DYNAMIC INTERACTION OF FACTORS INFLUENCING UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' ACADEMIC WRITING PRACTICES IN ENGLISH: A CASE STUDY IN TURKEY

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2015

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Dissertation submitted to the

Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

English Language Education

by

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2015

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Derya Altınmakas, certify that

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- this thesis contains no material that has been submitted or accepted for a degree or diploma in any other educational institution;
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ABSTRACT

Dynamic Interaction of Factors Influencing University Students' Academic Writing Practices in English: A Case Study in Turkey

The study investigates the dynamic interaction of educational and contextual factors influencing Turkish university students' academic writing practices. The main participants of the study were twelve freshman year and seven senior year students studying English as a major at a foundation university in Turkey. Qualitative research design and data collection methodologies were employed for the purposes of the study. The main data of the study was obtained from multiple sources: (1) background questionnaire, (2) semi-structured interviews, (3) elicited narratives and stimulated recall interviews, and (4) document analysis. The secondary participants of the study were three English language teachers and six faculty members from the context of the study. Four semi-structured interviews and one focus group interview were conducted with the teacher participants. To draw a more comprehensive picture of the writing situation, the main findings of the study were cross-analyzed with the results obtained from the interviews conducted with teacher participants.

The findings suggest that Turkish university students' academic writing practices are influenced by an array of multiple interrelating factors: (1) past L1 and L2 writing knowledge and experience, (2) teachers' attitudes toward writing, (3) students' perceptions about academic writing and disciplinary-specific text genres, (4) prolonged engagement with the academic context and discourse, and (5) expectations of faculty members. The insights gained from the study have important implications for the writing situation in Turkey and for similar cases in other EFL contexts.

ÖZET

Üniversite Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Akademik Yazma Yetilerini Etkileyen Faktörler arasındaki Dinamik İlişki: Türkiye'den örnek bir durum çalışması

Bu çalışmada üniversite öğrencilerinin İngilizce akademik yazma yetilerini etkileyen eğitimsel ve bağlamsal faktörlerin dinamik ilişkisi incelenmektedir. Çalışmanın ana katılımcıları Türkiye'deki bir vakıf üniversitesinde İngiliz dili ve edebiyatı alanında lisans eğitimi gören birinci ve son sınıf öğrencilerinden oluşmaktadır. Çalışmayı gerçekleştirmek için nitel araştırma yöntemi benimsenmiştir. Bu bağlamda nitel veri toplama teknikleri kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın verileri çoklu kaynaklardan edinilmiştir: (1) anket, (2) yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler, (3) söyletimli anlatı ve çağrışım tekniğine dayalı görüşmeler ve (4) belge (doküman) inceleme. Çalışmanın ikincil katılımcıları dört İngilizce öğretmeni ve çalışmanın bağlamında görev alan altı öğretim üyesidir. Bu katılımcılar ile dört yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme ve bir odak grup görüşmesi yapılmıştır. Bağlam içindeki yazma durumunu kapsamlı bir şekilde açıklayabilmek için çalışmanın ana verileri ikincil katılımcılardan edinilen veriler ile karşılaştırılarak incelenmiştir.

Çalışmanın bulguları üniversite öğrencilerinin İngilizce akademik yazma pratiklerinin birbiri ile ilişkili birçok faktörden etkilendiğini ortaya koymuştur. Bu faktörler: (1) öğrencilerin birinci ve ikinci dil kullanımlarındaki yazma bilgileri ve deneyimleri; (2) öğretmenlerin yazmaya yönelik tutumları; (3) öğrencilerin akademik yazma ve disiplinlerine özgün yazın türlerine yönelik algıları; (4) öğrencilerin akademik söylem ve akademik bağlam içerisinde geçirdikleri zaman ve deneyim; ve (5) öğretim üyelerinin beklentileridir. Bulgulardan elde edilen sonuçlar Türkiye ve benzer bağlamlardaki yazma durumu için önemli önermeler ortaya koymuştur.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to express my profound gratitude to my committee members, professors, colleagues, friends, and family – without whom the completion of this dissertation would have been impossible.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor and mentor, Professor Yasemin Bayyurt. I am profoundly thankful to Professor Bayyurt for providing me with guidance throughout my doctoral study, sharing with me her invaluable knowledge and insights about my research field, introducing me to renowned scholars and associations of our field, for her endless personal and professional support, and finally for making all the journeys we have made to distant parts of the world so memorable.

I owe genuine thanks to my dissertation committee members Assoc. Prof. Çiler Hatipoğlu, Assoc. Prof. Leyla Martı, Assoc. Prof. Sumru Akcan, and Assist. Prof. Aylin Ünaldı for their generous comments and invaluable contributions to my study.

I am also indebted to Professor Cem Alptekin, Professor Ayşe Akyel, Assoc. Prof. Belma Haznedar, and Assoc. Prof. Gülcan Erçetin for their contribution to my academic and professional growth, and showing me new ways of seeing.

I would also like to offer my sincere gratitude to Professor Dursun Koçer, Professor Nebile Direkçigil, Professor Yusuf Eradam, Professor Ömür Ceylan, and Assoc. Prof. Zekiye Antakyalıoğlu, and Pınar Besen (*you will always be remembered with your colors*) for all their personal and professional support, and for making me feel at home in the workplace. I owe thanks to Professor Feza Kerestecioğlu for his support and for being such a kind host.

My very special thanks go to my colleagues and friends Assist. Prof. Selen Aktari Sevgi (*you always make my days brighter*), Assist. Prof. Ayşem Seval (*your unreserved support and all our memories mean a lot),* Assist. Prof. Esin Akalın, Assist. Prof. Kayhan Şahan, and R.A. Utku Ali Yıldırım for their irreplaceable friendship, unwavering support, and making everything possible for me to complete this dissertation. I am deeply grateful to R.A. Tuğba Şabanoğlu for helping me with the verbatim translations of the interview excerpts, accompanying me till late hours at office, making me laugh, and for her supportive big blue eyes.

I am very grateful to the students and teachers who participated in my study and shared their insights and personal experiences. I also owe special thanks to the head of department who gave me the opportunity to conduct this study. A big *thank you* goes to my former and present students for making me start this journey, and for all the shine in their eyes.

My heartfelt thanks go to my friends. Dr. Zeynep Koçer and Dr. Hande Gürses; thank you respectively for all the laughter, good cheer, holidays, encouragement, and continuously making me believe that *it is possible*. Dr. Sevdeğer Çeçen; *without you* the completion of this dissertation would not have been possible; thank you for making my doctoral journey a *very* memorable one from the *very* first day and for being the greatest support and company of this journey, and yes *we will always be victorious*. Dr. Şebnem Yalçın; thank you for being such a great person, and for your love, companionship, and endless encouragement. Dr. Hande Serdar Tülüce, Dr. Pınar Ersin, Elif Kemaloğlu, and Mine Derince; thank you for all your support and being such good friends one can have in a doctoral program. I owe many thanks to my all other closest friends for making life more bearable and for all the joy they have brought to my life throughout the last ten years.

Burak Gündüz, thank you for your unconditional love and support, and never-failing sympathy and encouragement.

Finally, I would like to express my infinite gratitude to two very special persons in my life. My father – Bedri Altınmakas; I really wish you could see and celebrate with me what I had been accomplishing for the past eleven years of my life, but I feel you are always there for me as my guardian angel – thank you. And my mother – Nurcihan Altınmakas; words are not enough to express my gratitude to you. I am so proud to be your daughter, and I am so glad that you are my mom. *THANK YOU*.

DEDICATION

To my mother,

Nurcihan Altınmakas.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The self of the researcher

Designing this study, conducting my research and writing my PhD dissertation was a long, compelling, and rewarding journey. The whole process took approximately two and a half years of my life; however, now I feel that the last ten years of my life had prepared me to research and write about this topic: dynamics of academic writing. Thus, before I start *academically* to report my study, I want to explain very briefly what has led me to start this journey.

I was born in 1980 in Istanbul, Turkey. My first encounter with English language dates back to early years of my childhood. During my childhood and early years of my adolescence, I was so much engaged with the popular images and cultural products of the 1980s. I adored popular music, films, and magazines, and I admired the grown-ups around me who were able to understand all of these in the original language, English. Thus, when I started to study in English with a scholarship in a private school at the age of eleven, I think I was the happiest person on earth. I was so excited that I would finally be able to understand lyrics of all the songs that I loved, read and understand the news in English magazines, be able to watch my favorite movies in their original language, and most importantly I would be able to travel abroad and make friends from all over the world. With thisvery intrinsic motivation, I think I paid the utmost attention and effort to my English classes, and I became that modelstudent appraised for her rapid foreign language development in school. When I recall back on those years, I can very clearly

remember how I was using English intensively almost in all areas of my life for expressive and educational purposes. I was listening to music in English, writing my diaries in English, writing letters to my pen friends in English, and studying most of my courses in English at school. Although I was very much engaged with English, during my high school years I had no incentive to study English at university, perhaps thinking that English had already become an indispensable part of my life. My target was either to study architecture or psychology at university. Like every other Turkish student in high school, it was high time for me to get started to prepare for the university entrance examination, and both of the disciplines I mentioned above required me to score higher results from the mathematics and science sections of the exam. However, due to the pleasure I took from my extracurricular activities – such as participating in sports and drama clubs at school – I did not want to spend the final two years of my high school life with boring preparation tests and after-school tutorials, which would only practically enable me to pass the university entrance exam. With these reasons in mind, I decided to study at a program related to English at university because this would allow me to answer only foreign language and social science related questions of the exam, and I was already very good at both. I was very self-confident that without much effort I would be able to study either English literature or English language teaching in one of the distinguished universities of Istanbul, and it all happened exactly in the way I had anticipated.

I had the chance to enroll in English Language Teaching undergraduate program at one of the best Turkish universities. When I started the program, I had no idea about what exactly the program entailed. However, I fairly knew that I would be learning things related to pedagogy in addition to English literature. During the four years of my undergraduate studies, I loved my university, the program, my

professors, the courses, my friends, and finally my profession. I was very much looking forward to practicing my profession. Upon graduation, most of my friends took the Public Personnel Selection Examination and started working as English language teachers at state schools. In my opinion, this was a legitimately made decision as one is considered to guarantee his/her future in Turkey by working under the secure arms of the government. Although I took the same examination and attained a very high score, I decided to work at a private institution. Based on my teaching practicum experience at state schools, I knew that I would not be able to implement what I had learnt at university in real classroom settings of state schools due to large class sizes and lack of facilities, and that I would not be able to develop my teaching skills to the fullest extent. Moreover, starting from the first years of my undergraduate studies, being inspired by my professors at university I had always planned to pursue an academic career, and my aim was to go to the United Kingdom for postgraduate degree after gaining the required minimum two years of experience in language teaching. Thus, I worked in a private primary school for two years. I was very lucky because I had the opportunity to work in an extremely supportive context with wonderful people who shared with me all their knowledge and expertise about English language teaching and material development. Moreover, I had the chance to gain substantial amount of experience by teaching students – from the 3rd grade to 11th grade – with varying levels of English proficiency.

In 2004, I was admitted to study a Master's program at one of the most distinguished British universities. I was very much confident about my capabilities until I was asked to write a trial academic essay in the second week of my arrival to the UK. The assignment required us to read three academic articles provided by our personal tutors and to write a synthesis of the issues discussed in those articles based

on the academic writing guidelines provided by the department. We were informed that we would not be assessed by this assignment and that this procedure was being implemented both for native and non-native students for diagnostic purposes – namely to see to what extent we could write academic texts. This was relatively a shock to me because it was the first time that I had been asked to write an academic essay like this. During my undergraduate years, I remember taking some academic writing courses but what I had produced did not go beyond writing five-paragraph essays on general topics. I did write short essays in examinations and prepared written assignments for some of my courses but most of them were rather expressive in nature, and no one had ever mentioned these strict academic writing conventions, and that plagiarism was a big sin that could even expel you from the university. We were given two weeks of time to complete the assignment, and I genuinely tried my best.

I can never forget the day I received my feedback. When I visited my personal tutor in her office and saw my paper in her hand entirely in redcolor with feedback on almost every line, I wanted to go back home. Although my personal tutor was very supportive and constructive with her feedback, I felt so disheartened, helpless and incompetent; I could not see the light at the end of the tunnel. I became fully aware of what was being expected from me to attain this degree. I remember calling my mother and crying over the telephone. My academically and socially self-confident nature was swept away simply by a 2000-word paper. Just as I was drowning in a big ocean, I suddenly felt the urge to swim back onto the surface again. I was there and I had to do it; I had to put aside what I had already known about writing, and I had to learn writing academically. To develop my meta-knowledge about academic writing, I attended a few seminars on academic writing

provided by the university. While I was doing my readings for the courses and assignments, in addition to learning about the content, I was rigorously analyzing the articles and books in terms of their register, structure, organization of ideas, and use of referencing and citation formats, and I was taking notes about these. With each assignment I completed and with each feedback I received, my academic writing skills improved. Finally, I successfully completed the program and received my MA degree in a year.

When I returned to Turkey in 2005, I attained a teaching position as a lecturer at a private university in Istanbul, and in 2008 I started my PhD Studies. I was asked to teach language-based courses such as academic writing, speaking and listening skills, linguistics, and research methodology to undergraduate students in the department of English language and literature. In the department, there was no one to guide me about how to design my courses or develop materials for my courses. As a teacher who has received a very restricted amount of formal academic writing instruction, I tried to design my courses based on my notes from my own undergraduate study, what academic writing textbooks suggested, and the knowledge that I gained during my postgraduate experience. However, I remember feeling very confident about what I was doing. After all, I was a survivor of academic writing. Now that I recall on these very first years of my teaching experience at university, I can understand that my confidence was solely related to my fresh experience with academic writing. It did not take me too long to observe how my students were struggling with academic writing. Even if they started with baby steps such as writing topic sentences and paragraphs based on particular organizational patterns, students' written texts did not meet my expectations. I was returning their assignments all in red with detailed feedback mostly focusing on the content – i.e.

meaning and relevancy of the evidence to support their ideas, and the format and organization of ideas. With my colleagues in the department, we were constantly complaining about how students lacked train of thought, language proficiency, and academic writing skills, namely about how poorly they wrote. Each year, I was trying to redesign my academic writing courses and develop new materials depending on my observation about the language proficiency level and needs of my students. However, no matter how hard I tried, the results were always the same. Some students were struggling; their self-confidence was gradually fading away with each feedback and exam result, and my colleagues and I were still complaining. One day, at a departmental meeting we were again talking about some students' inept writing skills. At that moment, I suddenly felt disturbed by the idea that we, people with PhDs, academic publications, several years of writing experience, were severely criticizing our students who – in reality – had almost no previous experience with writing, let alone academic writing. It seemed we had all forgotten about the criticisms we received about our writing from our own professors, supervisors or reviewers. As a person coming from more or less a similar educational system and background, I was aware of the fact that the challenges my students faced were stemming largely from lack of explicit writing instruction and their inexperience with writing. What I had realized about my own personal case after so many years of teaching academic writing was that what I lacked at the time when I received my red-coloredpaper back was not related to my English proficiency or ability to put words and sentences together in a long essay. Yet, it was related to my lack of train of thought in an academic manner and my lack of experience with academic writing. At that moment, I became fully aware of the importance of understanding the factors influencing my students' writing practices by turning the microphone to them.

Therefore, this study is an attempt of a teacher/ researcher who tries to understand the roots of students' challenges with academic writing. This is, perhaps, a self-criticism of a teacher who unknowingly — sometimes severely — had criticized her students for their lack of critical thinking and writing skills. Above all, this is an attempt of an educator who aims to voice the unvoiced problems of university students about academic writing with the hope of providing some solutions about the issue by creating awareness among the other educators from different levels.

1.2 Background and significance of the study

Academic writing in English is of vital importance for university students majoring in English-medium undergraduate programs and higher education (HE) institutions. Academic achievements of university students are determined by the texts they produce in English. University students navigate their learning in English; they learn the content knowledge of their academic disciplines, and they are expected to negotiate and externalize their discipline specific content knowledge producing academic text in different genres for a variety of purposes. Most university students in settings where English is taught and learnt as a foreign language (EFL) face problems due to the nature of academic register, academic writing conventions, and the dynamics of the academic setting in addition to psychological, educational and linguistic factors.

In Turkey, an EFL setting, many students opt to study in English-medium undergraduate programs mainly for instrumental purposes. Hence, attaining the desired level of competence and fluency in academic writing in English becomes an

important indicator of students' academic achievements as mentioned above. However, it is observed that Turkish university students experience difficulties with academic writing when they start their undergraduate studies. University tutors attribute the deficiencies they observe in students' writing to students' low level of language proficiency and their lack of critical thinking skills. Moreover, university tutors perceive students' insufficient academic writing skills as a shortcoming, which should have been resolved before they came to the department. They do not take into consideration the students' lack of practice and background in academic writing when making judgments about their existing writing skills. However, the reasons for students' difficulties with academic writing are beyond their inept application of academic writing knowledge to the texts they produce. It is more about the challenges students face when they are trying to accommodate their existing writing knowledge to the requirements of the new writing and learning situation. Therefore, research that exploresstudents' academic writing practices should investigate the factors influencing students' academic writing practices from a wider perspective.

Research on second/foreign language academic writing emphasize the distinctive characteristics of EFL settings and the challenges students encounter when they are asked to produce texts in English at academic level. Studies emphasized the influence of dynamic interaction of factors such as first language (L1) and second language (L2) writing instruction/experience, disciplinary knowledge/training, individual factors, and social context influencing L2 writing practices in EFL settings. Previous studies investigated the L2/ academic writing situation in EFL contexts from the following perspectives: (1) local educational values attached to writing (Breeze, 2012; Leki, 2009; Reichhelt, 2009), (2) the amount and nature of previous L1 and L2 writing instruction and experience (Breeze,

2012; Hirose, 2003; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2001, 2002; Kubota, 1997; Liebman, 1992; Manchỏn & Roca de Larios, 2007; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996), (3) text generating processes and strategies of L2 students (Aliakbari, 2002; Lei, 2008; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Uysal, 2008); (4) the amount of L2/academic writing practice (Cumming, 2009; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2012; Sasaki, 2009), (5) the challenges L2 academic writing imposes on students with different L1 backgrounds (Al- Badwawi, 2011; Grabe, 2001; Harklau, 2001; Hirvela, 2011; Hyland, 2002; Hyland, 2007; Leki, 2001; Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999) , and (6) how students' L2/ academic writing practices are affected by teachers' conceptualizations of academic/ L2 writing and approaches to teaching of writing (Al-Badwawi, 2011; Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995; Ballard & Clanchy,1991; Casaneve, 2004; Hyland, 2002; Johns, 1991; Lea & Street, 1998; Leki & Carson, 1997).

In Turkey, only a few studies have investigated undergraduate students' academic writing practices particularly in terms of students' writing anxieties, and students' approaches toward specific types of writing instruction (Atay & Kurt, 2006; Kurt & Atay 2007; Yaylı, 2011). These studies employed inventories, questionnaires and interviews as data collection methods. Studies dealing particularly with undergraduate students' writing anxieties (Atay & Kurt, 2006; Kurt & Atay 2007) highlighted students' major difficulties with text-generating processes, and pointed to the effect of students' teachers and their past L2 writing experiences on their anxieties with academic writing. The findings, however, remained at a diagnostic level; the studies did not further investigate the underlying integral components of these factors affecting students' academic writing practices. There is a need to carry out an in-depth analysis of the issue to be able to propose further

suggestions and solutions for academic writing difficulties experienced by undergraduate students. This study, therefore, will try to fill a gap in the literature by investigating the interplay of potential factors influencing undergraduate students' academic writing practices

The target audience of the study is primarily academics lecturing in undergraduate programs because they are the main audience for whom students are writing, and the main authorities that determine the academic achievements of students. The second target audiences are secondary school teachers (L1 and L2), preparatory school English language teachers and pre-service English language teachers; they can benefit from the study by reflecting on how their approaches to teaching of writing influence students' prospective writing practices. The final target audience is second/foreign language writing researchers who investigate students' academic writing practices, particularly from the perspectives of sociocultural and academic literacies approaches. The study, reflecting the Turkish case, will contribute to the field of second/foreign language writing research.

1.3 Purpose of the study and research questions

This study aims to provide a deeper understanding of the dynamic interaction of factors influencing Turkish undergraduate university students' academic writing practices in English. The study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What educational and contextual factors influence Turkish university students' academic writing practices in English?
2. What are the educational factors that university students perceive to be influential in their academic writing practices?

3. What are the contextual factors that university students perceive to be influential in their academic writing practices?
4. How do teachers' attitudes toward L2 writing and their expectations from students affect university students' writing practices?

1.4 Definition of key terms

The definitions of key terms are presented in alphabetical order:

Educational Factors: These refer to the factors shaped and regulated by students' past schooling and foreign language learning/writing experiences, and how these factors exert influence on undergraduate students' current academic writing practices.

EFL Setting/ Context: Expanding circle (Kachru, 1992) countries where English is learnt and taught as a foreign language. In these contexts, English is not used as a second or official language, and it is not the medium of local communication. English is taught as a school subject, and most people learn English for instrumental purposes.

Contextual Factors: These refer to the factors stemming from the context of the study such as institutional culture, discipline specific culture, faculty members, and requirements of the department, and how these factors exert influence on undergraduate students' academic writing.

L1 Writing: This refers to students' knowledge and experience of Turkish language writing. The term entails the amount and nature of Turkish writing instruction and practice students received prior to university education.

L2 Writing: This refers to students' knowledge and experience of English language writing. The term entails the amount and nature of English writing instruction and practice students received prior to university education.

Repertoire of Writing Knowledge: This term refers to the "cognitive construct comprising the entire inventory of knowledge about L1 and L2 writing acquired by the writer to date" (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2012, p.106). In addition to L1 and L2 writing knowledge, the term also entails topic knowledge, genre knowledge and disciplinary knowledge.

Secondary School: In the Turkish national education system, secondary school education corresponds to high school education. Primary school education encompasses the first eight years of compulsory education; secondary school education constitutes the last four years of compulsory education.

Writing Practice: The term entails all the processes and experiences writers go through in producing a piece of written work under any given psychological or sociocultural circumstances.

Writing Situation: This refers to the dynamic interaction of various factors involved in the writing practices of people in any given context. The term comprises the amount and characteristics of students' previous writing instruction and experiences, students' content or disciplinary knowledge (if any, at academic level), and how all these – interacting with individual differences (i.e. perceptions, preferences, values, attitudes, motivation, language proficiency) – are reflected in students' written texts.

1.5 Organization of the dissertation

The dissertation consists of five chapters. Following this Introduction chapter, Chapter 2 will present a comprehensive review of the literature with references to a historical overview of second language (L2) writing research, characteristics of writing in EFL contexts, approaches to student writing in higher education (HE), the theoretical framework for the study, and finally writing as a language skill in Turkey and second language writing research in Turkey. Chapter 3 will present research design and methodology. The chapter will first explain the rationale for adopting an interpretivist research paradigm and qualitative research design for the study. Then, the chapter will proceed with a detailed description of the setting and the participants, which will be followed by an explanation of data elicitation and data analysis procedures, and will end by explaining the trustworthiness and ethical considerations of the study. Chapter 4 will present the main findings of the study, highlighting the key issues from participants' perspectives, and discuss the findings in relation to the existing literature. Chapter 5 will present the conclusion and implications to be drawn from the main findings of the study, ending with the limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and personal concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study aims to investigate educational and contextual factors influencing Turkish undergraduate university students' academic writing experiences through their own voices with regard to the unique characteristics of Turkey as an EFL setting. In line with the purposes of the study, this section is organized under five main areas of inquiry in relation to the existing literature: L2 language writing research, characteristics of EFL writing, academic writing, writing as a language skill in Turkey, and research on academic writing in English in Turkey.

The first part of the literature review aims to provide a historical overview of the changing notions, areas of inquiry, and research paradigm pertaining to second language (L2) writing research over the last forty years. The second part reviews a body of second language writing research by situating writing in contexts where English is taught and learnt as a foreign language (EFL). This part aims to explain the characteristics of foreign language writing with references to factors shaping and regulating L2 writing practices of language learners and users. The third part presents different approaches to student writing in higher education (HE) and then reviews existing literature on academic writing situation in L2,focusing particularly on EFL contexts. The fourth part aims to situate the present study in its particular context by describing the contextual background. This part provides information about how teaching and learning of English and writing take place in Turkish primary and secondary schools, and HE institutions. It also includes the document analysis of the study. The final section reviews the scope of second language academic writing research in Turkey.

2.1 An overview of second language writing research

In the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s, theories about second language (L2) writing developed from fundamental principles of various fields such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Contrastive Rhetoric (CR), Written Discourse Analysis, and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which inherently adopted theories and practices of monolingual English (L1) writing (Grabe, 2001). In the1960s, admission of non-native English speaking students (NNSs) to British and American universities and other educational institutes provided an impetus to investigate major differences observed between the written products of NNS –in other words ESL students and native-speaker (NS) students (Matsuda, 1997; Matsuda, 2003). With the pioneering work of Kaplan on CR in 1966, it was understood that "students in ESL programs, who were brought to the level of proficiency necessary to the writing of text, wrote texts which were different in important ways from the texts written by native speakers of English" (Kaplan, 1987, p. 9).

In the 1970s much of the research about second language writing was centered on syntacticlevel and rhetorical features of L2 texts produced by NNS students and how these features deviated from L1 (English) writing. However, because CR took English language (L1) as the norm to evaluate NNS students' texts by disregarding the unique characteristics of their L1 linguistic and socio-educational backgrounds, it remained a simplistic and over-generalized theoretical approach to second language writing. CR was subsequently criticized for its one-dimensional view, misrepresenting the NNS student or L2 learner as a "writing machine who creates a text by reproducing the pattern produced by his or her linguistic, cultural or educational background" (Matsuda, 1997, p. 49). In the early 1980s and onwards,

influenced by conceptualizing writing as a process rather than a product, the second language writing research paradigm shifted its focus from the analysis of written products (textual analyses) to the investigation of L2 learners' writing processes (Bosher, 1998; Matsuda, 2003; Pennington & So, 1993; Zamel, 1983).

After the second half of the 1990s, composition studies and second language writing research, which had formerly relied heavily on L1 (English) writing theories, started to question the appropriateness of suggested theories and pedagogical implications for L2 writing contexts (Matsuda, 1997; Matsuda, 2003). Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999) maintained that L1 (English) - oriented writing pedagogy and composition textbooks may not serve the purposes and needs of L2 writing contexts as they incorporate a 'hidden pedagogy' - inherently adopting a mainstream ideology of Anglophone individualism which fosters voice, peer-reviewing, critical thinking and textual ownership (p. 61). Thus, towards the end of the 1990s a transition to a cross-cultural understanding of writing was also observed in second language writing research.

Post Contrastive Rhetoric and Neo-Whorfian theories on language prompted second language researchers to reconsider the essential differences between L1 and L2 writers in terms of their writing processes, their understanding of the writing situation, i.e. purpose and audience (reader-writer responsibility), their metalinguistic knowledge, their cultural schemas, and other restrictive factors likely to affect L2 students' writing performances (Grabe, 2001; Hyland, 2003; Leki, 2001; Matsuda, 1997; Matsuda, 2003). L2 learners/users started to be acknowledged as members of social groups whose schemata, practices and attitudes toward writing are distinct from those of L1 writers and as language users who draw on bicultural and bilingual understandings within their respective languages (Hyland, 2003). Connor (1997)also

drew attention to the influence of previous writing experience on one's writing practices, indicating that the differences observed between NSs' and NNs' texts may "result from many factors besides linguistic, rhetorical, and cognitive ones, such as schooling and [previous] writing instruction" (p. 202). Many studies thereafter investigated the influence of previous L1 and L2 writing instruction on students' L2 writing practices in various ESL settings (Kobayashi & Rinnert 2002; Liebman, 1992; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Other studies in the field of second language writing research continued investigating issues such as writers' texts (the written products that are composed), writers' processes (how writers produce their texts), participants' (students and/or teachers) learning and teaching processes, the nature and influence of feedback, and the context of L2 writing – both inside and outside the classroom (Polio, 2003). Finally, in recent years, there has been an increasing number of case studies seeking to explore and explain how L2 writing literacy develops through interaction of varying factors and variables (Leki, Cumming & Silva, 2008).

With the impact of globalization, second language writing has become "an area affecting the lives of hundreds of students at institutions all around the world where they must submit high-quality written work in a language they did not acquire as native speakers" (Kroll, 2003, p. 3). Thus, the scope and context of L2 writing research has also been extended from ESL settings to contexts where English is taught and learnt as a foreign language (EFL) over the last two decades (Ortega, 2009). After a thorough examination of the prominent themes emerging in the body of EFL writing research, Ortega (2009) found that most of the studies have been conducted in Hong Kong, Japan and China. These studies focused mainly on the following themes:

- The effect of L1 composing strategies on L2 writing,
- L2 writing processes of novice and expert EFL writers,
- the effect of L2 proficiency level on the fluency of L2 writing,
- the influence of teacher and peer feedback on L2 writing,
- L1 and L2 cross-rhetorical influences and transfer,
- the struggle to write for scholarly publishing in English.

Many of these studies have emphasized the distinctive characteristics of teaching and learning of L2 writing in an EFL context.

2.2 Characteristics of EFL writing

Any writing situation should be studied in accordance with its unique characteristics. What constitutes the writing situation and the reasons and motivation to learn writing in L2 can be different in English as second language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL) contexts. Manchỏn (2009) argues " the manner in which writing is learned and taught in [E]FL context is dependent upon a whole set of material conditions and social practices that do not necessarily coincide with those of [E]SL contexts" (p. 2). Prior to the reasons and motivation for learning to write in L2, ESL and EFL contexts are likely to display differences in terms of L2 learners/users' individual characteristics and their motivations to learn L2. In ESL settings learners are more heterogeneous holding different national and ethnic identities, having been educated in diverse educational systems, and coming from varied L1 backgrounds. In EFL settings learners display a somewhat more homogeneous form with a shared identity, culture, history, native language and educational background.

In ESL contexts, L2 is learnt mostly for survival– i.e. acculturation and accommodation processes, academic and professional purposes. In EFL contexts, L2 is learnt mostly for instrumental purposes such as attaining higher standards of living by having a well-paid job, pursuing further academic studies at home or abroad, establishing international business partnerships, or just because it is a compulsory school subject. Moreover, unlike ESL contexts, EFL contexts do not provide L2 learners/users with an 'immersion situation' outside the educational context (Breeze, 2012), which eventually restricts L2 learners/users' language contact and language socialization with L2. These differences between ESL and EFL settings within this general framework of L2 learning inevitably govern and shape L2 students'writing practices.Manchỏn (2009) delineates the general characteristics of EFL writing as follows:

> EFL writing is learned for multiple purposes, in various sociocultural contexts, each are shaped by its own sociohistorical factors and educational purposes and values, and by different writers who must learn to deal with variable demands in various educational and professional situations. (p. 11)

Similarly, Cumming (2009) argues that "foreign language writing skills entail numerous micro and macro components and processes that complement and interact with one another at multiple levels of texts, language systems, individual writers, and educational and social contexts" (p. 217). Therefore, the writing situation and writing practices of L2 learners/users in EFL contexts need to be understood and investigated exclusively on their own premises because EFL writing encompasses different characteristics from that of ESL writing.

Different societies and cultures attach different values to writing in general. Countries where English is learnt and taught as a foreign language display diverse

attitudes, educational ideologies and approaches to L1 and L2 writing instruction in their schooling and higher education systems, and in teacher education. Leki (2009) questions "why a particular society wants its young people to learn to write in L1, if it does, influences the valuing of, approach, and interest in L2 writing" (p. xv). The extent of the significance a particular context attaches to writing and how L1 writing is taught and practiced in educational settings relate closely to how L2 writing is perceived and handled by students and educators. Reichelt (2009) analyzed sociohistorical and educational factors influencing and shaping L2 writing instruction in various EFL settings – Germany, Poland, China, Japan and Spain. Her findings revealed an important correlation between local educational values related to L1 writing instruction and L2 writing instruction. For instance, the traditional ideology of German education, *Bildung* – which emphasizes individual development, critical reading and writing, creativity, self- reflection and cultural literacy, is also adopted for L2 writing instruction (Reichelt, 2009). Other contexts were found to be either lacking an established convention of L1 writing instruction (Poland and Spain) or offering L1 writing courses just to prepare students for centralized university entrance examinations (China, Japan, and Poland). In relation to this, Reichelt (2009) concluded that in these contexts, L2 writing instruction and L2 writing practice did not go beyond practicing novice L2 grammatical structures and vocabulary,that is, L2 writing was used and practiced to support L2 learning and improve L2 proficiency in general.

In addition to local educational value attached to writing, ESL and EFL writing research attests that L1 writing style and the nature of L1 writing instruction have an impact on students' subsequent L2 writing practices. Studies in other EFL contexts have explained how idiosyncratic characteristics of Japanese (L1) prose

style and Japanese (L1) writing instruction exert an influence on L2 (English) texts produced by Japanese students in various educational contexts (Hirose, 2003; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002; Kubota, 1997; Liebman, 1992; Leki, 2009; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009). Japanese (L1) writing is commonly described with traditional expository prose style *ki- sho –ten- ketsu* following an inductive (from specific to general) organizational pattern with a sudden topic shift, which is rather different from the direct and deductive (from general to specific) organizational pattern of English (L2) (Hirose, 2003; Kubota, 1997). Japanese (L1) writing assumes that the writer and the reader share a contextual background, and that the reader already knows about the content, thus without much explicit explanation responsibility of comprehension is left to the reader. Therefore, Japanese (L1) writing is characterized as being 'reader responsible', unlike 'writer responsible' English (L2). Japanese students are observed to transfer inherent linguistic and organizational features of their L1 to the texts they produce in L2. A similar case of transfer was also detected in the analysis of 74 number of Chinese students' L2 (English) texts, as Chinese language is also characterized as a "reader-responsible" language (Qi & Lui, 2007). Moreover, writing is a less emphasized skill in comparison to reading and the teaching of grammar in Japanese education system (Hirose 2003; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002).

Kobayashi and Rinnert (2002) conducted a large-scale survey among 387 Japanese high-school students to explore the nature of L1 writing instruction and students' L1 writing practices prior to tertiary level study. Their findings revealed that writing was considered a less important than reading, and that students received a limited amount of L1 writing instruction or feedback. Students' L1 writing practices were restricted to producing short texts which rarely required them to

formulate and evaluate their own opinions (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002). Their findings also correspond to other studies proposing that Japanese (L1) writing instruction focuses more expressive function of writing because rather than critical reading of the texts reflecting on reading texts with one's own opinions, beliefs and emotions is traditionally highly valued (Hirose, 2003; Liebman, 1992). As an extension of the study, Kobayashi and Rinnert (2002) conducted interviews with 21 Japanese university students to explore their perceptions about their previous L1 writing experiences. The lack of emphasis given to writing skill in comparison to the more-emphasized reading skill in secondary education was understood to be the omnipresent influence of preparation for the university entrance examination (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002). The study also revealed that because the university entrance examination for certain public universities requires students to write compositions, the Japanese students who want to study at those universities receive extra tutorials for developing their writing skills outside the mainstream school context. Even though Japanese students do not generally receive any formal writing instruction with regard to expository or academic writing at secondary school, they are assumed to be able to write essays at university level (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002). Problems arise when Japanese students are asked to write expository or argumentative essays in English (L2), especially on changing their contexts from EFL to ESL. They often receive negative criticism for their use of inductive organizational patterns, expressive writing styles, lack of critical thinking skills and for not asserting their voices.

Liebman (1992) investigated Japanese and Arab students' L1 writing instruction backgrounds to explain the strengths and weaknesses students bring with them to L2 writing situation. Liebman (1992) observed that Japanese students had

difficulties in arguing a position in an essay while Arab students showed rapid improvement in argumentative discourse as the focus of Arabic (L1) writing instruction is on transactional function of writing that emphasizes assertiveness. However, the reverse situation was observed when Japanese and Arabic students were asked to write journals in English (L2), as Japanese students practice more expressive writing during their schooling. In effect, the amount and nature of L1 writing instruction, students' experience in L1 writing, and how effectively and resourcefully students transfer their established L1 writing skills to their L2 writing practices impact on how students write in L2.

L2 writing practices of students in EFL contexts are also affected by individual, affective, psychological and cognitive factors. Kormos (2012) demonstrates how individual differences based on cognitive, affective and psychological factors regulate and shape the way L2 students plan, organize, and edit their writing, and respond to feedback. She notes that these three factors are highly influential specifically on aptitude, working memory, and motivation of students, and that they regulate to a large extent how students utilize and benefit from learning through writing (Kormos, 2012, p. 400). Among these factors, motivation to write in L2 is particularly important because students' attitudes and motivation toward writing in L2 is closely related to their individual purposes and motivation to learn L2. In most EFL settings, the educational context – schools and universities – is the only place where students are expected to produce written texts in L2. Therefore, as students cannot associate the outcomes of what they practice at school with their immediate needs and real lives outside the school context, unlike in ESL settings, they may find writing in L2 a burden or an unnecessary task to accomplish.

However, for students who have to pass a written test to pursue further education, academic career or study at a major degree in English, successful L2 writing skills can be of vital importance in EFL contexts.

In such cases, the distinction Manchỏn (2009) puts forward between "learning to write" and "writing to learn" should be noted as these notions greatly influence students' motivation for L2 writing. In the *Learning to write* (LW) dimension, L2 users learn to express themselves in writing and it entails learning of writing specific text genres for particular examinations, academic and/or professional goals (Manchỏn, 2011; Manchỏn, 2009). The *Writing to learn* dimension involves L2 writing tasks contributing to areas other than writing, i.e. writing-to-learn language (WLL), writing to practice the target language to develop language proficiency, or writing-to-learn content (WLC), and writing to externalize the content knowledge (Manchỏn, 2011). In ESL settings, students experience either LW or WLC dimensions (Manchỏn, 2009). However, in most EFL settings, students go through a more complex process, as they have to cope with learning to write (LW), writing to learn the language (WLL) and writing to learn the content (WLC) all at the same time (Manchỏn, 2009).

Moreover, writing per se is a cognitively demanding task, even for inexperienced L1 writers, as writing requires a much higher level of metacognitive skills and language proficiency than speaking, and the audience is often implicit and authoritative in most cases (Schoonen et al., 2009). In that sense, writing in L2 can be assumed to be much harder, rather more like a problem-solving task for most students in EFL settings (Manchỏn, 2009). Currie (1993) emphasized how L2 writing can be daunting, especially for NNSs of English as they "study in a language in which their proficiency is still developing" (p. 102). Manchỏn and Roca de Larios

(2007) indicate that due to the recursive, cognitively demanding and problem-solving nature of writing, producing texts in L2 might be difficult for less proficient L2 users as they are less likely to have automatic access to the L2 knowledge that they possess. Manchỏn, Roca de Larios and Murphy (2009) investigated problem-solving nature of composing processes in L2, and they particularly emphasized how it can be difficult, as well as time- and attention-consuming for students in EFL settings to transfer generated ideas – usually in L1 – onto paper in L2 writing. The attention paid to surface grammatical structures and choice of vocabulary, namely the use of language, is another problem hindering EFL students' conceptual performance and fluency in writing (Cumming, 2009, Schoonen et al. 2009).

L2 proficiency level and the amount of L2 writing experience and practice are other important factors that influence the quality and characteristics of students' EFL writing practices. According to Manchỏn and Roca de Larios (2007), engaging L2 learners in frequent, consistent and guided writing practice, which allows learners to reflect on the metalinguistic function of the language and their intended and expressed meanings, will help L2 learners develop automaticity and fluency in L2. This increased language proficiency will eventually allow for greater flexibility and control over L2 learners' writing strategies as "automatization of language skills frees up cognitive resources to be deployed on higher level writing processes" (Manchỏn & Roca de Larios, 2007, p. 115). Employing think-aloud protocols, Manchỏn and Roca de Larios (2007) conducted a study with three groups of Spanish native speakers of English (i.e. high school, undergraduate and graduate students) to investigate whether or not cognitive activity while writing is influenced by writers' L2 proficiency level, cognitive requirements of the writing task, and the respective languages (i.e. L1 and L2) writers use whilst performing the task. They found higher

levels of L2 proficiency and more engagement in L2 writing to be influential factors leading different groups of students to utilize different strategies while composing their L2 texts. Their findings revealed that high school students devoted more time to text generating and less time to planning and revision compared to students from other groups, who spent less time text generating and more time planning and revising. The group of undergraduate students devoted more time to planning while graduate students used much of their allocated time for revising their texts. Some other studies also found higher levels of L2 proficiency to be an influencing factor regulating students' writing fluency and writing practices (Aliakbari, 2002; Lei, 2008; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Uysal, 2008).

However, research on L2 writing also revealed that a satisfactory level of L2 proficiency does not guarantee successful and fluent L2 writing (Hirose & Sasaki, 2000; Rinnert and Kobayashi, 2009; Schoonen et al., 2009). Kubota (1998) asserted that in addition to L2 proficiency level, L1 writing skills and L2 writing experience influence the quality of Japanese students' L2 writing in varying degrees and domains. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) conducted a study with 70 Japanese university students to investigate the factors influencing students' expository writing in English. They found L2 language proficiency, L1 writing ability, metaknowledge about L2 writing, past writing experiences, and instructional background to be explanatory variables for students' L2 writing practices. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) concluded that L2 students write more successfully and exhibit more confidence in L2 academic writing if they had the opportunity to practice L2 writing to a greater extent in their previous schooling experience.

Rinnert and Kobayashi (2009) illustrated how an extended amount of writing experience/practice and extensive exposure to L2 rhetorical features enable students to become better writers and achieve writing fluency by helping them internalize the required metacognitive knowledge about L2 writing. Cumming (2009) supports this view, indicating that as students have more chances of practicing L2 writing, they become more skillful writers in terms of generating ideas, planning, organizing and editing their written works, and use their dual linguistic repertoires more effectively rather than simply translating from L1 to L2. Sasaki (2009) also conducted a longitudinal study with 22 foreign language writers and investigated to what extent participants' L2 writing expertise changed over 3.5 years. She found that changes in students' writing abilities were highly affected by their attitudes toward L2 writing, students' intrinsic motivation to become better writers of English, and the amount of exposure to the L2. Sasaki (2009) concluded that the more L2 users engage with L2 writing, the better writers they become.

In addition to the above-mentioned factors, required organizational patterns of L2 writing – which rhetorically might be distinct from that of students' L1 writing conventions – can be another factor influencing students' writing practices in EFL settings. At initial stages of L2 writing, novice writers display more tendencies to think, generate and organize ideas in L1, and then translate these to L2 while writing (Cumming, 2009; Sasaki, 2000). The relationship between L1 and L2 rhetorical patterns is generally observed to be unidirectional in that students, especially novice L2 writers, are more likely to rely on L1 rhetorical (i.e. organizational and argumentative) patterns while writing in L2. Rinnert and Kobayashi (2009) have evidenced a preference for and the use of specific cultural rhetorical patterns influenced by L1 in students' texts written in L2. However, Hirose (2003) questions

whether use L1 rhetorical patterns in L2 writing is to be considered as matter of 'influence' or a matter of 'developmental problem'. Cumming (2009) argues that as students gain more experience in L2 writing with more practice, this interaction between L1 and L2 patterns is observed to evolve from unidirectional into a more bidirectional form, or from L2 to L1. For instance, there is body of research showing the possible transfer of L2 rhetorical knowledge and patterns to L1 texts of Turkish students (Akyel & Kamışlı, 1997; Can, 2007; Uysal, 2008). According to Rinnert and Kobayashi (2012), the repertoire of writing knowledge is a "cognitive construct comprising the entire inventory of knowledge about L1 and L2 writing acquired by the writer to date" (p. 106), and this knowledge continues to evolve and is reconstructed as one engages with more L1/ L2 writing practice. The components of repertoire of writing knowledge are shown in Figure 1.

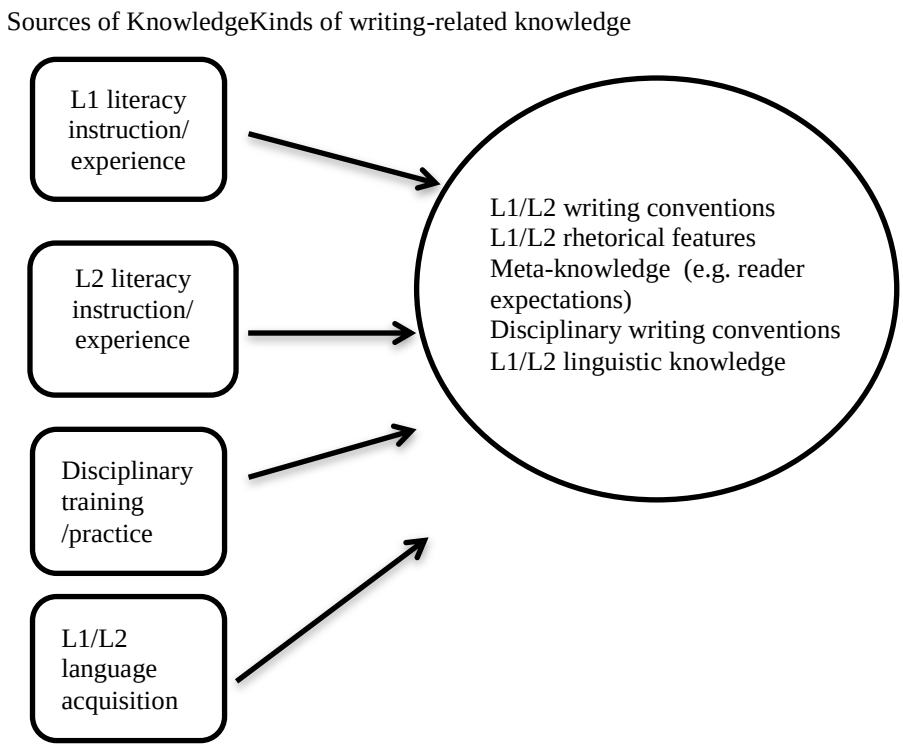


Fig.1. Repertoire of writing knowledge (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2012,p. 105).

Rinnert and Kobayashi (2008) observed that unidirectional and bidirectional transfer of writing features across L1 and L2 represent a writer's gradual writing development i.e. initially from L1 to L2, then from L2 to L1 and finally in bidirectional form. In their recent study Rinnert and Kobayashi (2012) have found that "the nature of transfer of writing features across languages change as the contents of the repertoire of L1/L2 writing knowledge evolve" (p. 128). Therefore, Rinnert and Kobayashi (2012) concluded that any writer's repertoire of L1/L2 writing knowledge is dynamic and open to reconfigurations, and the more writing practice writers gain in any language, the more control they exert on the texts they are producing by drawing on any appropriate source of writing knowledge.

To sum up, research suggests that overall, the L2 writing practices of students are influenced by the dynamic interaction of the following factors:

- Local educational values attached to teaching of L1 and L2 writing in any given society,
- the amount and nature of previous L1 and L2 writing instruction, i.e. text genres practiced at school, expected learning outcomes of L1 and L2 writing instruction, teachers' approaches to teaching of writing,
- students' motivation and purpose in learning to write in L2,
- metacognitive skills required for L2 writing,
- the required L2 proficiency level for fluency in L2 writing,
- unidirectional or bidirectional transfer of rhetorical (text organization and styles of argumentation) patterns in one's respective languages, and
- the nature and amount of students' L2 writing experience.

2.3 Academic writing in English

The previous section drew a general picture of L2 writing situation and factors influencing L2 writing practices of students in EFL settings. There is a growing interest in exploring the issues involved in L2 writing research with a particular emphasis on academic writing given the growing number of English-medium universities in different parts of the world. In this section, first by explaining the nature of academic writing, I will specifically focus on academic writing situation and academic writing practices of university students in EFL contexts.

2.3.1 Academic writing in English in higher education

In terms of students' admission to universities and their academic achievements, successful academic writing in English operates as a gatekeeper for many students all around the world (Hyland, 2007). Today, as Breeze (2012) argues, "learning to write well in English is a necessity rather than merely a useful ancillary skill" (p.3) for many university students. Students are required to submit a statement of purpose letter in English to be admitted to the universities, and/or take a locally or an internationally recognized proficiency test in English to start their programs where the medium of instruction is English. Throughout their studies, students navigate their learning, learn about their disciplinary area, negotiate and externalize the content knowledge by writing in English.

Attaining good competence and fluency in academic writing in English is, therefore, of vital importance for university students because students' learning, understanding and internalizing of the content knowledge are evaluated and assessed

mainly through the written texts they produce, i.e. essay examinations, response papers, research papers, reports, dissertations, and so on. This recognized significance of academic writing in English has led to an increase in the number of studies investigating the nature and developmental processes of students' academic writing practices in diverse settings, and to the emergence of different approaches to writing in higher education (HE).

2.3.1.1 Approaches to student writing in HE and theoretical framework of the study

Literacy, with a very broad definition of Street and Lefstein (2007), is defined as "social practices and conceptions of reading and writing" (p.210), and becoming academically literate "involves learning to read, write and think in an academic way" (p.211). Street and Lefstein (2007) define academic literacies as "a social practice approach to the literacy to the requirements held by institutions, faculty and students" (p.210). For Street and Lefstein (2007) becoming academically literate requires additional skills to general social-literacy practices one engages with in her/his daily life. This process involves interaction of different factors such as language variety, participation in diverse disciplinary and discourse communities, authority and power relationship between students and university tutors, and act of learning as a social event.

The epistemology of academic literacies is guided by two models of literacy, which are the autonomous model and New Literacy Studies. The autonomous model of literacy is rigidly prescriptive about the skills an individual should attain in order to be able to write academically. The autonomous model of literacy de-contextualizes the writing situation and the act of writing; it separates the text, the

writer and the context (Hyland, 2007; Ivanič, 2004). The autonomous model does not acknowledge the individual differences of writers, i.e. linguistic repertoire or skills, or former schooling experience and so on. The autonomous model is more concerned with cognitive consequences of literacy practices, advocating that higher attainment of literacy skills and fluency in writing lead to development of higher reasoning and critical thinking skills, intellectual achievements, and social and cultural development (Street & Lefstein, 2007). For these reasons, the autonomous model of literacy can be considered 'ideological' and the dominating model of literacy, which favors certain literacy skills at the expense of others. In effect, the autonomous literacy model resembles essayist literacy. Lillis (2001) defines essayist literacy as the "institutionalised shorthand for a particular way of constructing knowledge which has come to be privileged within academy" (p. 20). Essayist literacy is considered to be the accepted, dominant and privileged literacy practice in the Western world of academia, and thus this model embraces literacy practices and accredits their success only if they conform to Western academic writing conventions. Essayist literacy without reservation imposes its values onto the other cultures. To be fully accepted in the academic community, one is expected to develop her/his essayist literacy skills to the fullest extent because good command of essayist literacy skills is perceived to be synonymous with being successful at university or having a good reputation in academia (Hyland, 2007; Lillis, 2001).

The New Literacy Studies brought an emic perspective and ethnographic approach to the area of studying and understanding literacy practices – which was previously dominated by experimental cognitive studies and etic perspectives of text-based analyses (Street & Lefstein, 2007). The New Literacy Studies emerged as a reaction against autonomous models. The New Literacy Studies perceives literacy as

a social practice, and it is closer to ideological models of literacy conceptualizing "literacy as culturally situated and ideologically situated" (Ivanič, 2004, p. 221). Those who advocate an ideological model of literacy focus on reading and writing as a social practice, and thus acknowledge the ideological nature, deeming culture to be an inherent element of these practices (Street & Lefstein, 2007). The New Literacy Studiesmodel underlines the importance of meaning-making processes of individuals participating in the literacy practices (writer and reader relationship), and the contextual factors affecting and shaping this processes. This model, in a sense, proposes that literacy practices can never be value-free and de-contextualized.

Different understandings on the nature of academic writing in HE institutions emerged from the above-mentioned definitions and models of literacy. Lea and Street (1998) indicate that "educational research into student writing in higher education has fallen into three main perspectives or models: 'study skills'; 'academic socialization' and 'academic literacies'" (p. 158). Each model's understanding of what constitutes literacy practices, purpose in teaching writing, main elements of focus, conceptualization of student writing, and what each model epistemologically is based on are outlined in Table 1.

Based on epistemologies of behavioral psychology, the study-skills approach (skills-based approach) identifies literacy skills as a set of 'atomized skills' that students gain through formal instruction and practice. This approach presumes that students will be able to transfer straightforwardly their learnt skills to their disciplinary context when needed and required. The study-skills approach conceptualizes writing as a technical skill, and the extent to which students' academic writing is successful depends on how masterfully they employ the techniques of academic writing. Individual differences or contextual factors are not

taken into account while evaluating the texts produced by students; the main emphasis is on surface structures, grammatical correctness, spelling, punctuation and other organizational patterns of academic writing. Thus, any digression from writing conventions or structural rules is regarded as students' deficiency and/or lack of required linguistic skills. Within this understanding, the study skills approach aims to fix what is marked as problematic in students' writing by offering extra tutorials, remedial courses, and preparatory programs.

Table1. Three Models of Student Writing in Higher Education.

The Study Skills Approach	The Academic Socialisation Approach	Academic Literacies ' New Literacies' Approach
Literacy is set of atomised skills to be learned and transferable to other contexts	Student orientation to learning and interpretation of learning tasks through conceptualization	Literacies as social practices, literacy demands of the curriculum as involving a variety of communicative practices, including genres, fields and disciplines
Attempts to fix problems with students' learning and writing	The task of the facilitator is to induct students into a new 'culture' that of academy	Concerned with the processes of meaning making and contestation around meaning rather than skills or deficits.
Emphasizes surface features, grammar and spelling	Emphasizes new culture of academic context and highlights contextual factors in student writing	Emphasizes student point of view, identities and social meanings, deep affective and ideological conflicts in switching and use of the linguistic repertoire
Conceptualizes student writing as technical and instrumental	Views writing as a transparent medium of representation	Views student writing and learning as issues at the level of epistemology and identities rather than skills or socialization, and views institutions as sites of discourse and power.
Student learning = pathology, based on behavioral psychology	Social psychology, anthropology and constructivist education	New Literacy Studies; critical discourse analysis, systematic functional linguistics and cultural anthropology

(Lea and Street, 1998, pp. 158-159).

One-year preparatory programs and ESL courses offered in the curriculum on entering the university and writing centers established in HE institutions can set examples for the study- skills approach. However, one shortcoming of the study-skills approach is its assumption that all academic disciplines are homogeneous and require identical set of skills for academic writing. Hyland (2002) argues:

> … disciplines have different views of knowledge, different research practices, and different ways of seeing the world, and that these differences are reflected in diverse forms of argument and expression. … academic writing is not an undifferentiated mass, but a variety of subject-specific literacies. (p. 352)

Each academic discipline values specific genres of academic writing, ways of argumentation and discourse patterns. That once students are trained with adequate linguistic means and generic academic writing conventions (e.g. five-paragraph essay writing or writing a report) they will be able to transfer and employ their developed writing skills to meet the requirements of their disciplinary area remains as a naïve presumption.

The academic socialization approach (or in other words, disciplinary socialization approach) to writing is based on the grounds of social psychology, anthropology and constructivist view of education (Lea & Street, 1998). Academic socialization approach views literacy as a social practice, acknowledges the distinctive culture of academy and academic practices, and perceives students as individuals who are reconstructing their identities upon entering academic context (Lea & Street, 1998). This approach views literacy practices as an acculturation process into the new culture of academia in which students adapt their ways of learning and meaning making to become accepted members of their particular disciplinary areas. The process and notion of learning within this perspective

parallel with Vygotsky's social development theory because this approach regards the university tutor as the facilitator helping students understand the unique characteristics of academic community practices (Ivanič, 1998). English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, which specifically focus on discipline- specific terminology and textual and structural conventions, can be shown as an example for this approach. In that sense, Hyland (2002) suggests that academic socialization approach seems to be preparing students for their new disciplines. For Lea and Street (1998) and Hyland (2002) academic socialization approach fails to take into account what actually happens in each single context. Because academic socialization approach tends to view writing as a "transparent medium of representation" and assumes that "the academy is a relatively homogeneous culture, whose norms and practices have simply to be learnt to provide access to the whole institution" (Lea & Street, p. 159), it remains too generic as an approach to writing. The extent of students' socialization into the new culture, their internalization of discourse-specific practices and how successfully students utilize their learnt skills are not profoundly questioned.

Academic literacies approach is akin to the academic socialization approach because it also views literacy as a social practice, and acknowledges the importance of contextual culture, learner identity, and discourse and genre characteristics of diverse academic disciplines to the same extent. Different from study-skills and academic socialization approaches, the academic literacies approach perceives "student writing and learning as issues at the level of epistemology and identities rather than skill or socialization" (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159). Barton and Hamilton (2000) state, "the notion of *literary practices* offers a powerful way of conceptualizing the link between the activities of reading and

writing and the social structures in which they are embedded and which they help shape" (p. 7). Based on this view, academic literacies approach views students' academic writing as a practice that is influenced and shaped by contextual and discipline-specific factors.

The academic literacies approach places the student identity, student perceptions, and students' meaning-making processes, learning experience and writing practices at the core heart of the inquiry. Within this framework, the struggles students go through in the acculturation process in relation to their identity and writing practices are not considered deficiencies that can be fixed with remedial actions; but they are treated as "deep affective and ideological conflicts" to be explored and understood from students' own standpoints (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159). The academic literacies approach also acknowledged that possible academic writing problems might stem from the incongruent expectations students and university tutors bring to the academic context. Thus, the academic literacies approach explores issues not only from the perspective of students, but also other stakeholders, e.g. ESL/EAP tutors, lecturers and faculty members.

Ivanič (2004) argues that each approach "incorporates the pedagogic practices of the one before, but adds something more to it" (p. 222). Therefore, it is important to note that the study skills approach, the academic socialization approach, and the academic literacies approach do not display sharp differences, and one should not be valued more than the other.

The study-skills approach considers academic writing as act of utilizing a set of learnt technical skills on paper; it detaches contextual influences from writing, and is not interested in addressing the complexities involved students' writing practices. Although the academic socialization approach views writing as a

social practice within a specific disciplinary area, it is not interested in exploring the broader contextual factors (i.e. students' identity, transition to university, previous educational experiences and so on) that are influencing students' immediate writing practices. The academic literacies approach, on the other hand, considers writing practices of students both as a process and a product of several factors interacting with each other at individual, contextual, ideological, cultural and societal level, including teachers and institutions. As has been mentioned earlier in this chapter, much of second language writing research explored issues related to students' writing through text analyses or process-analysis. Yet, only a few of them focused on investigating issues through L2 students' own perspectives. Leki (2001), being interested in seeing the "hidden transcripts" of the writing situation, pointed at a gap in the literature by claiming that "so many of these studies talked about the students but never gave evidence that researchers spent any time talking to the students", and she emphasized the importance of challenging the truth of "uninterpreted empirical reality" in a "post-modern intellectual climate" (p. 18).

As well as the academic literacies approach, socio-cultural theory (SCT) also provides a grounded theoretical framework for studies aiming to explore this dynamic interaction of factors influencing the academic writing situation. SCT views language as the most fundamental and intimate psychological artefact, and language is what L2 students are trying to control and use to mediate their thoughts. According to the Vygotskian perspective "the ability to use a language to mediate a mental activity depends not just on form and simple referential meaning but also on appropriate use of features such as focus particle and conceptual meaning" (Lantolf, 2006, p. 75). In that sense, the ability to mediate appropriately in L2 may put double

pressure on students writing in L2 as they get involved in new systems of cultural conceptualizations (e.g. cultural schemas, narratives, categories, and conceptual metaphors). Moreover, because its epistemology resides "where cultural and personal meanings are foregrounded" (Lantolf, 2006, p. 201), SCT emphasizes the importance of acknowledging the sociocultural capital L2 students bring to the learning context. SCT also provides a way to gain a deeper understanding of inner mental processes of activities and the developmental stages of L2 writing practices. As Roebuck (2001) argues, SCT framework allows L2 writing research to "understand the cognitive [and conceptual] difficulties that writing in a second language presents to our learners" (p. 212). In line with these assumptions, studies adopting SCT as a theoretical framework generally use qualitative data collection methodologies (mostly semi-structured or stimulated-recall interviews) to gain this deeper understanding.

Lei (2008) adopting a SCT framework, investigated the strategies employed by EFL learners in L2 writing and along with text-analyses; she used stimulated recall interviews in order to gain deeper understanding of the participants' writing processes and strategies. She found that with higher L2 proficiency, L2 users felt more self-confident and considering this as a more sophisticated and advanced psychological tool, they felt better equipped to mediate their writing (Lei, 2008). Lvovich (2003) used an ethnographic design in her study in order to understand students' identities and language learning within societal, educational and personal contexts. She uncovered the realities of the writing situation faced by many immigrant students in the United States with the case of a Turkish- English bilingual student and proposed ideas for teaching implications. Finally, Uysal (2008) investigated whether there were "any common writing preferences or patterns in

argumentative essays of Turkish writers that might be associated with previous writing education" and used stimulated recall interviews along with text-analyses in order to understand the underlying reasons of students' preferences (p. 186). She found L2 proficiency to be an important reason for students' not being able to use their writing knowledge in L1 and L2.

