THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' MOTIVATION, SELF-REGULATION, AND WRITING FROM SOURCE TEXTS

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Exquisita lectio singulorum, doctissimum; cauta electio meliorum, optimum facit. (Accurate reading on a wide range of subjects makes the scholar; careful selection of the better makes the saint.)

Declaration

This thesis has not been submitted in support of an application for another degree at this or any other university. It is the result of my own work and includes nothing that is the outcome of work done in collaboration except where specifically indicated. Many of the ideas in this thesis were the product of discussion with my supervisor Judit Kormos.

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ABSTRACT

This mixed methods study was conducted over the course of a four-week EAP course and examined the development of L2 international students' motivation, self-regulation, and writing from source texts. Data regarding motivation and self-regulation were collected using a questionnaire at the beginning and end of the EAP course. Furthermore, the participants completed an integrated writing task at the beginning and end of the course and the resulting data were analysed for writing quality and use of sources. Interviews were conducted in the first and final weeks of the course. Descriptive statistics and *t*-tests showed motivation and self-regulatory strategy use to remain stable over time, except for self-efficacy measure which increased significantly. In addition, scores on the integrated writing task and use of paraphrases increased significantly, while use of direct quotations and percentage of borrowed words remained stable. Correlation analysis confirmed the strong inter-relationship between self-efficacy and self-regulation at both times. At the end of the course, mastery goals, performance goals, and utility value were found to be significantly correlated to essay scores.

A number of theoretical implications are highlighted in the study. First, the findings indicate that there was learning transfer due to of the EAP instruction as the participants could apply their recently acquired knowledge to a test taken under timed conditions. It can therefore be assumed that attendance on a pre-sessional course can help students to develop in their cognitive processing of completing tasks that involve writing from sources. Second, the current research found various developmental trajectories for participants in terms of paraphrasing from source texts, Third, a model of EAP students' motivation from Confucian heritage cultures is hypothesised in which achievement goals and utility value directly impact on writing achievement. Finally, a model of international students' academic adjustment over the course of an EAP programme is posited that highlights the unique adjustment journey of novice L2 academic writers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

L2	Second language
SLA	Second language acquisition
EAP	English for academic purposes
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	First language
ESP	English for specific purposes
SFL	Systemic functional linguistics
CARS	Creating a research space
RW	Reading-to-writing
L2MSS	L2 Motivational Self-System
ARW	Academic reading and writing
LRD	Listening reading and discussion
APA	American Psychological Association
AWMSRQ	Academic Writing Motivation and Self-Regulation Questionnaire
PALS	Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales
T1	Time 1
T2	Time 2
TF	Task fulfilment
OS	Organisation and structure
LC	Language control
NC	Near copy
MnR	Minimal revision
MdR	Moderate revision
SR	Substantial revision
TR	Total revision

LIST OF APPENDICES

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Origins of the study

In this thesis I investigate the development of second language (L2) learners' writing from two perspectives. The first approach taken in this research has roots in L2 writing literature in relation to the development of writing skills. The second dimension of the current study is based on theories of motivation and self-regulation from the educational psychology and second language acquisition (SLA) literature. Through this thesis I aim to synthesise these two fields of enquiry as a means of providing a novel approach to the study of L2 writers' academic writing development. The motivation behind combining both L2 writing and motivation approaches stems from my educational and professional background.

I first became interested in the field of motivation while studying for a master's degree in teaching English to speakers of other languages. One of the course modules covered motivation and language learning. Through this module, I found it fascinating that a learner's goals, values, and beliefs could be as important to language learning success as their aptitude for language learning. At the time I was working as a language teacher in Abu Dhabi, and the theories of motivation that I was introduced to helped to confirm my observations that without motivation, even the most talented student can fail to achieve proficiency in language learning.

My interest in L2 writing development originates from my experience of teaching English for academic purposes (EAP). As an EAP teacher, I often found that students struggled with various aspects of academic writing and especially in incorporating the source texts of authors into their own writing. As I was developing my PhD proposal, I came across an article by Kormos (2012) that discussed the individual differences that can affect writing performance. Two of the individual differences mentioned in Kormos' (2012) article were motivation and self-regulation. She pointed out that few studies had examined academic writing development from the perspective of learner motivation. Therefore, because of my educational and professional interests, and the gap in the literature mentioned by Kormos (2012), I decided to investigate EAP students' writing development and whether writing development, and specifically writing from source texts, was related to individual differences in motivation and self-regulation.

1.2 Background of the study

UK universities attract a large number of international students, with the majority of these students being L2 speakers of English ("Where do HE students come from? | HESA", n.d.). L2 international students have been found to have difficulties with adjusting to their foreign study environments both academically (Lee, 1997) and socially (Rajapaksa & Dundes, 2002). In terms of academic adjustments, international students often face difficulties in academic writing (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006).

The process of writing is a cognitively demanding task in one's first language (L1) and these demands are further increased when writing in an L2. In a summary of cognitive studies of writing, Manchón, Roca de Larios, and Murphy (2009) described writing as a "recursive, cognitively demanding, problem-solving task" (p. 103) that dynamically cycles between planning, formulation, and revision. This complex cognitive process is compounded further when considering the demands of writing in an L2 because "L2 writing entails more problem solving than L1 writing as far as problem density and the range of problems to be tackled are concerned" (Manchón et al., 2009, p. 116).

Further strains are placed on an L2 writer's cognition when having to compose in an academic setting. Some of the variability in an L2 writer's ability to cite from sources may pertain to the complexity of this process, which comprises of "reading, understanding, learning, relating, planning, writing, revising, editing, and orchestrating" (Campbell, 1990, p. 211). When writing in academic settings, learners have a choice in how they incorporate the work of others into their own work: directly quote, paraphrase, summarize, patchwrite (paraphrase with minimal alteration [Howard, (1995)]), or copy verbatim. L2 writers have been shown to utilize direct quotation, copying, and patchwriting over the much more linguistically demanding skill of paraphrasing (e.g. Keck, 2014).

Several explanations have been proposed in the L2 writing literature to explain the tendency for inappropriate textual borrowing: limited L2 proficiency (e.g. Keck, 2006), unfamiliarity with the Western concept of plagiarism (e.g. Pennycook, 1996), and uncertainty about the expected target discourse conventions (e.g. Abasi & Graves, 2008). Also worthy of note is that the successful use of citations is interconnected with the wider area of academic plagiarism (Howard, 1995). A university student must incorporate source texts skillfully to both attain decent grades and avoid disciplinary measures resulting from plagiarism. The pressure that L2 students are likely to feel whilst composing is again compounded by having to write in an L2. Studies have shown that the fear of plagiarism causes anxiety in L2 writers, which negatively affects the quality of their written output. For example, in a case

study of L2 postgraduate students, Petrić (2012) found that a fear of plagiarism contributed to students preferring to use direct quotation over paraphrasing. Apart from the study just mentioned, no other studies have attempted to investigate L2 writers' source use practices in relation to their values, beliefs, and goals. This is therefore a salient topic to explore through the lens motivation theories from educational psychology that have successfully isolated several motivational factors that can play a role in the task performance of students.

Through the current research I attempt to address several issues. Firstly, in the L2 writing literature, few studies to date have examined international student's citation practices over the course of an EAP programme. Studies of source use development (Cumming et al., 2018; Wette, 2010) have investigated the impact of in-sessional EAP courses, while the current study focuses on pre-sessional courses and writers who have no experience of writing at tertiary level in the UK. Paraphrasing development over a pre-sessional EAP course is a salient topic to investigate as a large proportion of UK universities offer pre-sessional EAP courses, and it would be beneficial for course developers to have a greater knowledge of what aspects of paraphrasing pre-sessional students acquire over a typical EAP programme. Secondly, in the field of motivation and self-regulation there are no studies to date that have looked specifically at the relationship between motivation, self-regulation and writing from source texts Furthermore, while there have been studies of L2 learners' overall writing achievement in relation to motivation and self-regulation (Woodrow, 2011), few studies have been conducted over the course of an EAP programme. By gaining an insight into the individual differences of international students that can influence writing processes, teachers and course developers will be better informed in how to cater for their students who often have difficulties adjusting to their new study environment.

The research questions guiding the current study were as follows:

RQ1. How do international students' use of source texts and scores on an integrated writing task change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (a). How do international students' motivation and self-regulation change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (b). What is the relationship between international students' motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (c). What is the relationship between international students' integrated writing task scores and motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

1.3 Thesis overview

This thesis is organised into nine chapters. Chapter 2, which follows the introduction, gives an overview of the literature on international students' adjustment to studying in a foreign university. It also provides a definition and brief overview of EAP. Chapter 3 of this thesis offers a literature review on learning to write in an L2 from both cognitive and situated perspectives. Chapter 4 presents the literature concerning writing from source texts in an L2 and covers four aspects in relation to the development of source use in L2 students' writing: cognitive, situated, developmental, and cultural perspectives. Chapter 5 reviews the literature on motivation and self-regulation and provides theoretical and empirical overviews of achievement goals, self-efficacy, expectancy-value, and self- regulation constructs, with a focus on the empirical research conducted on L2 writing research. Chapter 6 presents the research methodology used to collect and analyse the data. It describes the research aims, context, and the instruments and procedures for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. Chapter 7 provides the quantitative and qualitative results related to the developments in integrated writing task scores and using sources. It then goes on to a discussion of the findings in light of the literature. Chapter 8 presents the quantitative and qualitive results of the developments in motivation and self-regulation, and the correlations between the motivation, self-regulation, and integrated writing task measures. This is followed by a discussion of the findings in relation to the relevant literature. Chapter 9 is the concluding chapter and outlines the methodological, theoretical, and pedagogical implications of the study and also addresses the limitations and areas for further research.

2 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AND EAP

2.1 Chapter introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on international students and EAP. The literature relating to international students will be reviewed first beginning with an introduction which includes a definition and statistics concerning international student mobility. The review then goes on to outline the situation regarding international students in the UK and gives specific information regarding Chinese student mobility. The final part of the section on international students looks at international student adjustment. Models of adjustment are reviewed and then an overview of the research is given focusing on the linguistic and academic issues international students may encounter when studying at a foreign university. The next section of this chapter concerns EAP. First, a definition and background to EAP is provided, which is then followed by a concise summary of empirical studies that have been conducted on EAP courses.

2.2 International students

2.2.1 Introduction

According to a simple definition, international students are individuals who study in a foreign country (Ecochard & Fotheringham, 2017). In 2018 over 5 million students embarked on tertiary education outside of their home country ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.), which is an increase of approximately 400,000 from the previous year ("Project Atlas 2017: Infographics", n.d.). The distribution of international students is predominantly centred on universities in Anglophone countries, namely, the U.S, the U.K, Australia, and Canada ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.). In 2018, all of these host countries saw a rise in international student numbers from the previous year ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.). International students have become a significant part of the student body in Anglo-Western universities; for example, in Australia, international students make up 32% of the total student population ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.).

Looking at the international student mobility statistics more closely, it is clear that the majority of international students studying in Anglo-Western universities originate from countries in which English is predominantly spoken as an additional language ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.). The largest group by nationality that study in in the US, the UK, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand are students from China ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.). Bearing in mind the demography of international students studying in Anglo-Western universities and the focus of this study, a new definition of international students is offered that will hitherto be the definition used in this thesis: individuals who use English as an L2 and study in an Anglo-Western university. Furthermore, a distinction is made in this thesis between international students and sojourners, with sojourners studying abroad for only part of their degree, and international students studying all of their degree in an Anglo-Western University. Furthermore, the term internationals students on the whole in this thesis will refer to students from outside of Europe, as the majority of research, and the current study as well, have focused on international students from other continents, most predominately Asia.

2.2.2 International students in UK higher education

As mentioned in the previous section, the UK is a popular destination for international students. Figures for 2017/18 show that out of the total UK student population of 2,343,095, 458,490 students were from outside the UK ("Where do HE students come from? | HESA", n.d.). The largest group of international students are from China who account for just under one quarter of the non-UK domiciled study body ("Where do HE students come from? | HESA", n.d.). The significance of Chinese students to the UK higher education system is apparent when one considers the following facts: a) Since 2012/13 the number of students from China commencing studies in the UK each year has exceeded the total number of students from EU countries studying in the UK ("Where do HE students come from? | HESA", n.d.); b) Students from China are one of the only group by nation that have risen in numbers from 2012/13 to 2016/17 ("Where do HE students come from? | HESA", n.d.); c) in 2017/18 the number of Chinese students in the UK totalled 106,530. The 2nd most popular country of origin for students entering the UK to study was India which sent 19,750 students ("Where do HE students come from? | HESA", n.d.). These figures show the significant role that students from China play in UK higher education.

The considerable number of international students, and in particular Chinese students, who chose to study in in the UK stems from a combination of a number of factors. Politically, the UK as well as Australia and Canada, have developed strategies to attract international students (Andrade, 2006). In the UK, in 1999, the then Prime Minister Tony Blair initiated a joint plan between

the British Government and the British Council called "The UK Education Brand" that aimed to market the UK around the world as a good place to study (Li, Chen, & Duanmu, 2010). Furthermore, Tony Blair created a 4-point plan that had the goal of increasing the number of international students. The reasons behind such political will can be found in the recorded benefits that international students bring to the UK. In terms of economic benefits, international students contributed £25.8 billion to the UK economy in 2014–15, with £4.8 billion in course fees (Hubble & Bolton, 2018). Furthermore, international education acts as a means of wielding soft power as it forges links and potential cooperation between individuals in different nation (Hubble & Bolton, 2018). Finally, international students offer educational benefits. According to "Where do HE students come from? | HESA" (n.d.), a majority of British students find that working with international students is rewarding because it enriches their experience and expands their world view. Furthermore, international students have created demand for specific kinds of courses, such as maths and engineering, that have become less popular with British students, leading to more diversity in universities (Li et al., 2010).

The large number of Chinese students wanting to study abroad can also be explained by internal factors within China. The Chinese education system has expanded rapidly since the country opened its doors to economic and social reform in the late 1970s and the expansion of the higher education sector has led to an ever-growing number of students attending university year on year (Liu, 2013). The only way a student can enter a Chinese university is through taking an exam called the Gaokao, and only those with the highest score on the exam can attend university (Iannelli & Huang, 2014). Therefore, competition for places is very high and this is one reason why Chinese students decide to study abroad. Another explanation for Chinese student mobility is also related to the Gaokao because students who score lower marks on this exam must pay higher university tuition fees. A further reason for the popularity of foreign study amongst Chinese students is that many students and their families deem Chinese universities to be overcrowded, lacking in facilities, and outdated in teaching methods (Iannelli & Huang, 2014). Iannelli and Huang (2014) point out that government funding for universities is highly imbalanced with the universities with the highest reputations gaining the bulk of government funding. A final leading factor in the decision to study abroad is that with an ever expanding middle-class, more Chinese parents can afford to send their children abroad than in previous years (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006).

2.2.3 International students' adjustment

When an individual encounters a new environment, they face a period of adjustment. Adjustment has been defined as consisting of both a

psychological component: "feelings of well-being and satisfaction" (Searle & Ward, 1990, p. 450), and a sociocultural component: "ability to fit in and negotiate interactive aspects of the new culture" (Searle & Ward, 1990, p. 450). The psychological dimension of adjustment is connected to an individual's emotions and is "best understood in terms of a stress and coping framework, predicted and explained by personality and social support variables and life changes" (Brown & Holloway, 2008, p. 233). On the other hand, the sociocultural dimension of adjustment is concerned with a person's behaviour and "should be viewed from a social learning perspective, predicted by variables related to cognitive factors and social skills acquisition" (Brown & Holloway, 2008, p. 233). One of the most comprehensive models of adjustment that gives a clear summary of the different psychological and sociocultural factors that are at play during the process of adapting to a new environment is displayed in Figure 2.1.
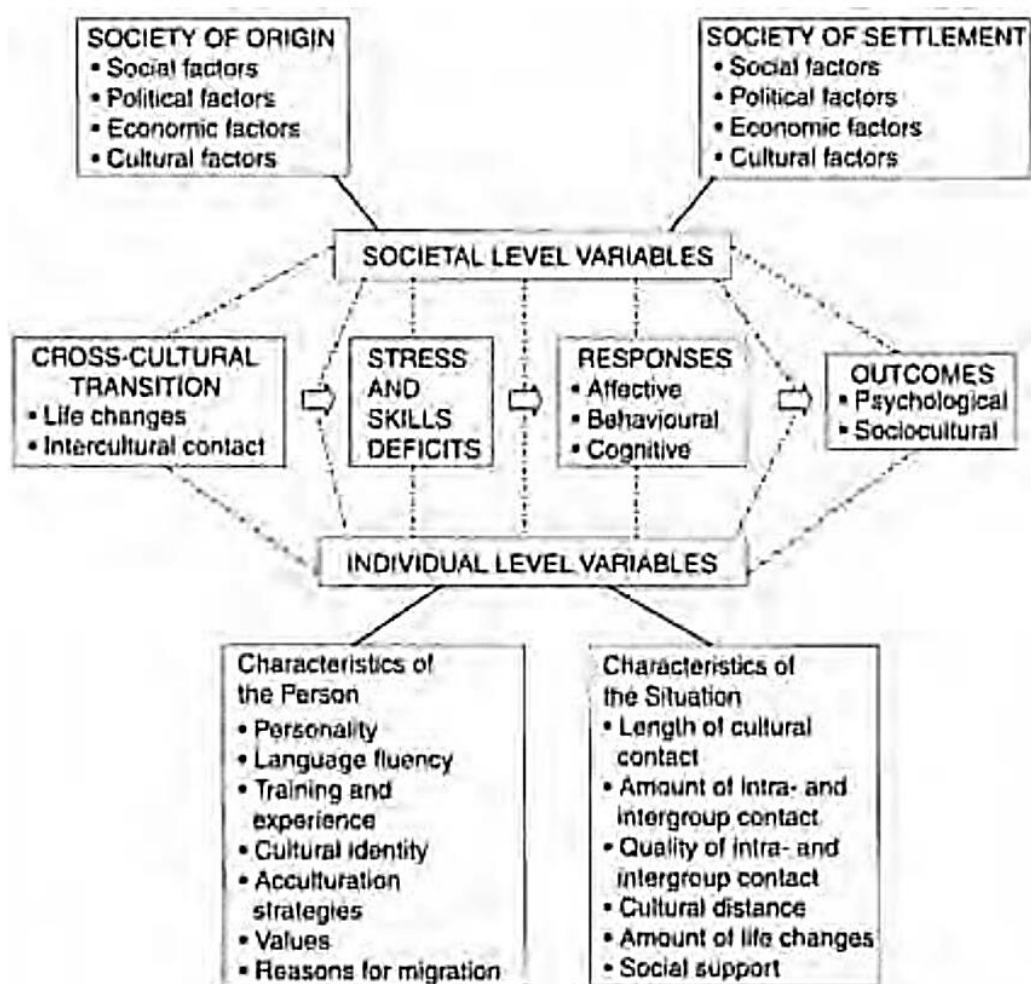
Figure 2.1: The acculturation process (Ward, Furnham, & Bochner, 2005)

While all students, international and non-international, potentially face adjustment issues when commencing their studies, international students,

tend to experience more difficulties because of differences between their home country and host country (Wu & Hammond, 2011). To account for the difficulties, a number of models of adjustment have been created that specifically focus on the adjustment journey of international students.

2.2.4 Models of adjustment

One of the first and often mentioned models of international students' adjustment is Lysgaard's (1955) u-curve model of adjustment, which Lysgaard created following research he undertook of Norwegian sojourners in the USA and which has spawned several iterations since its creation (e.g. Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Oberg, 1960; Selmer, 1999). An example of the u-curve adjustment model, as described by Black and Mendenhall (1990) and shown in Figure 2.2, follows four phases and begins with an individual feeling positive about their new environment (honey moon period). This is followed by negative feelings of frustration and disillusionment as individuals struggle to adapt to a different way of life (culture shock). After the culture shock stage, individuals start adapting to the new country and begin to have more positive feelings. The final stage is mastery which consists of slow but gradual adaptation to the new culture.
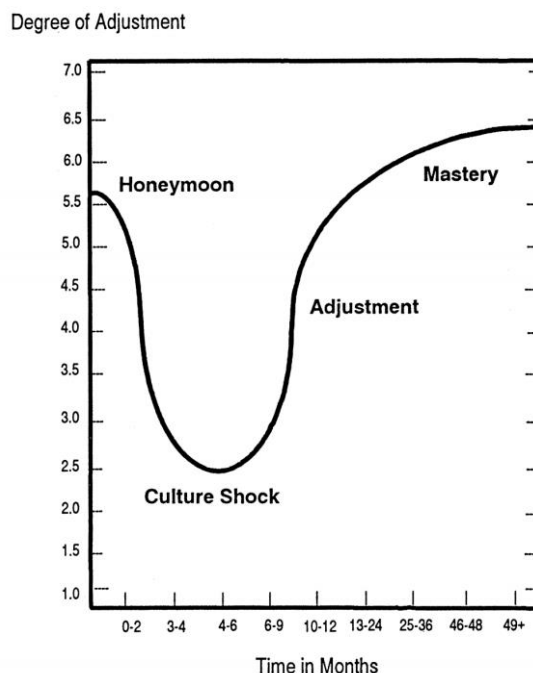
Figure 2.2: The U-curve of cross-cultural adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990)

The u-curve model of adjustment has been criticised for its methodological approach such as using cross-sectional rather than longitudinal data (Oberg, 1960; Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998) and for empirical data that has

been "weak, inconclusive and over-generalized" (Church, 1982, p. 542). A further criticism of the U-curve model is that it does not reflect the reality of international students and is only representative of sojourners who only stay for a limited time in the foreign country (Ecochard & Fotheringham, 2017), while international students have the pressure of both adapting to a new culture and the added pressure of meeting their immediate and long term academic goals (Quan, He, & Sloan, 2016). Therefore, instead of the initial excitement and positive emotions hypothesised in the U-curve model, international students have been found to start their new academic journey with negative emotions and trepidation about their new study environment. Furthermore, the U-curve model fails to account for the complexities of the international student experience. For example, in a study of international post graduate students in the UK, Chien (2016) stated,

> Far from being a predictable curve, the data presented here reveal that adjustment is a complex set of experiences influenced in various ways by different internal and external factors, different cultural expectations, and the student's adaptation, negotiation, and resistance to social norms in the host context. (p. 48)

A number of models of international student adjustment have been offered to provide a more realistic interpretation of the international student experience (Major, 2005; Quan et al., 2016; Wu & Hammond, 2011). One such model stemmed from Major's (2005) study of 10 Asian (Japanese, Taiwanese, Thai) undergraduate international students at an American university. Major (2005) describes three stages that her participants encountered (Figure 2.3).

Stages and Dimensions	STAGE 1 ENTRY	STAGE 2 DISSONANCE	STAGE 3 ADJUSTMENT
A INTRA-PERSONAL	1A Expectations: being outside observer and doing intellectual tourism	2A Culture shock Psychological turmoil Sense of incompetence	3A Cultural therapy and self-efficacy Personal adjustment
B SOCIO-CULTURAL	1B Introduction to co-national network	2B Interpersonal and sociocultural divergence	3B Cultural therapy and sociocultural adjustment
C ACADEMIC	1C Co-national coaching and mentoring	2C Divergence of academic practices	3C Cultural therapy and academic adjustment

Figure 2.3: Analytical matrix depicting stages and dimensions of adjustment (Major, 2005)

The first stage named expectations was experienced on pre-arrival and in the initial period of the students' stay. At this stage, the students were participating in "cultural and educational tourism" (p. 87), which means that they were viewing American culture and student life from an outsider's perceptive and

were learning about it, but not getting involve. During this initial stage, the participants felt overwhelmed and experienced feelings of culture shock, which were alleviated to some degree by gaining help and support from peers of the same nationality. At stage two (dissonance), the students moved from their initial role of outsiders to active participants in educational and social life in America. The differences between their home country and new environment become apparent at this stage, both academically and socioculturally, and as a result "every one of the students experienced culture shock, mental fatigue, loss of self-confidence, and academic deficiency" (pp. 88–89). During the second stage Major mentioned that some of her participants had been placed on academic probation and a few them mentioned that they felt like leaving the university in America and going home. However, none of the students did terminate their studies prematurely and most of them began to adapt to their new life, which was identified as the third stage. The third stage (adjustment) found students adapting to their new environment and being motivated by their initial goals of choosing to study in a foreign university, and the vision of successfully completing their studies. The students at this stage felt a greater sense of self-efficacy that also helped them to persevere when their studies became challenging (see Chapter 5.23 for a discussion of self-efficacy). At this stage co-national networks played a key role in supporting the participants in reaching their academic goals.

A recent model of adjustment that involved Chinese postgraduate international students in the UK was developed by Quan, et al. (2016). Quan et al.'s (2016) model is displayed in Figure 2.4 and is particularly relevant to the current study due to the similarities in context and participant demographics. Furthermore, Quan et al. (2016) provided a level of detail (e.g. phase timing) that is lacking in other studies.

Stages	Time scale	What is happening	Students' coping strategies
Stage one: Overconfidence at pre-arrival stage Students feel **confident** prior to entry	1 month before entering the UK	**Getting ready for the journey in the students' home country, feelings of:** • Excitement • High expectations • *Feel* ready for PG studies in the UK	**Be more proactive –** • Engage in pre-arrival academic preparations: gaining sufficient information and understanding of the academic conventions of British universities (eg. referencing; assignment writing; seminar activities; literature reviews). • Engage with Recruitment Agents: attend organised workshops for pre-departure
Stage two: Stress of academic conventions Students experience **stress** from different academic conventions (Students observing the learning context rather than engaged)	First 3 to 4 weeks of Semester 1	**Students' feeling of uncertainty, a 'Leap into the dark' experiencing:** • A large quantity of information • Learning shock through different academic conventions • In acting as an observer, they are not engaged effectively	**Understanding the transition – 'Mind the gap' and be aware of: –** • Cultural differences surrounding teaching and learning • Need to manage their own expectations • Develop new perceptions and attitudes towards knowledge and learning skills
Stage three: Engagement and adaptation Students start actively **engaging** and changing to the new academic conventions (Students commit to adjusting to the existing learning context)	Semester 1 (after 4 weeks and onwards) and beginning of Semester 2	**Committed to adjusting to change, resulting in:** • Intensity of stress reduced • More familiar with learning activities • More realistic and determined • Adjusting to new systems and learning new academic skills	**Maintain the momentum –** • Adjust and engage quickly • Recognise that you are on a fast learning curve • Take responsibility for their own learning • Develop good time management skills • Use compatriot networks – seek support • Understand and follow the rules (e.g, assignment instruction) • Self-belief
Stage four: Gaining academic confidence Student gain academic **confidence** and transition to the existing learning context	The midpoint of Semester 2 and Semester 3	*Transition illustrated through greater:* • Independence • Feeling more confident and competent • Improved learning abilities • Integrating into the new learning system	**Increasing confidence illustrated through:-** • Competence in applying adjusted skills into assignment writing, examinations and dissertations • Transferring from a mono-cultural sojourner to a bicultural learner

Figure 2.4: A developed process-based stage model (Quan, He, & Sloan, 2016)

Before arriving in the UK (stage one: overconfidence), as described by a participant in the study, the students felt "nervous but confident" (Quan et al., 2016, p. 334). Students at this stage felt positive about their future studies in the UK. However, when students started their course, at the second stage (stress of academic conventions), they began to encounter difficulties relating

to the differences in Chinese and British education. Students began to realise in the first semester that their initial confidence was actually overconfidence due to a lack of preparation. As Quan et al. (2016) mentioned, part of the reason for students not preparing adequately was due to the reliance on agents who dealt with the whole application process, even going as far as choosing the students' course and university. This reliance on agents meant that many students did not research their future degree or the educational system in UK universities sufficiently, leading to a lack of preparation once they started their degree. At the third stage (engagement and adaptation), participants began to get used to their new study environment. Many of them developed coping and self-regulatory strategies such as actively improving their time management. The participants also developed strong support networks with fellow Chinese students. Consequently, the anxiety and stress of stage two decreased). At the fourth and final stage (gaining academic confidence), which occurred in the later part of semester 2 and onwards, students felt more confident about their studies than in stage three and were satisfied even with receiving a low pass mark (second-class lower division or third-class honours). At this stage it is clear that the students felt a sense of pride at achieving some kind of success despite the obstacles that they faced.

To summarise, international students face a number of challenges through their studies in a foreign country. It is also apparent that the majority of international students adapt and develop coping and self-regulatory strategies that help them to adjust both psychologically and academically to their new environment. Although extensive research has been carried out on international students' adjustment to tertiary education over the period of an academic year, it is not clear whether pre-sessional students encounter similar adjustment paths. This thesis attempts to show that due to the specific focus on student adjustment and high levels of student support, pre-sessional EAP students follow unique adjustment paths in comparison to international students who do not attend such courses. The specific challenges that international students tend to encounter will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.5 International students' specific adjustment issues

Adjustment issues relating to international students can be categorized into three separate, but overlapping categories: linguistic, academic, and sociocultural. Linguistic and academic challenges will be discussed in the next sections. Although the sociocultural issues faced by international students is a valid and fruitful line of enquiry (e.g. Kudo, Volet, & Whitsed, 2018), it is beyond the scope of this thesis. It is worth noting that the majority of studies that have been conducted on international students have involved Chinese students, which is not surprising as mentioned previously Chinese students

account for the majority of international students in Anglo-Western universities ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.).

One point to bear in mind is that I do not take a deficit view of international students. Research has confirmed that international students are equal to home students in tests of non-linguistic verbal reasoning (e.g. Trenkic & Warmington, 2018). The issues that international students face, especially those from countries that do not have a shared history and culture (e.g. the UK and France), generally stem from linguistic and cultural differences. Overall, research has found that over time and after the initial challenges of adapting to a new culture are overcome, most international students are able to adjust to their new educational and social environment (McMahon, 2018).

2.2.5.1 Linguistic issues

Numerous studies have confirmed that the language proficiency of international students plays a key role in academic achievement (Daller & Phelan, 2013; Iannelli & Huang, 2014; Li et al., 2010; McMahon, 2018; Ramachandran, 2011; Trenkic & Warmington, 2018; Wang, 2018; Yu & Moskal, 2018). Specifically, issues with language proficiency have been found to affect reading comprehension (Qian, 2002), academic writing (Trenkic & Warmington, 2018), understanding lectures, classroom activities such as presentations (Ramachandran, 2011) and both oral and written feedback (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). In an interview study of Asian and Middle Eastern postgraduate students in a UK university, McMahon's (2018) participants overwhelmingly explained that language was one the of their main causes of concern. The participants in McMahon's study "struggled with communication" (p. 39), felt "disadvantaged having to operate in their second language" (p. 39), "felt foolish" (p. 39) using English inside and outside of class, and had to rely on translation tools when they were conducting coursework. All of the students felt unhappy with their current abilities in English language, although they did mention that they slowly gained in confidence as their language skills improved over time.

Chinese students have been found to be less successful academically than home students and other international students, with language difficulties playing a pivotal role (Li et al., 2010; Trenkic & Warmington, 2018; Wang, 2018). In a recent study at a UK university, Trenkic and Warmington (2018) compared the English language proficiency and overall achievement of 63 Chinese and 64 British master's students at the beginning of the first semester and eight months later. Trenkic and Warmington (2018) took measurements of vocabulary knowledge, reading accuracy and comprehension, summary writing, spelling accuracy, and sentence processing. Furthermore, academic achievement was measured using end of course grades. The results of the study highlighted the gulf between native and non-native speakers of English

as the Chinese group were weaker on all language measures. This difference between the home and international students remained stable over the eight months, meaning the international students did not catch up in any of the measures. Additionally, for Chinese students, over half of the variance in end of course grades could be explained by language proficiency, while no correlations were found between home students' achievement and language proficiency. Trenkic and Warmington (2018) posit that there is a proficiency level at which there is no longer a correlation between linguistic proficiency and academic achievement, and that the students in the study had not yet reached that level, even after eight months of study at a UK university. What is also interesting is that the students in Trenkic and Warmington's study (2018) had met the English language requirements to enter the course directly. The discrepancy between English language tests such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and the language required for successful tertiary education is thus highlighted in Trenkic and Warmington's (2018) study.

The "relatively poor English writing ability" (Li et al., 2010, p. 402) of Chinese students may be explained by the fact that English language training in China tends to focus on the passing of IELTS or TOEFL examinations which "do not help them to resolve practical issues that arise in a classroom environment" (Ramachandran, 2011, p. 204). Furthermore, Chinese Mandarin and English languages differ in many ways. They belong to two unrelated language families and differ greatly in terms of phonology, syntax, grammar, and there is a lack of cognates which students can use (Trenkic & Warmington, 2018). In summary, a lack of adequate preparation in the kind of language used at Anglophone universities, and the substantial differences between English and Chinese may account for the linguistic difficulties Chinese students face. As well as language difficulties, international students face other academic challenges which will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.5.2 Academic issues

International students are likely to experience a different style of education compared to what they experienced in their home country and must adapt to new methods of teaching and learning (Young & Schartner, 2014). Although international students have been found to be generally satisfied with their academic experience (Glass & Westmont, 2014), they gain fewer first and upper-second class honours degrees than home students (Morrison, Merrick, Higgs, & Le Métais, 2005), and part of this shortfall can be explained by academic adjustment issues. In McMahon's (2018) study, his participants quickly learnt that they needed to "bridge the gap" (p. 41) between the academic practices they were used to and the academic practices of a UK university. McMahon's (2018) participants mentioned that they needed to

"catch up with knowledge and skills" (p. 41). Furthermore, they also mentioned that they were initially unsure of how they might bridge the gap in such knowledge.

Academic adjustment can be particularly challenging for students from China and other Confucian heritage culture countries. As mentioned in previous sections, the majority of research on international students concerns Chinese students, which is the most populous Confucian country. Figure 2.5 gives an overview of learning in Confucian heritage cultures.
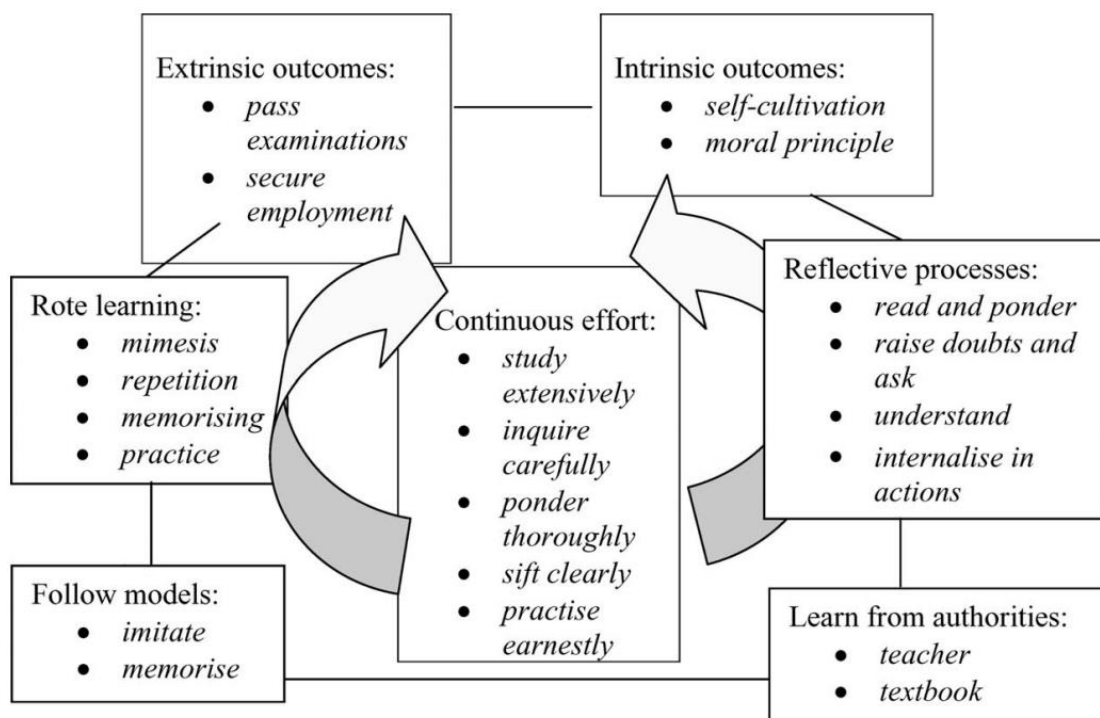
Figure 2.5: Learning in Confucian heritage cultures (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006)

The learning style in much of South East Asia as shown in Figure 2.5 and the contrast with learning approaches in UK universities is well documented. In a study at a UK university by Wang (2018), six postgraduate Chinese students and six British teachers were interviewed over a period of seven months. The teachers in the study stated that the Chinese students in their classes tended to be good active listeners, but also reticent and did not ask questions so frequently. The students in the study mentioned that they tended not to ask questions, especially of the teacher, to avoid challenging the teachers' opinions, and as Jin and Cortazzi (2006) highlighted, questioning teachers may be interpreted by Chinese students as not showing respect to the teacher. Furthermore, Wang (2018) explained that due to the culture of rote learning and memorization of texts, the students were less likely to question knowledge and took information from textbooks and tutors as unquestionable truths. Additionally, the reticence of students was a way of maintaining

harmony in the classroom: "the student interviewees described that they tried to control their emotions, avoid conflict, and maintain inner harmony with their teachers and peers" (p. 16).

Another adjustment issue may stem from the amount of independent study that is expected in a UK university. Students in Wang's (2018) study mentioned that they felt stressed at the perceived lack of explicit instructions and support from their tutors. Similar findings were found by Gu and Maley (2008) in a study of undergraduate Chinese students in the UK. The students in Gu and Maley's (2008) study stated that they felt the teaching style in the UK was not systematic, often unclear, and that teachers were not strict enough. Furthermore, they tended not to like group discussion work in seminars and thought that is was not challenging enough, too casual and overall a waste of time, which is summarised by Ramachandran (2011) who stated, "as they (Chinese students) are more familiar with teacher-led learning paradigms, they fail to see any benefits emerging from self-study components" (p. 207).

In summary, it is apparent that international students, especially those from China, encounter numerous linguistic and academic challenges when they come to study in the UK. To counter these challenges, UK universities and other Anglo-Western universities offer EAP courses that help international students to adjust academically. These courses will be examined in the next sections.

2.3 English for academic purposes

2.3.1 Definition

 EAP is a sub-field of English for specific purposes (ESP). ESP "refers to the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learner is to use English in a particular domain" (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013, p. 2). The focus of an ESP course is on teaching the genre specific language and discourse features of a particular field such as English for pilots in the aviation industry or English for medical purposes for nurses and doctors (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013). The growth in the demand for ESP coincides with the post-war growth of English as a global lingua franca in different professional, educational and economic contexts (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Perhaps the sector in which English has come to dominate the most is higher education, leading to the proliferation of EAP courses in recent years (Hyland, 2018a). EAP is most commonly defined using Flowerdew and Peacock's (2001) definition: "the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that first language" (p. 8). As mentioned earlier in the chapter, universities in Anglophone countries

have become popular destinations for international students whose first language is not English ("Project Atlas 2018: Infographics", n.d.). Furthermore, there has been a recent increase in the number of universities in non-English speaking countries providing English-medium instruction, with countries such as the Netherlands being popular destinations for L2 English students (Charles & Pecorari, 2016). These trends have resulted in the popularity of EAP courses and a growth in scholarship related to EAP (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001).

Research into the impact of EAP programmes on student development is limited, but it is a recently emerging field of enquiry. Studies of L2 students' development on pre-sessional courses have investigated affective factors. For example, Dewaele, Comanaru, and Faraco (2015) found that international students experienced reduced anxiety and increased willingness to communicate when comparing data at the beginning and end of a short intensive pre-sessional course. Studies such as Green (2007) have found improvements in overall writing test scores at the end of an EAP course. Furthermore, some studies have looked at specific aspects of skills development, such as Mazgutova and Kormos (2015) who found that after a month long pre-sessional course, students were able to use more advanced lexical and syntactical structures in essay writing tasks.

EAP research has also documented the after-effect of EAP on other courses; this after-affect is known as learning transfer which is defined as "when learning in one context or with one set of materials impacts on performance on another context or with another set of materials" (Perkins & Salomon, 1992, p. 6452). As the main aim of the EAP course is to prepare students academically for their degree program, the degree of learning transfer is a key determiner in the success of an EAP course. In general, researchers have found a learning transfer effect from EAP (James, 2014). An example of learning transfer was documented by Terraschke and Wahid (2011) who researched two groups of international postgraduate accounting students on the same course at an Australian university: group 1 had attended an EAP programme and group 2 had not attended an EAP course. The participants in the study were mainly from mainland China and were interviewed over the course of their postgraduate course. In terms of listening and speaking, Terraschke and Wahid (2011) reported no difference between the two groups in terms of listening and speaking skills. Both groups mentioned that they struggled to understand the accents of Australian teachers and students in lectures and seminars. Similar results were found for speaking skills with both cohorts reporting a lack of noticeable improvement. Terraschke and Wahid (2011) concluded that the lack of improvement in speaking and listening skills in the EAP group was because listening and speaking skills were not focused on directly in the course. In addition, the students mentioned that speaking was

not a major part of their assessment on the accounting course, which highlights the specific demands of different academic genres.

Conversely, Terraschke and Wahid (2011) found that the students who formerly took an EAP course verbalised improvement in both reading and writing skills over the course of their postgraduate studies. In terms of reading skills, both groups mentioned improvements; however, the EAP group were able to use meta language to describe the various strategies that they used to help them read academic texts. The EAP students mentioned using techniques for handling unknown vocabulary and reported being much calmer when they came across sections of text that they did not initially understand. The EAP students also mentioned the use of speed-reading skills, skim reading, and keeping a vocabulary book to write down new vocabulary they came across in the course readings. The skills that the EAP students mentioned were all taught on the EAP course. Only two of the non-EAP students mentioned using specific reading skills and all of the non-EAP students did not show evidence of using meta language to the extent that the former EAP students did. Similar findings were found with writing skills, with the former EAP students being more able to verbalise the strategies and skills they use when they are writing. Former EAP students were also more likely to report that they had progressed in writing skills over the accountancy course.

The impact of the EAP course is apparent from Terraschke and Wahid's (2011) study as the students who attended the EAP course were able to apply what they had learnt on the course to their degree studies. However, the transferability of skills learnt on EAP courses is still under investigated, and in the current research one aim is to identify if the writing skills that students learn on EAP courses can lead to improvements on an integrated writing task in timed conditions.

2.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed two key aspects of this thesis, namely international students and EAP. A definition of international students was given and then the adjustment issues that international students have been shown to encounter was discussed. In terms of international student adjustment, the research highlights linguistic barriers that international students face. Regarding EAP, EAP programmes are aimed at mitigating the adjustment issues that students encounter, and they have been proven to do so successfully in the studies featured in the literature review. The next chapter provides more specific details about the writing difficulties of international students.

3 LEARNING TO WRITE IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

3.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter is divided into two main sections, each of which presents a different theory of writing development. The first part of this section covers cognitive theories of writing and begins by overviewing two models of writing from the L1 writing literature that have informed research in L2 writing. It then goes on to a summary of the research into the cognitive processes involved in L2 writing. This section of the chapter finishes with an overview of how cognitive process theories have been used in the EAP classroom. In the second part of the chapter, genre theories of L2 writing are covered. This section begins with a brief outline of the three research strands of genre theory. Following that the ESP theory of genre will be discussed. This section ends by detailing research into the impact of genre pedagogy on student development.

3.2 Writing in a second language

An individual's ability to write is a key determiner of how literate they are deemed to be in a language (Hirvela, Hyland, & Manchón, 2016). Furthermore, writing is the main medium of assessment at tertiary level, and hence one's success at university is dependent to a large degree on how well they can display competence in writing (Hyland, 2017). While writing is key to academic success, it is also proven to be a challenging skill for L2 students to achieve competency in (Manchón, 2017), and tends to be the final skill that L2 learners acquire proficiency in (Williams, 2012). L2 writing development has been widely researched (Polio & Friedman, 2017), and because "L2 writing is a complex, multifaceted, and variable phenomenon" (Cumming, 2016, p. 65), L2 writing research has been conducted from various theoretical viewpoints (Cumming, 2016). In terms of research into student writing development, theories of L2 writing can be broadly separated into three categories (Hirvela et al., 2016): learning-to-write, writing-to-learn-content, writing-to-learn-language. The focus of the current research is the learning-to-write dimension of L2 writing, which is concerned with situations when "writing is learned and taught as an end in itself, the ultimate aim being the development of (multi)literacy for a variety of personal, social, academic, and/or professional

purposes"(Manchón, 2018, p. 258). This definition fits the context of the current study (see section 6.4), which is concerned with writing development over an EAP course and the preparation of students for tertiary level studies. While the EAP course of the study includes elements of learning content and learning language, the focus is on the process of writing and being able to write essays in the academic genre.

