (Zimmerman, 2000, pp. 83-84). Therefore, learners' perception of performance capabilities specific to this training was measured using this scale. It was used before and after the training sessions held by the researcher. Respondents in the group were asked to circle the option that indicated how much they agreed or disagreed with each of them. In order to obtain the statistical measurement of data, response options were coded. Scores of each item ranged from 1 to 5, with 5 being completely confident.

In the post-training stage, the data were collected from all participants through written documents as a qualitative data instrument. Participants responded to two open-ended questions (See Appendix N). They were allowed to write in Turkish given the possibility that they may be unable to express themselves well in English. They also did not have to write their names on the document. This was done intentionally to ensure anonymity and to prevent inhibition of openness. The data from written documents were used to respond to the second research question in respect to learners' perceptions towards task-based writing activities and their learning experience.

All of the tasks (Appendices E-M) in the present study were designed by the researcher and they were integrated into the coursebook, *New Language Leader Intermediate (2013) by Pearson Education Limited*. In order to increase the quality of implementation, a pilot study was carried out before the tasks were executed in the experimental class. In the pilot study, the researcher was able to figure out difficulties learners had and necessary adjustments were made to facilitate learning. Pre-task and post-task activities were revised in TASK 3 and TASK 5 so as to make them easy to handle for the learners. Also, the researcher observed that learners were not so familiar with the idea of doing tasks in groups; thus, the interaction pattern was converted from group-work to pair-work in three tasks (TASK 2, TASK 8, TASK 9). The content of the tasks complied with the topics in the units that were

covered during the intervention period. It is worthy to note that task outcomes were not restricted; that is, task achievement depended on students' creativity and general language competency. Therefore, the fact that they are all *open* (Willis, 1996) and *unfocused* (Ellis, 2003) tasks is the common features of the tasks.

The tasks were implemented in four weeks and they all included three basic stages of task-based learning: pre-task, during task, and post-task phase (Table 6). In the pre-task phase, reading texts were used to provide input for the learners. Students were instructed to pick some useful words or phrases to be able to complete the tasks but they were not taught any language forms neither explicitly nor implicitly. In fact, none of the tasks were used as tools to provide *form-focused feedback* to the learners afterwards, either. Therefore, they were all unfocused tasks. The main task phase was designed to be either pair-work or group-work so that leaners could be provided with the opportunity for collaborative learning. As for the post-task stage, students shared the tasks with their classmates to review what they have composed or they reported their work to the whole class. In all tasks, the teacher fulfilled the role of being the *manager* of group or pair work, and a *facilitator* to sequence the lesson smoothly. The teacher did not take an active role as a language knower or language teacher as the methodology of the study was designed so. It can be said that the teacher's role was kept at minimum while learners were expected to take part in the task-completion process actively. In essence, learners were active participants, innovators and risk-takers while the teacher monitored groups or pairs to ensure that all of them were on track.

Table 6

Tasks used in the training period

Tasks & Task Types	Description	Goal	Physical setting	Interaction pattern
TASK 1 Creative (Willis, 1996)	Students described the personality of two people without using adjectives but only describing their actions / the activities they do. When they finished writing, the groups swapped their task papers. They tried to find the personality adjectives that would be appropriate to use for the persons described by another group. They also	To write detailed descriptions of imaginary persons	In-class	Group-work (3 Ss)

	made the necessary corrections on the task sheet. They swapped their papers again and wrote the second draft which included adjectives.			
TASK 2 Creative (Willis, 1996)	Students created an ideal candidate profile for a job advertisement which included some requirements (personality traits and qualifications) and they reported their candidate to the whole class.	To write detailed descriptions of an imaginary person	In-class	Pair-work
TASK 3 Problem-solving (Willis, 1996)	Students were given a list of travel problems, which were noted down by a tourism agency. They selected two of these and suggested a solution for each. After that, they swapped their task sheets. Each pair wrote possible disadvantage to the solution suggested by another pair. And then they swapped the papers again. Each pair read the comment (disadvantage) written by the other pair and developed a counter-argument. Students reported their work to the whole class.	To produce effective solutions to a problem To develop arguments against solutions suggested by someone else To develop counter-arguments	In-class	Pair-work
TASK 4 Creative (Willis, 1996)	Students were given shuffled cards to put the phases related to an explorer's life in order and they wrote the missing part of the biography using their imagination. Then they compared their work with the original one.	To complete a missing part in a biography	In-class	Group-work (3 Ss)
TASK 5 Problem-solving (Willis, 1996)	Students were introduced to four business dilemmas. They chose one and wrote a solution to solve the problem in that particular situation. After writing, pairs swapped papers and they commented on one another's solution (the decision of acting in a certain way). After that, they reported their decision and their friend's comment on it.	To produce effective solutions to a problem To develop arguments for or against a particular point of view	In-class	Pair-work
TASK 6 Creative (Willis, 1996)	Students choose a movie and after watching it, they wrote a film review including: - Introduction (an interesting beginning) - A description of the places and the time (when the action happens)	To write a film review	Outside class	Group-work (3 Ss)

	- Details of the main characters - A summary of the story - Conclusion (ending): What message is being conveyed? What was the director's purpose or intention? - Recommendation (to watch or not to watch the movie). After that, they reported and shared their review with the whole class.			
TASK 7 Creative (Willis, 1996)	Students used sample texts and brainstormed to find out what to include in a job advertisement. They chose a particular job in order to write a job advertisement for it. They prepared a poster including the job description, expected requirements, contact information and company logo. After that, they stuck these posters on the walls and chose the best job for themselves. They reported it to the class.	To select words considering the target audience To adopt a level of formality (register) appropriate to the business circumstances	In-class	Pair-work
TASK 8 Problem-solving (Willis, 1996)	Students were shown an informal e-mail and they discussed the context and the style used in the text. After that, they were given a situation and they were asked to write an e-mail to offer a solution to a friend who needed some suggestions about which university to choose. After they finished writing, pairs swapped papers and they replied to the e-mail written by another pair.	To use appropriate language in informal situations To develop sense of style (register) in writing	In-class	Pair-work
TASK 9 Problem-solving (Willis, 1996)	Students were shown a formal e-mail and they discussed the context and the style used in the text. After that, they were given a situation in which they were a vice-director and the department has problems with technological devices. They were asked to inform the manager about the problem and suggest some solutions. After they finished writing, pairs swapped papers and they replied to the e-mail written by another pair.	To use appropriate language in formal situations To develop sense of style (register) in writing	In-class	Pair-work

3.5.4 Data Analysis Procedures. In this study, statistical program for social sciences (SPSS 23) has been used to obtain the results of quantitative data. As the number of participants are over 20, parametric test was applied. Since after training and before training scores were normally distributed, a parametric paired sample test was adopted. There was no need to execute homogeneity of variance test because the participants were in the same group. In order to analyze the data gathered through the scale used as a pre- and post-training tool, a paired sample *t-test* was run. The purpose was to investigate the effects of TBI training on students' writing self-efficacy. Firstly, the mean score and significance value of answers to each question were investigated by using the paired sample *t-test*. Secondly, the same test was used to analyze the responses to find out the mean score and significance value of each dimension in the scale. Finally, another paired sample *t-*test was used to measure overall increase in learners' self-efficacy level. The analysis was carried out at %95 confidence level.