In this study, I seek to understand the dynamic interaction of factors influencing Turkish university students' writing practices by giving voice to students' own perspectives and situating the students at the core of the research. Moreover, by incorporating the perspectives and insights of EFL teachers and faculty members about academic literacy and students' writing practices, I acknowledge that academic writing practices of students is a process and product of interplay of contextual, ideological, and societal factors, and power relationships. I also attempt to draw a broader picture of the complexities students experience in their academic writing practices at university level in Turkey by investigating their past and existing writing practices. Therefore, since the academic literacies approach encompasses all these notions, this study adopts the academic literacies approach as a theoretical framework to explore the factors influencing students' academic writing practices within a more comprehensive conceptualization of the context. This study espouses SCT as a supplementary theoretical framework as the main emphasis of understanding the issue is placed on students' perspectives by conducting semi-structured and stimulated-recall interviews with the participants.

2.3.1.2 Academic writing in L2 in EFL settings

In addition to the factors summarized in the previous section, at tertiary level, adaptation to 'new' ways and 'new' culture of learning that are essential to academic survival and inherent attributes of academic literacy – which requires different skills than that of general literacy – govern and shape the writing practices of students. As mentioned earlier, L2 writing is no longer a tool or a language skill to practice and reinforce the target language at university level. In other words, as Hyland (2007) points out, "trusted ways of writing are no longer valued as legitimate for meaning making when they [students] arrive at university because of the different practices of academy" (p. 3). No matter how sufficiently students may use L2 (English) outside the educational contexts, when they come into contact with the academia they start to experience a whole new world in terms of their writing experiences. In their writing, students are expected to switch from the daily L2 they use for social communication to a different form of expression. Students are expected to produce written texts in L2, which requires expressions beyond simply practicing L2 forms in writing. Ultimately, this different form of expression exerts considerable influence on students' academic success.

Lillis (2001), in arguing that "when a student-writer sits down to write an essay, even the first time she does so, she is taking part in a particular discursive practice which is bound to a particular social situation" (p. 40), draws attention to the unique and culture bound characteristics of academic literacy. Lea and Street (1998) define this 'particular discursive practice' as follows:

> Learning in higher education involves adapting to new ways of knowing, new ways of understanding, interpreting and organizing knowledge. Academic literacy practices – reading and writing within disciplines – constitute central processes through which students learn new subjects and develop their knowledge about new areas of study. (p. 158)

For university students, accommodating this new culture of learning and writing situation within a short period of time is not an easy task. Studies – specifically exploring the impact of first-year of university experience on students' transition to tertiary level education – indicate that transition to university from high school is a taxing experience as it requires not only academic but also social, personal and emotional adjustments (Dalziel & Peat, 1998; Urquhart & Pooley, 2007). During this transition period, students are generally expected to "take on new identities since they have to learn new ways of thinking and meaning making which can sometimes conflict with they are used to" (Al-Badwawi, 2011, p. 41). For many university students, the quality of their first-year of university education plays a significant role in shaping their acculturation processes and their reactions to the potential challenges they may encounter in the following years. On entering the university, students try to keep up with the challenging requirements and unfamiliar practices of the academia while trying to project and sustain their individual identities. Students are expected to accommodate themselves to the new culture of learning and studying within a very short period of time.

Al-Badwawi (2011) investigated the contextual factors that influence first-year Omani university students from the perspective of students, EFL teachers, and subject teachers in various academic departments. She found that first-year students' writing experience is highly influenced by the following factors: students' learning histories, task requirements (i.e. genre, information source, topic difficult, length of the required text, discipline-specific task requirements),

incongruity between the foundation year program writing and disciplinary writing, variations in the discourse community characteristics of disciplinary contexts, and feedback received from different groups of teachers.

Leki (2001) and Harklau (1999) draw attention to the institutional culture shock and identity crisis ESL students experience in their first year of undergraduate studies in American universities. Students, who, during their high school education are referred to as model students and acclaimed for their high-level language proficiency and academic success, experience a shock and threat to their identities when they start college in the US. This is because these students are no longer perceived as model or successful students, but as students who lack necessary language proficiency and linguistic resources required for academic level studies (Harklau, 1999). Moreover, in her in-depth case study exploring how literate transition from high school to college in the US is perceived and experienced by four female immigrants with non-English L1 backgrounds, Harklau (2001) found that the challenges faced by students at the initial stages of college study were more related to salient differences observed at the institutional culture level between secondary and postsecondary studies rather than literacy practices. Harklau (2001) indicated that her participants found textbooks and required writing tasks at undergraduate study similar to or even much easier than those they experienced and practiced in secondary school. However, her participants had difficulty in following the courses and adjusting the time they devote to their learning, as studying at college requires more student-responsible and self-regulated learning strategies (Harklau, 2001).

Ivanič (1998) argues that “if people entering higher education experience an identity crisis, it is not because of inadequacy in themselves, but because of a mismatch between the social contexts which they have constructed their identities in

the past and the new social context in which they are entering" (p. 12). To this respect, if students are struggling or experiencing some sort of identity crisis during the transition period, this should not simply be attributed to students' linguistic deficiencies or lack of academic literacy skills. Students' experiences in academic context – that is to say the new social context – should be perceived and interpreted vis á vis the dynamic interaction of factors molding this particular context and what the context requires from each of its participants.

Identity and learning style related acculturation process also applies to the expected transition in the writing practices of students. Hyland (2002) argues, "writing at university often involves the process of creating a new identity, which needs to meet expectations of university tutors representing the students' new discipline" (p. 352). In their first year of university education, students recognize the necessity of evaluating, reviewing and/or reshaping their existing language repertoire, linguistic skills and metaknowledge about writing. Ballard and Clancy (1991) argue that students "need to master new language and learning skills quickly in order to cope with their current courses", and while doing that they do not simply eliminate "the cognitive and linguistic repertoire they bring with them" but they try "to extend that repertoire to meet the demands of a different cultural setting" (p. 21). Breeze (2012) points at the "hidden dimension for L2 writers to master" which consists of a combination of shared knowledge peculiar to academic contexts that L2 students might feel themselves unfamiliar with (p. 11). The roots of this challenging situation for students regarding their writing practices can be uncovered by exploring some educational and contextual factors.

Grabe (2001) argues that most L2 (ESL or EFL) students do not have the necessary practice and experience in L2 writing in order to produce the text types required by specific academic disciplines. As an exemplar of EFL context, Breeze (2012) explores L2 academic writing situation in Europe. She argues that "in the European situation, with strong national educational cultures and academic traditions, it is likely that conflict and interfere between L1 and L2 writing patterns play a major role in determining how students write in English" (p.12). As mentioned in the previous section, in EFL contexts formal L1 writing instruction may not equip students with transferable writing skills that they can employ directly in academic literacy practices because different EFL settings provide L1 writing instruction with varying degrees or importance and approaches. Prior to university, most students in EFL settings either do not receive any formal L2 writing instruction or rarely practice L2 writing through controlled-writing tasks simply to practice the target language (Reichelt, 2009). In EFL contexts, although university students are expected to display more homogeneous characteristics as they share similar linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds, their experiences as writers may be quite different from one another due to different schooling cultures and contexts (Matsuda, 1997).

Moreover, EFL students are expected to appropriate their existing language and literacy skills to academic level while they are writing in a language (L2) that they are still mastering (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999). Adapting to ways of academic writing might pose a double burden for students whose first language is not English. At universities, students are expected use writing as a means to learn content. However, as Hirvela (2011) points out "without the necessary target language proficiency in place" (p. 55), writing to learn content

requires time and patience as students are still in the process of developing their L2 language proficiency and learning to write in L2. For instance, concerning the European situation, Breeze (2012) argues:

> The novel cognitive demands of university work are exacerbated by linguistic difficulties, so that the task of writing a paper or an exam answer is doubly complicated: not only does the student have to master new subject matter, but he/she also has to know the relevant vocabulary and use the proper register in English, as well as being conversant with the rhetorical structure of what is required, which may well be unfamiliar, or different from what is usual in other contexts and other languages. (p.9)

Many EFL students make strenuous efforts to approximate their writing style to the conventions of successful academic writing in English. Academic writing generally poses frustration for university students, as they perceive themselves as incompetent users of the L2 pertaining to the language proficiency required at academic level (Hyland, 2002).

Al-Fadda (2012) investigated the perspectives of 50 post-graduate students in relation to the difficulties they encounter while writing in English in a Saudi-Arabian university. The study revealed that students, even at post-graduate level of study, find academic writing to be very stressful as students think they lack essential skills with reference to use of academic register and stages of writing process - specifically outlining, planning and organizing ideas. Zhang (2011) conducted a study with 10 Chinese graduate students at a Canadian university to investigate academic writing practices of students through their own perspectives. Similarly, Zhang (2011) found that students experienced mainly language-related difficulties in writing stemming from limited vocabulary knowledge and discipline-specific writing structure. Students identified these difficulties related to surface language problems as their own deficiencies. Moreover, students also

indicated that their tutors often criticize them for lacking critical thinking skills and reflecting their Chinese way of holistic thinking and inductive reasoning patterns on paper.

Students may not also be familiar with the writer-responsible writing (Hyland, 2003) and organization style of L2 as “English differs from a number of languages by placing responsibility for coherence and clarity on the writer rather than on the reader” (Hyland, 2007, p. 4). Hyland summarizes the characteristics of academic writing in English as follows:

- Academic writing in English is more explicit in its structure and purposes, with constant previewing of material,
- is less tolerant of digressions, and uses more sentence connectors to show explicitly how parts of the text link together, and
- is more cautious in making claims, with considerable use of mitigation and hedging.

Thus, as might be expected, students may encounter difficulties in adjusting their writing skills to academic writing in English if their L1writing style emphasizes different criteria from those mentioned above. Moreover, in his early work, Horowitz (1986) identified seven types of texts that are required from university students: summary of/ reaction to a reading, annotated bibliography, report on a specified participatory experience, connection of theory and data, case study, synthesis of multiple sources (library research paper), and research project/paper. The subject matter, the language register, the way of argumentation and the rhetorical patterns of these text genres may vary from one disciplineto another. Students with varied L2 writing experience may encounter challenges when they are suddenly expected to produce the above-mentioned kinds of academic texts.

Finally, even if students are trained for academic writing in preparatory schools or in ESL courses, the academic writing skills they gain may not be sufficient for what is expected from them in discipline-specific literacy practices.

2.3.1.3 Language teachers and university tutors as factors influencing students' L2 academic writing practices

Different expectations of teachers/tutors at different levels of education directly or indirectly influence students' writing practices. Manchón (2009) argues that EFL students "develop their metaknowledge about writing, attitude, motivation, confidence and writing abilities as a function of their previous learning experiences within specific cultures of practice" (p.17). Together with the above-mentioned factors, EFL/ESL teachers' and university tutors' understanding of and approaches to academic writing and the discrepancy between expectations of university students and faculty members are highly influential factors affecting students' academic writing practices. In students' learning histories, their teachers' approach to writing is a determining factor shaping how they perceive 'writing' as a tool for learning and meaning making.

Reichelt (2009) investigated secondary school EFL teachers' approaches to L2 writing instruction in different EFL settings. In Poland, for instance, EFL teachers generally do not have much motivation to spend the allocated time on L2 writing tasks because of the heavy workload stemming from preparing students for the school leaving exam, the Matura. Polish teachers tend to use L2 writing tasks to reinforce grammar and vocabulary. Similarly, Spanish EFL teachers consider L2 writing tasks as a means of support for practicing newly-taught L2

grammar forms, and the feedback they provide on students' writing focuses mainly on grammatical accuracy. In China, Reichelt (2009) observed that large class sizes and an excessive workload on teachers' shoulders make it impossible for teachers to spare time for writing activities in L2 classes and to provide individual feedback to students. Even if Chinese students receive little formal L2 writing instruction for the university entrance examination, students' practice of writing does not go beyond memorizing essay models on topics that commonly appear on the writing section of the university entrance examination. Likewise, Casaneve (2004) observed that Japanese EFL teachers feel frustrated about the fact that they can allow on only ten minutes of their classes for L2 writing activities because "the rest of the time they have to follow a mandated exam-oriented curriculum" (p. 19). These observations, of course, cannot be generalized to all EFL settings; however, they are quite similar to what is experienced in secondary school education in the context of this study, Turkey.

Within the same HE institution, ESL/EFL/EAP teachers and faculty members may hold different views on academic writing and have different expectations from students. Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995) argue that students moving from one context to another experience a significant "disjuncture between the way each program conceptualizes writing" (p. 563). How and what students are being taught in terms of academic expression in ESL courses is often criticized by faculty members, and students are always condemned for their poor and unsatisfactory writing skills. Understanding how these two parties perceive what is important in academic writing, as well as how they approach to and evaluate students' writing, is significant because,to a great extent, these influence students' own perceptions of academic writing and their writing practices.

Several studies have investigated the discrepancy between the expectations of these two groups mentioned above. Leki and Carson (1997) and Hyland (2002) underline a problem by arguing that ESL/EAP courses equip students only with generic academic writing skills, which provide very little of the type of writing that students will be required to do in their undergraduate courses. Leki and Carson (1997) found that while ESL teachers generally emphasize the importance of correct linguistic forms and rhetorical (organizational) patterns in an essay, faculty members are more interested in the quality of content being discussed in the paper. Brown (1991) investigated whether ESL teachers with language teaching background and other faculty members with English literature or language teaching backgrounds rate ESL students' written samples differently. The views of the two groups varied significantly in terms of cohesion, organization, and syntactic features. He found that both groups consider content to be very important. Even though the two groups come from different educational backgrounds and training, they both assigned very similar scores to students' papers. However, Brown (1991) concluded that even though their emphasis on what is important in academic writing and their scores are similar, how they arrive at these assumptions and conclusions might come from somewhat different perspectives (p.601). This is a very important point to consider because, throughout their educational timeline, students learn from and are assessed by different groups of teachers whose attitudes to epistemologies of learning and writing differ from one another.

From the educators' perspectives, the three commonly observed areas of difficulty with students' academic writing are: problems with English (surface language correctness), problems with the ways in which ideas are structured and

presented (different rhetorical styles), and problems arising from a disjunction between the attitudes of knowledge held by the students and by the staff evaluating and assessing students' work (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991, p.20). University students are also criticized for their lack of critical thinking skills and are mostly labeled as 'academically illiterate' by faculty members (Johns, 1991). Johns (1991) lists the areas which prompt faculty members to perceive students as 'academically illiterate' (shown in Table 2). Denouncing students simply as "academically illiterate" based on reasons mentioned above does not eventually solve the challenges students encounter in their academic writing practices. Ballard and Clanchy (1991) put forward this idea:

> The entire process of education is shaped by the culture within which it operates. So long as teachers and students share a culture, the problems of learning that arise merely those of educational expectations and methods. Much less tractable problems arise, however, when students shift from one education system to another and the normally shared assumptions no longer obtain. (pp. 20-21)

Table 2. Perceptions of Faculty Members.

What makes university students "academically illiterate" (Johns, 1991, pp.168-169).
A lack of background knowledge: ' They don't even know about the civil war!' Background knowledge of events, concept, and contexts, assumed in academic readings is often absent from students' experience, and because they lack this particular knowledge, students cannot contextualize the information they are reading. (…) Their writing is often stilted as parrot like. They can repeat on paper what they have read but they cannot operate freely and confidently with the facts and ideas.
Problems with interpreting and producing the macropurposes of texts: When answering questions, they can't see the forest for the trees. They seem to be drowned in detail and can't sort it out to discover where it's going.
A "lack of conceptual imagination": As students read, they often [can] not see the relationship between the concepts and the examples in the text. When they [write], they [parrot] the concepts, but often [have] difficulty tying them to examples.
A lack of essential vocabulary
Students' "unwillingness" to be objective about their value systems: When students confront value-loaded text, they often become rigid and unyielding, interpreting it, as they will without suspending judgment. And when they respond to the text in writing, it is often on the emotional level, since their basic values have been threatened.

As shown in Table 3, in their learning histories, students go through different stages in terms of the conceptual activities when they move from one educational context to another. Secondary school education generally adopts a reproductive approach to learning, i.e. the type of learning that is based on imitation of appropriate models and students are expected to answer the question of 'what' by providing explanations and definitions drawing on memorized knowledge (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991). The writing students produce at the reproductive stage does not go beyond writing summaries, descriptions, and reproductions of model essays. Teachers at this stage evaluate and assess students' work based on pre-set criteria and mostly in terms of accuracy.

Table 3. Attitudes to Knowledge/ Learning Approaches/Strategies/Styles.

Conceptual Transition: Conserving →Extending	Reproductive	Analytical	Speculative
Type	Memorization and imitation	Critical thinking	Deliberate search for new possibilities and explanations
Activities	Summarizing Describing Identifying Applying formulae and information	Questioning Judging Recombining ideas and information into an argument	Speculating Hypothesizing
Characteristic Questions	What?	Why? How? How valid? How important?	What if?
Aim	Correctness	Simple originality Reshaping material into a different pattern	Creative originality Totally new approach/new knowledge

(Ballard & Clanchy, 1991, p. 22, Figure 1.1)

At university level students are expected to move conceptually from more concrete activities to more abstract ones. At this analytical stage, learning and academic literacy requires critical thinking skills to able to answer questions of 'Why?, How?, How valid?, and How important?' (Ballard & Clanchy,1991). In their writing practices, students are expected to show competence in constructing an argument on a given topic by synthesizing different sources of information. Teachers at this level take accuracy for granted in students' written work, and look rather for 'originality' of ideas and quality of content in the structuring of the argument and discussion. However, Casaneve (2004) asserts that "learning to write requires years of practice, not weeks; writing is a social practice requiring deep engagement with readings and with other writers, and that focused, rather than fragmented, time is needed if writers are to move their writing forward" (p. 19). Thus, before laying the entire burden on students' shoulders and simply labeling them as 'academically illiterate', faculty members should take into account the rapid conceptual transition that is expected of students on entering the university.

Apart from the aforementioned problems with students' writing and the required conceptual transition with regard to learning and writing activities, on entering university students experience another challenge — one which emerges from 'course-switching' (Lea & Street, 1998). It has already been mentioned that different disciplines in academia requires different literacy practices. In addition to that, Lea and Street (1998) found that in one specific discipline, when students moved from one course to another, they had to contend with different expectations of different university tutors, and these expectations and course requirements were generally left inexplicit. According to Lea and Street (1998) each individual subject tutor has different assumptions about the nature of writing,

and thus each tutor demands to see different learning outcomes in students' written work and interprets students' writing in their personal ways (p.161). For Lea and Street (1998), it was faculty members' varying conceptualizations and assumptions about what is important in students' writing that has led students to confusion and frustration. It was concluded that course-switching, in a sense, compelled students to adapt and accommodate their learning strategies and writing styles once more in a short period of time.

Moreover, Lea and Street (1998) found that "one explanation for problems in student writing might be the gaps between academic staff expectations and student interpretations of what is involved in writing" (p. 159). On his classification of types of texts required at tertiary level education, Horowitz (1986) noted that students and faculty members might hold different views and expectations about the purpose of writing tasks, and they might comprehend the instructions in diverse ways. Students with minimal training and experience in L2 academic writing might approach writing quite differently from their professors (Lavelle and Zuercher, 2001). Basham and Kwachka (1991) indicate:

> It is difficult to imagine how the world of university appears to a student coming from a cultural background that includes not only a language very different from English but also away of viewing the world that differs greatly from the expectations of university discourse community. (p. 37)

Therefore, in evaluating students' written works in any EFL or ESL setting, faculty members need to try to identify with the complexity of writing in a language that students are trying to write at higher conceptual level. Ivanič (1998) defines writing "as an act of identity in which people align themselves with socio-culturally shaped possibilities for self-hood, playing their part in reproducing or challenging dominant

practices and discourses, and the values, beliefs and interest which they embody" (p. 32). Canagarajah (2006) emphasizes the importance of investigating and understanding the factors influencing the writing practices of L2 users in academic settings. Thus, as Lillis (2001) argues, rather than labeling students as "illiterate" or "construing them as intellectually inferior" (p. 40) just because they are deprived of academic literacy skills due to unfamiliarity, students' writing experiences and meaning-making processes should be comprehended within the interaction the following factors as shown in Figure 2.

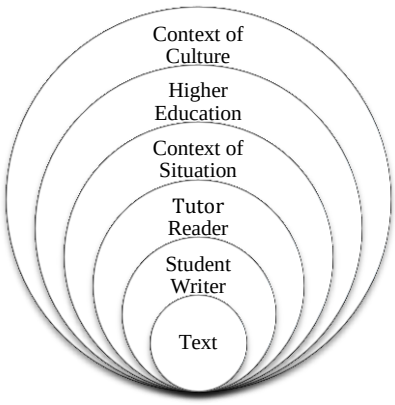


Fig. 2. The practice of student academic writing (Lillis 2001, p.40).

Thus, research on academic writing in L2 at tertiary level should require meticulous consideration of thedynamic interaction of factors influencing students' writing practices. Rather than examining the components involved in the writing processes independently, a holistic approach should be employed to examine the dynamics of the writing situation and L2 students' writing experience.

2.4 Teaching English and writing in the context of the study

This section will provide an overview about the history English language teaching and the local educational value attached to writing in the context of study, Turkey. First, I will provide brief information related to the history of foreign language teaching in Turkey and explain the status of English language in Turkey. Then, I will explain the content of formal L1 (Turkish) writing instruction curriculum offered at Turkish schools from Grade 1 to Grade 12. Following this, I will explain to what extent L2 (English) writing is emphasized in relation to the other language skills (i.e. speaking, listening, and reading) and teaching of grammar in the curriculum and in the textbooks of teaching English as a foreign language in Turkish state schools starting from Grade 2. Next, I will discuss overall nature and quality of L2 (English) writing instruction provided in primary and secondary schools and in Turkish HE institutions. Finally, I will briefly describe the scope of the research conducted on academic writing texts and practices of students in Turkey.

2.4.1 A brief history of ELT and the status of English language in Turkey

Foreign language, as a concept, has had different representations in Turkish society throughout history. The need for learning a foreign language has altered motives and domains with regard to changing socio-economic, political and cultural conditions of the country and the respective era. Considering the indivisible link between language and power, as shown in Table 4 (Selvi, 2011), different foreign languages gained importance and popularity in Turkey depending on the socio-political climate of the period.

Table 4.Chronological Development and Relative Importance of Foreign Languages in Turkey.

Year	1923 -1950	1950 -1980	After 1980
Order of importance/ popularity	1. French 2. English 3. German 4. Arabic	1. English 2. French 3. German 4. Arabic 5. Persian	1. English 2. German 3. French 4. Arabic 5. Persian

(Selvi, 2011, p. 186).

The concept of foreign languages and/or learning a foreign language was not only associated with the West and the Western languages in Turkey. In the early Ottoman period, mastery of Arabic and Persian was considered to be the hallmark of a well-read person and of intellectualism in the society. Developing literacy skills in these languages was related to only literary, official, religious and military usage, and the upper class strata of the society and religious minorities. In the written form of the Ottoman language, which was a mixture of Turkish with Arabic and Persian in terms of its lexical, morphological and syntactical properties, was considered the high variety whereas spoken Turkish – used by the general public – was considered a low variety (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004). However, with the attempts of modernization and Westernization and as a result of socio-cultural, technological and economic developments, French and German have replaced the previous status of Arabic and Persian in Turkey. The importance of learning and teaching a foreign language, specifically a European language, can be traced back to the *Tanzimat* period – also known as the *reform era* - (1839-1876) in Turkish history (Kırkgöz, 2007). Tanzimat reforms attempted to change and renew the nationalist, militarist and Islamic understandings of the state administration and citizens rights in the Ottoman Empire, so as to be able to keep up with the West. The Tanzimat reforms included acts such

as establishing the Council of Public Instruction (1845) and the Ministry of Education (1857), the first modern universities (1848), academies (1848) and teacher training schools (1848), the Ottoman Central Bank (1856), and the establishment of the Imperial Ottoman Lycée at Galatasaray (1868). Tanzimat reforms inherently all required contact with the Western world and European languages. During Tanzimatperiod, the Ottoman Empire started trade relationships with the United States and allowed missionaries with the rights to found the first English-medium school, Robert College, in the Empire in 1863 (Doğançay - Aktuna, 1998).

After the foundation of the Republic of Turkey in 1923 reformist changes took place in Turkish language and education system in 1924. With the Turkish Language Reform in 1928, Arabic letters were abandoned and the Latin alphabet was adopted with the processes of purification, standardization, authentication and modernization of the Turkish language (Bayyurt, 2010; Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004). The official medium of instruction was Turkish, teaching and learning a foreign language became compulsory in Turkish state schools in 1924 (Doğançay- Aktuna, 1998). In those years, because French was considered to be the *lingua franca* all over the world, French was taught as foreign language at most state schools in Turkey. Later on, German was introduced, and in the 1930s and 1940s both French and German were very popular and influenced Turkish society in various cultural domains. However, in the 1950s, after World War II, English started to gain precedence over other foreign languages because the United States had become the superpower of the world (Bayyurt, 2012, p. 303). During the multi-party period of Turkey in the 1950s, with the Democrat Party winning the elections where they were opposed by the Republican People's Party, and with its new liberal understanding of economy and administrative power, Turkey started to develop closer relationships

with the United States “moving away from European influences”, and therefore “felt pressure to gain better access to English in order to improve trade relations and make progress in technology” (Doğançay- Aktuna, 1998, p. 27). This situation intensified the need and the demand for teaching and learning English, and as a result, English took its place in the national educational curriculum. Evidently, after the foundation of the Republic, “learning a foreign language was no longer a privilege of the advantaged groups” (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004, p. 39); everyone studying at state schools and universities gained the right to learn a foreign language. In 1955, the first Anatolian schools, which currently provide a preparatory year in foreign language instruction and instruction in a foreign language like private schools do, were founded (Kırkgöz, 2007).

The global effects of the spread of English language commenced being felt in the 1980s with the neo-liberal movements of free market economy policy promoted by the 8th President, Turgut Özal. The number of private schools where the medium of instruction was English increased, along with the number of Anatolian High Schools. Receiving education at those schools became very popular - even asine qua non - as these schools were regarded as the guarantee for good quality education, which promised a prosperous future and a higher social status in society. Until 1997, students studying at state primary schools were not receiving any foreign language instruction. After five years of compulsory primary school education, the system allowed students to continue their secondary (three years) and high school (three years) education in private schools or public/state schools. Public/state schools were then classified as “standard/general, vocational (technical, commerce, fine arts) and Anatolian High Schools” (Doğançay- Aktuna and Kızıltepe, 2005, p. 255). Students were allowed to register at those schools based on the scores they got on national

central examinations and their socio-economic status. Among these schools, standard/general and vocational schools provided approximately eight hours per week of foreign language instruction with no preparatory English. In private schools and Anatolian High Schools, after one/two year(s) of preparatory English, all school subjects except Turkish, Religion, History and Geography, were taught in the foreign language of that school.

Entering Anatolian High Schools and private schools was very competitive and demanded high scores on the central national examination. Anatolian High Schools functioned as an alternative to private schools for those who could not afford to send their children to private schools, as these required high tuition fees, but who desired a good quality education with intensive foreign language instruction. Thus, "many middle-class families devotedly prepared their children for the entrance exams to the Anatolian secondary schools" (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004, p. 42). Moreover, in 1994 "Super English High Schools" were founded.These were similar to Anatolian High Schools in that they provided one-year of English language instruction but required lower scores on the entrance examination (Kırkgöz, 2007). However, acknowledging the fact that studying almost all school subjects in English was disadvantageous for some of the students taking the Turkish-medium central university entrance examination, in 2002 the Ministry of National Education (MONE) enacted a regulation that science and mathematics should be taught in Turkish in those schools.

The law that passed (Act no. 4306) in 1997 started a groundbreaking period of foreign language planning policy in Turkey. MONE, collaborating with the Turkish Council of Higher Education (CoHE), developed The Ministry of Education Development Project in which the five-year compulsory primary school education

was extended to eight years. Secondary school education (formerly known as high school education) lasted for three years with a one-year additional (1+3) English preparation class in private, Anatolian and Super English High Schools. With the new system, English began to be taught to young learners starting from Grade 4 and Grade 5 as a standardized compulsory school subject (Kırkgöz, 2007). On this matter, Kırkgöz (2009) argues:

> Turkey's political and economic ambitions and the nations desire to keep up its relations with foreign countries using English, particularly with the countries of the European Union, [were] major motivating forces underlying the decisions to introduce English to young learners. (p. 674)

The 1997 act and newly designed foreign language-teaching curriculum are considered to be innovative in many ways as they emphasize student-centered teaching approaches and communicative language teaching (CLT) methodologies in foreign language teaching (Bayyurt, 2012; Haznedar, 2012; Kırkgöz, 2007). However, studies (Kırkgöz, 2006; Haznedar, 2012) revealed that these innovative teaching approaches and methodologies could not be implemented as they were intended to and proposed by the MONE due to contextual factors. In her study, Kırkgöz (2006) conducted a survey among 50 teachers of English. Her findings have shown that teachers were only partially able to reshape their teaching practices and apply these suggested approaches and methodologies. This was due to insufficient time allocated for foreign language instruction, an overloaded curriculum, large class sizes, the lack of teaching materials and resources, and the mismatch between the content and layout of the textbooks and the suggested methodology i.e. CLT. Her participant teachers also suggested more time should be allocated for language practice by reducing the quantity of input (Kırkgöz, 2007, p.186).

Haznedar (2012) conducted a study with 538 state primary school language teachers about their classroom teaching practices and she concluded that approximately the same number of teachers continued using audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods along with CLT approaches. Her findings also revealed that teachers' preferred classroom procedures were not in line with communicative language teaching methodologies required for young learners. The most commonly used classroom procedures were found to be "repetition (84.6% 451/533), dialogues (86.7%, 462/533), question-answer (93.1%, 496/533), pair work (71.9%, 383/533), and translation from English to Turkish (65.9%, 351/533)" (Haznedar, 2012, p. 44).

In 2005, in order to offer equal opportunities in foreign language learning for all students in different types of secondary schools (i.e. state schools and/or private, Anatolian, Super English High Schools) and standardize the amount and nature of foreign language instruction, the MONE decided to abolish the one-year English preparatory classes in secondary school education. With this system, "the first year at secondary school [was] taught ten lessons of English, and the second, third and fourth years four hours of weekly English" (Kırkgöz, 2007, p. 224). In 2012, another big reform, after the 1997 act, took place in the Turkish national education planning. With this act, referred to as 4+4+4, the Compulsory eight-year (5+3) primary school education was abolished and compulsory education was extended to twelve years for all citizens. In this 4+4+4 system, foreign language instruction starts at Grade 2 (Bayyurt, 2013). The efficacy of the general framework and the implementation of this new system is continuously an issue.

In Turkey, all higher education institutions operate under the control and supervision of The Council of Higher Education (CoHE). According to 2013 statistics, there are currently 179 universities in Turkey, 109 of which are state

universities and 69 are private (foundation) universities. Among the 109 state universities, only two offer all courses with English-medium instruction. There are four private universities where the medium of instruction is English, and in other private universities departments such as engineering, international relations, media studies and Western languages offer their departmental courses in English on an alternative basis. Student placements at universities are determined in accordance with the scores they get on the centralized university entrance examination and their own preferences.

Students preferring departments where the medium of instruction is English are required to take a proficiency exam of the relevant university or else present a valid internationally accepted test result, e.g. TOEFL or IELTS. If students cannot pass the proficiency exam or present an alternative test result, they have to study English in the preparatory program for one year and retake the proficiency exam at the end of the academic year. Effective as of 2009 (CHE -Act. 27272), students studying at departments where the medium of instruction is Turkish are required to take compulsory foreign languages courses (oftenEnglish) for two academic terms, depending on the results of a placement test unless they are able to present an internationally recognized language proficiency test result. These compulsory English courses aim to teach learners basic grammatical rules, enhance their knowledge of vocabulary, and to make them gain adequate skills to comprehend what they read and hear and express themselves in written and oral discourses.

With this brief overview, it is understood that learning and teaching of foreign languages has always been important in Turkey due to various socio-cultural, socio-economic and political reasons. However, as mentioned above, the popularity of English as a foreign language and the impetus for learning English gained

acceleration particularly in the 1980s. With the worldwide effects of globalization and free market economy policies, imported goods and artefacts of Western popular culture became much more accessible to Turkish people. This triggered the motivation to learn and use English, along with the educational merits English provides for better occupational and living. Not only for the upper class but also for the middle class "the possession of western consumer goods, the adoption or imitation of source-cultural habits, and the occasional 'seasoning' of speech with English words were signs of sophistication and westernization" (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004, p. 42).

Today in the Turkish socio-cultural context, with the on-going effects of globalization and the most integral part of everyday life, the Internet, " English carries the instrumental function of being the most studied foreign language and the most popular medium of education after Turkish" (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998, p.37). Kırkgöz (2009) classifies the function of English in Turkey in three areas: international, intranational and national. English plays a significant role particularly at international and national levels in Turkey. At the international level "English is needed to maintain communication with the outside world for economic, social and business relations to accelerate Turkey's modernization and Westernization", and at the national level, personal instrumental motivations to learn a foreign language emerge as mentioned earlier – "gaining access to better education and a more prestigious job with better benefits and prospects for promotion" (Kırkgöz, 2009, p. 666). These functions, to a certain extent, accord with the contextual functions of non-native varieties of English suggested by Kachru (1992). In relation to these functions, Doğançay-Aktuna (1998) underlines that English functions only at instrumental and interpersonal levels but not at regulative or imaginative (innovative)

levels in Turkey. According to Kachru's (1992) three concentric circles, Turkey falls into the Expanding Circle category because in Turkey English is taught and learned as a foreign language for instrumental purposes and it has no official/institutional status or usage as a second language. However, as an interesting fact, Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe (2005) and Selvi (2011) argue that the importance that is attached to the learning and usage of English in Turkey also shows resemblance to that of Outer Circle countries where English holds an official status and is used as a second language. They show the popularity of educational instructions with English-medium instruction and the top-down promotion of English by the government as evidence to this claim. Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe (2005) suggest:

> While many countries with many different social and political stances have taken measures to keep English outside the domains of their national affairs while encouraging for international communication, Turkey has done exactly the opposite by showing an increasing tendency to use English as the medium of instruction both at the secondary and high levels of education and sometimes even in private elementary schools. (p. 264).

Despite the popularity and promotion of learning English in Turkey and educational amendments carried out in the national curriculum to start foreign language instruction at the very early stages of the compulsory education system, it is essential to note that the quality of English language instruction is not sustained equally in all types of educational institutions. Learners studying at private schools are still more advantaged in terms of many aspects – e.g. the quality of teachers and teaching materials, ideal class sizes, learner-centered teaching approaches and quantity of language instruction, in contrast to those studying at public schools.

2.4.2 Writing as a language skill in Turkish secondary and higher education systems

2.4.2.1 Formal L1 (Turkish) writing instruction in Turkey

In Turkey, students receive writing instruction in their first language (L1) starting from Grade 1. The curriculum for Grades 1 to 5 is designed to develop students' writing skills with a constructivist approach from sentence and paragraph level to composition level, and from controlled writing and dictation activities to free writing activities (Türkçe Dersi 1-5. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2009). Writing activities and the text genres suggested in the 2009 curriculum design are journals, invitation cards, letters, announcements and posters (Grades 3-5), informative essays (Grades 3-5), short stories, descriptive paragraphs, short plays (Grade 3), poems, persuasive essays (Grades 3-5), paraphrasing (Grade 3-5), summaries (Grades 4-5), opinion essays (Grades 4-5), and note-taking (Grade 5).

The Turkish language curriculum designed for Grades 6-8 (2006) aims to equip students with the necessary knowledge of and practice in the following skills: using Turkish language accurately, figuratively and effectively, thinking critically and creatively, having efficient communication, research, problem-solving, and decision making skills, and using technology competently (Türkçe 6 ve 8. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı ve Kılavuzu , 2005). In the curriculum of grades 6-8, a constructivist and process oriented approach is implemented for writing activities (p. 11). Writings activities and writing tasks generally focus on development of skills and text types such as note-taking, summary writing, filling in information, expressive writing from the pool of vocabulary and concepts, free writing, controlled writing, expressive writing, creative writing, completing reading texts with

expressive writing, predictive writing, deconstructing/reconstructing written material, group writing, and critical writing (pp. 74-76).

With the new 4+4+4 system, as of 2013, a new writing course 'Authorship and Writing Skills' *(Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersi)* – independent of Turkish grammar – has started to be offered at state schools for Grades 5 to 8 as an elective course. The curriculum for this new course seems to be innovative for developing L1 writing skills of learners in many ways. First of all, based on constructivist and learner-centered approaches, the new curriculum acknowledges the individual differences of the learners and positions the teacher as the facilitator (Yazarlık ve Yazma Becerileri Dersi 5-8. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2012). With genre-based approach, the new curriculum aims to teach characteristics of different text types highlighting a process-oriented writing approach rather than previously used product-oriented approaches. Providing effective feedback and focusing on content rather than form and formative assessment are highly emphasized. The primary targeted learning outcomes are developing learners' critical/analytical thinking skills, familiarizing learners with different genres of writing, making learners consider writing courses as a skills development process rather than regarding the course as simply a school subject that they have to pass, and engaging them in writing outside the school. Because it is offered as an elective course, learning outcomes of this course are not specified in accordance with what is expected of Grades 5-8 in overall the curriculum plan. It is identified in accordance with the level a learner (of any grade) is expected to attain at certain points of the writing skills development process. Not only these but also the way the text-types are introduced is quite innovative and shows a close resemblance to the academic writing courses in ESL or EAP courses offered at many universities. Learners start with writing expository

essays by using certain organizational patterns such as description, classification, process-analysis / chronological order, problem-solution, comparison and contrast; and then they move on narrative essays and opinion (essays), which are followed by synthesis writing. Finally, students are familiarized with genres they might come across in their daily lives such as writing petitions, invitations, letters, emails, journals, advertisements, blogs and curriculum vitae.

A Language and Narratology course *(Dil ve Anlatım Dersi)* is being used for Grades 9 to 12 (Dil ve Anlatım Dersi 9-12. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2010). In Grade 9, students start with Turkish sentence structure and then they are expected to write well-formed paragraphs focusing on the main idea, and to develop and shape supporting ideas. The suggested syllabus for Grade 10 focuses on the preparation stages of writing, i.e. subject and themes, narrowing down the topic, determining purpose, audience, tone and attitude, planning, and organization of ideas. The development of writing skills is integrated with reading skills; thus, learners are first familiarized with text types (i.e. narrative, descriptive, epic, informative, satirical, imaginative) through readings texts, and after close analysis of the texts in terms of their organizational and linguistic structures, learners practice writing. For Grade 11, reading and writing skills are presented again in an integrated way. At this level, students practice writing expository and argumentative essays in these stages: planning, drafting, revising, editing and writing the final paper. Students also read and analyze other text types such as letters, journals, biographies, autobiographies, travel writing, interviews, articles and news reports. The syllabus for Grade 12 is predominantly designed to ground learners in literary genres such as short stories, novels, plays and poetry, along with scientific articles.

In the Turkish higher education system, students are required to continue taking Turkish courses during the two terms of their first-year university education regardless of their major program. The content of the two courses – Turkish I and Turkish II – resemble what is offered in Grades 9-12. The courses focus mainly on developing students' writing skills in a graded scheme, starting from selecting topics, narrowing down a topic, planning, summarizing, note-taking to paragraph level organization, developing an idea with various organizational patterns, and writing essays based on different text genres. The courses also aim to familiarize students with works of Turkish literature, Turkish phonetics, Turkish grammar, spelling and punctuation rules as well as developing students' oral presentation skills.

2.4.2.1 Formal L2 (English) Writing Instruction in Turkey

Earlier in this section, I have described how and in what ways English language teaching policy and curriculum have changed in Turkey over the course of years. The MONE's latest 2013 curriculum on the teaching of English in primary and secondary schools – based on the recent 4+4+4 system –acknowledgesthe shortcomings of the previous curriculum which failed to implement intended communicative language teaching approaches.

> Despite continual efforts at improving the language education in Turkey, a significant percentage of students leave school without the ability to interact successfully in an English- language medium. While it is understood that there may be many variables at work in the on-going problem, it is believed that the main reasons for the failure of such a large number of Turkey's students to master English lies in the fact that the language is presented to them as a subject to be learned at school – an academic requirement to be met – rather than as a means for communication (İngilizce Dersi 2-8. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2013, p. II).

Based on that assumption, while planning the new curricular model, the MONE has paid considerable attention tothe authenticity of teaching materials and re-emphasized the importance of communicative approaches to language teaching in order to make the language learning process more meaningful for the learners. Teaching materials have been redesigned so that they are relevant to the learners' lives and interests, focusing more on interactive purposes rather than focusing on form and function. The Curriculum for English language teaching has been redesigned considering the needs and acquired skills of learners of different age groups and attentively following the principles and the descriptors of Common European Framework of References for Language: Learning, Teaching and Assessment (CEFR). In line with the CEFR framework, the expected level of proficiency to be attained at the end of primary school education is A2, and for secondary school education B1 level is targeted. Primary school education encompasses Grade 2 to 8, namely the first two phases of the 4+4+4 system, and secondary school education is the last 4 years of the system (Grades 9-12).

When the content of previous curriculum of English language teaching for Grades 2-8 is analyzed, it is observed that 'writing' is a less emphasized or is considered as a 'secondary' language skill in relation to the other language skills, i.e. speaking, listening and reading, as shown in Table 5. In terms of skills teaching, at the early levels – Grade 2 to Grade 3 – listening and speaking skills are to be developed whereas reading and writing skills are introduced to a "very limited" extent. For Grades 4 to 6, while listening and speaking skills sustain their places as the main focus, the reading skill starts to be introduced to a "limited" extent while the writing skill continues to be labeled as "very limited". For Grades 7 and 8,

listening and speaking are categorized as the “primary skills focus” whereas reading and writing are categorized as the “secondary skills focus”.

When the newly designed curriculum is analyzed, it is observed that from Grade 2 to Grade 4, only listening and speaking skills are emphasized in the suggested unit plans. In Grades 5 and 6, the reading skill starts to be emphasized at comprehension level, and learners are expected to practice writing only with controlled activities (i.e. preparing birthday cards, invitation emails, posters, drawing maps, short-story scripts with pictures) requiring very limited production at phrase or short-short sentence level simply to practice the learnt grammatical structures.

Table 5. Model English Language Curriculum - 2nd-8th Grades.

LEVELS [CEFR]/ (Hours /Week)	Grades (Age)	Skill Focus	Main Activities Strategies
1 [A1] (2)	2 (6-6,5)	Listening and Speaking	TPR/Arts and Crafts/ Drama
	3 (7-7,5)	Listening and Speaking Very Limited Reading and Writing	
	4 (8-8,5)	Listening and Speaking Very Limited Reading and Writing	
2 [A1] (4)	5 (9-9,5)	Listening and Speaking Limited Reading Very Limited Writing	Drama/ Role-plays
	6 (10-10,5)	Listening and Speaking Limited Reading Very Limited Writing	
3 [A2] (4)	7 (11-11,5)	Primary: Listening and Speaking Secondary: Reading and Writing	Theme- based
	8 (12-12,5)	Primary: Listening and Speaking Secondary: Reading and Writing	

(İngilizce Dersi 2-8. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2013, p.v)

In Grades 7 and 8, learners are expected to start filling in their portfolios and for the first time writingis introduced as a “skill focus” in the unit plans. For both Grade 7 and 8, the expected learning outcome for writing is considered is to enable students “to write simple sentences and phrases” and “short paragraphs” to practice taught grammatical structures. The writing activities are again controlled activities and they center around themes such as comparing two people, descriptions of animals or famous people, likes and dislikes, future predictions, description of a process, simple messages (letters, emails, invitation cards), advertisement campaigns, slogans, interview reports, short paragraphs about daily routines and future plans, series of sentences using basic cohesive devices and so on.

The MONE published an updated English Language Curriculum for Grades 9 to 12 in 2014. This curriculum – as a continuation of the 2013 curriculum (Grades 2-8) – is designed with more emphasis on integrating the four language skills across the curriculum, considering learners’ academic needs. In explaining the rationale behind the English Curriculum for Grades 9 to 12, the MONE acknowledged the fact that Turkish students lack targeted communicative competence and that foreign language education in Turkey relies heavily on the teaching and assessing of grammatical structures. Thus, the 2014 curriculum for Grades 9-12 was designed to address language functions rather than form and aimed to stimulate the questions of ‘how’ and ‘why’ rather than ‘what’ in relation to language and language skills teaching. Also, acknowledging the unfeasibility of applying communicative language teaching and assessment methodologies in over-populated classes, the MONE decided to make more use of technology, the Internet and online learning (i.e. learning outside the classroom) in its approaches to teaching the language and assessing the students’ performances.

In the 2014 curriculum, the writing skill is positioned and ranked as the fourth language skill in syllabuses designed for the ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades (İngilizce Dersi 9-12. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2014). The units in the syllabuses are thematically designed and focus on particular functions of the language, and the writing tasks proposed in each unit reflect these two aspects. For instance, if the theme of one particular unit is music, the targeted functions of the language are expressing opinion, explaining and justifying, and expressing preferences. In line with the theme and the targeted functions of the language, suggested writing tasks are 'writing about music preferences' and 'writing a survey report on people's music preferences'. For Grade 9, suggested writing activities are spelling vocabulary correctly, writing short blog entries, writing short descriptive paragraphs, filling in information, preparing short movie posters or a school magazine, writing short sentences using basic cohesive devices, and some other controlled writing tasks to reinforce grammar and vocabulary. Writings tasks suggested for Grades 10 and 11 again include controlled writing tasks in which students are expected to practice particular function of language (i.e. writing about future plans and past personal experiences, expressing advice, expressing preferences), short informative and descriptive paragraphs about various topics such as tourist attractions and superheroes. In Grade 12 students are expected to prepare surveys and reports on preferences, write summaries and endings for short stories, write reflection paragraphs, and prepare presentations in which they synthesize information and argumentation from various sources.

Kıray (2011) has analyzed "writing as a literacy and communication skill" in a selected sample of course books designed in accordance with previous ELT curriculum and used in state schools from Grade 4 to Grade 10. Kıray's (2011) study

shows that course books – which are designed in accordance with the suggested curriculum of the MONE in 2006 – generally do not provide students with writing instruction aiming at teaching specific text types such as paragraph writing, essay writing, free writing and so on. Kıray (2011) has concluded that writing activities are used mostly as a "means of language teaching" (p.199), and of 124 writing activities in a total 65% are no genre-specific (p.230) and 65% are controlled writing exercises (p.247) aiming at practicing "the target language form" (p.179). Therefore, it would be not wrong to say that "in spite of the acceptance of a communication approach to ELT in Turkey, the time devoted to writing activities remains limited in primary and secondary schools" (Yaylı, 2012, p.149). Although the MONE has been emphasizing the importance of process-oriented approaches to learning a foreign language, which focus more on developing strategies rather than focusing on forms (İngilizce Dersi 2-8. Sınıflar Öğretim Programı, 2013), the reality displays somewhat a different picture. To what extent the new 2013 and 2014 curricula will be successful in attaining their learning outcomes is only a question of time at the moment.

In higher education institutions, students, who are studying at departments where the medium of instruction is English are expected to produce academic texts in English in order to meet the requirements of their departments. Especially, with Turkish higher education institutions' involvement in the Bologna Process in 2001, developing particular skills and competences such as critical thinking, interpretation and evaluation, research and academic writing have gained more importance in terms of determining, defining and designing program objectives, program outcomes and learning outcomes for all departments at universities (Türkiye Yükseköğretim Yeterlilikler Çerçevesi, 2010). Although different academic disciplines require the development of academic writing skills in diverse genres e.g. essays, research

papers, response/reaction papers, reports, written examinations and so on, they all require students to write analytically and critically. Preparatory programs design their curricula to meet these requirements and most undergraduate programs – with either Turkish or English as the medium of instruction – offer courses on academic writing and research methodology.

2.5 Research on academic writing in English in Turkey

The most prevalent themes investigated by L2 writing researchers in Turkey are (1) the effect of L2 instruction on L1 and L2 writing (Akyel & Kamisli, 1997; Can 2007, Uysal, 2008), (2) structural, lexical, organizational, and argumentative patterns of L1 and L2 essays (Bayyurt, 2010; Can 2007; Uysal, 2008), (3) bidirectional transfer of contrastive rhetoric (Enginarlar, 1990; Oktar, 1991; Uysal, 2008), (4)peer and teacher writing feedback (Kurt & Atay, 2007), (5) the effect of using of portfolios, the Internet, and weblogs on L2 writing(Arslan & Şahin –Kızıl, 2010; Aydın, 2010; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007) , (6) writing anxiety(Atay & Kurt, 2006; Kurt & Atay, 2007; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007;), and (7) the effects of particular types of writing instruction on students' L2 writing (Yaylı; 2011). Yaylı (2012) has provided a comprehensive review of L2 writing research conducted in Turkey, and she concluded that research on L2 writing in Turkey is sparse in comparison to research on other instructed language skills (i.e. reading, speaking and listening).

There are only few studies that correspond to the scope of the present study. Uysal (2008) examined whether shared cultural background and previous educational history influenced the rhetorical preferences of 18 Turkish participants while producing their texts in L1 and L2. She employed a background questionnaire,

textual analysis, and stimulated recall interviews in her study. Her findings revealed evidence of bidirectional transfer of L1 and L2 rhetorical patterns, which can be traced back both to participants' former Turkish educational histories, and some other factors such as L2 proficiency level, degree of familiarity with the topic, and the audience of the text.

Alagözlü and Süzer (2010) explored whether Turkish writers' writing problems that exhibit lack of critical thinking and voice are rooted in cultural disposition. They conducted the study with 30 Turkish pre-service language teachers (ELT undergraduates), and they analyzed their L1 and L2 texts using critical thinking essay test criteria. The participants attained low scores on the test; however, the scores of L1 and L2 texts did not show any significant difference. Therefore, Alagözlü and Süzer (2010) found that the respective languages of the participants did not create any barriers to their critical thinking while constructing their texts. They concluded that the difficulties arise mainly from unfamiliarity with argumentative essay structure, lack of train of thought in the Turkish education system, and cultural social maxims.

Atay and Kurt (2006) investigated to what extent writing anxiety exerts influence on L2 writing practices and pedagogical beliefs of 85 Turkish pre-service language teachers (ELT senior year undergraduate students). They employed a writing anxiety inventory and an open-ended questionnaire to collect data from their participants. Their findings revealed two levels of anxiety (i.e. high and average level) impacting participants' text-generating processes, particularly in terms of producing and organizing their ideas. Findings derived from open-ended questionnaires showed their participants' writing anxieties stem mainly from teachers' attitudes, participants' insufficient past writing experience, time

constraints, deadlines, exams, and classroom setting. Atay and Kurt (2006) concluded that pre-service language teachers' writing anxieties might affect their prospective approaches to teaching writing negatively, and they suggested pedagogical implications for secondary school L2 writing instruction.

Yağız (2009) investigated the academic writing approaches, beliefs and strategies of 70 Turkish graduate students. He employed an inventory of the graduate writing process, textual analyses, and semi-structured interviews. His findings revealed that graduate students' academic writing difficulties stem mainly from insufficient academic writing instruction and experience prior to their graduate studies, unfamiliarity with academic writing conventions, and some affective factors such as motivation, procrastination and a low self-efficacy approach. Yağız (2009) suggested that graduate programs should offer academic writing courses for graduate students, and that instructors should approach graduate students in a constructive manner both in terms of feedback and supervision.

In conclusion, to date there are few studies that investigated academic writing practices of undergraduate students in Turkey. These studies particularly investigated the issue from the scope of writing anxiety, and their findings remained only at diagnostic level. The studies did not further investigate how students' past schooling and writing experiences exert influence on their existing writing practices at university level. The studies also did not enquire into the potential causes of undergraduate students' academic writing difficulties by incorporating the two main stakeholders of the writing situation – i.e. students and teachers. Therefore, further research is needed to portray and document the writing situation in Turkey, and to explore the interplay of potential factors influencing undergraduate students' academic writing practices from a more comprehensive perspective.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Focusing on the research methodology, this chapter will, first of all, explain primary reasons for adopting an interpretivist research paradigm and qualitative research design for the present study. Then, the adopted research paradigm and research design will be justified with the explanation of the purpose of the study and the research questions. Thick description of the research setting and the participants of the study will follow this part. Next, the data collection methods and data analysis procedures will be explained. The chapter will, finally, focus on the trustworthiness and ethical considerations of the study.

3.1 Research questions

This study aims to gain a deeper understanding of the dynamic interaction of factors influencing Turkish university students' academic writing practices in English. The study is designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What educational and contextual factors influence Turkish university students' academic writing practices in English?
2. What are the educational factors that university students perceive to be influential in their academic writing practices?
3. What are the contextual factors that university students perceive to be influential in their academic writing practices?
4. How do teachers' attitudes toward L2 writing and their expectations from students affect university students' writing practices?

3.2 Research paradigm

Patton (1990) defines paradigm as “a worldview, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world” (p.37). The paradigm is comprised of the set of beliefs, ideas and practices that we use to apprehend and explain the world around us. The research paradigm of a particular study is, in this sense, “guided by the researcher’s set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 22). The research paradigm provides a framework for the researcher, and it determines and shapes all the decisions and actions of the researcher while designing and conducting a research. Duff (2008) indicates, “all research at some level represents an ideology concerning the nature of reality, a philosophical basis regarding the nature of knowing, and various practical methods for studying the phenomena” (p. 28). The research paradigm constituted by ontology (nature of knowledge or reality, whether it is constructed or exists independent of the context), epistemology (how knowledge and/or reality should be understood and the objectivity or subjectivity of the inquirer), axiology (what is valuable to study), and methodology (the approaches and the means of the inquiry) reflects the ideology of the researcher. Thus, the research paradigm of a study is closely related to how the researcher observes, perceives and questions the world.

Fundamentally, there are two main research paradigms: the positivist/post-positivist research paradigm and the constructivist/interpretive research paradigm. The positivist/post-positivist research paradigm differs from the latter with its “realist and critical” ontology, “objective” epistemology, and its methodology which relies on direct observation and empirical research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 24).

For positivists and post-positivists, the reality is “external to human mind”, the purpose of the research is to find the “universals” of the truth and to draw generalizations, and “the meaning of data” is plausible only by “falsification” and “testing” of the pre-set hypotheses (Willis, 2007, p.95). Positivist and post-positivist research paradigms are compatible with the ontology, epistemology and methodology of natural sciences; however, they may not provide an adequate framework or tools to explain phenomena in the social sciences. Social science, in general, seeks to understand human nature and human behavior in particular contexts. Therefore, approaches based simply on direct observation and empirical data collection and analysis methods are not sufficient to explain the complex nature of the human mind and the influences shaping and underlying human behavior. Willis (2007) suggests that constructive/interpretive research paradigms and critical theory are more powerful sources for social science inquiry to understand the existing reality in particular contexts.

Unlike positivism and post-positivism aiming at “a single understanding of the ‘right’ way of viewing a particular situation” (Willis, 2007, p. 113),the constructivist/interpretive research paradigm seeks to understand multiple realities and multiple perspectives about a given phenomenon. Interpretivism brings an “inside-out approach to social science”, acknowledging that the nature of reality is socially constructed and that the reality is “dynamic and responsive to fluctuations of human interaction, perception and creation of meaning” (Willis, 2007, p. 193). The constructive/interpretivist research paradigm seeks to explore and understand the truth from people’s own experiences and perspectives, and in a sense, it embraces multiple interpretations of the same phenomenon (Creswell, 2009).Thus, in contrast to the positivist/ post-positivist research paradigm, the constructivist/ interpretive

research paradigm adopts “relativist” ontology, acknowledging that different people can perceive a single phenomenon and/or reality in different ways, a “subjectivist” epistemology in which the researcher and the participant “co-create understandings”, and employs methodologies such as interviews and observations conducted in “naturalistic” settings (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 24).

Prior to my researcher identity, as a lecturer who had been teaching academic writing to undergraduate students for the previous nine years, I had gained sufficient experience in observing the challenges students face in trying to adapt their existing learning and writing styles to what is required and expected in academic contexts. With my researcher identity, I have always considered this challenging situation as a particular issue to be explored. I believe in the relativist nature of reality and that reality is socially constructed and cannot be entirely explained by disregarding the contextual factors. With this relativist ontological stance, I decided that this situation that I consider problematic could only be investigated from the participants’ (i.e. students and teachers) points of view, as they are the agents who are constructing this reality. From an epistemological stance, as the researcher I am not seeking to arrive at general truth/knowledge or objective reality; instead I am concerned with understanding how participants perceive and interpret reality to be able to draw a detailed and multifaceted picture of reality in a particular setting. Hence, with this philosophical stance, in this study I adopted the constructivist/interpretive approach as my research paradigm. Moreover, Silva (2005) claims, “positivist orientation for second language writing is not viable because of its inductive basis; lack of recognition of perceptual, cognitive, and sociocultural screens though which reality is filtered” (p. 9). The positivist research paradigm is not sufficient to comprehend the reality related to writing with all its aspects because writing per se entails a

dynamic interaction of psychological, cognitive, perceptual, individual, and cultural constituents. Moreover, writing in a second/foreign language is interrelated in a broader dynamic interaction of educational, sociocultural and even political components. In line with the research questions of the study aiming to explore the educational and contextual factors influencing the writing situation, practices and experiences of Turkish university students, the constructivist/interpretive approach serves at its best as the research paradigm in this study design.

For studies designed within the constructivist/interpretive research paradigm, qualitative methods of data collection and analysis or mixed design approaches are more appropriate, as the researcher pursues a more comprehensive understanding of how people perceive, interpret, and comprehend what they go through in their particular contexts (Mason, 1996). The next section will explain the foundations of qualitative research design and its appropriateness for the study.

3.3 Research design

Applied linguistics, being a broad and interdisciplinary field of study, employs quantitative, qualitative or mixed design research methodologies in its enquiry (Croker, 2009). With a broad definition, based on positivist/post-positivist research paradigms, quantitative research design aims to uncover an existing reality by testing hypotheses through collecting numerical data from a large sample size, analyzing the data statistically, producing generalizable and objective results that are independent of the researcher, yet represent the reality in the best way (Muijs, 2004). Qualitative research design adopts a different stance from that of quantitative research design in the following components of research: methods of data collection, the role of the

researcher, the purpose of the research, attitude toward the outcomes of the study, the nature of the data, generalizability and/or transferability of the findings, and perception of the reality. Mackey and Gass (2005) summarize the differences between the characteristics of these two types of research designs as shown in Table 6.

Table 6.Characteristics of Quantitative and Qualitative Research

Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research
Obtrusive, involving controlled measurement	Naturalistic, controlled observation
Objective and removed from the data	Subjective
Verification Oriented, confirmatory	Discovery oriented
Outcome- oriented	Process-oriented
Reliable, involving “hard” and replicable data	“Soft” data
Generalizable	Ungeneralizable, single case studies
Assuming a stable reality	Assuming a dynamic reality

(Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.2)

Qualitative research design, based on constructivist/interpretivist research paradigms, aims to explore multiple realities and discrete meanings that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2013). In qualitative research, researchers position themselves in the study, collect data in natural settings, analyze and interpret the data both inductively and deductively, and develop context-specific complex picture of the issue by not drawing generalizations (Croker, 2009).

Qualitative data collection and analysis methods suit the purpose of this study because the study emphasizes the importance of understanding and discussing dynamic factors influencing Turkish undergraduate university students’ academic writing practices, particularly from the participants’ own perspectives.

In the next section, in line with the characteristics of qualitative research as shown in Table 6, I will describe more in detail the rationale for adopting qualitative research design for the present study. In this section, because I have used questionnaires to provide a base for qualitative data collection methods and will be presenting the results of these questionnaires, I will also explain the importance of mixed-design methodologies for data collection and analysis.

As evident from the literature, quantitative research methods are also frequently employed in second language writing research, aiming to explain causal or correlational relationships between variables. Quantitative and qualitative approaches do not necessarily have to be considered as "polar opposites or dichotomies" because they "represent different ends on a continuum" (Creswell, 2009, p.3). As Stake (2010) indicates, the preference of one over the other and the "distinction between quantitative and qualitative methods is a matter of emphasis more than a discrete boundary" (p.19) between the two approaches. As the researcher, for a second language writing research paradigm, I consider quantitative and qualitative methodologies as complementary rather than oppositional. Mixed methods research design, or multimodal inquiry, employs both quantitative and qualitative research in accordance with the aims and context of the study, and the nature of research questions (Croker, 2009). Mixed methods design enables researchers to gain a more in-depth understanding of the particular issue of inquiry and see the complete picture of the context. Three main characteristics mixed-methods design are timing, weighting and mixing (Ivankova and Creswell, 2009). In this study, the data are collected sequentially, i.e. first quantitative and then qualitative, and the weighting is *QUAL vs. quan*, indicating that the study prioritizes qualitative data collection methodologies and analyses.

The extensive use of qualitative research methodologies serves to provide answers for the purpose of this study.