This thesis is based on the grounds that EAP writing instruction is influenced by both the learner's cognition and the learning context and therefore takes the view that "L2 writing is both a cognitive process, in which a writer draws upon a set of internalized skills and knowledge to produce a text, and a situated activity that takes place in a specific context with a specific goal and for a specific audience" (Polio & Friedman, 2017, p. 1). According to Hyland (2011), theories of learning-to-write can be categorized into three areas of focus: writers, texts, and readers. Theories focusing on writers (process) are concerned with the cognitive processes that writers experience while writing, theories focusing on texts (product) are interested in analysing the products of writing (e.g. dissertations), and theories focusing on readers see writing as a form of social interaction between the writer and an audience. For the purposes of this current study, issues focusing on the cognitive processes of individual writers and the genre of texts they produce in academic settings will be discussed below.

3.2.1 The process of writing: Cognitive theories of writing

Process approaches to L2 writing are based on cognitive theories of writing. Cognitive theories of L2 writing originated in the 1980s and have been one of the main strands of L2 writing research (Hirvela et al., 2016). Researchers who take a cognitive view of writing development aim to gain "insight into the mental processes writers engage in while composing" (Manchón, 2001, p. 48) and view "composition writing as a goal-oriented, cognitively-demanding, problem-solving task (Manchón, 2001, p. 48). Furthermore, the act of writing is seen as a recursive and generative process (Zamel, 1983) in which "writers use strategies such as planning, translating, reviewing, monitoring, generating ideas, organizing, goal-setting, evaluating, and revising" (Lei, 2008, p. 218). Cognitive theories of writing developed out of process models of L1 writing (e.g. Flower & Hayes, 1981). Early researcher in the field of L2 writing attempted to apply cognitive models of L1 writing to L2 writers as a means of identifying the mental processes of competent L2 students (Zamel, 1983). In the coming sections the prominent cognitive theories of writing will be discussed followed by an overview of the main research into cognitive processes of L2 writing and the impact that cognitive process models have had on L2 writing pedagogy.

3.2.1.1 Flower and Hayes' cognitive process theory of writing

Flower and Hayes' (1980, 1981) process model of writing is perhaps the most influential and widely utilized theory in the field of L2 writing research (Roca De Larios, Nicolás-Conseca, & Coyle, 2016). In Flower and Hayes' (1981) model (Figure 3.1) there are three categories of connected processes: the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing processes. Task environment refers to external factors and includes the writing task and the text produced by the writer. The writing process begins with the writer facing a writing task. The writing task is referred to as a rhetorical problem that the writer must address. In addressing the rhetorical problem, the writer must be aware of the purpose of the text and its intended audience. As the written text grows it "determines and limits the choices of what can come next" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 371), which can lead to an increased cognitive load on the writer.

The second domain that influences the writer is the writer's long-term memory which contains knowledge of the topic, the audience, and strategies to deal with different kinds of writing tasks (Flower &Hayes, 1981). A writer's long-term memory is relatively stable and can assist a writer in the writing process by "bringing a whole raft of writing plans to play" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 371); however, due to the nature of long-term memory, retrieval of information is not always possible when needed, and the information retrieved may not be relevant or difficult to adapt to the current writing task.

The third process is the writing process which contains three subprocesses, namely, planning, translating, and reviewing. The trio of subprocesses are controlled by a monitor (Flower & Hayes, 1981). The process of planning is where "writers form an internal representation of the knowledge that will be used in writing" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 372) and includes three subprocesses. First, the writer generates ideas, which may to some extent be retrieved from the long-term memory. The ideas generated will vary in clarity from fragments of information to solid ideas. Second the ideas are organized and structured so that they address the rhetorical purpose of the writing task. Third, throughout the writing process the writer sets goals that guide the writer at each stage of the task. Through the process of working towards a goal, new ideas related to addressing the rhetorical problem are generated and these new ideas lead to the formation of new goals. The next writing subprocess is translating and this is when the writer transforms the information created in the planning phase into a written product. The third subprocess of the writing process is when a writer evaluates what they have written and then makes revisions if necessary. After reviewing their work, a writer may then go back to the planning or translating phase. The reviewing phase, along with generating, are the only processes that can occur at any time and are able to interrupt the other processes. The final subprocess is monitoring, which occurs at each of

the writing subprocess and "functions as a writing strategist which determines when the writer moves from one process to the next" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 374).

In summary, Flower and Hayes' (1981) model was seminal because it was the first mainstream theory of writing that showed the complex, dynamic and goal-oriented nature of the writing process. It led to a proliferation of research in the L2 writing field as researchers sought to discover the processes of successful L2 learners and in turn translate the lessons learned into classroom applications.
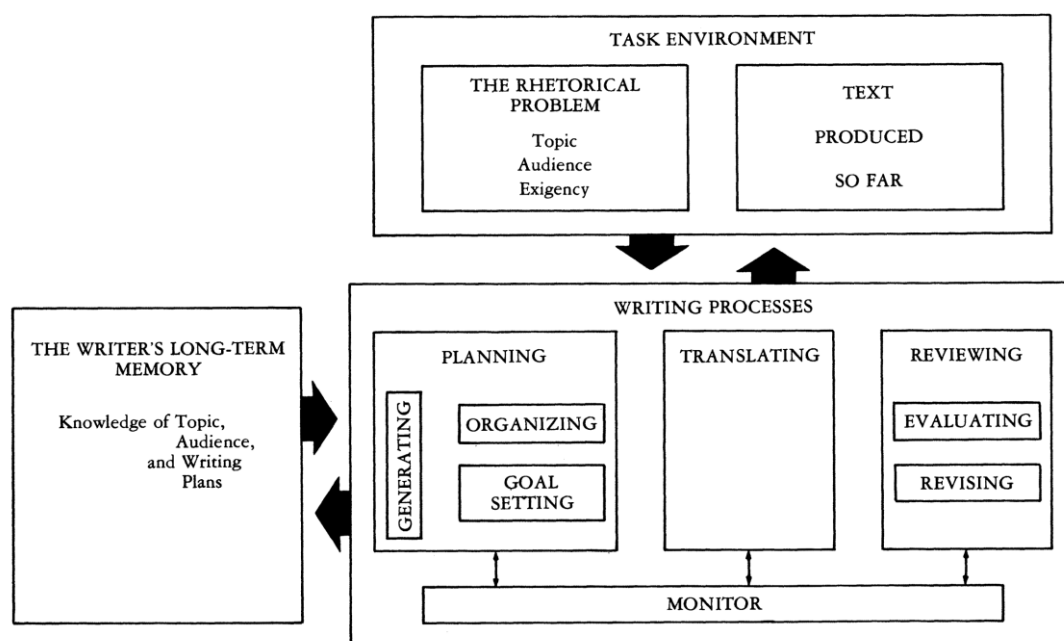
Figure 3.1: Flower and Haye's cognitive writing model (Flower & Hayes, 1981)

3.2.1.2 Bereiter and Scardamalia's two models of composing processes

The second influential cognitive theory of the writing process to be discussed in this thesis was created by Scardamalia & Bereiter (1987) and consists of two models: the knowledge-telling model and the knowledge-transforming model. Through their research, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) identified two distinct approaches to writing. First, writing can be a simple task that any literate individual can perform, such as a young child writing a letter to Santa. This natural form of writing utilizes cognitive structures that are already present in the individual and so minimizes "the extent of novel problems that must be solved" (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987, p. 5). This kind of writing was labelled as the knowledge-telling model. Second, writing can be a complex task, that grows in difficulty and utilizes an increasing amount and level of cognitive processes, such as writing a novel or doctoral thesis. This

kind of writing was labelled as the knowledge-transforming model of writing. These models will be discussed in the following sections. It is important to note is that the models do not predict the quality of the written product, i.e. both models can result in high- or low-quality writing.

3.2.1.2.1 The knowledge-telling model

The knowledge-telling process of writing is used to generate content on a writing task in a topic and genre that is familiar to the writer, and due to the familiarity of the genre and topic, there is little need for an overall plan, goals, or problem solving (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987). The knowledge-telling model (Figure 3.2) is outlined by Scardamalia and Bereiter (1987) and begins with the writer being a set writing task. The writer then constructs a mental representation of the assignment through 1) identifying the topic and genre from the task brief 2) retrieving memories of the given topic and genre through memorized discourse and content knowledge. The writer then decides if the retrieved memories are suitable for the completion of the task and if so, the writing starts, and if not, the writer goes back to the phase of retrieving memories. Once the writing task is completed, the text is stored as a source of topic and genre knowledge and thus strengthens the existing memories of both topic and genre; this helps in the retrieval of memories in future tasks. Scardamalia and Bereiter (1987) point out that during the knowledge-telling writing process, the writer does not necessarily attend to well-formedness or coherence as these come automatically to the writer, and the writer focuses only on what to write next.

MENTAL REPRESENTATION OF ASSIGNMENT

CONTENT KNOWLEDGE

DISCOURSE KNOWLEDGE

KNOWLEDGE-TELLING PROCESS

LOCATE TOPIC IDENTIFIERS

LOCATE GENRE IDENTIFIERS

CONSTRUCT MEMORY PROBES

RETRIEVE CONTENT FROM MEMORY USING PROBES

RUN TESTS OF APPROPRIATENESS

FAIL

PASS

WRITE (NOTES, DRAFT, ETC.)

UPDATE MENTAL REPRESENTATION OF TEXT
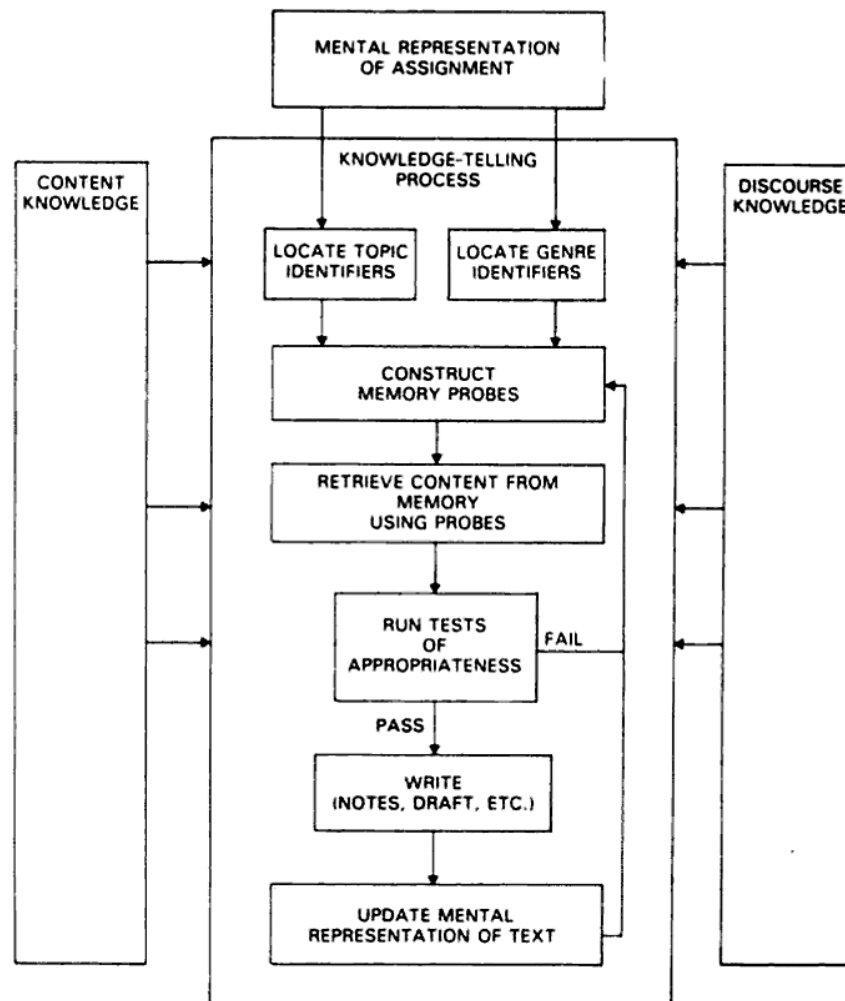
Figure 3.2: Structure of the knowledge-telling model (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987)

3.2.1.2.2 The knowledge-transforming model

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1987) refer to the knowledge-transforming model (figure 1.3) as a "model of mature writing" (p.145) in which skilled writers actively set goals and solve both content and rhetorical problems. This model contains the features of the knowledge-telling model as a subprocess of a more "complex problem-solving process" (p. 145). As outlined by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), in the knowledge-transforming model the writer sets goals related to the writing task. These goals occur at various stages of the writing process and address problems that occur whilst writing. The problem then feeds into one of the two problem-solving spaces: the content problem space and the rhetorical problem space. The content problem space is where problems related to the writer's beliefs and content knowledge are dealt with, and the rhetorical space is where the compositional goals of the writing task are worked out. Both problem spaces interact with one another and address questions raised by the other space. The resulting dialogue between each

space creates new knowledge that feeds back into the initial problem and new goals are set. Therefore, throughout the writing process, the writer is "continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text" (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987, p.12). Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) give an example of this process. They imagine that a writer has a problem of clarity, which is a rhetorical problem, and decides that one of the concepts in the essay, for example that of *responsibility* needs defining. The definition of *responsibility* is then dealt with in the content problem space where the writer realises that the concept of responsibility is not central to the task, but instead the issue of *competence to judge* is relevant. This creates new sub goals such as modifying the writing plan that then feeds into the rhetorical space and so on – leading to the "continual revision and rethinking that mature writers go though in a serious piece of writing" (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 1987, p. 148).

In summary, Flower and Hayes' (1981) writing model and the knowledge-transforming model (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987) share similarities in approach as they both describe writing as a goal-driven process of planning, retrieving, translating, and revising knowledge, and as Roca De Larios et al. (2016) mention they both see writing as high-level reflective thinking. Cognitive models have been applied to both L2 research and pedagogy, which will both be examined in the next sections of the chapter.
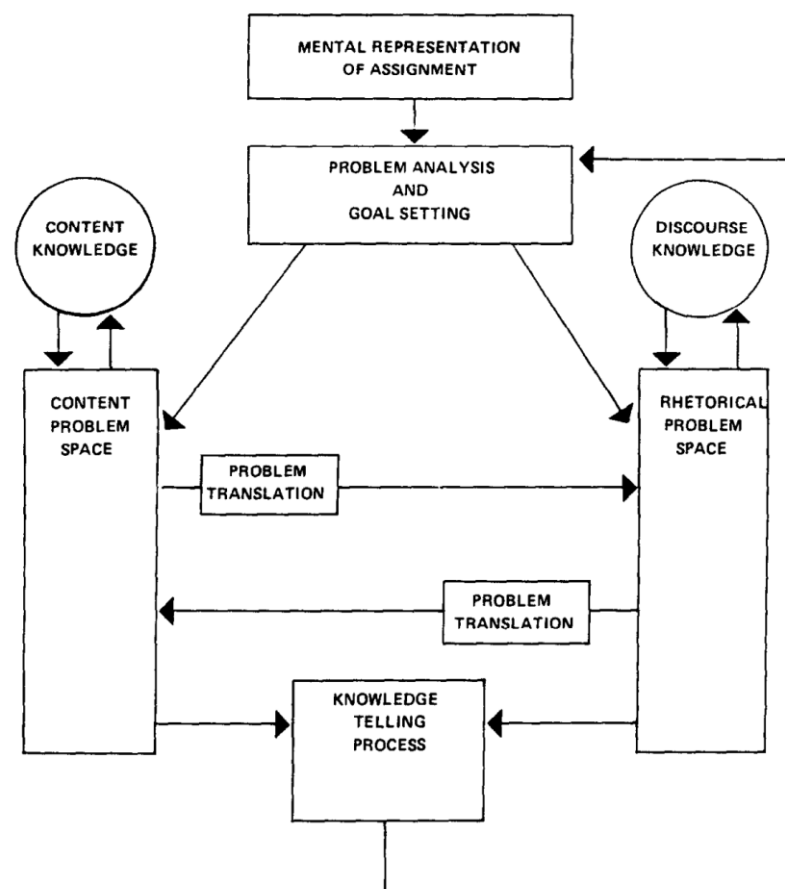
Figure 3.3: Structure of the knowledge-transforming model (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987)

3.2.1.3 Process approaches and L2 writing

Cognitive theories of L2 writing processes, based on L1 process models, have garnered a range of research and insight into the mental processes of L2 writers. This strand of research began in the early 1980s and continues to the present day (Manchón, 2018). In general, the findings of research into L2 writing processes confirm that L2 writers utilize the same cognitive operations as L1 writers in composing a text (Ferris & Hedgecock, 2013). However, research has also highlighted that while L2 writers use the same mental processes, they do so in a unique way due to the constraints of writing in an L2. For example, Manchón (2016) pointed out that while both L1 and L2 writers prioritize the process of text generation, L2 writers spend approximately 80% more time on this process than L1 writers. L2 writing is therefore more labour intensive than writing in an L1 because of language difficulties (Manchón, 2016).

Cognitively oriented L2 writing research has focused on both the macro processes of writing such as planning and formulation, and specific micro processes such as problem solving (Manchón, 2018). The methods of research have included think alouds, retrospective methods, and more recently keystroke logging and eye tracking (Polio, 2012). In one of the first and most cited studies of L2 writing processes, Zamel (1982) investigated the composing processes of eight proficient tertiary level L2 writers. Zamel (1982) defined a proficient writer as one that had completed a foundation writing course and was successfully writing at university level. Using retrospective interviews and writing samples, Zamel (1982) found that the participants utilized a variety of writing strategies whilst composing a written assignment on their course. The students made plans by writing down ideas and these plans were changed throughout the writing process. The L2 writers wrote several drafts each time deleting and rewriting content. Initial rewriting of drafts focused mainly on changing ideas while later drafts attended more to surface level structures (lexis and grammar). Students proofread their work and then generated new ideas that led to changes in their compositions. Zamel (1982) noted that throughout the writing process, ideas were "generated, clarified, rearticulated, and refined" (p. 203). Further studies into the cognitive processes of L2 writing also confirmed that both proficient and non-proficient L2 writers utilised the same processes as L1 writers (Raimes, 1987, Skibniewski & Skibniewska, 1986). Following from the initial studies, researchers have investigated the micro processes utilized by L2 writers, such as problem solving (Cumming, 1989; for a review see Roca de Larios et al., 2016).

In a study of L2 writing micro-processes, Roca de Larios, Murphy, and Manchón (1999) focused on the role of mental restructuring strategies in L2 writing. Restructuring refers to the cognitive process of making changes to what has been written when the writer realises that their current text is not satisfactory. Through thinks alouds, Roca de Larios et al. (1999) discovered that restructuring strategies were used as a means of compensating for the linguistic limitations of writing in an L2 and that L2 writers used restructuring to focus on revising lexical and grammatical issues. Roca de Larios et al. (1999) also compared low and high proficiency L2 learners and found that while low proficiency learners focused mainly on linguistic restructuring, high proficiency learners restructured less on linguistic issues and more on content and rhetorical concerns. This study highlighted the linguistic challenges that can affect a writer's composition as low proficiency leaners focus their attention on linguistic issues rather than addressing the wider rhetorical and content aims of a task.

Studies of L2 writing processes have covered a wide variety of processes and the specific challenges that L2 learners face (Cumming, 2016). In a comprehensive study of cognitive processes, Roca de Larios, Manchón, Murphy, and Marín (2008) measured the time that three groups of L2 students (separated by proficiency) spent on various cognitive processes during a writing task. The processes measured in the study were reading the prompt, conceptualising the task, planning, formulation, evaluation, revision, and meta comments (related and unrelated to the task). Roca de Larios et al. (2008) found that across proficiency levels students spent most of their time on the formulation process. Formulation is the process of converting ideas into language and due to linguistic constraints, this process was most commonly utilized. Cumming (2001) noted similar findings in a review of the research on L2 writing processes and concluded that "L2 writers seem to devote much attention while they write to decisions about form of the second language or to finding resources such as appropriate words" (p. 5). Due to their findings, Roca de Larios et al. (2008) stated that multidimensional models of cognition, in which several processes work together towards a task goal, do not reflect the mental processes of less skilled writers. Roca de Larios (2008) suggested a model that incorporates a temporal element that accounts for the focusing of mental resources on a single process at any given time would be more appropriate in describing novice L2 writers.

In summary, although recent studies have employed data collection techniques such as eye-tracking (Gánem-Gutiérrez & Gilmore, 2018), process models of L2 writing have been criticised for their reliance on introspective (think alouds) and retrospective (reflective interviews) techniques and that may not sufficiently reflect the complex cognitive operations of L2 writers' mental processes (Roca de Larios et al., 2016). However, in response,

Manchón (2016) states, "studies of writing processes have provided ample empirical evidence of the intense linguistic processing activity that characterizes writing in an additional language" (p. 140). Furthermore, these insights into the processes of writing have been widely applied to the L2 classroom. The next section will focus on the application of process models to L2 writing pedagogy.

3.2.1.4 Process theories and writing pedagogy

Process theories of language development have had a "massive impact on the ways writing is both understood and taught" (Hyland, 2003, p. 17). Research has shown that process focused instruction can assist novice L2 writers in the development of cognitive strategies such as planning and revising (Sasaki, 2000), and continues to be a popular method, in various forms, of writing instruction on EAP writing courses (Wette, 2018). For example, in a review of EAP writing materials from 2012 to 2014, Tribble (2015) found that the majority of published coursebooks incorporated a process approach to writing. In process-oriented instruction, students learn to write by focusing on the various stages of composition which includes: formulating ideas, planning, drafting, pausing, reading, revising, and editing (Williams, 2003). The overall aim of such an approach is to introduce novice L2 writer with the composing processes of skilled writers (Williams, 2003). Learning is exploratory and recursive as the students create drafts with minimal teacher input and then receive feedback on their work which results in new goals being set and the writing of new drafts (Polio & Williams, 2009). The process approach is a student led style of teaching and learning that is based on self-discovery (Susser, 1994) and "helps developing writers to understand their own strategies, and how to use them effectively" (Hamp-Lyons, 1986).

Cognitive process models have been influential in both L2 writing research and pedagogy; however, this approach to writing development has been criticised for focusing solely on the composing processes and not addressing the various situations in which writing takes place (Hirvela et al., 2016). As writing is a communicative act that occurs in a number of contexts, L2 writers do not only require knowledge of how to write, but also what write in terms of "how texts are shaped by topic, audience, purpose, and cultural norms so they can activate schemata, genre awareness, grammar proofing, and responsiveness to a particular audience" (Hirvela et al., 2016, p. 48). This situated perspective on writing development will be discussed in the next chapter with a focus on genre, which along with process models, has informed L2 writing research and pedagogy.

3.2.2 The product of writing: Genre theories of writing development

3.2.2.1 Definitions of genre

Hyland (2018b) concisely defines genre as "a term for grouping together texts, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations" (p. 2359). In general, academic genre theories of writing are interested in the various social contexts that writing takes place, the differences in writing conventions and linguistic features between contexts, and how students can be taught the textual features of writing in their academic field (Hyland, 2003). Since genre was first mentioned in the L2 writing literature in the early 1980s it has become "a central and remarkably productive concept in second language writing studies" (Tardy, 2011, p. 2).

A key notion in theories of genre is of discourse communities. In Swales' (1990) seminal monograph entitled genre analysis: English in academic and research settings, Swales situated genre within the context of discourse communities. According to Swales (1990), discourse communities, such as an academic disciple, share common goals and have specific communication mechanisms that are used to share information between members. Furthermore, discourse communities have a mixture of expert and novice members, with the expert member providing support to less experienced members. In addition, discourse communities communicate using specific genres which includes some specialised language (Swales, 1990). Therefore, within the framework of discourse communities, genre is a tool of communication that belongs to the group, and thus the key role of teachers is to instruct students in the specific linguistic and discursive patterns of target genres (Hyland, 2018b).

Swales (1990) provided an often-cited definition of genre: "a genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 58). Bhatia (1993), in reference to Swales' (1990) definition, stated that the most important component of genre is the communicative purpose of a text which he claimed was more important than the content or form of a text. Bhatia (1993) explained that the communicative purpose of a genre gives it an internal structure and any deviation in the communicative purpose leads to a text belonging to a different genre or sub-genre. Furthermore, Bhatia (1993) mentioned that genres are restrictive by nature in terms of lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical features and a writer must adhere to the linguistic and structural rules otherwise their work may not be accepted within the discourse community. For example, a scientist's descriptions of nuclear fusion would be different if writing for an undergraduate textbook than if writing for a scientific journal. Bhatia (1993) also stated that expert writers in a discourse community are able to work and show creativity within the restrictions of a genre as they are familiar with the conventions,

while a novice writer will struggle to work within the boundaries imposed by the genre due to a lack of experience.

Novice writers may also struggle with the multidimensionality of genre knowledge. In a model of genre knowledge provided below (Figure 3.4) one can see the various overlapping knowledge domains that a writer must draw on when writing in a particular genre (Johns et al., 2006). Expert writers are able to synthesise the various elements of genre knowledge "giving rise to the sophisticated knowledge that allows them to manipulate genres for very particular purposes" (Johns et al., 2006, p. 239). Novice writers, however, may only focus on a limited number of domains and may have difficulty connecting the various kinds of knowledge. Over time, through guidance and practice, novice leaners begin to incorporate a greater variety of knowledge domains and have a clearer idea about how each domain interacts leading to greater "automaticity as well as the kind of tactic and rich knowledge characteristic of expert genre users" (Johns et al., 2006, p. 239). Students gain this knowledge of genre through classroom practice and explicit teaching. Explicit teaching and scaffolding are central to genre pedagogy.
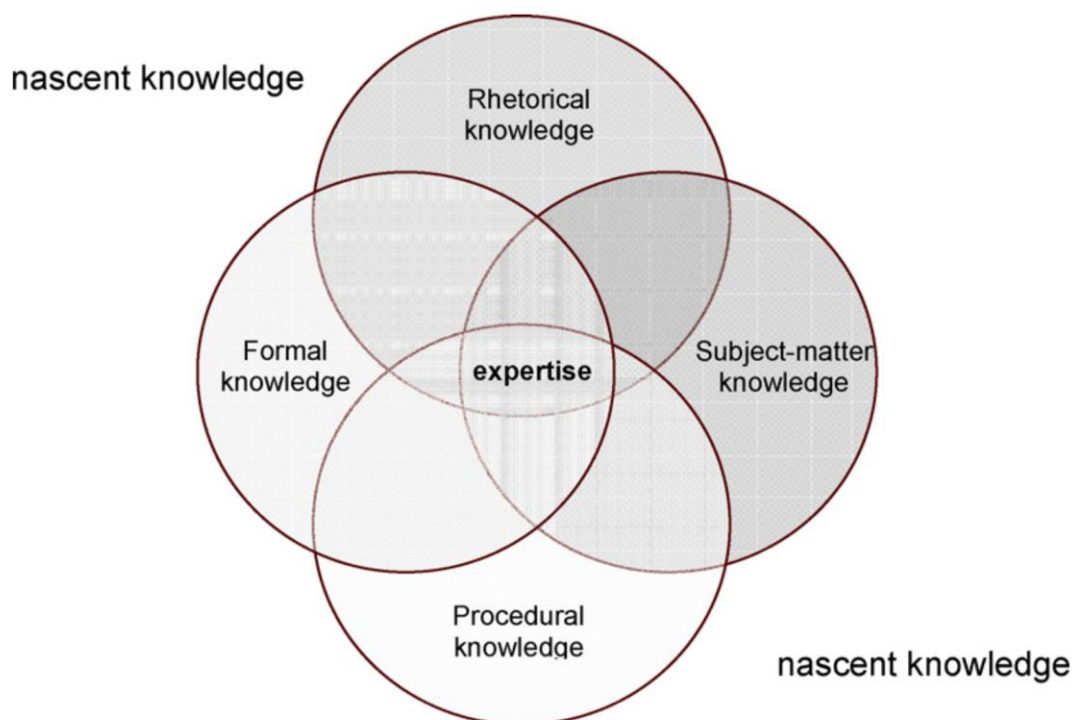
Figure 3.4: A model of genre knowledge (Johns et al., 2006)

3.2.2.2 Genre research

Genre research and pedagogy can be categorized into three approaches: Rhetorical genre studies, systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (also known as the Sydney school of genre analysis), and ESP. Rhetorical genre studies are closely related to literacy studies and grew out of research in North America

where it is mainly researched and practiced. Researchers in the rhetorical school are concerned with the social contexts in which texts are created and view texts as "social actions" (Bazerman, 2012). Through largely ethnographic methods, rhetorical genre researchers aim to "demonstrate and evaluate how certain genres privilege, exclude, oppress, or empower certain groups of people" (Cumming, 2016, p.74). The SFL school of genre research is based on the work of Halliday (see Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) and in a similar vain to the rhetorical school is concerned with the social contexts in which texts are produced. However, while researchers in the rhetorical genre tradition focus on the socio-cultural contexts of texts, SFL researchers are interested in the specific structures of language that are used in different social contexts (Hyon, 1996), or what SFL proponents call the semantics of discourse (Martin & Rose, 2007). Research in the ESP domain is based on the work of Swales (1990) and defines genre, as previously mentioned, as a form of communication between members of a discourse community. ESP researchers are interested in analysing the formal structure of texts as a means of identifying genre specific structures that can be taught to students. For the purposes of this thesis, research related to the ESP tradition will be examined in more detail as ESP is the theory of genre that has had most influence on EAP research and pedagogy in the UK.

In the ESP research tradition, texts have commonly been analysed through a focus on moves. A move is a constituent part of a text that has a particular communicative aim and is defined as a "bound communicative act that is designed to achieve one main communicative objective" (Swales & Feak, 2000, p 35). An example of a move is the noting of limitations that is a feature found in scientific laboratory reports (Parkinson, 2017) The main goal of move analysts is the identification of 1) the existence and function of a particular move and 2) the linguistic features of a particular move (Moreno & Swales, 2018). By identifying the patterns of a move, these structures can then be explicitly taught to students, who then can apply it to their writing (Swales & Feak, 2012). Swales and Feak (2012) present an example of move analysis in a textbook for graduate students focusing on the writing of introductions known as creating a research space (CARS). The CARS model (Swales & Feak, 2012) outlines the typical moves that are utilized in the introduction of a research paper (Figure 3.5). For example, in move 2 (establishing a niche), Swales and Feak (2012) state that the writer has four typically used options in establishing a niche, such as indicating a gap by showing something is missing in the current research. Additionally, Swales and Feak (2012)

Move 1—Establishing a research territory

    a. by showing that the general research area is important, central, interesting, problematic, or relevant in some way (optional)

    b. by introducing and reviewing items of previous research in the area (obligatory)

Move 2—Establishing a niche**

    by indicating a gap in the previous research or by extending previous knowledge in some way (obligatory)

Move 3—Occupying the niche

    a. by outlining purposes or stating the nature of the present research (obligatory)

    b. by listing research questions or hypotheses (PISF***)

    c. by announcing principal findings (PISF)

    d. by stating the value of the present research (PISF)

    e. by indicating the structure of the RP (PISF)

* The one exception to this occurs in certain RPs that deal with "real world" problems, as in Engineering. In some cases, Move 1 deals with these problems without a literature review and the previous research on attempted solutions is postponed to Move 2 (see the text on pages 335–336).
** In ecology, a niche is a particular microenvironment where a particular organism can thrive. In our case, a niche is a context where a specific piece of research makes particularly good sense.
*** PISF = probable in some fields, but rare in others.

Figure 3.5: Moves in research paper introductions (Swales & Feak, 2012)

suggested language that can be used to indicate a gap in the research such as "no studies/data/calculations to date have…(p. 350). For Swales (1990), the pedagogical goal of incorporating move analysis techniques is that it provides "a workable way of making sense of the myriad communicative events that occur in the contemporary English-speaking academy – a sense making directly relevant to those concerned with devising English courses, and by extension, to those participating in such courses" (p. 1). Following Swales' (1990) initial writing on genre analysis, numerous research papers have applied the CARS model and have unearthed and described the moves of various sections of research papers across academic disciplines (see Hyland, 2004). In general, research has confirmed that research articles share common structures and communicative purposes within academic disciplines and differ across disciplines (Cotos, Huffman, & Link, 2015).

3.2.2.3 Learning outcomes of genre pedagogy

In terms of applying genre analysis to the classroom, studies have documented the creation of genre-based materials and syllabi (Flowerdew,

2016; Johns, 2015); however, few studies have investigated the impact of genre-based instruction on student performance (Cheng, 2006). Although studies of writing development in genre classes are limited, there is evidence to show that it can be effective. For example, Huang (2014) reported on the academic writing development of a Chinese PhD student who attended a 12-week genre-based research writing course. The aim of the course was to prepare students to publish in English language academic journals through the analysis and application of move analysis. The participant stated that prior to the PhD he rarely wrote in English and only started practicing writing in English during his PhD. Prior to the course, the participant stated that he had great difficulty in writing journal articles in English. He found the writing of the discussion section was particularly challenging due to difficulties in generating ideas and a perception that the discussion section required him to write a lot of text. Throughout the course the student was introduced to the moves and linguistic features of scientific journal articles and he also wrote drafts that were rewritten and developed through the acquisition of new genre knowledge and as a reaction to tutor feedback. By the end of the course, the student developed a repertoire of moves and the ability to exploit these moves in his own writing, and as a result was able to publish an article in a Scientific Citation Index journal. One area of development that Huang (2014) mentioned is related to knowledge on plagiarism. Prior to the course, the student was unsure of the requirements of source use that are expected in academic journals and his early drafts included the lifting of entire sentences without reference to the source author. The participant was unaware that this was unacceptable, but through explicit instruction on the rules of acceptable source use, the student was able to appropriately incorporate source texts into his writing.

Further studies into the effects of genre-based instruction have discovered developments in genre awareness (Hyon, 2001; Wette, 2017a; Yasuda, 2011). For example, Hyon (2001) pointed out that students in her study developed genre frames, which are a mental representation of typical features of genres. Other studies have found improvements in writing quality between students who received genre instruction and those who did not (Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Mustafa, 1995). However, results in the study by Mustafa (1995) were mixed as some students who received instruction on genre persisted with plagiarism and stylistic errors such as leaving out headings. As mentioned, studies of genre-instruction are on the one hand limited in quantity and on the other hand limited by the methods employed, for example by only focusing on writing samples from the most proficient students (Cheng, 2006).

Genre-based pedagogy has also been criticised for being too explicit and form based, leading to a stifling of student creativity and self-discovery (Hyland, 2018b). Critics have also pointed out that genre instruction in the ESP domain

fails to give adequate description of the social contexts in which the text genres are based (Hyon, 1996). Addressing the criticisms of ESP based genre teaching, Hyland (2018b) stated that explicit genre teaching is not inherently prescriptive and "by providing learners with an
explicit rhetorical understanding of texts, and a metalanguage with which to analyse them, they can more effectively exercise choice while questioning the authority of such texts" (p. 2363). Furthermore, through the explicit teaching of genres and scaffolding that genre-based pedagogy provides, students can develop their motivation and self-efficacy in writing (Wette, 2017a). The relationship between motivation and academic writing is discussed in more detail in chapter 5.2.

3.2.3 Summary of cognitive and genre theories of L2 writing

Both cognitive and genre theories of L2 writing provide explanations of the nature of writing in an L2. Cognitive theorists focus on the mental processes of L2 writers and have discovered that challenges in writing in an L2 mainly stem from linguistic difficulties that place strain on various cognitive processes. Genre theorists on the other hand focus on the texts that writers produce and see L2 writing development in relation to acquiring a knowledge of the genre features of texts within their academic discipline. While these two strands of research are rarely combined in the literature, when analysing the difficulties L2 learners have in developing academic writing skills it is important to consider that writing is both a cognitive process and a situated activity (Polio & Friedman, 2017). Therefore, to gain a complete picture of the development of L2 writers both theoretical avenues should be explored. In fact, while the EAP literature mainly focuses on theories of genre and social context, EAP instruction tends to combine both a genre and a process-oriented focus (Wette, 2018). An area of L2 writing development that has been considered from both a cognitive a genre perspective is the use of source texts, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

4 WRITING FROM SOURCE TEXTS IN AN L2

4.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter discusses the theory and research concerning L2 writers' use of source texts in university writing. First, a definition of intertextuality is provided followed by background information into why the use of source texts is an important topic for research. Second, four perspectives are outlined that explain the difficulties that L2 writers encounter when writing from source texts. Each perspective – cognitive, situated, development, and cultural is discussed in a separate section. Cognitive perspectives relate to the mental processes involved in writing a text from source material. Situated perspectives focus on source use with regards discourse communities and genre. The section on developmental perspectives outlines the view that inappropriate textual borrowing is part of a novice writer's academic writing development; this section also provides a model of L2 writers source use development. In the cultural development section, a brief summary is given of how differences in educational systems can impact on source use practices. In the third and final section of this chapter the empirical studies of L2 writers' source use will be presented, including a review of studies that have looked at the impact of EAP programmes on source use development.

4.2 Introduction to writing from texts in an L2

In academic settings, writing from source texts is an element of intertextuality in which students (and academics), when writing, quote, paraphrase, and sometimes copy "parts of texts which can be traced to an actual source in another text" (Ivanič, 1998, p. 47). In academic writing, writing from source texts is important (Hyland, 2004), and necessary (Shaw & Pecorari, 2013), in as much that a piece of writing at university would be deemed "fundamentally unacademic" (Shaw & Pecorari, 2013, p. A1) if it made no references to literature in the field of study. Incorporating source texts into one's own writing is important because it builds on previous work in an academic discipline (Shaw & Pecorari, 2013) and by situating a piece of writing in a specific field, a writer is able to demonstrate the extent to which their work is relevant and important in relation to knowledge and problems of a particular discourse community (Hyland, 2004). As writing is the main form of assessment at

tertiary level (Huang, 2010), and writing from source texts is an important aspect of academic writing (Hyland, 2004), university students' success is dependent on their ability to refer to the work of other authors in their written assignments (Shaw & Pecorari, 2013).

Due to the significance of intertextuality in writing, a large body of research has investigated the performance of L2 writers in this area (for reviews see Cumming, Lai, & Cho, 2016; Liu, Lin, Kou, & Wang, 2016; Pecorari, 2016a; Wette, 2017b). Research has consistently found that novice L2 writers struggle with writing from source texts and point to a number of causes of potential difficulties such as limited reading and writing proficiency (Grabe & Zhang, 2013), unfamiliarity with discourse practices (Hyland, 2004), limited content knowledge (Ye & Ren, 2018), and differences in writing practices between cultures (Shi & Dong, 2018). Furthermore, research on the textual practices of L2 writers has been incorporated into a wider debate regarding plagiarism and whether the inappropriate lifting of material from a source text is an attempt at intentional deception or part of a process of writing development (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Pecorari, 2016b). Researchers have also investigated the impact that instruction can have on L2 writers' use of sources and the rate of development that can be achieved by attending an EAP course (Storch, 2012; Wette, 2010). These various lines of inquiry into writing from source texts will be discussed in the coming sections. Before the discussion is commenced, it is worth noting that L1 writers also struggle with intertextuality and appropriate textual borrowing (Howard, 1995), and so there is no intended implication that L2 writers are generally deficient writers; however, novice L2 writers do have specific linguistic and educational barriers to incorporating source texts that are compounded by writing in an L2.

4.3 Perspectives on writing from source texts in an L2

4.3.1 Cognitive perspectives

Writing at tertiary level is a highly complex process that involves "the integration of both reading and writing strategies in a synthesis of reading, understanding, learning, relating, planning, writing, revising, editing, and orchestrating" (Campbell, 1990, p. 211). According to Stein (1990), when writing an essay at university, students must read and understand several texts on a topic which may differ in theoretical approach and relevance of information. The students must then synthesise the ideas in the source texts with their own knowledge and decide how to incorporate the ideas into their own text. Writing at university therefore requires the transformation of knowledge (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987) in which students continually

create knowledge through an amalgamation of their existing knowledge and the knowledge gained from source texts.

Several studies have investigated the cognitive processes of L2 students performing reading-to-writing (RW) tasks, which have included timed writing tasks, summary writing of source texts, and the coursework assignments of both undergraduate and postgraduate students. For example, Yang and Shi (2003) investigated the cognitive processes of six MBA students (3 L1 English and 3 L2 English) while they completed a written course-based summary task. Using think-alouds, Yang and Shi (2003) collected data based on Flowers and Hayes' (1981) process model of writing and identified that all the students went through processes of planning, composing, and editing while writing the summary. Overall, L1 background had no noticeable impact on the participants' grades, fluency in writing, or how they approached synthesising the source text with their own ideas. The main variance in the six students' writing was related to previous writing experience and vocational/educational experience. This was apparent with the two highest scoring students (1 L1 English & 1 L2 English) who both had experience of writing from sources in previous education and both considered themselves to be proficient writers. As well as receiving the highest grade on the summary, these two students recorded the highest frequency of referring to sources and both referred to sources carefully before putting their ideas into words. Furthermore, another L2 English student, who came from a business management background, wrote very fluently and confidently, and was able to synthesise his ideas with the source text with relative ease. On the other hand, the student who struggled most with the writing process came from a background in occupational health and had less experience of writing from source texts; this student lacked fluency and used source texts as a compensatory tool for her lack of subject knowledge, and throughout the task would refer to the source text as a means of generating content due to a lack of ideas. Yang and Shi's (2003) study highlighted the various cognitive process involved in RW tasks and the different ways in which writers approach the use of source texts both while planning and while writing. Furthermore, it showed that with experienced L2 writers, content knowledge and previous educational experience are more salient indicators of effective source use than L2 proficiency.

Another study of the cognitive processes involved in RW tasks also found differences between experienced and less experienced L2 English students (Plakans, 2008). Plakans (2008) posited a cognitive process model of for RW tasks (Figure 4.1) and used think alouds and pre-task interviews to gather data on 10 L2 students' cognition during a timed RW task. As noted by Plakans (2008), her cognitive model shares similarities with Flower and Hayes' model (1981); however, Plakans' (2008) model additionally contains reading processes in the pre-writing phase in which students read source

texts and use this knowledge to position themselves within the task and topic. As can be seen in Figure 4.1, the model begins with a linear pre-writing phase and then moves on to a recursive writing phase, similar to the writing process models of Flower and Hayes (1981) and Scardamalia & Bereiter (1987).
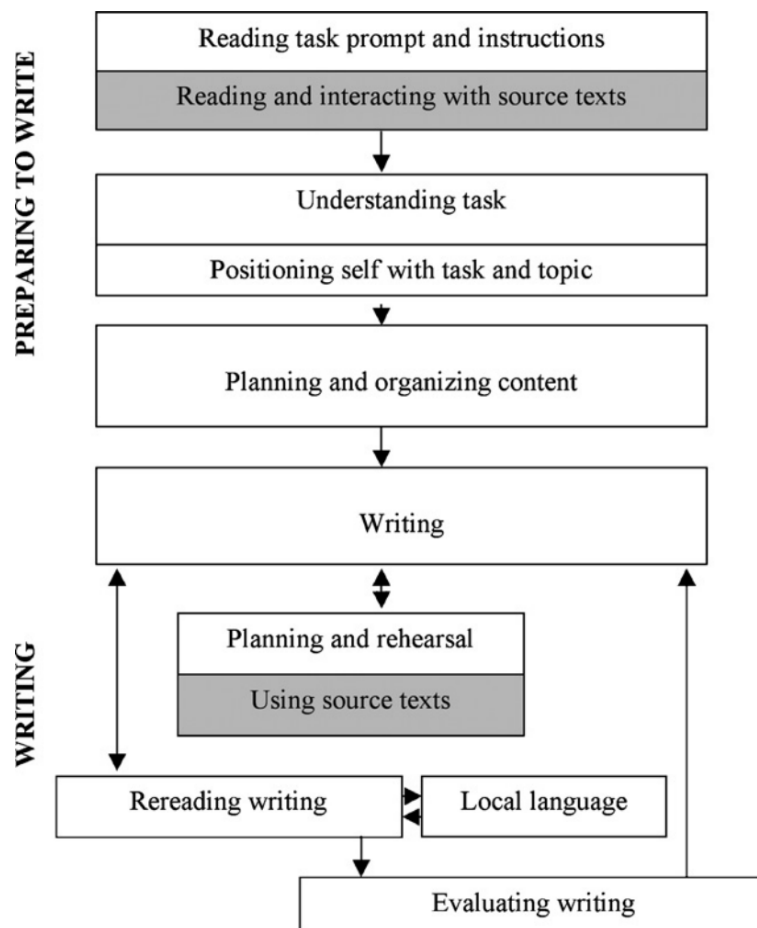
Figure 4.1: Composing process for RW tasks (Plakans, 2008)

Differences between experienced writers and inexperienced writers were found at each stage of the writing process. Before commencing writing, in the understanding the task phase, the experienced writers spent longer reading the source texts than the less experienced writers. They used reading strategies such as summarising to help them understand the source texts and overall took a "more interactive and constructive process reading source texts" (Plakans, 2008, p. 119). The experienced writers then used the knowledge gained from the sources and their own knowledge in the positioning self-stage as a guide to choosing a stance. On the other hand, the inexperienced writers quickly scanned the source texts and went straight into the writing process. In terms of the writing process, differences were also found between the experienced and less experienced writers. The inexperienced writers tended to write in a linear manner and rarely referred back to sources or what they

had written. On the other hand, the experienced writers wrote in a more recursive fashion that involved editing their writing in relation to new ideas that developed though referring to sources (Plakans, 2008).