To examine the qualitative data, all written documents were transcribed and converted to computer documents. The responses were categorized and organized to make the coding process more convenient. The data were analyzed by hand and open, axial, and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2014) were applied in the analysis. In open coding, the researcher read through the data several times and then created tentative labels for chunks of data. After that, the relationship among the open codes was identified and forty-three items were categorized into twelve concepts through axial coding. In selective coding, the concepts were ultimately placed into one of two central themes (inhibitive factors and facilitative factors which were subdivided into two and three sub-themes, respectively).

3.5.5 Reliability and Validity. Multiple procedures ensured trustworthiness and credibility in the study.

Tasks

Objectives for each task were determined according to scales and writing descriptors provided by The Council of Europe (1999) for B2 (Intermediate) level (pp. 27- 62). Also, literature was reviewed in order to design appropriate tasks for writing skill and for B2 level class. The tasks were designed according to the suggestions of a TBI theorist, Willis (1996). Before the data collection procedure, the tasks were applied to a different class for a pilot study. The aim was to increase

teaching quality by eliminating the possible problems that could occur during implementation.

Scale

Since there was no instrument available in the literature designed to measure the effect of TBI on learner self-efficacy, the researcher had to develop her own instrument. Before the data collection procedure, the literature was reviewed for the development of a Likert-type scale. The steps suggested by Creswell (2014, p. 176) were followed. In addition, Pajare's (2003) paper was reviewed to form the items that would measure learner self-efficacy. Prior to the study, the content of the scale was determined considering the learning outcomes of the training. The objectives of the tasks were included in the scale as question items. As Pajares suggested, the questions were worded in terms of a judgement of capability (p. 142). Therefore, all items started with *I can.* At the beginning, there were 23 items and the initial item pool was reviewed by the supervisor of this thesis. 6 questions were excluded and 17 items were determined as questions. Once the scale was developed, the instrument was ready for the first pilot test.

The scale was administered to 69 students in order to test the validity and reliability of the items. Response choices ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The responses were then factor analyzed and correlational analysis was obtained. There were six items whose factor loads showed that they were not correlated with other questions. Therefore, they were removed from the scale. Those items that loaded appropriately were retained. Remaining items were analyzed using Cronbach's alpha on SPSS to measure the reliability and internal consistency of the scale. The alpha coefficient for the 11 items was 0.883, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency. The items were translated into English to provide full comprehension. Also translation equivalency was ensured by two experienced translators.

Analysis of open-ended answers

The data collected through written reports from all participants were transcribed on charts and they were translated into English. Translation equivalency was ensured by two experienced translators. The data were analyzed with detailed coding. The useful categories that would emerge in the themes and sub-themes

within the data were negotiated during debriefing sessions with the researcher's mentor. The themes were selected through color coding and the interrater reliability was ensured by counting the number of codes and getting the percentage of them. The researcher and the supervisor had a high level of agreement on the selection of codes (94%); however, the supervisor asked the researcher to review the terminology used for the themes under which the codes were grouped.

3.6 Limitations and Delimitations

One limitation of the study resulted from the number of participants. This study was applied to 28 foreign language learners. It is hard to generalize the data due to the limited number of participants. Thus, the number of subjects could be increased in order to obtain a more generalized result. Increasing the number of participants could be possible by involving more teachers as participants who can implement TBI in their classes after a period of training. This would also create the opportunity to investigate teachers' perception of task-based teaching of writing and their beliefs about learner self-efficacy.

Another limitation of the study is time constraints for the implementation of the tasks. The length of the training period was short and there were limited hours to implement the tasks. Therefore, only nine tasks were applied during the study. Moreover, self-efficacy beliefs and the actual writing performance of learners could have been correlated through assessment of students' individual writing. Namely, participants could have completed written assignments before and after the training and the assignments could have been graded using a rubric. The results would have been more satisfactory if participants' writing scores had been compared with their level of writing self-efficacy. However, there were limited hours to implement the tasks and it was not possible to spare hours for writing assignments. Also there needed to have been a jury made up of experts who would assess the papers written by the participants. Forming a jury and arranging the grading would have taken up time for both the researcher and the colleagues. Unfortunately, these did not seem possible in the context of this study.

Chapter 4

Results

4.1 Overview

The study includes a mixed methods approach and two different methods were used to analyze the data. Quantitative data, collected using a five scale rating (TBWSES), were analyzed with IBM SPSS 23. In this context, descriptive statistical values were interpreted and a paired sample *t*-test was applied in order to see the impact of the training on learners' self-efficacy.

Qualitative data, collected from written reports, were analyzed through a coding process. First, the text data were read through. Then, the text was divided into segments and each was labeled with tentative codes. After overlapping and redundant codes were reduced, the remaining codes were collapsed into themes. As a result, two central themes, five sub-themes and thirteen categories emerged from the inductive exploration of the text.

4.2 Quantitative Data Findings

RQ1. To what extent does task-based instruction affect English language learners' self-efficacy?

To answer this question, the scores of the items on the scale (Appendix B) were analyzed in three stages. First, each individual item was analyzed to compare the mean scores before and after the training. In addition, paired sample *t*-test was used to measure the statistical significance. Second, dimensions (Appendix C) were analyzed to compare the mean scores before and after the training. Also paired sample *t*-test was used to obtain statistical significance of the scores for each dimension. Third, all answers on the scale were analyzed through paired sample *t*-test and paired sample statistics to measure the overall impact of the training on participants' self-efficacy.

Table 7 shows that after the training, the means of items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11 were greater than they were before the training. The only item whose mean was equal before and after the training was 9.

Table 7

Descriptive statistics of the items on the scale before and after the training

Items		M	N	sd	se
1	BT	3.536	28	.8812	.1665
	AT	4.071	28	.7164	.1354
2	BT	3.750	28	.8872	.1677
	AT	4.107	28	.8317	.1572
3	BT	3.357	28	.9894	.1870
	AT	3.607	28	.9560	.1807
4	BT	3.929	28	.8997	.1700
	AT	4.286	28	.6587	.1245
5	BT	3.893	28	.8317	.1572
	AT	4.036	28	.8381	.1584
6	BT	3.714	28	.8968	.1695
	AT	3.857	28	.6506	.1230
7	BT	3.857	28	.8483	.1603
	AT	4.286	28	.7629	.1442
8	BT	3.893	28	.9165	.1732
	AT	4.179	28	.6696	.1265
9	BT	3.964	28	.6929	.1310
	AT	3.964	28	.8381	.1584
10	BT	4.179	28	.8630	.1631
	AT	4.643	28	.5587	.1056
11	BT	3.964	28	.7927	.1498
	AT	4.214	28	.7382	.1395

Note. BT: before training; AT: after training; *M*: mean; *N*= number of answers; *sd*: standard deviation; *se*: standard error mean

As it can be clearly seen in Table 8, the impact of the training was found statistically significant ($p < .05$) in questions 1, 2, 4, 7, 10. However, there is no statistically significant difference in questions 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11.

Table 8

Analysis of the items with paired sample test

Items	t	Df	*p
1. I can find good, interesting ideas when I am writing.	-4.448	27	.000
2. I can produce effective solutions to a problem in written tasks.	-2.287	27	.030
3. I can write a comprehensive film review.	-1.317	27	.199
4. I can develop convincing arguments, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view in my written tasks.	-2.173	27	.039
5. I can write clear, detailed descriptions of imaginary events or persons.	-1.000	27	.326
6. I can write clear, detailed descriptions on a variety of topics.	-.891	27	.381
7. I can work on a writing task effectively in pairs or groups.	-3.286	27	.003
8. I can produce sentences effectively when I write in groups or pairs.	-1.613	27	.118
9. I can report a piece of writing produced in pairs or groups.	.000	27	1.000
10. In my writing, I can adopt a level of formality – register– appropriate to the circumstances e.g. formal, informal.	-3.545	27	.001
11. In my writing, I can select my words considering the target audience.	-1.760	27	.090

Note. *t*: T value; *df*: the number of degrees of freedom; *p < .05

It was found that the training enhanced the participants' self-efficacy in all dimensions: creative writing, collaborative writing, and use of appropriate register (Table 9). After the training, the means of all dimensions were higher than the means before the training.