3.3.1 Rationale for adopting qualitative research design

Creswell (2009) defines qualitative research as "a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals ascribe to a social and human problem" (p.4). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) describe general characteristics of qualitative research as follows:

> Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. … Qualitative research involves interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. … Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them. (p.3)

In line with this definition, I can broadly verify the appropriateness of adopting a qualitative research design for this study. First of all, the study follows a situated qualitative approach because as the researcher, I was participating in the context that was being investigated. Since 2005, I have been working and teaching various undergraduate courses, including academic writing courses at the institution where where the study was conducted. Thus, I have been actively participating in and observing the world of participants of the study – the students and their writing practices. This has also enabled me, as the researcher, to build the necessary relationship and rapport with the participants. With regard to the purposes of the study that aim to explore, uncover, and explain the potential factors influencing the writing experience and practices of the participants – in other words, to make their

worlds visible – from their own voices, I conducted interviews with the participants. The findings will be interpreted within the unique characteristics of the setting of the study.

Creswell (2009) lists nine principal characteristics of qualitative research. In order to show the appropriateness of qualitative research design in a more detailed way, I will focus on each of these characteristics and explain how the design of this study conforms to these characteristics of qualitative research.

The first characteristic of qualitative research is the natural setting; that is the data should be collected "in the field at the site where participants experience the issue or problem under study" (Creswell, 2009, p.175). The setting of this study was the Department of English Language and Literature (ELL) of a foundation university in Istanbul, Turkey. The main participants of the study were students of ELL and their writing practices were investigated in their natural settings.

Second, qualitative research positions the researcher as the key instrument because it is the researcher himself/herself who is developing data collection instruments, collecting the data, and making sense of, organizing and interpreting the findings derived from the data (Creswell, 2009). In the present study I myself administered the background questionnaire, constructed questions for the interview, conducted and transcribed interviews, and finally organized the data into categories and analyzed the data.

Moreover, in qualitative research, the data are collected using multiple sources such as "examining documents, observing behavior, or interviewing participants" (Creswell, 2009, p.175). I have employed multiple tools for data collection, e.g. questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, stimulated-recall interviews, focus-group interviews and document analyses. At the stage of analyzing

the collected data, a qualitative researcher follows an inductive approach. I used thematic analysis for the analysis and interpretation of the data, where I searched for patterns, and then built codes, categories, and themes.

Another characteristic of qualitative research is the emergent design which allows the researcher to alter, redesign or reconstruct the research questions of the study, methods for data collection, or the sampling (Creswell, 2009). Particularly in case studies, research questions are "likely to evolve over the course of study, as the researcher gains deeper intimacy with the participants and the context" (Hood, 2009, p.74). This study constitutes a good example for emergent research design. First, I modified the research questions, methods for data collection and my sampling after a pilot study I conducted in 2012 with a group of 10 volunteer participants. Initially, the study was aiming at exploring the factors affecting university students' writing practices from three different dimensions: educational, psychological and sociocultural. However, because psychological factors were related to students' motivation toward academic writing and because I acknowledged that motivational factors required more quantitative data collection and analyses procedures, I decided to eliminate that research question. I narrowed down the scope of my research and reconstructed my research questions from educational and contextual perspectives. Second, within the initial research design, the primary data collection instruments were identified as a background questionnaire, semi-structured and stimulated-recall interviews, and textual analyses of students' argumentative essays and narratives. However, the pilot study revealed that textual analyses done by the researcher would not help much to uncover students' perspectives on their academic writing experience. Thus, I decided to use students' argumentative essays written for coursework and their narratives as a prompt for stimulated-recall interviews.

Third, according to the initial design, the sampling would only be composed of freshman year students; however, as a result of the pilot study I decided to integrate senior year students into my sampling to explore to what extent and in which ways students' perspectives about their academic writing practices change over the years. In addition to these, the primary theoretical framework for the study was specified as sociocultural theory (SCT); however, based on my readings throughout the research process I decided to adopt an academic literacies approach (Lea and Street, 1998) as the main theoretical framework so as to provide a stronger basis for my interpretations. Moreover, after I had completed my main data collection procedures and my literature review, I revised my research questions again as I became more aware of the problems faced by the participants of the study. Finally, I decided to integrate attitudes, opinions and expectations of teachers about academic writing by conducting some semi-structured and focus group interviews for the reasons I will mention below.

The final characteristic of qualitative research design is that qualitative research isinterpretive, as it allows for multiple interpretations of the same problem or phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants, the researcher and the readers. Qualitative research also employs a theoretical lens to make meaning of these interpretations. Qualitative research also adopts aholistic approach, as the researchers "try to develop a complex picture of the problem or issue under study" (Creswell, 2009, p.176). To be able to draw a more holistic and comprehensive picture of the issue at hand, I included EFL teachers (two high school teachers, two preparatory school teachers) and faculty members of ELL in my sampling.

My aim was to see to what extent their perspectives converge or diverge from those of the students, and whether their expectations or attitudes toward academic writing were determining factors in students' writing practices.

Qualitative research design has its weaknesses. First of all, because the data is collected in the natural setting, the findings of the study can only be context-specifically interpreted, and may not be generalized to other people or settings. Second, data collection and data analysis can be time-consuming as the researcher is the key instrument collecting data by using multiple methods, and the initial plan of the study is subject to alterations due to the emergent nature of the qualitative research design. Moreover, qualitative researchers analyze and interpret the data both inductively and deductively with an iterative approach until they reach an established set of themes, check all the themes against the data, and make a comprehensive interpretation of all data sets. Third, qualitative research design can sometimes raise questions of validity and reliability. Finally, the results and the interpretation of the results can be easily influenced by the researchers' personal biases or idiosyncrasies.

I acknowledge the challenges the qualitative research design brings to a researcher. However, the present study aims to investigate interplay of factors influencing students' academic writing practices from students' own perceptions, and this understanding can be best gained by employing qualitative research design.

3.3.2 Case study as qualitative design

This is a case study adopting an emic approach to voice participants' academic writing experiences. According to definition of Creswell (2013):

> Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded system (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g. observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description or case themes. (p. 97)

Case studies are often used in educational research with an "aim to provide a holistic picture of the phenomenon under study" and they "provide detailed descriptions of specific learners within their learning settings" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp. 172-73). Case study designs are particularly useful and effective if a researcher aims to understand the meaning-making processes of participants in the construction of their realities. Stake (1995) divides a case study into three categories: (i) intrinsic case study – which investigates one case in particular without attempting to generalize results to those of similar cases or contexts; (ii) instrumental case study – which seeks to describe, interpret and evaluate a specific issue, problem or theory; (iii) collective or multiple case study, in which more than one case is investigated to explain a particular issue within the same context. Yin (2003), on the other hand, categorizes case studies in accordance with their purposes: (i) an exploratory case study aims at learning more about an issue or a problem at hand and provides a basis for developing hypothesis and research questions in quantitative studies; (ii) a descriptive case study aims to provide an in-depth contextualized picture of a problem within a particular setting; (iii) an explanatory case study is more longitudinal in nature and seeks to explain the causal relationship between different variables.

In line with the definitions above, the present study is a descriptive collective or multiple case study because with the present study, I aim to gain an in-depth understanding of how two different groups of students of my own institutional

context experience academic writing and dynamic interaction of factors influencing their academic writing practices. With this type of qualitative research design, I will be able to see whether there are shared experiences and perspectives, and draw a complete picture with all its complexities by building iterative and consistent connections.

3.4 Sample selection

Sampling is broadly defined as the "principles and procedures used to identify, choose and gain access to relevant units which will be used for data generation by any method" (Mason, 1996, p. 83). According to Miles and Huberman (1994) during sample selection procedure, the researcher should make decisions about the following items: (i) the setting (where the research will take place), (ii) the actors (who will be observed or interviewed), (iii) the events (what the actors will be observed of interviewed doing), (iv) the process (the evolving nature of events undertaken by the actors within the setting). These decisions are guided by the purpose of the research and the ontological and epistemological beliefs of the researcher. In qualitative research, purposeful sampling procedures are mostly preferred because representative sampling – which is frequently used in quantitative research – may be inadequate and superficial to provide a comprehensive explanation of the social processes (Mason, 1996). That is because in qualitative research, the "object of the game is not to focus on the similarities that can be developed into generalizations, but to detail the many specifics that give context its unique flavour" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 201). Purposeful sampling, therefore, allows the researcher to select cases and participants that display the most relevant

characteristics and provide the most fitting exemplars for the focus and the purpose of the study. Moreover, with purposeful sampling the researcher is able to select cases and participants that can bring multiple perspectives to the problem being investigated. For this study, I have adopted purposeful sampling strategies and, among the six types of purposive sampling (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), convenience sampling was employed in the selection of all my participants.

In line with the impetus of the study, in January 2012 I chose the department (ELL) where I have been working for ten years as the research site. I consulted the head of the department and received her written consent to conduct my study in ELL (see Appendix D for consent letter*).* In November 2012, in order to select the main participants of the study, I first administered a questionnaire surveying students' previous L1 and L2 writing experience to all freshman and senior year students (n=65) in the Fall Term of the 2012-2013 academic year. At the end of the questionnaire, there is a section which explains the overall aim of the study and data collection procedures and this section asks students whether or not they would agree to participate in the study. All students completed and returned the questionnaires and my participants for the study were selected on the basis of their agreement to participate voluntarily in the study. Among the 59 students who returned questionnaires, 20 students (8 senior year students, 12 freshman year students) agreed to participate in the study as informants and they all signed the informed consent form (see Appendix E for student consent form letters).

Selecting freshman year and senior year students as the main informants was a purposeful act because I wanted to explore the similarities and differences between these two groups of students' understanding of academic writing and see whether their perceptions about their academic writing practices change over time. I perfectly

acknowledge that a longitudinal study exploring the aforementioned question with the same group of individuals in their freshman and senior years would provide more desirable results for the purpose of this study. However, I could not bear the risk of losing some participants over the course of time and time wise I needed to start and complete my data collection in one academic year. Because I have taught senior year students a variety of courses – including academic writing – during their undergraduate studies over the years, in a way I had the advantage of observing the progress in students' writing practices. Selecting my sampling from freshman and senior year students helped me to analyze and interpret the data more effectively pertaining to my research questions, and compensate for not conducting a longitudinal study with the same individuals.

Participating teacher and faculty member selection took place in the Spring Term of 2013. In line with my fourth research question, I decided to integrate EFL teachers and faculty members in my sampling. Integration of teachers and faculty members into the sampling was important because students encounter teachers with varied approaches to and expectations of writing during their learning histories. The differing views of teachers exert an influence on students' perceptions about writing throughout the different levels of education, i.e. secondary school education, preparatory school/foundation year, undergraduate study. With this incentive, I decided to conduct interviews first with secondary school EFL teachers, second with preparatory school teachers, and finally with faculty members. For the selection of EFL teachers, in March 2013 I sent an e-mail to an ELT teachers' group mailing list explaining the impetus and purpose of the study and the data collection procedures (see Appendix F for email to mailing list). Three ELT teachers responded to my email; however I was able to conduct a semi-structured interview only with one of

them due to teachers' heavy schedules. I also contacted the head of the Foreign Languages Centre of the research site to receive her informed consent to be able to conduct semi-structured interviews with two preparatory school teachers. I asked her to identify two preparatory school teachers among her staff members and she provided me with two names. I contacted these teachers via email and we scheduled meetings for interviews at their convenience. Among the faculty members of ELL, only with one of them did I schedule an appointment for a semi-structured interview while all of them (n=6) agreed to participate in my focus-group interview. All participants signed the consent form.

To put it briefly, the data for the present study were gathered from nineteen (n= 20-1) undergraduate students majoring in English Language and Literature as main participants, one state-school EFL teacher, two preparatory school EFL teachers, and six faculty members lecturing in ELL.

3. 5 Setting and participants

3.5.1 The research site

The study was conducted in the Department of English Language and Literature (ELL) of a foundation university in Istanbul, Turkey. Foundation universities are similar to private universities; however, based on the scores students get from central university entrance examination, more than 50% of students are granted government-funded scholarships with varying percentages which are reduced from the yearly tuition fee. The university was founded in 1997 and is composed of seven faculties, three vocational schools, and two graduate schools.

The Department of English Language and Literature is in the Faculty of Science and Letters, which is the first faculty established soon after the foundation of the university. The department has been admitting students since 1999. Every year, the department admits 50 students based on the results of Central Placement Examination administered by ÖSYM (Centre for Student Assessment, Selection and Placement). Among approximately two million number of students taking the central placement examination every year, according to the 2014 statistics, the department admits students with scores of 437 – 229, and 4170 – 40.000 success rating from the examination. Since 2003, over 350 students have graduated from the department.

The language of instruction is Turkish for most departments of the university. The Departments of Architecture and Business Administration offer two separate programs; one with Turkish as a medium of instruction and one with English as a medium of instruction. Only English language and literature, English language teaching, international relations, and some engineering departments use English as the sole medium of instruction. Upon entering university, students majoring in departments where the medium of instruction is English are required to take a proficiency exam administered by the Foreign Languages Centre. The students from the departments of international relations, engineering, architecture and business administration are required to study in a one-year English preparatory program unless they score at least 60/100 on the proficiency exam. The required score for ELL and English Language Teaching students is 70/100. Alternatively, students might take internationally-recognized English Proficiency exams. However, they are expected to achieve a required level of proficiency to be credited with the right to start their undergraduate program directly (see Table 7 for con-text specific evaluation scores).

Table 7.Equivalent Scores.

	English Proficiency Test of the University	TOEFL (Paper Based)	TOEFL (IBT)	CAE	FCE	IELTS (Academic)
English Language and Literature & English Language Teaching	70	547	78	B	70	6.0
Other departments of which medium of instruction is English	60	510	64	C	60	5.0

As can be seen on Table 7, a moderately higher level of English proficiency is expected from students of ELL. That is because in ELL students are expected to demonstrate linguistic skills that are close to a C1 level on the global scale of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (see Appendix G for CEFR).

Since 1999, the curriculum of ELL has changed three times. The first two curricula mainly focused on British literature and offered literature-based courses with a traditional approach and in chronological order along with some language-based courses such as academic writing (i.e. written communication skills I, II, III, and IV) and translation from English to Turkish and Turkish to English (see Appendix H for previous curriculum/four-year study plan). Students were taking writing courses both in fall and spring terms of their freshman and sophomore years. These courses aimed to provide students with the essential writing skills required for essay examinations, i.e. midterm and final exams, and to equip students with basic conventions of academic writing integrated with advanced reading skills.

Writing courses following functional and product-oriented approaches focused mainly on language structures and text functions (Hyland, 2003). It was anticipated that students would enhance their writing skills gradually, starting from producing effective paragraphs with clear topic sentences and supporting details to producing argumentative and expository essays with clear thesis statements and well-supported and organized paragraphs. Teaching and practicing writing were mainly based on "model writing patterns" with a focus on form (Hyland, 2003, p. 7). In their junior year, a course entitled "research methodology" was offered in order to familiarize students with genre-specific texts of the discipline area such as writing annotations, reaction papers, and literary research papers. Finally, in their senior year in a course entitled "dissertation," students were expected to write 2,500-3,000 word-length literary research papers by choosing a topic of their own interest and receiving supervision from one of the faculty members of the department. Apart from these courses, students were producing texts only in mid-term and final-exams in the form of short paragraphs, short essays or explications.

In the 2010-2011 Academic Year, the department underwent a profound change in terms of its curriculum and four-year study plan. A totally new curriculum was designed with a different stance exerting a greater emphasis on "writing across the curriculum." Before describing the development of this process, I will first explain the reasons for this change. In 2010 the CoHE required all universities to be involved in the Bologna Process. The Bologna Process is a "is an intergovernmental European reform process aimed at establishing the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by 2010" and its main emphasis is on providing an open space for students, graduates and higher education staff to "benefit from unhampered mobility and equitable access to high quality higher education" (CoHE, Bologna Process, 2010).

To achieve these goals, universities involved in the Bologna Process had to re-evaluate, adapt and modify their departmental programs and curricula in accordance with the criteria suggested by the EHEA. During this process of adaptation, adhering to transparency rules such as Diploma Supplement (DS) and European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) was the most important aspect for departments to take into consideration to provide mutual recognition of degrees for student mobility. Departments in Turkish universities were expected to follow the two major steps mentioned below in order to achieve these ends:

- Each department had to identify at least 15 program outcomes, explicitly defining the knowledge, skills, and competencies students will gain at the end of four-year undergraduate/ or graduate studies. These program outcomes were to be identified according to the qualifications set by the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for Higher Education (2010).
- In accordance with program outcomes, each department prepared an academic package by reviewing and modifying their four-year undergraduate program. Within the four-year program, each course was either newly developed or re-designed with a new or adapted course title, ECTS credits, course description, 15-week course plan, learning methods, assessment scales and most importantly learning outcomes. For transparency reasons, each department prepared this academic package both in Turkish and English and published on the websites.

Because every year the university hosts a great number of Erasmus students from all around Europe and admits international students from different parts of the world, the university rigorously followed these steps and got involved in the Bologna

Process. Using this involvement process as an opportunity, ELL decided to renew our curriculum and four-year study plan from top to bottom. Several meetings were held within the department and with other stakeholders such as graduate students and primary sector employers in order to determine the program outcomes of the department (see Appendix B for program outcomes). In those meetings it was understood that our traditional, British literature-based curriculum was no longer adequate to serve the needs of students because the previous four-year study plan aimed to prepare students only for scholarship and an academic career. Most of the graduates pursued an academic career in English literature or some other related fields or were employed as English language teachers in schools and universities.

However, we observed that a great deal number of our students preferred to pursue either academic careers or professional careers in different fields such as sociology, international relations, international trade, media communications, and journalism. Thus, rather than implementing a program focused mainly on literature, we decided to design a new program that integrates literature, language and cultural studies with an equal number of distribution of courses related to these fields (see Appendix I for new four-year study plan). Literature-based courses were developed again following chronological order; however, this time they did not merely focus on British literature but rather on "literature in English." New literature courses embraced all forms of literary works written in English including post-colonial literature and classical and contemporary examples of world literature translated into English.To be able to provide our students with a wide array of academic and professional career opportunities upon their graduation, we also designed new courses from other disciplinary areas such as Cultural Studies, Film and Literature, World English and Creative Writing.

The biggest change in the development of the new four-year study plan took place in the writing courses. First we decided to make changes in course outlines (i.e. course titles, course contents, learning outcomes, assessment scales, sources, teaching methods) and then we decided that writing should not only be practiced in specific writing courses but also in all other courses. This decision was prompted by the following reasons:

- Due to a relatively higher level of English proficiency of its students, ELL is one of the departments that benefits most from the Erasmus Student Exchange Program of the university. Every year, the department sends at least eight students to various European universities in Germany, Greece, England, and Belgium. Students mostly prefer to go to these universities in their sophomore and junior years. The previous curriculum equipped students with restricted academic writing skills in their first and second years of study as mentioned earlier. ELL received feedback from European universities. The feedback indicated that some students could not demonstrate the expected skills of academic writing such as writing a research paper, a response paper, argumentative essays or implementing required citations and referencing rules, and some of them plagiarized their course work.
- Offering courses such as “Research Methodology” and “Dissertation” in the third and fourth years of study was too late to introduce students with disciplinary-specific text genres of academic writing. Students experienced big challenges in transferring the basic academic writing skills they gained in their first two years to these courses as they had never been expected to produce such assignments in any of their literature

courses. In essence, students lacked the necessary academic writing practice and experience until their last year of study.

- Each faculty member of the department held different attitudes towards writing in general and towards student writing performances. There was not a mutual understanding of the learning outcomes and consequently not a consistent assessment scale among the faculty members. This created a discrepancy between the expectations of each single course and the overall program.

In the new curriculum design, writing courses offered in the first two years of the program follow a process-oriented approach that familiarizes students with disciplinary-specific text genres and conventions (i.e. MLA) from the very beginning, allowing more room for expressive and creative writing (see Appendix C for writing courses). Student academic achievement in each course is no longer assessed mainly through the results of mid-term and final exams. That is because when calculating and determining ECTS credit for each course, it is important to count every hour a student devotes to this particular course, e.g. reading at home, preparation for the course, and actual course hours, and how much time it takes to complete in-class activities and required coursework and to study and prepare for exams. Thus, with the Bologna Process, the department shifted its focus from summative assessments to formative assessments. Moreover, in order to make students actively participate in class activities and discussions and consider the written assignments as a significant part of their overall assessment, we decided that each course should allow at least 60% of its overall assessment scale to go towards

participation, in-class tasks, and written assignments, and the rest for mid-term and final exams.

This new curriculum has been successfully implemented in the department since 2011. By the time of the study, there were four faculty members, one lecturer, and two research assistants in the department. Each term we get support from part-time lecturers and faculty members for courses that require specific areas of expertise. Pre-set program outcomes and learning outcomes for each course are always found very useful by these part time teaching staff as they provide clear guidelines for assessment, preparation of the course contents, and what to expect from students. The new curriculum and its matrix yield standardization and consistency among the approaches and implementations of the teaching staff members.

3.5.2 Student participants

Participating students of this study are 2012 – 2013 freshman and senior year students of the department of English Language and Literature. Initially, 20 students (n=12 freshmen, n=8 seniors) volunteered to participate in the study; however, later on one of the senior year students decided to withdraw from the study. Thus, the study was conducted with a total number of 19 students (n =12 freshmen, n = 7 seniors).

The group of freshman year students is composed of 12 participants. Among these 12 students, three of them are male and nine of them are female; the students range in age between 18 and 21. Among the participants, eight students graduated from state high schools, two students graduated from Anatolian High Schools, and

two students graduated from private high schools. Under the 2006 national education system policy, all participants had actually been learning English as a compulsory school subject starting from the 4th Grade of primary school. The ones who studied in state high schools continued to learn English as a compulsory school subject during their secondary school education, which is offered four hours per week. The ones who studied in Anatolian High Schools were obligated to study in a one-year preparatory class of intensive English prior to their secondary school education and then continued to study approximately 10 hours of English per week as a compulsory school subject. The two students who studied in private schools also studied in a one-year preparatory class of English, but the amount of English courses they had in secondary school was much higher than the other ones. Students rated their level of English proficiency as ranging from 5 – 9 on a 1 – 10 scale. Of the 12 participants, only 7 students studied at a one-year preparatory school upon entering the university; the rest of the students (n= 5) started their undergraduate programs directly. All 12 participating students are native speakers of Turkish and have been learning and using English as a foreign language.

The group of senior year students is composed of seven students. Their ages range between 21-24 and the group consists of two male and five female students. Similar to the freshman year students, participants in this group started to learn English as compulsory school subject starting in the 4th grade of primary school. Among the seven students, 6 of them graduated from Anatolian high schools and therefore had studied in a one-year preparatory class of intensive English and received 10 hours of English per week during their secondary school education. They are native-speakers of Turkish and have been learning and using English as a foreign language. Only one of the students is Armenian-Turkish bilingual, and thus the

student completed her primary and secondary school education in a private Armenian school offering relatively more intensive hours of English courses. Among the seven participants only one student started studying in the undergraduate program directly whereas the rest of the participants (n= 6) studied at a one-year preparatory English program prior to their undergraduate studies. Students rated their own level of English proficiency as ranging from 6 – 10 on a 1 – 10 scale. Moreover, all participants reported that they had studied the last year of their secondary school education in classes that consisted of groups of students who were specifically trained for the Foreign Language Test of Central University Entrance Examination. Thus, all participants received intensive hours of English courses specifically designed for the exam.

Furthermore, it is important to note that the senior year student participants completed the first two years of their undergraduate studies by taking compulsory and elective courses offered in the previous ELL curriculum, and in their junior and senior years they continued their studies with the courses offered in the last two years of the new four-year study plan. Thus, being exposed to both programs, senior year participants were competent enough to comment on the different natures of the academic writing practices required by the previous as well as the new curricula.

The details of student participant profiles are shown in Table 8 and Table 9.

Table 8. Freshman Year Student Participant Profile.

Freshman Year Students	Age	Gender	Type of High School	Year(s) of Studying English (based on *student responses)*	Student Rate of Proficiency Level (Scale = 1-10)	Preparatory School	Languages
FS 1	21	F	State School	2	6	Yes	Turkish/English
FS 2	19	M	State School	6	6	Yes	Turkish/English
FS 3	19	M	State School	3	8	Yes	Turkish/English
FS 4	18	F	Private Minority School	10	8	No	Armenian/ Turkish/English
FS 5	19	F	State School	3	8	Yes	Turkish/English
FS 6	18	M	Private School	12	5	No	Turkish/English
FS 7	19	F	Anatolian High School	11	8	Yes	Turkish/English
FS 8	18	F	State School	5	8	No	Turkish/English
FS 9	18	F	State School	7	6	No	Turkish/English
FS 10	18	F	Anatolian High School	11	6	No	Turkish/English
FS 11	18	F	State School	5	9	Yes	Turkish/English
FS 12	19	F	State School	5	8	Yes	Turkish/ English

*FS stands for Freshman-year Student

Table 9. Senior Year Student Participant Profile

Senior Year Students	Age	Gender	Type of High School	Year(s) of Studying English (based on *student responses*)	Student Rate of Proficiency Level (Scale = 1-10)	Preparatory School	Languages
SS 1	23	F	Private Minority School	12	6	No	Armenian/Turkish/English/French
SS 2	22	F	Anatolian High School	12	7	Yes	Turkish/English
SS 3	23	F	Anatolian High School	12	8	Yes	Turkish/English/French
SS 4	23	M	Anatolian High School	8	8	Yes	Turkish/English
SS 5	24	M	Anatolian High School	8	8	Yes	Turkish/English/Greek
SS 6	21	F	Anatolian High School	12	10	Yes	Turkish/English
SS 7	22	F	Anatolian High School	13	8	Yes	Turkish/English

*SS stands for Senior-year Student.

3.5.3 Teacher participants

The teachers who agreed to participate in semi-structured interviews are composed of one high-school teacher, two preparatory school instructors and one ELL faculty member (see Table 10). They are all native speakers of Turkish. The high school teacher is an experienced EFL teacher and has been teaching general English (i.e. grammar and the four skills) for 11 years. She has four years of teaching experience in primary school education and seven years in secondary school education. Because she has always worked in state schools, in her English classes she has followed the curriculum as suggested by MONE and used course books specifically designed for state schools. She was never expected to teach academic writing. However, in one of the classes that was composed of students who would take the language test of the central university examination, she was personally motivated to try to familiarize students with the basic facets of academic writing such as topic sentences and thesis statement writing and the steps of writing an essay.

Prep-school teacher #1 (PST1) is again an experienced EFL teacher holding an MA in ELT. His MA dissertation is about academic writing in English. He has been working as a prep-school instructor in the same institution for 16 years. He has a vast amount of experience in teaching academic writing; however, at the time of our interview he was only teaching general English to preparatory school students from different majors. Prep-school teacher #2 (PST2) can be categorized as a novice teacher who holds a BA degree in ELT. She was in her first year of teaching when I interviewed her; however, she told me that she had worked in a language course as an EFL teacher in her last year of university education. She was mainly teaching general English in her courses, but she stated that she attached importance to

academic writing and tried to make students practice writing as much as she could since she thought it would be useful for students' undergraduate studies. The Faculty Member is an assistant professor of English literature who has been teaching various undergraduate courses in ELL since she received her MA from a British university in 2000. She does not have any experience in teaching English for general or academic purposes.

Table 10.Teacher Participant Profile.

Participant Teachers	Teaching Position	Gender	Education	Year(s) of Teaching Experience	Academic Writing Teaching Experience
High-School Teacher (HST)	EFL teacher (in a state high-school)	F	BA in ELT	11	No
Prep-School Teacher 1 (PST1)	EFL Instructor	M	BA & MA in ELT	16	Yes
Prep-School Teacher 2 (PST2)	EFL Instructor	F	BA in ELT	2	Yes
Faculty Member (FM)	Assistant Professor	F	PhD in English Literature	13	No

The faculty members with whom I conducted a focus-group interview are six assistant professors of ELL. Four of them hold PhDs in English literature, one of them in comparative literature, and one in Media and Cultural Studies. The teaching experience of the faculty members ranges from 3 to 14 years. Among these six faculty members, only two of them have experience teaching academic writing; the rest have always taught courses related to literature and cultural studies.

3.6 Methods of data collection techniques and data elicitation procedures

The main methods of data collection used for the study are: background questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, elicited narratives, stimulated-recall interviews, focus-group interviews, and document analyses. Table 11 briefly summarizes the stages and focuses of data collection techniques and procedures.

Table 11. Summary of Data Collection Procedures

Method of data collection	Participants & Sources	Focus
(1) Background Questionnaires	All Students EFL teachers Faculty Members	• To identify the sampling (participant students) of the study. • To obtain demographic information about the participants and to establish context for the interpretation of findings. • To learn about students' history of writing in their L1 and L2. • To understand general attitudes of EFL teachers and faculty members toward academic writing. • To use some parts of the questionnaire as prompts in semi-structured interviews. • To answer Research Questions 1,2,3 and 4.
(2) Semi-structured Interviews	Students (n= 19) EFL teachers (n= 3) Faculty Member (n=1)	• To gain an in depth understanding of students' previous L1 and L2 writing experiences and their approaches to writing in L2. • To understand how teachers and faculty members approach writing, what they mostly emphasize in academic writing, and what they expect from their students' writing. • To answer Research Questions 1,2,3 and 4.
(3) Elicited Narratives and Short Field-Notes	Students (n= 19)	• To provide material for stimulated-recall interviews.
(4) Stimulated-Recall Interviews	Students (n= 19)	• To understand how students feel about writing in L1 and L2. • To explore to what extent students' opinions about writing in L2 change after gaining a certain amount of experience in L2 writing. • To answer Research Questions 1,2, and 3.
(5) Focus-Group Interview	Faculty Members (n= 6)	• To discuss and evaluate the writing situation at the research site. • To answer Research Questions 1,3,4.
(6) Documents and Supplementary Data	(1) Curricula suggested by MONE for teaching Turkish and English in Turkish primary and secondary schools. (2) Guidelines for CEFR, Bologna Process, ECTS. (3) Institutional website for basic information about the institution, faculties, and the department. (4) Departmental website for four-year study plan, program outcomes, disciplinary courses' outlines. (5) Two participating student essays.	• (Research Questions 1 and 2) To provide background information for the context of the study, and to learn about how writing is instructed and practiced in Turkish schools. • (Research Questions 1 and 3) To provide background information for the research site and to show to what extent writing skill in emphasized in ELL. • (5) To provide stimulus for semi-structured interviews conducted with teacher participants and to obtain supplementary data for triangulation purposes.

In the following sections, I will provide a detailed description of my data collection instruments, the piloting stage of the study and the procedures I followed in order to elicit the data.

3.6.1 Questionnaires

A broad definition of questionnaires is that they "are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Brown, 2001, p.6). Questionnaires mainly provide three types of data about the participants of a study: factual, behavioral, and attitudinal (Dörnyei, 2003). Factual questions in a questionnaire can yield information about the demographic characteristics of the participants, which can later provide solid grounds for interpreting findings of the study. Dörnyei (2003) suggests that such supplementary data are important for any second language research as they reveal facts and information about "learners' language learning history, amount of time spent in an L2 environment, level of parents' L2 proficiency, or the L2 coursebook used" and so on (p.14). One of my primary purposes for using a background questionnaire in this study was to obtain such factual data about the participants. In addition to demographic information, both questionnaires administered to participant students and teachers involved questions related to participants' history of learning and writing in L1 and L2 and the teaching of writing, respectively (see Appendix K and Appendix L). The background questionnaire also revealed the genuine picture of the context of the study and provided a rationale for the interpretation of the findings.

Dörnyei (2003) explains behavioral questions as items that are "used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past" and attitudinal questions as a "broad category that concerns *attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests* and *values*" of the respondents (p. 14). The background questionnaire for student participants also involves behavioral and attitudinal questions in line with this explanation. Behavioral questions in the questionnaire seek to provide information about the nature of students' past writing experiences in L1 and L2 (see Appendix K – Part 1 and Part 2 of the Background Questionnaire). Part III of the Background Questionnaire that was prepared for student participants explores students' motivations toward writing in L1 and L2 (see Appendix K). The first part of the questionnaire prepared for teachers is concerned with what participants' mostly emphasize in students' academic written work while the second part enquires about demographic information (see Appendix L). These two sections ask attitudinal questions in accordance with Dörnyei's (2003) definition.

I prepared the background questionnaire for student participants by adjusting and combining the questionnaires used in Liebman (1992) and Uysal (2008). While I was adjusting and constructing the questionnaire for the context of the study, I paid thorough attention to the items of the questionnaire as suggested by Dörnyei (2003). I preferred to prepare a bilingual (Turkish – English) questionnaire to enable student participants to better understand the instructions, questions and items, and to proceed at ease while filling in the questionnaire. The questionnaire is composed of both objective items with "closed-ended questions" which are "provided with ready-made options to choose from" (Dörnyei, 2003, p.35) and items that include "open-ended questions" requiring very short answers (p. 48). I followed the same strategies while preparing the questionnaire for teachers and faculty members.

The questionnaire constructed for EFL teachers and faculty members is relatively much shorter as my main purpose was no more than to obtain demographic information and an overall insight into the participants' approach to academic writing.

The background questionnaire enabled me to attain a rich source of data related to my student participants' past learning and writing experiences and what my participants brought with them to the particular context of study. At the later stages of the data collection procedures, I used certain parts of the background questionnaires (prepared both for student and teacher participants) in order to build a rapport with the participants at the initial phases of the semi-structured interviews and as prompts for retrieving more detailed answers from the participants.

3.6.2 Interviews

Interviewing is one of the principal data collection methods of qualitative research as it focuses on people's lived experiences, individual perceptions, attitudes and points of view (Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2013). With a broad definition, Lincoln and Guba (1985) explain the purpose of conducting interviews as:

> …obtaining here-and-now constructions of persons, events, activities, organizations, feelings, motivations, claims, concerns, and other entities; reconstructions of such entities as experienced in the past; projections of such entities as they are expected to be experienced in future …(p. 268).

Interviews can "provide insights into people's experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations at depth that is not possible with questionnaires" or other methods of data collection because they "hold out the possibility of *understanding* the lived world from the perspectives of the participants involved" (Richards, 2009, p.187).

Interviewing is the most fitting data collection method for the purpose of this study, which is to understand university students' academic writing practices through their own perspectives, and the writing situation from perspectives of both the students and teachers.

There are three types of interviews: structured interviews, open (unstructured) interviews, and semi-structured interviews (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Richards, 2009). Among these three, structured interviews are the most controlled data collection method in which "the questions are precisely formulated and designed to elicit responses that can be recorded exactly (often using a coding scheme" (Richards, 2009, p. 184). Therefore, structured interviews are also termed "survey interviews" (Richards, 2009) or "verbal questionnaires" (Mackey & Gass, 2005). In structured interviews, the researcher uses the same set of questions seeking specific information with all the informants. In open (unstructured) interviews, on the other hand, there are no pre-determined questions, and the "aim of the interview is to explore in as much depth as possible the respondent's experiences, views or feelings" (Richards, 2009, p. 185). Open (structured) interviews are conducted in the form of a natural conversation, and the informant generally leads the course of conversation while the researcher at times prompts the informant only to encourage and allow him to her to express his or her feelings. In applied linguistics, the most commonly used type of interviews is semi-structured interviews (Richards, 2009).

3.6.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews are neither too rigid like structured interviews nor too open-ended like open (unstructured) interviews. The researcher conducting a semi-structured interview uses some pre-determined questions –an "interview guide" in Richards's (2009) terms – to lead the informant and guide the conversation. However, at the same time the researcher is flexible enough to digress from this guide if s/he thinks that the responses of the informant are leading in the direction of significant new areas and the researcher can probe for more information. The interview guide of the researcher is composed of pre-identified topics, subtopics and key questions (Richards, 2009).

I conducted semi- structured interviews with my main student participants and the teacher participants. While constructing my interview guide, first I examined the answers volunteering student participants provided in the questionnaires and I marked some of the answers that I thought required further elaboration and explanation. I decided to use these as an opening strategy for the interview. I also prepared open-ended questions to gain more comprehensive information about the student participants' background, their writing histories and experiences in L1 and L2, how they experience academic writing at university and their general motivations toward writing in L2. I applied the same strategies while constructing my interview guide for semi-structured interviews conducted with participating teachers and faculty members. The questions I used for semi-structured interviews are in Appendix P.

3.6.2.2 Elicited Narratives and Stimulated-recall Interviews

One subset of introspective methods is stimulated-recall interviews, which are used to prompt participants to recall the thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event. Stimulated-recall interviews enable researchers to understand the cognitive processes of L2 users that cannot be seen through observation (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Greene and Higgins (1994) state that in second language writing research, stimulated-recall interviews can provide " a richer understanding of the relationship among texts, situational factors, and writer's constructive processes" (p.117) and identify the patterns and strategies writers employ while writing in L2.

In addition to the semi-structured interviews I conducted with participating students right after retrieving the questionnaires at initial stages of my data collection, I wanted to conduct post-interviews with the same students toward the end of the academic year to see if their motivation and approach to academic writing in English have changed after gaining a certain amount of experience in L2 writing. Rather than conducting another series of semi-structured interviews, this time I decided to employ stimulated-recall interviews as a method. This is because I also wanted to explore how participant students feel themselves while they are writing in L1 and L2, and whether this shows any variance between freshman year and senior year participating students.

In order to conduct stimulated-recall interviews, the researcher should use some additional materials as support to prompt the informants. For this purpose Mackey and Gass (2005) indicate that "learners may be shown a video-tape so that they can watch themselves carrying out the task, or they may be given their second

language written product so that they can follow the changes they made, commenting on their motivations and thought processes along the way" (p.78). I made use of the elicited narrative technique as a support to use in my stimulated-recall interviews. Casanave (2005) supports the use of narratives in second language writing research as narratives provide researchers with insights about the L2 users' knowledge, understanding, and decision-making strategies as well as the challenges L2 users experience when writing in L2.

As suggested by Mackey and Gass (2005), in order to elicit narratives I used two different 3-minute short films; one with only a soundtrack but no dialogue, and one with dialogue in the Greek language with English subtitles. I paid considerable attention while choosing these short films to ensure that they both center on similar and culturally neutral themes so that participant students would not have any difficulties in writing about two distinct and unfamiliar concepts within the time allowed for writing. The common theme of these two short films can be categorized as "regret" and both films depict the relationship between a father and a child. Mackey and Gass (2005) emphasize the importance of choosing filmstrips with minimal sound to make sure that learners do not get influenced by either their L1 or the target language L2. Therefore, I used the first short film – without any dialogue – to make students write in English (L2). The setting of the first short film is the U.S. during 9/11. Having watched the film twice, the students were asked to narrate the story in English (L2) by reflecting on their feelings about the film without using a dictionary for 20 minutes in a classroom setting. Following this task, without any break, the students twice watched the second short film that takes place in a house in Greece, and then they narrated the story again by reflecting on their feelings in Turkish (L1). The sequence of writing first in English (L2) and then in Turkish (L1)

was a deliberate choice in order to prevent students from translating concepts directly from L1 to L2 in the reverse case. While students were watching the films and writing down the narratives, I took field notes to keep a record of participants' timing for starting, pausing, and ending the task. I used the elicited data and these field notes during stimulated-recall interviews.

Considering the importance of a small amount of intervening time between the event and the recall (Gass & Mackey, 2000), immediately after reviewing the narratives I conducted stimulated-recall interviews with each student participant. I used my narratives and field notes at the initial stages of the interviews, and then I went on to conduct my interviews in a semi-structured form guided by the questions shown in Appendix P.

3.6.2.3 Focus-group interviews

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) define the group interview as a qualitative data collection technique that "relies upon the systematic questioning of individuals simultaneously in a formal or informal setting" (p.651). In group interviews, the interaction takes place between the interviewer/researcher and the participants/ informants.

As a subset of group interviews, focus group interviews are a kind of carefully planned interview conducted with a group of preferably 6-8 people with shared experiences and similar backgrounds in a non-restrictive and non-threatening environment to gather perceptions, feelings, opinions, and attitudes on a defined issue (Krueger, 1994; Krueger & Casey, 2000). Also referred to as "multivocality," focus-group interviews "can reveal in a very short time frame several people's perspective on an issue" (Duff, 2008, p. 135). Focus-group interviews are not

designed to build a consensus among the participants, to educate or to evaluate the impact of an educational event. The main purposes of focus-group interviews are to gain clarity on how a particular group of people sharing the same or similar contexts experience the subject of inquiry and to provide solutions for old and/or new problems (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Unlike group interviews, in focus-group interviews it is the group of participants that is leading the direction of the conversation; the role of the researcher is rather like a moderator who introduces the purpose of the meeting, opens up the question and helps the interview run smoothly (Krueger, 1994). Thus, focus-group interviews encourage divergent thinking, allowing participants to learn from each other and to come up with ideas that would not be possible to attain on an individual basis (Krueger & Casey, 2000). This is one of the advantages of the focus-group interview as it provides significantly rich data. In applied linguistics, focus-group interviews are commonly used in action research, case studies, program development, evaluation, and planning and for needs assessment (Duff, 2008; Krueger & Casey, 2000). Moreover, focus-group interviews are more effective when "the researcher/interviewer asks very specific questions about a topic after having already completed considerable research" (Denzin &Lincoln, 2000, p.651).

I conducted focus-group interviews with the faculty members of my department to explore their approaches to academic writing in English: what they expect from students' written works in their courses, to what extent they are content with students' writing, and what they consider problematic in terms of students' writing. The interview was conducted in a natural and trusting environment as part of one of our departmental meetings. This was the last phase of my data collection procedures. Hence, as suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (2000), I had completed a

substantial part of my research in terms of data collection procedures and literature reviews, and this allowed me to moderate the interview with pertinent questions.

3.6.3 Documents and supplementary data collection

Documents can serve as main or supplementary data collection sources in qualitative research. According to Duff (2008), documents and document analysis involves all "relevant paperwork and artifacts, such as textbooks, newspaper articles, students' writing samples or assignments, course outlines, and research journals kept by participants and researchers" (p.128). In essence, documents are any form of data sources that provide information that cannot be collected through other techniques such as questionnaires, interviews or observations. Especially in case studies, documents and records are the main forms of data collection and are very significant for triangulation purposes (Croker, 2009; Duff, 2008). For the purposes of this study, I used documents as supplementary data collection sources. I collected various forms of document data to provide a more detailed description for the context of study and the research site and to be able to support my findings derived from the interview data. The list of documents I collected for this purpose is shown on Table 11.

3.7 Data elicitation procedures

3.7.1 Pilot study

Before I started my main data collection procedures, I had conducted a pilot study between March – May 2012 to check the effectiveness of the background questionnaire and the semi-structured and stimulated-recall interview questions and to gain more experience in conducting interviews and to be able to identify any potential problems/factors that could affect the main data collection procedures.

In qualitative research, the pilot study is significant because it helps the researcher detect any prospective problems and take action before the main study is carried out (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The pilot study also "provides an opportunity for researchers to test and refine their methods and procedures for data collection and analysis" (Murray, 2009, p. 49) along with their research questions as they become more familiarized with the context and their participants. Informed by this, in March 2012, I administered the background questionnaire to sophomore year students (n=40) of the corresponding academic year. Among these 40 students, only 20 of them returned the questionnaire and, of these, 10 of them agreed to participate in semi-structured and stimulated-recall interviews.

The results of the background questionnaire helped me reconstruct some of the items of the questionnaire, develop my questions for semi-structured interviews, and gain an overall understanding of the context and students' orientations toward writing in L1 and L2. Although 10 students agreed to participate in the pilot data collection procedures, only 6 of them attended the scheduled semi-structured interviews. Piloting semi-structured interviews enabled me to test the credibility of my interview questions. Consequently, I decided to modify some of the original

questions based on the responses I received from the students. I also included some additional questions in the form of subthemes to the main ones to be able to probe for further elaboration in case the student does not provide a sufficient amount of responses. Moreover, I was able to verify that 20-minute scheduled interviews were adequate to collect the intended data.

Following semi-structured interviews, I conducted stimulated-recall interview procedures. However, due to students' heavy schedules toward the end of spring term, only three students showed up for this protocol. This stage of piloting helped me to a great extent because it was the first time that I had carried out this type of an interview. At the end of this piloting stage I was able to test the appropriateness of the two short films I used as stimuli for stimulated-recall interviews. I observed that students comfortably understood the themes and plots of the short films and reflected on them in their narratives within the allocated time. This piloting stage also helped me reconstruct some of the interview questions. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, following the pilot study I revised and modified my research questions and some of my data collection sources.

3.7.2 Main data elicitation procedures

In the Fall Term of the 2012-2013 academic year, I started with my main data collection procedures. In November 2012, I administered the background questionnaire to freshman and senior year students of the corresponding academic year. Among a total of 60 students (n= 20 senior year, n=40 freshman year), only 40 of them returned the questionnaire.

Among these 40 students, a total of 20 (n= 8 senior year students, n=12 freshman year students) students agreed to participate in the study as informants on a voluntary basis. Before the end of the fall term in December, I held a meeting with all the volunteering participants to inform them about the purpose of the study and the details of the data collection procedures that would be followed. I asked students whether they would like interviews to be conducted in Turkish (L1) or in English (L2), and they all voted for Turkish as they thought they would feel more relaxed and it would be easier for them to express their opinions without any language barrier within the allocated time. I informed participating students about the ethical considerations to make sure that they would feel comfortable about the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses. Moreover, because I was one of their lecturers in the department, I also assured them about the fact that their responses would not be shared with other faculty members of the department and would not affect their grades and so on. We also exchanged email addresses and telephone numbers to be able to schedule interview sessions at the students' convenience in the forthcoming spring term.

At the beginning of the spring term of 2013, I wrote an email to all participating students to learn about their availability for the semi-structured interviews. One of the students from the senior-year group decided to withdraw from the study due to personal reasons and a heavy schedule. Hence, I continued my data elicitation procedures with a total number of 19 students (n= 7 senior year students, n=12 freshman year students). I started conducting semi-structured interviews with participating students in February 2013. I scheduled interview sessions first with senior year participant students and then with freshman year participant students.

The interviews were conducted in Turkish and each interview took approximately 20-25 minutes. In the beginning of each interview, I once again reminded the participants of the purpose of the study and received their informed consent form and approval for recording the interviews. For each interview, I followed the order of questions as determined in my interview guide, which is presented in Appendix P. I audio-recorded each interview, and did not take any notes during the interviews in order not to distract students' concentration and cause any communication breakdowns.

In mid-April 2013, I scheduled two separate sessions with two groups of students on different days within the same week to elicit narrative data. In each session, I followed the same procedures and each session took 60 minutes in total. In each session, students were expected to watch two different short films and narrate the stories of each film by reflecting on their emotions. After watching the first film, students were asked to narrate the story in English and for the second film they wrote in Turkish. I allocated 30 minutes for each task. At the beginning, I explained to participants the procedure and distributed a task sheet (see Appendix N for Task Sheet). I told students that they were allowed to take notes on the task sheet while watching the films if they wanted. In each session, first I played the short film *Will* twice, which took about 7 minutes, and then I allocated the rest of time for students to write. Then, I played the second film *What is that?* and followed the same procedure. Even if some students finished writing earlier than the 30 minutes allocated for the first task, before playing the second short film I asked them to wait until all other students completed the task.

While participants were watching the films and writing their narratives, I observed the students and took some field notes pertaining to their starting, pausing, and ending times. At the end of each session I scheduled a meeting with each participant for the stimulated-recall interviews. As mentioned previously, considering the importance of a short interval between the stimuli and the interviews, I completed all stimulated-recall interviews within two weeks following the narrative data elicitation sessions. Stimulated-recall interviews were conducted in Turkish, they were all audio-recorded and each interview took approximately about 20-30 minutes following the interview guideline as presented in Appendix P.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, in March 2013 I contacted with EFL teachers and faculty members to be able to conduct semi-structured interviews. In May 2013 I scheduled interview sessions with each participant teacher (n=1 state-school teacher, n=2 prep-school teachers, and n=1 faculty member) at times convenient to the participants. Before meeting the participants at the scheduled times, I sent them a background questionnaire (see Appendix L) together with two randomly selected student participant essays and an assessment criteria (see Appendix M) to provide stimuli for the interviews. Each participant teacher received the same set of student essays. I asked the teacher participants to fill in the questionnaire and to read and grade two of the essays according to the provided criteria prior to our meeting. I randomly selected two argumentative essays that two of the freshman year participant students wrote for the academic writing course that I taught in the corresponding term (see Appendix E for consent form). As for the assessment criteria, I used the criteria that are utilized in academic writing courses offered by the department. My motivation to ask participants' teachers to evaluate and assess these two essays was based on two reasons:

- One of my incentives to integrate EFL teachers and faculty members into the sampling of the study was to investigate whether teachers that students meet in different levels of their education display differing approaches to the instruction and practice of L2 writing than one another and whether this could create a factor influencing students' writing practices. In line with this, some items in the background questionnaire and some questions in the interviews were constructed to investigate what teacher participants perceive to be important (e.g. content, grammar, organization of ideas, mechanics of language and so on) in students' written work. Thus, for triangulation purposes, by asking participant teachers to evaluate and assess these essays, I aimed to obtain supplementary data to check whether what participants think and say is consistent with what they do in practice.
- With its hands-on quality, this supplementary data would enable me to ask more specific and detailed questions on an individual basis to understand what each participant teacher expects from students' written work.

In the beginning of each interview, I asked the participant whether s/he would like the interview to be conducted in Turkish or in English. Only the faculty member preferred to speak in English and for the rest of the participant teachers I conducted interviews in Turkish. I received participants' informed consent forms and approval for recording the interviews. Each interview was audiotaped and took no more than 20 minutes. For each interview, I addressed the questions in the order as presented in Appendix P.

Between August and October 2013, I transcribed all interviews verbatim. In November 2013, I conducted the final phase of my data elicitation procedures, the

focus-group interview, with the faculty members of ELL at the end of one of our departmental meetings. In the beginning, I informed all the faculty members about the purpose of the interview and I received their approval for audio recording. I directed one single question probing their perceptions about our departmental students' writing and the faculty members ran the rest of the conversation. The session took place in Turkish, took approximately 70 minutes, and I transcribed the collected data verbatim right after the meeting.

The timeline for data elicitation procedures is shown on Table 12.

Table 12.Summary of Data Elicitation Procedures

Timeline	Data Elicitation Procedures
January 2012	Gaining access to the research site
March – May 2012	Piloting stage: Background questionnaire (n= 20). Constructing an interview guide for semi-structured interviews. Conducting semi-structured interviews (n= 6). Narrative data elicitation (n= 6) and stimulated-recall interviews (n= 3)
November – December 2012	Dissemination of Background Questionnaire (n= 60) Selecting Sampling (n= 20) Meeting with Participant Students (n= 20)
February 2013	Semi-structured Interviews with participating Students (n= 19) (Total Duration of Interviews: approximately 392 minutes)
March 2013	Contacting and scheduling interview appointments with EFL teachers and Faculty Member
April 2013	Narrative data elicitation (n= 19) Stimulated-recall Interviews (n= 19) (Total Duration of Interviews: approximately 334 minutes)
May 2013	Semi-structured Interviews with participating teachers and faculty member (n= 4) (Total Duration of Interview: approximately 75 minutes)
August – October 2013	Interview Transcriptions (Semi-Structured Interview Transcription: 21,489 word-length) (Stimulated-recall Interview Transcriptions: 15,246 word-length) (Interview (Teachers) Transcriptions: 5,743 word-length)
November 2013	Focus-Group Interview with Faculty Members of ELL

3.8 Data analysis procedures

According to Miles and Huberman (1994) qualitative data analysis consists of three stages: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. The data reduction stage entails the process of organizing the data into meaningful units by selecting, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data, and allows the researcher to arrive at decisions about his/her analytic choices in finding themes, codes and patterns (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.10). The data display stage refers to arranging the data into an accessible and compact form via memos, charts and graphs to prepare the data sets for the last stage that involves interpretation, drawing conclusions, and making explanations (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Creswell (2013) describes the process of qualitative data analysis as being composed of the following stages:

> … preparing and organizing the data (as in transcripts, or image data as in photographs) for analysis, then reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes, and finally representing the data in figures, tables, or a discussion. (p. 180)

In order to prepare the data for analysis, according to Creswell (2013), the researcher first needs to read the entire data set several times by writing notes and memos to obtain an overall meaning of the data. Following this stage, the coding process starts, which – in Creswell's (2013) terms – is the "heart of the qualitative data analysis" (p.184). For Coffey and Atkinson (1996), all other stages of qualitative data analysis coding is an iterative process and coding requires creative thinking with the data. That is, "coding is much more than simply giving categories to the data; it is also about conceptualizing the data, raising questions, providing provisional answers

about the relationships among and within the data, and discovering the data" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 31). Qualitative researchers may employ different strategies to find labels for their codes. Some qualitative researchers use codes which are pre-defined in existing literature or the theoretical framework, some create codes from research questions and/or interview questions, and some qualitative researchers generate codes emerging from the data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). In the latter case, codes might be generated as in-vivo codes (i.e. labels directly coming from the participants' wordings) and/or can be labeled by the researcher in the best descriptive way (Creswell, 2013). Once the researcher identifies the codes by moving back and forth within the data, the researcher assigns groups of codes forming a common idea or concept to particular themes, and then starts to interpret and make sense of the data (Creswell, 2013).

Among the several qualitative analytic methods (i.e. conversation analysis, interpretive phenomenological analysis, discourse analysis, narrative analysis or analytic strategy), in this study I employed thematic analysis to interpret my data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). I used thematic analysis because it allows room for the researcher due to its independent position from particular theories or epistemologies and its flexible nature and I found it more appropriate to use for a self-regulated case study. Braun and Clarke (2006) define thematic analysis as a "method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (p. 79). In thematic analysis, the themes are not emerging from the data nor are they based on theory; thus, thematic analysis is neither data-driven nor theory-driven. Thematic analysis is analyst-driven; the researcher is an active agent who digs down into the data set, identifies and labels codes and themes, and makes decisions about which ones to select and report in the study. That is, in thematic analysis, determining what

counts as a theme is not a matter of prevalence but is based on the researchers' judgment of what is important to be able to provide in-depth explanation and interpretation of the data. Moreover, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that thematic analysis "works both to reflect reality and to unpick or unravel the surface of 'reality' (p. 81); in a sense, its aim is not solely to describe what the participants have said but to understand what had influenced the participants to say so. Braun and Clarke (2006) summarize the stages for data analysis as follows: familiarizing oneself with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and finally producing the report (p. 87). I closely followed these steps as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006) for the data analysis of my interview data set.

My data corpus consists of the data sets collected from document analysis, background questionnaires and a series of interviews conducted with the participants of my study as mentioned earlier in this chapter. In analyzing the background questionnaire and to create frequency distributions of participants' responses, I used IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 21.0. The main phase of my qualitative data analysis started with verbatim transcriptions of my interview data set that includes interviews conducted with student participants, teachers and faculty members. Prior to transcription, I had a substantial amount of knowledge of the data as I had collected the data on my own. As I also transcribed my interview data set on my own, I had the chance to familiarize myself better with the data and to develop a general understanding, which is considered as an "interpretive act" where initial "meanings are created" (Braun & Clarke, 1996, p. 87-88). I started thematic data analysis with the data sets consisting of the interviews conducted with my main participants, the students. I saved each transcribed interview data set in separate

Word files under the participants' names and compiled them into separate folders (i.e. participants' academic status and stages of interviews). To grasp a more rigorous understanding of my data, prior to finding my initial codes, I read each interview transcript (n=38) twice, highlighted salient words, phrases and sentences, took notes, and created a memo for each interview transcript. I developed my initial codes by reviewing the memos I created, and this stage helped to obtain an overall understanding of potential codes for within case analysis (i.e. freshman-year students and senior-year students) and cross-case analysis in terms of coding similarities and differences. This stage further enabled me to see potential boundaries of the themes pertaining to my research questions. At this stage, I also developed some codes that I could not assign to any of the potential themes, and I grouped these codes under a theme called as "miscellaneous" as Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest. My initial codes and themes were as shown on Table 13. Having identified this initial analysis framework, I moved on to the second stage of data analysis. I re-read all the interview data set (i.e. semi-structured and stimulated-recall interviews) and manually color-coded the data set. This stage helped me to refine my sub-themes and codes; I added new codes to the list, grouped some codes under different sub-themes, and assigned different labels to the codes and sub-themes (see Table 14). At the end of this stage, I reached a decision about the hierarchy of themes – i.e. overarching themes and sub-themes – as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). Finally, this stage enabled me to identify potential data extracts/excerpts to be used in presentation of findings of the study.

Following this stage, I used a computer software program to store my data, to observe more closely how the pre-identified themes and codes represent the data sets, and to be able to easily retrieve data excerpts collated under particular themes

and codes. Creswell (2013) supports the use of qualitative software programs, indicating that they are particularly helpful in providing the researcher with an organized storage system, easy access to the codes developed by the researcher, and quick retrieval of memos, documents and data extracts. I did a substantial amount of research, reading many forums on the Internet, and finally among the many software programs available for qualitative research I chose Dedoose: Version 5.3.22. I preferred to use Dedoose first because of its cost-effectiveness and web-based accessibility and then for its user-friendly layout and secure encryption system. I exported my entire data set to the program, created my coding tree (i.e. sub-themes and codes) as presented in the final coding scheme on Table 16, and finally reread each data set and created data excerpts by coding. Dedoose allowed me to see various themes and codes residing in the same data extracts more clearly and to observe similarities and differences by reviewing themes across cases. In effect, using the computer software program helped me to see the complex picture of the reality as a whole.

In analyzing the interview data set obtained from the participant teachers, I followed a relatively different coding process after the initial steps such as verbatim transcriptions and arrangements of data sets into separate files. Because teacher participants are my secondary place informants and they are fewer in number (n=5), I read data sets once to get a sense of the main ideas of the participants, and then I exported data sets to Dedoose and developed codes based on the interview questions presented in Table 14. I reviewed data sets again, assigned relevant sections of each data set to codes, and created excerpts. The coding scheme used for the analysis of these data sets includes the following items:

- Attitudes toward writing as a skill and the teaching of writing
- Definition of academic writing and a well-written essay
- Forms of feedback
- Expectations about students' writing

All things considered, the data analysis procedures consisted of the following phases: familiarizing myself with the data through verbatim transcription and systematic reading, developing a general understanding of the meaning of the data, a pre-coding stage (i.e. writing memos and developing initial codes and potential themes), coding (i.e. refining codes and themes, reduction of the data, building hierarchical code system on Dedoose and excerpting), and finally the interpretation of the data via inter-case analysis and cross-case analysis of the themes.

Table 13. Initial Coding Analysis Framework

Freshman- Year Students Coding for Within Case Analysis	Senior-Year Students Coding for Within case Analysis
1) Educational Factors (Main Theme) • Previous L1 Writing Experience (PL1WE) (Sub-Theme) ✓ Inadequate writing instruction ✓ Focus on form and grammar ✓ Form of feedback ✓ Exam/test driven ✓ Writing style/topics ✓ Lack of train of thought ✓ Limited writing practice ✓ Large class-sizes • Previous L2 Writing Experience (PL2WE) (Sub-Theme) ✓ Focus on grammar and vocabulary teaching ✓ No explicit writing instruction ✓ Limited use of course books ✓ Exam/test driven ✓ Limited writing practice ✓ Form of feedback • Prep-school L2 Writing Instruction (PSL2WI) (Sub-Theme) ✓ Helpful ✓ First encounter with the use of English ✓ Different from undergraduate writing 2) Contextual Factors (Main Theme) • Opinions about academic writing in English (Sub-Theme) ✓ Differences between L1 and L2 writing ✓ Academic writing – restrictive and difficult ✓ Translating from L1 to L2 • Feelings about the academic context (Sub-Theme) ✓ Transition from high school to university ✓ Repressive context ✓ Shock, disappointment, loss of self-esteem, sense of being lost ✓ Individual responsibility ✓ Encountering differing learning, studying and writing situations ✓ Developing awareness 3) Miscellaneous (Theme) ✓ Counterfactual thinking ✓ Fostering and hindering personal factors	1) Educational Factors (Main Theme) • Previous L1 Writing Experience (PL1WE) (Sub-Theme) ✓ Inadequate writing instruction ✓ Focus on form and grammar ✓ Form of feedback ✓ Exam/test driven ✓ Writing style/topics ✓ Limited writing practice • Previous L2 Writing Experience (PL2WE) (Sub-Theme) ✓ Focus on grammar and vocabulary teaching ✓ No explicit writing instruction ✓ Limited use of course books ✓ Exam/test driven ✓ Limited writing practice • Prep-school L2 Writing Instruction (PSL2WI) (Sub-Theme) ✓ Helpful ✓ First encounter with the use of English ✓ Different from undergraduate writing 2) Contextual Factors (Main Theme) • Opinions about academic writing in English (Sub-Theme) ✓ Differences between L1 and L2 writing ✓ Academic writing – restrictive, compulsory and difficult ✓ Bidirectional transfers (L1 and L2) • Feelings about the academic context (Sub-Theme) ✓ Repressive context ✓ Modification of writing in accordance with professors' expectations ✓ Developing awareness 3) Miscellaneous (Theme) ✓ Counterfactual thinking ✓ Fostering and hindering personal factors

Table 14. Final Coding Scheme.