In a similar vain to the research by Yang and Shi (2003), prior relevant writing experience affected the processes that writers went through. Plakans (2008) research indicated that the experienced learners wrote using a knowledge-transforming model and the inexperienced writers wrote using a knowledge-telling model. Similarly, Shi, Fazel, and Kowkabi (2018),who analysed extended written assignments of L2 English graduate students, noted that the advanced graduate students in their study tended to use paraphrasing as a means of knowledge transformation; for example, one participant stated "I added my own interpretation to make [the source text] relate to my own paper" (Shi, Fazel, & Kowkabi, 2018, p. 42). In contrast, low proficiency learners have been found to focus less on the rhetorical function of citations as they have difficulties in understanding source texts due to linguistic limitations (Plakans & Gebril, 2012).

Further studies of L2 writers' cognitive processes when completing RW tasks have provided models for the whole process of RW (e.g. Knoch & Sitajalabhorn, 2013), or have focused on providing models for one element of the process such as the reading of source texts (Plakans, 2009). There is also a growing body of research interested in the process of task representation, that is how students interpret the tasks they have been given (Flower, 1990). Studies have found that L2 writers may interpret RW tasks in different ways, and in effect produce different kinds of texts that may or may not satisfactorily address the task (Cheng, 2009; Ruiz-Funes, 2001). Cheng (2009) noted that linguistic difficulties in her participants lead to the less proficient L2 writers both misunderstanding the task question and also the source texts, leading to a low quality of written output. Furthermore, Cheng (2009) stated that a lack of critical engagement with source texts may be explained by the students' Chinese cultural heritage. Cheng (2009) mentioned that in Chinese education, students are expected to write in a knowledge telling manner that shows that they have respect for senior writers, and that being critical of published authors may be interpreted as a sign of disrespect.

In summary, tasks at tertiary level that involve intertextuality involve several cognitive processes. The extent to which learners use the various processes depends on their prior knowledge of the topic, writing experience, L2 proficiency, self-efficacy, and potentially cultural reasons. As well as cognitive factors, the learning context in which the writer is writing also impacts on how they utilise source texts; this will be discussed in the following section.

4.4 Situated perspectives

As mentioned in chapter 3, situational as well as cognitive factors need to be considered when giving a full picture of L2 writing development; this is also the case for how L2 writers incorporate source texts into their own writing. Referring to the work of other writers in a specific field is an important component in academic writing because it "can establish membership in the relevant disciplinary community" (Swales, 2014, p. 119), and to be able to write in a "convincing and persuasive" manner students need to learn the "mechanisms of citing" that are specific for each academic field (Swales, 2014, p. 119). For example, certain disciplines may use more or less integral citations than other academic fields, or different kinds of reporting verbs when introducing citations (Hyland, 1999). Furthermore, Harwood (2009) found that writers in the field of sociology were more likely to use source texts for critical evaluation, while computer scientists tended to use citations as a way of directing the reader to further reading. From the perspective of discourse communities, difficulties and developmental issues in intertextuality for novice or inexperienced learners may thus be to be related to a limited understanding of the writing conventions of the genre that they are writing in.

One study that highlighted the practices of disciplinary writing was conducted by Flowerdew and Li (2007) who investigated the writing of PhD science students. The students were Chinese university students based in China and the data analysed was from drafts for journal articles that were intended to be published in scientific journals. The students had little or no experience of journal writing, and in interviews mentioned that they had difficulties in writing in English to the standards that were required of an English language journal. Flowerdew and Li (2007) focused their analysis on how the participants re-used language from source texts and the students' justifications for doing so in each section (introduction, methods, results, discussion) of their drafts. Throughout each section of the students drafts, Flowerdew and Li (2007) found examples of source use that would generally be defined as being inappropriate. For example, some students copied whole paragraphs of text and thought it was acceptable to do so if they gave a citation. Other students lifted chunks of text verbatim from the source text without reference and justified this by stating that the information was common knowledge in the field. In the results section the students copied results from lab partners' data without acknowledgement, and a number of students mentioned it was acceptable to copy sentences from source texts without acknowledgement as long as they changed the words. Flowerdew and Li (2007) concluded their research by stating that the misappropriation of source texts may be genre specific. For example, they mentioned that in scientific discourse, the focus was on the originality of findings and less so on other elements of the text. Furthermore, in relation to the methods section, they highlighted that the

methods section was less important than other section in science writing and hence students were less concerned with originality in this section. The lack of importance attached to the methods section was also found by Swales (1990) who stated that reviewers did not tend to comment on this section and focused their attention on the results and discussion sections. In addition to genre specific conventions, Flowerdew and Li (2007) concluded that developmental factors may also explain the learners' misuse of source text. They mentioned that as novice L2 writers in the science field, the use of source texts may act as scaffolding that helps the learners gain entry into the discourse community. The idea of inappropriate source use being a means of scaffolding has also been mentioned by other researchers (e.g. Pecorari, 2016a), which will be the focus of the next section.

4.5 Developmental perspectives

Inappropriate textual borrowing, such as copying without attribution, is a common feature in the writing of both novice L1 and L2 writers (Howard, Serviss, & Rodrigue, 2010). Studies concerning inappropriate textual borrowing and plagiarism have highlighted that novice student writers tend to be aware of what constitutes correct citation practices, but that the actual practice of "learning to write from sources requires years, not weeks or months, of practice" (Li & Casanave, 2012, p. 177). From this perspective, inappropriate textual borrowing can thus be viewed from a developmental perspective. An important term in the developmental perspective on source use development is patchwriting, which is "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one substitutes" (Howard, 1992, p. 233). Howard (1992) noted that instances of copying from source texts, which were traditionally seen as acts of plagiarism, were in fact novice writers attempts at "acquiring the language of the target community" (Howard, 1992, p. 240). Howard (1992) explained that her students generally understood the rules regarding appropriate citation practices and thus tended to provide citations when referring to a source; nonetheless these instances of source use were often poorly paraphrased and bore too close a resemblance to the original text.

Howard (1992) pointed out that students are dependent on reading materials as models for entry into a discourse community, and as novice writers they are yet to develop their own academic voice and to so have to depend on the perspectives found in the texts that they read. According to Howard (1992), patchwriting should therefore be seen as a strategy that novice writers employ to gain entry into an unfamiliar target discourse community rather than acts of intentional plagiarism.

In a study of novice L2 writers, Howard, Serviss, & Rodrigue (2010) found that novice writers tended to read and write "exclusively at the sentence level" (p. 187). In other words, they focused on understanding small sections of a reading in isolation and thus failed to grasp the overall argument of a text. Due to the students' focus on sentence level structures, Howard, Serviss and Rodrigue (2010) pointed out that instead of summarising texts in their writing, novice L2 writers appropriated snippets of texts which they attempted to paraphrase, but due to limited subject knowledge and vocabulary were at risk of patchwriting.

Studies that have focused on the textual borrowing practices of novice L2 writers have also highlighted the use of patchwriting as a developmental strategy (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Li & Casanave, 2012; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2010; also see Pecorari, 2016a for a review). For example, Li and Casanave (2012) conducted a study of two novice Chinese L2 writers and found that while they both borrowed from source texts too closely, they were not intentional plagiarists. Li and Casanave (2012) found that the writers struggled with reading the relatively complex course texts, had limited topic knowledge, and limited experience of writing from source texts. Therefore, the novice learners depended greatly on structures from the source text to counter their limited subject knowledge and subject related vocabulary, which translated into a patchwriting. Furthermore, Li and Casanave (2012) mentioned that while the students had been taught the mechanical rules of using source texts, they had limited input into the rhetorical functions of source use and how they can synthesise their ideas with those of the source texts. Therefore, the novice writers did not have the tools to move beyond a sentence level understanding of source material.

In another study of novice L2 writers, Shi (2010) also found that the participants had not been taught how to make meaning from source texts, in other words how they can transform the knowledge of source material to meet their rhetorical goals. In addition, Shi (2010) discovered that the L2 writers in her study were unsure of what information could be classified as their own knowledge; for example, Shi (2010) found instances of her participants not giving citations to information that they had learnt in class as they felt that as they had acquired this knowledge through the results of learning, and were not required to identify the source of the information. As with the other studies mentioned, the students in Shi's (2010) study knew the rules regarding plagiarism and stated they were not intentionally plagiarising; however, as novice writers they were still developing a) there knowledge of appropriate source use and b) the ability to apply their knowledge of source use to their written products.

The complexity of writing from sources and the developmental path that L2 writers embark on was summarized by Wette (2017b) who posited a trajectory in source use skills development model (Figure 4.2). Wette's (2017b) model highlights the multifaceted and dynamic nature of source us development that the previous studies in this section have alluded to. However, Wette's (2017b) model shows a linear developmental trajectory of source use and a hypothesis of the current research is that due to the complexity of intertextuality, the development of L2 writers may follow a recursive rather than linear trajectory.

In summary, the research strongly suggests that the transgressive appropriation of source texts should be seen "in terms of a developmental stage in the acquisition of academic discourse" (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004, p. 189), and that a reliance on patchwriting is one aspect of a novice L2 writer's developmental path. Furthermore, the difficulties novice writers face may also be compounded by a lack of clarity in institutional rules regarding citation practices, (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Shi, 2010) and differences in views of what constitutes appropriate intertextuality between university departments and amongst different staff members within the same department (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Shi, 2010).

Novice/entry–level writer
Basic knowledge of procedures for quality source selection and evaluation
Uncertainty about whether a citation is needed or not (i.e., what is common knowledge)
Unattributed copying from sources
Heavy use of patchwriting and copying (sometimes unattributed)
Heavy use of paraphrasing of phrases or individual sentences
Heavy use of integral/author prominent citations
Heavy/excessive use of quotations
Heavy use of sources to provide ideas (attribution)
Single-author citations only
Little evidence of personal authorship or text management
Little evidence of any interaction with the reader through metadiscourse strategies
Post-novice writer
Improved ability to select quality sources
Still some uncertainty about what is/is not common knowledge
Marked decrease in unattributed copying from sources
Patchwriting and copying (sometimes unattributed)
Some development in ability to summarize and paraphrase
Increase in use of non-integral/information prominent citations
Use of sources to provide ideas
Limited range of rhetorical purposes for source use (e.g., explanation, definition, example)
Some knowledge of disciplinary citation practices (e.g. source selection, citation type)
Intermediate–level writer
Well-established ability to select relevant, quality sources
Patchwriting is less frequent but still evident
Generally appropriate use of integral and non-integral citations
Increasing use of multiple-source citations
Citations are used for a broad range of rhetorical purposes
Continuing progress in knowledge of disciplinary practices
Growing confidence in self as author and manager of information
Proficient writer
Ability to compose accurate, original, integrated paraphrases and summaries
Quotes are used sparingly, and are integrated with the writer's arguments and propositions
Frequent, appropriate use of multiple-source citations
Knowledge of disciplinary citation practices
Awareness of self as participant in a disciplinary dialogue on assignment issues
Awareness of the need to balance acknowledgement of sources with own arguments and ideas
Awareness of the importance of a personal stance and the persuasive objectives of texts
Confidence in self as author and manager of information

Figure 4.2: Source text use by L2 writers at four stages of skill development (Wette, 2017b)

4.6 Cultural perspectives

Much has been written about the cultural differences that impact L2 writers' use of source texts, although Wette (2017b) states that cultural reasons are no longer seen as being the main factor in explaining L2 learners' development in using sources. However, there is enough evidence to suggest

that culture, in terms of different educational systems, does play a role in the development of L2 writer's use of academic sources. The most appropriate way to discuss cultural issues, is by focusing on the culturally specific educational backgrounds of learner and the practices that exist in specific educational systems. Therefore, any further discussion of cultural background in this thesis is in reference to the common educational background of the participants. The majority of studies concerning cultural differences in education have focused on Chinese learners. For example, Shi and Dong (2018) compared Chinese students' academic writing in English and in Chinese and discovered that when writing in Chinese, the participants were more likely to use borrowed words in paraphrases. Shi and Dong (2018) stated that there is a clearer distinction between quoting and paraphrasing in Anglo-Western universities compared to Chinese universities, and that in Chinese writing there is a "grey area" (p. 54) between quoting and paraphrasing.

Furthermore, Hu and Lei (2016) obtained similar results in a study conducted at a Chinese university in which Chinese students were asked to identify examples of inappropriate textual borrowing from samples of texts written in English. Results from the study showed that four-fifths of the participants did not identify examples of unattributed paraphrasing as transgressive intertextuality. Hu and Lei (2016) concluded that the participants in their study had views of appropriate citation practices that differed to the rules of appropriate textual borrowing found typically in Anglo-Western universities and cited the reason for this as being due to limited instruction and exposure to Anglo-Western citation practices. From these studies it is clear that differences exist between the intertextual practices of Chinese and Anglo-Western universities, and hence Chinese students entering Anglo-Western universities may be at a different developmental stage to those students who originate from a country with an educational system that is more in-line with that in the UK.

4.7 Summary of empirical studies of L2 writers source use

The majority of studies on L2 writers' source use have employed textual analysis utilising either coursework assignments (Petrić & Harwood, 2013) or timed writing tasks (Storch, 2009), or a combination of both (Wette, 2010). Studies have looked at various aspects of source use such as the use of paraphrasing (Keck, 2014), the use of direct quotation (Petrić, 2012), and the rhetorical functions of incorporated sources (Plakans & Gebril, 2012). Researchers have also focused on comparative studies such as comparing L1 and L2 students (Keck, 2014), high and low-level proficiency learners (Petrić, 2007), undergraduate and postgraduate L2 students (Cumming et al., 2018), and novice and post-novice L2 students' use of sources (Storch, 2009). The

findings from research on L2 student writers highlight a number of challenges. Although L2 students are able to gain declarative knowledge in correct citation practices, they have difficulties in applying this knowledge to their writing (Wette, 2010). L2 writers have been found to rely on direct quotation and have a tendency to do so without attribution to the source text (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Shi, 2008). The reliance on direct quotation has been linked to anxiety of plagiarism (Li & Casanave, 2012; Petrić, 2012) and linguistic challenges such as lacking the necessary vocabulary to rephrase source texts (Wette, 2010).

A limited vocabulary may also explain the prevalence of patchwriting found in L2 students' writing (Cumming et al., 2018). Research has documented that through patchwriting, L2 students use source texts as a means of scaffolding and developing their knowledge in subject based vocabulary (Gebril & Plakans, 2016). A lack of linguistic proficiency may also explain the tendency for L2 writers to inaccurately interpret source texts (Howard, Serviss, & Rodrigue, 2010; Storch, 2012). L2 students also have difficulty in utilising the rhetorical function of sources and synthesising source texts within their own arguments (Wette, 2010). The limited use of rhetorical functions found in L2 writing may be because novice L2 writers tend to lack authorial identity and thus the confidence to interact with sources in a way that builds upon the knowledge of literature (Wette, 2017b). Overall, L2 writers can potentially face a number of difficulties when attempting to use source texts. A lower level of linguistic ability and uncertainty about their identity as academic authors might lead to issues such as patchwriting, over reliance on direct quotation and a limited range of rhetorical functions of sources.

In terms of source use development, there have a been a few studies that have assessed source use development over EAP programmes. In a study of 78 English L2 undergraduate students in New Zealand, Wette (2010) collected data before and after a module on writing from sources which consisted of pre- and post- unit quizzes on the participants knowledge of citation convections, pre- and post- unit guided writing from sources tasks, a written out of class assignment, and participants' written reflective comments. Results from the citation knowledge quiz showed that the majority of students increased their declarative knowledge of correct citation practices over the course of the academic writing unit. Although declarative knowledge of using sources improved, results from the writing tasks displayed mixed results. In the guided writing task, students made modest gains in their ability to use appropriate citations and in many instances seemed to misunderstand information in the source texts. On the other hand, instances of unacknowledged copying of source texts decreased overall, indicating that students were able to apply their declarative knowledge on correct citation practices. In the out of class written assignment, in which students selected their own sources, there was an over reliance on direct quotation and

patchwriting, and a large proportion (25%) of inaccurate use of sources in which students failed to understand the meaning of the source text. Results from this study give weight to the assumption that source use is developmental in nature. Although students can grasp the academic conventions behind correct source use, they still may lack the linguistic abilities and topic knowledge to use sources appropriately, especially when undertaking out of class written assignments which require dealing with a variety of academic sources.

Inaccurate use and misunderstanding of source texts was also found by Storch (2012). In Storch's study, L2 English students on a sessional EAP module participated in two integrated timed writing tasks before and after instruction on the use of sources. At Time 2 the participants used more direct quotations but were also found to have used less copying and more revision in paraphrasing. Furthermore, at Time 2 there were more instances of students trying to synthesise a number of sources into their paraphrase attempts, but there also appeared to be more misunderstandings of the source texts. The reason given by Storch (2012) for the increase in these misunderstandings is that as students make increasing amounts of revisions to the source text in their paraphrase attempts, their low level of linguistic ability hinders them in understanding the source text and transferring the meaning of the source text into their own words.

Furthermore, as post-novice writers, students on sessional EAP programmes may lack the necessary skills to deeply and critically engage with course texts resulting in a lack of authorial presence (Thompson, Morton, & Storch, 2013). Completing an EAP course can develop students' abilities in synthesising source texts into their own arguments. For example, Thompson, Morton, and Storch (2013) found that students who had completed an EAP course were more able to show an authorial voice and the ability to integrate source content with their own ideas.

In summary, as well as improvements in general academic writing ability, EAP courses can help to develop L2 students' knowledge of correct citation practices. As a result of this, students are more likely to acknowledge source texts and show greater reformulation in paraphrase attempts. Furthermore, EAP instruction can give L2 students more confidence in synthesising a number of sources into their own arguments by developing confidence in their emerging authorial identity. However, it is clear from the research that graduates of EAP courses are still in a developmental stage of using sources, and a tendency towards patchwriting and overuse of direct quotation still persists. Linguistic challenges and uncertainty about how to incorporate the work of other authors within their own writing means L2 students still need additional support once they begin their studies.

4.8 Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature on L2 writers' source use from a number of perspectives. It has been demonstrated that L2 writers face various challenges when completing RW tasks at university. First, RW tasks are cognitively demanding and require knowledge transformation to synthesise the writers' ideas with those from the source text. Second, students must learn the genre conventions of their discourse community with regards to how sources are utilized. Third, novice L2 writers may rely on patchwriting as a means of scaffolding due to their limited linguistic and content knowledge. Fourth, differences in practices of intertextuality between cultures may mean that novice writers are not aware of the rules of appropriate textual borrowing that exist in their new educational context. These challenges are also compounded by writing in an L2 and the difficulties in both reading and writing in an L2 at tertiary level. The limited research on the development of L2 source use on EAP courses has provided an indication that writing courses can impact positively on the intertextuality skills; however, as Li and Casanave (2012) highlight, the transition from novice to intermediate to expert is a long and often arduous process. In the next chapter the topic of motivation and self-regulation will be discussed in relation to how these factors are related to L2 writers' development.

5 MOTIVATION AND SELF-REGULATION

5.1 Chapter introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on motivation and self-regulation in relation to writing tasks. This section begins by providing a definition of motivation. First a general definition of motivation is given followed by a more detailed definition that outlines the various motivational phases that occur when performing a writing task. The chapter then gives an overview of the motivational constructs, namely, achievement goals, self-efficacy, and expectancy-value, that are used in this study. The construct overviews consist of defining each concept and providing a theoretical background, followed by an examination of the empirical research that has been conducted with each construct. The empirical reviews begin by covering general studies in academic contexts and then provide a detailed description of studies involving writing in L2 contexts. The next part of the chapter defines self-regulation and reviews the empirical research relating to self-regulation with the focus moving from general studies in academia to studies covering writing in L2 contexts.

5.2 Motivation

5.2.1 Definition

The study of human motivation has a wide body of theoretical and empirical research literature in both the fields of educational psychology and SLA. The etymology of motivation has roots in the Latin verb movere which means to move. This notion of moving is apparent when one thinks of commencing and working towards a goal. A commonly cited definition of motivation describes it as "the process whereby goal-directed activities are instigated and sustained" (Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2014, p. 5). In other words, motivation is the force that helps an individual to achieve their goals from the beginning to the completion of a task. Furthermore, motivation has an effect on a learner's task engagement (Schunk & Mullen, 2012), which is a "heightened state of involvement" (Philp & Duchesne, 2016, p. 51) that an engaged student feels when completing a task. Motivated students are likely to be engaged when

performing a task which results in a greater level of interest and task participation (Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Graham and Weiner (1996) give a more detailed definition of the various stages of motivation that manifest in an individual when performing a task such as writing an essay. The first stage is choice which is when the individual decides to start the writing task and is followed by latency or the length of time it takes for the person start doing the task. The third stage is the effort someone puts into their writing (intensity). Next is how long the individual commits to carrying out the task at hand (persistence). The final elements of motivation are cognitions and emotional reactions which are the person's thoughts and feeling while doing the writing task. This definition highlights the complex role learner motivation plays in the writing process.

In recent years, the dominant theory in SLA motivation research has been the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS) (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015). However, studies of the relationship between the L2MSS and task performance are limited with researchers focusing mainly on the connection between the L2MSS and intended effort (Al-Hoorie, 2019). The majority of research involving writing task motivation in both SLA and educational psychology has focused on the relationship between writing task performance and learner goals, values, and beliefs, which are commonly operationalised as achievement goals, self-efficacy, and expectancy-value. These motivational concepts will be discussed below. First, definitions and theoretical overviews will be given. Second, the empirical research will be presented for each motivational construct.

5.2.2 Achievement goals

5.2.2.1 Achievement goals: Definition and theoretical overview

Students have underlying aims that influence how they perform in achievement activities such as writing an essay. Two main theories pertaining to goals exist in psychology: goal-setting theory and achievement goal theory. Goal-setting theory was outlined by Locke and Latham (1990) who defined goals as "the object or aim of an action" (Locke & Latham, 2013, p. 4). According to Locke and Latham (2013), goals are a combination of content and intensity. The content of a goal is the desired outcome or object being gained, while intensity refers to the required effort one must expend to achieve a goal. In general, individuals are more likely to be successful in achieving their goals if their goals are specific and challenging, as this leads to greater effort and persistence (Locke, 1996). In fact, Locke and Latham (2013) evaluated approximately 400 studies that investigated goal-setting theory and drew two main conclusions: a) there is a linear relationship between the degree of goal difficulty and performance, and b) specific and difficult goals

lead to higher performance than no goals as well as vague, abstract goals such as do my best.

Achievement goal theorists take a different approach to the study of goals. While the focus of goal-setting theory is on the nature of goals, the focus of achievement goal theory is an individual's goal orientation, which refers to "the purpose and focus of an individual's engagement in achievement activities" (Schunk, 2012, p. 374). In this respect achievement goal theory takes into consideration a wider number of factors, relating to the psychology of the person participating in an activity. It is also worth noting that while goal-setting theory originated from the field of business management, achievement goal theory was borne out of educational and developmental psychology and has been widely researched in a variety of educational contexts (Hulleman, Schrager, Bodmann, & Harackiewicz, 2010). For these reasons, achievement goals will be the preferred goal construct in this study.

To some extent, as Murayama, Elliot, and Friedman (2012) point out, it would be more appropriate to name achievement goal theory as theories of achievement goals as it is an amalgamation of a number of different strands of research, each with their own terminology and definitions of goals. However, researchers such as Elliot and his colleagues (e.g. Elliot, Murayama, & Pekrun, 2011) have consolidated the various theories from the field into a scientific and researchable construct, which can be called achievement goals. The foundations of achievement goal theory can be traced back to the late 1970s and early 1980s when two dichotomous models of achievement goals were posited. According to Murayama, Elliot, and Friedman (2012), the early theorists defined achievement goals as the "purpose for which a person engages in achievement behaviour" (p. 195). In this definition purpose may refer to both the reason for and the result of an action.

Dweck's (1986) dichotomous conceptualization of achievement goals is comprised of a) learning goals, in which "individuals seek to increase their competence, to understand, or master something new", and b) performance goals, in which "individuals seek to gain favorable judgments of their competence or avoid negative judgments of their competence" (p. 1040). Dweck's theory of achievement motivation was derived from research on implicit theories of ability, which are a person's beliefs as to whether their intelligence and abilities are fixed or malleable (Dweck, 1999). According to Dweck (1986), individuals with learning goals believe that intelligence is malleable (incremental theory) and that one's skills and abilities can be developed through learning. Individuals with this orientation are more likely to show mastery-oriented behaviour, which is a kind of adaptive behaviour in which a learner seeks challenges that help them to develop their abilities and show persistence in the face of difficulty. When confronted with difficulties,

mastery-oriented individuals will persist as they see difficulty as an opportunity to develop their mastery of a task and not as a lack of ability (Dweck, 1999). On the other hand, learners who possess performance goals believe that intelligence is a fixed trait (entity theory) and are likely to show helpless behaviour when confronted with difficulties (Dweck, 1986). Helpless learners avoid challenge and are quick to blame their failures on a lack of ability, which leads to low levels of persistence (Dweck, 1999).

The second dichotomous model of achievement goals stemming from this period was Nicholls' (1984) conceptualization of task involvement and ego involvement goals which was based on an individual's perception of their competence. According to Nicholls (1984), task involvement relates to individuals who perceive competence in an undifferentiated sense, which means that they do not distinguish ability from effort and believe that achievement is determined by the amount of effort exerted in a task. Through exhibiting task involvement goals, an individual's main aim in learning is to achieve self-referential competence through mastering tasks. Ego involvement relates to individuals who perceive competence in a differentiated sense meaning that they judge ability normatively through performing better than others whilst expending equal or less effort (Murayama, Elliot, and Friedman, 2012). A learner's achievement orientation has been shown to influence their self-perception and performance in a number of ways with task-involved learners showing a greater inclination towards adaptive mastery behaviour such as being less likely to attribute failure to low ability, feeling a greater level of pride in achievement due to their effort, showing higher levels of interest and engagement, and are generally more likely to perform better in a task than ego-involved learners (Graham & Golan, 1991).

Following on from the two initial models of achievement goals, Ames and Archer (1988), noticing the similarities in both approaches, attempted to organize achievement goal theory into one unified model. In Ames and Archer's (1988) conceptualization, learning and task goals were named mastery goals and performance, and ego goals were named performance goals. According to Ames and Archer (1988), with a mastery goal an individual places importance on the development of new skills and "the process of learning itself is valued, and the attainment of mastery is seen as dependent on effort" (p. 260). With mastery goals, learners gain satisfaction from hard work and challenging activities, see mistakes as part of the learning process, expend greater effort due to the enjoyment of learning something novel, and evaluate their performance in absolute terms. With a performance goal an individual is primarily concerned with the judgment of their ability by others and deem themselves to be successful if they can outperform others or by successfully performing a task with minimal required effort. Individuals with performance goals tend to become anxious when they make mistakes and

define success as obtaining high grades and through high normative performance.

Murayama, Elliot, and Friedman (2012) point out that the synthesis of theories of achievement goals into a single framework was an important landmark as it spurred a large body of research that utilized the mastery/performance distinction. Murayama, Elliot, and Friedman (2012, p. 193) summarized the findings of achievement goals research conducted in the 1990s. They highlighted that mastery goals were found to have numerous positive effects on learning processes and outcomes; for example, on task value and self-efficacy, self-regulated learning strategies, persistence, and adaptive help seeking. On the other hand, research into performance goals garnered mixed results and did not provide convincing evidence to support the view that performance goals lead to the hypothesized negative learning outcomes.

The lack of clarity and empirical support for the performance goals construct lead to the creation of a trichotomous model of achievement motivation that separated the performance construct into performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals (Elliot, 1999). In this model, mastery goals are still defined as goals that focus on self-referential competence and task mastery, while performance-approach goals are concerned with gaining positive judgments of competence from others, and performance-avoidance goals are directed towards avoiding negative judgments from others (Elliot & Church, 1997). Both mastery and performance-approach goals are theorized as leading to positive achievement behaviour and a desire for task mastery. On the other hand, performance-avoidance goals have been posited to yield negative outcomes and helpless learning behaviour (Elliot & Church, 1997). The trichotomous model was supported by empirical research and the three goals were found to represent three separate constructs that were linked to differing achievement outcomes and processes (Elliot, 1999).

Following on from the trichotomous model, Elliot (1999) introduced the 2x2 model of achievement motivation that added mastery-approach goals to the trichotomous conceptualization. Mastery-avoidance goals are grounded in the avoidance of "self-referential or task-referential incompetence…and entail striving to avoid losing one's skills and abilities (or having their development stagnate), forgetting what one has learned, misunderstanding material, or leaving a task incomplete of unmastered" (Elliot, 1999, p. 181). The focus of evaluation with a mastery-avoidance goal is a negative outcome or possibility; for example, a student may be keen to master the skills taught on a university course but may also be deeply concerned that they do not understand the necessary material in time for a test (Elliot, 1999). Mastery-avoidance goals are said to become more prevalent in later life as people begin to fear that they their mental and physical capacities are deteriorating (Murayama, Elliot,

and Friedman, 2012). The pursuit of mastery avoidance-goals has been theorized as potentially having both positive (persistence and effort) and negative effects, such as decreased intrinsic motivation and self-determination (Elliot, 1999).

A further conceptualization of achievement goals is the 3x2 model, which includes six types of achievement goals: task approach (do a task well); task avoidance (avoid doing poorly on a task); self-approach (do better than before); self-avoidance (avoid doing worse than before); other-approach (do better than others); other-avoidance (avoid doing worse than other) (Murayama, Elliot, and Friedman, 2012, p. 197). In this model there are three standards of evaluation one may use to decide whether they are competent or not, namely, task, self and other (Elliot, Murayama, & Pekrun, 2011). Task-based goals "focus on how one is doing relative to the absolute demands of the task or activity" (Mascret, Elliot, & Cury, 2015, p. 8), or in other words the extent to which an individual has completed a task or not. Self-based goals are concerned with the extent to which an individual is improving their ability in performing the activity and other refers to comparing oneself to other people (Mascret, Elliot, & Cury, 2015). A study by Elliot, Murayama, & Pekrun (2011) found a connection between task-based goals and intrinsic motivation, learning efficacy, and absorption in class, while there was no relation between these factors and self-approach goals. Self-approach goals were found to be a positive predictor for an individual's energy in class, while self-avoidance goals negatively predicted one's energy levels in class.

5.2.2.2 Achievement goals: Empirical findings

Numerous studies have researched achievement goals at tertiary level. In a study of undergraduates in the US, Elliot, McGregor, and Gable (1999) found mastery goals positively predicted students' use of self-regulatory strategies, persistence, effort, and written exam performance. Performance-avoidance goals were found to have the opposite effect being negatively related to the use of self-regulatory strategies and exam scores. Furthermore, a three-year longitudinal study of undergraduate psychology majors (Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, Carter, & Elliot, 2000) highlighted a multiple goal perspective in which both mastery and performance goals can have complementary effects on student performance. Using the dichotomous model, Harackiewicz et al. (2000) found mastery goals predicted initial course enrolment and interest in the course, while performance goals positively predicted course grades, but not interest in the course. Data from the third year of the study showed mastery goals predicted enrolment on further courses related to psychology, while performance goals correlated with achievement throughout the course. The authors concluded that a combination of both mastery and performance goals were most beneficial for the students over the course of degree

programme; this multi-goal perspective was supported by further studies (e.g. Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001).

Several studies investigating achievement goals have been carried out in L2 settings. For example, Woodrow (2006) created a model of adaptive learning using questionnaire data from 275 pre-sessional EAP students at an Australian university. In Woodrow's (2006) final model of adaptive learning, successful learners exhibited a mastery orientation, positive affect and were more likely to use self-regulatory strategies. Furthermore, mastery goals were significantly correlated with performance on an oral English test. On the other hand, less successful learners tended to have a performance-avoidance orientation, showed less positive affect, and used fewer self-regulatory strategies. A significant negative correlation was found between performance-approach goals and oral test scores.

In another study of EAP students, Woodrow (2013) found high levels of mastery orientation during a pre-sessional EAP course that dropped significantly after the students started their degree programmes. Woodrow's (2013) study showed that mastery goals in international students may be non-stable, especially when changing learning contexts. This is in contrast with studies of undergraduate students in L1 tertiary settings that have found achievement goals to be generally stable traits over the course of an academic year (Tuominen-Soini, Salmela-Aro, & Niemivirta, 2011).

Further studies in L2 setting have found mastery goals to be negatively correlated with task disengagement, and performance-avoidance goals to be positively correlated with task disengagement (Liem, Lau, Nie, 2008), which shows that learners with a mastery goal orientation tend to persist through challenging or boring tasks, while those with performance-avoidance goals tend to give up when faced with a challenging task. Connections have also been found between achievement goals and strategy use, with mastery-oriented students using more meta cognitive reading strategies (Ghavam, Rastegar, & Razmie, 2011).

In terms of writing and achievement goals in L2 settings, studies are limited. One study by Chea and Shumow (2017) using a cohort of 244 Cambodian undergraduates found significant correlations between mastery goals and self-efficacy in writing. In addition, there was a significant relationship between mastery goals orientation and scores on a paragraph writing task. No significant correlations were found between performance-approach goals and writing achievement in Chea and Shumow's (2017) research. In general, studies of achievement goals in SL settings have been in line with achievement goal theory in which mastery goals are related to adaptive learning behaviours and performance goals are connected to maladaptive learning behaviours.

It is clear from the research on achievement goals that the relationship between performance goals and academic achievement is not consistent. Some studies have found negative correlations and other studies have shown positive correlations with academic achievement. Furthermore, the relationship between mastery goals and performance goals is also inconsistent and thus may depend on context. One aim of the current study is to investigate how students on EAP courses utilise both mastery and performance goals in their pursuit of academic success.

5.2.3 Self-efficacy

5.2.3.1 Self-efficacy: Definition and theoretical overview

As well as goals, a learner's beliefs about their ability to perform a given task are similarly important. Before defining self-efficacy, it is useful to examine the wider theory from which the construct of self-efficacy is derived: social cognitive theory. Originally outlined as social learning theory (Bandura, 1977a), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) is a theory of human behaviour that rejects the behaviourist view of humans as being wholly influenced by environmental stimuli, and the psychodynamic view that human behaviour is solely governed by unconscious desires, drives, and impulses. Social cognitive theory on the other hand takes an agentic perspective of human behaviour in which individuals "exert intentional influence overs one's functioning and the course of events by one's actions" (Bandura, 2012, p. 11). Through the social cognitive lens, humans consciously regulate and motivate themselves according to triadic reciprocal causation which is the dynamic interaction of personal (cognitive and affective), behavioural, and environmental determinants (Bandura, 1986). As well as being influenced by the social environment and the behaviour of others, in this model, humans are capable of exercising influence both over their environment and behaviour through cognitive processes such as self-efficacy, goal setting, and self-regulation (Bandura, 1997). These cognitive processes are central to social cognitive theory, with self-efficacy being the root cause of human agency (Bandura, 1989).

Self-efficacy is a key cognitive construct in psychology that has been widely applied in the prediction of task success in fields as diverse as academic achievement and smoking cessation (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is defined as "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977b, p. 193). In other words, self-efficacy is a belief that one has the necessary skills to complete a task or accomplish a goal and is a key determinant in human behaviour as it affects motivation and performance accomplishments directly and indirectly through its influence on outcome expectations, goals, and other sociostructural (environmental) factors

(Bandura, 2012). Although Schunk (1995) states that competent task performance is unlikely without the requisite skills regardless of self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) highlights the fact that self-efficacy is often a better predictor of accomplishment than skills or knowledge alone because "people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true" (p. 2). If an individual believes that they are capable then they will approach difficult tasks as challenges to master whereas someone with weak self-efficacy will tend to avoid tasks that they deem to be beyond their capabilities even if they have the required knowledge and skills (Bandura, 1994). Self-efficacious individuals are more likely to successfully accomplish tasks because their confidence in completing a task leads to greater effort and persistence, whereas individuals with weak perceived self-efficacy may only expend minimal amounts of effort and persistence and may fail to complete a given task when faced with difficulties they feel unable to overcome (Bandura, 1977).

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy stems from four sources: a) mastery experience is the act of actively engaging in an activity in a meaningful way; b) vicarious experience is observing others such as classmates and teachers and using them as models; c) social persuasion relates to feedback from tutors and peers; d) physiological and affective states pertain to how an individual feels both physically and emotionally. It is important to note that these four antecedents of self-efficacy are not trait-like and therefore a teacher is able to help a learner develop their self-efficacy over time (Johnson, Edwards, Dai, 2014).

Bandura (1997) highlighted four main psychological processes that are regulated by an individual's self-efficacy beliefs, namely cognitive, motivational, and affective and selective processes. Cognitive processes refer to patterns of thought that determine successful performance and are influenced by perceived self-efficacy in several ways. Firstly, self-efficacy influences goal setting because "Much human behavior, being purposive, is regulated by forethought that embodies cognized goals" (Bandura, 1997, p. 117). Self-efficacious individuals are more likely to set and commit to challenging goals which in turn leads to higher levels of motivation and achievement (Bandura, 1997). Secondly, strong efficacy beliefs help people to visualize successful achievement of tasks, which in turn improves performance, and the likelihood of success. Thirdly, self-efficacy influences an individual's problem-solving ability through the self-regulation of cognitive processes. Efficacy beliefs allow an individual to plan and adapt to challenging situations as they are more likely to remain calm and analytical under high-pressure or in demanding situations, whereas individuals with weak self-efficacy beliefs are less likely to successfully regulate their behaviour due to anxiety and stress leading to poorer task performance (Bandura, 1994).

According to Bandura (1997), motivational processes are cognitively generated through the forethought of potential future states. Bandura (1997) outlines three cognitive motivators that are dependent on efficacy beliefs: causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and cognized goals, which correspond to attribution theory, expectancy-value theory, goal theory. Attribution theory is concerned with how learners' feelings towards past experiences influence their present and future attitudes towards a particular task and an individual's judgment of past experience can serve as a motivating force (Weiner, 1994). In expectancy-value theory, which will be discussed in detail later in this chapter, a learner's motivation is influenced by the expectancy of success and the value the learners attach to a task (Wigfield, 1994). In this theory people are motivated by potential positive outcomes, which Bandura (1994) accepts; however, he also states that there must also be a self-efficacy component involved if the individual is to act. He points out that there are numerous instances when people can imagine the positive outcome of an activity but feel that they lack the necessary skills to partake in the activity.

In terms of goal theory, according to Locke (1968), setting realistic goals and having clear intentions towards a task are important in successful completion of the given task. Goals help the person performing the task to visualize a positive outcome and the incentives that would come from that outcome leading to effort and persistence to realise the desirable outcome. Bandura (1997) states that self-efficacy influences goals in a number of ways: "the level at which goals are set, the strength of commitment to them, the strategies used to reach them, the amount of effort mobilized in the endeavour, and the intensification of effort when accomplishments fall short of aspirations" (p. 136).

The third psychological process that is affected by self-efficacy is affective processes, in particular how people regulate their emotions to deal with negative emotions that can lead to stress and anxiety (Bandura, 1994). Bandura (1997) points out that efficacy beliefs help to regulate emotions through control over thought, action, and affect. In the thought-oriented mode, perceived self-efficacy controls how life events and thoughts are construed, and helps to control negative thoughts. In the action-oriented mode of influence, "efficacy beliefs regulate emotional states by supporting effective courses of action to transform the environment in ways that alter its emotive potential" (p. 137). In the action-oriented mode people with strong self-efficacy are able to improve negative emotional states if they occur. By utilizing these avenues of affect regulation, an individual is able to exercise control over their emotional state and in doing so can avoid or cope with the potential anxiety and stress caused by challenging circumstances (Bandura, 1994).

The final processes which self-efficacy mediates are selection processes which relate to the environmental element of Bandura's triadic causation model. Efficacy beliefs affect the environments and activities people choose as well as the environments they produce (Bandura, 1997). Individuals will choose activities that they feel able to complete. Furthermore, the strength of an individual's self-efficacy influences the difficulty of the tasks he or she chooses to pursue (Bandura, 1994). Individuals with strong self-efficacy will approach tasks that they feel are difficult as challenges to overcome, whereas, people with low self-efficacy will avoid certain activities and environments in which they feel incompetent (Bandura, 1997).

5.2.3.2 Self-efficacy: Empirical findings

Following from Bandura's (1977) seminal article, Bandura and colleagues (e.g. Bandura & Adams, 1977) conducted studies into the effects of self-efficacy on the treatment of phobic behaviour. In these initial experimental studies, self-efficacy was found to positively influence behavioural change, as well as persistence and coping strategies in the face of adversity. Since its initial application in psychotherapy, self-efficacy research has established positive relationships between self-efficacy and health functioning, athletic skill, work performance and academic achievement (Bandura, 1977b). Within academic contexts, commonly referred to as academic self-efficacy, self-efficacious students in all levels of education have been found to be more willing participants, harder workers, show greater persistence and are less likely to be influenced by negative emotions (Bandura, 1977b).

Studies of university students have found positive correlations between self-efficacy and overall course grades (Olani, 2009; Weiser & Riggio, 2010; Zajacova, Lynch and Espenshade, 2005) and also on test performance (Cheng & Chiou, 2010). Fenollar, Román, and Cuestas (2007) highlighted that self-efficacious students tend to perform better on tests because they set higher goals and are more likely to commit to those goals. Self-efficacious students have also been found to be more inclined towards mastery behaviour and therefore approach a difficult task as a challenge to be mastered rather than a threat to be avoided (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001). Self-efficacy has been found to positively impact student expectancies of success, which in turn leads to increased motivation (Pouratashi, Zhub, Mohammadi, Rezvanfara, & Hosseinia, (2013), effort expenditure (Phan, 2010), and persistence (De Clercq, Galand, Dupont, & Frenay, 2013). Self-efficacious students have been shown to employ more cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies (Neuville, Frenay, & Bourgeois, 2007) and tend to plan, monitor and regulate their learning more effectively than learners with weak self-efficacy (Pintrich, 1999). Self-efficacy has also been found to lead to positive emotions related to learning (Putwain, Sander, & Larkin, 2013), less neuroticism (De Feyter,

Caers, Vigna, & Berings, 2012), and lower stress levels (Torres & Solberg, 2001).

In addition to research on general academic self-efficacy, researchers have focused on writing self-efficacy. In an initial study of undergraduate students by Shell, Murphy, and Bruning (1989), two dimensions of writing self-efficacy were investigated in relation to writing performance. The writing task subscale asked participants to rate their perceived ability in performing different kinds of writing tasks, and the writing component skill subscale asked participants to rate their confidence in being able to utilize different writing sub skills. Results from the study found writing skills self-efficacy predicted writing performance on an essay writing task, while writing task self-efficacy did not predict performance on the same task. A further study by Shell, Colvin and Bruning (1995) and a number of other studies (see Pajares & Valiante, 2006) confirm the fact that writing self-efficacy scales are more effective when they focus on writing skills capability rather than on confidence in competing writing tasks. Interestingly, a study by Pajares and Johnson (1994) of undergraduate education students found that over the course of a semester, students' writing skills self-efficacy remained stable while their writing task self-efficacy improved even though writing skills were shown to have improved in post-test essays. This was explained by the fact that by practicing the specific writing task on the course and through receiving feedback on their writing the students became more self-efficacious in their ability to complete writing tasks. Writing skill self-efficacy did not improve as no direct feedback was given in relation to skills by instructors or classmates, which highlights the importance of positive and direct feedback on a learner's self-efficacy related to their writing skills.