Table 9

Descriptive statistics of the dimensions before and after the training

Dimensions		M	N	sd	se
Creative writing	BT	3.696	168	.9074	.0700
	AT	3.994	168	.8004	.0618
Collaborative writing	BT	3.905	84	.8158	.0890
	AT	4.143	84	.7627	.0832
Use of appropriate register	BT	4.071	56	.8281	.1107
	AT	4.429	56	.6838	.0914

Note. BT: before training; AT: after training; *M*: mean; *N*= Number of answers; *sd*: standard deviation; *se*: standard error mean

As it is shown in Table 10, the impact of the training was found statistically significant ($p < .05$) in all dimensions; creative writing, collaborative writing, and use of appropriate register.

Table 10

Analysis of the dimensions with paired sample test

Dimensions	T	df	*p
Creative writing	-4.646	167	.000
Collaborative writing	-2.583	83	.012
Use of appropriate register	-3.690	55	.001

Note. *t*: T value; *df*: the number of degrees of freedom; *p < .05

Table 11 shows that after the training, the mean scores of all items on the scale were greater than the means of the scores before the training.

Table 11

Descriptive statistics of the scale analysis before and after the training

	M	N	sd	Se
Pre-training	3.881	308	.8406	.0410
Post-training	4.176	308	.7552	.0368

Note. *M*: mean; *N*= number of answers; *sd*: standard deviation; *se*: standard error mean

As can be seen clearly from Table 12, it was found that the difference between the scores before and after the training was found statistically significant (p < .05) as a result of the paired sample *t*-test.

Table 12

Analysis of all answers with paired sample test

	T	df	*p
All items on the scale	-7.546	419	.000

Note. *t*: T value; *df*: the number of degrees of freedom; **p* < .05

4.3 Qualitative Data Findings

RQ2. What are the facilitative and inhibitive factors in the development of self-efficacy in writing?

To answer this question, qualitative data analysis procedure was followed. The results of the data analysis revealed two central themes: inhibitive and facilitative factors which are then subcategorized under several sub-themes. Descriptive statements were provided for each sub-theme.

Inhibitive Factors

- **Social**

  - Lack of democratic dialogue among students

  - Lack of rapport among students

  - Lack of negotiation with teacher

- **Cognitive**

  - Expectation for explicit teaching

  - Preference for individual writing

  - Topic and task difficulty

Facilitative Factors

- **Positive effect of task-based instruction on writing development**

  - Generating ideas

  - Content development

  - Fluency in writing

- **Positive effect of task-based instruction on language development**

  - Lexical improvement

  - Grammar improvement

  - Error correction

- **Development of perspective**

Figure 2. Themes and sub-themes emerged from the qualitative data

1. Inhibitive factors

Inhibitive factors emerged as two major challenges including social and cognitive. The social and cognitive challenges were found to impede the self-efficacy development, which was moderately effective on the individual items rather than on the overall impact. The challenges are shown in categories and relevant student responses are presented under each one.

- **Social**

Social inhibitive factors were collected under three sub-themes: lack of democratic dialogue among students, lack of rapport among students, and lack of negotiation with teacher. They emerged from inadequate negotiation with the teacher and students' low level of interaction abilities. It is also evident that disliking relationship among students affected their work negatively.

a. Lack of democratic dialogue among students

Student 1: I think collaborative writing is sometimes boring. From my point of view, my ideas are better but my partners want to contribute to the task with their own ideas. In this case, I feel that their ideas are wrong but since this is a group task, I have to show respect to other people's opinions. So I have to write down what they say.

Student 4: I do not think writing in pairs is beneficial because generally one says something and his/her peer writes what he/she says. We cannot generate different ideas; therefore, it seems that it would have been better if we had worked on the tasks individually.

b. Lack of negotiation with teacher

Student 3: We could not write a comprehensive film review. It was like a short summary of the movie. Getting feedback from the teacher would have been effective. I would notice my mistakes and I would learn how good I was at doing the task. In this way, when I do it next time, my performance would be better.

Student 6: … The problem was we did not get much feedback after we completed the tasks. It would have been better if we could have received more feedback from the teacher. We could have noticed our mistakes. We could have improved our English more.

c. Lack of rapport among students

Student 2: I do not think I participate in groups actively. My friends also believe that I was more active in the first module. I used to like my friends more in my previous class. I do not feel comfortable in this class. I do not like the energy of the people. I might be affected by my classmates negatively.

Student 11: When I pair up with a good friend of mine, I enjoy the tasks and I can be more productive. If I do not like my partner, I cannot be active during the task.

- **Cognitive**

Cognitive factors as inhibitive elements were subdivided into three: expectation for explicit teaching, preference for individual writing, and topic and task difficulty. It seems that learners' cognitive style might vary in terms of processing knowledge, cognitive learning style and perception of task and topic as complicated.

d. Expectation for explicit teaching

Student 4: We did not learn any fixed phrases that we could use in our text. Also we did not learn how to make complex sentences, so our sentences were usually simple. We should have learned how to make more complex sentences.

Student 7: Even if we write about different topics, the structure of our sentences does not change. Actually, we do not make much progress. The teacher should teach us the grammar and common phrases before we write.

e. Preference for individual writing

Student 1: I prefer individual writing. It would be better if we had done the tasks on our own. We could have shared what we have done afterwards.

Student 18: I do not like group-work. I think it only contributes to my vocabulary knowledge. If I had done the writing tasks on my own, I would have selected higher rating on the scale.

f. Topic and task difficulty

Student 5: The task to write a film review was difficult. We tried to get some information about the film from the internet but there were a lot of unfamiliar words. So we had to look up these in the dictionary a lot. We tried to translate the statements about the movie and it was challenging.

Student 21: The last task that we worked on was writing a formal and an informal letter. Formerly, I thought that it was easy to select correct words to use appropriate register but apparently it was not so easy. It seemed a bit complicated to me. There were a lot of rules. I used to think that rules for appropriate register were not so important but I realized that they are important in writing.

Student 18: I do not feel confident in writing about different topics because the topic is important. I mean it matters whether it is a topic we are interested in or not. Also it is important to have some background information about the topic.

Student 4: I did not like the last topic we wrote about. I had limited knowledge of it. It was not a topic that appealed to me so I could not express myself well.

2. Facilitative factors

- **Positive effect of task-based instruction on writing development**

Considering the statements of learners, it is obvious that task-based teaching of writing has been reported to be effective in three areas: generating ideas, content development and fluency in writing.

a. Generating ideas

Student 15: We exchange ideas with friends in a group. In this way, we compose a text combining different ideas. I think it is very beneficial. It was difficult for me to write on my own but I can generate more ideas now.

Student 22: I feel comfortable when I write on my own but the problem is sometimes my ideas can be complicated. I think I am a perfectionist. When I try to do my best, I write very slowly. I can't generate ideas quickly. Therefore, even if I prefer writing on my own, writing in pairs or groups helps me to overcome this problem.

b. Content development

Student 14: We compose better texts by exchanging our ideas because sharing different ideas makes the content of the text stronger.