<table>
<tr><th>Freshman- Year Students</th><th>Senior-Year Students</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1) Educational Factors (Main Theme)
• Previous L1 Writing Experience (PL1WE) (Sub-Theme)
✓ Amount and nature of writing instruction
✓ Amount and nature of writing practice
✓ Teachers' approach

• Previous L2 Writing Experience (PL2WE) (Sub-Theme)
✓ Amount and nature of writing instruction
✓ Amount and nature of writing practice
✓ Teachers' approach

• Prep-school L2 Writing Instruction (PSL2W1) (Sub-Theme)
✓ Contribution to language skills
✓ Contribution to academic writing skills
✓ Incompatibility with undergraduate writing

• Limited Development of Transferable Skills (Sub-Theme)</td></tr>
<tr><td>2) Contextual Factors (Main Theme)
• Students' perceptions about the characteristics of academic writing (Sub-Theme)
✓ Differences between L1 and L2 writing
✓ Difficulties students encounter in academic writing
○ Difficulties related to text-generating
○ Difficulties related to text genres and task requirements

• Students' views about the institutional context/culture (Sub-Theme)
✓ Challenges students encounter in academic context
○ Identity-related challenges
○ Context-related challenges
✓ Development of academic literacy and academic identity</td><td>2) Contextual Factors (Main Theme)
• Students' perceptions about the characteristics of academic writing (Sub-Theme)
✓ Task requirements
✓ Text genres

• Students' views about the institutional context/culture (Sub-Theme)
✓ Views related to academic writing practices
✓ Views related to expectations
✓ Development of academic literacy and academic identity</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">3) Perceptions about L1 and L2 writing (Theme)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">4) Miscellaneous (Theme)
• Fostering personal factors
• Hindering personal factors</td></tr>
</table>

3.9 Trustworthiness of the study

In positivist/post-positivist research paradigm and quantitative research designs, objectivity, reliability and internal and external validity of the findings verify the quality of a study. In positivist/post-positivist conventions, reliability refers to the consistency of the scores or answers derived from different measurements or data collection instruments. Internal validity is explained as the unambiguous relationship between the variables and the external validity of a study is identified by the degree to which the results of the study can be generalized (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, positivists and post-positivists often question the reliability and validity of qualitative research designs as the inferences and findings are not based on objective linear measurements and statistical analysis (Stake, 2010). However, qualitative research studies adopt constructivist, interpretivist, relativist, pluralistic, contextualized and subjective ontological and epistemological stances toward reality. Thus, the quality and trustworthiness of qualitative research require different verification strategies from that of quantitative research. Rallis and Rossman (2009) indicate that:

> The trustworthiness of a study depends on meeting the standards for methodologically competent practice and ethically sensitive practice. Standards for competent practice include demonstrating that study has credibility, was conducted rigorously, and has potential usefulness for policy, research and practice. (p. 282).

The trustworthiness of qualitative research is ensured and established by the application of credibility, dependability, confirmality, and transferability (Guba and Lincoln, 1985).

Credibility of qualitative research – which relates to the internal validity of quantitative research – is associated with the "truth value" of a study (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Qualitative research prioritizes exploring and explaining the socially constructed, multifaceted reality from participants' perceptions and lived experiences. Therefore, providing truthful thick descriptions of the context, the participants, and the data elicitation methods and providing rich and full descriptions of the participants' viewpoints, and closeness of the researcher to the participants are important to establish credibility in a qualitative study (Creswell, 2013; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Drawing a complete picture of the study is important to enable potential readers to fully and effectively interpret the findings of the study. Creswell (2013) also emphasizes that the weight of evidence shown in in the study should be persuasive to demonstrate the credibility of the research. Prolonged engagement, triangulation, member checking and researcher positioning are strategies that can be employed to achieve credibility (Duff, 2008), and are defined as follows.

Prolonged engagement is the spending of a sufficient amount of time in the context of the study because it shows the readers that the researcher has spent "a great deal of time learning about, learning from, and learning with the participants" (Rallis & Rossman, 2009, p. 265) to develop an in-depth understanding of the case. I maintain the prolonged engagement criteria first with my teaching experience in the research site over ten years, and secondly with the duration of data collection and uninterrupted observation of and interaction with the main participants of the study.

Triangulation is gathering data using multiple data sources and data collection methodologies to explore the case from all feasible perspectives. The use of multiple data collection methods and drawing on varied sources of information allow for three types of triangulation in qualitative research design (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.181):

- Theoretical triangulation: using multiple perspectives to analyze the same set of data.
- Investigator triangulation: using multiple observers or interviewers.
- Research methodological triangulation: using different measures or research methods to investigate a particular phenomenon.

In this study, I utilized research methodological triangulation. Background questionnaires, different types of interviews, and document analyses allowed for methodological triangulation. Moreover, participants of the study – freshman and senior year students, EFL teachers and faculty members – provided multiple perspectives to understand the factors influencing students' academic writing practices in different domains.

Clarification of the researcher bias or, in other words, researcher positioning, provides an honest narrative to show how the design of the study and the interpretation of the findings are shaped by the researcher's background, observations and philosophical stance (Creswell, 2009). In the introduction chapter, I attempted to position myself as the researcher by explaining the circumstances that have led me to conduct this study. As mentioned before, I have been teaching a varied range of undergraduate courses for nine years at the research site. Among the courses I taught, I always felt the need to prioritize academic writing courses over all others as all the other faculty members of my department depended on me believing

that I would miraculously equip students with all the essential skills of academic writing in two academic terms. All the members of the department, including myself, have continuously complained about the poor writing skills of the students throughout the years. Intuitively we all knew that students' struggles with academic writing stemmed from many different reasons; however, we all kept blaming them for not being able to approximate their writing skills to our standards. From a very close distance I witnessed the challenges students went through with their writing practices both in my own courses and in other departmental courses. Therefore, I might have had certain biases and predispositions and these, along with my past experiences, have shaped my theoretical and methodological stances towards the study as well as my interpretation and discussion of the findings. However, in order to minimize the researcher bias and sustain the reliability of the findings of the study, I utilized peer review/debriefing (Creswell, 2013) that corresponds to interrater reliability in quantitative research. A colleague of mine from the doctoral program catered for external check of my research process and data analysis. From the initial phases of the study, she reviewed my research questions and data collection methods with me, provided constructive feedback, and reviewed the themes I generated from the data sets. After I had created the final coding scheme, she analyzed randomly selected two interview transcriptions using the final coding scheme, and we had 80% of agreement on the excerpts we both individually created by assigning certain codes to the same text segments. Moreover, I was able to code 90% of the data in accordance with the themes in the final coding scheme as shown in Table 14, and I presented 85% of the excerpts created during the coding process as evidence in the findings and discussion chapter of the study. Consequently, all these have increased the reliability of the findings of the study.

Dependability and confirmality are related to how rigorously the research is conducted and how carefully and transparently the researcher has provided full descriptions of the relationship between the context and the participants, data collection methods and the data analysis on which the interpretations are based (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Rallis & Rossman, 2009). The dependability criterion requires a thorough description of the context and the participants as well as sound and detailed explanations of the research process. If the dependability of a study is established, potential readers can make informed decisions about the appropriateness of the research design for the issue under study and/or the transferability of the study to their own contexts. Confirmality refers to transparency of the represented voice in the study and in a way is similar to "replicability" in quantitative research. This is maintained by providing full details of the data – discovered themes and categories – so that another researcher can "examine the data, confirm, modify, or reject the first researcher's interpretations" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 180).

To maintain dependability and confirmality, in the present chapter, I attempted to draw a complete and in-depth picture of the setting, the participants, and the data elicitation and analysis procedures to achieve "contextual completeness" (Duff, 2008). I provided a systematic and thorough rationale as to why academic writing in English is of vital importance to the participants and the setting. In the following chapter, I presented the findings of the study together with the discussion. When reporting the participants' viewpoints, I attempted to make sure that I was not simply paraphrasing and describing what the participants had expressed, but rather explicating what was of significant value about participants' perceptions.

Transferability of a qualitative research study is a similar concept to external validity or generalizability of quantitative research. Needless to say, the findings of a qualitative study cannot be simply and directly generalized because the context is the integral component of the study and no one single context is the same as another. Thus, the findings of a qualitative study should be comprehended and interpreted from a context-specific point of view. However, if the researcher establishes the credibility, confirmality and dependability of the study by employing the above-mentioned strategies, potential readers and researchers in other contexts can again make informed decisions about the comparability between the case and findings of one particular study with that of their own contexts. Transferability of the findings of a qualitative study determines the insightfulness and usefulness of a study for practical implications and future research in similar contexts. Although the findings of this study cannot be generalized to the writing experience of a whole population of Turkish university students, uncovering the factors influencing the writing practices of this particular group of students can shed a light on the complex nature of writing situation that other students experience in similar contexts.

3.9.1 Ethical considerations

As a qualitative research study discloses mainly the lived experiences, personal perceptions and perspectives of individuals in particular contexts, it is highly important for qualitative researchers to address ethical considerations in all stages of the research process. The researcher, first of all, should gain access to the research site with permission of the institution, and thus the researcher should gain informed consent of the authorities by providing them with detailed descriptions of the study

(i.e. the purpose of the study, the timeline of the study, the methods of data collection, privacy and confidentiality of the institution and the participants) (Creswell, 2013). Then, the researcher should obtain the informed consent of all participants before they get engaged in the study. An informed consent form the researcher provides should be full details of the study and ensure participants about privacy and confidentiality, and that their rights will be protected during and after data collection (Creswell, 2009). Privacy of the participants refers to protecting their identities, names and specific roles, and confidentiality is guaranteeing that the results of the study will not be shared with others by using their names (Rallis & Rossman, 2009).

In this study, I ensured ethical integrity by employing the above-mentioned criteria in all stages of my research[1]. As I have explained in detail in the data elicitation procedures section, prior to starting with my data collection procedures, I received approval and informed consent from the head of ELL. I selected my sample composed of student participants and teacher participants on a voluntary basis. Before I began data elicitation procedures, I received signed informed consent forms from all of my participants. Consent forms included all the necessary information pertaining to the aims of the study and full explanations regarding participants' rights (i.e. anonymity, confidentiality, and withdrawal from the study) (see Appendix E and Appendix O). At the time of data collection, I once more made sure that the participants had fully understood and had no further reservations about the purpose of the study and how the data would be used. While conducting the interviews, I did my best to build trust and rapport with the participants and avoided asking them leading questions or questions that require disclosure of subtle impressions or

[1]The study was also supported by Bogazici University Research Projects (Project Number 5691), which had received approval of Bogazici University Ethics Commission.

information. As I am an insider at the research site, I paid considerable attention and care to make sure that participants did not feel under pressure and that they felt at ease with my presence in my researcher identity and not as their teacher or their colleague. To protect the privacy of participants and ensure anonymity, instead of using names I gave each participant a symbol consisting of letters and/or numbers, and indicating their status and order in the study plan (see Tables 8, 9, and 10). In the analysis and report of the findings, I made sure that I provided multiple perspectives about any issue without taking side of any of the parties and avoided providing one-sided findings or information. All the data gathered and analyzed for the purposes of the study are kept securely, and the findings are strictly used only for research purposes and not shared among the participants or with anyone outside the study to maintain confidentiality.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to present a thorough and comprehensive explanation and discussion of the findings of the study. The first section will provide an in-depth discussion of findings pertaining to educational factors influencing student participants' academic writing practices. First, I will present the findings derived from the background questionnaire that had surveyed students' past L1 and L2 writing experiences. Next, I will present the findings derived from the interviews I had conducted with student participants. In the second section, I will discuss the contextual factors influencing student participants' academic writing practices by presenting findings obtained from the interview data. I will discuss the findings of the study under two main themes and four sub-themes as shown on Table 15.

Table 15. Discussion of the Findings: Themes and Sub-Themes.

Educational Factors (Main Theme)	Contextual Factors (Main Theme)
Previous Turkish (L1) writing experience	Students' perceptions about academic writing
Previous English (L2) writing experience	Students' perceptions about institutional culture and context

Since the main participants of the study are composed of two cases, i.e. freshman year and senior year students, explanations and interpretations of the findings will be presented from within case and cross-case perspectives. I will also refer to the findings obtained from the interviews conducted with participating teachers and

faculty members where relevant and necessary. Throughout the chapter, explanations of the findings will be based on and supported by the insertion of selected excerpts from the interview data sets. Excerpts are translated from Turkish into English by using a free-translation method to convey the essence of participants' responses in a clear and easy-to-read manner and all translations are faithful to the original. Excerpts are presented with excerpt numbers and labels assigned to the student participants; for more detailed information about student participants please see Chapter 3. For the original excerpts, please see Appendix A with the numbers of excerpts as indicated in the text. Finally, the findings will be interpreted and discussed in light of the literature.

4.1 Educational factors influencing students' academic writing practices

4.1.1 Results of the background questionnaire

The background questionnaire was administered to the freshman and senior year students (n=60) of the corresponding academic year of data collection. The first two sections of the background questionnaire were aimed at investigating students' past learning histories and experiences in relation to L1 and L2 writing (see Appendix K). In this section, I will present the most prominent results to provide a general portrayal of students' Turkish (L1) and English (L2) writing experiences prior to university education. Before presenting the results, I should note that background questionnaire included the same set of items to investigate students' previous L1 and L2 writing experiences as can be seen in Appendix K.

Among the 58 students who returned the questionnaire, only 48 students reported that they had received formal Turkish (L1) writing instruction in secondary school. The most common types of text genres students produced in their Turkish (L1) language and composition courses in secondary school are as shown on Figure 3:

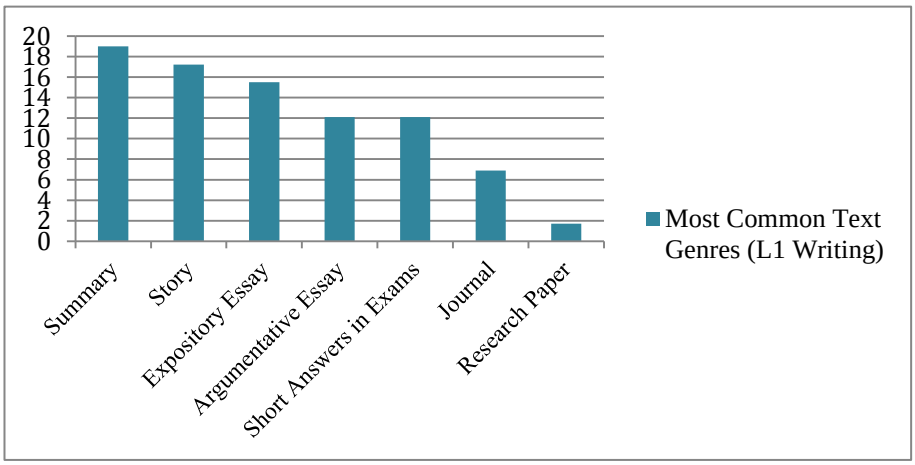


Fig. 3.Most common text genres (L1 Writing)

Writing short book summaries or summarizing the main idea of a reading text in paragraph form was the most common Turkish (L1) writing task students practiced followed by short story writing and composition writing. Very few students reported that they wrote texts that required research; they were mainly preparing these texts as term papers for various courses. Freshman and senior year students reported that they mostly wrote short compositions and/or paragraphs about the topics shown on Table 16.

Turkish (L1) language teachers were reported to evaluate students' texts mostly with a focus on grammatical correctness and clarity of the main idea. Figure 4 shows what Turkish language teachers mostly valued and emphasized in students' writing. As shown, grammatical correctness and clarity of the main idea are followed by title, organization of ideas, the use of effective language, and mechanics and

spelling. Content (quality of ideas and examples) constitutes very little of what teachers valued and evaluated in student writing. Moreover, Turkish language teachers also paid attention to the neatness of students' handwriting. However, few students reported that their L1 teachers also emphasized topic sentence in their writing. This finding should be interpreted with caution because topic sentence is not a taught characteristic of Turkish (L1) writing. At this point, students might have been affected by their evolving L2 writing knowledge in answering this part of the questionnaire.

Table 16. Turkish (L1) Writing Topics.

Freshman Year Students	Senior Year Students
• Idioms and proverbs • Historical and touristic places in Istanbul/Turkey • Globalization • Atatürk, his principles and reforms • National days and celebrations • Patriotism • The education system • Environmental issues • Language and communication • Advantages and disadvantages of the Internet • Innovations in technology • Generations of past and today • Customs and traditions of Turkish society • My future dreams and plans • My best holiday • My weekend • My family • My hobbies	• Idioms and proverbs • Atatürk, his principles and reforms • Innovations in technology • Customs and traditions of Turkish society • Generation gap • Istanbul • Republic day • Democracy • Importance of language and culture

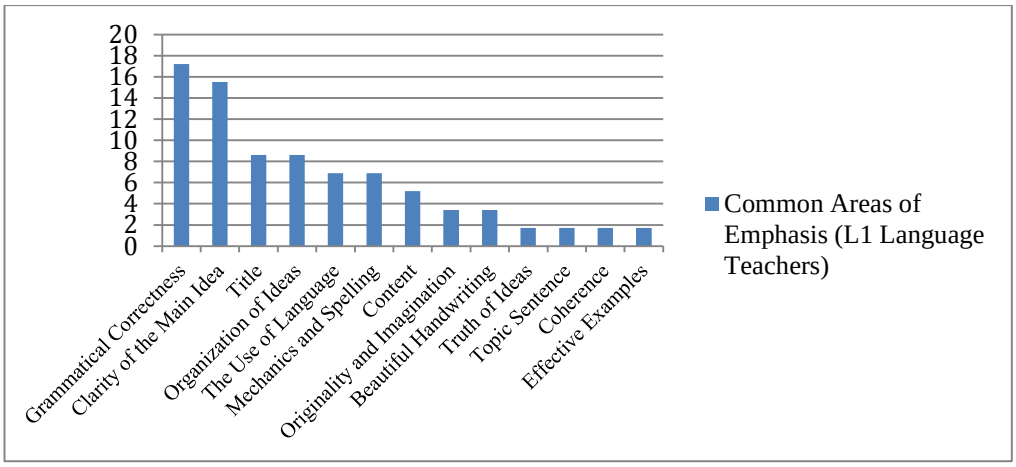


Fig.4.Common areas of emphasis on students' written texts (L1 language Teachers)

Of the 58 students, 31 students reported that they had received formal writing instruction in their English (L2) courses. Of the 58 students, only 16 students reported that they wrote essays in English. The most common essay topics that students were assigned are shown on Table 17.

Table 17. English (L2) Writing Topics.

Freshman Year Students	Senior Year Students
• Environmental issues • Extinct animals • Biography of a famous person • Social media and the Internet (advantages and disadvantages) • Important days in Turkey and in other parts of the world • Learning a foreign language • Studying abroad • Education • Differences between high school and university • Student life • Death penalty • Technology • Addiction • National days and Atatürk • Me and my family • My best friend • My summer holiday/ weekend • My dream job	• Interaction with different cultures • Technology • Past and present living conditions • Biographies of famous people • Biographies of literary figures • A book character • My daily life • The setting and the characters of a book

The text students produced in English (L2) are relatively limited in genre compared to the texts they produced in Turkish (L1). The second most common types of texts students produced in L2 were writing book summaries and providing short answers to reading comprehension questions. Very few of the students reported that they wrote argumentative essays (n=3), and journals (n=3). Figure 5 shows the overall distribution of the most commonly assigned text genres in English (L2).

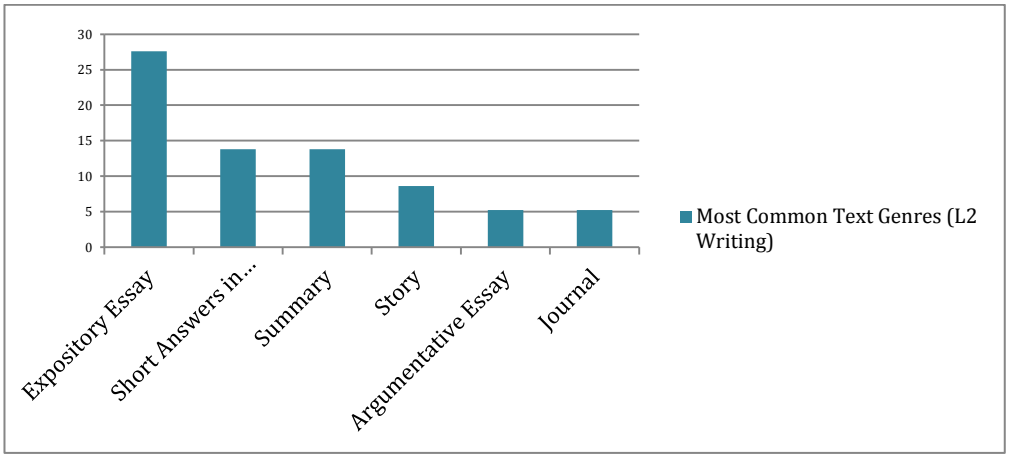


Fig. 5.Most common text genres (L2 Writing)

Similar to Turkish (L1) teachers' approaches to the evaluation of students' texts, English (L2) language teachers are also reported to focus mostly on grammatical correctness. Figure 6 shows what English language teachers mostly emphasized when they assessed and evaluated students' L2 texts. Grammatical correctness is followed by clarity of the main idea, title, organization of ideas, and thesis statement. The results show that content (i.e. quality of ideas and examples) and coherence (i.e. sentence cohesion and transitions between the ideas and among the paragraphs) are the least emphasized characteristics of writing.

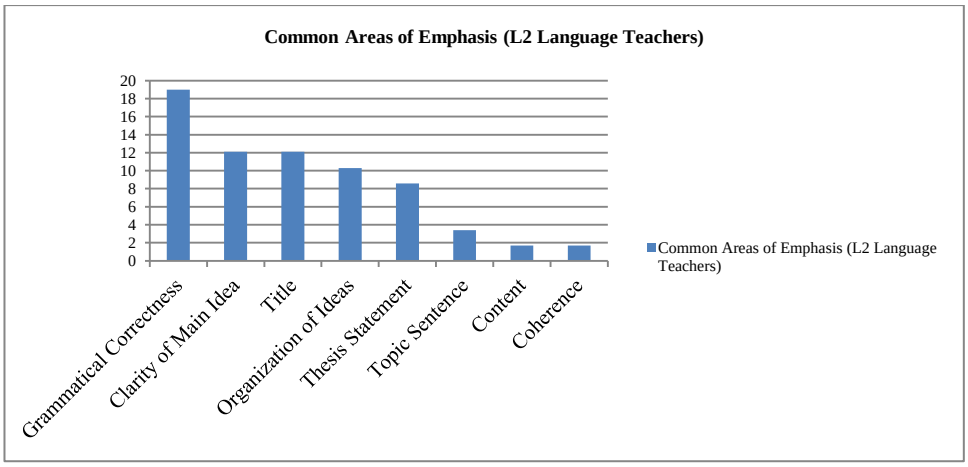


Fig.6.Common areas of emphasis on students' written texts (L2 language teachers)

The background questionnaire also probed what students considered to be the most important prerequisites for successful writing. This questionnaire item was an open-ended one that required students to write short answers. Figure 7 presents what respondents referred to as successful writing.

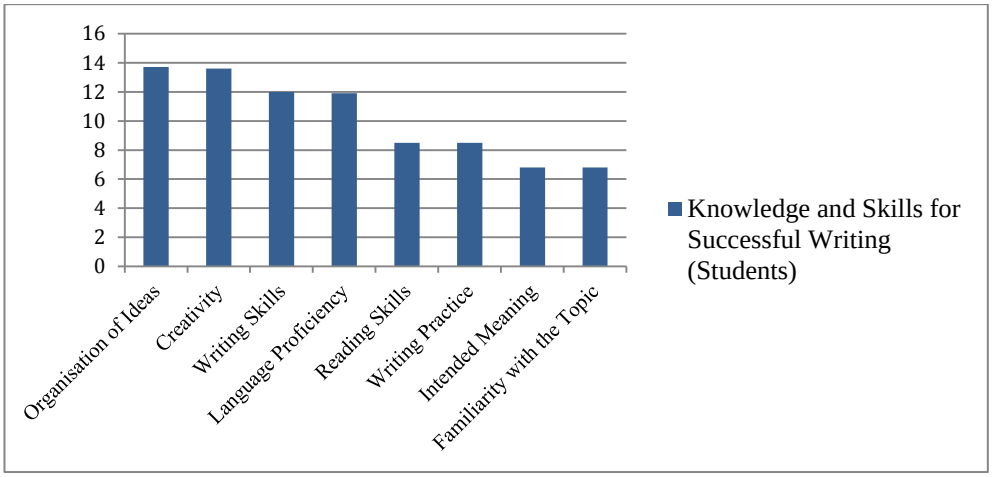


Fig.7.Prerequisite knowledge and skills required for successful writing

Finally, when students were asked whether they preferred writing in Turkish (L1) or in English (L2), among the 58 students 24 reported that they preferred writing in Turkish whereas 22 students stated that they preferred writing in English.

Among the rest of the respondents, nine students said that they enjoyed writing both in Turkish (L1) and English (L2) while three respondents stated that they did not enjoy writing at all.

The next two sections will provide more in-depth explanations about university students' previous Turkish (L1) and English (L2) writing experiences.

4.1.2 Previous Turkish (L1) writing experience

Interview questions concerned with student participants' Turkish (L1) writing experiences revealed a more comprehensive account of the amount and nature of L1 writing instruction students had received, the amount and nature of students' L1 writing practices, and how participants' Turkish (L1) language teachers approached the teaching of L1 writing.

4.1.2.1 Freshman year participants

Most freshman year students indicated that the Turkish (L1) writing instruction they had received during their secondary school education was inadequate and superficial. That is, there was no systematic explicit instruction on writing, and the content of instruction did not go beyond simply explaining that an essay is composed of three main paragraphs – i.e. introduction, development, conclusion – and that an essay should be written in a particular format – i.e. location of title, date, and signature, and the length of paragraphs. Excerpts 1-6 illustrate participants' points.

> FS2: There was no instruction on writing techniques in secondary school (Excerpt 1).
>
> FS8: We would be taught about paragraphs and things like where to put the date on the paper or where to put the headline (Excerpt 2).
>
> FS9: That's the major shortcoming of state schools. We didn't learn anything except the introduction-body-conclusion formula (Excerpt 3).
>
> FS11: They didn't teach us in detail as they do here in the writing classes. But still, they would speak about the basic stuff, like where you should put your name, how to pick a subject, how to start a paragraph, how to make transitions between paragraphs, stuff like that. (Excerpt 4)
>
> FS10: I don't remember much from high school – it is just introduction-body-conclusion. Just tell what you are going to do in your introduction paragraph and summarize it in your conclusion. They would tell us not to start with "namely." It was too restrictive. We weren't taught much, or it was just our school, I don't really know (Excerpt 5).
>
> FS6: In composition classes, the teachers would put the emphasis only on the introduction-body-conclusion principle. I learnt a lot when I came here [the university]. They didn't teach these rules in our Turkish classes, like how to use quotations. In the Turkish classes we have at the university, we do exactly the same things we did back in high school. I don't think that I learnt anything in high school. We did not have to convince the reader; we just wrote for the sake of writing. Teachers just paid attention to spelling, that was it (Excerpt 6).

Freshman year students' responses also reveal that their L1 writing practices were limited to writing short compositions in exams, writing short paragraphs to answer reading comprehension questions, and writing book summaries and short stories. Composition topics were mostly about holidays, personal experiences, national days, Atatürk and his principles, the education system, globalization, technology, and the media. The paragraphs students wrote were oriented toward explaining the main idea of a reading text, paraphrasing a quotation from the text, and providing biographical information about Turkish literary figures. Short story writing tasks were mainly controlled writing activities in nature; they required students to produce a story with pre-identified vocabulary, adjectives and adverbs rather than focusing on developing students' creative writing skills.

> FS8: As for writing, once we wrote a short story. We would usually write summaries either of stories or novels. Essay topics were usually about Ataturk, special days or the love for one's country. Ataturk as a topic had been very dominant since primary school. We would write using complex sentences (Excerpt 7).

> FS1: We would do nothing much as far as writing was concerned. Sometimes we were asked to read a book, and then write a summary of it. We never wrote detailed compositions. The first time I wrote something that requires deep thinking was here (Excerpt 8).

> FS10: We didn't write much in high school. When we wrote compositions, the topics were usually like those you would come across in composition competitions, like Children's Day, the life of Ataturk; stereotypical things like that. (Excerpt 9).

The reason that students perceive their Turkish (L1) writing practice as 'limited' is not directly based on the amount of writing they did in secondary school; rather this conceptualization is a matter of quantity vs. quality. From students' responses, it can be inferred that students did not regard L1 writing tasks as an effective means for developing their language and writing skills for two main reasons. First, students (FS9; FS2; FS7) indicated that they had written compositions either as part of their exams or as an in-class activity within a restricted amount of time. Students (FS2; FS7) reportedly indicated that they simply transferred their ideas on paper without any organization. Therefore, the students did not experience certain stages of the writing process such as planning, organization, and editing.

> FS9: We usually did grammar rather than writing. We never wrote essays or anything. In literature classes, we usually covered old writers and their works. When we wrote something, it wasn't longer than a paragraph, and that was usually about the works of a writer. We never wrote two or three-paragraph compositions in the exams. We wrote paragraphs answering questions related to the main theme of the excerpt, what the author meant there, or things like that (Excerpt 10).

> FS2: Generally we would write compositions. Especially in the Turkish classes at secondary school, essays would make up thirty points out of hundred. I never thought of writing within a specific framework, I just wrote whatever I could think of at the time. I would usually score twenty-eight or twenty-nine out of thirty. The topics in the exams would usually be something like travel writing, or the most influential memories we had (Excerpt 11).

> FS7: We would write compositions in every exam and in literature classes. I loved literature anyway. The teacher would give us certain sets of words and ask us to write a story using those words. We would write lots of stories, or things like memoirs. Other than that, we would write on certain debates, like whether we agree with something or not. Sometimes we would write book summaries. The essay topics would usually be about contemporary issues like globalization, technology, or media-related issues. We would usually just go ahead and write without making any research. We would write these in class; they weren't generally assigned as homework (Excerpt 12).

Second, the findings indicate that students describe and label writing topics as "general and repetitive" and "cliché" topics that did not require any research or planning. Students instead perceived these tasks as obligatory, and they simply wrote to receive grades.

Among the twelve freshman year students, only one participant (FS11) asserted that she had enjoyed writing in her Turkish (L1) language courses. This was mainly because she was asked to write compositions as homework and wrote a journal as a long-term writing project (See Excerpt 13).

> FS11: The reason I liked Turkish lessons so much was usually because the teachers were very good and we were lucky to have them. The same goes with the homework. We would usually write summaries, essays and diary entries. Once I was asked to keep a journal as homework, for example. It was something like a term project. We wrote entries everyday for a whole semester. I filled up a notebook like this, and that way I learnt about the journal-writing genre. For instance, you wouldn't write everything that happened to you, but select some important events and the influence they had on you (Excerpt 13).

From Excerpt 13, it can be inferred that students may enjoy writing more when their writing is not confined to producing a text within classroom hours and when they are personally engaged with writing with a meaningful purpose for longer periods of time.

As for teachers' approaches to Turkish (L1) writing instruction, student participants reported that although teachers provided a certain amount of L1 writing instruction about the basic components of a composition, these were not instructed

sufficiently in detailed way. Turkish (L1) language teachers focused mainly on the teaching of form and grammar and the subjects that students are likely to encounter in university entrance examinations. Most students indicated that, especially in the last two years of secondary school, their Turkish (L1) language courses were mainly exam/test-driven, and that they were very rarely asked to produce written texts.

> FS4: We covered grammar in high school, but we didn't do anything specifically about writing. We didn't write anything especially in the eleventh and twelfth grades as we were mostly doing things related to university entrance exams (Excerpt 14).

> FS3: In some classes, the teachers would make us read some stories from books. The teachers would make us study short stories, yet still we usually did grammar exercises on them or other things related to the university exam. As for the compositions, the teachers would ask us to write a short story but would specify that they should include certain adjectives or pronouns. All grammar, nothing other than that (Excerpt 15).

Moreover, as Excerpt 16 illustrates, students seldom received feedback for their written products and generally the feedback was on form rather than on content. Students were never asked to revise and/or rewrite their compositions.

> FS7: When we were given our exam papers back, we were told about the mistakes we made, yet this didn't give us the chance to turn them in after making the necessary corrections. Teachers in high school didn't really care whether you delivered your ideas correctly or not. But then again, we were fifty-five people in class. You couldn't expect the teacher to read all those papers (Excerpt 16).

4.1.2.2 Senior year participants

Senior year students' responses regarding their Turkish (L1) writing experience are similar to those of freshman year students. Senior year students also indicated that the amount and nature of L1 writing instruction was insufficient and inexplicit. One student participant (SS4) unreservedly explained what the majority of the students considered as "problematic" pertaining to the L1 writing instruction provided in

secondary school. SS4 said, “We were writing compositions about proverbs or idioms, but we did not have any idea about how we should write about these topics; write a composition, explain the proverb, and make sure your essay has introduction, development and conclusion. That was it” (Excerpt 17). Another student participant (SS3) also mentioned that L1 writing instruction was limited to basic and over-generalized explanations such as strategies for capturing readers’ attention in the introduction, use of effective examples in developmental paragraphs, and what constitutes an effective conclusion paragraph (See Excerpt18).

> SS3: As far as language was concerned, it was important that we used formal language. Introduction-body-conclusion, this formula was important. We were taught briefly how do these, like explaining the topic in the introduction, using examples in the body paragraphs, and finally wrapping up the topic in the conclusion part (Excerpt 18).

One of the student participants (SS4) put forward an interesting reasoning for the inexplicit Turkish (L1) writing instruction provided by teachers. The student attributed the deficiencies in writing instruction first to the curriculum and then to inattentive and impetuous implementation of the curriculum, but never to the teachers’ content knowledge.

> SS4: Nobody asked us to develop ideas about a topic and support those ideas. They just wanted us to "explain." We usually had no idea about how to write about those topics. Write an essay, define that proverb, and use introduction-body-conclusion. That was it. Plus, they would teach these in very simple terms. For example, they would tell us how long the introduction should be, or tell us that body paragraphs should be longer than the introduction, and the conclusion should be more or less the same length as the introduction. As a matter of fact, we had very good teachers. So maybe this wasn't about the teachers at all, because they were very skilled. In my opinion, the curriculum was bad and the teachers just simply had to follow the curriculum. Incidentally, my teacher was a PhD student (Excerpt 19).

Among the seven senior year participants, only one student (SS2) indicated that she was satisfied with the L1 writing instruction she had received and was able to transfer and employ the L1 writing skills she had gained in secondary school to her

writing practices at university. However, this student had studied the first year of her secondary school education in a city other than Istanbul and she underlined the discrepancy between the quality of L1 writing instruction provided in two different settings.

> SS2: Turkish classes were very effective in terms of thinking styles. We learnt how to use quotations when starting a paragraph, or how to get the attention of the reader. Our teacher taught us how to write first, and then showed us some examples. But when I came to Istanbul after having completed prep class, in my new high school we either studied grammar or did short exercises on the excerpts in the textbook or on the short stories. It was only at my former school in Izmir that I received that kind of an education (Excerpt 20).

The L1 writing tasks senior year participants practiced in secondary school also resemble those mentioned by freshman year participants. Students mostly wrote compositions on similar topics and wrote short paragraphs to answer reading comprehension questions. Most student participants perceive their L1 writing practice as inadequate because they were very rarely asked to write essays – commonly only in exams, and most essays were about cliché and repetitive topics requiring no argumentation or critical thinking at all.

> SS3: Mostly we paid attention to stuff related to the exams, like how to write a short answer, how to infer an idea from a text or find out certain points, things like that. Now and then we would write compositions, but they weren't sufficient enough (Excerpt 21).

> SS5: We would have composition classes once a week. Although I don't quite remember what we would write about, the topics were usually very easy; it was just for sake of writing, something like the autumn, Children’s Day, Teachers' Day and so on. I don't think I benefited from them much (Excerpt 22).

> SS7: Classically, we would have reading parts and texts in the classes. We would write on those and answer questions about them. As we got to the next grades, we would study old literature. We had composition classes and would write about various topics. They were usually classic topics (Excerpt 23).

As can be seen in Excerpt 24, explaining Turkish proverbs was a very common topic assigned in Turkish (L1) compositions.

> SS4: We actually did a lot of things. When we studied a poet, we would also learn about his/her life. In other classes, we would learn about meters, covered many grammar topics, and would also write compositions. But it was like this: they would give us a proverb or an idiom in the ninth grade. Let's say it was "Language is culture," and the teacher would ask us whether we agree or disagree. In tenth grade, we were freer about writing; we would be writing stories. We didn't write argumentative essays in high school (Excerpt 24).

One student participant (SS6) made an interesting comment about the difficulty secondary school students have in explaining these proverbs in an expressive manner since most of the Turkish proverbs entail excessively abstract and metaphorical notions, which can be beyond students' conceptualization, interpretation and experience:

> SS6: We were usually asked to find the main idea and the theme of a reading passage. We would write summaries, would be specifically asked to write a summary of a text beginning from somewhere to somewhere else. I don't think the education I received in high school amounted to much. The composition topics were either Ataturk,or special days or idioms. One day in secondary school the teacher asked us to write an essay on the idiom "Tell me who your friend is, and I will tell you who you are." In those days, let alone writing on this topic, I couldn't even visualize what it meant, and eventually got a zero. I was bored. Usually the things we wrote were repetitions of what we did the year before. I always used what I wrote before and proceeded from there (Excerpt 25)

From participants' responses it can be inferred that senior year participants did not find writing about proverbs and repetitive topics to be meaningful writing tasks.

Senior year participants provided similar responses about teachers' approaches to L1 writing. They stated that their teachers mostly emphasized grammar, form, and handwriting in the evaluation and assessment of their compositions. Students reported that they had never received detailed feedback for their written texts; however, teachers seldom provided general feedback in class on common errors. Students did not have any opportunities to learn from their writing.

> SS4: Our compositions were graded, but we didn't receive detailed feedback as we do here. They would just grade us and that would be all. They would pay extra attention to grammar and usage, creativity especially in short stories, and our handwriting, whether it was beautiful or not (Excerpt 26).

> SS7: The teachers at high school didn't give us feedback; they just graded us. We would read out our own essays in the class, and the teacher would make a general comment do here, making corrections word by word (Excerpt 27).

One of the student participants (SS3), however, indicated that thanks to her L1 language teacher's different approach to writing that fostered creativity and forming different perspectives, she was able to write better at university.

> SS3: I had a Turkish Literature teacher whom we all loved. S/he wasn't like the classic type. When s/he asked us to write a composition in the exam, s/he told us "Think of yourself as a shoelace and tell about one day in your life." I loved that teacher for having introduced us different points of views; I benefited from those greatly at the university. For instance, when my friends did things like defining a proverb or writing summaries, we did things that would foster our creativity. We could keep our imagination active and now I find this very useful (Excerpt 28).

Table 18 summarizes common patterns of how freshman and senior year students described their previous Turkish (L1) writing experience.

Table 18. Common Patterns in Participants' Previous Turkish (L1) Writing Experience.

L1 Writing Instruction	Inexplicit and unsystematic L1 writing instruction.
	Limited L1 writing practice.
L1 Writing Practice	Writing not as a means of learning or meaning making, but writing simply to receive grades.
	Writing about clichés, repetitive topics, and explaining proverbs.
L1 Teachers' approaches	Focus on grammar, exam/test driven courses.
	Limited amount of feedback.

All in all, as can be inferred from student participants' responses, L1 writing instruction and students' previous L1 writing practices do not sufficiently equip students with the basic writing skills that can be developed into L2 writing and further employed in academic writing. The findings reveal that the L1 writing instruction Turkish students receive in secondary school is unsystematic, inexplicit and based on the over-generalized explanation of composition writing. Students are generally expected to write en effective introduction (*giriş-serim*) in which they introduce the topic, and then write developmental paragraph(s) (*gelişme- düğüm*) with examples to support the given topic, and finally write a conclusion (*sonuç-çözüm*), which usually ends with idioms, quotations, recommendations or calls to action. Although this pattern is the same as what is required in L2 composing or the basics of academic writing, there is one thing that hinders the transfer of this L1writing knowledge to L2 composing strategies: students seem to not be well aware of how they should write, what they should write, and how they can organize their ideas. Students know that their essays should be composed of an introduction, development and a conclusion; however they have a vague idea about what constitutes a coherent, well-organized and well-supported paragraph. What or what not to include in these respective paragraphs of a composition is not taught explicitly in Turkish (L1) composition writing courses.

From student participants' responses, it is also inferred that students did not take L1 writing tasks very seriously as they were writing about almost the same predictable topics every year. Similar to the topics reported by the participants of this study, when Uysal (2008) explored her Turkish participants' L1 writing experiences, she also found that "most common topics were explaining a proverb, a saying, or a maxim of Atatürk (78%), writing about historical or national topics such as Atatürk's

principles or national holidays (72%), and only then argumentative topics (39%)" (p. 190). At the secondary school level, what student participants practiced in terms of L1 writing covered mostly expressive writing (journals, bulletins and diaries), summary writing (of the books they read), and writing informative texts (direct compilation of information retrieved from the Internet). Furthermore, some student participants (FS1; FS2; FS7; SS4; SS6; and SS7) did not consider L1 writing as a learning tool; rather writing was used simply as a means for knowledge-telling and transferring emotions about particular themes on paper. Because L1 teachers followed a product-oriented approach toward writing and students were mostly writing in-class or in exams within allocated times, student participants did not experience writing as a process. Teachers barely provided detailed feedback, and when they did, the feedback was on form and format rather than content. Therefore, students hardly had any chance to learn from their texts and improve their writing. Finally, student participants did not value writing in general nor their L1 writing practice because the main emphasis of Turkish (L1) courses in secondary school was on preparing students for university entrance examinations.

These findings correspond to what is being experienced in the Japanese education system (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002). In the Japanese education system, given the central university entrance examination, little importance is attached to L1 writing instruction and students very rarely practice L1 writing. Kobayashi and Rinnert (2002) also observed that "there is some discrepancy between the goals of L1 writing instruction as articulated by the Ministry of Education and the actual practice in school classrooms" (p. 95). Similarly, as explained in Chapter 2, document analysis has shown that learning objectives, specified text genres, and

writing tasks suggested by MONE[2] for Turkish (L1) writing instruction in secondary schools are sufficiently effective to equip students with transferable skills, which can be employed at an academic level. However, findings derived from the background questionnaire and interviews with student participants prove that syllabuses are not implemented as articulated by MONE.

Even though these findings provide a general representation of Turkish (L1) writing instruction, it should be noted that students' retrospective responses about their L1 writing experience can to a certain extent be biased, as they might have drawn comparisons between secondary school and university writing experiences

4.1.3 Previous English (L2) writing experience

4.1.3.1 Secondary school English (L2) writing experience

Student participants of the study come from two different national education systems. Though the two systems are not very different from one other in terms of foreign language teaching policy, the responses of student participants pertaining to their previous English (L2) writing experiences should be interpreted within these systems. Senior year student participants were subject to MONE's 1997 foreign language policy and planning. That is, they learned English starting from the fourth grade of primary school. Students who started their secondary school education in private, Anatolian or Super English high schools studied extensive hours of English

[2]Language and Narratology Course (Dil ve Anlatım Dersi), Grades 9-12, MONE, 2010, http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/program2.aspx?islem=1&kno=61

because the ninth grade was the preparation year for secondary school education (1+3) as explained in Chapter 2. Among the seven senior year student participants, six students are from Anatolian high schools and one student is from a private school, and because they chose the foreign language branch during the last two years of secondary school education, they also received additional hours of English instruction. Student participants composing the freshman year group were subject to the 2005 curriculum. As previously mentioned in Chapter 2, in 2005, MONE abolished the preparation year from secondary school education to maintain uniformity in the amount and quality of foreign language instruction in all types of secondary schools. Students continued to receive more hours of English during the ninth grade – i.e. ten hours per week – and then during the last three years of their secondary school education they received four hours of weekly English (Kırkgöz, 2007). However, because the freshman year student participants chose the foreign language branch as of their tenth grade, they also received extra hours of English instruction in addition to those compulsory four hours. Thus, even if the twelve freshman year participants had different secondary school backgrounds (i.e. eight from state schools, two from Anatolian high schools, and two from private schools), they received approximately the same amount of English language instruction.

4.1.3.1.1 Freshman year participants

Freshman year participants who studied in Anatolian high schools and private schools had produced texts in English especially in the ninth grade. However, once they chose their branches (i.e. foreign language), they had fewer chances to practice English (L2) writing as they started to prepare for university entrance examinations.

Students were mostly assigned individual assignments and group projects about topics such as the biography of a famous person, short stories, holiday destinations, social media, environmental issues, and so on. They produced expressive texts focusing on emotions and personal reflections rather than opinionated argumentative essays. Students were generally completing these writing tasks as in-class activities and rarely as homework. Three participants (FS10; FS4; FS6) indicated that their English exams in secondary school always included a writing section that required students to write essays on topics as shown in Table 18. Although these participants practiced English (L2) writing to a certain extent, they indicated that they had never received explicit writing instruction. In terms of feedback and evaluation of students' written texts, teachers were mostly concerned with accurate use of taught grammar subjects and vocabulary rather than content or organization of ideas. Excerpts 29, 30, and 31 represent how most freshman year students who studied in Anatolian high schools, perceive their secondary school English (L2) writing practices.

> FS10: In high school, it was during the ninth grade that we did most of the writing. Either the exams had writing parts in them, or we were given writing assignments as homework. Something like, picking a celebrity and writing about his/her life. (Excerpt 29).
>
> FS4: We always had writing sections in our exams. We would spare a forty-five - minute class for it. The writing section in the exam had one question and we would be asked to choose a topic out of two or three options and write on it. (Excerpt 30).
>
> FS6: We definitely wrote compositions in English classes. We were taught about thesis statement and all that, but I had no idea what they were about (Excerpt 31).

This amount of English (L2) writing practice, however, cannot be generalized to what all students experienced in Anatolian high schools.

One freshman year student participant (FS7), who also studied in an Anatolian school, reported that even though she had three different English language courses and teachers, each of whom focused on teaching a different language knowledge and skill (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, and reading), her L2 writing practice did not go beyond filling in the gaps.

> FS7: There were fifty-five people in class; therefore, it was awful. We had three English teachers. One of them was stern and we had him/her for grammar lessons, yet s/he was the most effective one. Another one we had for vocabulary lessons and he gave us lots of tests to work on; he never talked, we didn't even hear his voice. The other one came for our reading lessons, we would read a lot but it wasn't very useful. We never did any writing exercises, and even if we did it was mostly filling in the blanks sort of thing (Excerpt 32).

Freshman year students (n=8) having studied in state high schools are found to be in a more deprived position with regards to their English (L2) writing experience. Almost all participants expressed their dissatisfaction with L2 instruction and the way language courses were handled. Although students were studying in a foreign language branch as of their tenth grade, had extensive hours of English, and used course books focusing on grammar and skills teaching, all they recalled from their English classes were repeating the same sets of grammar subjects, learning vocabulary, and doing tests for university entrance examinations. Student participants' responses revealed the fact that it was always writing skill and/or writing tasks that were neglected or skipped by teachers at times when they used their course books. However, student participants considered this act of their teachers as quite normal. They acknowledged that it would be very strenuous and daunting for teachers to implement writing tasks and provide individual feedback in large class-sizes, made up of approximately fifty students. (See excerpts 33, 34, 35, and 36).

> FS11: We had a teacher and she was very good; she was a splendid teacher. She would arrange extra courses at the weekends for us. But despite everything, nothing much happened, as the class was too crowded. We did nothing in terms of writing. We had a textbook, but we only did the reading and listening sections, that's all. It was probably because it would be too difficult to manage such a crowded classroom. We would have difficulties even with listening sections. I think we didn't have the time for writing above all. Giving assignments to all those people, checking them, and then giving feedback. It is too much to do. I think it would be difficult for the teacher, I completely understand it. And also, we weren't her only class; she had other classes too (Excerpt 33).
>
> FS9: Whenever we had classes, we would use them for grammar, as the university exam was grammar-oriented. We had Enterprise as the course book and those books had all the sections: listening, reading and writing. But we couldn't do anything in listening lessons because of the physical conditions of the classroom, or we were able to do the listening sections if the teacher could get hold of a tape recorder, or if there were something to watch and the projector was functioning properly. The teacher would look at the course book and see the grammar topics we needed to cover, and would say that we should do it quickly and be done with it. We rarely did any writing (Excerpt 34).
>
> FS12: We would do exercises that were related to the university entrance exam, so we generally did grammar and vocabulary. But I don't blame the teacher for this. I went to a state school, and then it was converted to an Anatolian high school but nothing changed. The teachers were the same; the curriculum and the whole system stayed the same (Excerpt 35).
>
> FS2: For nearly four years, we had the same teacher for our English classes and s/he usually dwelled upon the same things, like grammar and tenses. Since s/he was unable to change certain things, I don't think the things we did in high school contributed to me much. (Excerpt 36).

Apparently, student participants' English (L2) writing practices were very limited in amount and nature. Students were not generally satisfied with L2 instruction, either. Even though MONE enacted the 2005 curriculum to maintain standardization in foreign language instruction among different types of secondary schools, a marked amount of discrepancy was observed in the quality of foreign language instruction provided across various types of secondary schools.

Very few freshman year participants indicated that they had produced texts in English. However, these were short – paragraph- or sentence-lengthed – controlled writing tasks found in students' course books to reinforce and practice grammar

topics and vocabulary that was covered in particular units. Most freshman year student participants defined their amount of writing practice as “almost none.”

> FS8: We would write short stories as part of our writing classes. As a matter of fact, we did it only once. English classes weren't that great, but that was due to the teacher. It would bore us. We usually skipped writing sections of the course book. We did things like, picking a holiday destination and recommending it, that sort of thing. We almost did no writing exercises. Maybe we would write a few things about endangered animals, social media, biographies of celebrities, global warming, things like that. But those were already there in the course book (Excerpt 37).

Two freshman year participants (FS3; FS11) also described their English classes as “empty lessons” explaining that language teachers were leaving them free to allow them time for doing multiple-choice preparation tests of English for university entrance examination.

> FS3: As far as English was concerned, I learnt nothing. We choose our division in the tenth grade, and during the next three years we covered past tense, perfect tense, present tense... that sort of thing. We were usually left alone so that we could do tests (Excerpt 38).

> FS11: There were about 50 people in the class. It was a state school and everyone was minding their own business. It was the year we were preparing for the university entrance exam, everyone was working on a test or some other thing (Excerpt 39).

4.1.3.1.2 Senior year participants

Senior year participants’ retrospective evaluations of their English (L2) writing experiences show similar lines to that of freshman year students. Among the seven student participants, six mentioned that their English (L2) writing experiences were confined to what they had done in the ninth grade, which was the high school preparatory year. However, even then they perceived their L2 writing practice to be very limited; it was mainly composed of writing short summaries of reading texts,

answering reading comprehension questions, and very little free writing, expressive writing or keeping a journal. Excerpts 40, 41 and 42 represent senior year participants' overall perceptions pertaining to their experiences about English (L2) writing in secondary school.

> SS4: We had grammar and listening lessons and did short reading exercises, but we never had writing practice. We would only read short reading passages and after that did question and answer exercises (Excerpt 40).
>
> SS7: We would write when we were in prep class. For instance, we would be asked to write a summary of a reading passage in the course book, but we didn't write any compositions. That didn't happen in the later years in high school either (Excerpt 41).
>
> SS3: The only thing I remember is when we would keep a diary for a month or so towards the end of prep class. But we only did tests during the tenth and eleventh years of high school. Or, we would read a passage, again from those tests we did, and did exercises like what the author meant here (Excerpt 42).

From student participants' responses, it is also inferred that English language teachers mostly focused on grammar and vocabulary both in their approach to teaching of foreign language and their assessment of students' linguistics skills. Considering the four language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking – teachers were occasionally allocating some hours of their teaching to reading and listening activities but never for writing or speaking. Thus, it can be concluded that students mainly developed receptive skills whereas productive language skills remained to a great extent untouched.

In the case of senior year participants, English language teachers are again observed to have skipped writing tasks and provided no L2 writing instruction at all. Excerpts 43, 44, 45 and 46 clearly illustrate that writing was the least emphasized language skill in teaching of English.

> SS2: The lessons were designed according to the university entrance exam; therefore they usually focused on reading comprehension. The teacher would usually follow the curriculum. Some of my friends read Shakespeare during high school, but we didn't. Our teachers would just blindly follow the curriculum (Excerpt 43).
> SS3: I didn't have any writing lessons. We were taught according to the requirements of the Foreign Language Exam (YDS). We had our course books, but we would usually use them for listening and reading exercises. They would never ask us to write things as part of our homework (Excerpt 44).

> SS4: Mine was a Super English high school, and we had our foundation in English grammar during the prep class. But we didn't do any writing as we were forty people in the class and not everyone was going to choose the foreign language division. We did grammar, listening and reading exercises, but no writing (Excerpt 45).

> SS7: We used Oxford's course books in high school; but then again, we never did the writing sections (Excerpt 46).

For instance, as can be seen in Excerpt 47, one student participant (SS2) indicated that even though their course book consisted of reading, listening and writing tasks and activities, they were only using the book for the grammar parts and doing tests that were related to the questions asked in university entrance examination.

> SS2: The teachers usually would teach us according to the subjects covered in the Foreign Language Exam (YDS). The exams therefore were multiple-choice. We used ELS books, bought the whole set. The books actually had writing and listening sections too, but we usually did the parts directly related to the exam (Excerpt 47).

Another student (SS6) pointed at how skills-based language lessons were used for a different purpose instead of their real learning objectives by saying, “we had reading, writing, and listening lessons but later on we started to use these classes for doing more tests for the university exam; we were only using our reading and writing books when inspectors came to school. They [the books] at all times were readily waiting under our desks” (Excerpt 48). Additionally, the “Empty lessons” description is also encountered in senior year students’ responses as Excerpt 49 represents.

> SS5: The teacher would come to the class at nine o'clock and after handing out a hundred-question sample test, then s/he would leave. The test would take us three hours anyway, and s/he would say that s/he would come back in the afternoon when we were finished with it. We were seven or eight people in the class. Some of us would actually do the test, others who didn't would just wander about. High school was very easy on us (Excerpt 49).

From senior year participants' responses, it is clearly inferred that students had scarcely ever practiced producing texts in English or they on no occasion had received formal L2 writing instruction. With a similar attitude to that of freshman year students, senior year participants also do not regard this as shortcomings on the part of their language teachers or the implementation of the curriculum. They mentioned the unfeasibility of applying writing activities in English lessons due to large class-sizes. Student participants, furthermore, rationalize this situation by positioning the university entrance examination as the most important thing for a secondary school student. According to most student participants (n=6), they would not have benefited from L2 writing instruction even if their teachers had wanted to provide them with L2 writing knowledge and practice because students' main concentration was on entering a university and not on developing their L2 language skills. However, all these student participants attested how they had come to realize the importance of writing and skills-based teaching when they were asked, for the first time, to write an essay in English in the proficiency exam prior to starting the undergraduate program.

Among the senior year student participants, only one student (SS1), who had studied in a private school, recounted a completely different English (L2) writing experience. She studied in a foreign-language branch class that consisted of only six students. Besides general English courses, she also received additional "intensive English courses" in which they were learning about basic concepts of English literature and exposed to different genres of English literature. In addition to

literature, they received formal L2 writing instruction and wrote essays (both expository and argumentative) as homework or as part of their exams. SS1 described her L2 writing experience and her teachers' approaches toward writing and implementation writing tasks as follows:

> SS1: We had an extra four hours of English lessons in high school, but those focused exclusively on literature and the teachers were quite rigid. We were six people in the class and the teacher would read our compositions one by one and evaluate us. S/he would show common mistakes on a power point presentation on the projector. I don't remember any composition not being returned to us without any mistakes in them, they would surely need corrections and we would write them all over again. In the exams for those extra English lessons, we were asked to write compositions. We were given an argumentative topic to write on, or we would be given a quotation and asked to explain it. The education at our school was so rigid that if I had done the mistakes I did here back then in high school, I would be in real trouble. We would read a play each semester and we would study it really in detail. They wouldn't tolerate any mistakes. They would say that if we wanted to study literature, then we needed to learn English impeccably (Excerpt 50).

During her retrospective reflection, SS1 expressed that she, by some means, was astounded when she learnt that her peers at university had not practiced L2 writing at all. SS1 had successfully passed the proficiency exam and started the undergraduate program directly. For SS1, the academic courses she received in the program and the writing tasks she was assigned to were in some measure a follow-up to her secondary school education.

> SS1: That's why I didn't really find the system here awkward, but everyone else in the class finds it weird when they write an essay and the teacher hands it back for them to re-write it. I knew that it needed to be that way anyway (Excerpt 51).

Finally, she asserted that she had a smooth transition from secondary school to university as she had been well aware of what would be expected of her in terms of L2 writing and academic writing. Table 19 summarizes common patterns of how freshman and senior year students described their previous English (L2) writing experience.

Table 19. Common Patterns in Participants' Secondary School English (L2) Writing Experience.

L2 language and writing instruction	No systematic L2 writing instruction.
	Focus of language teaching is on grammar and vocabulary. Exam/test driven courses. Very limited focus on language skills.
	Writing is the least emphasized language skill.
L2 writing practice	Limited amount of writing practice; mostly through controlled writing tasks to practice novice grammar and vocabulary.

The amount and nature of English (L2) writing instruction and participants' previous L2 writing practices seem to be restricted and insufficient just like their L1 writing experiences. Among the four language skills (i.e. reading, listening, speaking, and writing), writing seems to be the least emphasized skill by L2 teachers in secondary school education. Similar to the findings of Reichelt (2009), in Turkish foreign language classrooms L2 writing is mostly implemented through controlled writing activities that are used not for the communication of ideas but to reinforce L2 learning. In these controlled L2 writing activities (i.e. gap filling, substitution exercises, short paragraphs focusing on the use of particular grammatical structures and vocabulary), writing is actually removed from context and is not regarded as a social practice. Students' L2 writing experiences do not go beyond practicing novice L2 grammatical structures and vocabulary in short expressive and descriptive text genres. Students practice L2 writing mostly in the ninth grade; however, L2 teachers do not provide any systematic L2 writing instruction. When L2 teachers give corrective feedback for students' written texts, they mostly focus on accuracy and form rather than on fluency and content. Similar to L1 courses, L2 courses are exam/test driven; that is, L2 teachers primarily focus on teaching form and grammar

and preparing students for university entrance examination. Once students choose their branches in the tenth grade, all they do is tests that are based only on grammar and reading comprehension.

Student participants' responses revealed another very crucial point: that some L2 teachers were deliberately skipping writing tasks in foreign language classrooms. These findings are important to take into consideration because Turkish students' lack of L2 writing practices may not stem from any shortcomings of the proposed foreign language curriculum but from the way the curriculum is being implemented by English language teachers. Having recognized students' inadequate development of communicative competence in foreign language, MONE has been emphasizing that there is substantial need to shift foreign language teaching approaches from grammar-based traditional approaches to communicative and learner-centered language teaching by integrating four language skills across the entire curriculum (see Chapter 2). Writing, indeed, has always been given secondary place as a language skill in comparison to listening, speaking and reading in Turkish foreign language curricula. However, as explained in Chapter 2, even if most are controlled writing tasks designed to reinforce taught grammar and vocabulary, there is an ample amount of L2 writing activities proposed both in the former and recently designed foreign language syllabuses and textbooks. Although these L2 writing activities may not adequately equip students with the necessary writing skills that can be transferred to academic writing discourses, they could enable students to gain a satisfactory amount and quality of L2 writing practice prior to university.Thus, as I have stated earlier, students' lack of L2 writing experience can be related to English language teachers' conceptualizations of writing as a foreign language skill and their approaches to implement the suggested curricula, and how teachers interpret their

students' needs. Haznedar (2012) pointed out that although "the teachers seem to know about recent developments in language teaching, what they teach is [still] mostly grammar-based" (p. 51). Even though one senior year student participant (SS2) previously said, "our teachers would just blindly follow the curriculum (Excerpt 43)", apparently the teachers did not follow the curriculum. L2 teachers' teaching methodologies remained quite traditional, and they merely trained students for university entrance examinations.

From student participants' responses, it is inferred that L2 courses are implemented to serve students' immediate needs, which in this context denotes equipping students with the necessary grammatical knowledge and test solving skills to enable them to attain higher scores in university entrance examinations. Apparently, English language teachers do not attach importance to the communicative functions of the language or the improvement of students' language skills. Moreover, L2 teachers seem not to be concerned with what is expected of students at the university level or how students may transfer and utilize the knowledge and skills they gain at secondary school when they start their programs at university.