In another landmark study from the middle 1990s, Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) tested the role of self-efficacy in the regulation of college students' writing processes on an advanced writing course. Participants completed the Writing Self-regulatory Scale questionnaire, which consisted of 25 items that assessed students perceived capability to execute various writing strategies such as planning, organizing, revising, generating ideas, and time management. They also completed a questionnaire of their perceived self-efficacy for academic achievement measuring how well they believed they would perform on the course. These measures, as well as a measure of learner goals, and verbal scholastic aptitude were taken at the beginning of an advanced writing course and were then compared with the students' final course grades. Through causal path analysis, Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) found that students with strong self-efficacy for regulating writing processes had stronger academic self-efficacy beliefs and set higher course achievement standards for themselves. Strong self-efficacy beliefs and high

standards in turn led to the adoption of mastery goals leading to higher overall course grades.

Recent studies into the effects of writing self-efficacy on academic performance at tertiary level have also found positive correlations between perceived self-efficacy and writing performance. Sanders-Reio, Alexander, Reio, Jr., and Newman (2014) conducted a study with undergraduates using the Writing Self-Efficacy Index (Sander-Reio, 2010), which is an adapted version of Zimmerman and Badura's (1994) Writing Self-Regulatory Efficacy Scale. Sanders-Reio et al. (2014) found significant correlations between self-efficacy and apprehension and enjoyment of writing. Self-efficacious students had lower writing apprehension and generally enjoyed writing more. Self-efficacious students were also found to achieve higher grades, although there was only a modest correlation. Finally, studies by Prat-Sala and Redford (2010, 2012) are significant in the field of academic writing self-efficacy research as they introduced the Self-efficacy in Writing Survey, which specifically focuses on students' writing self-efficacy in university contexts. Prat-Sala and Redford (2012) used their scale in conjunction with samples of participants' academic writing on a psychology undergraduate course and found a strong relationship between self-efficacy and scores on two written assignments. They also found that the influence of self-efficacy on university students writing increased from year one to year two. They theorized that the extra practice and feedback from tutors over the course of the year lead to increased writing self-efficacy.

Although the link between self-efficacy and academic achievement has been widely highlighted, "to date there has been relatively little empirical research into the importance of self-efficacy in language learning, particularly as it concerns writing" (Woodrow, 2011, p. 520). The research that has been conducted in L2 and foreign language contexts tends to mirror findings from previous self-efficacy research, with self-efficacy being a predictor of general academic success and achievement in language learning and L2 university settings (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Mahyuddin et al., 2006: Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011; Wang, Spencer, & Xing, 2009). For example, in a study of Malaysian high school students enrolled in an English language learning class, Mahyuddin et al. (2006) discovered a strong correlation between academic achievement and self-efficacy. Furthermore, self-efficacious students were found to have higher levels of self-assertiveness and exhibited greater persistence. Other studies conducted with L2 students have found that self-efficacious students tend to use effective language learning strategies (Li & Wang, 2010; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Shang, 2010; Yilmaz, 2010; Wong, 2005), are more likely to attribute failure to a lack of effort rather than a lack of ability (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008), and have been shown to set challenging mastery goals (Hosseini Fatemi & Vahidnia, 2014). In terms

of specific language skills, learners with strong self-efficacy have been found to have greater listening and reading proficiency (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006). This may be explained by the results of Mills, Pajares, and Herron's (2007) study, that showed self-efficacious students had greater confidence in using metacognitive strategies when performing listening or reading tasks

Longitudinal studies of self-efficacy in L2 contexts have found that self-efficacy in writing can increase over a course of study. Zhang (2018) charted the development of 59 graduate students over the course of a 14-week sessional academic writing course. At the end of the course, questionnaire results highlighted a significant increase in writing self-efficacy, and interview data showed that the writing course had increased students' confidence in writing through specific practice (mastery experience) and tutor feedback (social persuasion). Tutor feedback was also identified as being a source of writing self-efficacy development in a study of 67 Japanese university students conducted by Ruegg (2018). Students in Ruegg's (2018) study who received tutor feedback on every preliminary draft they wrote over the year of an academic writing course significantly increased their writing self-efficacy. Interestingly, in a study that did not find an increase in learners' self-efficacy over an EAP course, Piniel and Csizér (2015) noted that students on this particular course often complained about a lack of feedback on their written work highlighting the importance of social persuasion in self-efficacy development.

Further studies involving self-efficacy and writing in L2 settings have discovered correlations between writing self-efficacy and writing performance (Mills & Peron, 2008; Raoofi & Maroofi, 2017; Tanyer. 2015; Teng, Sun, & Xu, 2018; Woodrow, 2011). Perhaps the most comprehensive study of writing self-efficacy amongst language learners to date is that of Woodrow (2011). Using a mixed methods research design, Woodrow examined the writing self-efficacy and L2 anxiety of 738 Chinese university students. Participants completed a writing self-efficacy questionnaire that comprised of *can do* statements related to micro skills such as vocabulary usage and macro skills such as paragraph organization. The questionnaire also included open-ended items, which assessed the participants' perceptions of motivation. To assess writing performance, participants completed an argumentative essay. Through structural equation modeling, writing self-efficacy was shown to positively predict essay scores. Furthermore, writing anxiety was found to have a strong negative correlation with both writing self-efficacy and essay scores. Through analysis of the open-ended questions, Woodrow (2011) found self-efficacious students exhibited more effort in their academic work and had more intrinsic reasons for studying, which helped to explain the strong writing performance of self-efficacious students.

As mentioned by Woodrow (2011), self-efficacy and international students' writing achievement are still a relatively under researched. Furthermore, the majority of studies on self-efficacy and writing have been conducted with cross-sectional designs or have not involved participants in study abroad contexts (e.g. Zhang, 2018). It is hypothesised that international students may exhibit lower levels of self-efficacy than students studying in their home country and that due to the intensive and focused nature of an EAP course, EAP students may show large increase in their academic writing self-efficacy through participating in an EAP course.

5.2.4 Expectancy-value

5.2.4.1 Expectancy-value: Definition and theoretical overview

Another factor that can energize a student when completing a task is the perceived value that they attach to a task and how well they expect to do on a task. Researchers whose work is based on expectancy-value theory claim that "individuals' choice, persistence, and performance can be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do on the activity and the extent to which they value the activity (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000, p. 68). In educational psychology, the prominent model of expectancy-value was devised by Eccles and colleagues (Eccles et al., 1983). Their model is based on the assumption that a learner's achievement behavior is based on a subjective interpretation of reality rather than being attributed to actual successes and failures, with learners perceived expectancy of success and task value being the main influence on task choice, motivation, performance, and ultimately achievement. In the most comprehensive expectancy-value model (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) (Figure 5.1), expectations of success and subjective task value are posited as both directly influencing achievement related choices and performance. Expectancies and values are influenced by task-specific social cognitive variables such as self-concept of ability, perceived difficulty, goals, self-schema, along with affective memories. These variables are in turn related to an individual's perceptions of their previous experience and various social and environmental factors (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).
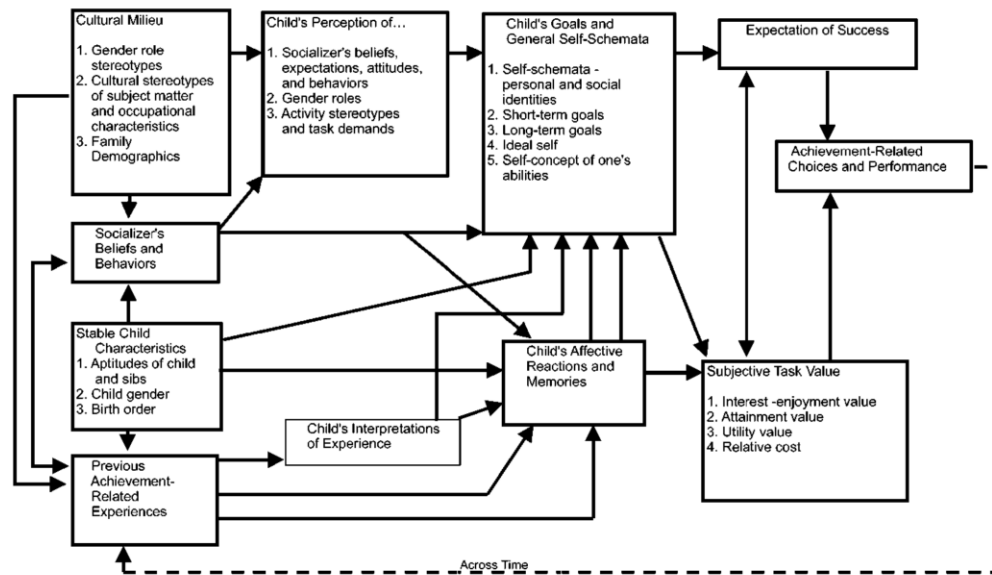
Figure 5.1: The Eccles et al. expectancy-value model of achievement (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002)

In Eccles and Wigfield's (2002) conceptualization of expectancy-value, expectancy for success is defined as "individuals' beliefs about how well they will do on upcoming tasks, either in the immediate or longer-term future" (p. 119). As mentioned previously, expectancy beliefs differ from self-efficacy beliefs as the focus of expectancy beliefs is the successful completion of a task (outcome), while self-efficacy beliefs are concerned with one's ability to partake in an activity (process). The nature of one's expectancy beliefs is determined by their self-concept of ability, perceptions of task difficulty, and perceptions of others' expectations (Eccles et al., 1983). Subjective task value is defined broadly as "a function of both the perceived qualities of the task and the individual's needs, goals, and self-perceptions" (Eccles et al., 1983, p. 90). According to Eccles (2005), subjective task value is a key predicator of an individual's task selection and is defined as consisting of four components: attainment value, intrinsic or interest value, utility value, and cost.

Attainment value is related to the importance one feels when performing a task and doing well in it. Eccles (2005) states that "tasks will be seen as important when individuals view engaging in the task as central to their own sense of themselves, because such tasks provide the opportunity for the individual to express or confirm important aspects of the self" (p. 109). Therefore, individuals are more likely to choose or persist in tasks that conform with their perceived self-image and individual goals (Eccles, 2005). Intrinsic value is defined as "the enjoyment the individual gets from performing the activity or the subjective interest the individual has in the subject (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, p. 120). This component is conceptually similar to the intrinsic motivation construct in self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and the

model of interest theorized by researchers such as Hidi (1990). Utility value refers to how useful a task is in relation to an individual's current or future plans and goals (Eccles, 2005). A task may have relative value if it is consistent with an individual's goals while at the same time being of little inherent interest (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Finally, cost refers to negative aspects of performing a task such as anticipated failure or the potential stress encountered from a challenging task (Eccles, 2005).

5.2.4.2 Expectancy-value: Empirical findings

Students' expectancy of success and achievement values have proven to be solid predictors of academic achievement and motivation at all levels of education (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). The majority of early studies that applied expectancy-value theory in academic settings were conducted with young children in infant and middle schools (e.g. Eccles et al., 1983). Subsequent studies into young learners have found relations between subjective task value and achievement (Gou et al, 2016), effort (Dietrich, Viljaranta, Moeller, & Kracke, 2017), cognitive engagement (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990), and the use of learning strategies (Eccles and Wigfield, 1995). Although the field of expectancy-value research has been mainly concerned with young learners, there has been some research into the values of tertiary level students.

Studies involving college students have shown a link between subjective task value and performance in college exams. In a study of university students in Korea, Bong (2001) used path analysis to show that utility value predicted mid-term scores better than self-efficacy. Bong also discovered that intrinsic value was a predictor of future course enrolment intentions. Battle and Wigfield (2003) also found intrinsic value to be the strongest predictor of undergraduates' intentions to enter graduate school. In Battle and Wigfield's (2003) study, cost was the weakest predictor of future enrolment intentions. Task value has also been found to be predictive of effort and persistence amongst undergraduates. Wu and Fan (2017) found students with higher levels of subjective task value to be more motivated and less likely to suffer from academic procrastination. Cost was also significantly correlated with missing deadlines. In Wu and Fan's (2017) study, students with higher perceived cost were more likely to miss deadlines and were therefore less persistent in their studies. In another study of college students over the course of a semester, Hulleman, Durik, Schweigert, Harackiewicz, (2008) found intrinsic value and utility value to be predictive of initial course interest and utility value to be the strongest predictor of final grades. Furthermore, subjective task value has also been shown to change over time. Johnson, Edwards, and Dai (2014) discovered that general task value was not stable over the course of a semester and claimed that students continually reassess

their goals depending on their subjective perception of achievement experiences.

A limited amount of studies have been conducted in L2 contexts that have utilized subjective task value measures. One large scale study by Raoofi and Maroofi (2017) of 304 undergraduate students in Malaysia discovered intrinsic value was predictive of writing scores on a short descriptive essay (50 words) and a longer argumentative essay (350 words). Attainment value and cost did not correlate with writing scores, although all task value measures correlated positively with writing strategy use. Another study by Woodrow (2013) showed utility value to be the strongest source of motivation amongst pre-sessional EAP students. Summarizing the data from interviews, Woodrow (2013) concluded that the main aim of the students was overwhelmingly to get a well-paid job. Parental pressure also added to the prominence of utilitarian aims. Students explained that their parents spent a lot of money sending them to a foreign university and they felt a duty to succeed in their studies and future career.

Although expectancy-value is a well-researched field in educational psychology, few studies have been conducted with L2 students. The model of expectancy-value offered by Eccles and Wigfield (2002) is based on research with young L2 learners, so the current research aims to discover the relevance of the model in relation to L2 university students.

5.3 Self-regulation

5.3.1 Self-regulation: Definition and theoretical background

Self-regulation is defined as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions for attaining academic goals" (Zimmerman, 1998, p. 73). Through approximately 30 years of research in various educational settings, theories of self-regulated learning have been shown to be a robust predictor of students' academic task achievement (Dent & Koenka, 2015). A triadic conceptualization of self-regulation was posited by Zimmerman (1986), who drew influence from social cognitive theory. According to Zimmerman (1986), self-regulation is conducive to learning and overall academic achievement because self-regulated learners are "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process" (p. 308). Zimmerman (1986) goes on to describe these three elements of self-regulation in greater detail. Metacognitively, throughout the learning process a self-regulated learner plans, organizes, monitors, and evaluates their own learning. Motivationally, self-regulated learners are able to work autonomously, are self-efficacious and tend to believe in their own abilities in relation to successfully completing a task. Behaviourally, self-regulated learners seek to "select, structure, and create

environments that optimize learning (p. 308). Zimmerman's (1986) early definition is important as it combined several theories of self-regulation from various strands of psychology and applied them to educational research, allowing research on self-regulation in academic settings to flourish. This interest in understanding the mediating effects of self-regulation on the learning process and academic achievement translated into the creation of a number of different theoretical models each with their own conceptualizations and terminology (Pintrich, 2000).

Although there are a number of theoretical approaches to self-regulation (e.g. Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Borkowski, 1996; Pintrich, 2000, Winnie, 1996; Zimmerman, 2000), researchers tend to agree on four core features (Dent & Koenka, 2015). First, as highlighted in definitions by Zimmerman (1986) and Pintrich (2000), learners are assumed to be active participants in the learning process and construct their own meaning, goals, and strategies from both internal (prior knowledge) and external environmental cues (Pintrich, 2000). Akin to self-efficacy theory mentioned previously, models of self-regulation reject the behaviourist view of learning and see learners as being more than passive recipients and reactors to external classroom influences (Pintrich, 2000). Secondly, most of the who researchers who investigate self-regulation agree that learner goals play a pivotal role in self-regulation (Boekaerts, 1996). Self-regulated learners use goals to evaluate their performance on a particular task and to assess the viability of their current regulatory processes (Pintrich, 2000).

The third common assumption is that, self-regulated learners employ a self-oriented feedback loop (Zimmerman, 2001). The self-oriented feedback loop refers to the way in which students monitor their progress and make heuristic decisions about the effectiveness of their current strategies (Zimmerman, 1999). If an individual feels that their current approach is inadequate in relation to reaching their goals then this internal feedback allows the learner to regulate their cognition, motivation, and behaviour in order for them to achieve their goals (Pintrich, 2000). Learners may ultimately consider changing the task goal itself to a more realistic goal (Zimmerman, 1990). Finally, researchers tend to agree that cognition, behaviour, and motivation all play a role in self-regulated learning (Zeidner, Boekaerts, & Pintrich, 2000). These three components are reflected in Pintrich's (2000) working definition of self-regulation that attempts to consolidate the various common features of self-regulated learning models: "it is an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate and control their cognition, motivation, and behaviour, guided and constrained by their goals and contextual features of the environment". (p. 453).

Most models of self-regulation include four cyclical phases: forethought, planning, monitoring, and reflection. These phases are further elaborated on by Pintrich (2000). In the forethought phase, learners use prior task knowledge to set goals and activate suitable strategies that will allow them to achieve their goals. Once the task is initiated, learners monitor their progress in relation to their goals. If the learner notices a discrepancy between their performance and their task goals then they initiate self-control, which is a revaluation of their strategy use that may lead to the adoption of a new strategic approach. After the task is complete learners reflect on their performance and may make causal attributions that feed into the planning stage of the next task.

The most widely researched model of self-regulation is perhaps Zimmerman's (2000) cyclical model of self-regulation. This model (Figure 5.2) is based on social cognitive theory and incorporates components of motivation theory, such as self-efficacy and achievement goals. The forethought phase precedes commencement of the task and includes task analysis and motivational processes. The cycle starts with task analysis in which learners set goals and strategically plan how they will approach the task. Learners with high levels of self-regulation set process goals as well as well as outcome goals that serve as checkpoints for evaluating their progress throughout a task (Zimmerman, 2000). Highly self-regulated learners are also more likely to select appropriate strategies that help with controlling their cognition and affect leading to greater task performance (Zimmerman & Campillo, 2003).
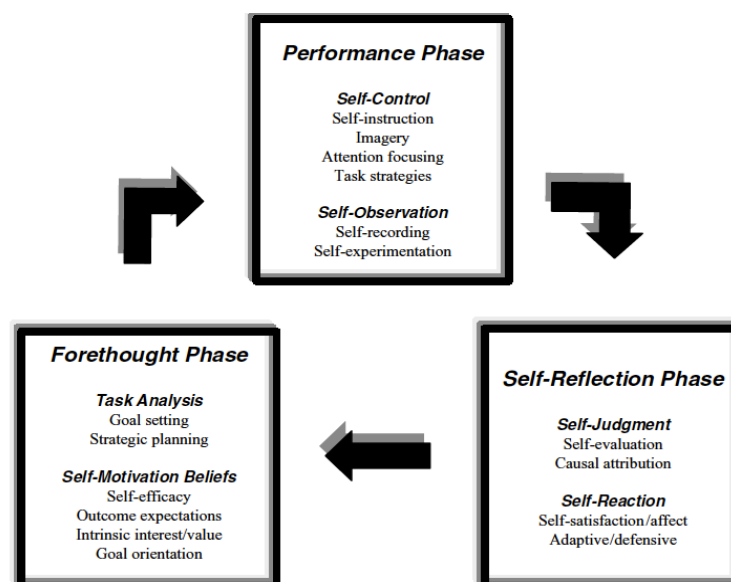
Figure 5.2: Phases and subprocesses of self-regulation (Zimmerman & Campillo, 2003)

Motivation has been theorized as having a pivotal role in the initiation and sustaining of self-regulated learning (Boekaerts, 1996) and forms the basis of

the forethought phase. Firstly, self-efficacy beliefs refer to one's beliefs that they are able to successfully execute a task (Bandura, 1986). According to Zimmerman and Schunk (2008), learners with high self-efficacy tend to use more effective and relevant task strategies as well as more metacognitive and cognitive strategies than those with weaker self-efficacy. Self-efficacious individuals also set higher goals for themselves and are more likely to adapt their goals when faced with difficulty (Zimmerman, 2000). Secondly, outcome expectations have been shown to influence learners' goal commitment (Zimmerman, 2008). Learners with higher expectations tend to be more optimistic about their chances of success and are more likely to give the required effort and commitment required to complete a task well (Zimmerman, 2008).

The third motivational belief is intrinsic value/interest, which can be treated as two separate constructs. Task value, as previously mentioned, refers to the importance an individual attaches to a task with greater importance being placed on tasks that help an individual to meet their goals (Wigfield, Hoa, & Klauda, 2008). Through a review of the literature on task value, Wigfield et al. (2008) concluded that task value plays a pivotal role in the regulation of achievement behaviour. The importance of task value to the self-regulatory process was highlighted by Zimmerman (2000) who states, "Because the most effective self-regulatory techniques require anticipation, concentration, effort, and careful self-reflection, they are only used when the skill or its outcome are highly valued" (p. 27). In terms of interest, Zimmerman and Campillo, (2003) refer to interest as intrinsic interest, which is when one takes part in an activity for personal enjoyment and is conceptually similar to the intrinsic motivation concept from expectancy-value theory mentioned previously (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Learners who are intrinsically motivated have been shown to be more autonomous and engaged in their learning. Furthermore, intrinsically motivated individuals may have more interest in developing metacognitive strategies as they seek out challenges and aim to master skills and tasks (Zimmerman & Campillo, 2003).

The final motivational construct in the forethought phase is goal orientation, which was previously elaborated on in the discussion on achievement goals. Learners' goal orientation has been proven to be a precursor to self-regulatory processes (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008). Students who possess mastery goals aim to increase their competence, while learners who possess performance goals aim to outperform others. Zimmerman and Schunk (2008) in a summary of achievement goal research highlighted the fact that students with a learning goal orientation were more likely to frequently use self-regulatory strategies and were more able to recover from instances of poor performance compared with learners with a performance goal orientation.

The next phase of Zimmerman's (2000) model is the performance phase, which is the phase when learners commence the task. This stage is comprised of self-control and self-observation. Self-control processes "such as self-instruction, imagery, attention focusing, and task strategies, help learners…focus on the physical task" (Zimmerman & Campillo, 2003, p. 242). Firstly, self-instruction is when a learner thinks aloud to help guide themselves through the task and secondly, imagery is when learners imagine themselves successfully completing the task or overcoming difficulties (Zimmerman & Campillo, 2003). The third type of self-control, attention focusing, is when a learner improves their focus on the task at hand by ignoring outside interference, such as other students talking (Zimmerman & Campillo, 2003). Finally, task strategies, such as note-taking, "assist learning and performance by reducing a task to its essential parts and reorganizing the parts meaningfully" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 19). The second part of the performance phase involves self-observation, which is the monitoring and evaluation of one's performance (Zimmerman, 2000). Through this process, self-regulated learners are able to assess whether they are meeting their set goals and can adapt their behaviour if necessary. Learners with higher levels of self-regulation evaluate their performance more often (Zimmerman, 1998) and more effectively because they set appropriate sub goals as well as overall goals (Zimmerman, 2000).

The final phase in Zimmerman's (2000) cyclical model is self-reflection in which learners first evaluate their performance in relation to their overall goals and then make attributions to determine the reasons behind their result (Zimmerman, 1998). Self-regulated learners tend to attribute their success to their own competence and tend to attribute failure to things that can be corrected on future attempts (Zimmerman, 1998). Furthermore, positive self-observations have a favourable influence on the motivational aspect of the forethought phase by increasing self-efficacy and intrinsic interest, and strengthening learning goal orientations, which links the self-reflection phase back to the forethought phase (Zimmerman, 1998).

5.3.2 Self-regulation: Empirical findings

Early studies of self-regulation in both school and university settings have found positive links between the employment of self-regulatory strategies and academic achievement (Bouffard, Boisvert, Vezeau, Larouche, 1995; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986). Zimmerman and Martin-Pons (1986) interviewed two sets of high school students: a high achievement group and a low achievement group. The interviews attempted to elicit the use of 15 different self-regulatory strategies in six different contexts (e.g. in classroom situations and at home) and were coded accordingly. Findings from the study showed that students in the high achieving group

used significantly more self-regulatory strategies than the low achieving group. Furthermore, use of self-regulatory strategies was found to be a strong predictor of test scores. Self-regulation also proved to be the strongest predictor of course grades amongst college students (Bouffard et al., 1995). A number of early studies found connections between self-regulation, motivation, and academic achievement (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Pintrich, Roeser, & De Groot, 1994; Wolters, 1998). For example, in a study of middle school students, Pintrich and De Groot (1990) compared motivational constructs and self-regulatory strategies as predictors of academic performance. Pintrich and De Groot (1990) found self-regulation to be the best predictor of academic performance on a variety of in-class activities such as essays and quizzes They also discovered that self-efficacious students were more likely to use cognitive strategies and that intrinsic motivation was indirectly linked to performance through the facilitation of self-regulation.

Recent meta-analyses of self-regulation have further highlighted its importance to successful learning at various levels of education (Broadbent & Poon, 2015; Dent & Koenka, 2016). A study of undergraduates by Ning and Downing (2010) demonstrated the reciprocal nature of self-regulation and motivation in undergraduates over the course of an academic year. Self-regulation was found to both directly influence achievement and indirectly influence achievement through its effect on motivation and attitude. Ning and Downing (2010) concluded that those who started the academic year with stronger self-regulatory skills were more able to sustain motivation throughout the academic year.

In terms of academic writing, Negretti (2012), in a longitudinal study charting the development of students' academic writing, found that learners with high metacognitive awareness were able to self-regulate more effectively and were also more capable of understanding the demands of the writing tasks they performed. Negretti (2012) summarized her findings of learners with strong metacognitive awareness by stating "they know not only what to write and how to write it, but why it should be written in a certain way to meet their own communicative goals and the rhetorical purpose of the text" (p.171). A further study into self-regulation in academic writing tasks (Hammann, 2005) found a strong correlation between learners self-reported strategy use and their enjoyment of writing. Hamman (2005) concluded that this may be explained due to writing being a cognitively demanding task and learners who possess strategies to deal with the demands of writing are more likely to persevere through the process because they perceive the challenge of writing as being enjoyable.

Some studies have looked at self-regulation in L2 environments. In a large scale (n=512) study of undergraduate students in China, Teng and Zhang

(2017) found metacognitive and cognitive strategies to be directly correlated with scores on argumentative essays. Csizér and Tankó (2015) investigated the self-regulatory strategy use of English language undergraduates at a Hungarian university. The students reported moderate levels of self-regulatory strategy use. Furthermore, strategy use was not directly linked to academic achievement; however, control strategy use was directly correlated with motivation, writer anxiety, and self-efficacy. Csizér and Tankó (2015) concluded that the relative low levels of self-regulatory use amongst their participants may be due to a lack of awareness of the importance of strategy use or difficulties in using strategies in actual academic writing tasks. The impact of strategy use instruction has also been researched (Ching, 2002; Nguyen & Gu, 2013). Ching (2002) reported on a study in which 29 undergraduate students took part in a 7-week course on writing strategy use. After the 7-week course the participants had developed in their use of self-regulatory strategy skills, with the most prominent increase being found in essay planning. Furthermore, the writing strategy course also helped to develop the leaners self-efficacy in writing, and in turn improved the manner in which the participants responded to negative criticism.

The research to date on the development of international students' self-regulation is restricted to only a few studies. Furthermore, the research on self-regulation is further limited by small scale quantitative studies. The current research aims to give insights into the development of international students' self-regulation development in relation to academic writing by taking a mixed methods approach. This will allow for a more in-depth analysis of the self-regulatory strategies that novice L2 writers utilise and develop over the course of an EAP programme.

5.4 Chapter summary

This section has reviewed the motivation and self-regulation constructs that were investigated in this research. Definitions and discussions of the empirical research were provided for achievement goals, self-efficacy, expectancy-value, and self-regulation. Through reviewing the literature on motivation and self-regulation, it is clear that both motivation and self-regulation can have a positive impact on writing task performance, and that instruction on academic writing can develop both motivation and self-regulatory strategy use. It is apparent that in the field of motivation and self-regulation, while there have been studies of L2 learners overall writing achievement in relation to motivation and self-regulation (e.g. Woodrow, 2011), few studies have been conducted over the course of an EAP programme. The current research aims to address this shortfall, and by gaining an insight into the motivation and self-regulation of novice international students, teachers and course developers will be better informed in how to cater for their students' needs who often have

difficulties adjusting to their new academic study environment. The next chapter describes the procedures and methods used in this investigation.

6 METHODOLOGY

6.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter describes the methods used in this investigation. The first section introduces the aims of the thesis and outlines the research questions that guide the study. The second section covers the research design of the thesis by giving overviews of mixed methods research and explanatory sequential design, followed by a description of the design of the current research. The third section concerns the context of the study and gives an overview of the content and assessment of the EAP course. The purpose of the fourth and fifth sections is to describe the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study, respectively, and to discuss the participants, data collection procedures, instruments, and the data analysis methods utilised in the research.

6.2 Aims of the study

This thesis intended to determine the extent to which novice international students' writing, and in particular the use of source texts, developed over the course of a pre-sessional EAP programme. In addition, the study investigated the extent to which novice international students' motivation and self-regulation changed over the EAP course. These two research strands were brought together to examine whether there was a relationship between motivation, self-regulation and writing outcome variables which include essay scores and measures of source use.

Research into the impact of EAP programmes on student development is a limited, but emergent field of enquiry. Research conducted on in-sessional writing courses has discovered improvements in students' self-efficacy (Ruegg, 2018) and self-regulation (Ching, 2002). Furthermore, studies of international students' development on pre-sessional courses have investigated affective factors; for example, Dewaele, Comanaru, and Faraco (2015) found that international students experienced reduced anxiety and increased willingness to communicate when comparing data at the beginning and end of a short intensive pre-sessional course. Studies such as Green (2007) and Elder and O'Loughlin (2003) have revealed improvements in overall writing test scores at the end of an EAP course. In addition, some studies have looked at specific aspects of skills development, such as Mazgutova and Kormos (2015) who discovered that after a month long pre-

sessional course, students were able to use more advanced lexical and syntactical structures in essay writing tasks.

However, few studies to date have attempted to research the relationship between motivation, self-regulation and writing outcomes over the course of a pre-sessional EAP programme. Researchers in the field of educational psychology (e.g. Prat-Sala & Redford, 2012; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994)) have reported that learners' motivation and self-regulation are related to achievement on writing tasks. Furthermore, individual difference variables such a fear of plagiarism have been found to impact on how international students incorporate source texts into their writing (Petrić, 2012). Therefore, in this current research I will take a investigate the development of motivation, self-regulation, essay writing, and source use over an EAP course to demonstrate whether there are any meaningful relationships between these variables, and to discover if these variables change in the space of a 4-week pre-sessional course. The following research questions will be addressed:

RQ1. How do international students' use of source texts and scores on an integrated writing task change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (a). How do international students' motivation and self-regulation change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (b). What is the relationship between international students' motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (c). What is the relationship between international students' integrated writing task scores and motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

6.3 Research design

6.3.1 Mixed methods research

A mixed methods approach was used to answer the research questions, which is in broad terms, a research method that consists of a combination of both quantitative and qualitive methods of investigation (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Since its rise to prominence in the 1980s as one of the three major research paradigms alongside quantitative and qualitative research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), several definitions of mixed methods research have been offered by researchers (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). In a response to the large number of definitions of mixed methods research, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) offered a consolidated general definition:

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (p. 123)

This definition highlights the practical considerations of mixed methods research in that the mixing of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods occurs at various stages of the research. Furthermore, the definition offers a rationale for the use of mixed methods research which is that certain issues cannot be sufficiently captured through the lens of one research method (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). Quantitative data provides us with a general understanding of a phenomenon, while qualitative data can offer the researcher more detailed insights from the participants' perspectives. Therefore, in combination, the researcher can develop a more in-depth understanding of the questions that they are researching (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017).

6.3.2 Explanatory sequential research design

This research utilized a type of mixed-methods research known as explanatory sequential design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). In this research design, the data collection is separated into two discrete data collection stages, with an initial quantitative phase that is followed by a qualitative phase (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). Explanatory sequential research consists of four steps: (1) design and implement the quantitative strand; (2) use of strategies to connect from the quantitative results (i.e. determine what results need further explanation); (3) design and implement the qualitative strand; (4) interpret the connected results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017, p79). In the first step, the quantitative data is collected and analysed which leads to the integration of methods in the second step as the quantitative results help to inform the design of the qualitative data collection phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). In the second step the researcher decides which results from the first step need further explanation. The findings that need further explanation may be significant or nonsignificant, outliers, and differences between groups (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). After the qualitative data collection in the third step, the two sets of data are combined in the fourth step, in which the writer discusses the extent to which the qualitative results explain the findings from the quantitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). The rationale for using this method in the current research is that quantitative data can generally show the direction and magnitude of changes in variables, and the relationships between variables, while the qualitative phase gives specific explanations for the findings in the quantitative

phase, and therefore the final analysis can be more refined and offers greater depth than by relying solely on one method of data collection.

6.3.3 The research design of the current study

Figure 6.1 gives an overview of the mixed methods sequential explanatory design procedure for data collection and analysis in the current study. The quantitative data collection phase involved the collection of both questionnaire and writing task data at the beginning and end of the EAP course. After the quantitative data was collected it was analysed and an interview schedule was created that addressed the issues that arose from the first phase. The qualitative data phase utilised interview data collected at the beginning and end of the EAP programme. After the interviews, the data were transcribed and analysed. At the final stage of the study, the results were integrated, and the extent to which the qualitative results could explain the quantitative results in relation to the research questions was examined.
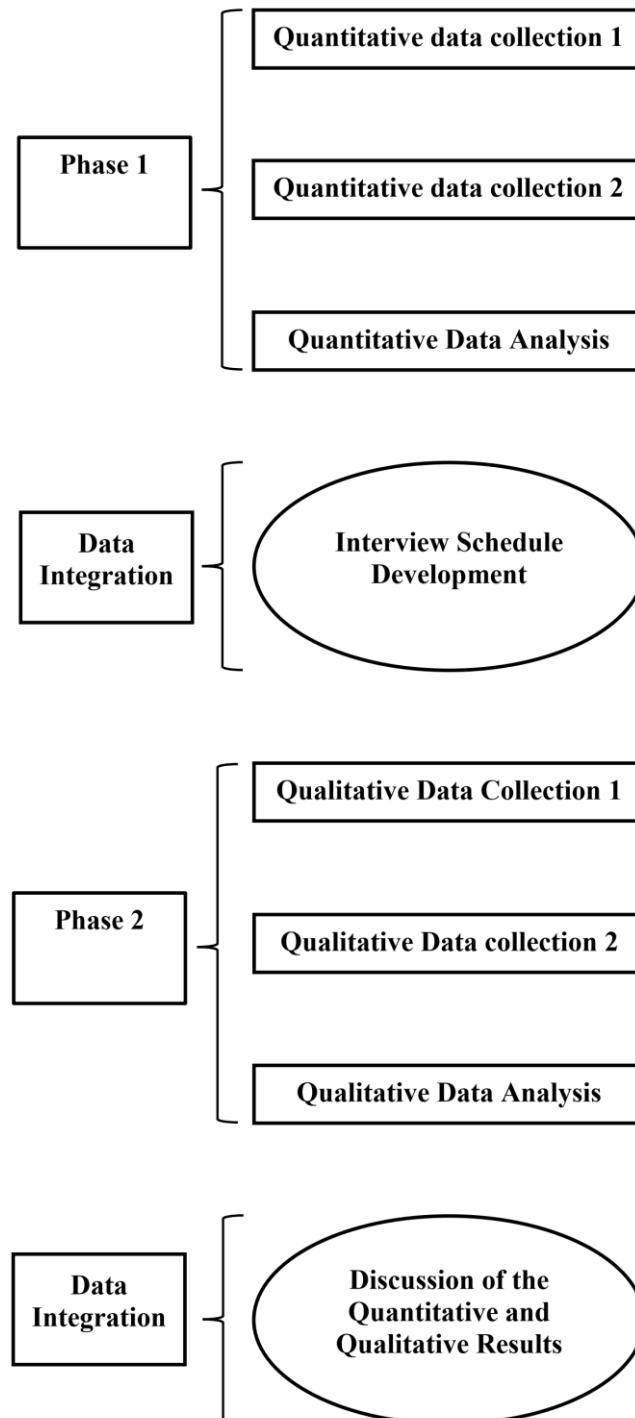
Figure 6.1: Outline of the design procedure

6.4 Research context

The current study was conducted during a four-week pre-sessional EAP course at a UK university. The primary aim of the course is to prepare

international students for their future degree studies and secondly to help them adjust to their new learning environment. The course is mandatory for international students with conditional offers who do not meet the English language entry requirement of their degree programme. To graduate from the course, students are not required to show a specific level of competency as no grades are given on the course. However, at the end of the course, course tutors complete a written evaluation of each student's performance in class and in the course assignments that are passed on to leaning advisors within each faculty who may use the information to provide extra support for students when their degree commence. Table 6.1shows an overview of the content, assessment, and foci of assessment of the academic reading and writing (ARW) module of the EAP course.

The course is full time and consists of 15 hours per week of class time and an additional 15-20 hours of independent study. The programme consists of three modules: ARW, listening reading and discussion (LRD), and oral presentations. ARW modules account for the largest proportion of classroom instruction as reading and writing are considered the most important skills in university study and tend to be the most challenging skills for international to acquire proficiency in. Assessment on the course takes the form of three written assignments that are completed in the first, second, and third weeks of course. The assignments are graded in difficulty and are designed to reflect the input given in ARW and LRD classes in the corresponding week. Furthermore, students take a written test in the form of an argumentative essay on the first day as a means of initial assessment. Both written and oral feedback is given to students after each assignment in individual tutorials. The tutorials are also intended to help students with any issues they might be facing both academically and socially in adjusting to studying in the UK.

Table 6.1: Course content and assessment overview

	Writing Skills	Assessment Title	Essay Feedback Foci
Week 1	• Essay planning – organising ideas • Referencing (90 min. lecture) – including paraphrasing practice • Reading Skills • Rhetorical functions of intertextuality • Writing an introduction	*Use the information from the Leslie and Smith (2004) survey to* <u>*account for*</u> *the difficulty that new international students in universities in English speaking countries encounter in their pursuit of academic success. Refer also to Hawkes (2014) to support some of the points you make.*	• Relevance of source material used • Selecting and using an appropriate register • Reporting data • Macro-organisation (sequencing of ideas, introduction) • Language

Week			
Week 2	• Assessing source reliability • Reading strategies (SQRRR) • Critically analysing texts • Structure of body paragraphs • Paraphrasing • Cohesive devices • Writing a conclusion	*Wal-Mart claims that it benefits local communities when it enters a new area. Evaluate this claim, referring to textual and audio-visual information that you have encountered*	• Strength of introduction • Relevance of sources • Language of cause and effect • Expressing opinions with evidence • Use of source material • Strength of conclusion • Macro-organization (sequencing of ideas) • Language
Week 3	• Understanding plagiarism • Critical thinking • Critical reading • Analysing data in Tables • Language of mitigation • Rhetorical function of reporting verbs • Argument structure • Secondary referencing	*Present a short critical response to the issues raised by Sowden in his paper, 'Plagiarism and the culture of multilingual students in higher education abroad'. In your response you should support or challenge some of Sowden's arguments using evidence*	• Strength of introduction • Expressing opinions • Hedging claims • Developing logical and persuasive arguments • Strength of conclusion • Macro-organization (sequencing of ideas) • Referencing – in-text and reference list • Language
Week 4	• Academic register • Gender-free language • Summarizing • Academic genres – types of academic literature.	No essay this week	

Throughout weeks one and three of the ARW module, students receive input and complete classroom activities and assignments relating to various aspects of source use. The first input on using sources is given in week one. Students attend a 90-minute lecture entitled citation and referencing, which provides a broad overview of using sources in academia. Brief definitions of direct quotation, paraphrasing, and summarising are given followed by examples in American Psychological Association (APA) style. Next, there is a short explanation of how to paraphrase and summarise. In terms of paraphrasing, students are told to change the words of the source text into their own words by modifying the vocabulary and grammar whilst keeping the ideas and content the same as the original.

In week two, there is a 90-minute lesson on paraphrasing. A definition of paraphrasing is given followed by a list of reasons as to why paraphrasing is used in academic writing. Amongst the reasons given are demonstrating that the writer has understood the source text and to avoid using too much direct quotation. Next the lesson covers the mechanics of paraphrasing. Students are advised to read and understand source texts, note down key points, and

then write the content in their own words without looking at the original text. In addition, students are advised to change the words, grammar and sentence structure of the source, break up long sentences into smaller ones, combine sentences, change the order ideas are presented, and change the voice. Following the input on the practicalities of paraphrasing, students complete a worksheet in which they have to analyse and evaluate three attempted paraphrases. In this activity students are introduced to the concept of patchwriting and are warned that it is considered to be an unacceptable kind of reformulation. The final activity in the worksheet allows students an opportunity to attempt a paraphrase of a given text. The lesson concludes with a reminder to students that they should use paraphrasing more than direct quotation as it shows they have understood the text and that they can shape the source text to fit their own rhetorical purpose.

The final input and practice learners receive on using sources is in week three, which focuses on the topic of plagiarism. In the assignment for week three students have to write a 800–1000 critical review of Sowden's (2005) article on the cultural aspects of plagiarism. Students are given the instructions of supporting and challenging Sowden (2005) with evidence and are asked to refer to source texts in their essay.

6.5 Phase 1: Quantitative

6.5.1 Participants

A total of 64 students took part in the quantitative phase of the study. Table 6.2 presents demographic information concerning the participants of the study and shows that majority of participants were female postgraduate students. The data also shows that all of participants were from mainland China and had not studied in the UK previously. English language proficiency as measured by IELTS score reveal that overall IELTS scores were on average 6.37, which corresponds to B2 level (independent user) in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (IELTS, 2018). It is worth noting that participants had lower scores on the productive skills of speaking and writing than receptive skills of listening and reading. The bulk of students were entering into degrees in the Management School which includes courses such as accounting and finance. Courses in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences accounted for the second largest group of students' future degrees.

Table 6.2: Participants' demographic data at the quantitative stage

Gender	Female	52
	Male	12
Age	Mean	22.27
	Range	17-29
Degree Type	UG	18
	PG	46
Nationality	Chinese (mainland)	64
Location of Prior Studies	China (mainland)	64
English Language Proficiency	Mean IELTS listening	6.58
	Mean IELTS reading	7.02
	Mean IELTS speaking	5.93
	Mean IELTS writing	5.91
	Mean IELTS overall	6.37
Faculty of Students' Degrees	Arts and social sciences	27%
	Science and technology	14%
	Management school	59%

6.5.2 Data collection

6.5.2.1 Instruments: The questionnaire

To measure the students' motivational and self-regulatory profiles the Academic Writing Motivation and Self-regulation Questionnaire (AMSRQ) (Appendix 1) was created. This instrument focused specifically on measuring L2 university students' motivation and self-regulation in relation to academic writing. The AMSRQ consisted of 72 Likert scale questions and 15 closed demographic questions. The items measuring motivation in the AMSRQ comprised of constructs that assessed the participants' beliefs, values, and goals in relation to academic writing. In the literature on motivation, a writer's beliefs, values, and goals have been shown to influence a student's effort and persistence whilst completing a writing task (Schunk, 2012). In the AMSRQ, beliefs, values, and goals were operationalised as self-efficacy beliefs, expectancy-value, and achievement goals, respectively. These constructs were chosen due to their prominence in both the theoretical and empirical literature on task motivation, and the positive impact that they have been

shown to have on students' writing task performance (See chapter 5.2). The items in the self-regulation scale measured the participants' use of metacognitive strategies during, while, and post writing task. Metacognitive strategies are defined as "thinking about thinking" (Anderson, 2002) and relate to a learner's reflections and awareness of the self-regulatory strategies that they employ during a task (Anderson, 2005). Reflections on one's cognitive processes during a writing task allows the students to control their use of strategies which leads to a greater utilisation of self-regulatory strategies that assist them in successfully completing a task (Anderson, 2005).

An outline of the motivation and self-regulation items from the AWMSRQ is presented in

Table 6.3. The self-efficacy scale measured the participants beliefs in their ability to accomplish an academic writing task and consisted of three subscales: paraphrasing self-efficacy; citing from sources self-efficacy; academic writing self-efficacy These scales were created specifically for the current study and were based on key aspects of academic writing ability from Bailey (2018). As per Bandura's (2006) instructions, the self-efficacy items began with the phrase *I can*. Three specific areas of writing self-efficacy were focused on in the AWMSRQ as Bandura (2006) stated that self-efficacy items are most effective when they target a specific domain.

The achievement goals scale measured the reasons and purposes that students have when completing a writing task and included items pertaining to mastery goals, performance-approach goals, and performance-avoidance goals. Items in these scales were adapted from the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS) (Midgley et al., 2000) which are a series of questionnaire items that measure the relationship between a learner's study environment and their motivation, and have previously been utilised and validated in studies of L2 learners' task performance (Woodrow, 2006) The original items from the PALS were re-phrased from a focus on classroom environment to a focus on aspects of academic writing The achievement goals subscales included measures of mastery goals, performance-approach goals, and performance-avoidance goals. The mastery goals subscale measured the goals of writing in relation to self-development and the aims of improving writing skills. The performance-approach goals subscale measured the extent to which the students' aim in writing is to show that they are more competent than their peers. In contrast, the performance-avoidance subscale measured

the extent to which the students' goal in writing is to avoid being regarded as an incompetent writer in comparison to their peers. While other conceptualisations of achievement goals have been theorised and researched, the three dimensions of achievement goals in the AWMSRQ were chosen as they have been the prominent in the literature on L2 writing (e.g. Woodrow, 2006) and L1 studies in tertiary settings (e.g. Harackiewicz et al., 2000).