Student 23: … When we write in groups, we can share our ideas and we can compose a comprehensive text.

c. Fluency in writing

Student 7: I think we do a lot of writing activities and this is good. We used to have difficulties while we were writing at the beginning of the module but we can write more fluently now.

Student 19: We do a lot of writing activities in classes and we have improved our writing skill in time. We can write more fluently now. We can also use our time more efficiently and it is beneficial in terms of this.

- **Positive effect of task-based instruction on language development**

It was reported that task-based teaching of writing contributed to learners' language development in two aspects, lexical and grammar improvement. Learners also reported that they benefited from tasks in terms of accurate language use since their mistakes were noticed and corrected by their peers.

d. Lexical improvement

Student 11: We have written texts on a variety of topics. We have learnt new words in each activity.

Student 9: We learn new words and their different forms when we work in a group. I think writing with peers has contributed to vocabulary knowledge a lot.

e. Grammar improvement

Student 14: …Writing with peers improves our vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Also it improves our expression in English.

Student 3: In task-based writing activities, we improve our language knowledge by sharing our existing knowledge. It improves our writing skill and also it helps to improve our grammar knowledge.

f. Error correction

Student 7: … It is good to write in groups. When I cannot notice a mistake, my friends correct it and I learn better when I learn with or from my peers.

Student 13: I think task-based teaching of writing is beneficial because we can recognize our mistakes or we can learn better by asking questions to our partner(s).

- **Positive effect of task-based instruction on perspective**

Development of perspective was another sub-theme which emerged as a facilitative factor. Learners reported that carrying out tasks in groups and pairs developed their perspective.

Student 18: … Thanks to these tasks, I understood that other people might have better ideas. I have learned to look from different perspectives.

Student 26: It is good to do group-work with our classmates because we can share ideas. In this way, we can develop our perspective and our creativity.

In this chapter, the outcomes of the study were given in two sections. In the first section, the results of quantitative data have been displayed in tables. In the second section, the findings emerged from the qualitative data have been presented.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

This study can be regarded as a small-scale case study that aimed to investigate the effectiveness of task-based instruction on the development of learners' writing self-efficacy. In keeping with recent practice, both quantitative and qualitative results were collected and analyzed.

RQ1. To what extent does task-based instruction affect English language learners' writing self-efficacy?

The findings of the paired sample *t-test* for pre- and post-training application of the scale (TBWSES) to the participants demonstrated that task-based teaching of writing increased the self-efficacy level of the students. This was proven with the analysis of overall scores of all items. The findings indicated that the increase in participants' level of efficacy was statistically significant. It bears noting that learner efficacy was measured in terms of intended learning outcomes of the training. Since the training aimed to improve learners' writing skill, it is possible to suggest that the expansion in sense of efficacy might affect leaners' writing performances positively. It was revealed in a study carried out by Meier et al. (1984) that efficacy expectations can predict writing performance (p. 117). Therefore, it is highly likely that learners' strong beliefs about writing will impact their achievement of the desired outcomes. Also, it can be concluded from the overall analysis of scores that joint writing completion has enhanced learners' beliefs about their capabilities to carry out writing tasks collaboratively.

The items in the scale were collapsed into three dimensions and the results showed that the increase was significant in all categories. When the statistical value of the results is taken into consideration, it is possible to say that learner efficacy improved from three aspects: creative writing, collaborative writing and use of appropriate register in writing. The dimension entitled *creative writing* included items that focused on outcomes of the tasks in terms of generating ideas, writing on a

variety of topics, producing arguments or solutions to different problems and writing descriptions. These sub-skills were objectives of the tasks that were carried out during the intervention. It is apparent that task-based instruction was effective in enhancing learner self-efficacy beliefs about these writing sub-skills. Items related to completing writing tasks with peers were collected under the dimension entitled *collaborative writing*. The results showed that participants gained confidence about carrying out tasks collaboratively working in pairs or groups. More specifically, the training enhanced learners' self-efficacy beliefs about writing on a task effectively in pairs or groups by producing sentences and reporting writing tasks. The result might be related to the implementation style of the tasks because learners completed nine jointly written tasks. The analysis of the third dimension, *use of appropriate register*, revealed that the increase in learner self-efficacy was statistically significant. During the intervention, learners completed written tasks in which they had to use different register for different situations. It seems that task-based instruction contributed to learners' beliefs about using appropriate style in writing.

When the item analysis on TBWSES was considered, the increase in the means of ten items might suggest that students perceived writing and task outcomes as more attainable after the training because mean scores of ten items (out of eleven) increased. The only item whose mean score remained the same before and after the training was 9. Although there seems to be an overall increase in the mean scores of items, their statistical value differs. There were five items that were statistically significant and six items which showed no significant increase after the training. While the increase is statistically significant in items 1, 2, 4, 7, 10, there was not statistical significance in items 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11. Item 1, 2, and 4 are the questions about creative writing and it seems that students have gained confidence in finding good, interesting ideas when writing, producing effective solutions to a problem and developing an argument, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view in written tasks. There is also a statistically significant increase in learner self-efficacy in terms of working on a writing task effectively in pairs and groups (item 7) which is a positive result with regard to collaborative writing. Learners also gained confidence in adopting a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances (item 10). As for the insignificant increase in other items, there are a number of possible explanations because they emerged as inhibitive factors from qualitative data. To

illustrate, the statistically insignificant increase in item 3 which is a question about writing a comprehensive film review can be related to task difficulty as it was documented in written reports collected from students. Moreover, when the statistically insignificant increase in item 8 is considered, it is possible to say that learners' cognitive style inhibited their producing sentences effectively when writing in pairs or groups. This can also be attributed to lack of negotiation skills or rapport among students because some learners reported that due to these reasons, they prefer to work alone.

RQ2. What are the facilitative and inhibitive factors in the development of self-efficacy in writing?

Two major themes, social and cognitive influences, emerged as inhibitive factors in the development of self-efficacy beliefs of language learners from the analysis of the written reports. Lack of democratic dialogue among students is one of the social factors which inhibited effective task completion. Learners had the belief that they did not benefit much from writing with peers. This probably resulted from the communication gap among learners. Namely, students preferred to write what others say rather than sharing ideas and negotiating. The finding shows that social interactions among learners are significant in order to carry out interactive tasks successfully. Given this focus on student interaction, it is also worth noting that lack of interaction among group members can inhibit the ability to learn from others.

Another social inhibitive factor that hindered enhancement of self-efficacy resulted from the lack of rapport among learners. Rapport is defined as "a close and harmonious relationship in which the people or groups concerned understand each other's feelings or ideas and communicate well" (Oxford Dictionary, 2016). In other words, it is an overall feeling which relates to positive and helpful behavior to promote social acceptance and friendship. In their study, Frisby and Martin (2010) found that perceived rapport with instructors and classmates is related to perceptions of classroom connectedness. Instructor rapport, student rapport, and classroom connectedness enhanced student participation. (pp. 155-156). In the present study, students reported that they do not participate in tasks actively when they dislike their classmates. Also they attach importance to peers they are assigned to work with. It is

clear that the finding, lack of rapport as an inhibitive social factor, proved their hypothesis.

Lack of negotiation with the teacher on task performances emerged as one of the sub-themes related to social inhibitive factors which seem to prevent learners from taking advantage of task-based teaching of writing. Students reported that receiving feedback for language mistakes would be effective after the training sessions. The literature has some evidence to prove students' reasonable grounds. McCarthy et al. (1985) maintained that when individuals receive feedback about the quality of their performance, their evaluations about their abilities (efficacy expectations) develop (p. 466). Apparently, teacher feedback leads to performance appraisal and further development of expectations.