The interview I conducted with a secondary school English language teacher (HST) provides important insights into this discussion from a teacher's point of view. She acknowledges that, as foreign language teachers, they follow grammar-oriented approaches in teaching English by saying "of course, in high schools we mostly work on grammar with students" (Excerpt 52). She further explained that, contrary to the majority of English teachers who abandon implementing writing tasks soon after the initial phases, she continues to make her students write in English. She acknowledges that evaluating students' written texts is great burden on teachers due

to large class sizes. However, she believes in the importance of writing as a language skill, and she emphasizes that a teacher can best detect to what extent his/her students developed linguistic competence by looking at his/her students' written products. The following Excerpt 53 illustrates HST's points well:

> HST: We generally start with present simple tense in the first weeks. Let's say that the student knows about the rules of present simple tense, but what is my aim in teaching this tense? My aim is to make the students describe their daily routines. They should able to say, "I wake up at seven in the morning, I wash my face, I have breakfast" and so on. So, I try to make sure that students practice the writing tasks that we have in the course book at the end of each unit. I evaluate students' paragraphs at home, which means evaluating the paragraphs of sixty students each time. But I am checking them to see how accurately the students have used these grammatical structures. The only place where students can use these grammatical structures we teach is actually writing. Students can do everything accurately on the worksheets I give them; they can construct sentences or answer my questions, but the important thing is whether they can accurately construct sentences, use them one after the other and form a meaningful paragraph. That is the point where we can understand if they have really learnt these structures(Excerpt 53).

As can be understood from Excerpt 53, HST asserts that no matter how successfully students complete grammar-drills, students' L2 language competence can only be observed in the paragraphs they produce. She emphasizes that writing not only fosters linguistic competence, but also writing contributes to overall communicative competence of the students maintaining that:

> HST: Writing is really important, because if a student can make up sentences and form a paragraph by using all the structures we teach, he/she can also use language correctly in speaking, as well (Excerpt 54).

Moreover, HST admits that majority of English language teachers skip writing tasks in course books indicating that:

> HST: Teachers almost always skip writing tasks because many of them make fun of me when they see me marking homework during breaks. But there are too many students in one class in state schools and the teachers just do not want to bother

> themselves with evaluating and grading papers. I think writing is the most skipped language skill because for language teachers writing is not easy to teach. To teach writing, the teacher should be creative and have a very good command of English because the teacher needs to correct the students' sentences and provide a model for students' writing. You need to know more than the students themselves. (Excerpt 55).

She maintains that English language teachers ignore and prefer not to implement the writing tasks for two main reasons. First, L2 teachers consider evaluating students' texts and providing feedback to be an extra workload. Secondly, teachers do not trust their content knowledge and their command of English sufficiently to be able to teach and model L2 writing to students. The points she made about foreign language instruction and implementation of writing tasks in secondary school language classrooms verify the findings obtained from student participants.

Considering the approximately three years of age difference between the two cases of student participants, it is interesting to recognize that nothing much has changed in the implementation of the English language curriculum in secondary schools. Focusing on grammar and vocabulary does not seem to equip students with established language skills, as they are never asked to produce language in any form of discourse. An excessive amount of grammatical drills and tests may to a certain extent provide students with explicit knowledge. However, lack of practice in language production makes learnt explicit knowledge inefficient when students are expected to express their own ideas in written discourse by conforming to the rules of academic writing. Students can construct syntactically accurate sentences, but they may not able to produce appropriately written texts since they do not know how they should apply their explicit knowledge of language in writing for particular purposes and text genres at the university level (Hyland, 2011, p. 22).

Finally, the findings suggest that during their primary and secondary school education, Turkish students barely "learn to write" in their respective languages – L1 and L2, let alone "write to learn" in English.

4.1.3.2 Preparatory school English (L2) writing experience

Both the freshman and senior year students who had studied in preparatory school prior to their undergraduate programs (n=13) described their preparatory school experience as the "first introduction to the real use of English and the first encounter with L2 writing."

> FS2: It was the first time I was speaking in English during the class because in nearly ninety percent of the classes in high school we were speaking in Turkish. Only when we were doing some exercises would we have to speak English. In prep school everything was more challenging, and I think that this contributed to my development a lot, because I think that having to speak English and explaining yourself in English helps you a lot. I didn't even know what an essay was like until I came to prep school at the university. I learnt all about it here (Excerpt 56).
>
> FS1: Prep school was very useful; it was the first time I learnt about writing (Excerpt 57).
>
> SS6: Whatever I know about writing, it was thanks to the prep school (Excerpt 58).

Student participants reportedly found preparatory school education very useful specifically for developing their language skills. As can be seen in Excerpts 59, 60 and 61, student participants emphasize the importance of studying in preparatory school particularly for developing their L2 writing skills. In expressing their contentment with the L2 writing experience at preparatory school, they all underlined the explicitness of the L2 writing instruction, the adequate amount of L2 writing practice, and the constructive feedback they had received from their teachers.

> FS7: It was very useful in terms of note-taking techniques and writing. During prep school we always did writing exercises, and the teachers would assign us lots of homework. It wasn't that useful when it comes to grammar and speaking, but it was useful in terms of writing and reading skills (Excerpt 59).

> FS3: When I started prep school, like I said, I could barely write anything. But they taught us how to write, how to deconstruct a sentence, how to organize your introduction-body-conclusion, how to write a topic sentence and how to deconstruct your topic sentence (Excerpt 60).

> SS7: I can say that prep school was very good. Our teacher would encourage us to write, it was him/her that made me love writing. We learnt everything about thesis statements, topic sentences and other writing techniques here at the prep school. In the exams, we would be given a topic, but I didn't know how to write at the time. In those writing lessons, the teacher would give us feedback all the time, but s/he wouldn't make it compulsory and would say that whenever we brought what we wrote, then s/he would check it. To be honest, I did a lot to improve my writing. The teacher's feedback was really good (Excerpt 61).

Student participants reported that they also from studying at preparatory school as it provided them with the necessary resources to make a smooth transition from secondary school to university. Especially for academic writing, student participants asserted that they would have had more difficulties if they had started the undergraduate program directly and had not learnt to write essays in L2 in preparatory school. Some student participants easily transferred the L2 writing skills they had gained in preparatory school to their academic writing practices in the undergraduate program, and this made them feel more self-confident at the initial stages of their academic writing practices as Excerpts 62, 63, and 64 illustrate.

> FS12: The education I received in prep school was useful for some of the things we did here. I feel familiar with some of the things we do here and I know what I should do. Someone who doesn't know anything about it might find it a bit difficult here (Excerpt 62).

> SS2: I am glad I went to the prep school. I think prep school was very useful, I benefited from it to a great extent. For instance, at least I knew about a couple of things when I started at the department. Therefore I had less difficulty (Excerpt 63).
> SS5: Seriously, I knew nothing about introductions or thesis statements. I learnt about them much later when I was in prep school, or things like the essay types and how to organize your opinions. Whatever I learnt at prep school, I now apply them to my writing assignments here (Excerpt 64).

Despite the above-mentioned benefits of studying in preparatory school, four student participants (FS5; FS1; FS11; FS2) drew attention to the discrepancy between what

they were taught in preparatory school as academic writing and the kind of writing that was expected of them at the undergraduate level. Student participants considered the academic writing instruction they had received in preparatory school to be misrepresenting what is required from them in undergraduate writing. One student participant (FS5) indicated that in preparatory school they had learnt to write essays in templates, which he later came to realize was not acceptable in the disciplinary context of ELL.

> FS5: The things I was taught at prep school, they turned out to be wrong when I came to the department. Let's not say wrong, but they had different uses. They told us that our essays should start with "this paper will talk about this and that", and we would write that way. But now, professors we have here say that those kinds of statements are only appropriate for much longer research papers (Excerpt 65).

Three other student participants (FS1; FS11; FS12) also referred to the inconsistency between the two writing experiences by defining them as “two different worlds.” They expressed their shock and loss of self-esteem when they became aware of what was being expected of them in the department, and how this was different from what they had learnt in preparatory school.

> FS11: I don't really know what we got from the prep school. We wrote there too, but it was wholly different from what we do in the department. Here there is no room for any mistakes. We learnt a lot here in the department, from how to use quotations to different writing styles. We also learnt how to write and most of all, we learnt about how you shouldn't write without doing your research. (Excerpt 66).

> FS12: All those things looked quite easy in the prep school then. I realized that writing was much more serious than this when I started at the department. At the time I thought that I was good because I got good marks and I thought that I was good at writing. That was because I did everything the way they wanted us to do. That's how I passed the exams at the prep school. When I got here, I realized that the English I was using was quite different. I didn't realize that at prep school, because it was more like a continuation of high school. Let me be honest with you, I was a bit taken aback after the first academic writing class. I knew nothing about writing from high school. It was then I understood that things wouldn't be the same as prep school. I got used to it with time, and when you get used to it, you start loving it anyway. You need to accept it first and then love it. When you start loving it, you start doing it well (Excerpt 67).

FS1 even emphasized that they should have received disciplinary-specific academic writing instruction in preparatory school maintaining that:

> FS1: The things they taught at prep school are quite different from what we learn here. I can't really see a connection between the two. I wish we had a special class for us literature students at prep school (Excerpt 68).

In one-year English preparatory school, academic writing is generally taught with a study-skills approach as discussed previously in Chapter 2. The study-skills approach regards academic reading and writing skills as a set of atomized literacy skills that students can gain through formal instruction and guided practice (Lea & Street, 1998). According to the study-skills approach, students are expected to employ the acquired technical academic writing skills competently and straightforwardly in their disciplinary contexts when needed and required. Teaching academic writing within the study-skills paradigm encompasses equipping students with general knowledge of academic writing, such as the use of the academic register and particular organizational patterns. The study skills approach is similar to the "generic approach" defined by Street (2004). However, as discussed in Chapter 2, the study-skills approach to teaching academic writing fails to recognize that different academic disciplines value different kinds of arguments and different writing tasks (Hyland, 2002). Thus, as illustrated in Excerpt 67, adopting a "socioliterate approach" (Johns, 1997) to academic writing better prepares students for their undergraduate studies since a socioliterate approach enables students to gain the necessary practice in producing the text genres that they will be writing in their academic disciplines (Hyland, 2011). Street (2004) similarly argues that instead of a generic approach that views writing as a "uniform skill," language teachers should employ an "embedded approach" to teaching writing because an embedded approach

acknowledges discipline-specific writing genres and train and support students accordingly. Making students become aware of what constitutes good and acceptable writing in their academic disciplines is more important than merely equipping students with general academic writing skills. Cummings et al. (2006) also supports these views indicating that preparatory schools should aim to "prepare students for and to complement the goals, pedagogy, and writing tasks that the students might encounter in university courses the following year" (p. 51). As explained previously in Chapter 2, a substantial body of research investigated how varying conceptualizations and approaches of ESL/EFL teachers and subject tutors (e.g. faculty members) toward academic writing exert influence on university students' academic writing practices (Al- Badwawi, 2011; Basham & Kwachka, 1991; Brown 1991; Hyland, 2002; Leki & Carson, 1997). Table 20 summarizes the common patterns found in relation to student participants' English (L2) writing experiences in preparatory school.

All in all, the findings reveal that studying at preparatory school offers a smoother transition to university because students start to get used to the institutional culture. Moreover, in contrast to secondary school L2 instruction, preparatory school L2 instruction significantly contributes both to students' development of language skills and their academic literacy skills. At the initial phases of the undergraduate program, students who have studied at one-year preparatory school seem to encounter considerably fewer challenges in terms of their writing practices in contrast to students who come directly from secondary school and lack systematic training prior to their first academic writing assignment.

Table 20. Common Patterns in Participants' Preparatory School English (L2) Writing Experience.

L2 writing instruction	Systematic and explicit L2 writing and academic writing instruction
	Consistent and constructive feedback.
Contribution of Preparatory school	Developing reading and writing skills.
	Developing academic writing practice.
Problem	Differences between preparatory school and undergraduate academic writing.

The above-mentioned discrepancy observed between students' two academic writing experiences (i.e. preparatory school vs. undergraduate program) is a notable issue to examine as it exerts a great influence on students' academic writing practices in their disciplinary contexts. This issue will be discussed further in the following section.

4.2 Overall evaluation of the Turkish education system and previous writing experience

From the discussion above, it is understood that during their secondary school education, Turkish students develop a limited extent of writing skills that can be transferred and employed in the context of higher education. The interview question that probed student participants' views about "plagiarism in academic writing" revealed further details about how students perceive the Turkish education system and their previous English (L2) writing experiences. Student participants maintain that the Turkish education system does not sufficiently prepare them for higher education and their future academic studies.

During the interviews, student participants criticized the education system as it heavily relies on rote learning and adopts a reproductive approach to learning, both of which are mainly based on imitation, memorization, and knowledge telling. Findings indicate that student participants found themselves in a deprived position at university as they lacked necessary trains of thought and could not develop reading habits, gain critical thinking and writing practice, and learn about research skills during their secondary school education.

As for their previous writing experiences, participants criticized both their teachers' and their own approaches to the written assignments. Most student participants asserted that, when preparing their written assignments, Turkish students mostly rely on the information they find on the Internet as students have difficulties in generating their own ideas or because they think their personal ideas will not be valued by their teachers. They also related the difficulties they had in generating ideas to their lack of reading habits. Another criticism they came up with about their approaches to written assignments underlined the fact that they had never taken those assignments seriously and that they simply completed the tasks to receive grades. They also mentioned that the teachers did not consider written assignments to be important components of students' overall achievements either. Excerpts 69 and 70 illustrate these points:

> SS2: There is a general lethargy with Turkish students, they don't really care about homework, and they only care because they are going to be marked at the end. Nearly everyone copies his or her homework from the Internet, or make their parents do their homework for them. The teachers at the school don't really check them anyway (Excerpt 69).

> SS4: Unfortunately, we Turkish students are not used to reading. So, what happens is that the students cannot come up with an idea of their own and consult the Internet, instead. There are lots of reasons for that; we could go all the way back to primary school. This is actually about the education system. Education was based on rote-learning then; it didn't allow students to express their own opinions. What we had then was about explaining what we had in front of us, and copying it to out notebooks (Excerpt 70).

Most student participants asserted that they had never heard the notion of "plagiarism" until they started to write in their undergraduate programs. For many students, preparing assignments by copying and pasting information directly from Internet sources and presenting it as if it were their own work was a prevalent and common act during secondary school education. At this point, the student participants also criticized their teachers' approaches to the written assignments. For most student participants, teachers predominantly valued knowledge transfer, format, word-length, accurate use of language, and punctuation in their assignments. Student participants (FS9; FS5; FS7) negatively criticized their teachers as the teachers never evaluated and assessed their assignments in terms of students' own ideas, the content, or originality of the ideas.

> FS9: Turkish students don't really care about writing, but neither do the teachers. The only thing the teacher cares about is it should be a five-page composition, on plain paper, written with a fountain pen. That's why high school students don't really care about their homework; they just copy it from the Internet. That's what I got used to doing in my high school and that's how we came to the university. Our teacher didn't really mind if we had our own opinions or not, s/he didn't have that kind of expectations from us. We just did our homework and handed it in (Excerpt 71).
>
> FS5: We plagiarized a lot at high school. I handed in a summary that I got from the Internet, because I couldn't read the book. And I got full grade from it (Excerpt 72).
>
> FS7: There is something we are used to doing since primary school: copying from Wikipedia. That's how we did our homework. We even didn't write our opinions for the fear that they would be wrong. But this is because the students had been doing it for a long time, and they got used to it, plus the teachers did not say anything about it (Excerpt 73).
>
> SS6: We're not used to writing with thinking; we didn't have the chance to think as our education system was primarily based on memorization. That's why my opinions are shaped by somebody else's thoughts, and therefore we tend to plagiarize. We learn nothing in high school. We come with a practically empty brain, because in high school we just copy-pasted everything (Excerpt 74).

One student participant (FS7) asserted that they continued preparing their written assignments with the same approach even in preparatory school.

> FS7: Last year, when we were at prep school we copied everything from the Internet. We'd mix it up and somehow come up with something. The introduction would be from some source, the conclusion would be from the other, and examples from another one (Excerpt 75).

As indicated by one of the senior year student participants (SS4) in Excerpt 76, the Turkish education system is perceived to rely on memorization, imitation and summative assessment.

> SS4: From primary school on, students get used to producing nothing. All those teachers are coming to the classroom carrying their notebooks, giving us "pluses" and "minuses." The same thing happens in the history lessons; you just copy what's there in the book onto your notebook. The teacher would give you a plus if you come up with the right answer; or a minus if you're wrong. You just have to memorize for the exams, too (Excerpt 76).

SS4 thinks the Turkish education system does not value students' own opinions, and does not allow students any room to think and produce something creatively on their own. For him, the entire education system is based on examinations and the grades received from those exams. He made very interesting comments in terms of the type of questions asked in exams and the type of homework assigned to students, and he explained how students and teachers respond to these, as can be seen in the continuum of Excerpt 76.

> SS4: For instance, you wouldn't have a question in the Turkish exam like this: write about your favorite movie or book; tell me about your favorite character and so on. We would write on things like that; but we would not be graded. We would consider them idle when we did those kinds of things. When you consider them idle, then you do not really care about them. But if it was just the other way around, if the actual homework were like this and if the students were to be graded on it, for instance, if the students were asked to tell about a weekend s/he spent with his/her parents… But the students are frightened, that's why they memorize everything. Everything depends on the grades in the system we are in (Excerpt 76).

He asserted that in written exams, Turkish students are always assessed based on knowledge telling instead of their own ideas, experiences or interpretations about any given topic, which subsequently leads them to memorization. He further explained

that because students are never awarded with grades when they are asked to write about their favorite films, books, and holidays or how they spent their last weekend, Turkish students rightfully do not regard these types of writing tasks as important. He therefore associated the difficulties students face at university when they are expected to make individual interpretations and comments with those deficiencies he observed in the Turkish education system.

> SS4: That is what the students experience when they come to the university, because they don't know another way. Is it true that European students are bright, and Turkish students are stupid? No, it isn't. Yet European students actually are taught certain things. So are their family and people around them. They start learning about these things ever since primary school. When they look around themselves, they see people raising their hands expressing their own opinions. But we don't have that here. Sixty students come together, just sit there side by side. And then the teacher comes, teaches and just leaves. They don't encourage the students to speak their minds. Then when they start university, this is what happens. We tend to do the easiest thing; stay silent. (Excerpt 76).

When SS4 refers to the differences between Turkish and European university students above, he bases his comments on his observations about the Erasmus students visiting the department. ELL hosts several incoming Erasmus students from different parts of Europe every year. Erasmus students are generally praised as those students always participate in classroom discussions and write well-organized essays with clear argumentations. At this point, SS4 exhibits a certain degree of resentment indicating that the fact that Turkish students are not assertive about their own opinions is a direct consequence of the characteristics of the Turkish education system.

Among the nineteen student participants, only one of them (SS1) asserted that she was able to transfer the writing skills she had gained in secondary school to her academic writing practices at university. She was at first appalled when she realized

that her peers at university had great difficulties in writing, especially in generating ideas. However, in her response, she showed awareness about the source of the problem, and she referred to the gap her peers had experienced in terms of their previous reading and writing practices.

> SS1: I like writing anyway. But when you have to come up with a topic, I see that my friends here are having difficulty. I don't understand why having already written when you were in high school, you can't write anything here at all. From what I gather, my friends here were generally taught grammar in high school. When I tell them we would read books, they ask me whether it was an advanced level book, or an original, unabridged edition. We always read the unabridged editions and I can see that it makes a difference here. (Excerpt 77).

Excerpt 77 underlines the importance of the quality of education provided in primary and secondary schools. Contrary to other participants, because SS1 received systematic L2 writing instruction, was exposed to reading and analyzing authentic and original L2 texts, and systematically practiced L2 writing, she did not experience any difficulties both in terms of her transition from secondary school to university, and her writing practices.

SS1 was astonished to find out that her classmates did not come from a similar educational background. Her astonishment illustrates that students take the education they receive in secondary school for granted, and that they do not very much question the quality of education they receive at the time of studying. It is very likely that other student participants were not completely aware of the abovementioned problems of the Turkish education system when they were studying in secondary school. Only when they encounter a new learning environment and culture do students come to realize the discrepancy between the two learning contexts –secondary education and higher education. That is because, in their previous learning contexts, the discrepancy between the expectations of students and

teachers was not that obvious; teachers regarded what students did or did not value as important by the same token. However, most students feel challenged only at university when they face new understandings of teaching/learning and higher expectations of subject tutors. The majority of student participants' responses indicate that students ascribe their disadvantaged positions at university to their previous learning experiences and educational histories.

Exam/test driven and traditional teaching approaches that are deeply rooted in rote learning are inadequate for preparing students for their further academic studies. As Ballard and Clanchy (1991) put forward, secondary school education adopts a reproductive approach toward teaching and learning. A reproductive approach depends on conserving the conceptual level; the students are expected to ask and answer the question of "what." Learning is based on memorization and imitation, the activities require students to summarize, describe, identify, and apply taught formulas and the ultimate goal is to attain accuracy. Unlike secondary school education, in university education students are to ask and answer the questions of "how" and "why" and learning is based on critical thinking and analysis. The key learning objective is questioning, evaluating, and forming original arguments supported by the synthesis of information from various sources (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991). Given the case, it is moderately unfair to expect students to transit from the reproductive stage to the analytical stage within a very short period of time without any prior training.

The findings indicate that in addition to the education system-dependent factors, the local educational value attached to writing and teachers' approaches toward writing significantly shape how students perceive "writing." These directly or indirectly influence students' writing practices. Al-Badwawi (2011) found that

“students’ discursive practices are influenced by those of their teachers and the attitudes they have towards writing” (p.137). In her analysis of teacher feedback and from her students’ participants responses she concluded that within the same HE institution, English language teachers and subject tutors hold different views on academic writing and have different expectations from students. Al-Badwawi (2011) reported that while English language teachers focus on the use of correct language forms and application of particular organizational patterns in students’ texts, subject tutors are more interested in the content of writing. Al-Badwawi (2011) also found that, in contrast to language teachers, university professors are less concerned with the writing processes of students; they are more interested in the final product, and they take students’ writing competence as granted. Leki and Carson (1997) also reported similar findings as to what is valued in students’ texts in language writing classes (i.e. ESL/EAP) and in subject courses. They concluded that EAP/ESL writing classes restrict students’ linguistic and intellectual growth, and do not sufficiently prepare students for the type of writing they will be doing in academic courses. The reason is that the texts students practice in ESL/EAP courses decontextualize writing from source texts and content. When Brown (1991) investigated how language teachers and subject tutors with different educational backgrounds (i.e. ELT and English literature) rate students’ texts, he found that teachers and subject tutors rate students’ texts with similar scores by focusing on similar aspects of students’ texts. However, Brown (1991) concluded that the evaluations and final decisions of the two groups of teachers emerge from distinct assumptions and conceptualizations about writing.

Since student participants perpetually referred to their secondary school teachers' approaches toward writing and also raised the notion of inconsistency between what they learnt in preparatory school and what is expected of them in undergraduate level subject courses, to draw a complete picture I decided to investigate the issue from teachers' points of view. The teachers I selected serve as exemplars of the teachers the students might have come across throughout their educational timeline.

The succeeding findings are obtained from the interviews I conducted with teacher participants of the study. As explained previously in detail in Chapter 3, semi-structured interviews were conducted with one high school teacher (HST), two preparatory school teachers (PST1 and PST2), and one faculty member (FM). Among the teacher participants, HST and PST1 hold BA degrees in ELT, PST2 holds an MA degree in ELT, and FM holds a PhD degree in English language and literature. It is important to emphasize teacher participants' educational background at this point because the findings suggest teachers' conceptualizations of academic writing and their approaches toward students' writing are highly shaped and governed by the teachers' own familiarity and experiences with academic writing.

Table 21 shows how teachers from different levels of education define the significance of writing as a language skill. All teacher participants consider writing an important skill that students should gain. However, the way they arrive at this decision is relatively different from one another. For instance, PST1 indicated that she became aware of the importance of writing for university students only when she started to teach at preparatory school. HST and the two preparatory school teachers (PST1 and PST2) believe that writing is an effective

means of practicing and reinforcing grammatical structures of the target language. The faculty member (FM), on the other hand, perceives writing as a powerful tool for making and sharing one's own ideas with others. Moreover, PST2 and FM emphasized the importance of writing as it helps one to organize his/her own ideas and knowledge about any given topic. This particular emphasis on organization of ideas probably stems from these two participants' familiarity and personal experience with academic writing conventions.

Table 21. Importance of Writing as a Skill (Teacher Participants).

HST	In high schools, we generally focus on grammar. But the only place where students can use these grammatical structures we teach is actually writing. If a student can write well, then this means that the student has language competence (Excerpt 78).
PST1	When I first started teaching English, I was not aware that writing could be that important. For me, the only important thing was how correctly students were able to use and apply certain mechanics and rules of the language in exercises. However, at university students have to write in English for their coursework and in their exams. So, I have realized that writing is the most important skill to learn for students (Excerpt 79).
PST2	Writing is important for a university student because it means that he/she can transfer his/her ideas and knowledge about a particular topic on paper with good organization, by using appropriate English structures (Excerpt 80).
FM	It is the way to present ideas in an organized manner and one of the best ways maybe. In an academic manner, it is one of the ways to share ideas with other people. And for students to learn how to write is I think a part of the process again to learn to organize their ideas and to learn to present them in any matter (Excerpt 81).

Teacher participants' own definitions of academic writing also revealed that participants' understandings of academic writing are affected by their educational backgrounds and their own experiences with academic writing. As can be seen in Table 22, while HST and PST1 provided uncertain and depersonalized definitions of academic writing, PST2 and FM used more personalized, internalized, and informed expressions to define academic writing.

Table 22. Definition of Academic Writing (Teacher Participants).

HST	Because it is academic, I always think that it is related to university. I guess it is writing by applying all the rules. What I mean by rules is that we should apply all the rules of a particular essay type. For example, comparison and contrast essays have some rules to follow. But what I say here is valid for writing an essay; academic writing also includes writing dissertations and the expectations of university professors; thus it is a broad concept. When we were at university we were being taught some rules, and we were expected to write accordingly. But probably what an academic writes to explain his/her research may be different from that. I think academic writing is a combination of these (Excerpt 82).
PST1	When I was an undergraduate student, none of my professors asked me to answer a question in a particular essay format such as comparison and contrast. But in my academic writing courses, I was taught that an essay should have a thesis statement, topic sentence and a format such as comparison and contrast or cause/effect. So, there is a mismatch here between what is taught and what is applied. So I cannot define academic writing. I think what the books are teaching does not match with what is expected in the faculties (Excerpt 83).
PST2	To define academic writing is too problematic, indeed, because there is no consensus about academic writing, especially when the contents of the textbooks are analyzed. These books always focus on essay formats and label essay types such as comparison and contrast essay, for and against essay and so on. Here we make students write three-paragraph essays, but at another university students write five-paragraph essays. They are all argumentative indeed, but each school approaches to writing in a different way. But for me, academic writing is expressing ideas or discussing a statement - either in an argumentative or informative way- by using all these methods of shaping and developing ideas (Excerpt 84).
FM	It is a little bit torture, masochistic pleasure. Writing for me is a tool to organize my own thinking and also doing research to write helps me focus. Writing is a form of sharing my ideas with other people (Excerpt 85).

HST and PST1's definitions seem to rely on the academic writing knowledge they had gained in their undergraduate studies. As can be seen from participants' responses, this knowledge is composed of learning and the application of certain rules pertaining to particular essay types. PST1 also emphasized the discrepancy she later observed between the taught rules of academic writing – either in academic writing courses or in academic writing textbooks – and what is actually required in the departments. PST2 drew attention to the difficulty of providing a clear-cut definition for academic writing since he observes that academic writing is taught differently in each textbook and in each institution or discipline. Therefore, PST2 came up with his own definition of academic writing, which has possibly been shaped by his own experience in writing and teaching academic writing. FM, on the

other hand, provided a very personalized and internalized definition of academic writing; she neither referred to the textbooks nor to how academic writing is taught or learnt. FM defined academic writing as what it means to a person who is constantly engaged with academic discursive practices.

Teachers' conceptualizations of academic writing highly influence how they approach student writing and what they value and emphasize when they teach writing or evaluate students' written texts. Table 23 demonstrates a range of characteristics that each individual teacher participant associates with good academic writing.

Table 23. Definition of a Well-written Essay (Teacher Participants).

HST	When I ask my ninth graders to write something, I expect them to use certain grammatical structures correctly. With my eleventh graders, I pay attention to thesis statement. Because if a thesis statement has good subtopics, then the content and the organization of the essay are also good. Of course, good examples are necessary along with accurate grammatical structures and good vocabulary usage (Excerpt 86).
PST1	The student should express his/her ideas in a direct way by using good examples. I think the most important thing is coherence in an essay. The ideas should flow smoothly. Of course, there will be grammar mistakes but these should not change the meaning. Generally, I may sound as if I do not pay much attention to the format, but format is important. If I am asking students to write an advantages and disadvantages essay or a comparison and contrast essay, they should be writing accordingly (Excerpt 87).
PST2	A well-written essay requires language awareness. For me, the most important thing is the content. The student should demonstrate well-thought and well-researched ideas. The examples should be relevant to the main idea and they should be presented in a coherent way. The essay should be thought provoking (Excerpt 88).
FM	First of all they have to have a clear idea about what they want to say and find examples and then put them in the best order. Especially when they are arguing something about a piece of literature, several examples may be used in arguing the same point. But some of them would make more effective argument, and would be more explicit in terms of language and imagery, for instance, and they may choose that. I look for a thesis statement to keep them focused because they tend to perform better if they clearly spell it out (Excerpt 89).

For instance, because HST and PST1 prioritize rules, format, and structural accuracy in academic writing, they both emphasized those along with the use of effective

examples, and maintaining unity and coherence in their definitions of a good essay (Excerpts 86 and 87). PST2 and FM, on the other hand, are more interested in the communicative function of the students' writing and therefore more concerned with the quality of argumentation, the content, and the organization of ideas. The findings presented in Table 23 corroborate with what student participants mentioned in their responses and with the previous studies explained earlier in the section.

The abovementioned perceptions of the teacher participants inevitably affect what they expect from student writing and how they evaluate and respond to students' written texts. What teacher participants consider to be problematic in students' writing demonstrate divergence and this consequently influences the form of feedback they provide students for written assignments. HST identifies grammar to be the biggest problem in students' writing since she thinks that students' linguistic competence is not sufficient to produce essays. Other teacher participants (PST1, PST2 and FM), on the other hand, identify a lack of organization of ideas and coherence as the main problems with student writing. The latter group uses almost the same wording as the students. That is to say that the students have ideas but they do not know how to present these ideas in an organized way and that they jump from one idea to another. PST1 and FM both attribute this to problem to the Turkish education system, yet from different angles. Whereas PST1 associates this problem with the local educational and cultural value attached to writing, FM identifies the problem with students' lack of writing practice and lack of train of thought prior to university. Table 24 illustrates these points in a detailed way.

Table 24. Problems with Student Writing (Teacher Participants).

HST	The biggest problem is grammar; they cannot write well because their level of English proficiency is too low (Excerpt 90).
PST1	Students here have too many ideas but these ideas are flying on the paper. It is really hard to follow what they are writing, so coherence is the biggest problem. The second thing is that if I ask them to write a comparison and contrast essay, I expect them to write with these rules and each essay should have a good thesis statement and topic sentence. Writing in English is different from writing in Turkish, so I want to see what I teach on paper. But they cannot even write well in Turkish. It's our education system that's the problem. And we do not write as a nation I think. Students have too many ideas but they just cannot put them together because they do not have enough practice (Excerpt 91).
PST2	What we call coherence does not exist in Turkish, I think. Students present their ideas too randomly, they make over-generalizations and there is no connection between their sentences. They just simply list their ideas. They jump from one idea to another. But because English is linear, their writing style develops and becomes different once they are educated with English rhetoric (Excerpt 92).
FM	I think presenting their ideas in an organized way is their main problem. It's not that they don't have ideas, they do. But they have a tendency to jump from one thing to another. And also they may not choose the best examples to help them illustrate their ideas. They don't practice writing at all until they come to the university level and it is a skill that needs practice, I think. The type of writing they do in their English classes is generally based on cliché examples where they can just easily draw those examples in platitudes whereas in the literature department we expect them to read a text and ask questions about a text and look at it critically. Critical thinking is the thing they lack. Analysis and criticism are important here; I mean to have a statement about an issue. They generally describe an issue or a topic but they don't make a statement about it. They don't make a critical statement about it and that seems to be what we, most of my colleagues, expect in the study of literature (Excerpt 93).

As can be seen in Excerpt 93 from Table 24, FM also draws attention to the aforementioned discrepancy between the quality of the texts the students produce in English classes and in their undergraduate studies. Similar to the findings proposed by Leki and Carson (1997), FM thinks because students learn to write in templates, the writing knowledge that students gain in their English classes does not adequately equip them with the essential critical thinking skills that are required at university level.

The four teacher participants are representative of teachers that many of the student participants have met during their past learning experiences. Teacher participants' responses verified how the student participants of the study described

their own teachers' approaches toward academic writing. As can be inferred from the findings, not only do teachers from different levels of education have different opinions about academic writing, but even the two teachers (PST1 and PST2) teaching at the same institution, working towards presumably the same learning outcomes, hold diverse views. These are important points to consider as educational factors because throughout their educational timeline students learn from and are assessed by different groups of teachers whose attitudes to epistemologies of learning and writing differ from one another.

As the findings reveal, faculty members' understanding of academic writing and their expectations from students in this regard might be at an analytical and speculative level as they constantly engage with academic writing to maintain their identities and positions. However, unless ESL/EFL teachers pursue postgraduate studies, they may lack the practice of extended academic writing, and therefore they might continue to perceive academic writing at a reproductive level. Casanave (2004) and Yigitoglu and Belcher (2014) assert that foreign language teachers' beliefs and practices of teaching L2 writing can highly be influenced and shaped by their own experiences as L1 and L2 writers. Teachers' examined or unexamined conceptualizations of writing and attitudes toward students' written work may exert an influence on university students' writing practices. Therefore, when students move from one educational context to another, they may find themselves in a position of trying to understand newer epistemologies and adjust their writing styles promptly and as fast as possible.

All in all, local educational values attached to writing in a particular setting, the amount and nature of L1 and L2 writing instruction and experience, and different approaches and methodologies employed by teachers with regards to

academic writing influence the quality of texts students produce and students' academic writing practices at university. As this section demonstrated, university students have varying past learning experiences and converging and diverging writing experiences. At university, the classes are composed of heterogeneous groups of students. That is, students come from different schooling systems, have teachers with varied approaches to language teaching and L1/L2 writing, and have diverse writing experiences and a non-identical amount and quality of general knowledge. In addition, even if students are required to pass a proficiency exam before they start their undergraduate programs, standardization or uniformity may not be observed in their L2 language proficiencies. Moreover, some students study at one-year preparatory school and get used to the institutional context whereas others come directly from secondary school. In short, students arrive at universities with their baggage loaded with established identities, diverse sociocultural and socioeconomic backgrounds, personal histories, past learning and schooling experiences, and individual learning/writing styles and strategies.

This section explained and discussed how Turkish students' previous educational background and L1 and L2 writing experiences exert an influence on their prospective academic writing practices at university. The next section will discuss the contextual factors that influence Turkish university students' academic writing practices when they embark on their undergraduate studies.

4.3 Contextual factors influencing students' academic writing practices

In the previous section, I presented and discussed the findings associated with educational factors influencing student participants' academic writing practices. I aimed to show and illustrate to what extent student participants' past learning histories and previous L1 and L2 writing experiences had prepared them for what they were expected to accomplish as to academic writing at university. I also explained and discussed in what ways previous writing instruction and experience shaped student participants' general attitudes toward writing and their existing perceptions about academic writing.

This section will focus on contextual factors – i.e. institutional culture and discipline specific requirements – that shape and regulate student participants' academic writing practices. I will present and discuss findings that explain and illustrate what student participants have encountered upon starting an undergraduate program, how they have conceptualized academic writing, and what sort of awareness they have developed based on the experiences they gained from their academic writing practices. Before I start to present and discuss the findings, I should note that while a consensus was observed in almost all student participants' perceptions about educational factors, two cases of student participants displayed both converging and diverging perceptions, opinions and attitudes toward contextual factors.

4.3.1 Students' perceptions about academic writing

4.3.1.1 Freshman year participants

Freshman year student participants are observed to conceptualize academic writing by establishing a connection between English (L2) writing and academic writing. They consider English (L2) writing and academic writing to be one and the same. That is because participants genuinely started to write in English (L2) only when they learnt how to write academically. Moreover, because student participants think they have started to "learn to write" for the first time in their L2, they take L2 writing as the starting point and compose their own definitions of academic writing by drawing comparisons between L1 and L2 writing. Participants acknowledge that both L1 and L2 texts require similar organizational structures –i.e. an introduction, body, and conclusion. Most freshman year student participants defined L2 writing and academic writing as being systematic, rule-bound, objective and rational. In contrast to L2/academic writing, L1 writing was described as being unsystematic, independent of rules, subjective, and more expressive and emotional in nature. Participants think that the aforementioned characteristics of L2/academic writing enable them to be more aware of how and what they should be writing about in certain parts of the texts. On the other hand, some other student participants regarded the systematic and rule-bound nature of L2/academic writing to be a restrictive factor for fluency in writing.

Freshman year participants asserted that they felt much freer in L1 writing since they could simply transfer their ideas on paper without being concerned about organization of ideas or any rules to conform to. At the same time, they

acknowledged that their Turkish (L1) writing experience required minimal intellectual engagement (Excerpt 94). However, from freshman year participants' responses, it can be inferred that although they sometimes find the rule-bound nature of academic English (L2) writing to be restrictive to the flow of their ideas (Excerpt 95), they concede that they truly learnt "how to write" in English, and the rules to which they should adhere are actually helping them make informed decisions about what to write, how to write and how to organize their ideas (Excerpts 94 and 96).

> FS12: I learned about essay writing better when we did it in English. We didn't write compositions in Turkish that often. The teachers got us to write compositions for minimum grades, but we did it sticking to certain patterns; we didn't write about different topics. It was just introduction-body-conclusion, and the topics tended to stay the same. We didn't do any writing that required much thinking (Excerpt 94).
>
> FS10: Technically, we still have to follow the introduction-body-conclusion principle, but thinking in English is quite different from what we did before. What I found difficult about writing in English is that I wasn't making use of the techniques. When I have to write it in Turkish, it just flows. But I have to link my sentences when I have to do it in English (Excerpt 95).
>
> FS5: When I am writing in English, my argument is easier to flow. That is, I know what I am going to write about, for instance in the introduction, I know what I'm going to write. That way I can pay extra attention to what I write. But you don't have that it Turkish, and I think nobody pays any attention to what they write when they are doing it in Turkish. We need to focus more on coherence and unity [in English] (Excerpt 96).

At this point, participants also demonstrated initial awareness about the 'writer-responsible' characteristics of L2/academic as the excerpts 97 and 98 illustrate.

> FS11: When I write in Turkish, I can use metaphors or other impressive figures of speech, but to be able to do that in English, you have to be really good. When I'm writing in English, the only thing I care about is this: is my point clear enough? Am I successfully conveying it to the reader? (Excerpt 97).
>
> FS8: When you write in Turkish, you sort of pour out whatever you have inside you. But when you write in English, you constantly have to consult to a dictionary to see if your meaning got across (Excerpt 98).

Moreover, freshman year student participants emphasized another distinction between L1 and L2/academic writing, indicating that L1 writing is based more on emotional appeal whereas L2/academic writing is constructed with a combination of emotional and rational appeals. Excerpts 99, 100 and 101 illustrate these points.

> FS9: When writing in Turkish, you sort of repeat yourself, and the only thing that matters is the introduction-body-conclusion principle. But it is different when it comes to English, your writing needs to be more fluent, you shouldn't repeat yourself. Therefore writing in Turkish and writing in English is very different from each other. I think we, the Turks, are very emotional and most of the time we tend to write on emotional topics; we love making emphasis through repetition. You still have emotions in English, but it relies more on logic (Excerpt 99).
>
> FS12: When we write in Turkish, we aim for the feelings of the reader. We would write things that would appeal to the teachers or their emotions. When it comes to English, it is more formal and I think that we need to frame our thoughts in a logical way. I believe that what you write depends on which language you are writing in (Excerpt 100).
>
> FS3: When we think in Turkish, every sentence we come up with is full of sentimentality. We tend to get sentimental. But thinking in English activates another part of the brain, so you need to be more rational. So first we write about the symptoms, then talk about the impressions they leave on us (Excerpt 101).

Freshman year student participants seem to have developed overall awareness about the characteristics of academic writing in English as defined by Hyland (2007) in Chapter 2. However, because they describe how they perceive academic writing along with their L2 writing knowledge and against their L1 writing knowledge, they are apparently in a transitional stage. In this transitional stage, students endeavor to accommodate their existing repertoires of writing knowledge to the required new way of writing while at the same time trying to make sense of the new writing situation.

When freshman year participants were asked to describe their initial experiences with academic writing, they pointed out some difficulties they encountered in text generating. Most student participants experienced writing an

essay – in which they had to develop an argument and support this argument by showing relevant evidence of information synthesized from different sources – for the first time at university. Thus, they indicated that this first-time writing experience caused different levels of anxiety due to lack of previous writing practice.

> FS4: I panicked a lot at first. Even my mother knows I panicked too much. Because I wanted to be good, I worked very hard; I studied hard till three in the morning. I did my research. When writing an essay, should I rely on secondary resources, or use examples? If so, what sort of examples, will they be relevant to my topic.... I had my doubts about all these things. I panicked a lot for fear that I was going to fail (Excerpt 102).

> FS2: I still have difficulties because of lack of practice. I don't think I improved myself as much as I should have done since the first year, but still I can feel a difference. But I just can't do it when I am asked to write about something all of a sudden. That really frightens me. If I were asked to write something the day before the exam, then I would write more easily. This is all about practice (Excerpt 103).

> FS9: But especially in writing classes, I am learning some of the things for the first time, because I started from scratch, and I am learning through my mistakes. At first I was very scared, because I knew nothing. But I am getting accustomed to it. For instance, at first I was thinking in Turkish when I was writing, but it is a bit different now (Excerpt 104).

The first area of difficulty in text generating arises when students are asked to choose a topic among the list of topics provided by their lecturers. Students asserted that they had difficulty in narrowing down a broad topic to a specific argument. The degree of familiarity with the topic is considered to be another challenge by student participants. Generating ideas on the selected topic was another factor causing anxiety in students. One student participant (FS11) related her difficulty with generating ideas on a given topic to her lack of general knowledge, as she believed general knowledge to be requisite for a successful essay.

> FS11: But I find it difficult to write essays. Because, first of all, you need to be well-cultured, you need to look at things and evaluate them from a wide perspective. If you don't know enough, what are you going to write? It is that point that I usually stop and feel anxious. I have to research things, because I don't know about them myself. That is what I find difficult. I am not that knowledgeable (Excerpt 105).

The next area of difficulty for students starts during the planning stage of essay writing. Some participants found making an outline extremely complicated and confusing. They asserted that making preliminary decisions about the organization of the information and examples they gathered in relation to their topics was a very daunting task.

> FS7: I found it very difficult to make an outline, because that would mean I had to eliminate. I had a lot on my mind, and it was difficult having to decide where to put this and that, which quotation to use where.... Because then you just can't let it flow. It was difficult writing by the rules, organizing things beforehand (Excerpt 106).

As for the parts of an essay, most student participants found writing the introduction paragraph and the thesis statement the most difficult.

> FS12: When I'm picking an essay topic, I try to choose something that I know and then I love it even more. And I always take notes. Conclusion is the easiest part, but I get stuck in the introduction and what I am going to talk about in the essay. It's hard writing the thesis statement. I always ask myself, will I be asked "so what?" (Excerpt 107).

While writing the body paragraphs of their essays, participants indicated that they sometimes “felt lost,” especially when they were trying to present their ideas without digressing from their main argument.

> FS2: Perhaps the hardest part is deciding on a topic. When you first have a look at it, you feel close to each of the topics, but after choosing one, it gets difficult to narrow it down and wrap it up. When you get to the next stage, it is hard to link your ideas together and go general-to-specific. It is hard maintaining an order in your writing; and going into the details without getting confused. To be honest, I felt a bit lost. I think, if I did free writing, I would be less bored, but still be just as bored, I guess (Excerpt 108).

Student participants also asserted that their text generating practices were highly affected by the “rule-bound nature of essay” writing. By “rule-bound nature of essay” writing they refer to the particular structure they must follow while constructing their essays: an essay should have an argumentative thesis statement,

each body paragraph should start with a topic sentence, ideas should be presented with an effective organization, sources should be credited in MLA style, and unity and coherence should be maintained throughout their essays. Most student participants indicated that although they were able to generate lots of ideas about their topics, they had great difficulty in reflecting those ideas on paper as they felt themselves "being restricted" by the above-mentioned rules of essay writing.

> FS2: Essay writing is a bit like playing chess because you need to have designed your fifth paragraph when you are writing the first one. I think this is a bit tiring. Essay writing is all about rules and when you try following those, the outcome is not that good (Excerpt 109).

> FS10: I actually want to write essays so much, to write a good piece. Producing your own ideas and linking them together would be a perfect thing to do, but I had difficulty in the first term. I didn't think of it from this perspective. I would write, but just write head-on. I had real difficulty when I tried to apply some technique to it. Like I said, I have so many ideas, and here we learn how to organize them through a technique. If I can succeed doing it, I believe I can write more. But since I find it hard to use a technique, I can't quite convey my ideas either. When I can manage to do this, my essay will have a good technique and I will be able to convey my ideas thoroughly (Excerpt 110).

The use of the academic register was regarded as another factor restricting students' flexibility and fluency in communicating and conveying their ideas and intended meanings on paper.

> FS6: The hardest part for me is finding the right words. There may be more than one word that means the same thing, but the important thing is using the appropriate one in your sentence (Excerpt 111).

> FS2: I think my major shortcoming right now is vocabulary. Normally, my strongest point was vocabulary, but right now I am finding it difficult to come up with a specific term. I think I am a bit lacking in that regard and I also need to improve my grammar (Excerpt 112).

In addition to the difficulty student participants experienced with the academic register, some student participants (FS10; FS7; FS11; FS2) underlined that translating from L1 to L2 was one of their weaknesses and drawbacks in text

generating and communication of their ideas. Finally, freshman year students indicated that because the deadlines and limited time allocated for the submission of assignments made them feel “under pressure,” the time constraints impeded their best potential writing from coming out.

> FS8: I feel under pressure. Why? Because you have to do your best in a certain amount of time, and you can't manage that (Excerpt 113).
>
> FS6: When we have to submit an assignment within a certain time, usually everything gets pretty busy and then I can't write the way I want to (Excerpt 114).

Hitherto, the findings reveal that freshman year participants’ academic writing practices are influenced by how they conceptualize academic writing, and the challenges they encounter in text generating.

Freshman year student participants’ perceptions about academic writing and their academic writing practices are also shaped by their attitudes toward different text genres required in the disciplinary context. In ELL, students are generally expected to write argumentative and definition essays (either as coursework or in exams), reviews (e.g. plot reviews and film reviews), reflection essays, response/reaction papers, and research papers (e.g. coursework or graduation projects). Since students are observed to lack a certain degree of writing knowledge and practice, in their first two years of university education, ELL students are offered three different academic writing courses (Advanced Reading and Writing, Written Communication of Ideas, and Academic Research and Writing) as mentioned in the previous chapter. These writing courses equip ELL students with necessary writing knowledge and practice along with disciplinary-specific research skills and documentation guidelines to prepare them for other departmental courses. In their first year of education, students generally practice writing response/reaction papers,

reviews and essays. In the fall term of their first year, in the Advanced Reading and Writing Course, they start learning and practicing two essential academic writing skills (summarizing and paraphrasing) for writing response/reaction papers. In the following term, in Written Communication Ideas, students learn to write essays in MLA format. They write their first argumentative essays and they also practice writing film reviews and short stories. Students start to write longer research papers beginning their sophomore year. All in all, in the first year of university education, ELL students gain a certain amount of academic writing experience and develop awareness about distinctive characteristics of the text genres required by their department.

When freshman year student participants were asked to order and rank the text genres they enjoyed writing most, they showed significant divergence of opinion about writing essays and writing response papers. Interestingly, student participants who prefer writing response papers find essay writing very difficult and even unnerving, and those who enjoy writing essays do not usually like writing response papers. For instance, one student participant (FS9) explained her preference for response papers over essay writing as follows: "A response paper is something that fosters your critical thinking because you read an article and deeply think about it before you write a response paper, and I think once you get used to doing that you start looking at everything from a critical point and that is exactly what we need to do in our other courses"(Excerpt 115). Some other student participants also prefer writing response papers because response paper writing provides them with a text model, ideas and information that stimulate thinking and interpretation, in contrast to essay writing where they have to generate ideas on their own.

> FS9: Response papers might be the most entertaining ones. You have something in front of you, and you write something as a response to that. You don't need to think whether you did the right thing or not, you just write down what you think of it. But for me, the hardest thing is writing an essay, because you need to produce your own ideas. We didn't write many essays before, therefore I don't have many ideas about the topics and so I find it difficult doing it (Excerpt 116).

> FS11: When we are writing an essay in its own right, we need to come up with everything on our own - how we will start the topic, how we will support our argument. I think it is easier when we are writing a response paper and have something tangible in front of us (Excerpt 117).

Some other student participants (FS12; FAS3; FAS10; FS12) prefer writing reviews and reflection essays to essay writing due to the same reasons above. They find essay writing to be more "serious task" as they have to conform to the rules of academic writing and present their own arguments along with synthesizing information from various other sources. However, in writing reviews or reflection essays, participants are observed to consider only themselves as the source of information, and thus they feel freer, more independent and more valued in presenting their own ideas.

> FS12: I love writing reviews, because they require more of your commentary. Yes, you still need to tell a bit about the plot or give other information, but your opinions are more important. The teacher values them more; it becomes more important what you've understood, what you've felt about what you read, whether you've felt the right thing or not. Apart from that, I love writing response papers, and then writing essays. When you're writing a response paper, you have a topic ready at hand, that way it is easier to write, plus departing from the topic I can develop my own ideas (Excerpt 118).

> FS3: Actually, plot reviews are easier because you don't have to design your writing beforehand. The plot is there, characters are there, and the theme is there: you just need to write about them from your point of view. But when you're writing an essay, you need to come up with your own ideas. My top three is like this: plot review, response paper, and then essay (Excerpt 119).

> FS10: Writing an essay looks like a bit more serious thing to do. When you are writing an essay, you need to write your own ideas. You have to find your own examples (Excerpt 120).

> FS12: Essays feel more academic; it is like it is all about proving a point. But if it is a review, then your own ideas are more important. I think this is the difference (Excerpt 121).

Student participants who enjoy writing essays in contrast to writing response papers put forward two major reasoning for their preferences. The first reason stems of from the fact that some student participants did not completely understand what they were expected to do to write a response paper as Excerpt 122 illustrates.

> FS10: For me, response papers come last. I find it difficult writing a response paper. I don't exactly get how I am supposed to write it properly. I think for me writing plot reviews comes first, and then essays, and lastly response papers (Excerpt 122).

The second reason is rooted in the structure and organization of the response paper. In order to write a response paper, students initially should read an article and develop a thorough understanding of the author's main arguments. Then, they should form their own argument in relation to that of the author and decide to what extent they agree or disagree with the author. While writing their response papers, students skillfully need to summarize and paraphrase the essential points of the author's ideas, and demonstrate valid reasoning for why they agree or disagree with the author. That is the critical point that many student participants are concerned about. Some participants indicated that they had difficulties in understanding and interpreting the author's ideas, as they were not familiar with the topic being discussed in the article. Some others had difficulties because they could not come up with any newer ideas or comments that they could add to those of the author.

> FS5: I have fun when I research for examples for an essay. Response papers are difficult, because I have to have an argument and then support it. I find it difficult to answer when I'm asked "why?" Other than that, if the topic suits me, then it is easy enough to support my arguments. As for response papers, you need to write basing your arguments on the text and support them. A response paper is a bit more difficult, because I think it is difficult to understand and interpret what the author thinks (Excerpt 123).

In addition to these two aforementioned reasons, this group of freshman year participants prefer writing essays to response papers because they think writing essays is easier as they feel more flexible in developing and shaping their own ideas.

As these excerpts above illustrate the text genres that are specific to the discipline of language and literature studies shape and influence freshman year university students' initial writing practices.

4.3.1.2 Senior year participants

While freshman year student participants' conceptualizations of academic writing were mostly based on the general comparisons they made between L1 and L2 writing, senior year student participants provided more clear-cut definitions in explaining their understandings of academic writing. One student participant (SS2) defined academic writing as follows: "In academic writing you need to conform to the rules, and you need to keep away from cliché ideas or examples; you need to support your arguments with specific and well-organized evidence. In successful academic writing, if forty percent pertains to one's writing skills, sixty percent goes to applying the techniques" (Excerpt 124). However, similar to freshman year students, senior year participants also provided responses indicating that L2 is the language in which they learnt "how to write." Thus, from senior year participants' responses, it is inferred that they conceptualize the rules of academic writing as the norm to be able to "write well" and produce "acceptable texts in English." This conceptualization very likely stems from three reasons: a limited amount of previous L1 and L2 writing instruction, an inadequate amount of L1 and L2 writing practice

prior to university, and receiving systematic writing instruction and practicing writing for the first time in L2 and in an academic context.

Senior year participants' responses to the interview question probing their views on L1 and L2 writing illustrate the points mentioned above. Two student participants (SS6; SS3) asserted that they find English (L2) language and L2 writing "more serious" in comparison to Turkish (L1) language and L1 writing. The reason is that while they are writing in L2, they at all times find themselves in need of controlling their use of language, choice of vocabulary and coherence of their sentences to be able to successfully communicate their intended meanings. SS6 pointed out the "reluctant" attitude she developed toward L2 writing as a consequence of this constant control mechanism of surface structures. SS3 even indicated that she feels as if she takes on a "new identity" – a ruminating position – when writing in L2. These two participants, on the contrary, consider L1 writing as a more "light-hearted" task as they feel themselves very much at ease in conveying their intended meanings. Two other participants (SS1; SS7) indicated that even though they think they can write well in English, they feel more "self-confident" about L1 writing since Turkish is their native language. Moreover, as Excerpt 125 illustrates, although SS7 acknowledges that similar organizational patterns pertain both to L1 and L2 writing – such as the parts of an essay, and unity and coherence – she thinks that one can easily be liberated from the rules in L1 writing whereas in L2 writing one should strictly follow the rules.

> SS7: Of course there is a resemblance. Both have the introduction-body-conclusion principle; the sentences should be in harmony with each other. As for the differences, take a thesis statement for instance. When you write in Turkish, you don't usually have a concern about that. It is as if when we started writing in English that we saw that the most important thing about an essay is the thesis statement. We didn't have to worry about that when writing in Turkish. It is like when writing in English, you need to follow the rules, and you can ignore them when it comes to writing in Turkish (Excerpt 125).

Finally, SS1 saying that, “writing in English is taught to us in a systematic way so you cannot break the rules. I try to apply the same rules while I am writing in Turkish, too” (Excerpt 126) also confirms the above-mentioned inference that students consider L2/ academic writing as the norm for “writing” in general.

Senior year student participants did not mention any difficulties in relation to text generating. Yet senior year participants held varying opinions about the text genres they had produced during their four years of undergraduate study. Since they have gained a substantial amount of academic writing experience, they presented well-informed opinions about the requirements of text genres and their own preferences. Some student participants (SS3; SS4; SS2) find essay/research paper writing to be more restrictive in comparison to other text genres (e.g. response papers, reflection papers and short stories) as they have to adhere to particular techniques and rules of academic writing such as word length, MLA format, organizational patterns, synthesizing information from primary and secondary sources and so on. The participants indicated that they enjoyed writing short stories and reflection papers because then they were able to liberate themselves from the conventions of academic writing and felt more unobstructed in presenting their own opinions and reflections.

> SS3: I don't like writing essays at all. I think this is because it is obligatory to write. I guess I like areas where I can make use of my creativity. I have fun when writing a story. But when I am writing an essay, I get bored thinking how long I should write, where to use a certain quotation, and so on. … I push myself very hard when I'm writing an essay, because it needs to be academic, you need to follow the rules. Things like short stories are easier (Excerpts 127).

> SS4: Actually I had real fun when writing a short story. As for others, especially essays, you need to stick to the rules. Of course, [in essays] we also put forward our own ideas and feelings and then support them; they also come from within us, but when you have to follow the rules, then it might get a bit boring. But you are free when it is a short story; it comes both from your brain and heart. That is why I felt very at home writing a short story (Excerpt 128).

> SS2: Short stories and response papers. You can write however you like if you're writing a short story, it is your world. A response paper doesn't require that much research either; you have a text in front of you and you just express your own ideas and opinions on it. It is your own feelings again, you are able to express yourself better. As I am writing about my opinions, I feel more comfortable with these two. When you're writing an essay or a research paper, you need to be more dedicated. You need to pay extra attention to the technical stuff. What we could write about is limited. We can't express our opinions that easily. This is because of the technique of essay writing (Excerpt 129).

In contrast to these views mentioned above, one student participant [SS1] found writing essays much easier, saying that "in essays we develop our own arguments and we support this argument by benefiting from different sources, but one needs to have creativity and imagination to be able to write short stories, and it is not very easy" (Excerpt 130).

Senior year student participants' attitudes toward writing response papers show similarity to those of freshman year student participants. Some senior year student participants have developed a reluctant attitude as they were very frequently asked to write response papers in a variety of their courses. Because the articles they are responding to are scholarly papers and mainly about literary theory or literary works, participants indicated that they had difficulty developing further arguments onto what the authors had already mentioned in their articles. In explaining why they agree or disagree with the main argument of the article, students are observed to lack self-confidence as they find their own ideas and reasoning more simplistic and unimportant than that of the author.

> SS4: For instance, we read an article written by Freud and we write a response paper on it. I give a summary saying Freud talks about this and that. But then I don't feel like I am putting my own ideas on it that much. His argument is this, and I agree with that, what else I can say? To be honest, I don't view it as something that can reflect my own ideas (Excerpt 131).

> SS6: I like organizing my thoughts when I am writing something, but I hate writing response papers. Maybe it is because we get too many response paper assignments. Yes, first we give a summary, and then we state whether we agree with the argument in the article or not, but I don't like writing it. Because as we have to give examples from our personal life, or daily events to show why we agree or not, I find it very difficult finding the right examples. Yes, I agree with the author, s/he says it well, but I get bored when I try to find a way to support it (Excerpt 132).

> SS5: I don't like writing response papers that much. We do that a lot this year; we get lots of assignments. Most of the time I am bored doing them (Excerpt 133).

Some other student participants, however, prefer response papers to other text genres because they find the assigned articles interesting and thought- provoking. Moreover, because response papers are assigned in shorter word-lengths and provide students with ready material to comment on, some participants regard writing response papers as an easier task. Excerpts 134 and 135 represent those views of student participants:

> SS3: Lately we've been writing response papers. Maybe it is on account of the teacher, but I love writing that sort of thing. The texts the teacher assigns us are usually the sort that would broaden my perspective. I find reading them very enjoyable and I like writing commentary on them (Excerpt 134).

> SS7: We've come a long way in writing response papers. Now we can present really good ideas. Also, response papers are easier to write than others; you have something to write on, after all. You can come up with ideas from something that is already there. Plus, they tend to be shorter (Excerpt 135).

From senior year student participants' responses, it is inferred that students enjoy writing most when they are allowed to choose their own topics depending on their area of interest. Most student participants asserted that they enjoy doing research and writing more if they identify topics of their research papers on their own. Moreover, "developing interest in the course contents" and "liking the lecturer" were also considered to be triggering factors of better motivation for writing.

> SS6: When I actually love the subject, I write better, and I also love researching it. It is important to love the topic, otherwise I can't write about a topic that I don't like (Excerpt 136).

> SS5: The course and the syllabus are also important when it comes to writing. For instance, English and Global culture is a good and relaxed course; the topics are very contemporary. We also do writing in our Shakespeare course, but it is out of obligation, therefore not very enjoyable. I just find the resources and write. I need to love the course to be able to write (Excerpt 137).

> SS4: I prefer research papers because we get to choose what topic to write on. This could be a poem, or a book, or we could find ourselves another topic. We are free in terms of our analyses and arguments. For instance, I wrote on *1984*. I analyzed the Newspeak in that novel, but I was free to shape my own argument. What is the purpose of writing a research paper, anyway? To propose something which hasn't been thought of or written before. A research paper is more like your own piece of work. I find it more appealing (Excerpt 138).

> SS7: I felt very happy when I wrote my research paper on *Hamlet*. When you write on subjects that actually interest you and you love, you write significantly better (Excerpt 139).

For the reasons mentioned above, among seven senior year participants, four students rated research paper writing as the text genre they enjoyed writing most.

To conclude, student participants' conceptualization of academic writing and attitudes toward assigned text genres influence their academic writing practices. Table 25 summarizes how these two disciplinary-specific writing factors influence student academic writing practices. One of the important findings pertaining to participants' perceptions about academic writing is that freshman and senior year participants' general conceptualizations of writing are grounded not in their L1 writing knowledge but in their repertoires of L2 writing and academic writing knowledge. The reason is that students received systematic and explicit writing instruction for the first time and only in English (L2) in the context of university. This finding correlates with what Kobayashi and Rinnert (2012) put forward about the acquisition of writing knowledge. Kobayashi and Rinnert (2012) emphasize that any formation of knowledge is closely associated with its source; therefore, if writing knowledge "is associated with one language" it must be the "one in which they [learners] had received the most input about writing and more writing experience predominated" (p. 126).