The expectancy-value scale consisted of items relating to expectancy and subjective task value (intrinsic value, utility value, attainment value, and cost). These items measured the student's beliefs of how well they will do in writing tasks and the values that they bring to the task. These scales were adapted from studies by Conley (2012) and Kosovich, Hulleman, Barron, and Getty (2014) to focus specifically on the academic writing domain. The expectancy subscale measured the students' perceptions of how well they think they will do in a writing task, and focused on success in the end product, in comparison to self-efficacy which focuses on the ability to perform the processes of writing. The subjective task value component of the expectancy-value construct consisted of four sub-scales. First, the intrinsic value scale measured the enjoyment and interest that the participants feel when writing. Second, the utility value scale measured the extent to which the participants believe that academic writing is valuable to their future studies or career. Third, the attainment value subscale assessed whether the participants view writing as conforming to their perceived self-image. Fourth, the cost items tapped into the extent to which academic writing to a required level has any negative consequences, such as a taking too much effort or time.

The self-regulation scale measured the participants use of metacognitive strategies and focused on the students' perceptions of the self-regulatory strategies that they use before writing, during writing, and after a writing task is completed. The items are based on the Metacognitive Strategy Use in Writing Scale from Boekaerts and Rozendaal (2007). To ensure that the participants focused on the strategies that they used when writing in academic contexts the questionnaire items contained the phrase *writing an academic essay*. The self-regulation scale contained subscales based on Zimmerman's (2000) recursive model, which is a seminal model of self-regulation (see Chapter 5.3). The subscales for the pre-writing phase is concerned with planning an academic essay and included items such as organizing ideas, recalling topic knowledge, and understanding the question. The items for planning all begin with *before writing an academic essay*. The while-writing subscales included monitoring and self-control, and each statement commenced with *while writing an academic essay*. The monitoring subscale measured whether the participant check their work while writing, while the self-control subscale measured whether the participants make changes to

their writing during the writing process in relation to any issues that were found in the monitoring process. The final self-regulation subscale is self-reflection which has items worded with the initial phrase *when I have finished writing*. This subscale measured the extent to which the participants reflect on what they had written and also whether they use the self-reflection to consider how they will make improvements or changes in the next essay that they write. Therefore, the final stage feeds back into the planning stages of the next task and is thus measuring whether the students engage in a recursive process. Furthermore, recursivity is also assessed in the while writing phase as monitoring and self-control are both recursive processes that occur while writing. As mentioned in Chapter 4.3.1, writing recursively is a key element of a proficient writer according to the knowledge-transforming model of writing (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987).

The questionnaire ended with a set of demographic questions that cover gender, age, nationality, first language, degree programme, and IELTS scores. Due to the large cohort of Chinese students on the EAP course, the questionnaires were translated into Chinese by a native speaker with experience of translating documents from English to Chinese. The final questionnaire included both English and Chinese versions of each item.

Table 6.3: AWMSRQ items

Construct	Scale	Number of items	Example
Self-efficacy	Paraphrasing self-efficacy	4	When writing an academic essay, I can paraphrase what I have read by using different vocabulary than in the original text.
	Citing from sources self-efficacy	7	When writing an academic essay, I can correctly refer to the work of others.
	Academic writing self-efficacy	13	I can write an academic essay

Achievement goals	Mastery goals	5	It's important to me that I keep improving my writing skills.
	Performance-approach goals	4	One of my goals is to show others that I am good at writing.
	Performance-avoidance goals	4	It's important to me that I do not appear to be an incompetent writer.
Expectancy-value	Expectancy	3	When I write an essay, I expect to get a good grade.
	Intrinsic value	3	I like academic writing.
	Utility value	3	Being good at academic writing will be important when I get a job.
	Attainment value	3	Being someone who is good at writing is important to me.
	Cost	3	I am unable to put in the time needed to do well in my writing assignments.
Self-regulation	Planning	5	Before writing an academic essay, I think about I already know about the subject.
	Monitoring	7	While writing an academic essay, I check whether everything I wanted to say in the in the text.
	Self-control	4	While writing an academic essay, I reread my text and make changes if necessary.
	Self-reflection	4	When I have finished writing, I think about the improvements I could make in my next essay.

6.5.2.2 Instruments: The writing tasks

Two writing tasks were created to collect data on the participants' source use (Appendix 2; Appendix 3) in which students were required to complete an integrated writing task of between 250 and 300 words. Integrated writing tasks practice the kind of reading and writing skills that students will perform on their degree programmes and cover a number of key skills, as outlined by Shi (2018):

> By moving back and forth between reading and writing, students are engaged in locating or extracting source information, summarizing or synthesizing multiple ideas, relating or contrasting different understandings, evaluating or critiquing others' views, and restructuring or integrating source texts into their own writing. (p.1)

The topics chosen for the tasks were related to education as it is an area of general interest in which the participants will have had some experience to base their arguments. Task 1 focused on whether e-learning will replace classroom learning and Task 2 asked the participants to give their opinion about whether all schools should be same-sex. The source excerpts were chosen mainly from academic journals and either gave an opinion or provided statistics. The sources provided a roughly equal amount of arguments for and against the topic. On average, the source excerpts were 45.57 words in length for Task 1 and 35.29 words for Task 2. The input sources were analysed for readability using Coh-Metix (McNamara, Louwerse, Cai, Graesser, 2005) and were found to have similar readability according to Flesch reading ease (Task 1: 35.52; Task 2: 37.86) and Coh-Metrix L2 reading index measures (Task 1: 12.07; Task 2: 11.81).

6.5.2.3 Piloting of the questionnaire and writing task

The questionnaire went through two rounds of piloting with different students at each stage of piloting. The participants who took part in the piloting were all Chinese postgraduate students from the Department of Linguistics who were in the final stages of their master's degrees. Both piloting sessions consisted of think alouds in which the participants completed the questionnaire while verbalizing their thought processes. In the verbalisation process students were also asked to report anything they did not understand, or thought might need changing. The first session resulted in several changes being suggested to the Chinese translation. First, in the original translation, the Chinese symbol used for *academic writing* actually meant *literature* in general, so the participants wrote down the symbol that was used for academic writing. Second, the participants suggested adding the phrase *in English* to self-efficacy items such as *I can write an academic essay* to make it clear that the questions relate to ability beliefs in academic writing in English. Third, the participants suggested ways in which the statements could be made more concise as they noticed redundant phrases in a few items. Fourth, some errors in symbol choice were pointed out. Fifth, the question *writing to a high standard requires too much time* was repeated twice in error, and so this was amended by the researcher. All the suggestions were written in Chinese to aid the translator in editing the questionnaire. After the questionnaire was edited, it went through a second round of piloting, in which only two errors in symbol choice were highlighted. After the second round of piloting, the translator attended to the errors in symbol choice resulting in the final version of the questionnaire. Furthermore, the piloting participants were also asked to complete both writing tasks. The completed samples were checked to see if students had answered the questions appropriately and attempted to use the sources and on both counts the participants had completed the tasks as intended.

6.5.2.4 Ethical issues and recruitment of participants

To conform with the university research ethics guidelines, approval to conduct the research was applied for and granted by the university prior to collecting the data. The study followed the guidelines as set out in Ethical Guidance for Research with Human Participants. With regards the recruitment of participants, prior to the start of the EAP course I emailed students to make them aware of my research. Then I allocated time in the first week cohort induction to explain to the potential participants what the aims and procedures of the study were and made them aware of the time and venues for the sessions. Students who agreed to take part in the study were given consent forms (Appendix 4) at the beginning of the first questionnaire session. I allowed the participants 20 minutes to read and sign the consent form and only one student decided not to take part in the study. The consent forms were collected by the researcher at the end of the questionnaire session. The consent forms, essays, and questionnaires and resulting data were stored securely.

6.5.2.5 Data collection procedures

Participants completed the writing tasks at the beginning of the first and fourth weeks of the EAP course (Appendix 5: example of Time 1 (T1) essay; Appendix 6: example of Time 2 (T2) essay). To control for the effects of task, the research took a counterbalanced approach to the distribution of the writing tests. At T1 half the students were given Task 1 and the other half were given Task 2, and this was reversed at T2. A time limit of one hour was given for the writing tasks. The writing tasks were completed in classrooms and were integrated into the course schedule and used for assessment purposes by the teachers on the course. After completion of the writing tasks, the finished essays were collated by class teachers and handed to the researcher. The questionnaire sessions lasted for up to one hour and were run after the writing task sessions in a lecture theatre. After the participants completed the questionnaires they were collected by the researcher. Only students who agreed to take part in the study attended the questionnaire sessions.

6.5.3 Data analysis

The rubric used for rating the writing samples was the reading-into-writing rubric from the Trinity College Integrated Skills in English Exam (Chan, Inoue, & Taylor, 2015). This rubric was chosen because it specifically focuses on integrated writing and included an analytic measure of RW. In addition to RW, the rubric also includes measures of task fulfilment (TF), organisation and structure (OS), and language control (LC). A description of the assessment criteria for each analytic measure is provided in Table 6.4. For each of the

writing criteria, the students are given a score between 1 and 4, with 4 referring to the highest level of competency.

The essays were assessed by two raters who both had several years of experience of teaching and coordinating on EAP courses. Scores for all measures were inputted into SPSS version 24 and significant Pearson inter-rater reliability coefficients were found for all raters' scores (Table 6.5). Means of the two raters' scores for the four criteria were computed in SPSS version 24 and *t*-tests were performed to compare the difference in mean scores between T1 and T2.

Table 6.4: Assessment criteria for each analytic measure

RW	TF
• Understanding of input materials • Selection of relevant content from source texts • Ability to identify common themes and links within and across multiple texts • Adaptation of content to suit the purpose for writing • Use of paraphrasing/summarizing	• Overall achievement of communicative aim • Awareness of the writer-reader relationship (style and register) • Adequacy of topic coverage
OS	LC
• Text organization, including use of paragraphing, beginnings/endings • Presentation of ideas and arguments, including clarity and coherence of their development • Consistent use of format to suit the task • Use of signposting	• Range and accuracy of grammar • Range and accuracy of lexis • Effect of linguistic errors on understanding • Control of punctuation and spelling

Note. Adapted from Chan, Inoue, & Taylor, (2015, pp. 35–36).

Table 6.5: Pearson inter-rater reliability between the raters' essay scores at T1 and T2

	T1	T2
RW	$.85^{***}$	$.82^{***}$
TF	$.79^{***}$	$.72^{***}$
OS	$.78^{***}$	$.79^{***}$
LC	$.71^{***}$	$.70^{***}$

Note. $^{*} = p < .05$; $^{**} = p < .01$; $^{***} = p < .001$.

The researcher then analysed the use of source texts in the essays. As the essays were relatively short (<500 words), this was done manually by cross checking each sentence in the essays to the sources from the writing task. Paraphrase attempts were coded for length, amount of borrowed words, adherence to APA formatting, and whether the author gave attribution to the source author. In identifying the beginning and end of a paraphrase attempt, Storch's (2009) guidelines were used which state that words acting as cohesive devises at the beginning of a paragraph (e.g. according to…) and phrases showing attribution (e.g. Smith said…) are not to be included in the paraphrase word count. Furthermore, only strings of two or more words that exactly matched the source text were classified as borrowed words. Direct quotations were coded for length, adherence to APA formatting, and inclusion of author attribution. A sample of 10 essays was checked for paraphrasing and quotation attempts by a second rater and 100% inter-rater agreement was found. Presented in Table 6.6 are examples of coding for direct quotations and paraphrase attempts.

Table 6.6: Examples of source use coding

Original excerpt	Student essay excerpt	Coding
E-learning provides benefits such as access to a wide network of peers, more up-to-date learning resources, and lower training costs. (Mohammadyari & Singh, 2015, p.18)	Mohammadyari & Singh (2015) emphasize that "E-learning provides benefits such as access to a wide network of peers, more up-to-date learning resources, and lower training costs"	Type: Direct quotation Words: 20 Attribution: Yes Correct formatting: No (& is used instead of and; no page number given)
…since e-learning environments cannot create the real life on a campus. (Zhang, Zhao, Zhou, & Nunamaker Jr., 2004, p.79)	First e-learning environments cannot create the real life on a campus.	Type: Direct quotation Words: 11 Attribution: No Correct formatting: No (no attribution, no quotation marks)
…in a mixed classroom, boys tend to dominate discussions, frequently putting themselves forward as leaders in group activities. Girls, meanwhile, are inclined to hold back. (Cairns & Fraser, 2015, para.16)	Cairns and Fraser (2015, para. 16) states that **in a mixed classroom** males make themselves to be the leader **in group activities**, which leads females **to hold back**.	Type: Paraphrase Words: 20 Borrowed words: 10 Attribution: Yes Correct formatting: Yes

Note. Words in bold are borrowed from the source text. The underlined text is not included in the word count.

After the initial coding, the data were categorised into three categories: source type, use of borrowed words, and source attribution and formatting. Source use type includes the number of direct quotations and paraphrase attempts per essay. Only direct quotations and paraphrases with some kind of attribution to the source author were included in these measures. For example, if the student quoted verbatim and used quotation marks, but did not mention the author, this was deemed as being a genuine direct quotation attempt as the writer gave some indication of the use of intertextuality.

The second measures of source use relate to borrowed word included in this category are the proportion of total borrowed words per essay to the total words in paraphrase attempt. As shown in Table 6.7, paraphrase attempts were then categorised into five types according to the proportion of borrowed words to paraphrased words. The classification of paraphrase types in this study is based on Keck's (2006) and Storch's (2009) studies with new categories being created which provided a finer level of analysis. The five types of attempted paraphrase used in this study are near copy (NC) in which 75% or more words are borrowed from the source text, minimal revision (MnR) in which 51%–75% of words are borrowed, moderate revision (MdR) in which 15%–50% of words are borrowed, substantial revision (SR) in which less than 15% of words are borrowed, and total revision (TR) in which 0% of words are borrowed from the original text.

Table 6.7: Examples of the five paraphrase types

Paraphrase type	Original excerpt	Example	Borrowed words (%)
TR	In 2005, the proportion of A grades achieved at A-level in all-girl independent schools was, on average, 10 per cent higher than that of girls in co-educational independent schools, in all three sciences, maths, further maths, French, history and geography". (Asthana, 2006, para. 25).	<u>Asthana (2006, para 25) reports that</u> girls in all-girls schools do better than those who learn in mixed school in A-levels in many subjects.	0
SR	The learners may also feel isolated and unsupported while learning since the instructors and instructions are not always available. (Alkharang & Ghinea, 2015, p.18)	<u>In addition, according to Alkharang & Ghinea (2013, p.2),</u> students who attend on-line classrooms would have limited opportunities to get connected with their classmates as well as **the instructors.**	10
MdR	In 2005, the proportion of A grades achieved at A-level in all-girl independent schools was, on average, 10 per cent higher than that of girls in co-educational independent schools, in all three sciences, maths, further maths, French, history and geography". (Asthana, 2006, para. 25).	<u>Asthana (2006) shows that</u> the percentage of students in all-girls schools who got **A grades** is **10 per cent higher than that of** co-educational school students in various subjects.	34.62
MnR	Being able to communicate with the other sex, both in and out of the classroom, is crucial for preparing students for the professional world". (Henegan, 2014, para. 11).	<u>As Henegan (2014) indicates,</u> **being able to communicate with the other sex** is a key way to help students prepare **for the professional world**.	60.00
NC	Many of them, especially those with a public-service mandate, consider online learning key to advancing their mission, placing advanced education within reach of people who might otherwise not be able to access it"	<u>This is proved by Glenn and D'Agostino (2008) who stated that</u> many residents **with a public-service mandate** believe online courses play a significant role in **placing advanced education within reach of people who might otherwise not be able to access it.**	77.78

(Glenn & D'Agostino, 2008, p. 4).

Note. Words in bold are borrowed from the source text. The underlined text is not included in the word count.

The final measures of source use concerned author attribution and formatting accuracy. A source us attempt was classified as including no attribution if there were no indications to show that the source use was taken from another author. This category included both verbatim copies and paraphrasing of the source texts. Formatting accuracy measured the percentage of in-text citations that were formatted accurately according to APA referencing conventions.

Using SPSS version 24, the following analyses were conducted. Firstly, the motivation and self-regulation variables at both times were checked for validity using principle component analysis (PCA) and reliability using Cronbach's α. Secondly, descriptive statistics and *t*-tests were conducted on the motivation measures, self-regulation measures, writing scores, and source use measures at T1 and T2. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's *d* and were interpreted using Cohen's (1977) guidelines: .2 = small; .5 = medium; .8 = large. Next, zero order correlation analyses were performed at both times. Finally, to see whether there were any statistically significant differences between the correlations at T1 and T2 Fisher *r*-to-*z* scores were calculated.

6.6 Phase 2: Qualitative

6.6.1 Participants

6.6.1.1 Ethical issues and recruitment of participants

Participants at the qualitative data collection phase were recruited from the EAP course in the year following the quantitative data collection phase. An email was sent to the students and due to the large number of Chinese students on the EAP course, the email included a Chinese translation. Students were offered a £10 Amazon voucher and the opportunity to attend a writing workshop run by the research for participating in the study. Prior to commencing the study, all the participants read and completed a consent form that outlined the qualitative phase of the study (Appendix 7). All the data resulting from the qualitive stage of data collection were kept confidential and secure.

6.6.1.2 Background of participants

Originally, ten participants agreed to take part in the interviews; however, four of the interviewees were not included in the study as two interviewees were

from Japan, one interviewee had previously studied in a UK university, and one student was from Taiwan. The reason that these students were not included in the sample for further analysis was that differences in educational backgrounds would have likely skewed the resulting data. Furthermore, the final sample of students is consistent with the quantitative phase participants who are all from mainland China and have had no experience of education in an Anglo-Western university.

Table 6.8 and Table 6.9 present demographic and previous education information concerning the six participants from the qualitative phase of the study. As with the quantitative phase, all the participants were from mainland China, and had no experience of tertiary education outside of Chinese mainland prior to the research. Furthermore, the participants' only experience with writing in English was in preparation for the IELTS exam. Most of the participants were postgraduate students entering the management school. With regards IELTS scores, on average the qualitative phase participants reported higher scores in all criteria when compared to quantitative phase students; however, reading and writing scores were on average only slightly lower at the first phase compared to the second phase, and are within the same IELTS band.

Table 6.8: Qualitative phase participants' demographic data

					IELTS				
Name[a]	Age	Nationality	Degree	Dept.	L	R	S	W	O
Bo (M)	20	Chinese (mainland)	UG	MS	7.0	7.0	6.0	6.0	6.5
Jie (M)	19	Chinese (mainland)	UG	ASS	7.5	6.5	6.0	5.5	6.5
Hao (M)	22	Chinese (mainland)	PG	MS	6.5	8.0	6.0	6.0	6.5
Lian (F)	24	Chinese (mainland)	PG	ST	7.0	8.5	5.5	6.0	7.0
Xuan (M)	23	Chinese (mainland)	PG	MS	6.5	7.0	6.5	6.5	6.5
Yi (M)	23	Chinese (mainland)	PG	ASS	7.5	6.0	6.5	6.0	6.5
				M	7.1	7.2	6.2	6.1	6.7

Note. L: listening, R: reading, S: speaking, W: writing, O: overall; M: male, F: female; B: bachelor's; M: master's; MS: management school; ASS: arts and social sciences; ST: science and technology.

[a]Pseudonyms.

Table 6.9: Qualitative phase participants' education backgrounds

Name	Years learning English	Previous education	Writing experience
Bo	14	Chinese high school	IELTS essay practice
Jie	11	Chinese high school	IELTS essay practice
Hao	15	Chinese university: Bachelor's in Business	IELTS essay practice; university essays and dissertation in Chinese
Lian	16	Chinese university: Bachelor's in graphic design	IELTS essay practice; university essays and dissertation in Chinese
Xuan	15	Chinese university: Bachelor's in translation	IELTS essay practice; university essays and dissertation in Chinese; translating English texts to Chinese
Yi	10	Chinese university: Bachelor's in translating	IELTS essay practice; university essays and dissertation in Chinese; translating English texts to Chinese

6.6.2 Data Collection

6.6.2.1 Instruments

6.6.2.1.1 The writing tasks
The participants at the qualitative phase completed the same writing tasks as the participants in the quantitative phase of the study. In line with the quantitative phase, the distribution of the writing tasks was counterbalanced to control for the effects of task. A sample of a qualitative phase participant's writing at T1 and T2 can be found in Appendix 8 and Appendix 9, respectively.

6.6.2.1.2 Interview schedule
For the qualitative phase, interview questions were created that were grounded in the quantitative results from the first phase of the study. The goal of the qualitative phase was to explore and elaborate on the results of the statistical tests. The questions at T1 covered achievement goals, self-efficacy, intrinsic value, utility value, and self-regulation, and included topics related to the students' perceptions of source use development, paraphrasing strategies, knowledge of avoiding plagiarism, academic writing and general skills development, and the differences in perceptions of source use and plagiarism between their home country and the UK (Table 6.10). The same interview questions were asked at T2; however, the questions at T2 were proceeded by

the phrase comparing week one to week four. This was done to discover how the participants had developed in relation to the different question areas. Furthermore, at the second interview phase, students were asked which skills apart from writing they felt they had developed over the course (Appendix 10: T1 sample transcript; Appendix 11: T2 sample transcript).

Table 6.10: Interview questions

Interview Questions
- Tell me about your goals in relation to academic writing. What do you want to achieve when you are writing?   - What effort do you put into developing your academic writing skills?   - Is it important for you that others see you as a good academic writer? Why?/Why not?   - Is it important that people do not think you are a bad writer or not good at writing? And why?   - What do you think about your general abilities as an academic writer?   - How did you feel about your ability to write the essay yesterday? Were you confident in your ability to write the essay yesterday?   - How do you feel about your abilities in using other peoples' ideas, in terms of paraphrasing and in terms of direct quotation, how confident are you in your abilities to do this skill?   - How confident are you in your abilities to write in an academic style?   - What kind of strategies do you use before, during, or after you have written an essay?   - When you are writing an essay, how do you check if the essay is good? Or how do you make sure the essay is going to be a good one while you are writing?   - How about yesterday, when you were writing the essay yesterday did you use any strategies similar to that?   - Yesterday when you had to use sources did you have any strategies for paraphrasing them?   - Are there any aspects of academic writing that you find the most interesting or enjoyable? Why?/why not?   - How did you feel about the writing the essay yesterday? Did you feel? Was it enjoyable or interesting when you were writing the essay yesterday?   - How important is academic writing? When you go onto degree course is academic writing skills going to be useful? Why?/Why not?   - How about when you get a job after you have graduated will academic writing skills be still important?   - When you are using other writers' ideas and work, how do you feel about that?

- Some people think that direct quotation is easier than paraphrasing and what do you think about that?

- What are the differences or similarities between using sources in China compared to the UK?

Interviews with students from the EAP course were conducted in the first and final week of study, before any input on academic writing, and after their final assignments had been marked and the majority of course content had been delivered. Interviews were semi-structured using the interview questions mentioned previously. Due to the researcher's role as manager on the EAP course, potential social desirability bias was counterbalanced by making it clear to participants that they were not being assessed or tested and that they should speak freely. Furthermore, the researcher attempted to make the participants feel relaxed by initiating some general conversation prior to the interviews. All participants were asked the same core questions, although the interviewer asked different follow up questions so that the participants could elaborate on any interesting points regarding their development. All interviews were conducted in English. Interviews lasted from between 10 to 15 minutes and were recorded and saved to a secure hard drive.

6.6.3 Data analysis

Each interview recording was transcribed verbatim and inputted into NVivo 12 for analysis. Initial codes were created that represented the writing measures in the quantitative phase such as paraphrasing and direct quotation. After this initial coding, a second stage of coding was conducted which sought to find themes within the codes which could explain the quantitative results. As the interviews were focused, clear themes emerged at the second stage of analysis that covered all the findings from the quantitative phase of data collection.

6.6.3.1 Motivation and self-regulation

Nine codes emerged from the T1 and T2 interviews that correspond to the motivation and self-regulation measures recorded in the quantitative phase (Table 6.11). The interviews uncovered a more nuanced level of data than the quantitative data in the achievement goals and self-regulation constructs, as performance goals were coded into approach and avoid dimensions, and the self-regulation construct was divided into pre-, while-, and post-strategies

Table 6.11: Codes for motivation and self-regulation

Code	Definition	Example
Mastery goals	The student's goal when writing is for self-development	"My goal is to improve my own arguments and my own opinions in an academic way, this is my ultimate goals" (Yi).
Performance-approach goals	The student's goal when writing is to show others you are a good writer	"I want other people think I'm a good writer" (Bo).
Performance-avoidance goals	The student's goal when writing is to not be deemed an incompetent writer by others	if someone laughs at me or for my essay is ridiculous I don't mind this" (Jie).
Self-efficacy	The student's belief in their ability to write an academic essay	"I have a thorough idea about how to write an academic essay and I know the structure and I know how to add the contents and how to find what information I need to find" (Lian).
Intrinsic value	The student's level of interest and enjoyment in academic writing	"I don't think it is very interesting" (Bo).
Utility value	The student's perception that academic writing useful for their future	"what we learn in the university is very useful to our future work, so also academic writing is important in the rest of our lives" (Jie).
Self-regulation: Pre-writing	The student's awareness of using pre-writing strategies	"I will think about the structure of the essay" (Jie).
Self-regulation: While-writing	The student's awareness of using while-writing strategies	"Most of my time during writing I am thinking about the content of the questions and my plan" (Jie).

Code	Definition	Example
Self-regulation: Post-writing	The student's awareness of using post-writing strategies	"When I've done it I maybe translate into my own language and to find out whether there are some wrong thing in coherence and I also will check my grammar" (Yi).

6.6.3.2 Academic writing and using sources

The initial coding for the data concerning academic writing and using sources at T1 uncovered three broad themes: academic writing in English, the integrated writing task, and using sources. Through another round of coding, various subthemes were found that are outlined in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12:Codes for writing and source use measures

Theme	Subtheme	Definition	Example
Academic writing in English	Experience (T1)	The student's reported experience of academic writing in English.	"I just graduated from high school and in our school, we seldom write academic essay like this" (Bo).
	Self-development	The student's reported efforts in developing academic writing skills in their own time.	"I ask my friend for more materials about academic writing" (Lian).
	Writing development (T2)	The student's perceived improvements in academic writing	"I learnt how to think critically, and now the teacher said that I have a good argument in my essay" (Yi).
The integrated writing task	Difficulty	The student's perceived difficulty of the integrated writing task	"I think the topic you provide is not difficult, you know, so I feel it is very easy for me" (Hao).
	Using sources	The student's reported use of source texts	"Yesterday I directly quote most of the citations" (Xuan).

Theme	Subtheme	Definition	Example
	Changes in quality of writing (T2)	The student's perceived views on the quality of their writing in the integrated writing task	"At the first time I'm don't know about the structure and week four I take care of the structure" (Lian).
Using source texts in academic writing	Reasons for paraphrasing	The student's reported reasons for using paraphrasing in their academic writing	"If I can paraphrase it, I can use my own words and that shows I can understand what they say" (Yi).
	Reasons for quoting (T1)	The student's reported reasons for using direct quotations in their academic writing	"If you use direct quotation you can save time" (Hao).
	Difficulties in paraphrasing	The student's reported difficulties in paraphrasing academic texts.	"I feel it is very hard to paraphrase because I only know a few words to change" (Bo).
	Development of paraphrasing skills (T2)	The students reported perceptions about their developments in doing paraphrasing (T2)	"My teacher told me the skills of paraphrasing and I use it but it's not always good" (Bo).
	Experience of referencing before the EAP course(T1)	The student's reported experience in using referencing in academic writing	"I'm not familiar with the principle of referencing" (Lian).
	Function of citations	The student's reported use the rhetorical function of citations.	"Sometimes I think the authors idea is really good, so I can use them in my article to prove my own idea. (Hao)"

Theme	Subtheme	Definition	Example
	Paraphrasing strategies	The student's reported use of paraphrasing strategies when attempting reformulation.	"When paraphrasing I just try to change some words on the sentence" (Jie).
	Knowledge of referencing rules	The student's reported familiarity with the referencing conventions of UK universities	"I think it's ok if you just use some phrase maybe one or two words, it's ok, you don't need to write a citation. I think it is not plagiarism" (Lian).
	Educational background	The student's reported views on the differences in citation practices between the UK and China	"In Chinese writing style we can, I think quote is better" (Lian).

Note. T1: subtheme only occurs at T1; T2: subtheme only occurs at T2.

6.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has described the methods used in this investigation and began by describing the aims of the study which included the research questions. Following this the research methods of the current study were described. The next part of the chapter gave an overview of the quantitative phase of the study and the chapter finished with an overview of the qualitative phase of the research. The next will present and discuss the findings of the study.

7 The development of writing from source texts

7.1 Chapter introduction

The aim of this chapter is to address the first research question: How do international students' use of source texts and scores on an integrated writing task change over a pre-sessional EAP course? In answering the first research question a sequential mixed-methods approach was employed. The data relating to the students' scores on an integrated writing task were taken from writing tasks completed by students at the beginning and end of a 4-week pre-sessional EAP course. To help explain the results of the timed writing tasks, interviews were conducted in Week 1 and Week 4 of the EAP course that highlighted the developments in writing scores that students had made through attending the course. Similarly, the data concerning students' source use were gathered from the integrated writing tasks at T1 and T2. Interviews relating to the development of source use at T1 and T2 shed light on the changes in how the participants used sources at the beginning and end of the course.

7.2 Quantitative results

7.2.1 Integrated writing task scores

Table 7.1 presents the results of the integrated writing task scores for T1 and T2. The results show that overall mean scores improved greatly over the course with a large effect size (t(59) = -9.32, p = < 0.001, d = 1.42). Furthermore, the mean scores for all the four criterion measures increased from T1 to T2 with statistical significance and large effect sizes. The greatest increase amongst the analytic measures was recorded in the scores for RW (t(59) = -11.17, p = < 0.001, d = 1.72). The second and third greatest increases were found in the TF measure (t(59) = -8.18, p = < 0.001, d = 1.23) and OS measure (t(59) = -5.79, p = < 0.001, d = .97). The lowest increase can be seen in the LC criterion, although the change in mean scores between T1

and T2 was still statistically significant and with a large effect size ($t(59)$ = -5.46, p = < 0.001, d = .89).

Table 7.1: Integrated writing task scores

	T1		T2			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*d*
RW	1.60	.69	2.84	.75	-11.17***	1.72
TF	2.02	.64	2.83	.68	-8.18***	1.23
OS	1.93	.67	2.58	.67	-5.79***	.97
LC	2.26	.61	2.78	.56	-5.46***	.89
Overall	7.81	2.20	11.03	2.32	-9.32***	1.42

Note. * = p <.05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001.

7.2.2 Writing from source text measures

7.2.2.1 Source type

The participants use of direct quotations and paraphrases in the integrated writing task are presented in Table 7.2. The amount of direct quotations that the participants used in the writing task did not change significantly over the two time periods and remained low with on average of less than one direct quotation per student at each time period. On the other hand, the students' use of paraphrases significantly increased over the course with a large effect size ($t(59)$ = -8.34, p = < 0.001, d = 1.44).

Table 7.2: Results for source use type at T1 and T2

	T1		T2			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*d*
Direct quotations	.60	.92	.67	.82	-.46	.08
Paraphrases	1.32	1.61	3.68	1.67	-8.34***	1.44

Note. * = p <.05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001.

7.2.2.2 Borrowed words

Table 7.3 presents the results concerning borrowed words. The amount of borrowed words that the participants used in their paraphrases remained unchanged over the EAP course; this can be seen in the percentage of

borrowed words which decreased, but without statistical significance and a moderate effect size. The majority of measures of paraphrase type similarly remained stable, with SR, MnR, and NC showing no statistically significant changes and small effect sizes. However, The TR and MdR paraphrase types did increase between T1 and T2. Student's use of MdR increased (t(59) = -2.27, p = < 0.05, d = 0.51) with a medium effect size. The use of TR also increased (t(59) = -3.65, p = < 0.01, d = 0.66) and recorded a medium, but slightly larger effect size than MdR.

Table 7.3: Results for use of borrowed words in paraphrase attempts at T1 and T2

	T1		T2			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*d*
Borrowed words (%)	40.98	23.88	31.90	20.25	1.68	0.41
TR	.30	.60	.97	1.31	-3.65**	0.66
SR	.33	.60	.45	.71	-.73	0.18
MdR	1.03	1.05	1.61	1.22	-2.27*	0.51
MnR	.42	.66	.61	.83	-.97	0.25
NC	.25	.57	.19	.40	.53	0.12

Note. * = p <.05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001.

7.2.2.3 Source attribution and formatting

The mean scores for measures of source attribution and formatting both changed significantly over the EAP course (

Table 7.4). Between T1 and T2, the participants' use of sources without giving attribution to the source author decreased with a large effect size (t(59) = -6.35, p = < 0.001, d = 1.02). The accuracy of students' source use attempts, in other words their adherence to APA formatting conventions, increased

dramatically with the largest effect size of any change in writing measures ($t(59) = -11.70$, $p = < 0.001$, $d = 2.34$).

Table 7.4: Results for source use attribution and formatting accuracy at T1 and T2

	T1		T2			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*d*
No attribution (%)	61.66	31.40	33.57	22.84	6.35***	1.02
Accurate (%)	11.51	26.00	75.63	28.69	-11.70***	2.34

Note. * = *p* <.05; ** = *p* < .01; *** = *p* < .001.

7.2.3 Qualitative results

7.2.3.1 T1 findings

7.2.3.1.1 Academic writing in English at T1
The responses in relation to the academic writing in English subthemes at T1 are displayed in Table 7.5Table 7.5. At T1 all the students mentioned that they had limited experience in academic writing in English. This was obviously the case for Bo and Jie who were undergraduates who had no experience of writing in higher education, let alone writing in a UK university. For example, Bo stated, "Writing an academic essay will require lots of things like using quotations and other such skills and I haven't used these skills, so I have to learn them now". The other participants (Xuan, Hao, Lian, Yi) explained that they wrote essays and dissertations in their previous education in China, but had no experience of academic writing in English; this was exemplified by Lian who said "I'm not sure about my ability in academic writing, actually I'm not good at it in Chinese writing and they are different types. I hardly ever write academic writing in English".

In terms of self-development in academic writing, three students (Hao, Xuan, Lian) stated that they tried to develop their writing skills in their own time. Hao mentioned that if he has some spare time he reads some articles related to business and then practices writing based on the themes in the articles. Xuan

also mentioned that he practiced writing by reading, but in his case, he read reference books to learn about writing skills:

> When I was a college student I would read some writing skills books apart from the IELTS books we had to read, because I think IELTS exams writing is quite rigid, so I would just delve into more advanced and more academic books related to writing skills.

Lian was the only participant who mentioned self-development in relation to the EAP course. She stated that she had a friend who had taken an EAP course previously and so she had asked him for advice and suggestions on supplementary materials in relation to paragraph structure.

Table 7.5: T1 responses for academic writing in English themes

Subtheme	Students' responses	No. of Students	Students' names
Experience	Limited experience in previous education	6	Xuan, Jie, Bo, Lian, Yi, Hao
Self-development	Practice writing in English	1	Hao
	Practice writing by reading	2	Hao, Xuan
	Seek advice from peers	1	Lian

7.2.3.1.2 The integrated writing task at T1

Table 7.6 presents the students' responses to the integrated writing task subthemes. Over half of the participants (Xuan, Bo, Hao, Yi) mentioned that they found the writing task to be easy to complete. Xuan, Bo, and Yi all stated that they found the topic of the essay to be familiar and therefore an easy topic in which to generate ideas. Furthermore, Xuan, Bo, and Yi also mentioned that they found the integrated writing task to be similar to the IELTS writing tasks they had lots of prior experience with. For example, Hao said,

> I think I was the second student to finish the task, because I have taken the IELTS exam before, so I think that this task is familiar with something I have written in the IELTS test. That patterns I used in IELTS I can use for this essay.

Furthermore, Yi mentioned that he found the integrated writing task easier than an IELTS test because the source texts were provided which he could use for ideas. Both Yi and Hao's opinions indicated that they did not approach

the task as intended and took a knowledge-telling approach to the task rather than a knowledge-transforming approach (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987). This is further apparent as Yi and Hao both mentioned that they lifted chunks of the source text without attribution at T1. Furthermore, Lian also mentioned not referencing the sources that she used: "When I was writing my essay I didn't look back. I just wrote from my understanding and I rarely did a citation. I just copied the original sentences". Instead of synthesising the sources and integrating them appropriately these students apparently just wrote from memory with the addition of copying some of the ideas of the source authors without attribution.

Some indications of difficulties in completing the integrated writing task were also found in Jie, Lian, and Yi's responses. These students mentioned that they had language difficulties when writing in English. For example Lian said, "I think I'm poor at English vocabulary and actually I have a long time without using English before the EAP course so I was really nervous when I wrote the essay", and Jie reported, "I can't write well due to the limitations of my English, so I cannot do the essay very successfully".

Table 7.6: T1 responses to the integrated writing task subthemes

Subtheme	Students' responses	No. of Students	Students' names
Difficulty	Found it easy	4	Xuan, Bo, Hao, Yi
	Linguistic difficulties when writing	3	Jie, Lian, Yi
Using sources	Rely on direct quotation	1	Xuan
	Use source without attribution	3	Bo, Jie, Lian

7.2.3.1.3 Using sources at T1

A number of subthemes and student responses were found in the interview data concerning source use at T1 (Table 7.7). Two students (Hao, Yi) mentioned the advantages of paraphrasing. For example, Hao said that by reformulating the words of other writers into his own words he could improve his writing skills. Furthermore, Yi stated that by using his own words he could show the reader that he understood the source writer's point. Reasons were also given by one student (Hao) for their motivation to use direct quotations. Hao explained that he used the source author's words directly when he found them to be particularly salient. Furthermore, he noted that quoting is quicker then paraphrasing, which indicates that at as a novice writer, he finds paraphrasing to be laborious and time-consuming.

Difficulties in paraphrasing were mentioned by Bo and Jie. Jie stated that he found limitations in his English vocabulary to be an obstacle in both understanding source texts and reformulating source texts: "My main difficulty is that sometimes I cannot find the exact word to paraphrase the source accurately". Difficulties may also stem from a lack of experience with using sources in English writing. The limited experience in using sources in writing was not only mentioned by the undergraduate students (Bo, Jie), but also by Lian who mentioned that she rarely used referencing in her undergraduate studies in China. Lian also stated that she was unsure of when a citation was needed:" I'm not sure if I pick one or two phrases then it needs a reference. I am not sure when I should use references". In terms of source use experience in their undergraduate courses in Chinese, while Yi and Hao both mentioned experience of referencing source texts in their undergraduate studies, neither of them had done so in English.

As expected with this cohort of novice L2 academic writers, only a few functions and strategies related to using sources were mentioned. Xuan and Hao stated that they can use source texts to support their opinions. For example, Xuan explained, "I can also use some supporting evidence for my opinions. That's quite important to make you arguments more reliable". In terms of reformulation strategies, only two students mentioned the use of strategies (Bo, Yi). Bo stated that paraphrasing others' writing was a matter of changing some of the words, while Yi mentioned both changing vocabulary and also changing the voice from active to passive.

The final subtheme related to using source texts concerned educational differences between the UK and China. All the students mentioned some differences with the citation practices of their home country and their new academic environment. This is exemplified by Hao, who exclaimed, "You know in China we don't put emphasis on referencing, but yesterday I listened to a speech about referencing in the UK and thought wow! In the UK they really emphasise the importance of it". Furthermore, Hao mentioned that it was common on his undergraduate degree to quote an author and not give an in-text citation. Xuan gave an explanation for the differences between the UK and China in terms of copying quotes. He said that some famous quotes, for example by Confucius, were used directly in China without attribution as a customary practice. In effect, these famous quotes and phrases are considered common and shared knowledge in China, so therefore do not need a reference. This practice highlights the impact of educational background differences in what is deemed appropriate intertextuality. Lian and Xuan also mentioned some key differences and similarities between the UK and China. They both said that appropriately acknowledging source authors was considered to be important, but only when it came to their dissertations: "In my China we seldom use references in-text unless we have a dissertation".

Table 7.7: T1 responses to using sources subthemes

Subtheme	Students' responses	No. of Students	Students' names
Reasons for paraphrasing	Improve writing skills	1	Hao
	To show understanding	1	Yi
Reasons for quoting	Authors ideas are good	1	Hao
	To save time	1	Hao
Difficulties in paraphrasing	Understanding the writer's point	1	Jie
	Limited vocabulary for reformulating	2	Bo, Jie
Experience of referencing	Prior experience of referencing	2	Yi, Hao
	Limited prior experience of referencing	3	Bo, Lian, Jie
Function of citations	Support opinions	2	Yi, Hao
Paraphrasing strategies	Change grammar	1	Yi
	Change vocabulary	2	Bo, Yi
Knowledge of referencing rules	Uncertain what needed referencing	1	Lian
Educational background	Similarities	2	Lian, Xuan
	Differences	6	Xuan, Jie, Bo, Lian, Yi, Hao

7.2.3.2 T2 findings

7.2.3.2.1 Academic writing in English at T2

Table 7.8 presents the students' responses relating to their writing development on the EAP course and the steps that they took in developing their writing skills outside of the classroom at T2. It is clear from the T2 interviews that all the participants developed in their academic writing ability to some degree over the four-week EAP course. The students all mentioned being able to structure an academic essay. For example, Hao explained

After learning the structure of academic essays, I think if I get an assignment in the future that I am not familiar with, I can use this this logical assignment structure that I learnt on the EAP course to help me write.

Yi mentioned that he had shifted his focus when writing from focusing on lexis and grammar to focusing on developing strong arguments. He further mentioned that he was now able to present his ideas in a more nuanced way due to learning how to mitigate the claims that he makes. Both Jie and Bo talked about developing their knowledge of academic vocabulary. Bo said that he made an effort to note down unfamiliar words and phrases that he encountered on the course: "There are some important words and phrases in the articles I read when writing the essays and I noted them in my notebook".

Two students (Lian, Jie) gave more tentative answers regarding their academic writing development on the EAP course. Lian mentioned the difficulties in breaking bad habits that she had developed previously:

I wrote three essays in the EAP course and my tutor corrected our writing. I still make a lot of mistakes and in the future, I will try to avoid these mistakes, but it is a reminder that it is a tough job to correct my long-time writing habits.

Lian's difficulties are likely due to the fact that prior to the EAP course she had not written in English for a long time, and also that she claimed to be a poor writer when writing in Chinese too.

In relation to developing their skills outside of the classroom, all the students reported that they used some of their free time to develop their academic writing. Hao, Jie, Xuan and Yi mentioned that they did extra reading beyond what was required on the course to help understand the structure of academic writing and to help expand their vocabulary. For example. Hao stated,

I think the most apparent improvement that I developed during this EAP class is that I am trying to read some English academic papers. I think it is a really good way to improve my academic writing. I think they might be a little different to what we have learnt in China, so I think it is a really effective way to help my writing.

Furthermore, Bo and Lian pointed out that they read the in-house reference book in their spare time to help them develop in various aspects of academic writing.

Table 7.8: T2 responses for academic writing in English themes

Subtheme	Students' responses	No. of Students	Students' names
Writing development	Argumentation	1	Y1
	Mitigating claims	1	Yi
	Structuring essays	6	Jie, Yi, Xuan, Lian, Bo, Hao
	Academic vocabulary	2	Jie, Bo
	Tentative development	2	Lian, Jie
Skills development	Practice writing by reading academic texts	4	Hao, Jie, Xuan, Yi
	Reading the in-house reference book	2	Bo, Lian

7.2.3.2.2 The integrated writing task at T2

In Table 7.9 the T2 interview responses in relation to the integrated timed writing task are outlined. Two students (Bo, Xuan) mentioned that they found the writing task at T2 to be easy, with Xuan highlighting that both the general topic and the low word limit meant that he had no difficulties in writing the essay. Hao and Jie found that writing the essay at T2 was easier than T1 due developing in their writing ability. In relation to developments in writing, Jie said, "I think it takes less time than the last time because I can write the essay more fluently in comparison to the last time when I often struggled in expressing some points". Interestingly, Yi found the integrated writing task to be more difficult at T2 because the found the topic of same-sex education to be outside his sphere of knowledge. Yi explained that he used the source texts to help him generate ideas that he could then build arguments with. Yi's experience indicated some level of knowledge-transformation in which he is attempting to create knowledge by critically evaluating source material. A further development was found with Xuan, who mentioned that he used more paraphrases at T2 in comparison to T1.