Not only social influences but also cognitive factors affected learners' beliefs about task-based instruction negatively. Participants stated that they had expectations for explicit language teaching and emphasized that they would prefer to learn fixed phrases and sentence structures to use in particular contexts before the training. It is probable that culture -particularly previous educational experience- has affected learners' perception. In fact, it might be the result of the traditional teaching method used in many fields of study and also the presentation-practice-production (PPP) model which is widely applied in foreign language education contexts.

Although students usually reported that they benefited from collaborative work, some learners expressed their preference for individual writing rather than producing a jointly written text. This might be regarded as learner style; to state this in a different manner, some learners might develop learning strategies based on individual study. Wenden's (1986b) study has revealed that individuals vary in the strategies they employ because of differences in learning styles, affective styles, and cognitive styles (as cited in Reid, 1987, p. 91). Reid (1987) claimed that her research, which was carried out in the US and included ESL learners from different countries, supported the previous research. It was found that "ESL students from different language (and by extension different educational and cultural) backgrounds sometimes differ significantly from each other in their learning style preferences" (p. 99). Therefore, additional research might help to demonstrate learners' major learning preferences and the resources which impact their learning styles.

Participants stated that their beliefs about the ability of writing on a variety of topics are affected by the topic choice. They reported that the topic assigned to them to write about should appeal to their interests and that they should also have some knowledge of it. In fact, they underlined the importance of background information to generate ideas for a writing assignment. Learners also indicated that task difficulty affected their sense of efficacy. They stated that when the task was challenging, they were not certain about their performance -whether they achieved the task successfully or not. Learners' perceptions of tasks as 'difficult' might be due to the design of the task or the learners' cognitive styles.

In addition to inhibitive factors reported by the participants, findings are also indicative of facilitative factors which promoted learner efficacy from several aspects. First of all, a lesson designed in accordance with a task-based cycle might lead to improvement in student writing skill. Students documented how task completion with peers helped them improve brainstorming skills. They reported that when they shared ideas, they naturally came up with more ideas and this not only developed the content quality of the written material but also helped them to achieve fluency in writing. This has probably resulted from the activation of working memory and expansion of its capacity in composing processes.

Another advantage of carrying out writing tasks with peers is its positive effect on language development. Learners reported their learning experiences considering various concepts in language learning. It was suggested that they benefited from tasks in terms of lexical development, grammar improvement and correspondingly expression in English. This is mainly because learners had the opportunities for experimental learning by constructing the language, sharing their ideas and using their own existing knowledge. Moreover, task-based instruction seems to be an effective medium of developing language knowledge since learners attempt to take more risks when they write with their peers. They can also benefit from peer feedback in order to use more appropriate and accurate language when they are assigned tasks to complete in groups.

Last but not least, task-based instruction and collaboration help learners to extend their vision. It was documented that writing on a variety of topics contributed to learners' general knowledge about different topics and issues. In addition, they

benefited from group discussions to a good extent. Students believe that this has enabled them to develop a point of view on other peoples' opinions and beliefs. This is beyond language learning and it is a significant educational gain.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

5.2.1 Practical implications for task designers. As *task difficulty* emerged as an issue inhibiting effective learning, there seems to be a need to highlight the importance of task design and implementation. Considering that learning experiences influence learners' beliefs about their potential capabilities, the planning and the implementation stage of the task is worth addressing. With regard to this, Schunk (1984) noted that "educational practices can moderate the effects of task outcomes on self-efficacy" (p. 6).

Task design can be described as the planning stage of the task and it usually takes place before the class. However, after a particular lesson task design can be reviewed and it can be redesigned by eliminating problems that might arise during the implementation. Breen (1987, p. 25) suggested four questions to assess the task's potential which can be put into two groups: what and how. While the question 'what' addresses the content and objectives, the question 'how' deals with the methodology of the task. It is worth considering these questions before performing a task.

1. What is the objective of the task? What particular skills will/should be developed; what particular skills will/should be attended to? Are objectives mainly in terms of accuracy, fluency or complexity? Are task objectives adapted to learners' needs?

2. What is the content of the task? e.g. Is the topic content familiar or unfamiliar to the learners? Is the topic likely to interest the learners?

3. How will the task be carried out? e.g. Will learners rehearse the task before they carry it out?

4. How will interaction patterns and verbal exchanges take place? e.g. Will the learners work in pairs or groups or will they perform the task individually?

Although designing a task-based syllabus entails experience and expertise, it is possible for teachers, regardless of their experience, to design and integrate tasks into a coursebook as long as the course objectives are available in any form – e.g. linguistic or functional. The starting point for task design should be the objectives

and target learning outcomes which are set out in the syllabus or curriculum guidelines (Nunan, 1989, p. 138). In the case of this study, the curriculum was designed according to the descriptors determined by The Common European Framework of References and it included strands indicating learning objectives divided into skills and sub-skills. Also, the content and the themes of the course must be specified in order to create the material. Again, the theme and the topic in the related unit of the coursebook was taken into consideration while designing tasks for the present study. The next step is to select or create input for learners. For this step, the teacher should have some skills or abilities to adapt and modify the materials. In fact, teachers have a variety of options to prepare task materials. They can use authentic materials; modify an exercise in the book; modify a source from the internet or they can create their own material from scratch. It is also important to decide how to group students and the roles they will adopt in carrying out the tasks. To illustrate, cognitive demands on learners and their levels of language proficiency and expertise in skill, e.g. writing, speaking, need to be considered.

In addition to these, it is important to carry out the tasks effectively so that a well-planned task can be implemented successfully in a classroom. Implementation of task-based lesson necessitates effective classroom management skill and timing. Teachers also need to be flexible when they encounter unexpected problems. Moreover, when monitoring tasks, it is good to keep record of the points that need to be highlighted after the lesson. This can be about learners' performances or common language mistakes. In addition to this, it might be helpful to have a small session with learners in order to review and evaluate the effectiveness of tasks. This is an implication drawn from applying current tasks to a pilot class and then using them in experimental class. That created the opportunity to render task-based instruction more effective by referring to learners' views while reviewing the tasks.

5.2.2 Practical implications for teachers. That group work is an effective approach to writing instruction is a debatable issue but it is commonly agreed to be an important part of it (Grabe & Kaplan, 1998, p. 306). It is particularly important to increase student participation and to foster a sense of responsibility. During a lesson designed according to task-based cycle, even though they might have different assigned roles, all group members work towards a shared goal. In due course of learning cooperatively, learners also develop social and interactive skills as well as a

sense of cohesiveness among group members. However, seeing that others abstain from collaboration and sharing might bring about negative beliefs about one's capabilities to carry out tasks which entail social interaction. As Pajares (2003) set forth, individuals undergo vicarious experience when they observe others performing tasks (p. 140). Since modeling is one of the sources to construct self- efficacy beliefs, it is essential to take it into consideration when implementing collaborative tasks in the classroom. One suggestion would be to consider learners' English proficiency level and their general tendency in social situations. To illustrate, in most cases, strong and dominant learners suppress weak and less active learners and discourage their participation. Thus, it is essential to raise awareness of learners about effective group work and negotiation skills by training them before the implementation of tasks. Another suggestion would be to consider the rapport among students when they are requested to work together. According to Frisby and Martin (2010), it is important to develop rapport among learners to enhance classroom connectedness and student participation (pp. 155-156).