Moreover, both freshman and senior year participants view L2/academic writing to be “more restrictive” due to its rule-bound nature in comparison to L1 writing, which they think is closer to free writing. Most participants asserted that they could write more easily and comfortably in L1 since L1 writing is independent of any rules. Participants also asserted that they had difficulties in text generating even if they had ideas about the topic of the assignment because in L2/academic writing they had to constantly check whether they adhered to the rules, used the academic register, constructed accurate sentences, and maintained unity and coherence at paragraph and essay levels. As a matter of fact, the way participants view L1 and L2 writing differently does not stem from the inherent characteristics of the respective languages. Rather, systematic L2 writing instruction they had received makes them arrive at these assumptions.

Additionally, students’ attitudes toward text genres influence their motivations to write to a great extent. Both freshman year and senior year participants hold similar attitudes toward text genres that are commonly assigned in ELL - i.e. argumentative essays, reflection papers, reviews, response/reaction papers, and research papers. However, being more experienced in academic writing, senior year students demonstrated more informed preferences about text genres. Some student participants preferred text genres other than essays and research papers because these text genres allowed them more flexibility in asserting their own ideas and viewpoints without consulting any other sources. A marked distinction was observed between participants’ preferences of essays vs. response/reaction papers. Some participants said they enjoyed writing response/reaction papers more because the articles were already providing them with an ample amount of information that they could interpret and comment on, and thus they did not have to consult any

secondary sources to generate opinions. Some student participants find response paper writing to be a difficult task as it requires the writer to elaborate on the original ideas of the author. These participants found essay writing much easier instead because essays allow writers to formulate and shape their own ideas.

Table 25. Disciplinary-specific Writing Requirements Influencing Students' Academic Writing Practices.

Conceptualization of Academic Writing (Freshman and Senior Year Participants)	• Academic writing as the norm "to write well." • Rule-bound nature of academic writing; both an obstacle and an aid to filter, organize, and reflect ideas.
Difficulties Related to Text Generating (Freshman Year Participants)	• Selection of topic; degree of familiarity with the topic. • Planning stage; choosing the best examples, ideas and quotes to support an argument. • Writing introduction paragraph and conceiving a thesis statement. • Writing stage; organization of ideas, maintaining unity and coherence. • Adhering to academic writing conventions. • Using the academic register. • Translating from L1 to L2. • Deadlines, time constraints.
Attitudes toward Text Genres (Freshman and Senior Year Participants)	• Essay: allows one to discuss opinions about a particular topic, yet difficult because one needs to generate one's own ideas and restrictive because one needs to adhere to the rules of writing. • Response Paper: less demanding as it provides one with ready ideas to comment on, useful as it stimulates critical thinking, yet can be strenuous to interpret and write about, as it requires personal commentary. • Review: less demanding; only requires personal reflection. • Research Paper: difficult as it requires research, extensive amount of reading, and adherence to writing rules, yet rewarding and enjoyable as it allows one to write about one's research interests. • Short story: enjoyable; allows one to use creativity and imagination.

Moreover, in terms of text generating, participants indicated that they feel more self-confident and enjoy the process of writing more if they are familiar with or interested in the topic. This is particularly true for senior year students when they produce research papers. Most senior year students asserted that they enjoyed writing

research papers most because they were able to choose their own topics. However, freshman year participants felt frustrated when they were asked to identify their own topics. In contrast to senior year participants, freshman year students were not much concerned with their interests; they preferred choosing the most familiar one among a list of assigned topics. For freshman year students, the degree of familiarity with the topic is more important. Al-Badwawi (2011) also found that for freshman year students, "content knowledge or knowledge of what to write facilitates generating ideas and planning the organization of these ideas in a coherent manner; thus making the general writing process easier for students" (p.168). Therefore, it can be inferred that freshman year students are thinking in more practical terms in contrast to senior year students who more appreciate and enjoy the writing process.

4.3.2 Students' perceptions about the institutional culture and context

Freshman year and senior year participants hold similar yet distinct views about the disciplinary-specific contextual factors that exert influence on their academic writing practices. Disciplinary-specific learning and writing requirements, how faculty members conceptualize academic writing, and what they expect from the students all influence academic writing practices of both groups of participants. Perceptions of the two groups of participants diverge on the points of the time they have spent in the context of the study and the amount of academic writing practice and experience they have gained. Freshman year student participants experience some identity-related challenges during their acculturation processes from secondary school to tertiary level education. This transition period exerts great influence over freshman

year participants' initial academic writing practices as it creates anxiety and frustration. On the other hand, senior year participants' academic writing practices are regulated by the strategies and approaches that they have developed over time in the context of study.

4.3.2.1 Freshman year participants

As mentioned previously in the literature review chapter, students' transition to university from secondary school requires not only accommodation to new understandings of learning and writing, but also entails social, personal and emotional adjustments at discrete levels. Interviews with freshman year student participants revealed important details about their initial feelings on embarking on the university level. Most freshman year participants described their initial experiences with the new learning context (university) as being "shocking," "disappointing," "confusing," and leading to "loss of self-esteem" and a "sense of being lost." They all highlighted that high school and university are two worlds that are completely different from one other.

The first difference freshman year student participants pointed out between high school and university was that university is a "student-responsible" context (Harklau, 2001). While in high school students are always assisted and monitored by their teachers, at university students have to take responsibility for themselves, from registration to following the courses. Moreover, at university, students are responsible for regulating their own learning processes. However, at the initial phase, freshman year student participants considered these to be too much responsibility on an individual basis. Some student participants considered adapting themselves to this

self-regulated learning experience as a great challenge. One student participant [FS7] illustrated this challenge by saying “prep school was just like high school; teachers would tell you what to do. But university is very different; you need to run after people all the time and you need to follow your courses on your own. Actually, studying at university requires much more responsibility” (Excerpt 140). As Excerpt 141 illustrates, due to unfamiliarity with the requirements of the new learning context, most freshman year student participants initially developed a “sense of being lost” as they did not know what to do, where to go, and how to meet the standards and demands of the new learning context.

> FS9: The pressure is all about the school. The first year, you're just out of high school and new to the university; and high school and university are very different from one other. I am here in a strange environment, I don't know how I should act, how I should study for the exams. Before this term [spring term], I was just running around, but now I know which way to go (Excerpt 141).

Moreover, some student participants indicated that they had experienced “loss of self- confidence” due to the heterogeneous structure of the classes as mentioned earlier in the chapter. That is, unlike the homogeneous structure of high schools where most students come from similar backgrounds, university classes are composed of students with different schooling experiences, socio-economic/cultural backgrounds, general knowledge and varying levels of English proficiency and writing experience. Thus, while some students can effortlessly overcome the transition period, other students may face some challenges in accommodating their previous schooling experience and learning styles to the new context. In such cases, some student participants indicated that they felt their individual selves, their background knowledge and experience as being “insufficient” for the new learning

context. Loss of self-confidence eventually led to anxiety at initial phases of the first-year university education.

> FS11: I am not well-cultured, not at all. In the Popular Culture class, I feel like a loser, I feel very upset. You show us an image, and everybody seems to know about it, only I don't have any idea what it is. Some of the people here know English better than I do, because they went to private schools. I feel very bad sometimes because your foundation is important, whether it is grammar or vocabulary. I have no foundation, and I thought to myself, I must be empty-headed. I had zero confidence, but now, this term I see that English isn't that difficult as I thought it was (Excerpts 142).

> FS9: University is a strange place; it's not like high school. High school is more ordinary, everybody more or less thinks the same way. But at university, those who think the same way get eliminated (Excerpt 143).

Some other student participants, by extension, had serious difficulties following the English-medium undergraduate courses. However, this apparently does not stem from any deficiencies in language proficiency or linguistic skills but rather from their lack of note-taking skills. As most students are used to being dictated their course notes by their teachers at high school, they were relatively shocked to find out about the new “lecturing” system as the Excerpt 144 illustrates.

> FS11: It is different here. It is difficult to take notes and catch the important things that the teachers are emphasizing. Nobody dictates the notes to you here. I was shocked the first time I started the department. I could get only half of the classes. I was trying to make little notes to myself with shapes and drawings, but when I looked at them later on, I did not understand anything from my own notes (Excerpt 144).

The second area of difference between previous learning contexts and university arise when student participants were asked to produce their first written assignments both in their academic writing and literature-based courses. As mentioned previously in the literature review chapter, upon entering university, students find themselves in a position where they have to review and reshape their existing repertoire of writing knowledge. Student participants all of a sudden realized that their existing literacy knowledge and skills were no longer sufficient to navigate their learning in the

context of the study. One student participant (FS12) described her initial shock saying; “To be honest, I was shocked when I attended my first academic writing course; I did not learn anything about writing in high school, and at that moment I also realized that things would not be the same as they were in prep school” (Excerpt 145). Similarly, another student participant (FS6) said, “There is academic writing and the things I wrote in high school; I have come to realize that there is a huge difference between the two” (Excerpt 146). Some other participants indicated that encountering a new way of writing and developing awareness about the requirements of new writing created “loss of self-esteem” with regards to their writing abilities as illustrated in the excerpts below:

> FS6: Before I started at the department, I thought I could write in English, essays or paragraphs. But after taking writing courses, I saw that I actually couldn't write (Excerpt 147).

> FS4: I was good at high school, they would like my work and whenever we had an assignment, my friends would make me do theirs for them. Teachers didn't evaluate them in detail like you do here. I felt pretty good about my writing at the time, but now I am here, I feel like I'm doing badly. What we wrote back in high school is very different from what we are doing here. Before receiving the feedback; I thought I was doing well. But when I saw the feedback with the red pencil, I was demoralized (Excerpt 148).

In addition to the identity-related challenges students have experienced during the transition period, freshman year student participants recounted how faculty members’ expectations and approaches exerted influence on their acculturation processes to the academic context and their writing practices. Most freshman year student participants defined the context of the study as being “repressive” as the Excerpt 149 illustrates:

> FS8: Teachers think that we are not quite at the university level, but I think there are lots of people in the classroom who don't know what university means. This could change with time, of course. Actually, I wasn't expecting English Language & Literature to be this startling and overbearing. I believe that teachers are expecting too much from us. They say "Read this", or "Study this" before coming to the class, but we still think that we are in high school. I think the teachers are right, because a person needs to surpass himself/herself (Excerpt 149).

From participants' responses it is inferred that "repressive" context refers to the following requirements of the department and expectations of the faculty members: attending courses regularly, following the syllabus and course materials from the web-based system, being present in class having read the assigned course materials, participating in class discussions, following deadlines, and submitting homework in the required format. Ideally, these requirements are very typical and standard of what university education signifies. University lecturers generally take it for granted that university students do not already have the discipline of learning as mentioned above. However, considering the student participants' previous learning experiences, expecting students to meet these requirements within a very short period of time remains relatively as a utopian ideal in the context of the study. Most participants, therefore, found faculty members' expectations too high at initial phases. Although students developed complete understanding of the requirements and normalized their expectations in time, they had great difficulties in adjusting their existing learning styles to that of the new context. One student participant (FS9) delineated this situation by saying, "actually, teachers here do not expect too much from us, but we started from ground zero; while nothing was being expected of us, now all of a sudden we are expected to do too many things" (Excerpt 150). Another student participant (FS10) further commented on the situation from a different perspective, indicating that some faculty members started to alter and lower their expectations having seen that students were struggling to meet the standards of the department.

> FS10: There is a problem with us; our teachers had great expectations, and we could not meet them at the beginning of the year. Our writing teacher, for example, really tries to help us. When she saw to what extent we could write, her expectations decreased and she adjusted the entire course according to us, our abilities. I think this is good for us" (Excerpt 151).

Although few faculty members attempt to understand the sort of challenges the academic context presents for the students and modify their expectations and teaching styles, most faculty members seem to not be very concerned with students' acculturation processes. Another student participant (FS1) expressed her disappointment by criticizing the teacher-centered approach of the teaching and learning context as illustrated in the Excerpt 152:

> FS1: I was not dreaming university like that. I think you [lecturers] expect too much from us. At the beginning of each lesson, teachers are complaining about us – what we do, what we do not do and what we cannot do. This is really discouraging. I thought university would be more student-oriented, but here we are always striving to meet the demands of the teachers. In classes, teachers expect us to make comments on the things we read; we make comments but they do not like the answer and say 'no, it is not like that.' The same thing happens in the exams, in classes teachers explicate poems and stories, and then in exams they expect us to write their interpretations, not our own. Why do they ask then? (Excerpt 152)

As the above-mentioned examples demonstrate, what faculty members expect from university students, how they externalize their expectations, and how they approach to teaching exert great influence on university students' initial conceptualizations of the academic context.

As for their academic writing practices, most freshman year student participants asserted that faculty members' attitudes toward their writing could at times be really disheartening, particularly when they provide feedback on their written assignments. Some participants recounted how they felt demoralized when they received their assignments "all in red," One student participant (FS2) referred to this feeling as "splashing ice-cold water on one's face." He further explained that he found faculty members "fifty percent right" in their feedback and suggested faculty members should give more constructive feedback rather than crossing out everything in red ink as narrated in the Excerpt 153:

> FS2: I think the teachers are fifty percent right. At first, when I start writing I don't feel that I'm making any mistakes, but when I receive feedback, I see that I missed even the littlest things. But the teachers could tell us to be more careful the next time instead of just crossing things off. When you see that amount of red ink on the paper, you feel like your face has been just splashed with ice-cold water (Excerpt 153).

Some other student participants mentioned that at times they feel faculty members do not attempt to understand their intended meanings in written assignments or in exams. Although participants acknowledge the inaccuracies in their written works, particularly in terms of academic writing rules, students still think that faculty members should make more effort to understand them. Excerpt 154 represents these views:

> FS6: I think I am a bit misunderstood. I thought that I was clear enough, but when I look at it, I see that I have a lot of mistakes. My expectation from the teacher would be his/her understanding my sentences. Because when I write, I feel like my arguments are clear. I don't have anything to say about the rules; sometimes I find the fault with myself. But generally, I think that the teacher doesn't understand me (Excerpt 154).

Moreover, "lack of consensus" among the feedback provided by different faculty members was another issue student participants mentioned. This mainly stems from the fact that faculty members may approach and evaluate students' written works by using different criteria, which are based on faculty members' individual conceptualizations of academic writing and particular learning objectives/outcomes of the courses they are teaching. Receiving different forms of feedback from different faculty members lead students generally to confusion. One student participant (FS7) asserted that she was able to benefit from feedback only if the professors explicitly pinpoint the source of her mistakes – i.e. grammar, vocabulary (wrong word or wrong word formation), content (unity and coherence), and clarity of meaning. However, she said she could not understand what she was supposed to do to improve her assignment if she received imprecise feedback such as "what do you

mean?" or "so what?" Another student participant (FS12) suggested that faculty members should straightforwardly and explicitly specify what they expect from the students. She further commented on the issue as follows, "after the exams and quizzes, sometimes our teachers tell us how we should write to answer specific questions; I think this is very useful for us because when they do that, we know what we should do in our next step and we start to write according to their expectations" (Excerpt 155).

The shock and demoralization experienced by freshman year student participants at the initial phases are observed to decline in time when students get more acculturated to the academic context. Most participants indicated that especially after the first midterm exams and toward the end of Fall term they had started to develop awareness about the expectations of each faculty member. Moreover, the differences between expectations of faculty members and that of the student participants are replaced by mutual understanding between the two parties. Student participants' responses during post-interviews revealed that students had started to find their lecturers rightful in their comments and feedback toward the end of the academic year.

> FS12: At first, the differences seem to be overwhelming, but once you understand what the teachers are expecting, then you see that there aren't that many differences. For instance, we were asked to write a definition once, and I got 1.5 out of 5 and got really upset about it. Afterwards, the teacher gave me feedback and I felt very down. But now I got 8 out of 10, because I know what the teacher is asking for (Excerpt 156).
>
> FS9: The teachers are absolutely right, because we write without really thinking about it. We feel that we doing it right at the time of writing it, but when I receive my assignment back, I find them to be 80-90% right (Excerpt 157).

One participant (FS12) even mentioned that they were lucky to have Turkish-English bilingual lecturers, as it is easier for bilingual teachers to understand the meaning Turkish students are trying to communicate in their written works.

> FS12: I find the commentary to be fair. As the teachers are also Turkish, they understand what we mean to say very well. We can get along with our teachers well, if we had native speakers for teachers, then we could have some problems with communication (Excerpt 158).

Developing awareness about the requirements of the disciplinary area and expectations of faculty members motivated freshman year students to develop new learning strategies and modify their writing accordingly.

> FS11: The first time I came here, I realized this: every teacher has a style of her own. In time, I got used to all of them, but this term we have a teacher and I find it very difficult to get accustomed to her/him. I believe that most of the students in the class don't get anything, but nobody says anything either. For instance, s/he says what s/he means at the very end, after having spoken for 15 minutes. And by the time she does that, I am already disconnected and can't catch her meaning. You (the teachers) don't expect too much of us, in actual fact. Since this is the literature department, there a lot of things that we need to read and study beforehand, and I think that if we do this, the rest will do nicely (Excerpt 159).

> FS12: I now understand what the teachers are expecting of us, and I try to write according to their expectations now. That way is better (Excerpt 160).

As can be seen from the Excerpt 161, student participants' responses also demonstrated that toward the end of the term, they had started to benefit more from the feedback, and learnt to use feedback as an effective resource for developing their academic writing practices.

> FS4: I tried so many new things, and got feedback for them, whether be it good or bad. I had the chance to rewrite, realized my mistakes, and now I'm trying not to repeat them. Therefore I believe that I improved myself. I realized that feeling sad about it will not do any good to me. You've got to correct those red markings. I am quite relaxed now, but I'm working very hard. I got over the fear; I'm still waiting for the red marks now, but just to correct them (Excerpt 161).

Participating in academic context and practicing academic writing not only enabled student participants to construct the above-mentioned understandings about new ways of learning, meaning making and writing, but also student participants started to develop an academic/writer "identity" (Ivanič, 1998). With more practice of

academic writing, student participants gradually started to form their own well-informed conceptualizations of academic writing as the two excerpts below illustrate:

> FS10: Before I started writing essays, I had very different opinions about writing. Here, we learnt a lot about the technique, we learnt lots of details as to how to write. As for producing ideas, both in Turkish and in English I can come up with ideas, and I thought that I could write, but turns out I couldn't. It was radically different after learning how to write (Excerpt 162).

> FS10: Until the first term, I was like a primary school student in terms of thinking. It was very funny; I guess I was writing without giving any thought to it. I didn't even know there was a technique to writing. Now, my English is improving and at the same time I take the department very seriously (Excerpt 163).

Another student participant (FS8) asserted that with more practice, she had regained her self-confidence, and she started to feel more comfortable with academic writing. FS9 also highlighted that she had overcome her initial anxieties about academic writing through generating texts on a regular basis and learning from the feedback. They both expressed their feelings saying, “I know what I should do and where I should go now.” Similarly, FS3 also expressed his contentment with his improved writing skills, saying, “When someone asks me to write something now, I can easily generate a text and shape my ideas” (Excerpt 164). Moreover, participants started to become more familiarized with the conventions of academic writing, and started to use the rules appropriately as expected of them.

> FS10: I had so much difficulty in the first term, because I never thought about things from these perspectives. I would write, but just write head-on. Now, when we use the technique, ideas come to me much more regularly. For instance, it is easier to first write the topic sentence, and then the examples (Excerpt 165).

> FS9: We would write without knowing anything about it. We wrote essays last term too, but we would worry about how to do it. The second time we did it, we were more conscious about it. Lots has changed, because we learnt things (Excerpt 166).

From their responses during the post-interviews, freshman year student participants have also shown evidence for reconstruction of the understanding of writer-responsible characteristics of English academic writing. Excerpts 167 and 168 illustrate this point well:

> FS3: I think the teachers are absolutely right. What we wrote isn't very clear, for instance we keep saying "they, they, they", and the teacher naturally asks "who are they?" We act like the person reading our assignments knows about it, but maybe s/he doesn't. Because we write to give information to the reader, or prove something, we need to be careful about this. I know about it myself, but we write as if everyone knows what goes in our mind (Excerpt 167).

> FS10: Because I write as if I know the subject and you exactly know what I'm talking about, but the result isn't like that, obviously. I pay attention to these points in other exams too; I check whether I am clear enough or not. This changed my writing technique quite a lot (Excerpt 168).

Finally, as the excerpts below illustrate, when freshman year student participants evaluated their first-year university education, they highlighted that they started to gain more general knowledge and newer perspectives and developed critical thinking skills, all of which distinguished them from their peers outside the context of the study.

> FS9: As the whole department, we are being bombarded with culture. We knew nothing until we came here and started to learn a lot of things. Since I came here, the way I think changed a lot, both in terms of education and the social circle. Our perspective has changed (Excerpt 169).

> FS3: My ability to think critically changed. I feel like I can look at a lot of things from different points of views (Excerpt 170).

> FS5: I started to think very differently now. I look at things differently, and I know that this will change a lot in the coming 4 years (Excerpt 171).

> FS12: We were told that students graduating from this department would look at the world with different eyes. It comes to the point where we talk differently even to our peers (Excerpt 171).

All in all, the institutional (i.e. tertiary level education) and contextual (i.e. the context of the study) factors that affect freshman year students' academic writing practices can be summarized as follows:

- Transition from secondary school to university: loss of self-esteem and self-confidence with regards to their existing learning approaches and writing abilities.
- High and inexplicit expectations of faculty members: depression, lack of enthusiasm and anxiety over students' writing practices.
- Forms of feedback: discouragement by feedback, confusion caused by lack of consensus among the feedback provided by different subject tutors.
- Participation in academic context and discourse: gaining awareness about professors' expectations, constructing academic writing knowledge, modification of writing strategies, using feedback as source, developing academic/writer identity.

The first-year of university education poses not only identity-related but also learning- and writing-related challenges for Turkish university students. Adaptation to a new culture of learning and new ways of writing causes a certain amount of frustration to students at initial stages. Particular characteristics of the social situation – i.e. institutional culture and discipline-specific requirements – and particular discursive practices require students to adjust and accommodate their learning and writing styles within a very short time (Lillis, 2001). The discrepancy between students' past and new educational experiences leads to an identity crisis (Harklau, 1998; Ivanič1998; Leki, 2001).

The most noticeable identity-related challenges that freshman year participants remarked are a sense of being lost and a loss of self-esteem. As can be inferred from participants' responses, the sense of being lost stems from the fact that studying at university demands more student-responsible and self-regulated learning strategies (Harklau, 2001). Similar to the findings of Harklau (2001), freshman year participants experience difficulties in following the courses and regulating the time and preparation they allocate for their learning. Students are found to lose their confidence in their own self-worth, knowledge or abilities when they realize that their old strategies of learning and styles of writing are no longer acceptable in the new social context. The heterogeneous characteristics of university context and the constant negative criticism they receive from faculty members about their lacking background knowledge and undisciplined studying habits to a great extent depress freshman year students at early stages of the first-year.

Moreover, students immediately recognize that trusted ways of writing are no longer valid or accepted at university, and they find themselves in need of taking on new writer identities to meet the expectations of faculty members (Hyland, 2002; Hyland, 2007). Because freshman year student participants lack the established repertoire of writing knowledge, academic writing courses and the assigned text genres initially exert anxiety on students. Faculty members take for granted that students' conceptual levels of learning, language proficiency, and their writing skills are ready for what they expect of students. However, from student responses it is inferred that students have great difficulty in approximating their existing repertoires of knowledge to the demands of the new setting, especially when each faculty member values a different aspect of writing and holds individual opinions about academic writing. Participants, furthermore, asserted that expectations of faculty

members often remain inexplicit until students take their first midterm exams or receive their first feedback from written assignments. These findings corroborate with what Lea and Street (1998) concluded in their study. That is, within the same discipline, when students move from one course to another (i.e. course-switching), it is each subject tutor's individual expectations and personal assumptions about the good quality of academic writing that lead students to confusion and frustration.

Even though freshman year students are disheartened by these contextual factors in terms of their academic writing practices, particularly towards the end of the first year, they gradually get used to and start to internalize the requirements of the new context. Acculturating more with the new context eventually exerted a positive influence on freshman year students' identity and their academic writing practices.

4.3.2.2 Senior year participants

The way senior year student participants perceive their academic writing practices with respect to the institutional and contextual culture varies from that of freshman year participants. This is evidently related to the time they have spent in the context of study. Needless to say, senior year participants seem to have developed considerable amount of awareness about the requirements of ELL and faculty members' expectations over the course of time. Therefore, senior year students' responses did not manifest identity- or writing-related anxieties when they were asked to comment on their academic writing practices. In terms of their academic writing practices, senior year students mainly referred to the number of assignments,

the feedback they received, and the strategies they developed in their writing to meet the expectations of faculty members.

In this section, prior to reporting the findings, I should remind the reader of the particular situation of this group of senior year students. In the previous two chapters, I explained the curriculum changes that took place in ELL in detail. When the senior year participants of the study started the undergraduate program, the old curriculum was being implemented. In the old curriculum, students were again offered academic writing courses in their first two years of undergraduate program; however, their academic writing practices were mainly confined to these courses. That is, students were not required to produce written coursework in literature-based courses as their achievements were predominantly determined by their performances on midterm and final examinations. Senior year student participants were subject to the former curriculum during their freshman and sophomore years of undergraduate education. As of their junior year, ELL started to implement the Bologna curriculum, and thus students started to produce written coursework in all their courses since "writing across the curriculum" constituted the core of the new curriculum design. Having to produce written assignments in all courses was a source of distress to this group of students because all of a sudden they had to adjust their studying and learning strategies. As their academic achievements no longer depended on the grades they received from exams, academic writing became more significant for students.

Evaluating students' academic performances through written coursework was also new for the faculty members. Faculty members had to change their assessment criteria – i.e. giving greater grading percentages to assignments and less to exams – while designing their syllabi within the Bologna curriculum. Although some faculty

members considered evaluating and assessing students' written work moderately as an additional workload, they easily adapted themselves to the new implementation and started to assign homework to the students. Faculty members generally assigned reaction papers, reflection essays, and research papers as coursework.

Some senior year student participants complained about the number of assignments they had to complete concurrently for different courses. When two or more assignments of different courses were assigned for close due dates to one another, this created anxiety, boredom and reluctance. One student participant (SS5) expressed his distress in Excerpt 173:

> SS5: I don't like writing that much, or doing assignments for that matter. They don't let us enjoy writing. We have to write three or four papers by next Wednesday or Friday, or they can assign us papers right on the spot. Thank God I'm a senior now, freshers are even in a worse situation (Excerpt 173).

Similarly, another student participant (SS3) associated her boredom with writing to the number of assignments she had to submit within a tight schedule. She said that she did not enjoy writing anymore, and she explained, "Writing has become a compulsory act; we write because we have to, this is our homework and we will receive grades on it" (Excerpt 174). Another student participant (SS4) mentioned his feeling of monotony and his reluctance to prepare assignments also by defining writing as a "compulsory and mechanic" act, yet he still tried to do his best. He depicted his mood as follows:

> SS4: Usually, when I come home from work, I get down to writing, but all the time I'm thinking: "Let it finish." I always put in effort, and try to produce nice opinions. I work till midnight, because my teachers will read those assignments and this is important to me. But it is such a burden. I do my best. To be honest, I write quite mechanically and I get bored (Excerpt 175).

While some student participants spoke out against the "writing across the curriculum" implementation of the Bologna system, some other participants expressed their satisfaction with the new curriculum since they thought they had the opportunity to practice their academic writing knowledge to the fullest extent. Excerpts 176 and 177 illustrate students' contentment with the Bologna curriculum:

> SS6: Previously, I couldn't write the introduction, I would just start with the body paragraphs. But now I start with the introduction and write very easily, and I design my body paragraphs by basing them to my thesis statement. These things settled after a time. I believe the Bologna process did a good job (Excerpt 176).
>
> SS4: I guess I wrote without knowing in the first year. When we started writing longer papers in the third year, I believe I got better. We improved our skills as we were asked to write assignments for other courses, too (Excerpt 177).

Another student participant (SS2), however, drew attention to an important point and criticized different implementations of the former curriculum and the present one by referring to the expectations of faculty members. From the participant's response, it is inferred that faculty members effortlessly adapted their teaching objectives in accordance with the new curriculum, set their expectations of students, and took it for granted that students would not be able to produce the text genres that they required. However, the student participant considered this situation to be unfair on the students' behalf as she thinks that "what they expect from us is actually how university education should be, but the system is not very well established yet; if we had studied in this system from the very first year, now everything would be different" (Excerpt 178). She emphasized that adaptation to the new curriculum was not as easy for students as it was for faculty members. All the above-mentioned comments resemble what freshman year participants remarked pertaining to their transition from high school to university. Although senior year participants experienced a more controlled and smoother transition from the former system to the

new one, they still faced challenges in accommodating their existing repertoire of writing knowledge to the newly required way of writing.

Senior year participants do not get as demoralized as freshman year participants when they receive feedback for their written assignments. Even though most participants find faculty members fully rightful in their feedback and comments, there is one common opinion in relation to feedback. That is, at the stage of text generating, most students think that they convey their intended meaning very clearly to the reader and "everything sounds just perfect." However, when they receive feedback from faculty members, they realize that their intended meaning was either not fully comprehended and sometimes misunderstood by the reader or regarded as a "mistake." This, to a certain extent, can be a disheartening factor as illustrated in the Excerpts 179, 180 and 181:

> SS4: For instance, I find an example that I think is very good, but the teacher doesn't like it. Then when you read it again, you start to think your teacher was right (Excerpt 179).
>
> SS6: I go over my feedback, and ask myself why I wouldn't think about this. I think the teachers are eighty percent right. Sometimes, when I can't support my arguments, I think to myself the teacher couldn't possibly understand my meaning, and consequently I got a poor mark (Excerpt 180).
>
> SS3: I pay so much attention. I have done so ever since high school. I always try to know about the reasons for my mistakes. Because when I see my mistakes, I understand. I value the teachers' feedback very much, and most of the time I find them to be true, ninety percent true. But sometimes, the teachers can't see my point and they think it is a mistake on my part, which makes me sad (Excerpt 181).

However, as mentioned previously, senior year students do not easily get discouraged from the feedback. They generally find the feedback they receive from faculty members sensible and justifiable.

> SS5: If the teachers ask something, s/he has an answer in mind. If we can't give that answer, then we automatically get low grades. But the teacher is right, too; she wants the education s/he gives to pay off. It's normal (Excerpt 182).

> SS1: I have never experienced an extreme situation where I thought, "why is this expected of us?" because if the department requires this, then the teachers have to have this expectation of us. They can't say, "Oh, the kids are only capable of this much, we can't push them further." I think it is normal that they have expectations of us (Excerpt 183).

Most senior year students indicated that they use feedback as a means both to improve their writing skills and to develop an understanding of the expectations of faculty members. Once students understand what particular faculty members expect from them, they develop strategies and modify their writing accordingly. Excerpts 184, 185, and186 illustrate the strategies the students employ in their writing practices:

> SS4: Sometimes we write to appeal to the teachers' style or what they like. For instance, sometimes a teacher loves the female character so much, and I write according to that. The teachers have this on their mind: what they want to have us do, and what they expect us to do. I think the teachers are seventy or eighty percent right. Also, the teachers' point of view is a factor. For instance, if the teacher is a feminist, then s/he will evaluate it differently if you've written a feminist piece. Some teachers are fond of certain things and would like you to write those things and grade accordingly (Excerpt 184).

> SS6: Actually, in time I started to write according to the expectations of the teachers to get higher grades. No matter how I write in time, mostly I write according to the teacher. Writing is something that improves with time anyway (Excerpt 185).

> SS2: From the previous feedback the teachers gave us, I can anticipate what could be a problem. For instance, I say "they" in the essay, knowing that the teacher will ask "who are they?" Then I make corrections according to that. Being able to read the teacher's mind is gaining awareness. (Excerpt 186).

With regards to expectations and feedback, one of the senior year participants (SS2) emphasized the importance of establishing mutual expectations between the students and the faculty members. For her, these expectations should be uttered transparently. She suggested that faculty members should assign meaningful and thought-provoking tasks and provide detailed and constructive feedback so that the students can learn more about the content while they are writing and continue learning to write more effectively. She moreover indicated that her academic writing practices

and her motivation to write are directly influenced by her degree of interest in the topics covered in her courses and the teachers' attitudes. Excerpt 187 illustrates her point well:

> SS2: But I want to learn from my mistakes that I make in the things I want to learn and I am interested in. There are some assignments that I just do for the sake of doing it. That makes a huge difference. I want to write and write for some of the classes, but that has got a lot to do with the attitude of the teachers (Excerpt 187).

Senior year participants' responses revealed important points about how contextual factors – particular to the context of the study – have influenced their academic writing practices. Students' conceptualizations of academic writing have been reconstructed with the implementation of the new curriculum as it provides students with real opportunities to practice L2/academic writing skills. As I have been teaching in the context of study for ten years, I can clearly observe the differences and novelties that the implementation of the new program brought to students' academic writing practices. With the former curriculum plan, the students did not have much chance to practice the academic writing knowledge and skills they gained in academic writing courses. They were mostly writing in exams until they were asked to write dissertations (i.e. graduation projects) their senior year. Then they were having great difficulties in writing their dissertations since they lacked the necessary writing practice. However, the findings of the study confirm that gaining a consistent and ample amount of academic writing practice by producing academic texts for a variety of purposes in different courses enabled students to enhance their repertoire of writing knowledge and to develop an academic/writer identity. One of the senior year student participants (SS2) expressed the improvement she observed in her academic writing practices by maintaining that:

> SS2: At first I felt very inadequate. At least, during the first year I wasn't very good but my outlook changed in the second year. Other courses I took helped a lot, too. I read, I improved myself and tried really hard. As of second year, I did everything that was expected of me. I really read and really wrote. I did my assignments with utmost care and researched a lot. I feel more comfortable now while speaking and writing. Or, when I go back to something I write, I can see that I couldn't express myself clearly or it isn't quite clear. I am aware of such things now. I am confident now and I feel better about it. I kind of feel sad that we're graduating. Also, I would have liked to study the new curriculum. Now we can talk about every little thing, we are always different from other people (Excerpt 188).

Student participants also reported that the more they practiced writing, the more self-confident they became. They explained how they developed awareness about characteristics of academic writing, learned to organize their ideas, and gained practicality by constantly producing different text genres.

> SS7: It feels like I used to spend more time on writing. Now I know exactly what I should do, I know how I should write. I can now do much more easily the things that I was having difficulty with before (Excerpt 189).

> SS2: Before taking all those courses, I would write in a way only I could understand, but not the reader. Now I can write in a reader-oriented way thanks to those classes (Excerpt 190).

> SS6: I used to think I couldn't write in English, but I now think that I can, and I love myself for doing it. I am proud of myself. I think to myself, I couldn't do it before and now I can do it very easily. And this makes me happy (Excerpt 191).

> SS1: At least I learnt how to compare things, how to think, how not to write everything that comes to mind, and not to just put your ideas there on the paper (Excerpt 192).

Finally, similar to freshman year students, senior year students also indicated that studying literature and producing texts that fostered their critical thinking skills helped them gain new perspectives in life. They also mentioned that the skills they gained through their academic writing practices would help them in their future academic studies. The following excerpts 193 and 194 provide evidence for these points:

> SS1: Looking at things from a different perspective helped a lot; one can adapt that to so many things. It helped a lot in terms of writing. I believe that what I learnt here would help me when I'm doing masters. I think about the time when I was a freshman and I look at myself now: lots have changed. I see that my point of view has changed in some regards (Excerpt 193).

> SS3: We already started using what we learnt here. Especially after studying postmodern theory, we started criticizing everything, from commercials to what people say. We changed a lot in terms of point of view. Now I can ponder upon so much about a subject, and have a lot to say on it. I am able to criticize myself too, and other people (Excerpt 194).

The contextual (i.e. the context of the study) factors that affect senior year students' academic writing practices can be summarized as follows:

- Transition from the old curriculum to the Bologna curriculum: positive and negative attitudes.
- Number of assignments and deadlines: creates reluctance.
- Feedback: using feedback as a means of improving writing skills and developing understanding of subject teachers' expectations.
- Participation in academic context and discourse: gaining awareness about professors' expectations, constructing academic writing knowledge, modification of writing strategies, using feedback as a source, developing an academic/writer identity.

All things considered, the context of the study does not pose identity- and academic-writing related anxieties and challenges to senior year student participants. From participants' responses, it is understood that senior year students have developed their own ways of responding and meeting the demands of the context. They appear to be more self-confident about their writing skills and make more informed decisions about the strategies they employ in their academic writing practices. This evidently stems from their prolonged engagement in the study of the context. As the findings demonstrate, even the freshman year participants have developed overall

awareness about expectations and preferences of each of their subject tutors towards the end of the first-year. Having taken a variety of courses from the same faculty members throughout four years of undergraduate study, senior year participants, needless to say, are more conversant with each subject tutor's expectations depending on the course s/he teaches and have greater control over shaping and modifying their writing practices accordingly.

4.4 Overall evaluation of the context of the study

Contextual factors – as perceived by participant students – influence the two groups of participants' academic writing practices both in positive and negative ways. In this section, I will discuss and unfold how the two most prominent contextual factors exert influence on undergraduate students' academic writing practices: prolonged participation in the academic context of the study and the attitudes and expectations of faculty members.

As the findings presented earlier in the chapter suggest, prolonged engagement in an academic setting can influence students' academic writing practices particularly in four ways: students deconstruct and reconstruct their conceptualizations of writing in English and academic writing, students reframe their writer identities, students utilize their evolving repertoire of writing knowledge appropriately and purposefully, and students develop newer ways of meaning making and writing strategies. The additional findings that I will be presenting in this section also confirm these conclusions.

The findings presented and discussed hitherto confirm that the more participant students engage with academic writing in L2, the more self-confident and competent writers they become. As previously mentioned in the literature review, frequent and consistent L2 academic writing practice and extended exposure to L2 rhetorical features and academic text genres enable students to develop fluency in writing and to become more skillful writers, particularly in the processes of planning and generating their texts (Cumming, 2009; Kubota, 1998; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2009; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Sasaki, 2009). Kobayashi and Rinnert (2012) defined writing development as writers' gaining greater control over the texts they produce in their respective languages by making appropriate choices from their acquired repertoire of writing knowledge (i.e. L1 and L2). That is, when students engage with more writing practice, they gradually become multicompetent users of the language (Basetti & Cook, 2011) and they no longer rely on their L1 or L2 writing knowledge when producing their texts. Rather, they benefit from the "overlapping, merged or shared" writing knowledge (i.e. a combination of L1 and L2 writing knowledge) that evolves correspondingly and use the knowledge purposefully in their writing (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2012, p. 127).

In addition, Manchỏn and Roca de Larios (2007) drew attention to the contribution of meaningful, guided, repeated, and consistent L2 writing practice to the development of automaticity and fluency in L2 language acquisition. The reason is that when students get engaged with this type of writing practice, they reflect on the metalinguistic function of the language and they notice the gap between what they already know and what they need to know further about the language, and consequently students come to know more about language and become more competent users of the language. Manchỏn and Roca de Larios (2007) explained how

more experience in L2 writing contributes to students' L2 declarative knowledge becoming proceduralized; in other words, automatized. Therefore, they asserted that developing L2 proficiency through guided and repeated writing practice allows for the automatization of language skills and that this eventually "frees up cognitive resources to be deployed on higher level writing processes" (p. 115). Manchỏn and Roca de Larios (2007) also found that a higher level of L2 proficiency and more engagement with L2 writing are influential factors leading students to utilize different strategies when composing their L2 texts. That is, novice writers spend more time generating text (i.e. transforming ideas into language) whereas more experienced writers devote more time to planning and revising their texts. Findings derived from stimulated recall interviews with participant students also corroborate these studies.

After the two groups of participants had watched the two short films and wrote reflection paragraphs in L2 and L1 respectively, with stimulated recall interviews I aimed to learn how participant students went about writing in L1 and L2. While the participants were writing, I observed each group of student participants and took some field notes about every individual student participant in relation to their starting, pausing and finishing times. The way each student started with the tasks varied within groups of participants. While some students directly started and went on with their writing, others paused for a while and reviewed their sentences right after they had started the tasks. Interruptions were observed when freshman year participants were writing in L2 and senior year students writing in L1. When writing about the first short film, *Will*, in English (L2), senior year participant students were observed to finish the task earlier than the freshman year participants.

The two groups of participants spent more or less the same amount of time for writing about the second short film, *What is that?*, in Turkish (L1).

Senior year student participants' responses illustrate evidence for development in writing (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2012) and proceduralized language skills (Manchỏn & Roca de Larios, 2007). When I interviewed participants about their writing processes, among the seven senior year participants, six asserted that they had found writing in L2 much easier than writing in L1. To their astonishment, senior year participants asserted that they felt more comfortable writing in English (L2) whereas they frequently felt interrupted while writing in Turkish (L1). Participants felt comfortable with L2 writing because the task required them to write reflection paragraphs about the two short films, and writing a reflection paragraph about something they watch or read is a common text genre they regularly produce in L2 for variety of their courses in ELL. Senior year participants felt more interrupted when writing in Turkish because at times they either found themselves trying to translate from English to Turkish or they had difficulty in finding the Turkish equivalents of some English expressions and terminologies that they frequently use in English writing. From their responses, it can be inferred that a "paradoxical situation" was something that senior year participants had not anticipated. The excerpts 195, 196, and 197 illustrate these points well:

> SS3: When I wrote in Turkish, I realized that I wasn't going to be able to write in Turkish. What I mean is, I couldn't quite figure out how I was going to describe all those symbols and representations, and I think this is because I am used to writing in English. Because it was with English that I learnt to write, my mind automatically went there. That's why I had difficulty writing in Turkish (Excerpt 195).

> SS4: In our previous interview, I would say I'd write better in Turkish and writing in English was hard, but now it is vice versa. I find writing in Turkish to be a distant idea. I had to stop and think for a moment because it was Turkish. I had to think about what to write, how to plan it, and what things to talk about. I was more comfortable when writing in English. For instance, when I say 'fail' I know exactly what it means.

> This is probably because I am used to it [writing in English] now. Maybe it is because here we write papers all the time. For example, there are some verbs of which meaning you can't exactly express in Turkish. As I don't write much in Turkish, the product was very superficial (Excerpt 196).
>
> SS2: When I was writing in Turkish, I felt like I wanted to switch to English. Therefore my introductory sentence reads a bit like a translation from English. I was afraid that I wasn't going to deliver what I meant in some of my sentences (Excerpt 197).

Particularly the response provided by SS5 represents genuine evidence for potentially automatized L2 knowledge and attained fluency in L2 writing. He maintained, "When I write in English, I do not pause and think about anything; we got used to writing in English, and thus we know what to do and directly started writing. Probably I paused more frequently when I wrote in Turkish because we had not written anything in Turkish for the last five years, and this made me think about how to start the paragraph and construct my sentences, and which words to use" (Excerpt 198). Here, it can be inferred that just as the declarative knowledge of language becomes proceduralized with meaningful and consistent practice of language, explicitly learnt writing knowledge might also become proceduralized with guided, repeated and meaningful writing practice.

Only one senior participant [SS7] stated that she would write much longer in both tasks if she had written in Turkish because she had to pause quite a few times thinking and checking whether she was able to convey her intended meanings well in English.

Moreover, most senior year participants took notes while watching both films and planning their writing. They used a similar structure and organization of ideas in their L1 and L2 reflection paragraphs. That is, they started with the plot summary (i.e. the setting, characters, plot), and then they wrote their reflections and analyses by referring to their own feelings, ideas, and cinematographic elements of the films.

Only one student [SS6] indicated that when she was writing in Turkish, she was not much concerned about the organization and structure of ideas, and that she wrote impulsively. For her, writing in Turkish was rather difficult because she could not make decisions about the planning of her paragraph in the way she did without any difficulty while she was writing in English. SS6 related her difficulty with writing in L1 to her lack of systematic L1 writing instruction and lack of L1 writing practice over the last five years.

The stimulated-recall interviews I conducted with freshman year participants revealed that, in contrast to senior year participants, freshman year participants felt more at ease when writing in Turkish (L1). Most freshman year participants produced longer and more detailed reflection paragraphs in Turkish than in English (L2). Freshman year participants provided three main reasons for why they felt more comfortable with writing in Turkish. The first reason is that they consider themselves more fluent writers in Turkish as Turkish is their native language. Secondly, because the text genre requires them to reflect on their personal feelings and opinions, freshmen year students found conveying their feelings and intended meanings was much easier in Turkish since they did not have to ponder over their choices of vocabulary and accuracy of the surface structures for as long as they did in English writing. Because they concentrated more on the surface structures rather than the communication of meaning in English writing, they felt themselves more restricted in text generating. Finally, back translating from L1 to L2 caused frequent interruptions in their English writing whereas in Turkish they were able to write in full flow. Excerpts 199, 200, 201, and 202 illustrate these points made by freshman year participants:

> FS8: I wrote faster when I was writing in Turkish, because I felt more comfortable. English is my second language, and Turkish is my native language, that's why I'm able to express myself better in Turkish (Excerpt 199).
>
> FS9: It was easier writing in Turkish. I had to think for a while when I was writing in English, because I didn't want to make a mistake, that's why it was a bit short. We can write in Turkish as if we were speaking; it is easier to pour things onto the paper, but you have to think when it comes to writing in English. You even need to be careful about your tenses (Excerpt 200).
>
> FS10: I think, when I'm writing in English, some ideas come to me but I try to translate them. Actually, if we get used to thinking in English, then it would be quicker and easier to write. This is because when we're writing in Turkish, we just write as we think. But for instance, this happened to me when I was writing in Turkish: I couldn't remember the Turkish word for some things, but were able to remember the English word. But as I wrote much more easily, it was a lot quicker (Excerpt 201).
>
> FS11: I had to keep it a bit short when writing in English, because I couldn’t write everything I thought of. I could have written longer if I wrote both in Turkish (Excerpt 202).

Among the twelve freshman year participants, only three students [FS5; FS7; FS4] expressed that they had found writing in Turkish rather difficult since they had not produced any texts in Turkish for a long time. These participants had particular difficulty thinking in Turkish and finding the right vocabulary, pronouns, and sentence structures to start their paragraphs (Excerpt 203). The participants asserted that because they had learnt writing these types of paragraphs systematically in English, they got used to opening their paragraphs by using certain structures and strategies. However, when the participants attempted to use the same strategies and structures to start their paragraphs in L1 writing, they felt relatively awkward because their sentences did not sound very natural and acceptable in Turkish.

The abovementioned differences observed in the responses of freshman and senior year participants illustrate two important points. Novice writers (i.e. freshman year participants) tend to rely more on their repertoire of L1 writing knowledge and are more concerned with text generating and surface structures when writing. The

reason for this is that their L2 language and writing knowledge are not yet sufficiently proceduralized to allow automatic access to the L2 that knowledge they have (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2012; Manchỏn & Roca de Larios, 2007). In contrast, experienced writers (i.e. senior year participants) mostly draw on their L2 writing knowledge when they are constructing both their L1 and L2 texts in any given text genre. This is because their repertoire of writing knowledge is not fully merged yet and it is still in the process of developing as they gain more writing experience. Moreover, in the context of this study, most participants associate their general knowledge of writing starting with their L2 writing training; they mostly draw on their L2 writing knowledge when they are constructing both their L1 and L2 writing texts in any given text genre. Finally, different from the novice writers, experienced writers devote more time to organization of ideas and successful communication of intended meaning. The findings also suggest that students become more "socialized" into academic discourse as they practice producing texts that are specific to their academic disciplines (Hyland, 2009).

In addition to writing development, prolonged engagement in an academic setting enables students to develop certain approaches to their academic writing practices. Research on tertiary level education and writing have identified two basic approaches that students develop and adopt when students are engaged with academic learning, academic reading, and academic writing (Biggs, 1988; Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001). The two approaches are the deep approach and the surface approach, and these approaches are formed in terms of students' beliefs, intentions, and in turn their choices in strategies (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001). According to Lavelle and Zuercher (2001), "a deep, meaningful approach [is] based on seeing the task as a whole and proactive engagement in learning, and a surface approach [is]

based on reproduction of information and memorization" (p. 374). Particularly in academic writing, the approach employed by each individual student is determined by the relationship the student establishes with the task. Based on previous research, Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) administered a 74-item scale inventory with thirty American freshman year undergraduate students to analyze their writing intentions, conceptions of the functions of writing, and students' common writing strategies. Following this they also conducted interviews with thirteen students. The five common approaches found to be adopted by the students were: Elaborative and Reflective-Revision (deep approaches), and Low Self-Efficacy, Spontaneous-Impulsive, Procedural (surface approaches) (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001).

The common writing approach espoused both by freshman and senior year participant students is procedural approach. Procedural approach to writing is method-driven emphasizing adherence to the rules more than personal involvement in writing, and its main aim is to please the teacher rather than communication of ideas (Lavelle &Zuercher, 2001). Most student participants indicated that they modify their writing in accordance with faculty member expectations. Some senior year participants specifically mentioned that they sometimes write in certain ways to please their professors. Moreover, many student participants attach great importance to adhering to the academic writing rules even though they consider this to be something restrictive to their communication of ideas and meaning. Among the five approaches to writing, another one that is adopted mostly by senior year participants is the elaborative approach. The elaborative approach in writing emphasizes the search for personal meaning, and writing is considered a deep personal investment used for one's own learning (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001). Some senior year participants expressed how they enjoyed writing particularly when they wrote about

topics they were interested in, and how writing for variety of courses has improved their meaning development and critical thinking skills and has helped them develop new perspectives. Although some freshman year participants also demonstrated evidence of adopting an elaborative approach toward writing, they seem to be at the very initial phase of conceptualizing writing as a means and a reflection of their learning. Most freshman year students, on the other hand, show evidence of a low self-efficacy approach toward academic writing. Especially during the fall term freshman year, students exhibit a highly fearful and anxious approach toward academic writing – constantly doubting their self-worth, language proficiency, and their literacy and learning skills. However, as Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) mentioned "writing approaches are relational in nature and modifiable" (p.378). The approach perspective both for tertiary level learning and writing is dynamic; individual approaches may evolve and alter depending on the learning and writing situation and students' motivation and intentionality.

In addition to prolonged engagement in academic context and discourse, expectations and attitudes of faculty members exert great influence on students' academic writing practices. Expectations of faculty members are found to affect students' writing practices in two ways. The findings reveal that university students can be disheartened by the general attitude of their subject tutors and by the feedback they receive for their written assignments, especially at initial phases of their university education. High expectations and (sometimes harsh) criticisms of faculty members make freshman year students in particular question their self-worth and writing abilities. On the other hand, attitudes and expectations of faculty members can motivate students to reconstruct their existing writing knowledge, develop new strategies, and even attempt to write better.

The focus group interview with the faculty members of ELL revealed what faculty members regard as most problematic with student academic writing and student learning approaches. Table 26 summarizes the views of faculty members of ELL.These common problems articulated by faculty members of the study of context show parallelisms with what has been found in previous studies (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991; Johns, 1991) as discussed in Chapter 2. As Harklau (2001) asserted, “there is a mismatch, a disturbing one, between faculty expectations and academic preparation of entering students” (p. 36). Moreover, students with restricted academic writing experience may have completely different expectations from those of their professors (Braxley, 2005).

Student participants of the study actually voiced the underlying reasons of the problems identified by the faculty members, which was discussed earlier in this chapter. As articulated by faculty members, university students experience problems with the student-responsible and self- regulated learning requirements of a tertiary level education. This is because students’ previous schooling experiences did not demand that students take responsibility for their own learning as explained earlier in this chapter. Students lack reading habits and background knowledge about certain concepts and events because the education system they come from is mostly based on memorization and knowledge-telling, requires minimal intellectual engagement, and the system is predominantly exam-oriented and test-driven. Students seldom participate in classroom discussions because in their previous learning experiences their personal opinions and reflections were scarcely ever asked and valued and they barely practiced speaking in English. Students do things in the way that is required from them only when they are threatened with grades because this is what they were accustomed to doing in their previous schooling experiences. Finally, most students

exhibit all these problems with their writing because students' previous writing experiences did not equip them with those skills necessitated by the faculty members.

Table 26. Common Problems as Perceived by Faculty Members.

Problems with Student-Responsible Learning	• Students do not take responsibility for their own learning. • Students do not follow the syllabi. • Students do not attend courses regularly even if participation is a component of their overall achievement. • Students do not read the assigned texts before coming to classes. • Students do not follow the deadlines; they prepare their written assignments last minute and occasionally ask for an extension.
General problems	• Students lack reading habits. • Students' general knowledge is too low. • Students do not have sufficient background knowledge to interpret the reading texts. • Students' English proficiency level is not sufficient to comprehend and interpret literary texts and scholarly journals. • Students do not trust their language competence; they seldom participate in classroom discussions. • Students do things properly only when they are threatened with grades.
Problems with Academic Writing	• Students lack train of thought. • Students lack critical thinking skills. • Students cannot construct well-established arguments. • Students cannot filter and organize their ideas; they jump from one thing to another. • Students cannot contextualize their ideas; they base their ideas and arguments on over-generalized assumptions. • Students lack background knowledge about particular concepts, events, and so on. • Some students have problems with even with basic grammatical structures. • Students cannot completely transfer the writing knowledge they gain in their academic writing courses to other departmental courses. • Students prepare well-researched and well-written essay only when they are really interested in topics.

Hyland (2011) explains that learning to write involves five kinds of knowledge: content knowledge, system knowledge, process knowledge, genre knowledge, and context knowledge (p.31). Studying literature involves abstract conceptual activities

– i.e. classifying according to a concept, comparing and contrasting, determining causal relationships, resolving an issue, and speculating (Currie, 1993), and it is conceptually-driven and requires highly interpretive skills (Ivanič, 1998). Therefore, expecting undergraduate students to acquire this set of knowledge and develop conceptual level skills within a short period of time is somewhat unfair for the student. As Currie (1993) states, the writing process is "a socialization process, that is, a gradual acquisition of the discourse conventions of a particular community at the same time a gradual acquisition of the world view of that community" (p. 115). Educational factors described and discussed in this chapter provide valid reasoning and explanations as to why students are perceived to lack train of thought and critical thinking skills and to have difficulties in constructing arguments and organized discussions in their academic writing practices.

The faculty members also demonstrated awareness about these educational factors. During the focus group interview, one faculty member maintained:

> In student writing, I spot some recurring problems but I'm not sure whether any specific precaution can fix them because that is not inherently related to the mechanics of writing. I think that is the way they are taught to think. That seems to be the main problem. Train of thought, I mean. They also lack a general amount of knowledge. So it's not just the problem of writing (Excerpt 204).

Faculty member expectations about student writing seem to be highly influenced by their individual disciplinary histories and conceptualizations of academic writing. Hyland (2009) argues that academic discourses are "closely bound to the social activities, cognitive styles and epistemological beliefs of particular disciplinary communities" (p.13). The problems faculty members identified with students' learning strategies and writing skills emerge from these expectations and

conceptualizations. These conceptualizations and expectations influence student academic practices to a great extent as has been discussed in this section.

Thus, faculty members should demonstrate a more tolerant and understanding attitude toward university students' writing because learning to write requires years of practice, not weeks (Casaneve, 2004). In other words, before arriving at conclusions and making judgments about students' writing, faculty members should take into consideration the fact that their own academic world-view or academic knowledge is a culmination of the years they have spent in academia, and the constant and consistent writing they have practiced in different academic disciplinary contexts for a variety of purposes.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the main findings of the study are explained and discussed in light of research questions and the literature review. When educational factors associated with students' past learning histories are combined with the contextual factors experienced at university, the findings reveal the complete picture of the dynamic interaction of factors influencing academic writing practices of undergraduate students in the context of the study. As has been discussed throughout the chapter, the findings of the study broadly corroborate with the results of previous studies.

The originality of this study comes from the fact that the findings genuinely reflect and document the writing situation of Turkish context. In the next chapter, I will discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the findings.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the conclusions and implications of the research findings. First, I will present a brief overview of the purpose of the research and the methodology employed for data collection. Then, I will provide a summary of the main findings with regards to the research questions of the study. Next, I will discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the study. The chapter will end with the limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and personal concluding remarks.

5.1 Summary of the main findings

This study was conducted to investigate the dynamic interaction of factors influencing Turkish undergraduate university students' academic writing practices in English. The study particularly aimed to uncover and explain educational and contextual factors that exert influence on students' academic writing practices. With this particular purpose, I was interested in explaining these two factors from students' perspectives.

The main participants of the study are twelve freshman year and seven senior year students majoring in the English language and literature program of a foundation university in Turkey. Secondary participants of the study are one EFL teacher, two preparatory school teachers, and six faculty members. In order to provide a comprehensive account of what educational and contextual factors students perceive to be influential on their academic writing practices, I adopted an

interpretivist research paradigm and a qualitative research design. The data were obtained from multiple sources: (1) a background questionnaire, (2) nineteen semi-structured interviews with student participants, (3) nineteen stimulated-recall interviews with student participants, (4) four semi-structured interviews with teacher participants, (5) one focus-group interview with faculty members, and (6) document analyses. The data obtained from these multiple sources were used to answer the following research questions:

1. What educational and contextual factors influence Turkish university students' academic writing practices in English?
2. What are the educational factors that university students perceive to be influential in their academic writing practices?
3. What are the contextual factors that university students perceive to be influential in their academic writing practices?
4. How do teachers' attitude toward L2 academic writing and their expectations from students affect university students' academic writing practices?

The findings of the study demonstrated that university students' academic writing practices are influenced by an array of multiple interrelated and interacting educational and contextual factors. Educational factors pertain to student participants' past learning histories and their previous writing experiences and contextual factors to the requirements of academic discourse and academic context.

The findings of the study in terms of the educational factors have primarily shown that the Turkish secondary school education system does not sufficiently equip students with the essential writing knowledge and skills that they can transfer

and utilize in higher education. The findings indicate that, generally, in the Turkish education system, writing is not considered a means of learning but is rather regarded both by teachers and students as an end product for knowledge transferring or knowledge telling. The findings have shown that there exist problems with the implementations of curricula suggested by MONE for Turkish (L1) language courses and English (L2) courses. Although writing – both as a language skill and a means for communication of ideas – occupies an ample amount of space in the curricula suggested both for L1 and L2 courses of different grades, the findings disclosed an incompatibility between what is suggested by MONE and what is implemented in actual practice in classrooms. Students have reported that they had received a very limited amount of L1 writing instruction in Turkish language courses, which for the most part was very repetitive, inexplicit and superficial. For English language courses, most students, particularly those who had studied in state schools, reported that they had received no L2 writing instruction at all. Correlating with the inadequate amount and nature of L1 and L2 writing instruction, the findings demonstrated that students practiced a very restricted amount of L1 and L2 writing in their respective courses.

Students more often produced written texts in their Turkish (L1) courses compared to their English (L2) courses. Yet students' L1 writing practices did not provide them with a sufficient amount of writing knowledge and experience that they could employ in producing their L2 academic texts for three main reasons. First, students had imprecise knowledge about how they should be constructing the main parts of their compositions and what sorts of strategies they should be exercising to support their ideas. Second, students did not experience L1 writing as a process because they were mainly producing L1 texts either during class hours or in exams.

Thus, students did not have the opportunity to familiarize themselves with essential writing skills such as researching, planning, revising, and editing. Moreover, L1 teachers have seldom provided students with feedback, and the feedback mostly focused on form and the use of language rather than on the content and originality of ideas. Therefore, students did not have much chance to develop awareness about their individual writing abilities and how to effectively communicate their ideas. Third, the L1 texts that students produced required a minimal focus on content, organization of ideas, real personal meaning-making, and intellectual engagement since the topics they wrote about were cliché and repetitive, as expressed by student participants. For the very same reasons, students did not find these L1 writing tasks meaningful or useful to their learning. The findings indicate that neither students nor teachers attached importance to Turkish (L1) writing. Moreover, students reported that in their secondary school Turkish (L1) courses, the main focus was always on form, grammar and reading comprehension because these were the main items being tested in university entrance examinations.

The findings reveal significant points about the quality of English (L2) language instruction offered in Turkish secondary schools. Especially in state schools, English language teachers are apparently not attentive to the communicative function of foreign language teaching; they solely focus on teaching grammar. Although MONE emphasizes integration of the four language skills in foreign language instruction and the local course books are designed accordingly, the findings indicate that teachers mostly cover grammar subjects in their English (L2) classes. The findings have shown that among the four language skills, writing is the least emphasized one in English language classrooms. Most student participants reported that their English language teachers did not implement writing tasks that

were available in their course books. Large class sizes were put forward as the main reason for neglecting and skipping writing tasks. Only a small number of student participants practiced L2 writing through controlled writing tasks, particularly in the ninth grade of secondary school education. Student participants who studied in private schools wrote essays in L2 mostly as part of their exams; however they did not receive systematic L2 writing instruction. The findings also show that English language courses are mainly exam-oriented and test-driven, especially during the last three years of secondary school education. The findings suggest that both secondary school students and teachers consider preparation for the university entrance examination as the utmost important goal in secondary school education.

The amount and nature of secondary school L1 and L2 writing instruction and writing practice constitute the main component of educational factors influencing students' academic writing practices at university. The findings demonstrate that students who are not equipped with necessary amount of writing knowledge and writing practice experience difficulties in navigating their learning at university. Particularly at the initial phases of university education, a lack of writing knowledge and practice causes anxiety and a loss of self-esteem. On the other hand, the data obtained from two student participants who had received systematic L1 and L2 writing instruction and practiced L1 and L2 writing show that previous writing experience exerts a positive transfer and influence on students' academic writing practices.