Table 7.9: T2 responses to the integrated writing task subthemes

Subtheme	Students' responses	No. of Students	Students' names
Difficulty	Found it easy	2	Bo, Xuan
	Found it easier than Week 1	2	Hao, Jie

	Found it more Complicated than Week 1	1	Yi
Writing quality	Better than Week 1	3	Bo, Hao, Lian
Using source	Paraphrase more	1	Xuan
	Know how to integrate source texts	2	Hao, Jie

7.2.3.2.3 Using source texts in academic writing at T2

Time 2 provided richer data in relation to using source texts than the data from T1 (Table 7.10). All the students at T2 were aware of the importance of paraphrasing and gave various reasons for this. Three students (Bo, Hao, Lian) stated that they should use more paraphrases in their writing in comparison to direct quotation because their course tutor had given them feedback in their initial essays that mentioned the overuse of direct quotations and that they should use more paraphrases. However, it was not entirely clear from the interviews whether Bo, Hao, or Lian knew exactly why paraphrasing was generally favoured in academic discourse. On the contrary, Jie and Xuan gave specific reasons for the use of paraphrasing in their writing. Xuan mentioned that paraphrasing was a sign that he had understood what he had read and interestingly Jie chose to paraphrase in order to make a complex text easier to understand for the reader. This indicates that Jie has started to develop a greater awareness of the writer-reader relationship.

In terms of developing in their abilities to paraphrase, over half of the students (Hao, Xuan, Yi, Lian) mentioned that they felt more able to paraphrase at T2 than at the beginning of the course. However, Bo and Xuan stated that they still felt that they needed further support and practice in paraphrasing source texts in their academic writing. In relation to paraphrasing Bo said, "My teacher taught me the skills of paraphrasing and I use it in my writing but it's not always good, so I need more time and I should do more exercises to develop these skills". This gives an indication of the varying developmental trajectories of students in terms of paraphrasing.

Students' reports of the functions of citations at T2 were limited as per T1. Lian mentioned using source texts to help develop her vocabulary. Jie and Bo both mentioned that they used source texts to support their opinions. A development can be seen in Bo's approach to writing. As Bo's only experience of writing prior to the course was in IELTS, at T1 he was not familiar with using source information to give weight to his opinions. However, at T2 Bo stated,

> Before this course when I was writing an essay I just think of things by myself and I seldom use evidence to support my views, but during this

course when I am writing an essay I will scan lots of information from relevant articles and I will select some important sentence to support my view and I now I seldom write the things by only by using my own knowledge.

Only one student (Yi) mentioned using source beyond language development or supporting opinions. Yi explained that he uses sources as a tool for developing argumentation in his writing, and that he did not only use sources that support his views, but also used source texts that offer a counter view that he could argue against. Yi's comments are atypical within of the participants' responses as most participants were seemingly not aware of the potential rhetorical functions of intertextuality.

All the participants reported that they used some kind of paraphrasing strategy when they were reformulating sources at T2. The most common paraphrasing techniques were changing the vocabulary and changing the grammar of the original text. Hao, Lian, and Yi mentioned that they prioritised changing the grammar and sentence structure of the source text. Furthermore, Yi said that by the end of the course he had learned how to change the grammar of the source text when paraphrasing, while at the beginning of the course he only focused on changing vocabulary:

> In the first week, I think I can do paraphrasing, but now I learn something more about paraphrasing such as how to use the passive tense and also how to transfer a noun to an adjective and something like that. In the past I usually focus on how to change the vocabulary, not just the form of a word.

Bo and Xuan talked about other approaches to paraphrasing. Bo mentioned that when he was paraphrasing, he first read the source text, and then made notes that he used to paraphrase from:

> Now I will read the reference two times and pick up some important words. Then I will remove the original paragraph and I will write it by myself by using my own words and then I will compare my work and the original text.

This strategy allows Bo to avoid relying on the source text when he is reformulating and thus he is more likely to produce paraphrases that are more original in comparison to the source text. Xuan also stated that he made sure that he took time to understand the source texts thoroughly before starting the reformulation process. It is clear that both Bo and Xuan have started to develop more sophisticated approaches to paraphrasing. However, most participants did not mention any other specific strategies beyond changing sentence level structures and thus might have been at a risk of patchwriting.

At T2, all of participants apart from Jie stated that they had learnt the rules of referencing and felt that they were now able to avoid plagiarism in their writing. Students also mentioned plagiarism detection software (Turnitin) made them more aware of their rate of textual borrowing from the source author. For example, Bo said,

> In week one the rate of my plagiarism on Turnitin was zero because I did not use any references, but in the week two I learnt how to use sources, but I still copied too much without referencing and my rate of plagiarism was 50%. In week three I paid attention to referencing all the sources that I used and my plagiarism rate 20%, but that was from direct quotations that I gave a reference for.

However, two students (Lian, Jie) explained that they still felt unsure about the rules of referencing. Lian mentioned the same issue with using sources that she discussed at T1:

> I think it is ok if you just use some phrases, maybe one or two words. It is ok – you do not need to write a citation. I think it is not plagiarism, but if you use a sentence or more you should make a citation.

From Lian's quote it is apparent that she is not exactly clear about what needs referencing and therefore might engage in writing practices that can be considered cases of non-transgressive plagiarism when she starts writing on her degree programme. Jie also mentioned uncertainty in how to use sources appropriately: "I got better at referencing, but I'm still afraid that one day my article is recognised as having plagiarism because I'm not a good citer. I do not know how to cite exactly".

In terms of the differences in citation practices between the UK and China, all the students mentioned educational background differences in how sources are used. Yi mentioned that in China it was not necessary to give a citation if you take a writer's ideas but develop them into your own ideas: "I think sometimes we can just get some knowledge from other people – it's not plagiarism if we can improve it with our new ideas". Lian also noted that in China direct quotation is preferable, while in the UK paraphrasing is more commonly used:

> In week one I did not know about referencing because in the Chinese writing style we think quoting is better. In China we think using quotes will avoid misunderstandings – you won't change the author's views, but I think in English academic writings you paraphrase more, and you can make the context more suitable for what you want to express.

Table 7.10: T2 responses to using sources subthemes

Subtheme	Students' responses	No. of Students	Students' names
Reasons for paraphrasing	Tutor feedback	3	Bo, Hao, Lian
	Help reader understand difficult text	1	Jie
	To show understanding of the text	2	Xuan, Yi
Development of paraphrasing skills	Developed in ability to paraphrase	4	Hao, Xuan, Yi, Lian
	Tentative development	3	Bo, Xuan, Jie
Function of citations	Language support	1	Lian
	Support opinions	2	Jie, Bo
	Express disagreement	1	Yi
Paraphrasing strategies	Paraphrase from notes	1	Bo
	Change grammar	3	Hao, Lian, Yi
	Change vocabulary	2	Hao, Lian
	Understand authors point before paraphrasing	1	Xuan
Knowledge of referencing rules	Aware of how to avoid plagiarism	5	Xuan, Bo, Lian, Hao, Yi
	Uncertainty with referencing rules	2	Jie, Lian
Educational background	Differences	6	Jie, Yi, Xuan, Lian, Jie, Hao

7.3 Summary of the quantitative and qualitative data

Overall, the finding from the T1 and T2 interviews confirm and help to explain the results from the writing task data. The students were able to produce higher quality written texts in the integrated writing task at T2 as can be seen in the significant increase in overall scores (T1: $M = 7.81$; T2: $M = 11.03$; $d = 1.42$). When the participants were asked about improvements in academic writing, they all said that they had become more able and more confident in writing academic essays than in Week 1. For example, Jie stated that through

what he had learnt on the EAP course and through practice on the three assignments "I can express myself more than before when writing in English, and I know how to structure an essay to allow me to do this". In response to the question regarding what they had been doing to improve their writing skills, all the interviewees reported that they read articles and references books in their own time for scaffolding. Bo, Jie, and Lian pointed out that they used the reference book that is published in-house and covers various aspects on EAP, such as reporting verbs, to help them when they were writing the assignments. Furthermore, four students (Hao, Jie, Xuan, Yi) mentioned that they read journal articles as a model to help them to improve their writing. In relation to reading, Hao commented, "I think the most significant learning technique that I developed during this EAP class is that I am trying to read more English academic papers. I think it is a really good way to improve my academic writing". Hao also mentioned that journals in English were different in style to the journals that he read when studying in China, which highlights the importance of EAP students being introduced to authentic reading material. However, three interviewees (Hao, Lian, Bo) stated concerns that they still had a lot to improve upon once they started their degree courses.

The most striking result to emerge from the integrated writing tasks was the increase in RW scores. At T1 RW scores were lowest amongst the rating criteria, and at T2 RW scores recorded the highest criterion score (T1: $M = 1.60$; T2: $M = 2.84$; $d = 1.72$). In term of RW, both undergraduate students (Bo, Jie) stated that they had no prior experience of using sources in their writing. In addition, the four postgraduate students (Hao, Lian, Xuan, Yi) indicated that they used sources differently in their previous education in China than in the UK. For example, Yi said that in his undergraduate studies he did not do any in-text citation and only wrote a bibliography. Furthermore, Hao mentions how his lack of knowledge affected his Week 1 essay: "In week one I really have no idea about how to use sources in my own writing, I just copy others' work directly and do not care about the year and the author's name, and just use it in my essay". Hao went on to say, "but in week four I get more understanding about paraphrasing, referencing correctly and using sources to help prove my opinion". The other five participants (Bo, Jie, Lian, Xuan, Yi) also pointed out that they had become more competent in incorporating sources into their own writing compared to Week 1 and understood some of the reasons why intertextuality is used in academic writing. However, one participant (Lian) remained unsure of when a reference to the source author was necessary

In terms of the specific source use measures, the qualitative data also gives support to the quantitative findings. Results for the source type measures found direct quotation use to be low and stable (T1: $M = .60$; T2; $M = .67$; $d = .08$). In contrast, use of paraphrases increased significantly over the course

(T1: M = 1.32; T2: M = 067; d = 0.8). Interestingly, Bo, Jie, Lian, and Xuan mentioned using mainly direct quotations at T1, but they did so without giving attribution to the source texts. Therefore, these instances of directly lifting from the source author would not have been recorded as attempts at direct quotations in this study. Furthermore, at T2, the low use of direct quotations and the increase in paraphrases can be explained by reasons explained in the interviews. First, most of the students (Hao, Xuan, Yi, Lian) mentioned that they had developed in their knowledge and ability to paraphrase, and also some students (Bo, Hao, Lian) made it clear that their course tutor had made the importance of using paraphrasing over direct quotation explicit in both class and feedback on their written work.

While students incorporated more paraphrases into their written work, they generally mentioned only using a limited range of paraphrasing strategies at T1 and T2, which mainly focused on changing the grammar and vocabulary of the source text. This is reflected in the students use of moderate revision in paraphrase attempts which increases significantly (T1: $M = 1.03$; T2: $M = 1.61$; $d = .51$), and the reliance on borrowed words which remained stable over the EAP course ($T1$: 40.98; $T2$: 31.90; $d = .41$). On the other hand, the instances of TR increased significantly over the course and were the most common type of paraphrase attempt at T2 ((T1: $M = .30$; T2: $M = 1.31$; $d = .66$). The dramatic increase in TR is not entirely evident from the interview data, but several participant responses indicate that they were concerned with writing paraphrases in their own words at T2. This can be seen in Bo's comments relating to paraphrasing strategies in which he mentioned that he paraphrased without looking at the source text, and then checked his words against the source to make sure that his reformulation was original. Although a limited amount of reformulation strategies were discovered amongst the other participants, the students increased awareness of the importance of avoiding plagiarism may also explain the increase in the means for TR. Five students (Xuan, Bo, Lian, Hao, Yi) stated that they understood the importance of avoiding plagiarism and it can be inferred that their awareness of plagiarism may have led to more instances of TR. Educational background reasons may also explain the increase in the use of TR. All the students mentioned that there were differences between the UK and China in terms of how source texts were cited. One of the differences mentioned by Lian was that in China direct quotations are generally preferred to paraphrases and using the source author's words was a way to avoid misinterpretations of the source text. This may explain the limited use of TR at T1 and the reliance on the original authors words. Furthermore, as the participants learnt that in the UK it was less acceptable to use the authors original words in paraphrase attempts they adjusted accordingly by attempting more revision. However, there is a contradiction between the increase in total revision and the increase in

moderate revision, which may indicate individual differences amongst learners in their development of paraphrasing skills and the ability to apply their declarative knowledge to their written texts in timed conditions.

7.4 Discussion of findings

In the following sections the findings from the study will be discussed in relation to Research Question 1, which is as follows:

RQ1. How do international students' use of source texts and scores on an integrated writing task change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

In the first part of this discussion section the changes in writing scores will be discussed in light of the literature on second language writing development. Following the discussion on general writing development, the changes in the participants' use of source texts will be analysed with reference to the literature on L2 writers' source use.

7.4.1 Changes in integrated writing task scores

The results of the integrated wring task scores confirm previous studies that have highlighted improvements in writing ability that can be gained from attending a pre-sessional EAP courses (Elder & O'Loughlin, 2003; Green, 2007; Terraschke & Wahid, 2011). The current research expands on the literature by showing that increases in writing ability can occur in a short period of intense instruction. The studies by Elder and O'Loughlin (2003) and Green (2007) were conducted on courses of 12 and 8 weeks, respectively, and therefore the current study may suggest that it is not necessary to provide EAP courses over extended periods as shorter courses can result in significant increases in overall writing performance ($d = 1.42$). The impact of short and intensive EAP course was also confirmed by Mazgutova and Kormos' (2015) study, who found improvements in measures of lexical and syntactical structures over a four-week EAP course.

The current study further adds to the literature on student adjustment that highlights that international students often go through a process of academic adjustment (Major, 2005; Quan et al., 2016). In the typical adjustment process students often have initial difficulties in adjusting to the differences in academic styles between their home and destination environments, but over time adapt and can perform better academically. In Quan et al.'s (2016) model of adjustment, the process of academic adaptation typically takes one semester of study, whereas in the current research the participants on the whole were able to perform better in their writing in a period of less than one month. This further highlights the significance of EAP courses as intensive pre-sessional programmes can act as a catalyst for student's academic

development as they specifically focus on developing writing skills, whereas the focus of degree programmes is on teaching content and therefore may not support international students' academic writing skills development adequately.

Looking at the specific academic adjustment trajectories of the participants in the current research, a rudimentary model of adjustment is posited that describes the academic development of international students over the current pre-sessional EAP course (Figure 7.1).
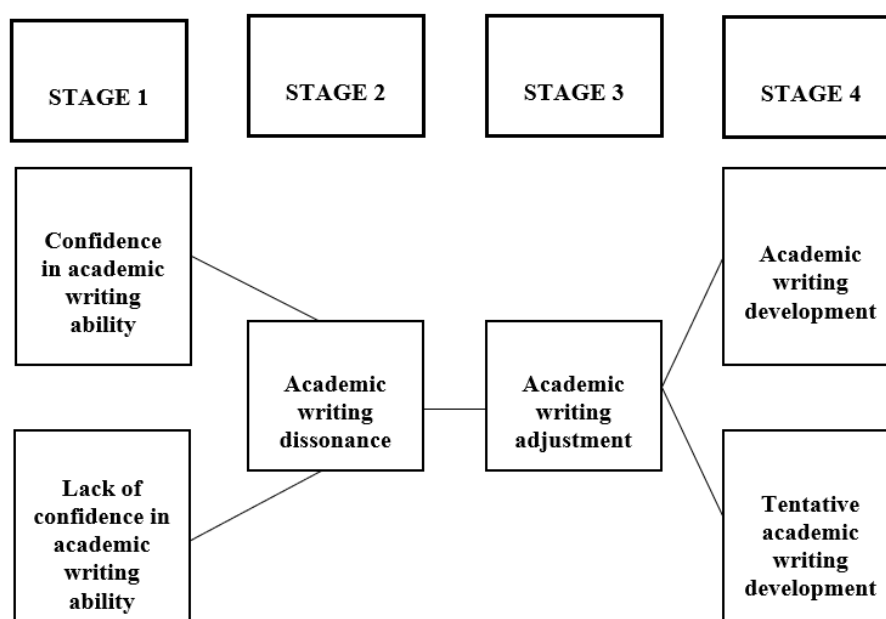
Figure 7.1: Model of pre-sessional EAP students' academic writing adjustment

Stage 1 of the pre-sessional EAP adjustment model occurs prior to arrival and in the initial days of the course, prior to working on the first written assignment. While previous models of adjustment (e.g. Major, 2005; Quan et al., 2016) provide only one category of student at the initial stage, in the current model two distinct groups of students were found – those who are confident in their L2 academic writing ability and those who are not. Both undergraduate and postgraduate students may begin a pre-sessional course with limited confidence in their L2 academic writing ability. For the undergraduate students (Bo, Jie), as their previous education was in high school, they were not introduced to the academic writing genre and their experience of writing in English was limited to IELTS style argumentative essays that followed a rigid structure and a dependence on formulaic phrases. Most of the postgraduate students also mentioned that they had limited experience of academic writing in English (Hao, Lian, Yi) and they were unsure of the demands of writing in an English university. The other category of student at Stage 1 showed more

confidence in their writing ability at the initial stages of the EAP course. Xuan mentioned that his previous experience as a translation student gave him confidence in his ability write essays and that he could transfer his skills to L2 English academic writing. The results of the study in relation to initial confidence in writing abilities mirrors the findings of Yang and Shi (2003) who highlighted the importance of educational background on students' confidence in their L2 English academic writing. It is therefore important for EAP tutors to know the previous educational experience of their students as this will give an indication of the various levels of support that students may require throughout the course, and especially at the initial stages where students may have limited confidence or knowledge of writing in L2 English.

Stage 2 of the model occurred around the time of the first written assignment in which all the students realised that there was dissonance between their current knowledge and the knowledge that was required for writing at tertiary level in the UK. Students at this stage reported that they had limited vocabulary, were unsure of how to structure paragraphs and build arguments, and all the participants mentioned the differences between writing conventions in China and the UK. Xuan, who was initially confident in his academic writing abilities, mentioned that his confidence was decreased when he found that there were many differences between the writing he had previously done and the new style of writing that he was introduced to in preparation for the first assignment. Due to the adjustment issues that are encountered at Stage 2, EAP students may write their initial assignments using a knowledge telling model (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987) in which they write by solely relying on prior information they have on a previous topic without referring to sources and not addressing the question fully. Evidence for this was found in the interview data as at T1 a number of students mentioned that they wrote the essays without planning and used the sources as a means of supplementing their ideas. This was especially true for the students who mentioned that they had recently had training in IELTS writing. Some students at Stage 2 also mentioned that they had difficulties in writing related to limited vocabulary knowledge. Students at the initial stages of writing in L2 English may therefore focus their cognitive processes on the translation phase (Flower and Hayes, 1981). By focusing so much attention on translating vocabulary and grammar, L2 writers may not adequately use other key cognitive writing process such planning and revising (Roca de Larios et al., 2008).

At Stage 3, after feedback on the initial assignment, further writing practice, and input on writing, the students started to adapt to the demands of L2 academic writing. Similar to the developments found by Terraschke and Wahid (2011), the students mentioned improving in writing and reading skills and in vocabulary, acquiring strategies for dealing with unknown vocabulary, and were generally able to verbalise the knowledge and skills that they had

been taught and had acquired. The students at this stage tried to overcome their initial lack of knowledge by doing extra supplementary work outside the classroom to improve their skills. An explanation for the students' efforts in improving their abilities in their out of class time may be explained by Jin and Cortazzi's (2006) model of Confucian learning in which students are said dedicate continuous effort to their studies through "studying extensively and practicing earnestly" (p. 13).

Looking further at Jin and Cortazzi's (2006) model of learning in Confucian cultures it is apparent that the typical learning culture of Confucian heritage countries is conducive in a number of ways to the genre approach used in the research context. For example, in genre-based pedagogy teaching is explicit and teacher led with a priority given to learning from sample texts (Hyland, 2018). The genre style of teaching and learning shows some similarities to typical Confucian style learning as classes are typically teacher led with the studying of texts being the main form of input (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). Furthermore, Jin and Cortazzi (2006) point out that Confucian learning utilises imitation and memorisation, which also shares some parallels with the genre approach to teaching writing (Swales, 1990). Finally, in Confucian style teaching, students are taught to be "reflective" and to "read and ponder", but also to "raise doubts and ask" (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). Again, this to some extent mirrors genre-based pedagogy, as Hyland (2018) states that students are not only receivers of knowledge in the form of genre specific moves, but also active participants in their own learning in which students reflect on the structure of texts but also are encouraged to question the authority of texts.

Finally, at stage 4, which occurs at the end of the course, the participants could be separated into two distinct general categories. Some students stated that they felt confident in their ability to write in an academic way and pointed out that they had the tools to apply what they had learnt to the writing they will come across when they start their degrees. These students highlighted that they knew how to structure their writing and to develop arguments and that they knew how to use source texts in their own writing and to avoid plagiarism. On the other hand, another group of students were more tentative about their development and felt that they still had a lot to learn. Previous studies of university student adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Major, 2005; Quan et al., 2016) tend to show a monolithic view of students at the final stage in their models that does not account for the various developmental paths that students may take. The current research has found that while students do go through a process of adjustment over an EAP course, some students may progress at a quicker rate in terms of adjusting to the demands of academic writing in the UK. It is important for EAP courses to identify students who may be in need of extra support when they continue onto their degree courses.

7.4.2 Changes in using source texts

7.4.2.1 Source type

It is apparent from the data that the amount of direct quotations used in the participants writing was low, with on average less than one direct quotation on average per essay. Furthermore, this figure remained stable between T1 and T2. The limited use of direct quotations in integrated writing tasks is consistent with previous studies (Nguyen & Buckingham, 2019; Storch, 2009; Storch, 2012). An explanation for the lack of direct quotations can be found in the interviews. When asked about their use of direct quotations and how this had changed, all the participants mentioned that they used fewer direct quotations in their Week 4 essays. Hao, Bo, and Lian all said that according to their teacher, in their first assignment they used too much direct quotation and that they were advised to minimize direct quotations in favour of paraphrasing and summarising. Wette (2010) also explained how the undergraduate students in her study on an in-sessional writing course were taught to use direct quotations sparingly.

The students' use of paraphrasing increased dramatically between T1 and T2. This result differs from Storch's (2009) study who found no significant changes in the use of paraphrases over a semester of study. As the participants in Storch's (2009) research were undergraduate students it is highly likely that they were already on the path of developing from novice L2 writers to post-novice writers (Wette, 2017b), and hence were aware of the need to paraphrase in their writing. On the other hand, the students in the current study had limited previous experience of academic writing in English prior to the commencement of the EAP programme, which explains the sharp increase in paraphrase attempts. Hirvela and Du (2013) point out that undergraduate students in China are not taught to incorporate sources in a way that is similar to the requirements of Anglo-Western universities. The differences in intertextuality between China and universities in the West is further highlighted by Hirvela and Du (2013) who explain, "there is not an exact term in Chinese for paraphrasing. Thus, quite a number of Chinese undergraduate students may not even have heard about the term before and find it difficult to identify an equivalent concept of paraphrasing in Chinese" (p 91). In this respect, Chinese students entering Anglo-Western universities may be at a pre-novice level and may have no or very little knowledge of citation practices in Anglo-Western universities. As can be seen from the participants' increased use of paraphrases, pre-sessional EAP courses can give L2 writers the foundation skills that will be developed further in their degree studies.

In the interview, all the participants reported using more paraphrasing in Week 4. Hao and Jie said that their teacher kept giving them feedback to use more

paraphrasing. Yi, Hao, and Bo talked about the paraphrasing skills that they had learned in the course and through completing the assignments. Here we can see the participants progressing on the developmental trajectory of source use (Wette, 2017b). Interestingly Jie mentioned that he tended to paraphrase when he thought the source text was complicated, so he paraphrased to make the text easier to understand for the reader. This gives an insight into a novice student developing an awareness of the relationship between the writer and reader which is a characteristic of more advanced academic writers (Wette, 2017b). Further, Xuan expressed the view that paraphrasing shows that the writer has an understanding of the source text and it also helps them to provide an opinion. Xuan derides direct quotation as "just copying and a symbol that you are a lazy student". We again can see here that the some of the students are developing an increasing awareness of the reasons why paraphrasing is of such prominence in tertiary education in Anglo-Western countries.

7.4.2.2 Borrowed words

The use of borrowed words remained stable, with no significant change. Furthermore, MdR was commonly utilised at T1 and T2. It is apparent from this data that the participants continued to rely on borrowed words even when considering the relative linguistic simplicity of the sources used in the writing task. The findings are in line with Wette's (2017b) developmental trajectory of source use which indicates that patchwriting persists until an intermediate level of source use proficiency is obtained. Numerous studies have also outlined and documented the developmental nature of patchwriting. For example, using an integrated writing task with Chinese students, Cumming at al. (2018) found patchwriting to be prevalent and noted that patchwriting was not correlated with overall scores and should be accepted as a necessary stage in an inexperienced writers' development. As mentioned by Howard (1992), patchwriting is often used as a compensatory tool by novice writers and can act as scaffolding when inexperienced writers have limited experience with the target genre. Cumming et al. (2018) also mentioned that test conditions may also affect a writer's ability to reformulate. This may to some extent explain the patchwriting in the current study as students only had one hour to write and as novice writers who are lacking in linguistic resources, the time pressure may limit the amount of originality in paraphrasing due to the increased cognitive load of writing in timed conditions (Plakans, 2008).

Several issues regarding the use of borrowed words were apparent in the interviews. Two participants (Bo, Jie) reported that they had difficulties in paraphrasing. Bo mentioned that he did not "know many words that I can use to change the original", and similarly Jie stated that he could not "find an exact synonym, so I just leave the writers' words". Difficulties in paraphrasing

relating to a lack of linguistic resources have been highlighted in numerous studies (e.g. Shi, 2018; Shi, Fazel, & Kowkabi, 2018; Wette, 2010). Furthermore, Jie pointed out that he had difficulties knowing which parts of the original source were common knowledge. Shi (2018) also stated that novice Chinese students in an L2 contexts have difficulty differentiating between common knowledge and an author's original views, and therefore had uncertainty in knowing exactly what elements of the source text needed a reference to the source author. Furthermore, as Hu and Lei (2016) point out, students who have only experienced education in China, may not be familiar Western citation practices. As Chinese and Anglo-Western concepts of quoting and paraphrasing source material differ, for example in the unclear distinction between paraphrasing and quoting in China (Shi & Dong, 2018), it may take time for students to apply their newly acquired knowledge to their own writing (Shi, 2018) and therefore they may rely on using sources for knowledge-telling rather than knowledge- transforming purposes.

One of the caveats of having a short EAP course, such as the one in the study, is that students may not have enough time to develop their knowledge of common phrases used in academic writing, leading to uncertainty when knowing what to paraphrase. As students become more experienced through studying on degree programmes, they are likely to develop the linguistic and subject knowledge to incorporate source texts in more critical knowledge transforming way as was found by Shi, Fazel, and Kowkabi (2018) in their study of experienced postgraduate L2 students.

The interview participants mentioned a limited range of paraphrasing strategies, which may add another reason for the reliance on borrowed words. Hao and Jie stated that they only focused on changing words from the original text: "I just change some words; I do not have any other strategies" (Jie). Yi, Bo, and Hao talked about changing the sentence structure. Xuan was the only participant who stated that they used a specific strategy beyond solely focusing on surface structures. Xuan said, "I think using others' opinion you should first understand what the author wants to convey and understand the meaning of his words and after that you can paraphrase and in your own words". It is apparent from this quote that Xuan is focusing on the writers' meaning as opposed to focusing on solely changing individual words or phrases. However, for the five other participants, writing from sentences was most commonly mentioned, which is prominent at a novice level (Wette, 2017b). As Li and Casanave (2012) correctly mention, novice writers need ample practice in writing from sources if they are to develop beyond focusing on basic sentence level reformulation.

In contrast to the reliance on patchwriting discussed above, the data also highlighted that students wrote more paraphrases without copying any of the

source author's words. This finding provides a novel dimension to studies of novice L2 writers' source use that have tended to focus solely on novice writers' patchwriting in reformulation (e.g. Cumming et al., 2018). One must look to studies of post-novice L2 writers to find similar levels of original reformulation in paraphrase attempts (Wette, 2017c). The frequency of both TR and patchwriting in the current study may indicate that students have varying rates of development in terms of reformulation. Different developmental paths in using sources was also found by Plakans (2008) who distinguished between the cognitive processes of experienced and inexperienced writers when writing from source texts. The inexperienced writers in the current study may encounter difficulties at various stages of the writing process which hampers their ability to focus on reformulation.

7.4.2.3 Source attribution and formatting

In terms of source attribution, significant changes can be found in both the proportion of source use with author attribution and accuracy of in-text citation formatting. Looking at formatting accuracy, it is clear that as pre-novice students at T1 the participants were unsure of how to format in-text citations. Errors in in-text citation formatting at T1 included the omission of information such the date or authors surname. At T2, the main source of formatting errors was in punctuation, such as misplacing a full stop. As per Wette's (2010) study it is apparent that the mechanical elements of source use can be acquired in a short space of time through direct input and focused feedback on assignments.

The final area of interest in this study is attribution of source use to the author. This is a particularly important measure, as non-attribution of source use when taking the authors' words verbatim or as a paraphrase can potentially be deemed as intentional plagiarism. It is clear that proportion of sources without attribution has decreased, and in other word, instances of potential plagiarism have decreased. Chang, Hao, and Bo reported that in the first assignments they copied from the sources and did not give a name or date. They mentioned that their tutor gave them feedback about the importance of citing authors and therefore in their next assignments they made an effort to reference correctly. For example, Bo said,

> At first I copied a lot, in the week two essay, in the first paragraph I just copied from an article and at that time I do not know this technology can check my writing for plagiarism, so after the teacher mentioning this to me in the week three, I pay attention to writing my own words and giving a name and date.

Shi and Dong (2018) pointed out the prevalence of copying with no attribution in Chinese students writing by arguing that in China quotations are often used

without quotation marks and are regarded as paraphrases. Furthermore, Shi and Dong (2018) also found extensive copying without attribution in L1 Chinese students' writing in Chinese. Shi and Dong (2018) concluded that "the Chinese students' reliance on source texts might indicate a cultural influence of a less clear distinction between a direct quote and paraphrase in Chinese writing" (p.51). This is indeed supported by the results of the current study due to the high percentage of copying at T1 and the participants' comments. For example, Lian mentioned the strategies she now used to avoid plagiarism. She took pictures of sources she used and made a note on the picture of the name of the source, so therefore she could accurately locate and then cite the source when it came to writing her essay and avoid potential plagiarism. However, there is still progress to be made as a third of source use attempts did not include author attribution. Therefore, further support is still needed for pre-sessional students once they start their degree programmes. Educators should also be aware of the educational backgrounds of students as a means of appreciating how source texts are used in different cultural backgrounds. Feedback on assignments can then be focused on typical areas of inappropriate source use that students from specific educational backgrounds may exhibit.

7.5 Chapter summary

The results of both the writing task and interview data confirm previous research on the efficacy of EAP instruction in developing international students' academic writing ability and opens the door to further research in source use development over the course of EAP programmes. The current study found an increase in the participants' scores on an integrated task. The use of direct quotations remained stable, which is reflected in participants' comments that they were discouraged from using direct quotations in their course assignments through feedback from their tutors. A further finding from the research is that participants were more likely to correctly attribute the sources they used to the source author. The interviews confirmed that the participants were aware of the need to reference appropriately in order to avoid plagiarism.

Mixed results were found for developments in the participants use of paraphrasing. On the one hand, the participants attempted more paraphrasing in their second essays and there were more instances of TR. On the other hand, the participants still relied heavily on patchwriting. This confirms previous studies (e.g. Keck, 2014) that showed that although novice L2 writers can make gains in declarative source use knowledge, they may not have the linguistic ability to fully paraphrase source texts and that patchwriting may persist as they develop through their studies. Patchwriting is a developmental stage that teaching materials can only touch upon in a short EAP courses.

However, what an EAP programme can succeed in, as evidenced by this study, is to start learners on the developmental journey that will continue onto their degree programmes.

8 THE DEVELOPMENT OF MOTIVATION AND SELF-REGULATION

8.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the quantitative and qualitative results relating to Research Question 2 which consists of three parts: a) How do international students' motivation and self-regulation change over a pre-sessional EAP course? b) What is the relationship between international students' motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course? c) What is the relationship between international students' integrated writing task scores and motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course. The chapter begins by addressing the first part of Research Question 2 by displaying the results of the validity and reliability of the motivation and self-regulation scales from the AWMSRQ. Following that, the quantitative findings are provided. The chapter then presents the qualitative findings by analysing the issues relating to motivation and self-regulation mentioned by the interview participants. Once the quantitative and qualitative findings have been presented a brief summary is given that synthesises the data collected from the questionnaires and interviews. The chapter then moves on to addressing the second and third parts of the Research Question 2. First, the results of correlation analysis between the motivation and self-regulation measures at T1 and T2 are presented. Second, the results of correlation analysis between the motivation and self-regulation measures, and integrated writing task scores are displayed. In the final section of the chapter, the results relating to Research Question 2 are discussed in relation to the relevant literature.

8.2 The validity and reliability of the motivation and self-regulation scales

Principle component analysis (PCA) was performed on the questionnaire items from T1 and T2 to assess the reliability and validity of the constructs in the AWMRSQ. SPSS version 24 was used for the analysis. For the purposes of the current research, factors loadings of < .5 were excluded, Eigenvalues

were set at 1, and Varimax rotation was utilised. Initially, all 72 question items were entered into the PCA and although some items loaded onto the expected factors, the model was not as clear as expected. The next step was to analyse each construct separately to see if a more appropriate within-construct structures could be established.

8.2.1 Achievement goals

In the initial T1 analysis, four factors were extracted with an Eigenvalue > 1.0; however, the factor loadings for factors 3 and 4 were weak with only one item (Q7) loading on factor 3 and no factors (> 0.5) loading on factor 4. Another analysis was run with a forced two factor solution and the omission of Q7. This time the rotated model showed all factors to have clear loadings with items for mastery and performance goals loading onto two distinct factors. Following that, a forced 2 factor analysis was run at T2 with Q7 omitted and the resulting loading patterns mirrored T1; however, Q48 showed cross loadings, and Q1 showed loading below the 0.5 threshold. A final analysis was run for T1 and T2 with the deletion of Q48 and Q1, which provided sound models for T1 and T2 (Table 8.1). Reliability analyses were conducted for the mastery and performance goals at T1 and T2 which resulted in high α values (>.70) apart from mastery goals at T1 which scored an α of .60 which is acceptable for short scales.

The results of the factor analysis for achievement goals were mostly in line with achievement goal theory in which mastery goals and performance goals are seen as discrete constructs (Ames & Archer, 1988). However, some research into achievement goals have found performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals load onto separate factors (e.g. Elliot & Murayama, 2008). Cultural reasons may explain the lack of distinction between the performance goal subscales. In a study of Chinese students, Woodrow (2013) noted that the students in her study from Confucian heritage cultures were concerned with both achieving a high grade (performance-approach) and not being deemed incompetent (performance-avoidance) at the same time. Woodrow (2013) suggested that this was connected to the concept of filial piety found in Chinese culture and that students felt obligated to focus on getting high marks and similarly avoiding appearing unsuccessful in the eyes of their parents.

Table 8.1: Rotated two factor loadings and Cronbach's α of achievement goal items at T1 and T2

Item No.	T1		T2	
	Mastery goals(α=.60)	Performance goals(α=.91)	Mastery gaols (α=.79)	Performance goals(α=.90)
37	.76		.90	
23	.68		.59	
49	.55		.75	
16	.73		.87	
54		.93		.81
25		.69		.87
60		.92		.77
63		.95		.90
33		.72		.62
39		.75		.83
Variance explained	61.63 %		66.46 %	

8.2.2 Self-efficacy

Items for academic writing self-efficacy, paraphrasing self-efficacy, and source use self-efficacy were entered into a PCA. Six factors emerged with Eigenvalues > 1.0 with the majority of items loading on a single factor. A forced one factor analysis was then run with omission of a cross loading item (Q22), items not loading on factor 1 (Q69, Q24, Q30, Q50), and items not loading on any factor (Q39, Q67, Q31). The results of the forced one factor analysis showed strong loadings on a single factor which accounted for 40.00% of the variance. A forced single factor analysis in T2 was then run and resulted in Q17 and Q15 having loadings < .5; these items were deleted in both T1 and T2, and PCA was computed again with the resulting factors accounting for 39.72% and 49.39% of the variance at T1 and T2, respectively (

Table 8.2). The resulting scale is a mixture of items assessing academic writing self-efficacy, paraphrasing self-efficacy, and source use self-efficacy, and will be referred to as academic writing self-efficacy throughout the rest of the paper. Cronbach's α showed the factor to be reliable at both times.

The results of the factor analysis confirm previous research into self-efficacy that has shown self-efficacy to be domain specific (Pajares, 2003). The analysis also supports previous findings (e.g. Prat-Sala & Redford, 2012) that academic writing self-efficacy is a valid unidimensional measure at the level of academic skills such as writing and reading. The results also shed light on the specificity of self-efficacy scales. Originally it was assumed that self-efficacy measures could be specific to the level of subskills such as paraphrasing; however, the empirical findings did not support this assumption. Further research into the specificity of self-efficacy measures would hopefully shed light on this by testing various levels of specificity in academic contexts.

Table 8.2: One factor loading and Cronbach's *α* of Self-efficacy items at T1 and T2

	T1	T2
Item No.	Self-efficacy(α=.89)	Self-efficacy (α=.92)
44	.55	.76
4	.75	.66
65	.53	.71
18	.51	.71
12	.67	.55
2	.67	.72
35	.66	.77
6	.56	.79
29	.65	.63
41	.59	.71
71	.62	.61
40	.68	.66
26	.54	.68
27	.74	.82
3	.73	.70
Variance explained	39.72 %	49.39 %

8.2.3 Expectancy-value

The initial analysis for expectancy-value items provided four factors with Eigenvalues > 1; however, there were no clear pattern that emerged showing distinct loadings for the five expectancy-value scales. Items relating to expectancy (Q61, Q21, Q46) showed no clear loading onto a single factor, and so the expectancy value construct items were not included for further analysis. Another PCA was run without the expectancy items and showed comparable results with a four-factor solution, although only interest and utility

items showed clear loading patterns. Therefore, it was decided to run a further analysis with only the interest and utility items (deleting Q70, Q5, Q8, Q19, Q72, Q14). A forced two factor solution with intrinsic and utility items provided a model explaining 73.48 % of the variance at T1 and 77.24 % of the variance at T2 (Table 8.3). Furthermore, the two scales proved to reliable at both time points with α values > 0.7.

Researcher such as Conley (2012) have confirmed the four value items (Attainment, intrinsic, utility, and cost) as discreet factors, although some researchers have discussed the difficulty in discerning the various value elements (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). Furthermore, it is common for researchers to focus solely on intrinsic and value measures (e.g. Hulleman et al, 2008), which may explain why the intrinsic and utility measures were the only value scales in this study to have clear factor loadings.

Table 8.3: Rotated two factor loadings and Cronbach's α of subjective task value items at T1 and T2

| | T1 | | T2 | |
Item No.	Intrinsic (α=.85)	Utility (α=.74)	Intrinsic (α=.92)	Utility (α=.73)
9	.91		.93	
34	.73		.92	
47	.87		.89	
20		.83		.87
42		.84		.85
68		.72		.71
Variance explained	73.48 %		77.24 %	

8.2.4 Self-regulation

Six factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 emerged in an initial PCA of the self-regulation items, although factor 1 was the strongest factor with the majority of loadings. A forced one factor solution was then run with the omission of cross loading and items that were loaded on factors that consisted of only one or two items (Q13, Q56, Q52, Q53, Q10, Q43, Q57, Q66, Q58, Q32, Q51). A one factor solution was found to be suitable at T1 and T2 with an explained variance of 41.79 % and 53.33 %, respectively (Table 8.4). At both times, the reliability of the self-regulation was > .80.

Boekaerts and Rozendaal (2007) also found that the various self-regulatory sub-scales loaded onto a single factor. This coincides with most of the research that uses global measures of self-regulation to assess general self-regulatory capacity by using questionnaires such as The Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (e.g. Hammann, 2005). The unidimensional nature of self-regulatory measures may also be explained by Zimmerman's (2001) cyclical model of self-regulation that shows the various elements of self-regulation to be dynamically connected.

Table 8.4: One factor loading and Cronbach's α of self-regulation items at T1 and T2

	T1	T2
Item No.	Strategy use (α=.82)	Strategy use (α=.89)
62	.54	.75
59	.57	.55
45	.61	.79
36	.64	.63
55	.72	.80
38	.57	.77
64	.67	.78
11	.65	.77
28	.81	.69
Variance explained	41.79%	53.33%

8.3 The development of motivation and self-regulation

8.3.1 Quantitative results

8.3.1.1 Changes in motivation and self-regulation

The changes in participants' motivation, and self-regulation between T1 and T2 are detailed in Table 8.5. Paired-samples *t*-tests indicated that the mean scores of three of the measures in the study changed significantly over the course. However, scores for both mastery goals ($t(63) = 2.29$, $p < .05$, $d = .27$) and self-regulation ($t(63) = -2.04$, $p < .05$, $d = .19$) changed minimally with small effect sizes. On the other hand, mean scores for self-efficacy increased

with a large effect size and statistical significance $t(63) = -8.63$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.00$).

Table 8.5: Means and standard deviations of motivation, and self-regulation at T1 and T2

	T1		T2			
	M	SD	M	SD	t	d
Mastery goals	4.64	.38	4.52	.49	2.29*	.27
Performance goals	3.17	1.03	3.29	.83	-1.56	.13
Self-efficacy	3.54	.53	4.05	.49	-8.63***	1.00
Utility value	4.29	.67	4.30	.55	-.26	.01
Intrinsic value	2.88	.91	2.99	1.00	-1.16	.12
Self-regulation	4.00	.51	4.10	.55	-2.04*	.19

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

8.3.2 Qualitative results

8.3.2.1 Changes in motivation and self-regulation

Table 8.6 outlines the motivation and self-regulation constructs mentioned by the participants at T1 and T2. In relation to mastery goals, the adoption of mastery goals in academic writing remained relatively stable over the course, with most of the participants taking a mastery approach at T1 and all the participants reporting the utilization of mastery goals at T2. Similarly, the students' reported use of performance-approach goals remained relatively stable, with three students mentioning that they took a performance-approach to writing at T1 and T2. As for performance-avoidance goals, it is apparent that the participants were generally not concerned with being deemed as an incompetent writer at both time periods, especially at T2 where only one student mentioned taking a performance-avoidance approach.

Increases between the two time periods were found for the academic writing self-efficacy construct; at T1 only one student mentioned that they felt able to write academic essays, and four students reported that they felt not able to do this. At T2, however, most of the students felt self-efficacious in terms of essay writing, while one student did not feel capable of writing, and a further student was tentative in their writing ability.

Results for the intrinsic value construct show that at T1 only two students felt writing was interesting, and this increased slightly to three students at T2.

Students' reporting of the utility value of writing at Time 1 highlighted that all the participants saw academic writing skills as being useful for their future education or work. Similarly, at T2, most students mentioned the utility value of writing, and only one student did not consider writing was of value to their future.

The results for the self-regulation measures remained relatively constant over the two time periods. All the students mentioned using pre-writing strategies at T1, and at T2 all but one student mentioned using strategies before writing an essay. At the while- writing stage, the results were similar to the pre-writing phase with half of the students mentioning that they used strategies while-writing at T1 and T2. Results for the post writing stage showed that at T1 only two students mentioned using post-writing strategies, and no students indicated that they used post-writing strategies at T2.