Providing feedback to learners was not a major complement of the tasks during the task implementation procedure. Therefore, lack of feedback emerged as a negative perception for the implementation of tasks. In other words, learners could have been more satisfied with their performance, if they had been provided with feedback after each lesson in which they completed a writing task. This shows that learners were in need of teacher instruction and guidance. Willis and Willis (2008) put forward four major reasons to provide learners with a focus on form feedback at the end of the sequence (p. 25). One reason is that learners can make sense of the language they have experienced during a task cycle. In the pre-task stage, learners might acquire some particular phrases or new structures to be used and they might practice these in the task they carry out. Yet still, this does not help them to gain full awareness of accurate language use. Therefore, a form-focused post-task stage offers them the opportunity to explore some of the forms that have been used. Form-focused teaching is also important to minimize errors in language use. Willis (1996) maintained that grammar fossilization could occur if teachers disregard accuracy activities and place emphasis only on communication in groups. In other words, "some learners develop fluency at the expense of accuracy" (p. 1) if tasks are not designed and implemented effectively. Another argument is that focusing on forms

highlights the language that learners will probably use in the future. It was stated that in this manner, forms can become salient and they are more likely to be noticed in the future. The final suggestion is that learners become more motivated when they know what they have learned. If students are informed explicitly about the language they use, they can remove the question marks in their mind and fill in the gaps in their knowledge. This is an effective way of keeping track of language development and motivating learners to learn more. The positive correlation between learner self-efficacy and language learning motivation was revealed in a study carried out by Ersanlı (2015). She concluded that "students with higher levels of self- efficacy may believe that they can get high scores in English or may perform well in classroom tasks" (p. 477).

5.3 Conclusion

It has some variations but cooperative learning is described as "to engage students cooperatively in inquiry and interaction for the purpose of working towards some joint goal" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1998, p. 306) which is task outcome in the case of this study. In addition, cooperative learning requires the use of structured tasks and this might provide interactive and inquisitive learning opportunities to students. Cooperative learning was a prominent part of this study and the aim was to enhance learners' self-efficacy beliefs about writing and its components through the task-oriented collaborative writing activities. The results of the quantitative data have revealed that applying task-based writing activities in a language class had significant impact on learners' beliefs about writing. In this respect, task-based instruction might be considered as an important medium to provide vicarious efficacy information since it usually requires carrying out tasks in pairs or groups. "Observing others succeed can convey to observers that they too are capable and can motivate them to attempt the task" (Schunk, 1991, p. 216). Most importantly, when learners engage in academic tasks in which alternative teaching methods are used, they are likely to regulate or even rebuild their sense of efficacy. As Pajares (2007) put forth, one's interpretation of previous performance based on experiential learning is the most effective way of cultivating sense of efficacy (p. 106).

Additionally, the results of the qualitative data demonstrated that there are both facilitative and inhibitive factors which influence learners' perception of self-efficacy

beliefs from several aspects. Learners reported that they benefited from training process since they believed that they improved their writing skills by sharing and generating more ideas which facilitates content development and fluency in writing. They also documented that task-based teaching of writing contributed to their language knowledge, lexical and grammar learning in particular. On the other hand, the study unveiled the negative factors which might inhibit learners' effective work and thus their assumptions about their capabilities. One substantial finding was learners' criticism about lack of feedback and their expectations about form-focused teaching. It is evident that teacher feedback is necessary after each and every lesson in which activities are carried out in task-based cycle. This will help learners to notice language forms they have experienced "and if they are noticed, they are more likely to be learned" (Willis & Willis, 2008, p. 25). Another prominent finding was the cognitive styles which vary from person to person. While some students reported that they perceived a particular task as difficult, others documented that they benefited from the same task greatly because they reported to have learned a lot. Similarly, while some students were satisfied with the instruction model in task-based learning, some others reported their expectations for explicit teaching as they believed that they process the information best when they are given the rules first. Namely, although the general tendency is to focus on the needs and learning outcomes of the whole class when planning and teaching, sometimes the attention should be shifted to individuals. There is no doubt that identifying individual differences and striking a balance is the real challenge of being a teacher. Therefore, task-based teaching of skills, particularly writing, can be a good alternative in order to overcome this challenge since it renders integration of skills, mixture of form-focused and meaning focused learning and preference for individual or cooperative learning possible.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

A longitudinal study can be carried out to observe the effects of educational practices on learners' self-efficacy in their academic life. According to Raoofi et al. (2012), "almost all studies examined short-term influences on self-efficacy and thus, these did not examine whether students' beliefs and perceptions change over a longer period of time" (p. 66). It is understood that most of the studies including the present study provided interventions during a relatively short period of time. And the effect

of the training has not been measured in other areas. Therefore, it seems that more comprehensive and long-term experiments are needed to discover the effect of self-efficacy on learning and the factors that have influence on self-efficacy.

For future research, teacher feedback could be included more since learners emphasized the importance of feedback in their learning process. In doing so, the methodology of the study carried out by Schunk (1982) can be applied. In his study, he trained math students for subtraction skills. He compared an experimental group with a control group. In the experimental group, students obtained effort attributional feedback for prior achievement while focus group received feedback for future achievement. It was stated that attributing prior achievement led to the highest self-efficacy and skills yet stressing future effort led to no benefits (p. 552). This shows that teacher feedback is essential and more importantly, the type of feedback is crucial while practicing a skill. Therefore, a task-based study can be applied to two different groups and participants' level of self-efficacy can be compared. After each training session, leaners in the experimental group could receive feedback attributing prior achievement- how successful they were when they worked on the task; whereas participants in the control group might be provided feedback for future achievement- how they can be more successful to complete the tasks in future sessions. In such a study, teaching implications can guide teachers for effective teacher feedback and promoting self-efficacy.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

BİLGİ VE KABUL FORMU

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu ölçeğin amacı Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünde yüksek lisans yapan Semra Değirmenci Mutlu tarafından yürütülecek olan bir araştırma için veri toplamaktır. Çalışma, araştırmacının yüksek lisans tezinde kullanılacaktır. Araştırma, sizin görev-temelli yazma aktiviteleri yoluyla yabancı dil öğretiminin yazma becerisi özyeterlilik düzeyi üzerine etkisini ölçmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu ölçek size kurun ilk haftası ve dördüncü haftası olmak üzere iki defa verilecektir. Ölçeği yanıtlarken adınız istense de, bunun nedeni yalnızca cevaplarınızı karşılaştırmaktır. Ölçek sonuçları sadece bu araştırmada kullanılacak ve kimliğinizle ilgili bilgi gizli tutulacaktır.

Güvenilir veri toplayabilmek için ölçekteki <u>tüm soruları samimi bir şekilde cevaplandırmanız</u> çok önemlidir. Lütfen ölçekte yer alan ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear Students,

The aim of this scale is to collect data for a research study conducted by Semra Değirmenci Mutlu, attending Graduate School of Educational Sciences, TEFL Program at Bahçeşehir University. The study will be included in the researcher's master's thesis. The study aims to investigate the effect of task-based task-based writing activities on students' writing self-efficacy. You will be given this scale twice during this module, in the first and the fourth week of the quarter. Although you are required to write your names on the scale, the purpose is merely to compare your responses. The results of the scale will be used only in this research and kept confidential.

In order to collect reliable data, it is very important that you <u>respond to all questions honestly</u> in the scale. Please read the questions carefully and choose the best response for you. Thank you for your participation.

I have read and understood the above and agree to participate in this study.