Preparatory school L2/academic writing instruction is found to be another important component of educational factors. Student participants who had studied in a one-year preparatory English program reported that preparatory school was particularly useful for developing academic literacy skills and providing a smoother

transition to university education. The findings indicate that students studying in one-year preparatory school have a lesser degree of difficulty with undergraduate academic writing compared to those who start the undergraduate program directly. Despite students' overall satisfaction with preparatory school L2/academic writing instruction, there is one remarkable finding that requires further investigation. Even if they received explicit and systematic L2 academic writing instruction and practiced essay writing in English, some student participants still had major difficulties with academic writing when they started the undergraduate program. Students' main writing difficulties apparently stem from the discrepancies between the writing instruction in preparatory school and the demands of writing in the undergraduate program. Academic writing knowledge that students gain in preparatory school remains too generic for the discipline-specific type of writing that is required by the department.

The findings related to educational factors also reveal that both secondary school and preparatory school education do not endow students with the research and critical thinking skills that are highly considered to be essential skills for academic writing. Students find themselves in deprived positions as they cannot initially demonstrate the set of skills that are required by their academic disciplines. All these educational factors are found to affect the quality of written assignments that students produce in their undergraduate programs. The findings suggest that, in terms of their academic writing practices, student participants had particular difficulty in text generating – i.e. planning their writing, conceiving argumentation, generating ideas, and presenting ideas in an organized way. Educational factors, which pertain to students' previous schooling and writing experiences, also influenced how student participants perceived contextual factors.

One of the most prevailing findings that pertain to contextual factors influencing students' academic writing practices is how university students conceptualize academic writing. The findings suggest that because students received their first systematic and formal writing instruction in English (L2) in an academic context, students conceptualize and define academic writing as a "rule-bound" system and a more "serious" way of communication of ideas. This conceptualization affects students' writing practices in two ways. Adherence to the rules of academic writing and the use of an academic register were perceived to hinder students' flexibility and fluency in communicating their ideas and conveying their intended meanings. Moreover, students also reported that due to the rule-bound characteristics of L2 academic writing, they constantly found themselves in need of checking the surface structures and organization of their ideas. This feeling sometimes caused them to develop reluctant attitudes toward academic writing. Adhering to the rules of academic writing, on the other hand, was also perceived to serve as a framework for students' writing since it provides students with guidelines to follow in their writing processes. Students found filtering, organizing, and presenting their ideas much easier when they were fully aware of what they should be doing in each step of their writing processes. Moreover, the findings suggest that Turkish university students consider the rules of academic writing as the only norm to produce acceptable texts in English since previous L2 writing practices of many students are quite limited in amount and nature.

New ways of writing and academic disciplinary-specific text genres also influence students' academic writing practices. The findings have shown that moving from one educational context to another (i.e. from secondary school to university) or moving from one form of curriculum to another compounds the challenges students

encounter in approximating their acquired literacy skills to requirements of academic literacy. The findings also demonstrate that students' attitudes toward disciplinary-specific text genres correlate with their motivations to produce these texts and consequently influence their writing practices. In the context of the study, students are expected to produce the following text genres: argumentative essays, reflection essays, reviews, response/reaction papers, research papers, and short stories. The findings indicate that of these text genres, students find writing reviews, reflection essays, and short stories easier to write compared to other text genres. The reason is that these texts genres do not require much research or generation of original ideas and to a certain extent students can be liberated from the rules of academic writing (See Table 26). Some students find writing essays and research papers difficult as these two text genres require research, extensive reading, generation of original ideas and argumentation, and adherence to academic writing rules. Some other students, on the other hand, prefer essays and research papers since they can conceive their own argumentation and write about their own area of interests. Students hold distinct attitudes toward response papers. Some student participants reported that they enjoyed writing response papers because response paper writing provides one with ready ideas and it stimulates critical thinking whereas some other participants pointed out the difficulty they had with response papers since response paper writing requires too much reading, critical thinking, and personal interpretation. These findings suggest that while for one group of students academic writing is a means of meaning making and an aid to navigating their learning, for another group of students academic writing is a task that they compulsorily complete for their academic achievements. In other words, some students regard academic writing as a

personal investment whereas some students consider academic writing only in practical terms.

In addition to the requirements of academic discourse, students' academic writing practices are influenced by two more contextual factors: prolonged engagement in the academic context and expectations of subject tutors. The findings indicate that freshman year students in particular undergo identity-related challenges at the initial phases of their university education due to high expectations of subject tutors and the new learning and writing requirements of the academic context. These kinds of challenges, as might be expected, reflect on their writing practices as explained earlier. The findings reveal that when students get acculturated with the institutional and disciplinary context and become more involved in academic discourse through consistent writing practice and exposure to academic texts, they become more fluent and self-confident writers of English. Moreover, they start to employ their evolving repertoire of writing knowledge more appropriately, purposefully and with ease while producing their academic texts. The reason is that over the course of time they develop awareness about the requirements of the academic-disciplinary area and expectations of their subject tutors (i.e. faculty members).

The findings have shown that students' initial anxieties and insecurities about academic writing are in time replaced by the writing strategies they develop in accordance with the expectations of subject tutors. The feedback received from the subject tutors in response to their written assignments can be disheartening for students, particularly at initial phases of their undergraduate studies. Distinctive writing requirements of a variety of courses and correspondingly expectations of different subjects tutors put students into a perplexing situation. Student participants

reported that they had difficulties with regulating their writing practices at initial phases because subject tutors did not transparently articulate their expectations. Another difficulty students experienced in relation to their writing practices at initial phases is found to stem from the disparities and lack of consensus among the form of feedback provided by distinct subject tutors. However, as mentioned above, the findings have demonstrated that in time students learn to use feedback as a means to understand the expectations of the subject tutors and they start to modify their writing accordingly. A final contextual factor that influences students' writing practices is the number of written homework assigned by different subject tutors with close due dates; the deadlines are found to create pressure on students' writing practices. This leads students to develop reluctant attitudes toward their written assignments.

Finally, the findings of the study provided evidence for potential impacts of teachers' conceptualizations of academic writing on students' writing practices. To gain a deeper understanding about the underlying factors that shape students' perceptions about academic writing, incorporating teacher participants into the study was important for two main reasons. First, teachers and students are the main stakeholders of learning and writing, and second teachers are the only audience of the students' writing. The teachers (i.e. secondary school teachers, preparatory school teachers, and faculty members) that students meet in different levels of their educational timeline may attach different degrees of value and importance to writing. Teachers' attitudes toward writing directly or indirectly affect that of the students. Investigating these different groups of teachers' conceptualizations about academic writing provided significant insights for interpretation of the findings. The findings of the study that unfold teachers' conceptualizations of academic/writing were not

used to explain how these directly influenced students' academic writing practices. These findings, rather, provided verification for students' perceptions and accounts. Teachers' individual conceptualizations of academic writing exert influence on how they teach writing, and what they value and evaluate in students' written texts. What teachers expect from students' writing and what they consider to be problematic in students' writing affect the forms of feedback they provide. All these, in return, influence students' own conceptualizations of academic writing, the strategies they employ in writing, and consequently their academic writing practices.

The contribution of this study to academic writing literature is threefold. First, to the best of my knowledge, it is the first study to explore Turkish undergraduate university students' academic writing practices from their own perspectives. Second, the study aimed to draw a complete picture of the writing situation in the Turkish education system by combining students' past writing experiences in secondary school with their academic writing experiences at the tertiary level of education. Finally, the study entirely adopted a qualitative research design as it aimed to understand the academic writing situation in a way that it is experienced and perceived by the participants of local academic writing context. The study; therefore, points to important theoretical and pedagogical questions that may not otherwise have been raised.

5.2 Implications of the study

The study suggests both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretical implications of the study reflect a synthesis of fundamental understandings of the two theoretical frameworks adopted in the study: sociocultural theory and academic literacies approach.

Sociocultural theory highlights the importance of the sociocultural capital that students bring to any learning context. Ivanič (1998) argues that "writing is not some neutral activity which we learn just like a physical skill, but it implicates every fibre of the writer's multifaceted being" (p.181). She further states that all our writing is influenced by our life histories; each word we write represents an encounter, possibly a struggle, between our multiple past experience and the demands of the new context. Considering the purpose of this study and its findings, it is important to understand and conceptualize any writing situation from this perspective.

The academic literacies approach views academic writing as a social practice and emphasizes that writing should not be considered with a simplistic view as a set of automatized skills that can be learnt through generic writing courses and then be skillfully transferred and employed in any other academic context. The academic literacies approach acknowledges the importance of contextual culture, learner identity, and discourse and genre characteristics of diverse academic disciplines. The findings of the study suggest that all the parties involved in academic writing should reconsider academic writing from the factors highlighted by the academic literacies approach. This study supports the importance of understanding students' academic writing practices from an array of interrelated educational and contextual factors. It

should be noted that students' present writing practices are affected by their past, and their future anxieties affect their present written work. Tustig (2000) maintains, "the past and future are emergent in the present; and in the same way, literacy practices are emergent and constructed in present events" (p. 39). She further states that constructions of how literacy practices have been in the past and how they will be in the future are subject to change as the present evolves. Therefore, academic writing practices of students should be perceived as a dynamic event. Making judgments about the quality and characteristics of students' writing only through text analyses would not yield absolute results and comprehensive understanding of students' writing. Researchers, language teachers, and university professors are asked to evaluate academic writing texts and practices of students from wider perspectives before arriving at conclusions about students' writing and attributing students' writing difficulties to linguistics and skills-based deficiencies.

In line with the theoretical implications suggested above, practical implications of the study are as follows:

- There is a need to reconceptualize the local educational value attached to writing. Secondary school Turkish (L1) and English (L2) teachers should make writing tasks more meaningful for students by modifying their own approaches to the teaching of writing. It is desirable for teachers to situate writing as a means by which students can navigate and externalize their learning. The topics assigned for the writing tasks should stimulate thinking and research in the age of the Internet. Teachers should evaluate and assess students' written work focusing on the content, originality of the ideas and organizational patterns as well as on the use of language and format. In order to maintain these, secondary school teachers can be

informed about how the writing difficulties students encounter at the tertiary level of education affect students' academic achievements. Considering that writing is as a dynamic and evolving skill, systematic and explicit L1 and L2 writing instruction should be integrated starting from the early periods of primary and secondary school education.

- English language teachers working in secondary schools should be informed about how important it is for learners – particularly for those who will study at English-medium universities or programs – to develop the four language skills prior to university education. It is desirable for language teachers to comprehend the learning objectives of curricula suggested by MONE and implement the curricula as articulated without neglecting or skipping certain parts that focus particularly on the communicative function of the language including practice of the four language skills.
- The findings of the study have shown that particularly the last three years of secondary school education the main focus of both teachers and students is preparation for university entrance examinations. In the Turkish education system, similar to some other EFL settings (i.e. Japan, China, and Korea), the importance of university entrance examinations is undeniable for a secondary school student. Many students consider doing things other than preparing for the university entrance examination as a burden. At this point, teachers should take the responsibility to raise students' awareness about in which ways students can utilize the skills they gain in secondary school at university.

- The findings have shown that there is a need to align the academic writing instruction provided in preparatory schools with the writing requirements of particular academic disciplines. In preparatory schools, it is suggested that students be grouped according to their major programs, and trained in acquiring the academic writing knowledge and genres that are specific to their disciplines. Rather than acquiring generic academic writing skills, students should gain academic writing practice in accordance with the type of writing that they will be doing in their undergraduate courses. Academic writing courses, if any, offered in undergraduate programs should adopt the same approach. Coordination or even collaboration between preparatory school and academic departments within the same HE institution is also highly important.
- It can also be suggested that in preparatory schools, English language teachers who hold MA or PhD degrees are preferred or employed to teach academic writing courses, as they might have a sufficient amount of academic writing knowledge and experience.
- The study highlighted the difficulties university students experience in relation to learning and writing that stem from inexplicit and inconsistent expectations of faculty members (i.e. subject tutors) in academic disciplines. The findings indicated that students lose time until they fully understand what is being expected of them in their academic disciplines. It is suggested that faculty members do not take students' readiness for academic studies for granted, and therefore faculty members should clearly and transparently articulate what they expect from students. In order to prevent students' confusions stemming from inconsistent

expectations, faculty members within the same academic department need to collaborate with each other, and reach a consensus in defining common goals and expectations and consistent assessment and feedback criteria. Moreover, subject tutors teaching the same year of students are suggested to cooperate with one other for the deadlines they set for written assignments.

- The study revealed a number of problems that faculty members detect with students' writing skills. It is suggested that faculty members should not distance themselves from improving students' writing, simply leaving all the responsibility on subject tutors who teach academic writing courses, or complaining about the shortcomings of preparatory school and students' low level of language proficiency and lack of academic literacy skills. It is desirable for each subject tutor in academic departments to get more involved in students' writing, take the responsibility of modeling to students the ways of producing discipline-specific text genres, and provide constructive feedback. Students could be more willingly and self-confidently engaged with academic writing if they are ensured that writing is a complex social act and that it is not their weakness or deficiency hindering them from producing academically acceptable texts.
- In teacher education programs, courses specifically designed for equipping pre-service teachers with the knowledge of teaching L2 reading and writing skills should place particular emphasis on teaching of academic writing. This can be maintained by: (1) making pre-service teachers reflect on their conceptualizations of academic writing, (2)

raising pre-service teachers' awareness about research on academic literacies, and (3) encouraging pre-service teachers to develop a critical stance in their evaluation and implementations of course books or materials designed for teaching academic writing.

5.3 Limitations of the study

The study provided comprehensive data and rich insights about potential factors that influence Turkish university students' academic writing practices from a variety of angles, particularly from students' own perspectives. However, the findings of the study should be interpreted with its limitations:

- The data of the study are obtained from nineteen Turkish undergraduate students, three English language teachers, and six faculty members. The setting of the study is the department of English language and literature of a foundation university in Turkey. The findings may not represent academic writing practices and perceptions of all undergraduate students. The findings of the study may not provide an accurate representation of the academic writing situation experienced in other academic disciplines and in other higher education contexts in Turkey. Therefore, findings may vary if the study is replicated in different higher education contexts and in different academic disciplines – even within the same HE institution and with different samples.

- The main data collection methods employed in the study are confined to questionnaires, interviews (i.e. semi-structured, stimulated recall, and focus group interviews) and document analyses. Employing other data collection methods of qualitative inquiry could provide further insights. My presence both as the interviewer/researcher and an academic staff member might have impacted the responses of student participants to a certain extent. The data sets obtained through the abovementioned methods are entirely self-reported and interpreted, which can raise questions about the reliability of the data (see Chapter 3 for Trustworthiness of the Study).
- The student participants of the study are composed of twelve freshman year and seven senior year students of the corresponding year of data collection. A longitudinal study conducted with the same group of participants both in their freshman and senior years of undergraduate study could yield a more complete picture of the processes of student participants' academic writing development.
- The findings of the study were also bound by the timing of the data collection. The findings may vary if the study is replicated within the same context with similar groups of student and teacher participants.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

Based on the findings and abovementioned limitations of the study, some suggestions can be made for future research:

- Similar research conducted in different academic disciplines and HE institutions would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the academic writing situation in Turkish universities.
- Research investigating the effects of Turkish L1 literacy on English L2 literacy could expand its dimension to L2 academic literacy.
- Research investigating how Turkish teachers' conceptualizations of writing and approaches to teaching writing influence students' writing practices in a more detailed way would contribute to the field.
- Considering the lengthy process of writing development, longitudinal studies are needed to investigate academic writing development and practices of the same group of undergraduate students' during their undergraduate studies.
- Research investigating the interplay between academic identities and teaching approaches of university subject tutors would yield important results to gain deeper insights about the teaching and learning situations in HE institutions.

5.5 Personal concluding remarks

As I have mentioned from the very beginning, writing a doctoral dissertation is a long, sometimes lonely, compelling, and very rewarding journey. During the process of writing this dissertation, I experienced both the challenges and opportunities that qualitative inquiry brings to a researcher. I spent the last three years of my life

constantly having my research questions and my data on my mind. I revised the purpose of the study, modified and altered my research questions, the sampling, and the data collection methods a few times; I experienced the "emergent design" characteristics of qualitative research to the fullest extent. This experience has provided me with invaluable insights while I was trying to make sense of my data. Analyzing the data and building connections between the findings were the most exhausting, at times daunting, yet very exciting phases of this journey. I am completing the writing of this dissertation approximately two years after my data collection. However, I unreservedly believe both my research and I needed this maturation process to be able to make sense of the data as presented. All these phases not only contributed to my researcher identity but also to my professional identity.

As I had been teaching academic writing to undergraduate students for the last ten years, while conducting this research I had the chance to reflect on my teaching style, enhance my theoretical and content knowledge, and develop newer teaching approaches. I developed profound understanding of my students' challenges with academic writing; at times I soothed their worries and fears. Even two years after my data collection, I observed that diverse groups of students were encountering similar sorts of challenges due to similar reasons. I also tried to inform my colleagues about students' conceivable difficulties with academic writing, and suggested to them ways of approaching students and their writing.

Over the few past years, I experienced fluctuating emotions, a fair share of ups and downs. My overall experience with the PhD program and dissertation writing was very instructive, illuminating, and rewarding. It was worth all the while.

APPENDIX A

EXCERPTS IN TURKISH

1. FS2: Yazım teknikleri konusunda hiç öyle bilgiler verilmedi ortaokulda.

2. FS8: Paragraflar konusunda bilgi verilirdi, tarih nereye atılacak, başlık falan öyle şeyler.

3. FS9: Yok hayır, düz lisenin işte eksiklikleri bunlar. Giriş- gelişme- sonuç haricinde bir şey bilmezdik.

4. FS11: Burada writing derslerinde olduğu gibi ayrıntılı anlatmıyorlardı. Ama yine de belli başlı şeyler söylüyorlardı, mesela nereye imza atılır, konu nasıl seçilir.

5. FS10: Liseden çok bir şey hatırlamıyorum, giriş-gelişme-sonuç. Girişte ne yapacağınızı anlatın, gelişmede örneklerinizi anlatın, sonuçta da özetleyin.

6. FS8: Yazma adına, bir ara hikâye yazmıştık. Özet çok yazıyorduk, genelde hikâyelerin ya da romanların. Kompozisyon konuları genelde Atatürk, özel günler veya vatan sevgisi oluyordu. Atatürk konusu baya bir baskın oluyordu ilkokuldan beri. Ağdalı cümleler kuruyorduk.

7. FS6: Kompozisyonda hocalar sadece giriş- gelişme ve sonuç paragrafını vurgularlardı. Ben buraya gelince bir sürü kural öğrendim. Türkçe derslerinde bize hiç böyle kurallar öğretilmedi mesela quotation kullanımı gibi. Şimdi üniversitedeki Türkçe derslerinde de lisedeki aynı şeyleri yapıyoruz. Ben lisede hiçbir şey öğrendiğimi düşünmüyorum. Öyle okuyucuyu ikna etmek falan olmazdı sadece yazdırıyorlardı ve yazım hatalarına dikkat ediliyordu, o kadar yani.

8. FS1: Yazma adına bir şey yapmıyorduk. Bazen kitap falan okuturdu bize, onların özetini isterdi. Ya da anı falan isterdi. Derinden bir kompozisyon yazmadık. İlk defa ben burada kafa yorup bir şeyler yazdım.

9. FS10: Lisede çok fazla yazmıyorduk. Kompozisyonlarda da daha çok yarışmalarda olan konular oluyordu; 23 Nisan, Atatürk'ün hayatı, o tarz kalıplaşmış şeyler oluyordu. Eğitim sistemimizin doğruluğu, eğitim sistemi, Atatürk'ün hayatı.

10. FS9: Genelde akademik yazma değil de hep dilbilgisi üzerineydi. Cümle yapıları, kelime yapıları daha çok her şey gramer üzerineydi. Hiç akademik yazma ile ilgili bir şey yapmadık. Onun dışında zaten bildiğiniz gibi düz liselerde eğitim çok iyi olmadığı için yarısı da boştu derslerimizin. O yüzden çok sağlam bir donanımım yok. Hiç biz kompozisyon falan yazmadık. Edebiyatta da dil anlatımında da eser ve yazar üzerinden gittik, geçmiş eserler ve yazarlar, hep onlar üzerinden gittik. Yazdığımızda da bir paragrafı geçmiyordu, o da eser hakkında oluyordu. Hiç öyle 2 -3 paragraflık kompozisyon falan yazmadık sınavlarda. Genelde parçanın ana teması nedir, yazar burada ne demek istiyor gibi şeyler hakkında paragraflık cevaplar yazıyorduk.

11. FS2: Kompozisyon yazardık genellikle, özellikle ortaokuldaki Türkçe derslerimizin sınavları 100 puansa 30 puanını kompozisyonlar oluştururdu. Onlarda da belli bir düzende yazayım diye düşünmezdim ama genelde sadece yazardım aklımda ne varsa. Genelde o sınavlardan da 30 üzerinden 27 ya da 28 alırdım. Genelde yazdıklarımı beğenirlerdi o zaman. Genelde konular gezi yazıları ya da bizi etkileyen anılarımız hakkında olurdu.

12. FS7: Kompozisyon yazardık her sınavda ve edebiyat derslerinde. Ben edebiyatı çok seviyordum zaten. Belli kelimeler verirdi öğretmenimiz ve o kelimeleri kullanarak bir hikâye yazardık, hikâye çok yazardık, ya da anı tarzı hikâyeler yazardık. Onun dışında tartışma konularında da yazardık, mesela belli bir konu verirdi; katılıyor musunuz katılmıyor musunuz diye. Kitap özetleri de yazardık. Essaylerin konusu da genelde güncel konulardan olurdu, küreselleşme, teknoloji, medyadaki gelişmeler. Genelde direk yazıyorduk çok fazla bir araştırma yapmıyorduk. Sınıfta yazardık çünkü daha çok ev ödevi olarak verilmezdi.

13. FS11: Benim Türkçe derslerini çok sevmemin genel sebebi hocaların çok iyi olması ve denk gelmesinden kaynaklanıyordu. Ödevler de öyleydi. Genelde özet, kompozisyon ve günlük yazıyorduk. Günlük ödevim vardı mesela; bir proje ödevi, dönem ödevi gibi bir şeydi. Bir dönem boyunca her gün günlük yazıyorduk. Bir defteri böyle doldurmuştum, böyle günlük türünün de nasıl yazıldığını öyle öyle öğrenmiştim. Mesela her yaşadığınızı yazmıyorsunuz da bazı önemli olayların sizin üzerinizdeki etkisinden bahsediyorsunuz.

14. FS4: Lisede dilbilgisi gibi şeyler yapıyorduk ama öyle özel bir yazma çalışmasına yönelik bir şey yapmıyorduk. Sınavlarda zaten 45 dakikalık biz yazma olurdu, bir de araştırmalarımız olurdu. Özellikle 11 ve 12 senelerde hiç yazmadık çünkü genelde üniversite sınavına yönelik test yapıyorduk.

15. FS3: Bazı derslerde hocalar bize kitaplardan hikâyeler okuturdu, mesela Sait Faik Abasıyanık vs. Hikâyeler gösterirlerdi ama yine bunların içindeki dilbilgisi öğelerine ve ÖSS ye yönelik şeyler yaptırırlardı. Kompozisyonda da hoca ufak bir hikâye yazın derdi, içinde şu sıfatları ya da şu zamirleri barındıran şeyler olsun denirdi. Ama hep dilbilgisi, başka hiç yani.

16. FS7: Evet, kâğıtlarımızı geri dağıttıklarında hatalarımızı söylerlerdi ama bizim tekrar düzeltip verme şansımız olmuyordu. Lise öğretmenleri çok fazla eğitimde fikirleri doğru tutmuş musun falan onlara pek dikkat etmiyorlar, bir de biz 55 kişiydik, hoca da tabii nasıl okusun hepsini.

17. SS3: Dil olarak, daha formal bir kullanılması anlamında. Giriş- gelişme- sonuç önemliydi. Bunların nasıl olması gerektiği konusunda genel bir bilgi verilirdi; girişte konuyu açıklayın, gelişmede örnekler kullanın, sonuçta da konuyu bağlayın şeklinde.

18. SS7: Bazen konuyla ilgili bir makale bulun ve görüşlerinizi destekleyin falan derdi hoca ama hiç buradaki gibi olmazdı. Ben burada gerçek yazma eğitimini aldım. Yazardık lisede ama genelde ön şeyler öğretilirdi; giriş-gelişme-sonuç olacak. Sonuç girişten kısa olacak. Klasik şeyler. Girişte neler olması gerekir falan.

19. SS4: Yani kimse bize konuyla ilgili bir fikir ortaya at ve onu destekle tarzında bir şey söylemiyordu. Bunu açıklayın diyorlardı sadece. Yani bizim o konular hakkında nasıl yazmamız gerektiği konusunda hiçbir fikrimiz yoktu genelde. Kompozisyon yaz, açıkla atasözünü, giriş- gelişme – sonuç (serim-bağlam- düğüm) kullan. O kadardı. Ve bunları çok basit şekilde anlatıyorlardı. Mesela giriş şu kadar uzunlukta olacak , gelişme tabii ki daha uzun olacak, sonuç da girişe yakın kelime sayısında olacak diyorlardı. Aslında hocalarımız iyiydi, bu çok fazla hocalardan kaynaklanmıyordu belki de, donanımlı hocalardı. Ama bence müfredatta iş yok, basit bir şekilde müfredatı uyguluyordu. Oysa ki hocamız doktora yapıyordu.

20. SS2: Özellikle düşünce tarzı, ya da bir alıntı cümlesiyle başlama olsun, okuyucunun dikkatini nasıl çekeriz tarzında durumlar açısından Türkçe derslerinin çok faydası oldu. Hocamız ilk başta nasıl yazmamız gerektiğini anlatmıştı ve bazı örnekler göstermişti.

Ama hazırlıktan sonra İstanbul'a geldiğimde buradaki lisemde daha çok dilbilgisi üzerine ve ders kitaplarında kısa metinler veya hikayeler üzerine olan alıştırmaları yapıyorduk. Sadece ben İzmir'de öyle bir eğitim aldım.

21. SS3: Aslında sınavlar için bazen işte kısa cevap nasıl yazılır, şunu çıkarabiliriz şunu bulabiliriz şeklinde böyle şeylere yöneldik daha çok. Arada sırada kompozisyon yazdık ama onlar da yeterli olmadı.

22. SS5: Kompozisyon dersi vardı haftada bir. Ne hakkında yazdığımızı hatırlamıyorum ama çok basit konular olurdu, genelde laf olsun diye yazardık: sonbahar, 23 nisan, öğretmenler günü vs. Bana bir katkısı olduğunu sanmıyorum.

23. SS7: Derslerde klasik okumalar, metinler olurdu. Onlar üzerine yazardık, sorular cevaplardık. Sınıf ilerledikçe eski edebiyat falan okurduk. Kompozisyon dersleri olurdu, çeşitli konularda yazardık. Klasik konular olurdu genelde.,

24. SS4: Aslında birçok şey yapıyorduk, bir şair işliyoruz onun hayatını da öğreniyoruz, bir ders iki ders bir hece ölçüsünü de öğreniyoruz, bir sürü dilbilgisi konusu işliyoruz ama kompozisyon yazdığımız da oluyordu, o da şöyle söyleyeyim, birinci sınıfta mesela Türkçe bir deyim, atasözü ya da özlü bir söz veriyorlardı. Mesela "dil bil kültürdür" diye bir cümleye hoca katılıp katılmadığımızı soruyordu. İkinci sınıfta hocamız bizi daha serbest bırakıyordu yazı konusunda, hikâyeler yazıyorduk. Lisede çok argumentative essay yazmadık biz.

25. SS6: Genelde okuma parçasının ana fikrini ve temasını bulurduk. Özetler yazardık, mesela bir parçanın özetini şuradan şuraya kadar çıkartın. Ben gerçekten lisede çok bir eğitim aldığıma inanmıyorum. Kompozisyon konuları ise Atatürk, özel gün ve haftalar, deyimler. Bir kez ortaokulda hoca "bana arkadaşını söyle, sana kim olduğunu söyleyeyim" sözünü açıklayan bir kompozisyon yazmamızı istemişti. Ben daha o zamanlar bırakın bu konuda yazmayı, bu düşünceyi açıklayan bir şeyi bile o an kafamda kuramamıştım ve yazdığımla 0 almıştım. Çok sıkılıyordum. Genelde yazdıklarımız hep bir sene öncekinin tekrarı gibi bir şey oluyordu. Hep bir önceki senede yazdıklarımı kullanarak devam ediyordum.

26. SS4: Kompozisyonlarımıza bir puan verilirdi ama buradaki kadar detaylı bir feedback almıyorduk. Puan yazıp veriyorlardı. Gramer ve dil kullanımına, yaratıcılığa özellikle hikayelerde ve el yazısının güzelliğine çok dikkat ediyorlardı.

27. SS7: hocalar lisede feedback vermezlerdi, notumuzu alırdık. Sınıfta okurduk kompozisyonlarımızı, hoca genel bir comment yapardı sınıfta; şurası güzel olmuş burasına dikkat diye. Ama burada bizdeki gibi kelime kelime bir düzeltme olmazdı.

28. SS3: Çok sevdiğimiz bir edebiyat hocamız vardı. Klasik bir hoca değildi; bize sınavda kompozisyon soracağı zaman "kendinizi bir ayakkabı bağcığı olarak düşünün ve bir gününüzü anlatın" derdi. Bize farklı bakış açıları gösterdiği için o hocamı çok seviyorum; üniversitede bana çok faydası oldu bunların. Mesela arkadaşlarım liselerde özet yazarken ya da bir atasözünü açıklarken biz daha çok yaratıcılığımızı geliştiren şeyler yapıyorduk. Hayal gücümüzü geniş tutabiliyorduk ve ben bunun çok faydasını görüyorum şimdi.

29. FS10: Lisede daha çok 9. Sınıfta yazıyorduk, sınavlarımızda writing bölümü oluyordu ya da ödev veriyorlardı, mesela ünlü birini seçmek ve onu hayatıyla ilgili yazmak gibi, ben çok aşırı seviyordum araştırmayı ve yazmayı.

30. FS4: Sınavlarımızda mutlaka ve mutlaka da writing olurdu. 45 dakikalık bir dersimizi ona ayırırdık. Writinglerde genelde iki veya üç şıklı bir soru olurdu, genelde onlardan seçip yazardık, genelde 10 puan alırdım en düşük. Ben lisede iyiydim, beğenirlerdi, genelde bir şey olunca hep bana yazdırırlardı. Konuları pek hatırlamıyorum ama genelde buradaki gibi konular olurdu.

31. FS6: İngilizce derslerinde essay yazıyorduk tabii, hatta thesis statement falan da vardı ama benim ne olduğu hakkında hiçbir fikrim yoktu.

32. FS7: 55 kişiydik, çok çok kötüydü o yüzden. 3 tane İngilizce öğretmenimiz vardı, bir tanesi çok katıydı gramer derslerine giriyordu, yine de en faydalısı oydu. Diğeri vocabulary dersine giriyordu ve test veriyordu sadece, hiç konuşmazdı; o adamın sesini bile duymazdık. Diğer bir öğretmenimiz de reading yapardık, okurduk ama çok verimsizdi. Ama İngilizce'de hiç writing yazmadık, yazdıysak da belki boşluk doldurmaktı.
33. FS11: Bir hocamız vardı, çok iyiydi ve çok güzel anlatıyordu her şeyi, hafta sonları mesela bizim için kurslar falan düzenliyordu. Ama tabii ne olursa olsun o kadar kişilik bir sınıfta çok bir şey olmuyordu. Writing üzerine hiçbir şey yapmıyorduk. Kitabımız vardı ama sadece reading ve Listening yapıyorduk, o kadar. Bunun sebebi; o kadar kalabalık bir sınıfı kontrol etmek çok zor. Zaten Listening'de bile çok zorlanıyorduk. Bence bir de Writing'e zaman kalmıyordu. O kadar kişiye yazdıracaksın, sonra kontrol edeceksin, bir de feedback vereceksin çok iş. Bence hoca için çok zor bir şeydi, ben gayet normal karşılıyorum. Bir de bir tek bize girmiyordu, birçok sınıfa giriyordu.

34. FS9: Biz derslerimizi olduğu zaman da gramere ayırdık, sınav da gramer ağırlıklı olduğu için. Enterprise falan işledik, Kitaplar içinde hepsi vardı, listening, reading ve writing. Ama listeningde mesela fiziksel şartlar sebebiyle bir şey yapamıyorduk, hoca ancak teybi bulursa yapabiliyorduk ya da izlemelik bir şey varsa projeksiyon çalışıyorsa yapıyorduk. Ama writing de bir şey yapmıyorduk, hoca bakıyordu burada işlememiz gereken gramer bu, bunu hızlıca yapalım ve gramere geçelim diyordu. Çok nadir bir şeyler yazıyorduk.

35. FS12: Üniversite sınavına yönelik hep çalışmalar yapıyorduk, daha çok gramer ve kelime bilgisine yönelik çalışıyorduk. Ama bu konularda da hocaları suçlamıyorum açıkçası Bizim okul düz liseydi sonra benim dönemimde Anadolu lisesi oldu ama hiçbir şey fark etmedi. Hocalar aynı kaldı, sistem müfredat hep aynı kaldı.

36. FS2: Neredeyse 4 sene boyunca İngilizce derslerimiz hep aynı öğretmen girdi ve genellikle aynı şeyler üzerine durdu. Sürekli tense ve gramer üzerinde durdu ve belli şeyleri değiştirmediği için bunların ben beni ilerletici bir etkisi olduğunu düşünmüyorum. Düşük seviyeli ders kitaplarımız vardı. Listenin aktivitesi hiç yoktu, orta seviyenin altında reading aktiviteleri vardı bu kitaplarda.

37. FS8: Writing adına, hikâye yazardık. Bir kez yazmıştım aslında. İngilizce dersleri çok iyi değildi, ama hocadan kaynaklı. Yanı bıkkınlık geliyordu bize. Kitapta writing bölümlerini pek yapmazdık. Tatil yeri olur, onu tavsiye falan edersin o kadar. Yazma çalışması yok denecek kadar az yapardık. Bazen nesli tükenmekte olan hayvanlar, sosyal medya, ünlü birinin geçmişi, bir filmin özeti, küresel ısınma, bu tarz konularda bir şeyler yazmışızdır, ama bunlar zaten o kitapta olan şeylerdi.

38. FS3: İngilizce açısından hiçbir şey görmedim. İkinci sınıfta bölüm seçiyoruz, o üç sene boyunca sürekli işte past tense, perfect tense, present tense, yani bunlar. Genelde derslerde boş bırakıyorlardı test çözelim diye

39. FS11: Sınıf 50 kişi yaklaşık, düz lise ve herkes ayrı bir âlemdi. ÖSS hazırlanma senesi, herkes test çözüp başka bir şey yapıyordu.

40. SS4: Gramer, listening, kısa kısa readingler yapardık ama writing hiç yapmadık. Okuma parçası okuyunca da sadece soru cevap yapardık.

41. SS7: Hazırlıkta yazı yazardık, mesela kitapta bir parça olurdu onun özetini yazmamızı isterdi ama makale olarak yazmazdık. Lisede sonraki yıllarda da olmadı.

42. SS3: Sadece hatırladığım lise hazırlığın sonunda bir ay kadar falan bir günlük tutmuştuk, ama zaten lise 2 ve lise 3te hep test üzerineydi; ya da mesela bir parça okurduk yine test üstünden burada bunu mu yoksa şunu demek istemiş şeklinde alıştırmalar yapardık.

43. SS2: Sınav sistemine göre hazırlıyorlardı, gramer ve daha çok reading, okuduğunu anlama üzerine oluyordu. Öğretmenler de müfredata göre gidiyorlar genellikle. Bazı arkadaşlarım mesela lisede bile Shakespeare okumuşlar ama ben okumadım; bizim hocalar tekdüze müfredat takip ederlerdi.

44. SS3: Writing hakkında hiç bir eğitim almadım. Hep bizi o zamanın YDS'sine göre hazırlarlardı. Coursebooklarımız vardı, ama onları genelde listening ve reading ağırlıklı kullanırdık. Bizden eve gidin şunu yazın tarzında şeyler istenmedi hiç.

45. SS4: Yabancı dil ağırlıklı bir liseydi ve hazırlıkta o gramerin temeli oluştu. Ama o zamanlar writing falan yapmadık çünkü sınıfımız 40 kişilikti ve herkes dil bölümü seçmeyecekti sonuçta. Gramer, listening, kısa kısa readingler yapardık ama writing hiç yapmadık.

46. SS7: Hazırlıkta Oxford'un coursebooklarını kullandık; ama o zaman da writing bölümlerini yapmazdık.

47. SS2: Genelde YDS düzeyinde çalıştırıyorlardı. Zaten basit İngilizce idi. Sınavlar da daha çok gramer üzerineydi, çoktan seçmeli olurdu sınavlar. ELS kitabını kullanıyorduk, biz set almıştık. Aslında içinde writing, listening falan da vardı ama biz daha çok YDS üzerine olan kısımlarını yapardık.

48. SS6:Mesela reading, writing, listening ve speaking tarzı derslerimiz vardı. Ama yine de sonradan bunları genelde test çözmek için kullanmaya başladık. Böyle reading, writing olan kitaplarımız vardı ama onları sadece müfettiş geldiğinde kullanırdık, sıranın altında hazır dururdu onlar.

49. SS5: Öğleden önce sabah 9'da hoca gelirdi sınıfa bize 100 soruluk deneme sınavı verirdi sonra da çıkıp giderdi. Sınav zaten 3 saatimizi aldığı için öğleye kadar siz yapın sonra ben gelirim cevapları veririm derdi. Biz zaten 7-8 kişiydik sınıfta. Testleri yapan yapardı, yapmayan da dışarlarda fink atardı. Lisede öğle bedavaya geçtik.

50. SS1: Bizim dört saat takviyeli İngilizce vardı ama o direk edebiyat dersiydi. Onlar çok sıkı geçiyordu. Sınıfta 6 kişi idik, hoca tek tek essaylerimizi sınıfta okuyup değerlendirirdi. Ya da herkeste ortak hatalar varsa onları powerpointte gösterirdi. Hiç bir essay hatırlamıyorum ki geri gelmiş olmasın, illa ki düzeltmeler gerekirdi ve biz baştan yazardık essaylerimizi. Takviyeli İngilizce sınavlarında da essay sorulurdu. Ya bir argumentative konu verirlerdi ya da bir quotation verirdi ve bunu açıkla derlerdi. Bizim okulda çok sıkılardı, burada yaptığım hataları lisede yapsaydım benim canıma okurlardı. Biz mesela her dönem bir oyun okurduk ve baya detaylı işlenirdi. Hata kabul etmezlerdi. Sen buradan çıkıp edebiyat okuyacağım diyorsan o zaman İngilizceyi iyi öğrenmelisin diyorlardı.

51. SS1: Ben o yüzden üniversiteye başladığımda bu sistemi garipsemedim, ama genelde sınıfta herkes "essay yazdım, geri geldi, bir daha yazmam lazım" tarzında şeyleri tuhaf buluyordu ama ben zaten onun öyle olması gerektiğini biliyordum.

52. HST:Tabii liselerde genelde gramer odaklı çalışıyoruz öğrencilerle.

53. HST:İlk hafta present simple tense yapmakla başlıyoruz. Diyelim ki present simple'ı öğrenci, kuralları biliyor ama benim buradaki hedefim ne, çocuğun bir günün anlatılbilmesi. İşte sabahları kalkarım, yüzümü yıkarım gibi; bunları bana söylemesi. Ama aynı zamanda bunları yazıya dökmesi de benim için çok önemli. O yüzden biz her ünitenin sonunda bulunan writing konularını mutlaka yazdırıyorum ve evde değerlendiriyorum. İki sınıfa giriyorum ben, belki 60 tane kağıt demek ama özellikle bakıyorum nasıl kullanmış dili diye; çünkü orada daha çok ortaya çıkıyor öğrenmiş mi öğrenmemiş mi diye. Çünkü benim verdiğim worksheetlerde yapabiliyor çocuk; cümle kurabiliyor ya da sorduğum genel sorulara cevap verebiliyor ama önemli olan arka arkaya bir paragraf halinde onları dile getirebiliyor mu? İşte orada daha çok ortaya çıkıyor.

54. HST:Bence iyi yazabilen bir öğrenci, aynı zamanda dile de hakimdir diye düşünüyorum. Belki kafasındakileri çok net açıklayamıyordur ama ne kadar iyi yazabiliyorsa bence o kadar dile hakimdir. Ben speaking'i çok etkilediğini düşünüyorum. O yüzden de önemli.

55. HST:Lisedeki öğretmenler writing kısımlarını atlıyorlar, yapmıyorlar. Neden atlıyorlar, çünkü ben çevremden de çok duyuyorum. Çünkü ben genelde teneffüslerde writing okurken bana senin başka işin gücün yok mu, neden uğraşıyorsun diyorlar. Çünkü devlet okulunda çok öğrencin oluyor, sadece bir grup sınıfa girmiyorsun. Bizi öğretmenlerimizde zaten çalışkanlık git gide yıldan yıla azalıyor, bu yüzden de uğraşmak istemiyorlar. Bence en çok atlanılan skill, writing. Çünkü hem vermesi zor. Çünkü command of English açısından; bir insanın writing öğretebilmesi için kendisinin dile çok hakim olması gerekir. Gramerle beraber creative olman lazım hem de çok iyi bir good comand lazım. Bence writing bu sebeplerden dolayı atlanıyor. Ya da diyelim writing'i verdi ama onun için öğrencinin cümlelerini düzeltmesi lazım. Bunun için de hem dile hem de yapılara çok hakim olması lazım. Çok yaratıcı olman lazım öğretmen olarak çünkü çocuk senden çok daha yaratıcı düşünebilir ve senin öğretmen olarak bunun üzerine koyabiliyor olman lazım.

56. FS2: İlk defa ders boyunca İngilizce konuşmaya başladım. Çünkü lisede derslerimizin neredeyse %96'sı Türkçe geçiyordu, sadece bazı alıştırmaları yaparken İngilizce ağzımızdan çıkıyordu. Burada daha challenging oldu her şey, gelişimime de çok katkısı olduğunu düşünüyorum, çünkü sırf İngilizceyi kullanarak kendini ifade edebilmek ve onunla uğraşmak insanda oldukça çok gelişime sebep oluyor. Ben hazırlığa gelene kadar essayin ne olduğunu bilmiyordum, burada öğrendim hazırlıkta.

57. FS1: Hazırlığın faydası oldu, ilk defa yazmakla orada tanıştım.

58. SS6: Yazma ile ilgili ben ne öğrendimse, hazırlıkta başladı her şey.

59. FS7: Not alma tekniklerinde ve yazmada çok faydası oldu. Hazırlıkta sürekli yazıyorduk ve hocalarımız çok ödev veriyordu, çok katkısı oldu. Gramer ve konuşma olarak çok katkısı olmadı ama writing ve reading skills de faydalı oldu.

60. FS3: Oraya başladığımda dediğim gibi hiçbir şey yazamıyordum, orda bize nerde nasıl yazılması gerektiği, işte cümlenin yapılarının nasıl açılması gerektiği, giriş gelişme

sonuç nasıl olur, nasıl topic sentence olur ve onlar nasıl açılır vs şeklinde bir altyapı oluştu.

61. SS7: Hazırlıkta çok iyiydi diyebilirim. Hocamız da sürekli teşvik ediyordu yazmaya ve bana sevdirdi yazmayı. Thesis statement, topic sentence ve tüm teknikleri burada öğrendik. Sınavda bize bir konu verildi ama ben nasıl yazmamız gerektiğini bilmiyordum. Writing'de sürekli hoca bize feedback verirdi, zorunlu tutmazdı bizi, siz ne zaman getirirseniz ben kontrol ederim derdi. Ben de her gün yazardım, götürürdüm. Ben çaba harcadım açıkçası yazmamı geliştirmek için. Çok iyi feedback verirdi.

62. FS12: Hazırlıkta aldığım eğitim de burada birtakım şeylere faydalı oluyor. Bazı şeylere daha alışkınım, neler yapmam gerektiğini biliyorum mesela transitions konusunda. Bunları bilmeyen biri mesela çok zorlanabilir burada bence.

63. SS2: İyi ki de okumuşum. Bence hazırlık çok iyiydi bana çok faydası oldu. En basitinden writing için çok iyi oldu benim için. Bir şeyleri bilerek geldim en azından bölüme; bu yüzden daha az zorlandım.

64. SS5: Ciddi ciddi giriş, thesis statement falan bunların hiç birini bilmiyordum ben. Sonradan hepsini hazırlıkta öğrendim. İlk thesis statement'ı ben hazırlıkta gördüm, ya da essay çeşitlerini veya fikirleri organize etmeyi. Orada öğrendiğim her şeyi şimdi yazdıklarımda tabii ki kullanıyorum.

65. FS5: Hazırlıkta öğrendiklerimin çoğu burada yanlış çıktı. Yani yanlış demeyelim de kullanım yerleri farklıydı. Hazırlıkta bizi yüklemeye başladılar ki bazı kısımları mesela, this paper will talk about this and that şeklinde başlamalısınız dediler, biz de şimdi o yüzden öyle yazıyoruz, ama mesela hocalaro tarz cümleler daha çok uzun researchlerde olur diyorlar.

66. FS11: Ben hazırlıkta bize katılan şey nedir bilmiyorum, orada da yazıyorduk ama bölüme gelince academic writing bambaşka bir şey. En ufak bir hataya yer olmaması gerekiyor. Burada çok şey öğrendik, alıntı yapmadan değişik yazma türlerine kadar. Bir de nasıl yazılacağını öğrendik en önemlisi araştırma yapılmadan yazılamayacağını öğrendik. Bütün bu tutuşmaları yaşadım aslında ben.

67. FS12: Bana bunlar yine kolay gelmişti hazırlıktayken, ama ben bölüme geçince işin aslında daha ciddi olduğunu anladım. O zamanlar çünkü yapıyorum herhâlde, hocalar da iyi puan veriyordu, iyiyim diye düşünüyordum yazma konusunda. Onların istedikleri şeye göre yapıyordum çünkü. Hazırlık sınavlarını öyle atlattım, buraya bir geldim o zaman öğrendiğim ve kullandığım İngilizcenin çok daha farklı olduğunu anladım. Hazırlıkta anlamamıştım ben onu, böyle bana daha çok lise devamı gibi gelmişti. Ben açık söyleyeyim. İlk sizin dersinizi gördüğümde ben bir şoka uğradım orda. Writing ile ilgili liseden de hiçbir şey bilmiyorum, o noktada işlerin hiç geçen sene (hazırlık) gibi olmayacağını anladım. Alışmaya başladım zamanla, alışınca da öğrenmeye başlıyorsun zaten. Önce durumu kabullenmek ve sevmek gerekiyor, sevince de yapmaya başlıyorsun zaten.

68. FS1: Ama mesela bize hazırlık ile burada öğretilen kurallar farklı, ben ikisi arasında bir bağlantı kuramıyorum pek. Keşke hazırlıkta bize özgü bir sınıf olsa.

69. SS2: Türk öğrencilerde bir tembellik var, önemsenmiyor ödevler, sadece sonunda not olduğu için önemseniyor. Hemen hemen herkes de okumadan internetten ödevleri yapıyorlar. Ya da zaten annesine babasına yaptırıyor ödevlerini. Okuldaki öğretmen de pek kontrol etmiyor.

70. SS4: Maalesef Türk öğrenciler olarak çok okumaya alışık değiliz. Böyle bir durumda da ne oluyor, bir şey üreteceği zaman kendi fikir üretemiyor ve gidip internete bakıyor. Bunun aslında çok sebebi var; ta ilkokula dönebiliriz bununla ilgili; eğitim sistemimizle ilgili aslında. O zamanlarda hep ezberci eğitim; kendi fikirlerini açıkla tarzında bir eğitim olmadığı için. Bizde hep herkes yerinde; olanı açıkla, olanı deftere geçir şeklinde her şey.

71. FS9: Türk öğrencisi ama önem vermiyor ama lise hocaları da önem vermiyor yazılanlara. Hoca için beş sayfa olsun, çizgisiz kağıt olsun, pilot kalemle yazsın. Bakıyor hoca ve onlar var ise tamam. O yüzden lisede öğrenciler ödevlerine önem vermiyorlar, internetten alıyorlar direk. Kendi lisemde de ona alıştım ve o şekilde geldik. Hoca bizim kendi fikrimiz olup olmadığına bakmazdı bile hiç öyle beklentileri yoktu bizden. Biz de ödev yazıp götürüyorduk.

72. FS5: Lisedeyken plagiarism çok yapıyorduk, ben bile kitabın özetini internetten alıp hocaya vermiştim çünkü okuyamamıştım kitabı ve 100 almıştım.

73. FS7: İlkokuldan beri ama alışmış olduğumuz bir şey; wikipedia'dan direk copy-paste. Ödevlerimizi hep öyle yapıyorduk; hatta kendi fikrimizi yazarsak yanlış olur düşüncesi ile yazmıyorduk bile. Ama bizim öğrenciler buna alıştığı için ve bugüne kadar hep böyle geldikleri ve hocalar da bir şey demedikleri için böyle olmuş.

74. SS6: Bizler pek düşünerek yazmaya alışmadık; bizim eğitim sistemi daha çok ezberciliğe dayandığı için düşünmemize fırsat kalmadı. O yüzden de başkasının düşüncesi benim fikrimi şekillendiriyor, ondan dolayı da plagiarisme eğilim oluyor açıkçası. Biz lisede hiçbir şey öğrenmiyoruz. Boş beyin gelmişiz buraya, çünkü lisede kopyala yapıştır yapıyorduk her seferinde.

75. FS7: Geçen sene hazırlıkta da yazarken alıyorduk internetten, karıştırıyorduk onları, harmanlıyorduk ve yazıyorduk bir şekilde. Introduction bir yerden, conlusion başka bir yerden; örnekler başka yerlerden.

76. SS4: Öğrenci daha ilkokulda alışmıyor ki bir şey üretmeye. Saçma sapan öğretmenler geliyor elinde defterle; artı eksi koyuyor. Tarih derslerinde öyle şeyler olur ya; Tarih kitabını deftere geçirirsiniz. Bilirse artı koyuyor bilemezse eksi koyuyor. Yazılılarda da hep bir ezber. Yani mesela, bir Türkçe sınavında şöyle bir soru olmaz; çocuklar herkes sevdiği bir kitabı ya da filmiz yazsın, sevdiğiniz bir karakterden bahsedin gibi bir şey olmaz. Böyle şeyler yazardık ama bundan asla not almazdık. Boş ders olarak görürdük böyle şeyleri. Bunları da böyle boş olarak gördüğünüz zaman, öğrenci için önem kapsamıyor. Onun için önemli olan şey ezber oluyor; boş bir ödev gibi oluyor. Ama aslında tam tersi; bu asıl ödev olsa ve öğrenci ondan not alacak olsa; mesela öğrenci ailesi ile gittiği bir hafta sonunu anlatsa ve ona not verilse. Ama öğrenci öyle bir korkutuşmuş ki hep ezber veriliyor. Not almak üzerine her şey bizim sistemimizde. Okuluna göre değişir tabii de. Üniversiteye de gelince öğrenci açıkçası böyle oluyor. Çünkü görmemiş ki. Şöyle bir şey olabilir mi? Avrupa'daki öğrenci zeki, Türk öğrencisi aptal. Böyle bir şey olamaz. Ama Avrupalı görüyor; onun çevresi öyle ailesi öyle. Daha ilkokuldan görüyor, çevresine bakıyor insanlar elini kaldırıp bir fikir söylüyor ya da yazıyor. Ama bizde öyle bir şey yok ki; 60 tane öğrenciyi diziyorlar sıraya hepsi böyle dut gibi oturuyorlar; hepsi birden çiçek oluyorlar. Öğretmen geliyor anlatıyor o kadar. Öğrenciyi cesaretlendirmiyorlar fikrini söyleyemiyor, üniversiteye gelince de böyle oluyor bence. Kolaya kaçıyoruz.

77. SS1: Ben aslında zaten yazı yazmayı seviyorum. Ama bir konu bulunması gerektiği zaman burada arkadaşlarım zorlanıyor. Ben de anlamıyorum lisede yazarken insan bu bölüme gelince nasıl yazamıyor. Genelde anladığım kadarıyla arkadaşlarım genelde hep

gramer öğrenmişler. Mesela kitap okuyorduk deyince orjinal miydi advanced miydi diye soruyorlar. Biz hep kitapları orjinal okuduk ve ben burada onun farkını görebiliyorum kendimde. Bir kitaba daha farklı bakabiliyorum. Çok faydası oldu o yüzden.

78. HST: Lisede, genelde gramer odaklı çalışıyoruz öğrencilerde. Ama bir öğrencinin öğrettiğimiz grameri kullanabileceği tek yer writing aslında. Bence iyi yazabilen bir öğrenci, aynı zamanda dile de hakimdir diye düşünüyorum.

79. PST1:Ben mesleğe ilk başladığım zaman writing'in bu kadar önemli olduğunun farkında değildim. Benim için önemli olan öğrencilerin dilin belli mekaniklerini anlayıp onu verilen herhangi bir egzersizde bildiğini göstermesiydi. Ya da production'da speaking daha önde geliyordu. Fakat üniversitede İngilizce öğretiyoruz ve öğrenciler bu İngilizce'yi fakültede daha çok derslerinde ve en çok da sınavlarında kullanıyorlar. O yüzden writing aslında bir çok şeyden önde geliyormuş, bunu fark ettim.

80. PST2: Writing bir üniversite öğrencisi için çok önemli. Çünkü yazabilmek demek oluyor ki öğrenci kafasındaki belli bir konu hakkındaki fikirleri doğru İngilizce yapılarını kullanarak belli bir organizasyonda kağıda geçirebiliyor

81. Excerpt 81 is as it is presented in the chapter. FM preferred to speak in English during the Interview.

82. HST: Akademik olduğu için hep bana üniversite ile alakalı gibi geliyor; bütün kurallara bağlı olarak yazmak herhalde. Kurallardan kasıt bize söylenilen essay çeşitleri; mesela comparsion and contrast essay nasıl yazılır, bunun bir takım kuralları vardır. Bu kurallara bağlı kalarak yazılması bir şeyin. Tabii bu benim söylediğim bir essay, bir de bunun tez yazma kısmı var, üniversitedeki hocaların beklentileri var, biraz daha geniş bir kavram. Bence amacına göre değişir. Bizim üniversitedeki writing derslerinde bize öğretiliyordu ve buna bağlı kalarak bir şeyler yazmamız bekleniyordu bizden. Bu farklı bir şey. Ama bir de bir doktorun veya bir öğretim görevlisinin bir konu hakkındaki fikrini yazarken yaptığı şey de farklıdır. Bunların toplamı herhalde.

83. PST1: Okuldaki hocalarımın hiç biri bana, evet şu sorunun cevabını comparison and contrast essay olarak ver bana diye sormadı. Bir soru sorulduğunda discuss deniyordu ve biz kendi tarzımızda tartışıyorduk. Ama aldığım academic writing derslerinde İngilizce'de yazacağımız her essay'in mutlaka bir thesis statement'ı ve topic sentence'ı olması gerektiği bize öğretildi. Bu durumda bir çelişki var; öğretilenle uygulanan arasında. Burada da yine aynı ikileme düşüyoruz. Kitapların vermeye çalıştığı farklı ama fakültedeki bölümlerde bilmiyorum ne gibi beklentiler var.

84. PST2: Academic writing aslında problematic olan bir şey.Bence bununla ilgili piyasadaki kitaplarda consensus yok. Birinci paragraph ikinci paragraph'ta şöyle olur deniyor. Ama burada genre'nın dışına çıkarak promptlar verilerek öğrenciye yazdırılması önemli. Mesela bizim üniversitede hazırlıkta essay yazma farklı – 3 paragraph essay; başka bir üniversitede 3 paragraph essay yok. Aslında hepsi argumentative ama her okul farklı şekilde yaklaşıyor, farklı kitaplar var bu alanda. Öğrenci diyelim İngilizce'si var ama bu genre'ya alışık olmadığı için fazla yansıtamayabilir. Bence form'a fazla önem vermeden, öğrenci tabii ki discuss edecek. Mesela Türkçe'de düşünceyi geliştirme yolları vardır; biz şu essay bu essay çeşiti demeyiz, aslında bir essay içinde bütün düşünceyi geliştirme yöntemlerini kullanarak (argumentative, comparison or contrast, for and against, classification) ya da bir kaçını daha yoğun olarak kullanarak kendi duygularını ifade edebilmeli. Aslında in my opinion akademik writing böyle olmalı diye düşünüyorum.

85. FM:Excerpt 85 is as it is presented in the chapter. FM preferred to speak in English during the Interview.

86. HST:Benim 9larda baktığım şey bizim verdiğimiz yapıyı doğru kullanıp kullanamaması. Ama dil sınıflarında yazdırdıklarımda iyi bir thesis statement yazıyor mu ona bakıyorum. Çünkü thesis statement eğer iyi ise subtopiclere bağlı olarak content ve organizasyon da iyi oluyor.Arkasından da somut örnekler kullanmış mı diye bakıyorum.Tabii kalıplara da bakıyorum ve tabii ki vocabulary usage da önemli.

87. PST1:Benim için önemli olan iyi örnek vermesi, fikrini iyi örneklerle desteklemesi.Önemli olan bana kendi düşüncesini olabildiğince net ve desteklenmiş bir şekilde aktarabilmesi.İyi akan bir essay görmek isterim ben. Gramerde muhakkak ufak tefek hatalar olacak ama essay'in gidişatını değiştiren gramer hataları varsa bu benim için well-written bir essay olmuyor. Onun dışında da formata çok takılmayan bir hocaymışım gibi konuştum ama sonuça advantage and disadvantage hakkında yazmasını istiyorsam o şekilde bir essay getirmesini beklerim.

88. PST2:Bence gramer olarak belli bir awareness'a gelememişse çocuk iyi bir essay yazması söylenemez. Belli bir gramer bilgisi, sağlam cümle yapıları olması lazım. Ama sadece gramer bilen bir insan da iyi bir essay yazamaz. Benim için en önemli şey ama concent. Örnekleri main idea ya uygun olmalı ve belli bir organizyonda yazmalı. Böyle yalın yalın birbirinden bağımsız, sadece iş olsun diye yazılmış cümleler değil de, kafası çalışan, birazcık zeki, zeka pırıltıları olan bir kişi olması lazım. Yazdığı şeyin okuyucu düşündürmesi lazım.

89. FM:Excerpt 89 is as it is presented in the chapter. FM preferred to speak in English during the Interview.

90. HST: Bence en büyük problemleri gramer. İyi yazamıyorlar çünkü gramerleri ve İngilizce seviyeleri çok düşük.

91. PST1:Buradaki öğrencilerin bir sürü fikri var ve akıllarına gelen her şeyi uçuşturuyorlar kağıtta. Takip etmek zor oluyor ve sonuçta biz bu essay'i bir fikri savunmak için yazdığımız için fikri olabildiğince iyi bir şekilde ifade etmesi önemli benim için. O yüzden text'in de akması lazım, fikirleri birbirine iyi bağlaması lazım, o yüzden en önemli olarak coherence dedim.Benim için ikinci önemli olan şey de essay formatına uyması. Ben ona comparison and contrast diyorsam, ya da discuss diyorsam ya da advantages and disadvantages diyorsam bu forma uymalı ve bu formların hepsinde bir thesis statement ve topic sentence olmalı; bunların hepsini arıyorum sadece bir tanesini değil. Ayrıca İngiliz'cede essay yazmak bize Türkçe'de öğretilenden farklı olduğu için, onun ayrımını yapabiliyor olduklarını görmek istiyorum. Çünkü biz bu eğitimi veriyoruz.

92. PST2: Buraya gelen öğrenci çok ilginç, coherence dediğimiz şey maalesef Türkçe yok gibi bir şey, buraya gelen öğrenci de thesis statement ya da coherence konusunda hiçbir şey bilmiyorlar. Öğrenciler genelde rastgele yazıyorlar, aralarında hiçbir bağlantı olmuyor bu cümlelerin. Ama İngilizce linear olduğu için işte topic sentence, controlling idea gibi bilgileri aldıktan sonar öğrencilerin yazması değişiyor ama tabii bu çok uzun zaman alıyor.

93. FM:Excerpt 93 is as it is presented in the chapter. FM preferred to speak in English during the Interview.

94. FS12: Essay yazmayı ben İngilizce 'de daha iyi öğrendim. Türkçe 'de kompozisyon tarzı biz çok yazmıyorduk. Küçük puanlar almak için yazdırıyordu hocalar, ama belli

kalıplarda yazıyorduk hep öyle çok farklı şeyler yazmıyorduk. Giriş gelişme sonuç ve hep aynı konular üzerinden yazıyorduk. Çok fazla düşünmeye yönelik şeyler yazmıyorduk.