Table 8.6: Results of the coding of motivation and self-regulation constructs

| | T1 | | | | T2 | | | |
| | Evidence of construct (No. of students) | | | | Evidence of construct (No. of students) | | | |
	Yes	No	Yes/No	No mention	Yes	No	Yes/No	No mention
Mastery goals	4	0	1	1	6	0	0	0
Performance-approach goals	3	1	0	1	3	0	1	2
Performance-avoidance goals	2	2	0	2	1	0	0	5
Self-efficacy	1	4	0	0	4	1	1	0
Intrinsic value	2	2	0	2	3	3	0	0
Utility value	6	0	0	0	5	1	0	0
Self-regulation: Pre-writing	6	0	0	0	5	0	0	1
Self-regulation: While-writing	2	0	0	4	3	0	0	3

	T1				T2			
	Evidence of construct (No. of students)				Evidence of construct (No. of students)			
	Yes	No	Yes/No	No mention	Yes	No	Yes/No	No mention
Self-regulation: Post-writing	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	6

8.3.2.2 The participants' comments regarding motivation and self-regulation at T1 and T2

The participants gave various explanations and reasons for adopting and not adopting the motivation and self-regulation constructs which will be discussed below.

8.3.2.2.1 Achievement goals

The explanations that the participants reported for adopting a mastery goals approach at T1 were on the whole related to expressing their ideas clearly so to be understood by the reader, and to address the task appropriately. In relation to being understood, Jie mentioned, "When writing an essay my goal is to make my readers understand what I want to say and also to present my own arguments according to the question"; similarly, Yi stated, "I want to focus on the cohesion and how make my logic clearer so my writing can be understood". One student (Lian), indicated that utilizing mastery goals was dependent on the type of writing she was undertaking: "It depends on what the essay is for. If I think it is a simple task maybe I will just finish it quickly and not be too interested in writing perfectly. If it's a dissertation or maybe I will publish I will be more serious about it".

At T2, the participants responded in a slightly different way than at T1 and mentioned specifically the goals of developing academic writing skills while writing as opposed to general writing development. For example, Lian stated, "I want to improve my writing according to the drafts that I make, and I want to make my expression to be more academic", and Xuan reported, "My goal is to improve my arguments and my own opinions in an academic way, this is my ultimate goal". Furthermore, Bo stated that when he was writing, he now focused on trying to adapt his writing to the academic writing style that he learnt in the EAP course.

The reasons for adopting performance-approach goals while writing were similar for T1 and T2. Bo and Yi both mentioned that they wanted to get high marks to impress the teacher. In addition, Yi explained that while he was concerned with impressing teachers, he was not concerned with impressing peers with high grades:

Well, I may consider some teachers' opinions, but not my peers because my teachers can give me the right direction, but my peers are not as knowledgeable in relation to academic writing, so their judgement is not always useful or important.

On the other hand, Xuan mentioned that being deemed a good writer was an important status symbol:

I think a high grade is a symbol of the acknowledgement of your academic writing, so I think if a person has very good skills in academic writing then he or she must be seen as a person of comprehensive development.

There was some indication from the interviews that performance-approach goals changed over time. For example, at T1 Jie stated that when he was younger he was more concerned with seeming a good writer to his peers than he is now. Jie's comment from T2 reflects his current opinion regarding others' opinions of his writing: "If someone laughs at me or says my essay is ridiculous I don't mind". Changes in performance-approach goals were seen over the course in Lian's comments. At Time 1, Lian considered the opinions of others as being an important goal for writing as it made her feel good; however, at T2 she was more tentative and stated that being deemed a writer still felt good but was not as important as focusing on developing her writing skills.

Moving on to performance-avoidance goals, there was not much evidence for the students adopting these goals, although in a similar vain to his answer at T1 Xuan mentioned, "other people might judge you by your academic writing and this can interpret your social status, so I think it's important not to get low grades". A different perspective was provided by Bo who said, "I don't think it's very important because writing is just a skill and a person can have other skills not only writing. You can be good at speaking or other academic areas too".

8.3.2.2.2 Self-efficacy

The majority of students reported an increase in their beliefs in their ability to write an academic essay. At T1 students mentioned that they lacked experience in academic writing (Bo, Lian), some mentioned they were generally not good at writing (Xuan, Yi), and one student (Jie) reported low confidence and feeling scared when writing in English:

If I am doing academic writing in English, I am a little bit scared and not so confident because I am not really an expert at English, so maybe I just lack general confidence in writing and my vocabulary is not strong, or large enough for me to write an academic essay.

However, at T2, most students mentioned that they had now found confidence in several aspects of academic writing. For example, Xuan said that he had cultivated his critical thinking skills and now found it easier to create arguments in an essay, and Jie mentioned that he now knew how to structure an essay appropriately. Hao stated that due to the training on the EAP course he felt able to write even if the topic was difficult: "Maybe the topic is difficult, but I think it's not difficult for me to write when I feel confident, it's the confidence I gain in the EAP class". The students' improvements in self-efficacy from T1 to T2 are exemplified though Lian's comments who at T1 stated, "I'm not sure about my ability of academic writing, actually I'm not good at Chinese writing, also I hardly ever write academic writing in English". However, at T2, it is clear to that Lian's self-efficacy had increased markedly: "I have a thorough idea about how to write an academic paper and I think I know the structure and I know how to add the contents and how to find what information I need to find". However, the two undergraduate students (Bo, Jie) stated that although they felt more able to write, they still needed to improve on different aspects of writing; for example, Bo said that he still had trouble writing lengthy essays as he was used to writing shorter texts in high school: "When I was in China writing an essay, I just needed to write about 300 words, but now I should 800 words, and I have trouble writing up to 800 words." These comments highlight that some students still need support in academic writing after an initial EAP course, due to the novelty and complexity of academic writing in English.

8.3.2.2.3 Intrinsic and utility value

In relation to intrinsic value, only to two students (Xuan, Hao) mentioned that they found writing interesting or enjoyable at T1. Hao stated that he takes enjoyment in the pre-writing process and finds researching a topic and writing drafts interesting. In addition, Xuan reported that he found writing the most enjoyable skill compared to the other academic skills such as listening. At T2, Hao changed his opinion and stated that he did not find writing interesting and he explained that it was just a task that he was required to finish. Perhaps this is reflective of the intensive writing schedule in the EAP programme and the fatigue of writing three essays in less than a month. Another student (Lian) at T2 mentioned that she found writing at university to be too rigid in structure: "Writing is not so enjoyable because it's not a tough job for me because I know how I can operate the whole process. It's just according to the pattern, it's not so creative work". Lian's background is in studying design, and the EAP course takes an explicit genre approach to teaching essay structures, so this may have led to Lian's opinion that academic writing is too rigid. While most of the participants at T2 reported that writing was not interesting for them, two students (Xuan, Yi) stated that they found academic writing enjoyable because they had developed in some writing abilities; for example,

Yi pointed out, "I learnt how to think critically, and now the teacher said that I have a good argument in my essay, so I think that's the satisfaction I've gain from writing". From this example it is apparent that feedback from the tutor can help cultivate a learner's interest in writing.

The students' comments about utility value remained stable between T1 and T2. All students in T1 mentioned that academic writing was useful for their future education or work, or both education and work. For example, Xuan said, "I think in my future postgraduate degree I will also need to write a dissertation. I think writing will help me write a good dissertation", and Hao stated, "I want to get a job in financial market, a financial company, so I must write some reports. I think writing well is good for my future job". Overall, the students' responses were similar at T2, which is exemplified by Jie: "My answer doesn't change, in my opinion, academic writing is still one of the most important methods used for assessment, so I still keep my faith in the importance, it doesn't change at all". Only one student (Lian) at T2 indicated that she is not sure of the value of academic writing for her future career: "I'm not sure in my future if I will use academic writing because maybe in companies they use another form of writing".

8.3.2.2.4 Self-regulation

At T1 and T2 the participants all mentioned using various pre-writing strategies to plan their essays. The majority of students stated they read the title and then made an outline. Some students gave more specific comments about the planning strategies that they employed. For example, Hao and Lian said that they made sure that they understood the essay question and requirements of the task before making a plan. Lian mentioned that she takes the word limit into account when planning the content of each paragraph. Furthermore, two other students (Bo and Xuan) stated that before making a plan, they try and think about what they already know about the topic: "I think about whether I support this topic and then I will think of some ideas that I learnt from my teacher to support my opinions" (Bo). While Bo mentioned that he relied on what he had been taught in class for ideas, Xuan pointed out that he reads relevant source material to help develop ideas related to the topic. Bo's mentioning of relying on the teacher for ideas, may be related to his lack of experience in tertiary education, as opposed to Xuan who is a postgraduate. This is confirmed in T2 as Bo now stated, "When I am writing an essay I will scan lots of information and I will select some important sentence to support my view". At T2 the students' responses regarding planning were similar to T1, although Jie mentioned that the EAP course has had helped him to plan in a more comprehensive manner:

> Before I just think about how to start the essay and then write, but now I will think of the structure, the structure of the main body and how many

points, key points, I want to write and then I will start the introduction, because of the training on the EAP course, so it has become easier to plan my essays".

At the while-writing phase at T1, only two students (Hao, Jie) mentioned using self-regulatory strategies. Jie mentioned that while writing he thinks about the question and plan to make sure that the content of his essay is written according his initial plan and has addressed the question. Similarly, Hao stated that he refers to his plan while writing, and also makes changes if he notices any errors in his writing: "I will follow the bullet points in my plan and try to explain them and also I will look at the essay and try to find something inappropriate. If it's not correct and try to modify it". The interview responses show no changes in the approach to while-writing strategies at T2.

At the post-writing stage, few strategies were mentioned at T1 and none at T2. Two students (Xuan, Yi) mentioned checking their work at T1. Furthermore, Hao mentioned that sometimes he checks his writing when he had finished an essay: "Well sometimes I just let it be, you know, and sometimes I will show it to my friends, my classmates to find out whether there is something I need to improve". The students' apparent lack of post-writing strategies at T2 may be related to intensive nature of the EAP course. The students must write an essay in each week of the EAP course and so may not have the time to adequately check their work, especially as novice writers in the field of English academic writing, which is reflected in their responses.

8.3.3 Summary of the quantitative and qualitive data

Overall, in comparing the quantitative and qualitative data, it is apparent that the questionnaire responses and interview responses highlight similar findings. In addition, the qualitive data helps to give further explanation and elaboration on individual student responses in relation to the motivation and self-regulation constructs. Reported use of mastery goals according to the quantitative data remained high and stable over the two time periods (T1: $M =$ 4.64; T2: $M =$ 4.52; $d =$ .27); these findings are confirmed by the interview data with most participants reporting a mastery approach to writing at both T1 and T2. The interview data further shows that at T2 the students were more likely to mention improving specific academic writing skills as opposed to general writing skills mentioned at T1. The students use of performance goals remained moderately high and constant from T1 to T2 (T1: $M =$ 3.17; $M =$ 3.29; $d =$ .13). The interview data highlighted similar mixed views on performance goals, with some students saying that they aimed to show others that they were a good writer, and some saying that they were not concerned with this, or they were only concerned with scoring a high mark to please their teacher and not their peers.

Self-efficacy is the only construct at the quantitative phase that increased significantly over the course (T1: $M = 3.54$; T2: $M = 4.05$; $d = 1.00$). These findings are corroborated by the qualitative findings; however, the two undergraduate students mentioned that they felt that they had a lot still to learn in terms of the requirements of academic writing.

In terms of intrinsic value, the quantitative findings showed moderate and stable responses from the participants (T1: $M = 2.88$; T2: $M = 2.99$; $d = .12$). Intrinsic value also recorded the lowest mean scores at each of the time periods. Again, these findings are largely reflected in the interview data; however, two interviewees mentioned developing an interest in writing as their academic writing skills improved. Scores for utility value remained relatively high over the EAP course (T1: $M = 4.29$; T2: $M = 4.30$; $d = .12$) with the majority of students mentioning that academic writing was useful for their future prospects at both T1 and T2.

The quantitative and qualitative findings for self-regulation show some discrepancy. While the results from the questionnaire data show relatively high scores at T1 and T2 (T1: $M = 4.00$; T2: $M = 4.10$; $d = .19$), the results from the interview data reveal a mixed utilisation of self-regulation strategies at the pre-, while-, and post-writing phases. The interviewees all mentioned using self-regulatory strategies at the planning phase at both times; however, at the while- and post-writing phases results were mixed, with around half the participants reporting strategy use during writing at T1 and T2, and only a handful of students reporting that they used post-writing strategies.

8.4 The relationship between motivation and self-regulation

The results of correlation analysis involving the motivation and self-regulation scales at T1 are displayed in Table 8.7. A strong correlation was found between self-efficacy and self-regulation ($r = .51$, $p < .001$). Further correlations were found with intrinsic value and utility value ($r = .53$, $p < .001$), mastery goals and utility value ($r = 0.45$, $p < .001$), performance goals and utility value ($r = .30$, $p < .05$), and performance goals and intrinsic value ($r = .32$, $p < .01$).

Table 8.7: T1 motivation and self-regulation correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Mastery goals	1					
2. Performance goals	.16	1				
3. Self-efficacy	-.03	.03	1			

	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Intrinsic value	.19	.30*	.07	1		
5. Utility value	.45***	.38**	-.01	.53***	1	
6. Self-regulation	.18	.21	.51***	.06	.16	1

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

Correlations for T2 can be found in Table 8.8. Overall there were more significant correlations in T2 than T1. As per T1, the strongest correlation was found between self-efficacy and self-regulation ($r = 0.66$, $p < .001$). Strong correlations were also recorded between mastery goals and utility value ($r = 0.59$, $p < .001$), and mastery goals and self-regulation ($r = 0.57$, $p < 0.01$. In fact, mastery goals recorded significant correlations with all the other constructs.

Table 8.8: T2 motivation and self-regulation correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Mastery goals	1					
2. Performance goals	.35**	1				
3. Self-efficacy	.32*	.26*	1			
4. Intrinsic value	.27*	.36**	.15	1		
5. Utility value	.59***	.29*	.29*	.32**	1	
6. Self-regulation	.57***	.29*	.66***	.22	.40**	1

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

The significance of the change in correlations for motivation and self-regulation measures calculated using Fisher-*z* transformation is presented in Table 8.9. The relationship between the variables in the study remained relatively stable over the course. The correlations between mastery goals and self-efficacy ($z = -2.00$, $p < .05$), and mastery goals and self-regulation ($z = -2.57$, $p < .001$) increased significantly between T1 and T2. Furthermore, increases were found between the correlations of mastery goals and performance goals ($z = -1.13$, $p < .05$). In addition, the correlations between utility value and self-efficacy also increased ($z = -2.20$, $p < .05$) over the 4-week period.

Table 8.9: Comparison of Correlations at T1 and T2

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Mastery goals	1					

2. Performance goals	-1.13*	1				
3. Self-efficacy	-2.00*	-1.30	1			
4. Intrinsic value	-.47	-.37	-.45	1		
5. Utility value	1.07	.56	-2.20*	1.43	1	
6. Self-regulation	-2.57***	-.47	-1.27	-0.90	-1.45	1

Note. * = *p* <.05; ** = *p* < .01; *** = *p* < .001.

8.5 The relationship between motivation and self-regulation, and integrated writing task scores

Table 8.10 and Table 8.11 display the results of correlation analyses between the motivation and self-regulation measures, and the scores on the integrated writing task at T1 and T2, respectively. As can be seen in Table 8.10, there were no significant correlations to report between the motivation and self-regulation and writing scores. Conversely, at T2 three measures of motivation (mastery goals, performance goals, and utility value) correlated significantly with the various writing task criterion measures (Table 8.11). Both mastery goals and performance goals recorded significant correlations with LC (mastery goals: *r* = .30, *p* = < .05; performance goals: *r* = .27, *p* < 0.05) and overall scores (mastery goals: *r* = .28, *p* = < .05; performance goals: *r* = .30, *p* < 0.05). The findings for correlations between utility value and writing scores showed significant correlations between utility value and all the writing measures: RW (*r* = .31, *p* < 0.5), TF (*r* = .44, *p* = 0.001), OS (*r* = .35, *p* = 0.01), LC (*r* = .27, *p* = 0.05), and overall (*r* = .39, *p* = 0.01).

Table 8.10: T1 motivation and self-regulation, and integrated writing task scores correlations

	RW	TF	OS	LC	Overall
Mastery goals	-.12	-.15	-.07	-.07	-.12
Performance goals	.07	-.08	-.02	-.10	-.04
Self-efficacy	-.16	-.13	-.07	-.13	-.14
Intrinsic-value	.18	.01	.02	.11	.09
Utility-value	.09	.15	.17	.16	.17
Self-regulation	-.11	-.09	-.10	-.06	-.11

Note. * = *p* <.05; ** = *p* < .01; *** = *p* < .001.

Table 8.11: T1 Motivation and self-regulation, and essay scores correlations

	RW	TF	OS	LC	Overall
Mastery goals	.21	.22	.25	.30*	.28*
Performance goals	.26*	.30*	.21	.27*	.30*
Self-efficacy	-.02	-.06	.01	-.11	-.05
Intrinsic-value	.15	.10	-.03	.04	.08
Utility-value	.31*	.44***	.35**	.27*	.39**
Self-regulation	.15	-.01	.11	.10	.10

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

8.5.1 Discussion of findings

In the following sections the findings from the study will be discussed in relation to Research Question 2, which is as follows:

RQ2 (a): How do international students' motivation and self-regulation change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (b): What is the relationship between international students' motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

RQ2 (c): What is the relationship between international students' integrated writing task scores and motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course

8.5.1.1 The development of motivation and self-regulation

The results of the study show an overall increase in mean scores for self-efficacy. The findings relating to self-efficacy in this study mirror those of previous studies that have examined the impact of tertiary level academic writing skills courses on learners' writing self-efficacy development (Ruegg, 2018; Zhang, 2018). There are several possible contextual explanations for the increase in self-efficacy. Firstly, the foundation course gives students many opportunities for mastery experience, which is the main source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The primary focus of the course is academic writing, with 25 in-class hours of tuition assigned to the development academic writing. It is highly likely that such an intensive focus on writing would account for increases in academic writing self-efficacy. This explanation is in agreement with the results of Zhang's (2018) study. The participants in Zhang's study reported strong increases in academic writing self-efficacy

(*d*=1.59) at the end of a writing course. In follow up interviews, participants in Zhang's (2018) study mentioned the positive role that specific instruction in academic writing skills had had on their confidence as academic writers. Bandura (1994) argues that mastery experience should be sustained and consistent for it to develop into self-efficacy. The EAP course of the study takes a process-genre approach to writing, and accordingly throughout the week the students are working on various parts of their writing though classroom activities and homework. Consistent writing practice through a process-genre approach was also mentioned by Mills and Péron (2009) as an effective method of increasing writing self-efficacy.

For mastery experience to be effective, students must feel a sense of accomplishment through overcoming challenges (Bandura, 1997). This sense of progression is achieved in the course through the grading of course content and assessment difficulty. In the first week students learn how to compare ideas from academic texts and practice the macro structures of essay writing. In the following weeks students are introduced to more higher order concepts such as critical thinking and mitigation. Furthermore, the students are provided scaffolding for the assignments as the focus on input during the course relates specifically to the course assignments. As a result, by the end of the course even though the assignment is conceptually more difficult, general self-efficacy in academic writing remains high, because as a learner's self-efficacy increases, so too does their belief in and desire to complete more demanding tasks (Bandura, 1997).

A further source of self-efficacy that is provided on the course is social persuasion though tutor feedback. Specific and systematic feedback was found to increase self-efficacy in Japanese ELF students on a writing development programme (Ruegg, 2018). Ruegg (20018) discovered oral feedback from tutors was particularly effective in nurturing self-efficacy. In the current study, for each of the three assignments student complete on the course, both written and oral feedback is given. Course teachers are told to be constructive in their feedback and to focus on structural aspects of essays rather than language errors. This has the effect of providing scaffolding for the learners which in turn helps to foster self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

The last point relating to feedback concerns the formative nature of assessment on the course. No final grade is given on the course and the goal of the programme is developmental in nature. Not being graded allows for greater experimentation by students in areas of writing that are novel or challenging, such as paraphrasing. Mills and Peron (2009) stated that when students are not graded they tend to take risks and there is less chance of learners losing confidence in their writing. This relates to how affective states can effct the development of self-efficacy and the assumption that "positive

mood enhances perceived self-efficacy, despondent mood diminishes it" (Bandura, 1994, p.4). Through graded tasks, constructive feedback, and formative assessment, students are likely to feel less stress and negative emotions which in turn helps enhance a student's beliefs in their abilities (Bandura, 1997). Similarly, it is also highly likely that the reasons for increases in overall writing achievement mirror those of increases in self-efficacy. In other words, due to the specific and intensive focus on writing and detailed written and oral feedback throughout the course, the participants writing skills improved.

Task value items remained stable over the course. Utility value means were relatively high in Week 1 and remained so over the course. High levels of utility value were also recorded by Chinese students on a pre-sessional EAP course in China (Woodrow, 2013). This is not surprising in the current study, as students were likely to be aware of the importance of writing to their future studies at the beginning of the course and were reminded of this throughout the EAP course. Pintrich (1999) points out that utility value can relate to goals of various proximities. Hence students on the EAP course see both the immediate value of academic writing (passing the EAP course), and the more long-term benefits (getting a degree, getting a good job). The stability of utility value over the course can be explained by the stability of context. Eccles (2005) states that task utility is domain specific, and because of the EAP course having a narrow and consistent focus, the scores for utility value remained stable.

On the other hand, intrinsic value was relatively low in Week 1 and remained low in Week 4. Similarly, Woodrow (2013) found intrinsic value to be the lowest scoring item in her study. As the EAP course is mandatory for learners who have not met the language requirements of their course it is safe to assume that the motivation to attend the course was extrinsic rather than intrinsic. In addition, the course was very intensive with a heavy load of writing, hence students may have been bored or have negative feelings towards having to complete such a large amount of writing and attend such a large volume of classes on a similar subject. Furthermore, Pintrich (1999) describes intrinsic value as being a domain specific and relatively stable trait like variable, which explains the lack of significant change in intrinsic value over the course.

Over the foundation programme, scores for achievement goals also remained stable. As the course uses formative assessment and no grades are given for essays, it was assumed that mastery goals would increase, and performance goals would decrease. However, the stability of achievement goals is supported in the literature (Tuominen-Soini, Salmela-Aro, & Niemivirta, 2011), especially when the context remains stable (Middleton, Kaplan, & Midgley,

2004), such as on a short foundation programme. Although mastery goals remained stable, this was likely to be beneficial for the students as mastery goals have been related to adaptive learning outcomes (Woodrow, 2006) Therefore it is possible to conclude that elements of the course, such as a lack of grading, may have helped to maintain high levels of mastery orientation.

In addition to achievement goals, self-regulation did not change significantly over the course. This result is different to previous studies (Ching, 2002; Nguyen & Gu, 2013) that have identified increases in self-regulatory strategy use over time. The differing results can be explained due to there being no specific teaching of self-regulatory strategies on the course, unlike the studies mentioned that provided specific input in the use of self-regulatory strategies. Another explanation for the stability of self-regulation is that the students may have lacked the time to reflect on their own work. Reflection is a crucial element of the self-regulatory process as it feeds back into to the initial forethought phase (Pintrich, 2000). As a result, the participants may not have been aware of the self-regulatory processes that were in play throughout the course and thus reported no development when answering the questionnaire at T2.

8.5.1.2 The relationship between motivation and self-regulation

The second question in this phase of the research was concerned with the relationship amongst the variables. The current study found a significantly strong relationship between self-regulation and self-efficacy at both T1 and T2, with the strength of the relationship remaining strong and stable over time. These findings confirm the association between self-regulation and self-efficacy laid out in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), and are consistent with research in tertiary settings (e.g. Csizér & Tankó, 2015). The relationship between self-efficacy and self-regulation exits because self-efficacious students have the necessary agency to use self-regulatory strategies when performing academic tasks (Zimmerman, 2000). Furthermore, the correlations between mastery goals self-regulation increased significantly over the course. The chance to develop mastery also leads to a stronger relationship with the use of self-regulatory strategies (Pintrich 2000).

8.5.1.3 The relationship between integrated writing task scores and motivation and self-regulation

At T1 of the study, there were no significant correlations between the motivation and self-regulation constructs and integrated writing task scores. The lack of correlations between these measures at T1 may be due to the novice academic writers being unaware of their own use of motivation and self-regulation while writing. However, at T2, there were correlations between the writing scores and both mastery and performance goals, and utility value. The correlation between utility value and writing scores supports previous

research into utility value academic achievement at tertiary level (Hulleman et al., 2008). A possible explanation for the development of the relationship between utility value and writing achievement is because the goal of an EAP course is to prepare students for tertiary education. The students are made aware that the skills learnt on the course will be essential for success on their future course. As a result, by the end of the course, the students are very clear about the value of academic writing in relation to their future success which leads to a relationship between a realisation of the value of writing and writing performance.

The correlations between both achievement goals measures and writing scores is interesting, because as mentioned in Chapter 5, mastery goals and performance have traditionally been theorised as providing different academic outcomes: mastery goals are associated with adaptive learning and performance goals with maladaptive learning (Ames & Archer, 1988). However, in the current study both kinds of achievement goals are related, which can be seen in the correlation between mastery and performance goals. Furthermore, as both mastery and performance goals are correlated positively to writing scores, it is clear that both achievement goal dimensions can impact positively on essay writing outcomes. Both mastery goals and performance goals were found to motivate students in oral tests (Woodrow, 2006). Furthermore, Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, and Elliot (2002) found a combination of both mastery and performance goals to be optimal for academic achievement over a college course. The results of the current study indicate that EAP programmes should nurture both a students' desire to improve their writing skills, and also their desire to achieve high scores in relation to their peers.

8.6 Chapter summary

The main goals of the current chapter were to determine whether motivation, and self-regulation changed over the course of a short, intensive foundation programme, and also to determine the relationship between these constructs and integrated writing task scores over time. This study has shown that writing self-efficacy can improve over a short period of instruction, while achievement goals, task-value, and self-regulation remain stable. Correlation analysis revealed that self-efficacy and self-regulation are strongly related and remained so over the course.

9 CONCLUSION

9.1 Chapter introduction

This concluding chapter begins with a summary of the main findings in relation to each research question. The chapter then continues to a discussion of the contribution of the research to the fields of motivation, second language writing, and EAP. Firstly, the methodological contributions of the study will be covered, and this is followed by overviews of the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the thesis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

9.2 Summary of the results

To summarise the findings in this thesis, each research question and an overview of the corresponding results are provided below:

9.2.1 Research question 1: The development of writing from source texts

RQ1. How do international students' use of source texts and scores on an integrated writing task change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

The participants' scores on an integrated writing task increased over the course of the EAP programme in all the measures of writing (RW, TF, OS, LC, and overall). The improved performance on the writing task was elaborated on in the participant interviews in which the participants generally stated that they had improved in various aspects of academic writing. Furthermore, the majority of participants mentioned that they worked on developing their writing skills outside of classroom time. In terms of using sources in the integrated writing task, the participants used few direct quotations at T1 and T2 and used significantly more paraphrases at T2 than T1. In the interviews the participants pointed out that they had learnt the importance of incorporating paraphrases into their essays through the tuition on the EAP course. The percentage of borrowed words that the students used in their paraphrase attempts remained stable over the 4 weeks. Furthermore, both the use of TR and MdR paraphrase types increased over the course which may reflect developmental differences amongst the participants, with some participants relying on patchwriting, while some students are more able to create original reformulations of source texts. Finally, between T1 and T2, the participants

improved in their ability to correctly format their in-text citations, and in their ability to give attribution to the source author. The participants on the whole said that they had learnt the rules of referencing and generally felt able to apply those rules in their written work.

9.2.2 Research question 2 (a): The development of motivation and self-regulation

RQ2 (a). How do international students' motivation and self-regulation change over a pre-sessional EAP course?

The resulting data from the AWMSRQ at T1 and T2 show that the participants' self-efficacy in academic writing increased dramatically over the EAP course. This finding was confirmed in the interviews in which the participants tended to be unsure in their academic writing abilities at T1 whereas at T2 the majority of participants mentioned that they felt confident in their abilities to write in an academic style in English. The students reported high scores on the utility value scale items at T1 and T2 which indicates that students are motivated to do well in writing for utilitarian purposes. This was confirmed in the interviews as most of the students at T1 and T2 highlighted the fact that writing is useful for their future studies and careers. All motivation and self-regulation measures apart from self-efficacy measures remained stable over the 4 week which suggests: a) they are relatively stable traits, or b) they take longer than 4 weeks to develop, or c) the course neither enhanced or decreased the role of these individual differences. The interviews on the whole supported the stability of these measures over the course.

9.2.3 Research questions 2 (b) and 2 (c): Correlations between the variables

RQ2 (b). What is the relationship between international students' motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

It was found that at T1 only self-efficacy correlated with self-regulation, while at T2 all the motivation variables apart from intrinsic value showed a relationship with self-regulation. At T2 self-efficacy and mastery goals recorded the highest correlations with self-regulation. At T2 most motivation measures correlated with one another which indicates that participants are developing broad motivational profiles which encompass various values, beliefs and goals.

RQ2 (c). What is the relationship between international students' integrated writing task scores and motivation and self-regulation at the beginning and end of a pre-sessional EAP course?

Results for T1 showed that none of the motivation and self-regulation variables correlated with any of the integrated writing task measures. However, at time 2 significant correlations were found between overall writing scores and mastery goals, performance goals, and utility value. The results highlight the fact that both mastery and performance goals can lead to adaptive learning outcomes, and that EAP courses can help to students to realise that developing writing skills will be useful for their future endeavours.

9.3 Contributions of the thesis

The findings of this thesis have several salient implications to the fields of L2 writing, individual differences in SLA and EAP research and teaching. In the coming sections, the methodological innovations of the study will be discussed. This will be followed by outlining the theoretical implications for L2 writing and SLA research, and finally, the pedagogical implications to the field of EAP will be discussed.

9.3.1 Methodological contributions

The current research utilised a mixed methods approach in collecting data for both students' writing, and motivation and self-regulation. Specifically, a explanatory sequential research design was employed in the study. In the L2 writing field, several studies have utilised mixed methods approaches, however few studies have combined writing data and interview data over an EAP course, and this is especially the case for charting the developments over an EAP course. Furthermore, in the field of motivation, studies have tended to take a cross-sectional quantitative approach to data collection. By using a mixed methods approach the current research was able to gain an in-depth insight into novice EAP students' development. Due to the intensive nature of EAP courses, and the fact that the students were inexperienced in academic writing in English, it was especially useful to chart the participants' journeys from novice to developing writers.

The current research combined integrated writing task data with motivation and self-regulation data which is novel to both the fields of L2 writing and SLA. The results of the study found relationships between motivation measures and integrated writing task scores, which opens the door to further research on the individual differences that may influence writing outcomes. Furthermore, relationships between source use, in terms of the RW measure, were found that provides a glimpse into the individual differences that may impact on students' behaviour in integrating source texts into their writing. The RW measure used in the study was found to be useful in providing a general overview of the participants' development in using sources and further research should further utilise an analytic RW scale.

A further methodological contribution of the study is the creation of new paraphrase types that give a finer level of analysis than previous research. For example, Keck (2006) used a near copy paraphrase type that included paraphrases of 50 % or more borrowed words. This meant that a paraphrase attempt with 51% of borrowed words was classified in the same category as a paraphrase attempt with 99% borrowed words, which is a wide gap that needed further parsing which the current study attempted to achieve. The utilisation of the TR paraphrase type was especially useful in the current research as the present study found a high proportion of paraphrases according to this type. It is therefore recommended that further studies employ a TR measurement.

The final methodological contribution is the creation of the AWMSRQ that specifically gathers data concerning L2 academic writing. The scales in the questionnaire were generally valid and reliable and could be applied to other studies of L2 academic writers. The majority of motivation scales in SLA have tended to use items that focus on general English motivation, and as motivation is influenced by a learners environment (Bandura, 1997), researchers in the field of L2 academic writing should develop or use questionnaires such as the AWMSRQ to gain a more accurate and reliable insight into their participants' motivation and self-regulation.

9.3.2 Theoretical implications

Pre-sessional EAP courses are ubiquitous in Anglo-Western universities. This is especially the case for the UK that has a trend towards hosting ever more international students from L2 English countries. As highlighted in the current research, international students may arrive in the UK with limited experience of academic writing in English. In addition, post-graduate students, who have experience in academic writing in their home country, may have been taught and used a style of writing that is dissimilar to that of a UK university. Students with limited prior experience of UK higher education must therefore go through a period of adapting to their new study environment. To mitigate the limited knowledge of the skills required in tertiary education in the UK, universities offer pre-sessional courses to international to help prepare them for studying in a UK university. The extent to which those attending pre-sessional courses are able to develop in their academic skills, and especially writing skills, is therefore an important field of enquiry. The current research has found that a pre-sessional course of only four weeks can have a significant impact on international students' development in a number of ways, and thus provides a meaningful contribution to the research on novice L2 writers.

First, through focused instruction and essay writing practice, novice students with limited experience of writing from sources in English can develop greatly

in their abilities in writing an integrated writing task. These findings indicate that there was learning transfer as a result of the EAP instruction as the participants could apply their recently acquired knowledge to a test taken under timed conditions. Previous research has also showed they EAP instruction can lead to learning transfer on subsequent degree programmes (Terraschke & Wahid, 2011). An important conclusion to draw from the current findings is that by the end of the course the students were better able to perform on an integrated writing task which is a cognitively demanding task that requires the application of a number of cognitive strategies with the added pressure of a strict time limit (Shi, 2018). It can therefore be assumed that attendance on a pre-sessional course can help students to develop in their cognitive processing of completing tasks that involve writing from sources.

Second, the current research found various developmental trajectories for participants in terms of paraphrasing from source texts. With reference to Wette's (2017b) developmental trajectory, the current research confirms the model at the entry level as the novice L2 academic writers in this study exhibited most of the features at the entry phase such as unattributed copying from sources. However, by the end of the course it was not entirely clear which category of development some of the students could be placed into, as students' exhibited features of novice, post novice and intermediate writers. This suggests that it is not always appropriate to label students according to set categories, and that individual differences in developments should be recognised by the teacher which would lead to a more fitting level of support. Furthermore, the results of the current research suggest that developments in using sources may not be linear, as suggested by Wette (2017b). As intertextuality involves several cognitive processes (Plakans, 2008), individual differences in cognitive processing may impact on how students develop in certain aspects of writing from sources. For example, students with a limited vocabulary may struggle with reformulation, however, it cannot be assumed that these students will not develop in other areas of source use such as integrating their ideas with the source authors ideas. Furthermore, a student's genre knowledge should also be considered when analysing the developmental paths of L2 writers. Genres vary in how sources are used, and those different developmental paths should be taken into account for subjects that vary in their use of intertextuality such as the sciences and the humanities (Flowerdew and Li, 2007)

The question of whether novice or post novice L2 writers rely on direct quotations is also raised by the current research. Researchers such as Wette (2017b) claim that L2 writers often overuse direct quotations; however, this was not the case in the current research. Through the interviews, the development of students' awareness of limiting the use of direct quotations in their writing was apparent. Similarly, a limited use of direct quotations was

also found in other studies such as Nguyen and Buckingham (2019). The participants in both the current research and Nguyen and Buckingham's (2019) study mentioned using quotations sparingly due to a) instruction on the importance of paraphrasing over direct quotations and b) the use of text recognition software such Turnitin which acts as a deterrent to verbatim copying of source texts. It is suggested that software like Turnitin can act as an awareness raising tool in the use of source texts when writing essays at tertiary level.

The current research confirms previous research into the development of self-efficacy in writing through dedicated instruction in academic writing (Zhang, 2018). The current study expands on the research into academic writing self-efficacy by showing that novice writers can develop greatly their belief that they can perform various aspects of academic writing over the short period of instruction. Therefore, the assumption can be made that pre-sessional courses can provide an environment in which academic writing self-efficacy is fostered. It is also likely that a process-genre approach can provide the optimal conditions for nurturing novice L2 writers academic writing self-efficacy. As found in the current research, a process-genre approach provides mastery experience through the drafting and re-drafting process. Vicarious experience, i.e. providing models of writing to students, is one of the main elements of a genre approach and helps in scaffolding the students to write beyond their current knowledge or proficiency levels. Central to a process-genre approach is feedback on drafts and final products that focuses on developing the writer's genre knowledge. Pre-sessional courses further provide supportive environments that aim to support and scaffold students leading to more positive affective states. The results suggest that pre-sessional EAP courses can provide the necessary environment that is conducive to self-efficacy development as outlined by Bandura (1997). The assumed correlation between self-efficacy and writing scores was not found in the current research, although this finding confirms Eccles and Wigfield's (2002) model of motivation in which self-efficacy plays a mediating and not direct role in student achievement.

The final theoretical contribution of this thesis is the discovery that mastery goals, performance goals, and utility value are related to performance measures of integrated writing. In the field of SLA, few studies have utilised measures of motivation in relation to academic writing outcomes, although studies of motivation and academic outcomes have been widely researched in the educational psychology field (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). As the current research has found, utility values are a strong motivational force for L2 writers at university level. International students are aware that academic writing is fundamental to their success in both their future studies and careers beyond university. Furthermore, few studies in SLA research have investigated

achievement goal measures in conjunction with academic writing outcomes. The current research has shown that novice writers who aim to develop their skills while writing, and at the same time focus on getting high grades, can achieve higher scores in essays. A model of EAP students from Confucian heritage cultures is hypothesised in which achievement goals and utility-value directly impact on writing achievement. In this model both mastery and performance goals interact and have a combined impact on writing achievement. From the questionnaire data and subsequent interviews, it is apparent that Chinese EAP students studying abroad exhibit mastery goals and performance goals in roughly equal measures when considering Ames and Archer's (1988) taxonomy of achievement goals. Intrinsic value is not relevant to this model of EAP as novice students tend to find little enjoyment in academic writing. The utilitarian value of writing is most relevant to EAP students as they see the value of writing in relation to their future success. In light of Jin and Cortazzi's (2006) model of Confucian learning, it is clear that Chinese students place emphasis on passing exams and gaining employment. This is further confirmed by Woodrow's (2013) study of Chinese students who prioritised the utility value of studying abroad over intrinsic reasons. Finally, in the hypothesised model of Chinese EAP students, both self-efficacy and self-regulation play mediating roles in achievement. Both self-efficacy and self-regulation were found to be relevant constructs in both the questionnaire and interview data, and due to the correlations amongst achievement goals, self-efficacy, utility value, and self-regulation, a multi-construct dynamic relationship between the constructs is suggested which is an avenue for further research to explore. Further research should consider the relationship between motivation and self-regulation variables using path analysis or structural equation modelling to discover the direct and mediating roles of these variables in relation to writing achievement.

9.3.3 Pedagogical implications

A number of pedagogical implications can be drawn from the current research. In general, this study has shown that intensive EAP instruction that focuses specifically on academic writing development can be effective. As the number of international students in the UK remains relatively high, and as pre-sessional EAP courses are becoming more common in Anglo-Western universities, it is important that research can show that such courses are effective in achieving their goals of preparing students for tertiary level education. In terms of what can be done in the classroom, it is vital that students are given guidance in reformulation, so they can be helped along the developmental path from patchwriting to using more originality in their paraphrasing attempts. Reformulation strategies can be taught in class, and homework assignments can be set in which students produce short pieces of

writing in which they are asked to paraphrase a number of given sources. Technology could also be used to aid students with paraphrasing by setting up a paraphrasing clinic on the universities online learning platform which is moderated by teachers. Furthermore, EAP instruction should focus on developing students' subject related vocabulary as a lack of vocabulary is one of the main challenges for students when paraphrasing. In addition, teachers should use coursework assignments and tutorials to give explicit advice to students regarding their use of paraphrasing. By making students aware of their own paraphrasing behaviour and by giving specific advice about how to reformulate, students should be able to use this knowledge to keep developing in their ability in incorporating the work of others into their own written work. Finally, it is important that pre-sessional students are offered further support in using sources when they start their studies in their degree programmes, as writing at university level presents more challenges to novice writers who are still developing as academic writers.

Furthermore, it is recommended that EAP courses provide both continuous written and oral feedback on students writing. As seen in the current study, students tend to enter an EAP courses with low self-confidence in their abilities, and by providing a programme that offers students with continuous constructive feedback, students can end the course believing that they have the ability to write in an academic setting. In addition, as the students reported no significant increases in self-regulation it is suggested that EAP courses focus more on explicit teaching of self-regulatory strategies. Focused instruction on developing self-regulatory strategies has proven to be effective in improving writing quality at tertiary level (Ching, 2002). Finally, due to the positive relationship between utility value and writing scores, the utility of the EAP course and academic writing should be nurtured in students. If students realise that the EAP course will help them in the future, then they are more likely to produce higher quality assignments. Both mastery goals and performance goals should also be fostered in EAP courses. Taking elements of a process approach in which students create drafts can create an environment in which students are focusing on perfecting specific elements of their writing and are thus writing to develop and improve their writing skills instead of focusing solely on an end product. At the same time, performance goals can be fostered by introducing students to successful and less successful examples of essays from past students. Through knowing what constitutes a successful and less successful essay, the students then have goals at which they can aim to compare their performance against.

A final pedagogical implication is that EAP course developers should consider taking into account students' prior education experience when creating course material. As discussed previously, Confucian styles of learning show some comparisons with genre style learning. Course developers could investigate

how a learner's prior education can be utilised and transferred to a UK tertiary level environment. It should not be assumed that students from Asia are at a deficit compared to students from Europe who are assumed to have an easier time adapting to study in the UK. Perhaps students from Confucian heritage educational backgrounds may actually be in a position to adapt more quickly to genre style teaching when compared to students from cultures that are deemed to be more similar to the UK.

9.3.4 Limitations and directions for future research

Caution should be taken when interpreting the results due to a number of limitations that provide scope for further research. First, the current investigation was limited by a relatively small sample size for quantitative research, although only a small number of variables are used which helps to reduce the chance of type II error. Further research should aim to recruit larger cohorts of participants, and in doing so other factors may be uncovered when analysing the scales from the AWMSRQ. Second, as the sample consists of only Chinese students, caution must be applied, as the results might not be transferrable to more diverse classrooms. However, due to the high numbers of Chinese students in Anglo-Western foundation course, it is likely that the prominence of Chinese students in the current study is somewhat representative of many similar courses. Comparison studies utilising a wider demographic of participants, including students who come from educational backgrounds that are more similar to those of the UK such as other countries in Europe could provide a richer level of data that highlights the impact of educational background on motivation and academic writing development. Third, one source of weakness in this study that could have affected the measurements of writing achievement is the writing task itself. The writing task, while simulating some aspects of academic writing, is different from the kind of assessment that the majority of students undertake on their degree programmes, so caution has to be taken when associating the results to academic writing in general. Further research should use examples of students' writing on EAP courses in conjunction with writing from integrated tasks as a means of comparing writing performance under these different writing conditions. Fourth, in relation to the qualitative phase of the study, the results should be interpreted tentatively due to a) the small sample size and b) the fact that the interview participants were from a different cohort to the students who completed the quantitative phase of the study. It is worth noting that previous models of international students adjustment were similarly based on small scale studies (Major, 2005; Wu & Hammond, 2011). Further research with larger groups of participants should be utilized to validate the model of student adjustment offered in this thesis.

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11 APPENDICES

ACADEMIC WRITING MOTIVATION AND SELF-REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE
学术写作的动机和自我控制调查问卷

I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questionnaire on **academic writing**. This is not a test so there are no correct or incorrect answers. I am interested in your personal opinion. Please answer honestly as only this will guarantee the success of the research. Thank you very much for your help.

我希望你们能帮我完成以下关于学术写作方面的问卷。这份问卷并非一项测验，没有标准的答案。我对你们的个人意见非常感兴趣。请你们能诚实的作答，因为只有这样，这项调研才能成功。非常感谢你们的合作。

In this questionnaire there will be statements with which some people will agree and others will not. I would like to know to what extent they describe your own feelings or situation. After each statement you'll find five boxes. Please put an 'X' in the box that best expresses how true the statement is about your feelings or situation. For example: if you like shopping a lot put an 'X' in the first box.