Name:

Signature:

TASK-BASED WRITING SELF EFFICACY SCALE
GÖREV TEMELLİ YAZMA ÖZ YETKİNLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Name: **Date:**

Age:

On the scale below, there are statements about writing. Please read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that indicates to what extent you agree or disagree with each of them. *(Aşağıdaki ölçekte yazma becerisi ile ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatli bir şekilde okuyun. Daha sonra her birine ne kadar katıldığınızı gösteren numarayı daire içine alın.)*

(5) Strongly agree (Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

(4) Agree (Katılıyorum)

(3) Unsure (Kararsızım)

(2) Disagree (Katılmıyorum)

(1) Strongly disagree (Kesinlikle katılmıyorum)

No		Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	I can find good, interesting ideas when I am writing. *(Yazarken iyi ve ilginç fikirler bulabilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
2.	I can produce effective solutions to a problem in written tasks. *(Bir sorun için -yazarak- etkin çözümler üretebilirim).*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
3.	I can write a comprehensive film review. *(Detaylı bir film inceleme yazısı oluşturabilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
4.	I can develop convincing arguments, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view in my written tasks. *(Yazılarımda, bir bakış açısını destekleyen ya da ona karşı gelen ikna edici savlar geliştirebilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
5.	I can write clear, detailed descriptions of imaginary events or persons. *(Hayali kişiler veya olaylarla ilgili açık ve detaylı betimlemeler yazabilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

6.	I can write clear, detailed descriptions on a variety of topics. *(Çeşitli konular hakkında açık ve detaylı yazılar yazabilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
7.	I can work on a writing task effectively in pairs or groups. *(Yazma ödevlerini, ikili olarak ya da bir grupla birlikte etkin bir şekilde yapabilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
8.	I can produce sentences effectively when I write with in groups or pairs. *(Bir grupla birlikte ya da ikili olarak yazı yazarken etkin cümleler kurabilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
9.	I can report a piece of writing produced in pairs or groups. *(Bir grupla birlikte ya da ikili olarak yapılan yazma ödevlerini rapor edebilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
10.	In my writing, I can adopt a level of formality – register– appropriate to the circumstances e.g. formal, informal. *(Yazılarımda kullandığım dili farklı durumlara göre -resmi, resmi olmayan vb- değiştirebilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
11.	In my writing, I can select my words considering the target audience. *(Yazılarımda, okuyucu kitlesini göz önüne alarak kelimelerimi seçebilirim.)*	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

APPENDIX C

TASK-BASED WRITING SELF EFFICACY SCALE - DIMENSIONS

No		DIMENSIONS
1.	I can find good, interesting ideas when I am writing.	CREATIVE WRITING
2.	I can produce effective solutions to a problem in written tasks.	
3.	I can write a comprehensive film review.	
4.	I can develop convincing arguments, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view in my written tasks.	
5.	I can write clear, detailed descriptions of imaginary events or persons.	
6.	I can write clear, detailed descriptions on a variety of topics.	
7.	I can work on a writing task effectively in pairs or groups.	COLLABORATIVE WRITING
8.	I can produce sentences effectively when I write in groups or pairs.	
9.	I can report a piece of writing produced in pairs or groups.	
10.	In my writing, I can adopt a level of formality –register– appropriate to the circumstances e.g. formal, informal.	USE OF APPROPRIATE REGISTER
11.	In my writing, I can select my words considering the target audience.	

WRITTEN REPORT OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

Please, answer the questions below by providing as many details and examples as you can. You can answer the questions in English or in Turkish.

1. What do you think about task-based teaching of writing?

_____

_____

_____

_____

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2. Do you think task-based instruction has contributed to your writing skill? Why or Why not?

_____

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A SAMPLE TASK PAPER - TASK 1 (DESCRIBE SOMEONE)

DRAFT 2

GROUP:
Fatmanur, Beste, Seda

Person 1

My sister is a person who likes talking. Sometimes she talks a lot. She can make friends easily. Also, she likes giving gifts to her friends. She can make good relations with people in all ages.

Adjective(s) to describe this person:

talkative, chaty, friendly generous, easy-going.

Person 2

My brother is a person who doesn't like talk much. He always stays in his room. He doesn't go out because he hasn't any friends. When you say something bad to him he becomes sad quickly

Adjective(s) to describe this person:

unsociable, unfriendly, shy, sensetive, reserved, quiet

APPENDIX F

A SAMPLE TASK PAPER - TASK 2 (AN IDEAL CANDIDATE)

Name: Daniela Nichola

e-Mail: daniela.n@gmail.com

Background Information

I come from a large family (two sisters and one brother). I am 32 and I'm the oldest child in the family so I can take responsibility easily. My family is Italian - American so I speak Italian and English very well. I'm an experienced office worker.

Personal Qualities

I'm responsible, open-minded and flexible person. I can also work under pressure. I'm a reliable person and I'm knowleadgable about my work.

A SAMPLE TASK PAPER – TASK 3 (TRAVEL PROBLEMS - SOLUTIONS & ARGUMENTS)

Problem: _A group of tourists wanted to visit local grand bazaar in a small town and there mobile phones and money were stolen._

Your solution for the problem:

✓ First, we call the cops to find things that were stolen.

✓ After that, we collect money for these tourists.

Disadvantage of this solution (other group will write)	Before the thepth, they should take precaution because they dont want their things stolen.
Advantage of this solution (write your counter argument)	The problem has already happened, and we're looking for solution "right now".

....

Problem: _The rooms in the hotel were dirty. Some people got sick._

Your solution for the problem :

✓ First, we call a doctor for sickness of the people.

✓ Then, we change the hotel, or we make the rooms cleaner.

Disadvantage of this solution (other group will write)	All solutions are after the problems but before the trip they should learn what the way take precautio They should say to hotel before the trip
Advantage of this solution (write your counter argument)	If they research before come to hotel, they never come here, and there are never sicknesses.

Tekin Yamac

SAMPLE TASK PAPERS – TASK 4 (THE JOURNEY OF COLUMBUS)

Columbus set sail on 3 August 1492. One week later, suddenly, a hurricane appeared. His soil under danger and his life too. He couldn't control his ship and he wanted to go India but he diverted because of hurricane. When hurricane finished, he didn't realize where he was. After that night his ship was attacked by pirate's ship. It was very hard battle and half of his crew died in the battle. They didn't found any land, so they didn't have much things to eat. But he never gave up. A few days later they didn't have anything to eat, so they started to eat their own shoes because they had to. while they were starving, they saw a piece of land from ship. They wanted to find eatable things from the land and they realize they explored new continent. To sum up, America was explored by cc.

EXPLORE OF AMERICA

Columbus set sail on 3 August 1492. He had 4 ships and, there were 100 people work for ship. half of them were male and the others were female. They had a parrot. The life was very hard because, they spent their time on the sea. The sea life is wild and it's so dangerous. They followed the stars to find the route. there was lack of food, they straggled for survival. Sometimes, some people of the crew discussed with each other about finding route. At the end of the sea life, they arrived the continent. They thought they were in India, but they were in America. Unfortunately, they didn't notice there was America long time.

APPENDIX I

A SAMPLE TASK PAPER – TASK 5 (BUSINESS DILEMMAS)

Names: Kadir Resul

Options for personality types:

(i.) You are an honest person. You always tell the truth.

ii. You are a naïve person and you always avoid making trouble.

iii. You are a person who does not believe in ethics but in benefits.

Business Dilemmas

If I were:
(a) Julia's friend
(b) the environmental manager
(c) the Chief Executive

If I were him, I would have complained this company. If they dismissed me, I don't care this. I don't need this company. I would find new job. Because I have a diploma. I'm professional in my job. The important thing is worn to people for healthy and clean environmont.

Comment from another pair on the text above:

I agree with you. Everyone must do the same thing because, it is too dangerous to healthlife. polluete the environment is a big crime and which company do this, it should be punished.

A SAMPLE TASK PAPER – TASK 6 (FILM REVIEW)

A MOVIE REVIEW

➤ **A. Watch a movie with the group members and write a movie review.**

Title of the movie: Léon : The Professional

Genre: Crime, Drama, Thriller

Year: 1994

Director: Luc Besson

Main actors: Jean Reno, Gary Oldman, Natalie Portman, Danny Aiello.

➤ **B. Please write a review including:**

- Introduction (an interesting beginning)

- A description of places and the time (when the action happens)

- Details of the main characters

- A summary of the story

- Conclusion (ending): What message is being told? What was the director's purpose or intention? State any recommendation (to watch or not to watch the movie).

Leon is a professional killer. He lives in a flat and has a flower. He really loves it because the flower is the one thing which he has. Leon have a breakfast with milk and he can't sleep in a bed. He sleep in an armchair. Mathilda is Leon's neigbours. She lives with her family. She has got an older sister and a little brother. She loves only her brother. She hates the other ones because their attitudes are vicious to her. The story is in Newyork. In that story, her father contacted with narcotic mafia. One day, Narcotic mafia came to Mathilda's home, when Mathilda was in supermarket. Her family were killed one by one. When she returned to home, the mafia was still in there.

She was scared but didn't look at them. She began to walk to Leon's home. Leon opened door. Then, the mafia left their building. And now, Mathilda wanted to take revenge for her brother. Leon and Mathilda started to live together in hotels. They changed hotel rarely. She learnt to kill from Leon. They practised with spurious guns for days. During this time, Mathilda loved him, and she taught to sleeply in a bed, love and addicting to someone. Finally, mafia found Mathilda. They came to kill her. Leon hid her and attacked them. He exploded a bomb with himself. Leader of the mafia was killed. Leon didn't come back to near to Mathilda, but revenge was taken. Mathilda carried on her life with Leon's flower in a dorm of orphan. The movie told us, love is the most important and powerful in our life. Age, place, time doesn't matter. Everyone can love each other who they are.

> C. Write the words you have learnt from the movie in the chart below.

Words	Parts of speech	Meaning
diagnose	verb	describe to someone.
snore	verb	purr in sleep.
distance	noun	length.
bullet	noun	A metal projectile for firing from a rifle.
clip	noun	bullets inside of this place. Part of gun
root	noun	The persistent underground part of a plant

SAMPLE TASK PAPERS – TASK 7 (JOB ADVERTISEMENT)

TV PRESENTER
(Entertainment Programme)

We are searching cheerful, energetic, creative and self-confident young people for this job. You should have good gestures and diction. You should use social media easily, and you should be more different than the other TV presenters. You should raise awareness.

There are lots of opportunities such as annual bonus and life insurance. If you have these qualifications, come and join us!

Living for you!

TV

CHANEL

• Founded: 1909, 106 years ago

• Founder: Coco Chanel

• Headquarters: Paris, France

• Number of Locations: 310

Young Designers

Chanel, the famous brand of fashion, accessories, eyewear, skincare and makeup, is looking for a recent gr. candidate for being the new designer. The candidates need to be creative. Also, they should have a knowledge of the new fashion. Our sector is very challenging. Because of this the candidates shouldn't be repetitive. If they think about different things, they can find glamorous ideas.

A SAMPLE TASK PAPER – TASK 8 (INFORMAL E-MAIL)

Your friend managed to pass the university entrance exam and now she has to decide where to study. Her family lives in a small town so she has to move away from home to study. She has some options and Istanbul is her favorite one. Yet still she wants to make sure if it is a good idea. As she is indecisive, she has asked you to give some advice. Offer some suggestions in your email considering that you are already studying in İzmir.

From: beyonce@celebrole.com
To: Adele
Subject: Studying

Hello Adele ,

How r u? I hope that u r ok. I heard that you passed the university entrance exam. I know İstanbul is your favorite options but I think it u not the best place for studying. It u too crowded and too expensive to live. I think you should study in İzmir beside me. I can help you for everything. Write me ASAP   XXXX

See you
Beyonce

From: crazy-adele-35@gmail.com
To: Beyonce
Subject:

Hi Beyonce,

I read ur e-mail and thx 4 ur advice. I heard lots of good things about İzmir and I chose this city. U said that İzmir is more cheaper than İstanbul and this is a good opportunity for the students and me. Thx a lot again. XOXO

See you
Adele

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A SAMPLE TASK PAPER – TASK 9 (FORMAL E-MAIL)

You are working in an advertisement company as a vice director. Recently, you have heard some complaints about technological devices in the research and development (RD) department. The employees said that copy machines and printers are out of date and they cannot get satisfactory prints. Also laptops crash a lot as they are old as well. You have decided to inform the manager about this problem and offer some suggestions to replace these machines.

From: ercument_35@gmail.com   (Ercument Aslan)
To: simone_jansen@gmail.com   (Simone Jansen)
Subject: Technological Devices

Dear Mrs. Jansen

We have some problems about technological devices in the research and development department. Firstly copy machines and printers are out of date, we have to replace them. Secondly, laptops crash a lot as they are old as well. I hope you can fix these problems.

Sincerely
Ercument Aslan — Department of RD

From: simone_jansen@gmail.com
To: ercumut_35@gmail.com
Subject:

Dear Mr. Ercüment,

Thank you for attention and your e-mail. We can try fixing these problems. If you want we can replace your technological devices.

Sincerely
Mrs. Jansen

WRITTEN REPORT SAMPLE ANSWERS

Please, answer the questions below by providing as many details and examples as you can.
You can answer the questions in English or in Turkish.

1. What do you think about task-based teaching of writing?

Bence grup çalışmalarında çok aktif değilim.
Arkadaşlarım da ilk modülde daha aktif
olduğunu söylüyorlar. Eski sınıfımdaki arkadaşla-
rımı daha çok seviyordum. Bu sınıfta çok
rahat değilim. İnsanların enerjisinden pek
hoşlanmıyorum. Sınıf arkadaşlarım beni negatif et-
kiliyor olabilir.

1. What do you think about task-based teaching of writing?

Grup halinde çalıştığımızda, arkadaşlarımla fikir
alış-verişi yapabiliyoruz. Böylelikle farklı fikirleri
birleştirecek bir yazı oluşturuyoruz. Bence bu
çok faydalı. Tek başıma yazı yazmak benim için
zordu. Ama şimdi daha fazla fikir üretebiliyorum.

2. Do you think task-based instruction has contributed to your writing skill? Why or Why not?

Grup halinde writing aktivitesi yaptığımız zaman ingilizcemizi geliştiriyoruz. Herkes varolan bilgisini paylaşıyor. Bu hem yazma becerimizi hem de grammar bilgimizi geliştiriyor.

2. Do you think task-based instruction has contributed to your writing skill? Why or Why not?

Derslerde bir sürü writing aktivitesi yapıyoruz bu yüzden yazma becerimizi zamanla geliştirdik. Şimdi daha hızlı (kısa sürede) yazabiliyoruz. Aynı zamanda zamanımızı daha etkin kullanabiliyoruz. Bu açıdan yararlı.

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CURRICULUM VITA

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2013 – Current	Izmir University	English Teacher
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FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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HOBBIES

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