在这份问卷里面，有某些陈述，可能会引起不同的意见，有的人认同，有的人不认同。我很想了解到，在怎样的程度上，这些陈述能形容你们的感觉或者处境。在每一项的陈述后面，有五个方格，请选择最能能够表达你的个人情感和状况的一项，并在方格上打"x"。例如：如果你真的非常喜欢购物，即在第一个方格上打"x"。

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
I like shopping a lot 我非常喜欢购物	X				

There are no right or wrong answers – we're only interested in your personal opinion.
没有正确或错误的答案，我们只对你个人真实想法感兴趣。

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
1. It's important to me that I avoid getting the lowest mark in the class. 在班里面避免最低分，对我来说很重要。					
2. When writing an academic essay, I can make a clear distinction between my ideas and those of other authors. 写论文的时候，我可以清晰的区别开我自己的观点和其他作者的观点。					
3. When writing an academic essay, I can make my ideas flow smoothly and logically. 写论文的时候，我可以流畅的和有逻辑性的表达自己的观点。					

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
4. When paraphrasing what I have read, I can change the wording of the source text without changing the original meaning. 当我在转述我所读到的句子时，我可以改变原文的措辞，但不改变原文的意思。					
5. Being good at writing is an important part of who I am. 擅长于写作，是展现自我的一项重要组成部分。					
6. I can logically structure an academic essay. 我能够有逻辑性的编排一篇论文的结构。					
7. One of my goals is to learn how to express my critical thoughts in writing. 我的一个目标是学习如何在写作中表达自己的批判性的观点。					
8. It is important for me to be someone who is good at writing academic essays. 成为一个擅长于学术写作的人对我来说很重要。					
9. I like academic writing. 我喜欢写论文。					
10. While writing an academic essay, I check my text for spelling and grammatical errors. 写论文的时候，我会检查所有拼写和语法的错误。					
11. When I have finished writing, I think about how I could have done better. 当我完成论文的时候，我会思考如何可以写的更好。					
12. I can use referencing verbs (e.g. claims, states, argues) to introduce quotations from other writers. 我会使用引用的动词（如：声称，声明，主张）来引用其他作者的观点。					

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
13. Before writing an academic essay, I think about what I already know about the subject. 在写论文之前，我会思考一下我已经知道的有关命题的内容。					
14. I'm unable to put in the time needed to do well in my writing assignments. 我很难有足够的时间去写好我的论文。					
15. When writing an academic essay, I can write an appropriate introduction. 写论文的时候，我能够写合适的引言。					
16. It's important to me that I keep improving my writing skills. 不断改进我的写作技巧对我来说很重要。					
17. When writing an academic essay, I can prepare an outline. 写论文的时候，我能够写出提纲。					
18. When writing an academic essay, I can correctly refer to the work of others. 写论文的时候，我能够正确的引用其他作者的写作成果。					
19. Writing to a high standard requires too much time. 写出高质量的论文需要大量的时间。					
20. Academic writing will be useful for me later in life. 学术写作对我的将来非常有用。					
21. When I write an essay, I expect to get a good grade. 写作的时候，我期望得到好的成绩。					
22. I can write an academic essay. 我可以用英文写一份学术论文。					

	Absolutely true 绝对 正确	Mainly true 基本 正确	Partly true, partly false 部分 正确 部分 不正 确	Not so true 不大 正确	Not true at all 完全 不正 确
23. One of my goals is to master citing from the texts I read. 我的目标之一是能够熟练的引用我所读过的原文。					
24. When writing an academic essay, I can compare and contrast a number of texts that I have read. 写论文的时候，我能够比较和对比我所读过的原文的内容。					
25. One of my goals is to show others that I'm good at writing. 我的目标之一是向别人展示我擅长于写作。					
26. I can write in academic style. 我能够进行学术论文写作。					
27. When writing an academic essay, I can support my ideas with examples and evidence. 写论文的时候，我能够运用例子和论据来支持自己的观点。					
28. When I have finished writing, I think about the improvements I could make in my next essay. 当我完成论文的时候，我会思考有什么地方改进以更好的完成下一次的论文。					
29. I can analyze an essay title and decide what is required. 我能够分析论文标题然后再思考如何达到写作的要求。					
30. When writing an academic essay, I can correctly acknowledge texts that I have read. 写论文的时候，我能够正确的认识到我引用的是其他作者的句子。					
31. When writing an academic essay, I can paraphrase what I have read by changing the sentence structure.					

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
写论文的时候，我可以通过改变原句子的结构来转述我所读到的内容。					
32. When I have finished writing, I think about how well I have done. 写完论文的时候，我会思考自己写的如何。					
33. One of my goals is to avoid writing worse than other students. 我的目标之一是避免写作比别人差。					
34. I am interested in academic writing. 我对学术论文写作很感兴趣。					
35. I can clearly show my opinion in my writing. 我可以清晰的表达自己的观点。					
36. While writing an academic essay, I check if my argument is logical. 写论文的时候，我会检查自己的论据是否符合逻辑。					
37. It's important to me that I learn how to express my ideas in academic writing tasks. 学习如何在学术写作任务中表达自己的观点，对我来说很重要。					
38. While writing an academic essay, I check if I have correctly acknowledged the work of other authors. 写论文的时候，我会检查是否已经完全正确的引用其他作者的作品成果。					
39. One of my goals is to avoid showing others that I have difficulty writing essays. 我的目标之一是避免让人知道我在写作方面有困难。					
40. I can create a reference list in the correct style. 我能够规范地写出参考文献。					

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
41. When writing an academic essay, I can brainstorm the topic to focus my ideas. 写论文的时候，我可以发散思维，并运用这些想法。					
42. Academic skills are valuable because they will help me in the future. 学术写作技能很有价值，对我将来很有帮助。					
43. While writing an academic essay, I check that I have fully answered the question. 写论文的时候，我会检查确保我已经全部解答所有的问题。					
44. When writing an academic essay, I can paraphrase what I have read by using different vocabulary than in the original text. 写论文的时候，我能够通过用不同的词汇来改述我所读到的原文内容。					
45. While writing an academic essay, I check whether everything I wanted to say is in the text. 写论文的时候，我会检查我是否已经将我想要表达的全部写在论文中。					
46. I normally do well in written assignments. 我通常比较擅长于书写的作业。					
47. I enjoy doing academic writing. 我很享受学术论文写作。					
48. It's important to me that I don't appear to be an incompetent academic writer. 我不想成为一个写作水平低的人，对我来说很重要。					
49. It's important to me that I understand how to write logical arguments. 知道如何逻辑性的写出论据，对我来说很重要。					

	Absol utely true 绝对 正确	Mainl y true 基本 正确	Partly true, partly false 部分 正确 部分 不正 确	Not so true 不大 正确	Not true at all 完全 不正 确
50. When writing an academic essay, I can avoid plagiarism. 写论文的时候，我能避免抄袭。					
51. When I have finished writing, I try not to think about the essay I have just finished. 完成写作后，我不会去思考我刚完成的论文。					
52. Before writing an academic essay, I think about how to organize my essay. 写论文的时候，我会思考如何去组织文章。					
53. While writing an academic essay, I check if my text fits my plan. 写论文的时候，我会检查我写的内容是否符合我的计划。					
54. It's important to me that other students think that I am good at writing. 其他同学认为我擅长写作，对我来说很重要。					
55. While writing an academic essay, I check if he organization of the essay is clear. 写论文的时候，我会检查文章结构是否清晰。					
56. Before writing an academic essay, I think about which texts (e.g. journal articles, textbooks) may be relevant. 写论文之前，我会思考有什么教材文本（例如：期刊文章，教科书）可能是相关的。					
57. While writing an academic essay, if I'm not satisfied with what I have written, I make changes immediately. 写论文的时候，如果我不满意自己已经写的，我会立即作出修改。					
58. While writing an academic essay, if my essay doesn't match my outline, I make changes to meet my plan. 写论文的时候，如果写的内容偏离我的写作提纲，我会作出修改来符合我原来的计划。					

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
59. Before writing an academic essay, I think about the subject, purpose and audience of the essay. 写论文之前，我会思考一下命题，写作目的和论文的读者。					
60. One of my goals is to do better in writing academic essays than other students. 我的目标之一是我的写作水平比其他同学高。					
61. I expect to write well on in future essays. 我期望写好以后的论文。					
62. Before writing an academic essay, I think about the question carefully to make sure I understand what I need to do. 写论文之前，我会仔细地思考问题来确保我清楚知道自己需要做什么。					
63. It's important that my peers perceive me as being a good writer. 我的同学认为我擅长写作，是重要的。					
64. While writing an academic essay, I reread my text and make changes if necessary. 写论文的时候，我会反复检查我写的内容，必要时作出修改。					
65. In my essays, I can paraphrase sources that I have read. 在我的论文中，我能够转述我读到的资料。					
66. While writing an academic essay, I change things that I have written that I'm not satisfied with. 写论文的时候，我会对我自己不满意的内容作出修改。					

212

	Absolutely true 绝对正确	Mainly true 基本正确	Partly true, partly false 部分正确 部分不正确	Not so true 不大正确	Not true at all 完全不正确
67. I can appropriately organize a paragraph. 我能够组织好文章段落。					
68. Being good at academic writing will be important when I get a job. 擅长于论文写作对我将来找工作很重要。					
69. When writing an academic essay, I can critically evaluate texts that I have read. 写论文的时候，我会批判性的评价我所读到的原文。					
70. Being someone who is good at writing is important to me. 擅长于写作对我来说很重要。					
71. When writing an academic essay, I can write an appropriate conclusion. 写论文的时候，我能够写出适当的结论。					
72. Because of other things I have to focus on, I don't have enough time to put into improving my writing skill 因为还有其他事情，我没有足够的时间去提高我的写作技能。					

Finally, please answer some personal questions.
最后，请回答以下关于个人信息的问题

73. What is your full name? 你的全名是什么？

_____

–

74. What is your email address? 你的邮箱地址是什么？

_____

75. What gender are you? (Please underline) 你的性别是什么？（请画横线）

Male 男　　　　　**Female 女**

76. How old are you? 你的年龄？

_____

77. What is the level of your degree course? (Please underline):

你学位课程的级别是什么？（请画横线）

Undergraduate (e.g. BA) 学士学位

Postgraduate (e.g. MA) 研究生学位

78. What subject will you study? (e.g. sociology) 你将会学习哪些学科？

_____

79. How old were you when you started learning English? 你几岁开始学习英语？

_____

80. What is your nationality? 你的国籍是什么？

_____

81. What is your first language? 你的第一语言是什么？

_____

–

82. Is the EAP summer programme your first experience of academic writing? (Please underline):

暑假课程是不是你第一次学习英语的学术写作？（请画横线）

Yes 是　　　**No 否**

83. What was your most recent **overall** IELTS score? 你最近一次的雅思综合成绩是多少？

_____

84. What was your most recent IELTS **writing** score? 你最近一次的雅思写作成绩是多少？

_____

85. What was your most recent IELTS **reading** score? 你最近一次雅思阅读成绩是多少？

_____

86. What was your most recent IELTS **listening** score? 你最近一次的雅思听力成绩是多少？

_____

87. What was your most recent IELTS **speaking** score? 你最近一次的雅思口语成绩

是多少？

_____

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.
Please check that you have answered all the questions.
感谢您完成此问卷。

请检查您是否已回答所有问题。

APPENDIX 2: E-LEARNING WRITING TASK

Write a short essay (250-300 words) in which you present an argument **either** *for* or *against* the motion that **e-learning will eventually replace traditional classroom learning**.

You should support your argument by making appropriate reference to the sources included below.

"We again emphasize that there is nothing magical about e-learning. It is unlikely to improve upon instruction that is already excellent and appropriate, and it could potentially make some learning situations worse. We reiterate the critical need to consider the learning goals and objectives and then determine whether e-learning could contribute"
(Cook & McDonald, 2008, p. 18).

"Online learning is gaining a firm foothold in universities around the world. More than two-thirds of respondents from academia say that their institutions offer online courses. Many of them, especially those with a public-service mandate, consider online learning key to advancing their mission, placing advanced education within reach of people who might otherwise not be able to access it"

(Glenn & D'Agostino, 2008, p. 4).

"A number of students in our studies reported that although the system was interesting and effective, they would still prefer to go to traditional classrooms if they had a choice, since e-learning environments cannot create the real life on a campus.".

(Zhang, Zhao, Zhou, & Nunamaker Jr., 2004, p. 79).

"Educational institutions have made significant savings in terms of human and other resources utilization, and thereby have increased their profits. For example, at the Wisconsin-Madison University, 172,000 US$ have been saved, due to savings in professors' time, who previously had to spend much more time in teaching sessions in order to cover for large groups of students; in addition, the number of traditional classrooms has been reduced, and thereby costs necessary for their use"

(Radović-Marković, 2010, p. 291).

"In many cases, e-learning can significantly complement classroom learning. E-learning will keep growing as an indispensable part of academic and professional education".

(Zhang, Zhao, Zhou, & Nunamaker Jr., 2004, p. 79).

"E-learning provides benefits such as access to a wide network of peers, more up-to-date learning resources, and lower training costs".

(Mohammadyari & Singh, 2015, p. 18).

"Since users are not bound by time, the course is available 24/7 and does not require physical attendance which could reduce the social and cultural interaction. The learners may also feel isolated and unsupported while learning since the instructors and instructions are not always available. They may become bored with no interaction".

(Alkharang & Ghinea, 2013, p. 2).

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APPENDIX 3: SAME SEX EDUCATION WRITING TASK

Write a short essay (250-300 words) in which you present an argument **either** *for* or *against* the motion that **girls and boys should be educated separately at all levels of education**.

You should support your argument by making appropriate reference to the sources included below.

"Being able to communicate with the other sex, both in and out of the classroom, is crucial for preparing students for the professional world".
(Henegan, 2014, para. 11).

"I've worked in both singlesex and mixed schools, and know there are good schools of both types. But it has always struck me that mixed schools are much kinder places".

(Cairns & Fraser, 2015, para. 5).

"Studies specifically focused on single-sex schooling claim that such schools benefit students academically, especially males from low-income and minority backgrounds".

(Hubbard & Datnow, 2005. p. 116).

"There will always be exceptions but on the whole, in a mixed classroom, boys tend to dominate discussions, frequently putting themselves forward as leaders in group activities. Girls, meanwhile, are inclined to hold back".

(Cairns & Fraser, 2015, para. 16).

"In 2005, the proportion of A grades achieved at A-level in all-girl independent schools was, on average, 10 per cent higher than that of girls in co-educational independent schools, in all three sciences, maths, further maths, French, history and geography".

(Asthana, 2006, para. 25).

"In general, coeducational-school students and ex-students reported being happier in school; and ex-students from both coeducational and single sex schools (including

those who had attended both types) indicated a decided preference for mixed-sex schooling".

(Schnieder & Coutts, 1982, p. 904).

"Our analyses show that single-sex schools are causally linked with both college entrance exam scores and college-attendance rates for both boys and girls. Attending all-boys schools or all-girls schools, rather than attending coeducational schools, is significantly associated with higher average scores on Korean and English test scores. Compared with coeducational schools, single-sex schools have a higher percentage of graduates who moved on to four-year colleges".

(Park et al., 2013, p. 466).

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APPENDIX 4: QUANTITATIVE DATA CONSENT FORM

Project title: The impact of motivation and self-regulation on L2 students' paraphrasing behaviour in academic writing

Researcher: James Wilby. I am a doctoral student in the department of Linguistics and English Language at Lancaster University.

You are invited to take part in this research study. Please take time to read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of this study?

As part of my Doctoral studies in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at Lancaster University, I am conducting a study that aims to investigate how non-native speakers of English paraphrase what they have read in their academic writing and how this is influenced by motivation (learner goals, self-belief in one's ability, expectancy of task success, and task-value) and self-regulation which is the ability to control one's behaviour and thoughts. Your participation will not affect your performance on your course and your relationship with the university.

What does the study entail?

This study will involve participating in up to two sessions. In the first session you will have to write a short argumentative essay (250 words) and fill in a questionnaire, which will take around 90 minutes in total. The first session will be held in a lecture theatre on the Lancaster University campus and will be supervised by the researcher. After this first session, I will ask you to meet me again on a later date for the second session. In this session you will have to write a similar essay and complete a similar questionnaire to the first session. The essay in this session will be completed on a computer, which has a programme installed that will log your keystroke activity during the task. The second session will be held in a computer laboratory on the Lancaster University Campus and will be supervised by the researcher.

What are the possible benefits from taking part?

Taking part in this study will allow you to reflect on your own experience of academic writing in a foreign/second language university environment. Your insights will contribute to our understanding of how psychological variables affect a second language learners' writing quality and development.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no disadvantages or risks of taking part in this study. Participating in session one will take approximately 90 minutes of your time. Participating in both sessions will take approximately 180 minutes of your time.

Can I withdraw from this study?

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time but not later than one month after either session. If you decide to withdraw within this time period, your data will be destroyed and not included in the study.

Confidentiality and anonymity

All the information obtained if you decide to take part will remain anonymous at every stage of the research. Furthermore, all personally identifiable data (e.g. name, email address etc) will remain confidential. The data will be stored on a password protected computer that conforms to the security policy of the University. Files containing the data will be encrypted. The data will be kept for at least ten years after the end of the project, and thereafter any valuable research data will be deposited in a trusted repository. Only myself and my dissertation supervisor will have access to the data.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only. This will include being published within my doctoral thesis, journal articles and conference presentations.

What if there is a problem?

If you have any queries or if you are unhappy with anything that happens concerning your participation in the study, please contact

My dissertation supervisor

Dr. Judit Kormos

Professor in Second Language Acquisition

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Lancaster University

Lancaster LA1 4YL

United Kingdom

j.kormos@lancaster.ac.uk

Tel:+44-(0)1524-93039

For further information on the project please contact

James Wilby

PhD Student

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Lancaster University

Lancaster LA1 4YL

United Kingdom

j.wilby3@lancaster.ac.uk

Tel:+44-(0)7490-255209

Thank you for considering your participation in this project.

UNIVERSITY OF LANCASTER

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Consent Form

Project title: The impact of motivation and self-regulation on L2 students' paraphrasing behaviour in academic writing

1. I have read and had explained to me by ………………………………… the Information Sheet relating to this project.
2. I have had explained to me the purposes of the project and what will be required of me, and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to the arrangements described in the Information Sheet in so far as they relate to my participation.
3. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project any time but not later than one month after the first session.
4. I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the accompanying Information Sheet.
5. I understand that any information given by me may be used in future reports, articles, publications, or presentations by the research team, but my personal information will not be included, and I will not be identifiable.
6. I understand that my name will not appear in any reports, articles, or presentation without my consent.
7. I understand that any interviews or focus groups will be recorded and that data will be protected on encrypted devices and kept secure.
8. I understand that data will be kept according to University guidelines.
9. I agree to take part in the above study.

Name:_____

Date of
Birth:_____

Signed:_____
_____

Date:_____
_____

APPENDIX 5: EXAMPLE OF TIME 1 ESSAY

Education is certainly a big part in people's life, and it is also significant for our society. That is why people always intend to discover better ways to educate. Therefore, someone may suggest that girls and boys should be educated separately at all levels of education.

There are definitely several advantages to educate people separately into singlesex. Firstly, girls are more likely to have fair chances to play their roles in the classroom, although boys are praised for their leadships. Nowadays, women are encouraged to get equal opportunities whatever it is and hopefully this can be started in classrooms. Second, according to the research in 2005, students in all-girl independent schools achieved a higher rate of A grades at A-level than those in co-educational schools. Last but not least, single-sex schools provide academic supports to their students, particularly those who suffer from low-income and minority background.

Although it seems that single-sex schools play a better role, it is still important to discover the benefits from coeducational schools. It was said that the students in coeducational-schools indicated that they were happier in school, even ex-students and those who had experience in both types were more willing to mixed-sex schooling. Someone who has worked in both types schools stated that mixed ones are much more kinder than single ones.

In conclusion, I would recommend students to be educated in mixed schools. Such schools play a significant place for education. It is more like a small size of our society. What students need to do it not everything about studying or getting higher scores, it is also something about skills of how to adopt this environment and how to get along with different people. Single-sex schools have limited conditions to train students in this aspect of our lives. Even it is said that girls may have some weakness, for example, be dominated by boys during discussion or holding back in group activities, it is still not a good way be keep away from boys. Otherwise, what can we expect girls after leaving schools and joining our society?

APPENDIX 6: EXAMPLE OF TIME 2 ESSAY

Currently, there is an argument on different schooling systems. Some people believe that girls and boys should be taught in single-sex schools in their entire study life because they have higher scores generally, while other people suggest that it is essential to study and live with the other sex. From my own perspective, I agree with the latter view of schooling system.

Admittedly, there are some advantages for single-sex educational system. According to Asthana (2006, para.25)'s study, girls studied in all-girls schools had 10 per cent higher marks than girls studied in mixed schools at A-level through all the subjects in 2005. Students who studies in single-sex schools are more likely to entre higher educational institutions (Park et al., 2013, p.466). Besides, Hubbard & Datnow (2005), p. 116) claimed that boys from poor family have better academic performance in single-sex schools. People recommand single-sex schools also for the drawbacks of mixed schools. Girls cannot fully express their ideas when boys are more active (Cairns & Fraser, 2015, para. 16).

However, single-sex education systems ignore necessarity of communicating between different sex. Henegan (2014, para,11) believed that its is a vital process to study with different sex before step into real society. More importantly, students studied in coeducational schools are surveyed happier (Schnieder & Coutts, 1982, p. 904). As for grades, a generalized result cannot affect an individual outcomes. I believe that a good student can always get great marks no matter he or she is in coeducational schools or single-sex schools. More over, single-sex schools require higher tuition fees in general. This might lead to unfair system of education.

On the whole, although there are some admitted advantages for single-sex schools, students should still treat coeducational-school learning as a vital needful experiences in their entire life. Hence, girls and boys should not be taught in separate systems in their entire study life.

APPENDIX 7: QUALITATIVE DATA CONSENT FORM

Project title: The relationship between motivation, self-regulation, and L2 international students' paraphrasing behaviour and writing achievement over the course of an EAP programme

You are invited to take part in this research study. Please take time to read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of this study?

As part of my Doctoral studies in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at Lancaster University, I am conducting a study that aims to investigate how non-native speakers of English paraphrase what they have read in their academic writing and how this is influenced by motivation and self-regulation which is the ability to control one's behaviour and thoughts. Your participation will not affect your performance on your course and your relationship with the university.

What does the study entail?

This study will involve participating in two sessions in the first and fourth weeks of the EAP course. In the first session you will write a short essay (≈250 words). While you are writing the essay, you will be asked to verbalize what you are thinking during the writing process, and what you say will be recorded. Furthermore, you will be interviewed by the researcher about your motivation and use of learning strategies in relation to academic writing. The second session will follow the same process as the first session.

What are the possible benefits from taking part?

Taking part in this study will allow you to reflect on your own experience of academic writing in a foreign/second language university environment. Your insights will contribute to our understanding of how motivational factors affect a second language learners' writing quality and development.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no disadvantages or risks of taking part in this study. Each session will take approximately 90 minutes to complete, and as a result taking part in both sessions will take a total of approximately 180 minutes of your time.

Can I withdraw from this study?

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time but not later than two weeks after either session. If you decide to withdraw within this time period, your data will be destroyed and not included in the study.

Confidentiality and anonymity

All the information obtained if you decide to take part will remain anonymous at every stage of the research. Furthermore, all personally identifiable data (e.g. name, email address etc) will remain confidential. The data will be stored on a password protected computer that conforms to the security policy of the University. Files containing the data will be encrypted. The data will be kept for at least ten years after the end of the project, and thereafter any valuable research data will be deposited in a trusted repository. Only myself and my dissertation supervisor will have access to the data.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only. This will include being published within my doctoral thesis, journal articles and conference presentations.

What if there is a problem?

If you have any queries or if you are unhappy with anything that happens concerning your participation in the study, please contact

Dr Judit Kormos, Professor in Second Language Acquisition

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Lancaster University, Lancaster LA1 4YL, United Kingdom

j.kormos@lancaster.ac.uk

or the Head of Department, Professor Elena Semino e.semino@lancaster.ac.uk

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Lancaster University, Lancaster LA1 4YL, United Kingdom

Thank you for considering your participation in this project.

UNIVERSITY OF LANCASTER

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Consent Form

Project title: The relationship between motivation, self-regulation, and L2 international students' paraphrasing behaviour and writing achievement over the course of an EAP programme

10. I have read and had explained to me the Information Sheet relating to this project.

11. I have had explained to me the purposes of the project and what will be required of me, and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to the arrangements described in the Information Sheet in so far as they relate to my participation.

12. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project at any time but not later than two weeks after the interview session.

13. I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the accompanying Information Sheet.

14. I understand that any information given by me may be used in the PhD thesis, future reports, articles, publications or presentations by the researcher, but my personal information will not be included and I will not be identifiable.

15. I understand that any interviews will be recorded and that data will be protected on encrypted devices and kept secure. Furthermore, I understand that what I say during the essay writing sessions will be recorded and that data will also be protected on encrypted devices and kept secure.

16. I understand that data will be kept according to University guidelines.

17. I agree to take part in the above study.

Signed:_____
_____

Date:_____
_____

APPENDIX 8: EXAMPLE OF QUALITIVE PHASE PARTICIPANT'S TIME 1 ESSAY

Recent years have witnessed the unprecedented phenomenon that e-learning has increasingly taken up a significant role in our academic life. Radovic-Markovic (2010) demonstrated that the number of traditional classrooms has been reduced. It is heatedly controversial that whether e-learning will eventually replace traditional classroom learning. Different individuals might be in possession of different opinions and attitudes. I am inclined to believe that the advantages of e-learning outweigh its disadvantages and e-learning will finally take the place of traditional classroom learning.

For those who are against e-learning mode, on the one hand, they doubt the practical value and criticize the overuse of e-learning. According to Cook & McDonald (2008), e-learning is nothing magical and mysterious, and it could potentially make some learning situations worse. Additionally, they reiterate the critical need to consider the learning goals and objectives and then determine whether e-learning could contribute. (Cook & McDonald, 2008, p.18). On the other hand, some people have a quite strong nostalgic and reliable feeling for traditional classrooms learning mode. To demonstrate, Zhang, Zhao, Zhou, & Nunameker Jr. (2004) claimed that a large proportion of students would still prefer to go to traditional classrooms if they had a choice because e-learning environments cannot provide a real life experience. Also, some learners may also feel isolated and unsupported while learning since the instructors and instructions are not always available. They may become bored with no interaction. (Alkharang & Ghinea, 2013, p.2).

By contrast, for those who are for e-learning mode, on the one hand, they believe that e-learning is much more efficient and effective than traditional classroom learning mode because e-learning can break the restrictions from space and time. Many respondents, especially those with a public-service mandate, consider online learning key to advancing their mission, placing advanced education within reach of people who might otherwise not be able to access it. (Glenn & D'Agostino, 2008, p.4). Moreover, as Alkharang & Ghinea (2013) mentioned that users are not bound by time, people can learn by themselves at any time as they want. On the other hand, e-learning provides huge benefits such as access to a wide network of peers, more up-to-date learning resources, and lower training costs (Mohammadyari & Singh, 2015, p.18), which create a wider horizon and possibility for the learners.

To sum up, I am for the perspective that e-learning will eventually take place of traditional classroom learning someday. In the context of globalization and big data era, E-learning has already become the new trend of the times, and it has become an inevitable part of academic, educational and professional life.

With less restrictions like space, time and less costs, which traditional classroom learning cannot provided, the day that e-learning replaces traditional classroom learning will triumphantly materialize.

APPENDIX 9: EXAMPLE OF QUALITIVE PHASE PARTICIPANT'S TIME 2 ESSAY

Recent years have witnessed the phenomenon that a discussion on whether girls and boys should be educated separately or not at all levels of education is becoming increasingly heated. For those who are for single-sex schooling, they hold the belief that student can be benefited academically from such schools (Hubbard & Datnow, 2005, p. 116), whereas for those who are for coeducational-school, they are inclined to believe that such environment is good for students' psychological happiness (Schnieder & Coutts, 1982, p.904). From my own perspective, I am inclined to believe that students cultivated in coeducational environment will benefit more than those in single-sex schools. In this essay, I will argue that girls and boys should not be educated separately at all levels of studies. I will first evaluate the statements that are in favour of educating students with regard to their sexualities, then moving on to argue that students educated in coeducational environment will benefit more in the long run. Finally, I will conclude that students by no means could be educated separately solely in regard to their sexualities at all levels of education.

For those who are in favour of separate education in accordance to students' sexualities, there are two main reasons accounting for their attitudes. On the one hand, Hubbard and Datnow (2005, p.116) argue that students will gain an academic improvement during study at single-sex schools, especially boys from poor family and ethnic nations. To demonstrate, Asthana (2006, para. 25) mentions that the ratio of A grades achieved at A-level in all-girl independent schools was overall 10 percent higher than that of girls in coeducational independent schools in all three sciences, maths, further maths, French, history and geography. Similarly, students who attend single-sex schooling perform better, on average, than students attending coeducational schools in the field of both college entrance exam and college attendance rates (Park et al, 2013, p.466). This reflects that students from coeducational schools are more self-disciplined and hard working to some extent. On the other hand, Cairns and Fraser (2015, para. 16) claim that students in coeducational environment are more likely to hinder the development of girls because of the dominance of boys.

While supporters of separate education in accordance to sexualities because students will have a better academic performance and it is good for girls' individual benign development in avoidance of boys' dominance in the short term, I am inclined to believe that students educated in coeducational environment are more likely to cultivate a comprehensive character and live a happier life, which is significantly more important to a person in the long run.

To demonstrate, Henegan (2014, para.11) presents that it is crucially vital for students to study in a coeducational environment which enables them to lay a solid foundation for the occupational career in the future. Moreover, Cairns and Fraser (2015, para.5) claim that mixed-sex schools are much kinder places when it struck to staffs who have worked in both coeducational and single-sex schools. Lastly, it is worth mentioning that coeducational-school students and ex-students tends to be more happier in school and ex-students from both coeducational and single-sex schools still prefer to mixed-sex schooling (Schnieder & Coutts, 1982, p.904). From the aforementioned evidence, it is sound to conclude that students educated in coeducational environment are more likely to cultivate a comprehensive character, lay a solid foundation for their future careers and live a happier life, which are much more significant to the development of a person in the long run.

To sum up, although students will be likely to gain an academic improvement during study at single-sex schools and gain a comparative benign competitive environment, students educated in a coeducational environment will be benefited more in the long run with cultivating of a comprehensive character, laying a solid foundation for their future careers and living a happier life. In conclusion, students could by no means be educated separately solely in regard to their sexualities at all levels of education.

APPENDIX 10: TIME 1 SAMPLE INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

The first set of questions are about your goals about academic writing. So, tell me about your goals relating to academic writing

As for goals I really hope to in the long run because I'm going to find a job in financial, finance industry, you know. Something like fund, mutual fund. So I must, I think I must write some report. Report is very important in that companies, so I think I must learn how to write in academic writing. It will help me to write this report very well in the future.

So, tell me about your efforts in developing your academic writing skills

Well, at first of all I have read a lot of academic articles such as the economist, the articles in the economist and FT times and also some papers and I think I can learn from basic views from this and also I sometimes I will write some academic writing, I will do some academic writing to develop my skills.

Okay, so, do you like to practice outside of school?

Yeah, yeah, yeah. In my spare time when it's the weekend and I don't have anything to do I will write something

Great. Some people think that it's important for other people to think that they are good at academic writing. How do you feel about that? Is it important for you that others see you as a god academic writer?

Yeah, yeah, yeah. I think if you write something you need others to read so I think it's good if others think that your academic writing is good, you know. I think if others think like this I think they are. I think you will also recognise that you in yourself, myself, wow I have a good academic writing skill, yeah

So how do you feel if somebody thinks you are a good academic writer?

Well, I will feel happy and enjoy and so proud of myself

How about if. Does it bother you somebody thinks oh he's not good at academic writing?

No, no, no I think if somebody thought somebody thought that I'm not good at that I will, I have the motivation to improve my academic writing you know. I will not be discouraged. I will just encourage myself to do more practice to improve my skill.

I see. Excellent. Moving onto some different questions now. These are how you feel about your ability as an academic writer. So what do you feel about

your general abilities as an academic writer? You know, your self-belief about your general abilities in academic writing?

Well, you know, sometimes I really think that when I am writing on a topic that I'm not familiar with I will, I think it's very difficult, in my mind I think my academic writing skills are not good you know, but sometimes when the topic is familiar I really think my academic writing is very good, you know.

Sometimes, you know, if you have a hard question and you feel oh I can't do this, do you think this affects how you write?

Yeah, yeah, yeah, you know sometimes it will discourage me. It will lose my confidence in my writing, you know.

How do you feel about your abilities in using as source, using other peoples' words in your own writing, how do you feel about your abilities in that?

Well, I think as for me my ability in this is good not excellent because I have read a lot of articles so I know that when I am writing my articles I know how to use them, when to use them and whether it's good for me to use this other's words.

And so how do you feel about paraphrasing? How do you feel about writing somebody else's words in your own words?

Yeah, yeah, I always use, I always paraphrase other's words. I think it's not good for me to refer to the original one, to write the original one, I just use my own words to paraphrase their idea, their something like that.

Are you confident doing that in English? When you have to do this in English, how do you feel about that?

Well, I think you know, I think I still have confidence in it because my english is not that bad. I have learned English for nearly six years so I think it's good for me

So how do you feel about writing in an academic style? You know, you have come to a university in England, do feel you can write in this academic style that is required at an English university

No, I should say, the first time the tutor told us to write an article about the international student, about difficulties international students will meet and she gave us two articles to use. Well I think it's different from what we write in China. At the start I thought it would be difficult for me. You know I haven't read that so I still can't know that.

Okay, so, do you feel you might have difficulty writing in an academic style, do you feel it might be challenging, do you feel you have the ability to do this? To write in the academic style.

Yeah, I think, you know, I have done well in China in my university at my undergraduate, so I think maybe at first it's difficult, it will be difficult for me but I think if I concentrate my attention on that I will, I think it's not so difficult task for me.

So let's move onto some questions, these are about learning strategies. So, what kind of strategies do you use before, during, and after writing an essay?

During writing the task first thing I will do is read the topic and then think something in my mind and decide what I'm going to write and then make a draft after using my pen on some paper, not the formal paper, some informal paper, and like the bullet point, the key point of every paragraph and then I will follow this bullet point and try to explain them and also that I will look at the essay and try to find something inappropriate, if not correct and try to modify it, try to change iy and finally it will be my task.

Okay, so when you have finished your essay what do you do? What is the final thing you do once you have finished the essay?

Well sometimes I just let it be you know, and sometimes I will show it to my friends, my classmates to say whether there is something I need to improve

In the essay you wrote yesterday, what kind of strategies did you use when you were trying to paraphrase or when you were trying to use the source texts? You know there were a number of sources, when you were writing did you have any strategies or ways of using those sources?

Well, you know, yesterday in my task I, well I found there is something I can write in original you know and some other sources I use my own words to paraphrase them and to prove my own opinion

You said some of them you though about keeping the original words, so what made you have that decision?

When it's talking about the disadvantages I saw one source is provide enough information, is very good, so I just use it in original.

So let's move on. Now these questions are related to how much you enjoy academic writing. So what aspects of academic writing do you find the most interesting?

Well I think the most interesting part of academic writing is something before the starting, you know, reading the topic and then make a draft, I really enjoy that process, I think that's the most interesting part for me, yeah.

In general when you are writing an essay is this something that you love to do or do you just do it because you have to do it?

Sometimes if I find this topic that the teacher asks me to do I have done it before I think I have an inclination to deny it because I have done it before I just don't want to do and before i think I have done a better job so I don't want to do it again. Sometimes I think always the teacher provides the topic I have not read before so I am willing to do it

When you were writing the essay yesterday, what kind of feelings and emotions did you have when you were writing that essay?

Well, I think the topic you provide is not difficult, you know, so I feel it's very easy for me so I maybe happy, maybe comfortable, you know, I had no difficulties in writing it

So you felt happy, comfortable, did this affect how you wrote? Did it affect how well you write? Or how quickly you wrote?

I think you know, I am the second one to finish that task so I think its very, although because I have take part, taken part in IELTS test before, so I think that that task is familiar with something I have written in the IELTS test. That patterns, you know. In China, some educational institutions told to write IELTS writing like that model so I think it's….(laughter)

How will you use academic writing skills in your future course? Once you've finished this EAP course , in the future will these academic writing skills be important on your future course?

Yeah yeah yeah, I have heard from a student from they have graduated from our university. He told me that there are a lot of academic writings in my major, so I think its very good if I practice now and yeah.

Do you think when after you have finished your course, when you start your work, do you think it will be an important skill as well?

Yeah, I have said it before, I want to get a job in financial market, financial company so I really, I must write some reports about a company to analyse some things so I thinks it's good for me to, for my future job, yeah.

I've got a few questions about paraphrasing, so using other peoples' work in your own words. How do you feel when you have to use another writer's work

in your own writing? How does that make you feel when you have to use someone else's work in your own writing?

I think it's alright, you know. Sometimes I think the authors idea is really really good so I can use them in my article to prove my own idea

So you feel perfectly comfortable doing this?

Yeah, yeah, yeah

Some people think it's easier to use a direct quotation rather than paraphrasing, so what do you think about that?

I think sometimes it may be good if you use direct quotation you can save time but I think it's not good for us to practice our writing skills, you know, just have a direct quotation I think is not good as for paraphrasing.

Why do you think that?

You know, when you are paraphrasing the other author's ideas or something like this I think it's a good way to, is also a good way to practice and to improve your skills you know. Just direct quotation, you just know the idea, you can't improve anything, you just copy the idea, you can't improve your own skills.

Plus when you're paraphrasing you're showing a little bit of our opinion, you know, you're taking somebody else's words but you're also giving it your own personal touch as well. So you can write it in maybe a more positive way or a more negative way, you can show more of your feeling if you paraphrase.

Yeah, your own opinions, you know, your own styles

One more question. What are the differences in using sources between China, because you get undergraduate in China, between a university in China and a university in the UK, how do you use sources differently, how do you paraphrase, how do you directly quote?

Well, I think I have been at Lancaster University for nearly four days so I don't really know that, so I can't answer this question clearly.

So how about you tell me, okay, in China, what is the practice of using other peoples', sources in your own writing? Do you paraphrase? Do you directly quote? What is the general practice about this?

Well I think most of the time I paraphrase, but sometimes, you know I have said, if the idea, if I think the author's idea is real really good, I can use it directly, so I think sometimes I will use that

So when you directly quote in China do you mention the author's name or do you just take the words directly?

P: Well I think most of the time I take it directly

In China is that okay?

Yeah, you know in China we don't put emphasis on that, but yesterday I listened to a speech, wow, in the UK it's really emphasis on that, you know.

So maybe you don't know now but maybe you can have an idea that it's quite different how we use other peoples' work and how it's a very serious topic

In China we really don't pay attention to that

APPENDIX 11: TIME 2 SAMPLE INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Tell me about your goals related to academic writing. Have they changed from week one to week four?

Well I think my goals really not change a lot I think my goals are always to write a good essay. Yeah, I think that's always my goal; I don't change a lot.

How about how much effort you put into developing your academic writing skills? Has that changed?

Yeah yeah, I think the most apparent effort that I develop during this EAP class is that I am trying to read some English academic papers. I think it's a really good way to improve my academic writing. I think they might be a little different to what we have learnt in China, so I think it's a really good way. During this course I have read some.

Has your opinion about what other people think about you as being a good writer changed?

I think I have really changed a lot, because in the first week in the EAP class we wrote an essay, an assignment, before that I thought I was ready, I told my teacher that I hope I wrote so excellent, so good, just like I wrote before in China, but, after, when it was it was tutorial I was talking with my teacher, she said it was good but there are some things to improve, some words; for example you shouldn't use but, but use however. I have a lot of these small mistakes in my article; I think after that I thought, my teacher told me I should make sense easier for the readers to understand so after that I thought others' opinion about article is really important, so during the rest of the class I really improve my learning; for example for the third assignment the tutor told me that I really improve a lot.

How did that make you feel?

I actually feel excited. I really improved. Before that I was so confident about my writing, but after the tutor point out some mistakes I thought there are a lot of things I have to do to improve it, so I worked on improving my writing.

From week one to week four, how do you feel about your ability that you can write in an academic way?

I should say the most important thing I have learnt from this EAP class is that I won't ever write task introduction, body and a conclusion, and I know how to wrote in an introduction, you should contain the main articles, the main points in your introduction and your conclusion and body paragraph evidence, I think I have a more clear structure about what I'm going to write you know, before

I've going to write in that assignment I think it's the most important thing I have learned.

So do you feel more confident as an academic writer?

After this clear logical structure. After learning about this clear logical structure I think maybe I will in the future I will get some assignment which I am not familiar with but I have this logical assignment structure so I think it's, or maybe the topic is difficult but I think it's not difficult for me to write when I feel confident, it's the confidence I gain in the EAP class, the first week. I think that kind of confidence is mistook, is something like self confidence.

When you were writing the essay did you feel more confident doing that than the first week?

Yeah, yeah , yeah. At the first week you provide us some writing resources, but you know I really don't know how to deal with that, but after the EAP class, and then you provide some other resources I thought, I think I have some way to deal with it, and how to use it in my article, use the references to prove my opinion, I think it's really good.

Do you feel confident that you can use sources into your own writing now?

Yeah, yeah , yeah. Just taking an example, for example, in the citation I can use the author's name, and the year, and paraphrase his main opinion and then write them in my article, I think it's also a good way to not only to prove my opinion but also the good way to improve the whole academic writing, the quality of the whole academic writing.

So do you feel more confident now that you can avoid plagiarism compared to before?

Yes. Before the I have taken some IELTS test and in this test we really pay no attention to the reference, we just if we have something, if I remember something from some other author's article I just write it with no efforts and I think it maybe it's not good for me to me prove my ability, just write it, but now in the after learning the importance of reference, if I have some, I can use it in my article I think it's very good and important.

Do you feel more confident writing in an academic style than before?

I think maybe a little more confident. Sometimes, maybe I think now I'm not get much familiar with this kind of academic writing in England, because just practice nearly three assignment and so I think I need more practice to strengthen it.

Think about week one and think about week four. What kinds of strategies do you use when you're writing an essay, before you write, during you're writing, after you're writing, have you got any new strategies for when you're writing to help you write better?

Yeah. I just have said before. Before I was writing in the week one I just wrote the, I really don't write something before I was going to writing, just write, or have something in mind then write, but now I can make some clear structure of the whole assignment for example, introduction, what I'm going to write in the introduction, and the body, what is my opinion, and maybe what evidence I should provide to improve my opinion and a conclusion, I think this is more clear.

When you were writing the essay for me, do you have any different strategies from week one to week four?

In the week one I just write and don't have any other sense before I was going to write, but in week four I had a clear structure of what I'm going to write.

During writing did you do anything to make your writing better? Were you checking it while you were writing?

During my writing, I just write some something according to my structure I made before my writing, so I think it's not, but in week one I just write something if I happen to remember it then write it, I have something in my mind and then write it, don't have something, just write write write, but in week four I write according to the clear structure, i think that is the main change.

Think about your strategies for paraphrasing other peoples' writing, have those changed from week one to week four.

Yeah, you know in week one I don't now how to paraphrase I just use the others' article, maybe arrange the words from others' articles, but in the week four I think I must paraphrase them not use the original words so I think that is….

Do you have any strategies for paraphrasing? Any techniques?

The first think is that use different words, but they mainly have the same meaning, and I think, I forgot the exact point, and the second one is use some different, maybe use passive structure, maybe the author said some thing is good but I will change it to another to another way to say it.

Compared to week one and week four do you find academic writing more interesting and in what ways?

I think writing is not interesting and I think it's just a task I need to finish. I think it's the same as I feel in the week one.

How about when you're essays now are your feelings and emotions the same or different?

I think it's not different, the same.

How about when you're writing my essay? Was there any different feelings or emotions when you were writing that?

Maybe I find the when I am writing in the week four maybe I think I have some, I find it is easier to write than the task I write in week one.

Why did you find it easier do you think?

I have learnt for nearly four weeks, so I know how to write in English more appropriate, more accurate, and more formal you know. I think I'm more, I have more confidence.

Think about how useful academic writing is to you? Do you think your opinion about how useful it is has changed from week one to week four?

No. I think it still not change because I have told in the week one interview, I think because the I want to get a job in the financial industry so i think now if I'm good at writing academic writing I think it's really really good for me for my future job.

Now some questions about paraphrasing. Compared to week one and week four how do you feel about using other peoples' work in your own work?

Yeah. In week one I really have no idea about this I just use others' directly and don't care about the year and the author's name and just use it, but in week four I get more understanding about paraphrase. You should use others' name and the year and need to change some words or the structure to not use the original one.

Do you think direct quotation is easier or paraphrasing is easier? What do you think compared week one to week four? Which do you use more and why?

I think paraphrase now I use more because the tutor told us don't use the original words from the other author's article so nearly, maybe some in my assignment I just use maybe a sentence, a little sentence for direct quotation, but I think most of the, the rest of the reference I will paraphrase it.

Knowing what you've learnt so far on the course, how do you feel about the similarities and differences between English and Chinese attitudes to using sources and to plagiarism?

Actually I think one of the most important difference between Chinese and English academic is that in China we don't use reference, we just maybe just original words from others' articles, don't paraphrase them, and don't use anything to cite the where the source is come from but now my attitude really changed and I need to paraphrase, I need to use the authors name and also write the number of this article, so I think this is the main changes.