95. FS10: Teknik olarak giriş-gelişme-sonuç yine aynı ama İngilizce düşünmek çok daha farklı. İngilizce' de tıkandığım nokta aslına bütün tekniklerine uygun yazmıyormuşum. Aslında normal yazdığımda gidiyor ama İngilizce yazdığım zaman onları birbirine bağlantılandırmak gerekiyor.

96. FS5: Ama İngilizce yazarken daha akıcı gidiyor konu. Yani ne yazacağımı biliyorum, mesela introduction'da ne yazacağımı biliyorum. Daha bir dikkat edebiliyorum yazdıklarıma. Ama Türkçe 'de öyle bir şey yok, bence Türkçe yazarken kimse dikkat etmiyor o kadar ne yazdığına. Coherence ve unity konusuna önem vermek gerekiyor.

97. FS11: Türkçe yazarken daha fazla mecaz veya etkileyici şeyler kullanabiliyorum ama İngilizce 'de bunu yapabilmeniz için çok iyi olmanız lazım. Çünkü İngilizce 'de ben hep şunu düşünüyorum, anlam net mi. Karşıdaki okuyucu anlayabiliyor mu?

98. FS8: Türkçe yazarken, içindekileri yazıya dökersin. Ama İngilizce yazarken şu şunu tamamen yansıyor mu diye sürekli sözlükten bakmak zorundasın.

99. FS9: Türkçe hep kendini tekrar eden bir şekilde yazılır ve sadece giriş- gelişme- sonuç önemlidir. Ama İngilizce daha farklı, daha akıcı olması lazım, konunun kendisini tekrar etmemesi lazım; o yüzden ikisi birbirinden çok farklı. Türkiye'de yaşadığımız için bence Türk insanı olarak çok duygusalız, böyle daha çok duygulara yönelik yazmayı seviyoruz, tekrarlayıp vurgu yapmayı seviyoruz. Ama İngilizce 'de duygu da var ama daha mantıklı.

100. FS12: Türkçe yazarken çok böyle okuyucuların duygularına kalbine yönelik yazıyoruz. Hocalar veya onların duygularına yönelik şeyler yazıyorduk. İngilizce 'de biraz daha formal, kendi düşüncelerini belli bir mantık çerçevesinde yazmak gerekiyor gibi geliyor bana. Ben kullanılan dile göre yazmanın değiştiğini düşünüyorum.

101. FS3: Türkçe düşünürken her cümlede bir duygusallık var, duygusallığa daha yakın oluyoruz. Ama İngilizce biraz beynin başka bir kısmını aktive ettiği için daha çok rasyonellik gerektiriyor; yani önce belirtileri yazıyoruz sonra onların bizim üzerinde etkisine giriyoruz.

102. FS4: Ben başta çok aşırı panik yaptım. Annem bile biliyor çok panik yaptım. İyi olmak istiyorum çünkü çok uğraşıyorum, geceleri ikilere üçlere kadar çalışıyorum. Araştırma yaptım. Essay yazarken kaynaklara dayalı mı yazayım, yoksa örnek yazsam nasıl örnekler kullanmalıyım, benim konumla çok alakalı olacak mı, böyle şeyler konusunda biraz tereddüdüm vardı. Çok panik yaptım yapamayacağım diye.

103. FS2: Pratik eksikliğinden biraz zorlanıyorum hala. Birinci dönemden bu zamana gelişmem gerektiği kadar geliştiğimi düşünmüyorum ama yine de bir fark var. Ama durduk yere bana bir şey yaz deyince ben yazamıyorum öyle. Çok korku veriyor bu durum bana. Böyle şey olsa bir gün önceden bir şey olsa ertesi gün sınav olsa daha rahat yazarım. Bunun tamamen pratik ile ilgisi var.

104. FS9: Ama özellikle writing derslerinde bazı şeyleri yeni yeni öğreniyorum. Çünkü ben sıfırdan başladım ve şimdi hata yapa yapa öğreniyorum. İlk başta çok gözüm korktu çünkü ben hiç bir şey bilmiyordum. Ama şimdi yavaş yavaş alışıyorum, mesela ilk başlarda hep Türkçe düşünerek yazıyordum ama şimdi biraz daha değişik.

105. FS11: Essay yazarken ama çok zorlanabiliyorum; çünkü essay yazarken birincisi genel kültürünüz olması lazım, her yönden konuya bakabiliyor ve ele alabiliyor olmanız lazım. Bilgin olmayınca neyi yazacaksın? Ben o zaman illa ki duraksıyorum ve geriliyorum. İlla bir şeyler araştırmam gerekiyor, çünkü kendi bilgim yok. Bunlarda da zorluk çekiyorum. Benim genel kültürüm çok zayıf, biliyorum.

106. FS7: Outline yapmak bana çok zor geldi, çünkü elemek gerekiyordu. Kafamda çok fazla şey vardı, neyi nereye koyacağım hangi quotation'ı nerede kullanacağım, o an bunları belirlemek benim için çok zor geldi. Çünkü akışına bırakamıyorsunuz o zaman. Biraz kurallı yazmak daha zor oldu, önceden organize etmek zor geldi bana.

107. FS12: Essay konusunu seçerken de özellikle bildiğim şeyleri seçmeye çalışıyorum, o zaman daha çok seviyorum. Bir de hep not alıyorum. Conclusion en kolay kısım zaten, ama en çok introduction ve essay de ne anlatmak istediğime takılıyorum en çok. Thesis çok zor, so what sorusunu sordurur mu diye düşünüyorum.

108. FS2: Heralde en zor aşaması belli bir konuyu seçmek. İlk baktığınızda hepsine birden bir yakınlık hissediyorsunuz ama konuyu seçtikten sonra onu biraz toparlamak ve daraltmak zor oluyor. Ondan sonra bir üst seviyeye geçerken, hani genelden özele doğru, o bağlantıları kurmak zor oluyor. Belli bir düzeni de korumak zor oluyor; konuyu karıştırmadan diğer başka detaylara geçebilmek zor oluyor. Açıkçası biraz kendimi kaybolmuş hissettim. Free writing olarak yazsaydım muhtemelen biraz daha az sıkılacağımı düşünüyorum ama yine de aynı şekilde kaybolurdum.

109. FS2: Essay biraz satrança kaçıyor gibi bence; çünkü beşinci paragrafı daha birinci paragrafı yazarken tasarlamanız gerekiyor. Bu biraz bence zor oluyor bazen. Essay de hep kurallar var; genelde onlara uyayım derken pek güzel şeyler çıkmıyor ortaya.

110. FS10: Aslında ben essay yazmak çok istiyorum, güzel yazayım diye. Ama hem fikir üretip hem onları birleştirebilmek çok mükemmel olurdu ama birinci dönem çok fazla zorlandım. Çünkü hiç bu açılardan düşünmemiştim. Yazıyordum ama direk yazıyordum, tekniğe dökmeye kalkınca çok zorlanıyordum. Benim dediğim gibi çok fazla fikir geliyor aklıma ve biz burada onları tekniğe aktarmayı görüyoruz, bunu yapabilirsem çok fazla yazabileceğimi düşünüyorum ama tekniğe aktarmakta şu anda zorlandığım için biraz fikirlerimi de tam olarak anlatamıyorum. O ikisini çözdüğüm zaman hem teknik güzel olacak iyi anlatabileceğim hem de fikirlerimi tama olarak aktarmış olacağım.

111. FS6: Aslında evet; en çok zorlandığım yer benim doğru kelimeleri kullanmak. Mesela aynı anlama gelen birkaç sözcük olabilir ama doğru olanı o cümlede kullanmak önemli.

112. FS2: Şu an kelime eksikliği çektiğimi düşünüyorum. Genellikle benim her zaman güçlü yanım kelime bilgim olmuştur ama şu an specicif term kullanmakta biraz zorluk yaşıyorum. Biraz bu konuda yetersiz kaldığımı düşünüyorum, biraz da gramer bilgimin bence düzeltilmeye ihtiyacı var.

113. FS8: Baskı altında hissediyorum. Neden, çünkü elinden geleni yapman gerekiyor belli bir süre içerisinde ve elinden geleni yapamıyorsun.

114. FS6: Hani belli, bir süreye kadar yetiştirmeye çalışıyoruz ya ödevleri çok yoğun oluyor ve ben o zamanlarda tam istediğim gibi yazamıyorum.

115. FS9: Response paper eleştirel düşünceyi geliştiren bir şey. Çünkü bir makale okuyorsunuz ve onun hakkında derinlemesine düşünmeniz lazım yazmadan önce. Bence

bunu yapmaya alışınca insan, kritik düşünmeye, diğer derslerde de tam anlamıyla yapmamız gereken bu aslında.

116. FS9: Response paper en eğlencelisi olabilir. Elinizde bir şey var ve ona karşılık bir şey yazıyorsunuz, ben doğru mu yaptım acaba diye düşünmenize gerek yok. Sadece kendi görüşünüzü yazıyorsunuz. Ama benim için en zoru essay yazmak. Çünkü fikir üretmen lazım; daha önce çok yazmamıştık ve benim çok fikrim yok konular hakkında o yüzden de zorlanıyorum.

117. FS11: kendimiz essay yazarken her şeyi bizim üretmemiz gerekiyor - konuya nereden gireceğimizi, nelerle destekleyeceğimizi. Böyle response paperda elimizde somut bir şey olunca daha rahat bence.

118. FS12: Ben review seviyorum, onda biraz daha yorum gerekiyor. Evet olay örgüsünü ve belli bir bilgi vermek gerekiyor ama kendi fikirlerin daha önemli, öğretmen ona daha çok dikkat ediyor; yani ne anladığın, okurken ne hissettiğin, gerçekten doğru şeyleri hissetmiş misin falan daha önemli oluyor. Ondan sonra response paper seviyorum, sonra da essay diyebilirim. Response paper da çünkü belli bir şey var elimde, ona göre yazmak hem işimi kolaylaştırıyor hem de kendi fikirlerimi ona bakarak daha rahat üretebiliyorum.

119. FS3: Plot review aslında biraz daha kolay. Çünkü siz kafanızda kurmuyorsunuz, olay örgüsü belli, karakterler belli, tema belli; sadece siz bunları kendi bakış açınızla anlatıyorsunuz ve yorumluyorsunuz. Ama essay'de kendinizin bir şeyler üretmesi gerekiyor. Birinci sırada bende plot review, sonra response paper sonra ise essay gelir.

120. FS10: Essay yazmak biraz daha böyle ciddi bir şeymiş gibi geliyor. Essay yazarken tamamen kendi fikirlerimizi yazıyoruz. Essay yazarken örnekleri de kendiniz bulmanız lazım.

121. FS12: Essay sanki biraz daha akademik, bir şeyi kanıtlama varmış gibi işin içinde. Ama böyle review falan olunca insanın kendi fikirleri daha önemli. Bu fark var bence.

122. FS10: Response paper en sonda. Ben response paper yazarken zorlanıyorum; tam olarak nasıl yapacaığımı hangi şekilde doğru yazabileceğimi anladığımı sanmıyorum. Sanırım birincisi plot review, sonra essay, sonra response paper.

123. FS5: Essay yazarken örnek bulmak için araştırırken eğleniyorum. Response paper zor geliyor çünkü ona bir nedenimi vermem gerekiyor, desteklemem gerekiyor. "why?" diye sorulduğunda zorlanıyorum. Diğerlerinde konu bana uygunsa desteklemek zaten kolay oluyor; ama Response paper da texte göre yazmamız ve desteklememiz gerekiyor. Response paper biraz daha zor çünkü yazarların düşüncelerini anlamak ve yorumlamak daha zor sanırım.

124. SS2:Ama akademik writing de klişe örneklerden kaçınarak, hem yalın hem de spesifik örnekler kullanarak tekniklere bağlı kalmalısınız. 10 üzerinden bir şey ise 4'ü yetenekse, 6'sı tekniktir academic writing de.

125. SS7: Benzerlik tabii ki ikisinde de giriş-gelişme-sonuç var, uyumlu olmalı cümleler fikirler. Farklılıklar mesela thesis statement falan, Türkçe yazarken girişte sanki öyle bir kaygınız olmuyor. Sanki essayin belkemiği olduğunu thesis statement'ın İngilizcede daha çok hissettik, sanki Türkçede öyle bir sıkıntımız yokmuş gibi. İngilizce yazarken kurallara daha çok bağlısınız gibi. Türkçede kuralların daha çok dışına çıkabiliyorsunuz gibi geliyor bana.

126. SS1:İngilizce bize öğretiliyor, belli bir sistemde.Onun dışına çıkamazsınız. Türkçe yazarken de İngilizce'de dikkat ettiğim yazma kurallarına dikkat etmeye çalışıyorum.

127. SS3: Makale yazmayı hiç sevmiyorum. Zorunluluktan olduğu için sanırım. Ben sanırım daha çok yaratıcılığımı kullanabileceğim şeyleri seviyorum. Hikâye yazarken eğleniyorum. Makale yazarken ama yazmak zorundayım, şu kadar yazmalıyım, kendimi kısıtlamalıyım, içine şu quotation'ı katmalıyım, şu da olmalı falan gibi kurallar beni sıkıyor.

128. SS4: Aslında short story yazarken çok eğlenmiştim. Diğerlerinde, özellikle de essay de hep bir kuralların içindesiniz. Tabii ki onlarda da kendi düşüncemizi veya kendi argümanımızı destekliyoruz; onlar da kendiliğimizden çıkan fikirler ama kurallara bağlı kalınca bence biraz sınırlayıcı olabiliyor. Ama short story daha serbest; hem kalbinizden hem de beyninizden çıkan bir şey. O yüzden kendimi çok rahat hissetmiştim short story yazarken.

129. SS2: Short story ve response paper'da. Short story'de kendi istediğin gibi yazabiliyorsun, senin kendi dünyan. Response paper'da çok fazla research gerektirmiyor, önünce bir metin var ve onun hakkında kendi düşüncelerini ve duygularını ifade ediyorsun. Yine kendi duyguların, kendini daha iyi ifade edebiliyorsun. Kendine ait fikirleri yazdığın için ben daha rahat ediyorum bu iki türde. Essay ve research paper yazarken çok özverili olmanız gerekiyor, özellikle teknik şeylere çok dikkat etmek gerekiyor. Yazabileceğimiz şeyler kısıtlanabiliyor. Kendi düşüncelerimizi rahatça ifade edemiyoruz. Tekniğinden dolayı bu da.

130. SS1: Essaylerde kafamızdaki bir konuyu savunuyoruz ve çeşitli kaynaklardan yararlanıp kendi tezimizi savunuyoruz. O yüzden onlar daha rahat. Ama short story yazmak da imagination ile alakalı; onu da üçüncü sıraya koyarım. Aslında genel yazı yazmayı seviyorum ama o şekilde kafamızda daha net bir şey olmuş oluyor.

131. SS4: Mesela Freud'un bir makalesini okuyoruz ve ona bir response paper yazıyoruz; özeti veriyorum Freud bunu bunu diyor diye ama çok kendi fikrimi koyabildiğimi düşünemiyorum bu ödevlerde. Argümanı şu, bence de böyle ama daha ne diyebilirim ki. Çok kendi fikirlerimi yansıtabildiğim bir şey olarak görmüyorum açıkçası.

132. SS6:. Bir şeyleri okurken düşüncemi oluşturup yazmayı çok seviyorum ama response paper yazmaktan nefret ediyorum. Belki çok response paper ödevi verildiği için. Evet önce summary veriyoruz, sonra makalede yazılana katılıp katılmadığımızı söylüyoruz ama ben onları yazarken çok sevmiyorum. Çünkü orada neden katılıp katılmadığımızı açıklarken kendimizden ya da günlük olaylardan örnek vermemiz gerekiyor ya, onu bulurken çok zorluk çekiyorum açıkçası. Tamam katılıyorum güzel söylemiş ama nasıl destekleyeceğimi bulmaya çalışırken çok sıkılıyorum.

133. SS5: Response paperları çok sevmiyorum. Bu sene çok yazıyoruz, ödevler de çok yoğun. Bıkkınlıkla yazıyorum çoğu zaman. Ödev olduğu için; içimden gelerek yazmıyorum sonuçta.

134. SS3: Son zamanlarda response paper yazıyoruz. Belki hocadan kaynaklanıyordur ama ben baya bir seviyorum o tarz yazmayı da. Hocanın verdiği metinleri bakış açımı çok genişletecek şeyler oluyor genelde, onları okudukça çok zevk alıyorum ve onlara bir yorum yazmak falan çok hoşuma gidiyor.

135. SS7: Response paper yazma konusunda çok ilerledik aslında; fikir konusunda daha iyi şeyler sunabiliyoruz. Ve response paper da diğerlerini yazmaktan daha kolay; elimde

yazmak için bir şey var sonuçta. Var olan şeyden rahat fikir üretebiliyorsunuz; bir de kısa oluyor onlar.

136. SS6: ben konuyu sevince daha iyi yazabiliyorum, araştırma yapmayı da seviyorum. Konuyu sevmek çok önemli, sevmediğim bir konu hakkında yazamıyorum.

137. SS5: Yazma konusunda ders ve dersin içeriği de çok önemli. Mesela sizin dersiniz (global culture) güzel ve rahat bir ders, konular da güncel. Shakespeare dersinde de yazıyoruz ama zorunlu yazıyoruz; keyifsiz oluyor, kaynakları buluyorum yazıyorum. Yazabilmem için dersi sevmem gerekiyor biraz.

138. SS4: research paper'ı tercih ederim. Çünkü orada yine biz istediğimiz bir şeyi seçiyoruz. Bu bir şiir ya da kitap olabilir ya da kendimiz bir konu buluruz. Analiz etme açısında ya da argümanımızda serbestiz. Ben mesela 1984'ü yapmıştım; orada Newspeak'i inceledim ama serbestim orada argüman oluşurken. Zaten research paper'ın amacı ne; bilinmeyen herkesin yazmadığı bir şey ortaya atabilmek. Research paper daha çok insanın kendi eseri gibi, daha bir hoş geldi bana.

139. SS7: Hamlet için research paper'ımı yazarken çok mutlu olmuştum mesela. İlgilendiğiniz ve daha çok hoşunuza giden konular olunca bence daha iyi yazabiliyorsunuz.

140. FS7: Hazırlık da aynı lise gibiydi, orada da öğretmenler ne yapacağımızı söylerdi. Ama üniversite farklı, hep insanların peşinden siz koşmak zorundasınız, dersleri kendi başınıza takip etmek zorundasınız, üniversitede okumak çok fazla sorumluluk almak gerektiriyor.

141. FS9: Baskı okulun getirdiği bir şey. Ama yazdığım konuda bir fikrim varsa kendimi daha özgüvenli hissediyorum, çünkü ne yazacağımı biliyorum. Baskı ama çok doğal, sonuçta not alıyoruz ödevlerden. Geliştirebileceğim bir fikrim varsa daha rahat hissediyorum yoksa ciddi stres olabilirim. Birinci dönem liseden üniversiteye geçiş ve çok farklı lise ile üniversite. Bilmediğim bir ortama geldim ne yapmam gerektiğini bilmiyorum, nasıl sınava çalışmam gerektiğini bilmiyorum. Öbür türlü bir o yana bir bu yana koşuyordum ama şu anda ne yöne gitmem gerektiğini biliyorum.

142. FS11:Benim genel kültürüm hiç yok; sıfır. Popular culture dersinde kendimi çok ezik ve buruk hissediyorum. Oraya bir fotoğraf koyuyorsunuz herkes biliyor bir tek ben bilmiyorum ne olduğunu. Bazılarının İngilizce 'si benden çok daha iyi, Kolejden geliyorlar çünkü. Ben kendimi çok kötü hissediyordum çünkü altyapı çok önemli şeyler, gramer olsun kelime bilgisi olsun. Ben bu bölümün benim için yanlış bölüm olduğunu düşündüm. Ben yapamıyorum, İngilizce bende yok dedim hep. Temel yok, ben boşum herhâlde dedim. Özgüvenim kalmamıştı ama şimdi İngilizce mesela bu dönem benim korktuğum kadar zor bir şey değil.

143. FS9: Üniversite ilginç bir ortam; lise gibi değil. Lise daha tekdüze, herkes hemen hemen aynı düşünüyor. Ama üniversitede öyle düşünen insanlar eleniyor.

144. FS11: Burası çok farklı. İyi not alabilmek ve hocaların vurguladığı şeyleri yakalamak çok önemli. Lisedeki gibi kimse size notları yazdırmıyor burada. Bölüme geldiğimde Şok oldum tabii. Derslerin yarısını anlıyorum, yarısını anlayamıyorum. Not almaya çalışıyorum ama notlar yazı şeklinde değil. Şekillerle yazıyordum, orayı burayı takip et diye ama sonradan bakınca bir şey anlamıyordum.

145. FS12: Dürüst olmak gerekirse, ben ilk academic writing dersinde bir şoka girdim. Ben lisede hiçbir şey öğrenmemiştim, ve o an anladım ki hiçbir şey hazırlıktaki gibi de olmayacaktı.

146. FS6: Bir burada yazdıklarımız var, bir de lise de yazdıklarımız. Anladım ki arada dağlar kadar fark var.

147. FS6: Ben bu bölüme gelmeden önce İngilizce yazabildiğimi düşünüyordum. Essay veya paragraflar olsun ama writing derslerinden sonra yazamadığımı düşündüm.

148. FS4: Ben lisede iyiydim, beğenirlerdi, genelde bir şey olunca hep bana yazdırırlardı. Konuları pek hatırlamıyorum ama genelde buradaki gibi konular olurdu. Sizin derslerdeki gibi ıncık cıncık bakılmıyordu, orda çok iyi hissediyordum kendimi yazma konusunda ama burada sanki çok kötüymüşüm gibi geliyor. Ama çok farklı orada yazdıklarımızla burada yazdıklarımız. Writing dersinde feedback almadan önce bence iyiydim, iyi yapıyordum ama kırmızıları görünce çöktü moralim gitti.

149. FS8: Hocalar hala bizim daha üniversite bazında olmadığımızı düşünüyorlar ama bence de daha üniversitenin ne olduğunu bilmeyen pek çok kişi var sınıfta. Zaman geçtikçe değişebilir tabii bu. Ben aslında İDE'nin bu kadar sarsıcı ve baskıcı olacağını beklemiyordum; o yüzden biraz ağır geldi başta. Bence hocalar bizden çok şey bekliyorlar. Hocaların dediği şey "okuyun gelin", "çalışıp gelin", ama biz hala lise bazında düşünüyoruz gibi geliyor. Bence haklılar ama insan kendini aşmalı çünkü.

150. FS9: Aslında hocalar bizden çok şey beklemiyorlar, ama biz sıfırdan başladık. Bizden hiçbir şey beklenmezken bir anda bir sürü şey beklenir oldu.

151. FS10: Bizimle ilgili bir sorun var bence. Sene başında hocaların bizden beklentileri büyüktü ve biz onları karşılayamadık. Writing hocamız mesela bizile çok uğraştı, gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalıştı. Bizim yazamadığımızı görünce dersin seviyesini bizim seviyemize çekti. Bence bu bizim için iyi oldu.

152. FS1:Ben hiç böyle hayal etmiyordum, siz çok şey bekliyorsunuz bizden. Hocalardan bir de sürekli azar yiyoruz her dersin başında; bu bizim iyice hevesimizi kaçırıyor. Üniversiteyi ben daha bize dönük olur diye bekliyordum ama biz şu anda hocaların isteklerini karşılıyoruz. Konu işlerken hoca yorum yapmamızı istiyor, bir şey söylüyoruz ama hoca "o öyle değil" diyor ve sonra bizim de hevesimiz kaçıyor. Sınavda çok ufak bir şey yazsak olmuyor, her şeyi anlatmak zorundayız. Hocanın sorduğu şey belli ama biz az yazınca olmuyor, yeterli olmuyor. Neden bizim fikrimizi soruyorlar o zaman?

153. FS2: Bence hocalar %50 haklı. İlk başta yazarken hiç hata olduğunu düşünmüyorum ama feedbacki görünce bazı ufak şeyleri bile kaçırdığımı görüyorum, ama hocalar direk çizmek yerine "bir dahakine biraz daha dikkatli ol" diyebilirler. O kadar kırmızı görünce insanın yüzüne soğuk su çarpmış gibi etki ediyor.

154. FS6: Biraz anlaşılmadığımı düşünüyorum ama ; ben mesela açıklayıcı olduğumu düşünmüştüm ama şimdi bakınca bir sürü hatamın olduğunu görüyorum. Benim hocadan beklentim benim yazdığım cümleleri anlaması olur. Çünkü ben yeterince anlaşılır olduğunu düşünerek yazıyorum. Kurallar için bir şey demiyorum bazı yerlerde hatayı kendimde buluyorum ama genel olarak hocanın beni anlamadığını düşünüyorum.

155. FS12: Hocalar bizden ne beklediklerini açıkça söylemeli bence. Quizlerden ve sınavlardan sonra da hocalar zaten bize bunları bu şekilde yazarsanız daha iyi olur diye

açıklamalar yapıyorlar zaten. Öyle yapınca biz de hocaların istediği gibi yazmaya başlıyoruz, bu beklentiler açık olmalı. Bu bizim bir sonraki adımımızı planlamamız için çok faydalı oluyor.

156. FS12: Farklılıklar ilk başta çok fazla gibi gözüküyor ama hocaların ne istediklerini anlayınca o farklılıklar azalıyor. Bir derste mesela definition yazmıştık 5 puan üzerindendi ve bana hoca 1.5 falan gibi bir şey vermişti ve ben çok üzülmüştüm. Sonrasında feedback verdi ve o zaman çok sinirim bozulmuştu ama şimdi 10 üzerinden 8 aldım, çünkü hocanın ne istediğini biliyorum.

157. FS9: Ve kesinlikle hocalar haklı çünkü biz bilinçsizce yazıyoruz ve yazarken bize o an olmuş gibi geliyor ama geri gelince ödevlere hocalara %80-90 hak veriyorum.

158. FS12: yorumları çok haklı buluyorum. Hocalar da Türk oldukları için zaten bizim aslında ne demek istediğimizi çok rahat bir şekilde anlıyorlar aslında. Hocalar ile anlaşabiliyoruz ama hocalarımız yabancı olsaydı sanırım o zaman iletişimde biraz zorluk çekerdik.

159. FS11: İlk geldiğim zaman şunu anladım, her hocanın bir tarzı var. Ben zamanla herkese alıştım ama bu dönem bir hocamız var mesela ona bir türlü alışamadım ben. Bence sınıftaki arkadaşlarımın çoğu da dersi anlamıyorlar ama kimse bir şey söylemiyor. Mesela söylemek istediği şeyi 15 dakika konuştuktan sonra en sonda söylüyor ve ben de zaten çoktan kopmuş oluyorum ve yakalayamıyorum tam olarak ne demek istediğini. Aslında çok şey beklemiyorsunuz bizden. Edebiyat olduğu için bizim evde okuyup gelmemiz gereken çok şey oluyor ve bence zaten bunu yapsak her şey yeterli olur diye düşünüyorum.

160. FS12: Ben daha çok üniversite hocalarının bizden ne tarz bir şey istediğini anladım, biraz daha hocaların istekleri doğrultusunda yazmaya çalışıyorum, o yüzden daha iyi olur.

161. FS4: Çok fazla yeni şeyler denedim ve iyi kötü onlardan bir feedback aldım. Ve tekrardan onları yazma şansım oldu, yanlışlarımı öğrendim, o yanlışları bir daha yapmamaya çalıştım. O yüzden geliştiğimi düşünüyorum. Anladım ki böyle üzülmekle olmuyor, kırmızıları düzeltmek lazım. Şu an rahatım ama çok çalışıyorum. Ama o korkumu atlattım, şimdi o kırmızıları bekliyorum ama düzeltmek için.

162. FS10: Essay yazmaya başlamadan önce writing ile ilgili düşündüklerim çok farklıydı. Burada çok fazla tekniğini öğrendik, nasıl yazılması gerektiği ile ilgili çok fazla detay öğrendik. Fikir üretmek açısından Türkçe ’de de İngilizce’ de de fikirler geliyor aklıma ve ben yazdığımı düşünüyordum ama aslında hiç öyle değilmiş; öğrendikten sonra çok daha farklı.

163. FS10: Birinci döneme kadar sanki düşünce açısından ilkokul insanı gibiydim, çok komikti düşünmeden yazardım herhâlde. Writing’in bir tekniği olduğu aklımın ucundan bile geçmiyordu. Şimdi hem İngilizcem gelişiyor hem de daha ciddiye alıyorum bölümümü şimdi.

164. FS3: Bence baya bir gelişim gösterdim. Biri bir şey yaz dediği zaman, öff pöff demeden yazmaya başlayabilirim. Kendi düşüncelerime bir şekil verebilirim rahatlıkla.

165. FS10: Birinci dönem çok fazla zorlandım. Çünkü hiç bu açılardan düşünmemiştim. Yazıyordum ama direk yazıyordum, tekniğe dökmeye kalkınca çok zorlanıyordum. Ama gittikçe iyi oluyor diye düşünüyorum. Aslında fikirler daha düzenli geliyor bu şekilde

teknik kullanınca, mesela topic sentence yazıp örnekleri yazmak daha kolay oluyormuş aslında.

166. FS9: Tabii ki, eskiden bilmeden yazıyorduk. Geçen dönem de essay yazmıştık ama nasıl yapsak ne yazsak diye düşünüyorduk. İkinci yazdığımızda daha bilinçliydik. Çok şey değişti; öğrendik çünkü.

167. FS3: Bence hocalar sonuna kadar haklı. Fazla açık değil yazdığımız şeyler sürekli mesela "they they they" diye yazıyoruz, hoca da haklı olarak "who are they?" diye soruyor. Karşı taraf biliyormuş gibi davranıyoruz ama belki de bilmiyor. Çünkü karşı tarafı bilgilendirmek ya da bir şeyleri kanıtlamak amacıyla yazıyoruz ama. Ben kendim biliyorum ve sanki herkes aklımdan geçeni biliyormuş gibi yazıyoruz.

168. FS10: Çünkü ben yazarken ben biliyorum ve sanki siz de tam olarak neden bahsettiğimi biliyormuşsunuz gibi düşünüp yazıyorum ama tabii sonuç öyle olmuyor. Şimdi bu tarz durumlara diğer sınavlarda da dikkat ediyorum yeteri kadar açık yazıp yazmadığımı kontrol ediyorum, bunlar baya bir değiştirdi yazma tekniğimi.

169. FS9: Bölüm olarak zaten bir genel kültür patlaması yaşıyoruz. Çünkü hiçbir şey bilmiyorken burada birden bir sürü şey öğrenmeye başladık. Bu okula geldiğimden beri benim düşünce tarzım değişti, hem çevre açısından hem de ders açısından. Bakış açımız değişiyor.

170. FS3: Eleştirel düşünmeyi geliştiriyor; şu anda bile bir çok şeye daha farklı açılardan bakabildiğimi hissediyorum.

171. FS5: Şu an farklı düşünmeye başladım, her şeyi farklı görüyorum ve dört sene sonra da bunun daha çok değişeceğini biliyorum aslında.

172. FS12: bu bölümden mezun olacakların olaylara daha farklı bakacağı bize söylenmişti. Öyle bir şey oluyor ki artık yaşıtlarımızda bile konuşmamız farklılaşıyor.

173. SS5: Ben pek yazmayı sevmiyorum, ödev yapmayı da sevmiyorum. Sevdirmiyorlar da; haftaya çarşambaya ya da cumaya kadar 3-4 tane paper yazmamız gerekiyor ya da günlük ani paperlar çıkıyor falan. Ama Allahtan son sınıftayım; birden başlayanların durumu daha vahim.

174. SS3: Yazmak biraz zorunlu bir hale geldi. Burada mecbur olduğumuzda geçmek için yazıyoruz sadece. Not alacağız çünkü

175. SS4: Genelde işten eve geliyorum, oturuyorum yazacağım ödevin başına ama hep içimde şey var; bitse de kurtulsam. Her zaman uğraşırım ama güzel fikirler çıkarmaya çalışırım. Gecenin geç saatlerine kadar uğraşırım, çünkü ödevlerimi hocalarım okuyacak ve bu benim için önemli ama onu yazmak bana tamamen bir yük gibi geliyor. Elimden geleni yapıyorum. Mekanik ve sıkılarak yazıyorum açıkçası.

176. SS6: Önceden mesela introduction yazamıyordum direk body'den başlıyordum ama şimdi direk introduction'dan başlayıp rahat rahat yazıyorum ve thesis statementıma göre body'i geliştiriyorum. Böyle şeyler hep zamanla oturdu. Bu Bologna da çok işe yaradı bence.

177. SS4: Sanki birinci sınıfta daha ezbere yazıyordum. Üçüncü sınıfta zaten daha uzun paperlar yazmaya başlamıştık o zaman bence çok daha iyi olmuştum. Diğer derslerde de hep ödev istemeleri bize daha çabuk bir yeti kazandırdı.

178. SS3: Burada bizden olması gerekeni bekliyorlar ama sanki sistem oturmuş değil, mesela birinci sınıftan beri bu sistemde biz okumuş olsaydık şu zamanda daha farklı olurdu. Bazı derslerde okuduğumuz şeyler daha geniş zamana yayılsaydı, çok daha iyi özümsemek isterdim.

179. SS4: Size göre bazen kullandığınız bir örnek çok güzel oluyor ama hoca hiç beğenmiyor mesela. Ama sonra siz de okuduğunuzda aslında hocaya hak vermeye başlıyorsunuz.

180. SS6: İnceliyorum feedbacklerimi, neden ben böyle düşünmemişim diyorum. Hocalar bence %80 haklılar. Bazen anlatmak istediğimi tam olarak destekleyemediğimde hoca ne dediğimi anlamamıştır ve o yüzden düşük puan gelmiştir diye düşünüyorum.

181. SS3: Çok dikkat ediyorum. Liseden beri ben buna önem veririm, mutlaka hatalarımın sebebini öğrenmeye çalışırım. Çünkü ben hatalarımı gördüğüm zaman anlayabiliyorum. Hocanın feedbackleri genelde çok önemli benim için ve genelde her yazdıklarını çok haklı buluyorum. %90 haklı buluyorum. Bazen ama hocalar tam olarak ne demek istediğimi anlamıyorlar ve bu hata olarak gözüküyor ona biraz üzülebiliyorum.

182. SS5: Bir soruyu soruyorsa hoca istediği cevap da aklında var demek ki, biz eğer o cevaba erişemiyorsak o zaman düşük not alıyoruz normal olarak. Ama o hocada haklı; o da verdiği eğitimin karşılığı olarak onu istiyor; normal.

183. SS1: Ben niye bizden bu bekleniyor dediğim ekstrem bir durum olmadı. Çünkü bölüm bunu gerektiriyorsa, hocalar da bunu beklemek zorunda. Hocaların da bu çocuğun seviyesi bu kadar, ne yapalım, üzerine gitmeyelim diye düşünmeleri olmaz çünkü. Bence normal bizden bekledikleri.

184. SS4: Bazen de zaten hocaların tarzına ya da ne sevdiğine göre yazıyoruz. Mesela bazen kadın karakteri çok seviyor bir hoca ve ben de ona göre yazıyorum. Hocaların da hepsinin kafasında bir şey var, bize yaptırmak istedikleri ve bizim yapmamızı bekledikleri. Hocaların %70-80 olduklarını düşünürüm. Bir de hocaların kafa yapısı da etkiliyor, mesela feministse hoca feminist açıdan yazdığınızda başka bakıyor, başka türlü yazarsanız başka bakıyor. Bazı hocalar belli şeyleri seviyor ve o şekilde yazılmasını ister ve ona göre puanlama yaparlar.

185. Zamanla hocaların beklentilerine göre yazmaya başladım aslında, not alma politikasından dolayı. Kendim nasıl yazarsam yazayım zamanla ama hocasına göre yazmaya çalışıyorum daha çok. Zaten bu yazma olayı zamana bağlı bir şey.

186. SS2: Bir de hocaların daha önceki feedbacklerinden nelerin problem olabileceğini tahmin edebiliyorum. Mesela “they” diyorum; ama biliyorum hoca soracak “who are they?” diye; ona göre tekrar düzenliyorum. Hocanın düşüncesini okuyabilmek bir bilinçlenmedir.

187. SS2: Ama öğrenmek istediğim ve ilgimin olduğu konularda yaptığım hatalardan da öğrenmek istiyorum. Yapmak için yaptığım ödevler var ama bir de gerçekten çok sevdiğim için yaptığım ödevler var. Bu da çok fark ettiriyor her şeyi. Bazı derslerde yazdıkça yazasım geliyor ama hocaların tutumuyla bunun çok alakası var bence.

188. SS2: İlk zamanlarda kendimi çok yetersiz hissediyordum. En azından birinci sınıfta pek fazla iyi değildim bence ama ikinci sınıfta bakış açım değişti benim. Diğer derslerin

de faydası oldu. Okudum, geliştirdim kendimi ve gerçekten çabaladım ben. İkinci sınıftan itibaren istenilenleri yerine getirdim; gerçekten okudum, gerçekten yazdım. Ödevlere dikkat ederek yaptım çok araştırmalar yaptım. Şu an kendimi hem konuşurken hem de yazarken daha rahat hissediyorum. Ya da bir şey yazdığımda tekrar dönüp okuyunca yazdığımın uygun olmadığını ya da tam kendimi ifade edemediğimi görüyorum, bunun algısı var artık bende. Artık kendime güveniyorum kendimi bu konuda çok daha iyi hissediyorum. Şu anda mezun olacağımız için üzülüyorum aslında. Bir de ben yeni programda okumayı daha çok isterdim aslında. Artık en ufak bir şeyi görüp o konuda konuşabiliyorsunuz, diğer insanlardan hep bir farkınız oluyor.

189. SS7: Önceki zamanlarda sanki bir şeyin üstüne daha çok zaman harcıyordum gibi, şimdi nerede ne yapmam gerektiğini daha çok biliyorum. Nasıl yazmam gerektiğini daha iyi biliyorum. Başlarda sıkıntı çektiğim şeyleri şimdi daha rahat yapabiliyorum.

190. SS2: O eğitimlerden önce ben kendi anlayacağım şekilde yazıyormuşum karşı tarafın anlayacağı şekilde değil. Şimdi okuyucu odaklı yazabiliyorum mesela o dersler sayesinde.

191. SS6: Önceden ben İngilizce yazamıyordum derdim, ama şimdi ben yazabiliyorum diyorum artık kendime ve kendimi seviyorum artık o konuda. Kendimle gurur duyuyorum, ben önceden bunu yazamazdım diyorum ama şimdi çok rahat yazabildiğimi düşünüyorum ve bu beni mutlu ediyor.

192. SS1: En azından bir şeyleri karşılaştırmayı öğrendim, nasıl düşüneceğimi öğrendim. Aklıma gelen her şeyi yazmamam gerektiğini, fikirleri sadece ortaya atmamayı öğrendim.

193. SS1: Farklı açılardan bakabilmenin çok faydası oldu; bunu her şeye adapte edebilir insan. Yazma konusunda çok faydası oldu çünkü benim çok sevdiğim bir şeydi. Burada edindiklerim bana master yaparken de yarayacaktır diye düşünüyorum. Çünkü birinci sınıftaki halimi düşünüyorum, bir de şimdiye bakıyorum oldukça çok şey fark etti. Bakış açımın da değiştiğini gördüm bazı konularda.

194. SS3: Daha şimdiden bile kullanmaya başladık buradaki bilgileri. Özellikle post-modern theory gördükten sonra her şeyi eleştirir olduk, reklamlardan insanların söylediklerine kadar. Bakış açısı olarak çok değiştik gerçekten, artık bir konu üzerinde çok fazla düşünüp söyleyecek çok şeyim oluyor. Kendimi de eleştiriyorum, başkalarını da eleştirebiliyorum.

195. SS3: İngilizce yazarken daha dersler gibi yazmam gerekiyor gibi bir hisse kapıldım, ama Türkçe yazarken Türkçe yazamayacağımı hissettim. Yani Türkçe yazarken o göstergeleri nasıl tarif edebileceğimi kestiremedim pek, hep İngilizce yazmaya alışkın olduğumuzdan sanırım. İlk önce İngilizce yazdığım için kafam ona gitti, o yüzden Türkçe yazarken biraz zorlandım.

196. SS4: Önceki konuşmalarımızda Türkçe daha iyi derdim, İngilizce zor derdim ama bunu yazarken tam tersi oldu. Sanki İngilizce yazmaya alıştığım için İngilizce yazmak nedense çok daha rahat geldi; sanki yazdığımız bir ödev gibi. Ama bana Türkçe yazmak baya bir uzak geldi. Şu bana daha yakın İngilizce yazdığım için ama şunda bana biraz mesafe geldi sanki. Türkçe olunca bir düşündüm. Nasıl yazayım, nasıl plan yapayım, nelerden bahsedeyim falan.İngilizce yazarken daha rahattım. Mesela "fail" dediğimde tam olarak hissedebiliyorum o duyguyu. Alışkanlık kazandığım için tamamen herhalde. Belki sürekli burada paper yazdığımızdan dolayı olabilir. Bir fiil var mesela, ama onu tam olarak Türkçe'ye aktaramıyorsunuz. Çok Türkçe yazmadığımız için, yazdığım şey çok yüzeysel kaldı bence.

197. SS2:Ama aslında Türkçe'yi yazarken de İngilizce yazma isteği duydum sanki. Giriş cümlem o yüzden biraz İngilizce'den çeviri gibi oldu. Mesela bazı cümlelerin tam anlamını veremeyeceğimden korktum.

198. SS5: İngilizce yazıyoruz artık alışmışız, düşünmüyorum yani yazarken. Ama Türkçe de hangi sözcük doğru olur, hangi cümleye nasıl başlarım diye çok duraksadım, onu ben de fark ettim. Bu bence gayet normal okuduğumuz bölümden dolayı.Son beş yıldır Türkçe kompozisyon yazmadığımız için Türkçe yazarken daha çok duraksadığımı ben de fark ettim.

199. FS8: Türkçe yazarken daha hızlı yazdım çünkü daha rahat hissettim kendimi. İngilizce benim yan dilim olduğu için, Türkçe de anadilim olduğu için Türkçe'de kendimi daha iyi ifade edebiliyorum.

200. FS9: Türkçe yazarken daha kolaydı; çünkü Türkçe'de belli kalıplara alışmışız. Konuşmada da kullanıyoruz. Ama İngilizce'de baya bir düşündüm, yanlış yapmak istemedim; o yüzden de biraz daha eksik yazdım. Türkçe'de aynı konuşuyormuş gibi yazabiliyoruz; aniden her şeyi kağıda dökmek çok kolay ama İngilizce'de durup düşünmek gerekiyor. Tenselere bile bakmak lazım.

201. FS10: İngilizce'de sanırım aklıma geliyor ama onu çevirmeye çalışıyorum. İngilizce düşünmeye alışsak aslında çok daha kolay ve hızlı gidecek de, çünkü Türkçede gediği gibi yazıyoruz. Ama Türkçede de şu oldu mesela; bazı kelimelerin İngilizcesi geliyor aklıma ama Türkçesi gelmedi. Ama yine de daha kolay yazdığım için sanırım daha hızlı gitti.

202. FS11: İngilizce yazdığım için biraz daha kısa tutmak zorunda kaldım çünkü her düşündüğümü yazamıyorum. Ama yine de bir şekilde iyi yazmaya çalıştım. Türkçe yazarken ama daha bile uzun yazabilirdim.

203. FS7: Nasıl başlayacağımı bilemedim. "Bu filmde" ya da "bu kısa filmde".. nasıl başlasam diye düşündüm. Türkçe düşünmek zor geldi. Uzun zamandır Türkçe bir şey yazmadığım için sanırım.

FS4: Türkçe baya uzun zaman sonra bir şey yazdım. Nasıl başlayacağımı bilemedim. "ikisi bahçede", "onlar", "bunlar" karakterlere bile nasıl sesleneceğimi bilemedim. Çünkü İngilizcede "they" diyoruz kısaca.

FS5: Türkçede daha zor hissettim. Artık sanki Türkçe düşünüp yazamıyormuşum gibi geliyor. Sanki İngilizce kelimeler aklıma geliyor hep; Türkçe yazmak zor geliyor.

FS12: İngilizce yazarken artık daha rahatım sanki daha çok hoşuma gidiyor açıkçası. İngilizce olanı da ben daha çabuk yazardım belki ama kelimelerimi seçerken daha titiz davrandım o yüzden İngilizce yazmam daha uzun sürdü.

204. FM: Bence çocukların yazmasında sürekli tekrarlanan hatalar var. Ama alabileceğimiz bazı önlemlerin bunu çözebileceğinden emin değilim. Bence bunlar yazmanın teknikleri veya gerektirdikleri ile ilgili değil. Bence daha önce aldıkları eğitim ile ilgili bunlar. Train of thought yok. Esas problem bu bence. Genel kültürleri yok. Yani sadece yazma sorunu ile alakalı değil bu problemler.

APPENDIX B

PROGRAM OUTCOMES OF ELL

Programme Outcomes of the Department of English Language and Literature

1. Show knowledge of a substantial range of authors, movements and texts from different periods of literary history.
2. Identify the intellectual, cultural and socio-historical contexts in which literature is written and read.
3. Employ the necessary skills in the reading, analysis and in appreciation of literature.
4. Recognize, interpret, and comment on rhetorical and figurative language.
5. Identify, distinguish between and assess the distinctive characteristics of texts written in the principle literary genres.
6. Recall and define key terms and concepts relating to language, literature and/or culture.
7. Recognize the role of different social and cultural contexts in affecting meaning.
8. Demonstrate responsiveness to the central role of language in the creation of meaning.
9. Recognize different structures and discourse functions of the English language.
10. Display competence both in written and/or oral expression and in the communication of ideas in a variety of contexts.
11. Demonstrate critical skills in the close reading, description, interpretation, and analysis of literary and non-literary texts.
12. Use logical thought, critical reasoning, and rhetorical skills to effectively construct arguments.
13. Apply guided research skills including the ability to gather, sift, organize and present information and material.
14. Show competence in planning, preparation and revision of essays, presentations, and other written and project work.
15. Reflect on ethical and philosophical issues raised in literary, critical, and cultural texts.

APPENDIX C

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Course Code	Semester	Course Name	LE/RC/LA	Course Type	Language of Instruction	ECTS
ENL1004	1	Advanced Reading and Writing	4/0/0	CC	English	7

Course Goals	The aim of this course is to equip students with the fundamental skills needed for academic reading and writing. The course will enable students to improve their reading and writing skills in an integrated way along with a strong emphasis on developing their critical thinking skills.

Assessments

Evaluation tools	Quantity	Weight(%)
Midterm(s)	1	20
Homework / Term Projects / Presentations	10	40
Attendance	90	10
Final Exam	1	30

Learning Outcomes

LO-1	have knowledge about the basics of academic reading and writing.
LO-2	employ fundamental reading and writing strategies in an integrated way in their comprehension and production of texts.
LO-3	identify and define the main argument in a reading text and employ similar strategies in generating ideas and constructing their main arguments in their own writing.
LO-4	identify and define supporting details in a reading text and summarize and paraphrase.
LO-5	demonstrate responsiveness to the central role of language in the creation of meaning.
LO-6	revise their knowledge of grammar and employ accurate use of complex and clear structures in their own writing.
LO-7	display competence both in the use of written and spoken English.
LO-8	develop their critical thinking and reasoning skills in constructing arguments and writing responses/ short essays.

Course Code	Semester	Course Name	LE/RC/LA	Course Type	Language of Instruction	ECTS
ENL2004	2	Written Communication of Ideas	4/0/0	CC	English	7

Course Goals	This course aims to develop students' writing skiils in English and equip students with practice of skills needed for successful academic writing. The course will enable students to develop the core transferable skills in reflection/ expression, critical thinking, reading and writing through the analysis of variety of challenging readings in terms of their rhetorical purposes and stylistics. Students will explore and practise different genres of academic writing along with other forms of writing -i.e. short stories and reflection on visual images/audiovisual materials.

Assessments

Evaluation tools	Quantity	Weight(%)
Midterm(s)	1	25
Homework / Term Projects / Presentations	5	50
Final Exam	1	25

Learning Outcomes

LO-1	use effective reading strategies to comprehend and interpret challenging texts.
LO-2	analyze texts in terms of rhetorical purpose, audience, content, genre, pattern of development and stylistic features.
LO-3	take a critical stance toward ideas, raising questions, examining evidence, and evaluating arguments on the basis of reason.
LO-4	approach a writing task as a process of planning, outlining, drafting, revising, and editing.
LO-5	make use of appropriate resources to support their academic reading and writing and incorporate source material into their writing according to standard academic conventions.
LO-6	display competence in written the communication of ideas in English.
LO-7	employ accurate sentence structures and appropriate vocabulary in order to effectively communicate ideas and meaning in their writing.
LO-8	gain necessary skills to use reflection and self-assessment to become competent readers and writers.

Course Code	Semester	Course Name	LE/RC/LA	Course Type	Language of Instruction	ECTS
ENL3001	3	Academic Research and Writing	3/0/0	CC	English	7

Course Goals	This course aims to equip students with necessary skills to conduct an academic research and plan, draft, revise and write an academic paper related to language, literature and culture.

Assessments

Evaluation tools	Quantity	Weight(%)
Quizzes	2	10
Homework / Term Projects / Presentations	4	50
Attendance	90	10
Final Exam	1	30

Learning Outcomes

LO-1	plan, organize and carry out research projects.
LO-2	approach a writing task as a process of planning, outlining, drafting, revising, and editing.
LO-3	formulate questions based on their readings and generate ideas for research papers.
LO-4	determine appropriate sources and use the print and electronic resources of the library to locate sources.
LO-5	evaluate sources for authority, relevance, timeliness, and other criteria.
LO-6	evaluate and reflect on their own and others' writing.
LO-7	make use of appropriate resources to support their academic reading and writing and incorporate source material into their writing according to standard academic conventions.
LO-8	transfer and employ their knowledge of text-analysis and research in writing papers for this course and other courses offered by the department.

Course Code	Semester	Course Name	LE/RC/LA	Course Type	Language of Instruction	ECTS
ENL4004	4	Rhetoric and Argumentation	3/0/0	CC	English	6

Course Goals	To teach the history of rhetoric and rhetorical devices, as well as the techniques of constructing sound arguments in speech and writing.

Assessments Evaluation tools	Quantity	Weight(%)
Quizzes	5	25
Homework / Term Projects / Presentations	3	60
Attendance	70	15

Learning Outcomes	
LO-1	Knowledge of major rhetorical theories, personages, and texts.
LO-2	Ability to compare and contrast classical and contemporary rhetoric.
LO-3	Ability to analyze and use basic rhetorical devices and techniques.
LO-4	Ability to construct reasoned arguments in speech and in writing.
LO-5	Understanding the strategic and contextual use of language.
LO-6	Recognition and avoidance of fallacious arguments.

APPENDIX D

LETTER FOR INSTITUTIONAL CONSENT

Letter for Institutional Consent

10 /01 /2012

Dear.....,

I am a PhD candidate at Foreign Language Education Programme, Boğaziçi University. In Spring 2013 I am planning to start my data collection procedures for my PhD thesis, which investigates dynamic interaction of educational and contextual factors influencing Turkish university students' academic writing practices. For data collection, I intend to collaborate with volunteering students and faculty members of your department. This study will be useful for gaining deeper insights into students' academic writing practices and experiences.

Initially, during the Spring term of 2011-2012 academic-year I am going to conduct a pilot study (background questionnaire and semi-structured interviews) with sophomore year volunteering students. In 2012 – 2013 academic year during Fall and Spring terms, I will start my main data collection procedures. I am going to collect data through background questionnaire, semi-structured interviews and stimulated recall interviews conducted with freshman and senior year volunteering students. I am also going to collect data from volunteering faculty members through individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews. All interviews will take approximately 20 minutes and will be recorded. Interviews will be scheduled at participants' convenience. Participation in the research is voluntary, and the participants have the right to withdraw from the research at any point without giving any reasons. The data and materials collected for the purposes of this study will be confidential, and the names of the institution, participating faculty members and students will not be reported throughout the study. The data collected will be used in the current study and in future research and publications. At the end of the study, I will share the results of the study with your institution. I would very much appreciate and be grateful for your participation in my research.

If you have any questions or would like further information, please contact me at daltinmakas@gmail.com or 0532 4272565. Thank you in advance.

Kind Regards,

Derya Altınmakas

Signature of the researcher:	Date:
Signature of the Department Chair: Approved ☐ Disapproved ☐	Date:

APPENDIX E

STUDENT PARTICIPANTS' CONSENT LETTER

Consent to Participate in Research

I AM BEING ASKED TO READ THE FOLLOWING MATERIAL TO ENSURE THAT I AM INFORMED OF THE NATURE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY AND OF HOW I WILL PARTICIPATE IN IT, IF I CONSENT TO DO SO. SIGNING THIS FORM WILL INDICATE THAT I HAVE BEEN SO INFORMED AND THAT I GIVE MY CONSENT.

Purpose

This study is being conducted by the researcher, Derya Altınmakas, as her PhD dissertation. The purpose of the study is to investigate the dynamics of factors influencing the academic writing practices of Turkish university students.

Procedures

By agreeing to participate, I consent to the following activities:

* writing three essays (one in Turkish, two in English)
* participation to audiotaped interviews when I am available.

Confidentiality

My name will only be known to the researcher. All references to me in conference presentations, papers, and articles will be used as a pseudonym. Only the researcher will have access to written texts and audio tapes produced by my participation in this study. I have the right to withdraw from the research at any time; if I do so, all written texts and audio tapes on which I appear will be destroyed. I do not give up any of my legal rights by signing this form. A copy of this signed consent form will be given to me.

If I have additional questions about the research, I can contact the researcher as follows:

Derya Altinmakas/ daltinmakas@gmail.com / 0532427 25 65

Investigator's statement:

I have fully explained this study to the participant. I have discussed and have answered all of the questions that the participant asked.

Signature: _____Date: _____

Participant's Consent**:**

I have read the information provided in this Informed Consent Form. All my questions were answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX F

E-MAIL TO TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

Derya Altinmakas
To hayef_ing@yahoogroups.com

Merhabalar,

Ben Derya Altınmakas.

HAYEF 2002 mezunuyum.

2005 yılından beri İstanbul'da bir vakıf üniversitesinde İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü'nde genellikle yazım teknikleri, dilbilim ve kültür çalışmaları alanlarında lisans dersleri veriyorum. Aynı zamanda Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde de yabancı dil öğretimi alanında doktora tezimi tamamlamaya çalışıyorum.

Veri toplama aşamasında, röportaj yapmak için, devlet okullarında orta-öğretim seviyesinde İngilizce öğretmenliği yapan bir arkadaşa ihtiyacım var.

Aranızda bana bu konuda yardım etmek isteyen olursa benimle iletişime geçebilirseniz gerçekten çok sevinirim.

Röportaj 20 dakikayı geçmeyecek ve size uygun olan bir zaman ve yerde yapılacaktır. Dilerseniz online (Skype/FaceTime) olarak da görüşme yapabiliriz.

Röportajın detaylarını, çalışmanın içeriğini ve haklarınızı görüşme öncesinde size göndereceğim.

Yardımlarınız için şimdiden çok teşekkürler.

Bana bu mail adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Herkese iyi çalışmalar dilerim.

Sevgiler,

Derya.

APPENDIX G

CEFR COMMON REFERENCE LEVELS

(Retrieved from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/elp/elp-reg/Source/Key_reference/Overview_CEFRscales_EN.pdf)

1.1 Global scale

C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

APPENDIX H

PREVIOUS CURRICULUM/ FOUR-YEAR STUDY PLAN

First Term		Credits
ENL 110	Outlines of English Literature	3
ENL 112	History of British Civilisation I	3
ENL 113	Approaching to Literary Texts I	3
ENL 114	Oral Communication Skills I	3
ENL 115	Written Communication Skills I	3
ENL 126	Introduction to Computer I	2
UN 101	Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution I	2
UN 102	Turkish I	2
Total Credits		21

Second Term		Credits
ENL 211	Renaissance Literature	3
ENL 212	History of British Civilisation II	3
ENL 213	Approaching to Literary Texts II	3
ENL 214	Oral Communication Skills II	3
ENL 215	Written Communication Skills II	3
ENL 226	Introduction to Computer I	2
UN 201	Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution II	2
UN 202	Turkish I	2
Total		21

Third Term		Credits
ENL 310	Restoration and 18th Century Literature	3
ENL 311	Donne and His Contemporaries	3
ENL 314	Translation: English to Turkish I	2
ENL 315	Written Communication Skills III	2
ENL 317	Mythology	3
ENL 08…	Elective	3
Total Credits		16

Fourth Term		Credits
ENL 411	Novel from Defoe to Austen	3
ENL 413	The Romantics	3
ENL 414	Translation: English to Turkish II	2
ENL 415	Written Communication Skills IV	3
ENL 08…	Departmental Elective	3
ENL 513	Literary Theory I	3
Total Credits		17

Fifth Term		Credits
ENL 510	19th Century English Novel	3
ENL 511	Shakespeare I	3
ENL 514	Translation: English to Turkish III	3
ENL 08…	Departmental Elective	3
UN 0……	Humanities Elective	2
ENL613	Literary Theory II	3
Total Credits		17

Sixth Term		Credits
ENL 610	Literary Theory in Practice	3
ENL 611	Shakespeare II	3
ENL 614	Translation: English to Turkish IV	3
ENL 08…	Departmental Elective	3
UN 0……	Humanities Elective	2
ENL715	Research Methodology	3
Total Credits		17

Eighth Term		Credits
ENL 811	Contemporary British Theatre	3
ENL 812	Contemporary British Poetry	3
ENL 813	Contemporary British Novel	3
ENL 814	Translation: Turkish to English II	3
ENL 895	Dissertation	3
Total Credits		15

Seventh Term		Credits
ENL 710	Modern Drama	3
ENL 712	Modernism and British Poetry	3
ENL 713	Modernism and British Novel	3
ENL 714	Translation Turkish to English I	3
ENL 08X	Departmental Elective	3
Total Credits		15

APPENDIXI

NEW CURRICULUM/ FOUR-YEAR STUDY PLAN (2011 – PRESENT)

First Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL1001	Survey of English Literature I	CC	4/0/0	6
ENL1002	British Culture and Civilisation I	CC	4/0/0	5
ENL1003	Aural and Oral Skills Development	CC	3/0/0	5
ENL1004	Advanced Reading and Writing	CC	4/0/0	7
ENL1005	Introduction to Computer	CC	1/2/0	3
ATA1001	Atatürk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution I	CC	2/0/0	2
TR1001	Turkish I	CC	2/0/0	2
Total ECTS Credit				30

Second Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL2001	Survey of English Literature II	CC	4/0/0	6
ENL2002	British Culture and Civilisation II	CC	4/0/0	5
ENL2003	Popular Culture	CC	3/0/0	3
ENL2004	Written Communication of Ideas	CC	4/0/0	7
ENL2005	Introduction to Literary Studies	CC	4/0/0	5
ATA2001	Atatürk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution II	CC	2/0/0	2
TR2001	Turkish II	CC	2/0/0	2
Total ECTS Credit				30

Third Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL3001	Academic Research and Writing	CC	3/0/0	7
ENL3002	Sources of Western Culture and Civilisation	CC	3/0/0	4
ENL3003	Linguistics I	CC	3/0/0	6
Departmental Elective				11
Elective				2
Total ECTS Credit				30

Students must choose 2 Credits form ENLUYYY coded electives, 6 Credits from ENL3YYY, 5 Credits from ENL0YYY coded departmental electives listed below.

Fourth Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL4001	Literary Genres	CC	3/0/0	5
ENL4002	Translation: English to Turkish	CC	3/0/0	6
ENL4003	Linguistics II	CC	3/0/0	5
ENL4004	Rhetoric and Argumentation	CC	3/0/0	6
Departmental Elective				6
Elective				2
Total ECTS Credit				30

Students must choose 2 Credits form ENLUYYY coded electives and 6 Credits from ENL3YYY coded departmental electives listed below.

Fifth Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL5001	Shakespeare I	CC	4/0/0	6
ENL5002	Translation: Turkish to English	CC	3/0/0	7
ENL5003	Readings in Literary Criticism	CC	3/0/0	6
Departmental Elective				11
Total ECTS Credit				30

Students must choose 6 Credits form ENL5YYY and 5 Credits from ENL0YYY coded departmental electives listed below.

Sixth Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL6001	Shakespeare II	CC	4/0/0	6
ENL6002	Cultural Studies	CC	3/0/0	6
ENL6003	Literary Theory	CC	3/0/0	7
Departmental Elective				11
Total ECTS Credit				30

Students must choose 6 Credits form ENL6YYY and 5 Credits from ENL0YYY coded departmental electives listed below.

Seventh Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL7001	Modern Literature	CC	3/0/0	6
ENL7002	English and Global Culture	CC	3/0/0	6
ENL7003	Theory in Practice	CC	3/0/0	8
Departmental Elective				10
Total ECTS Credit				30

Students must choose 10 Credits form ENL0YYY coded departmental electives listed below.

Eighth Term

Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL8001	Postmodern Literature	CC	3/0/0	6
ENL8002	Special Topics in Cultural Studies	CC	3/0/0	8
ENL8003	Narrative in Fiction and Film	CC	3/0/0	6
Departmental Elective				10
Total ECTS Credit				30

Students must choose 10 Credits form ENL0YYY coded departmental electives listed below.

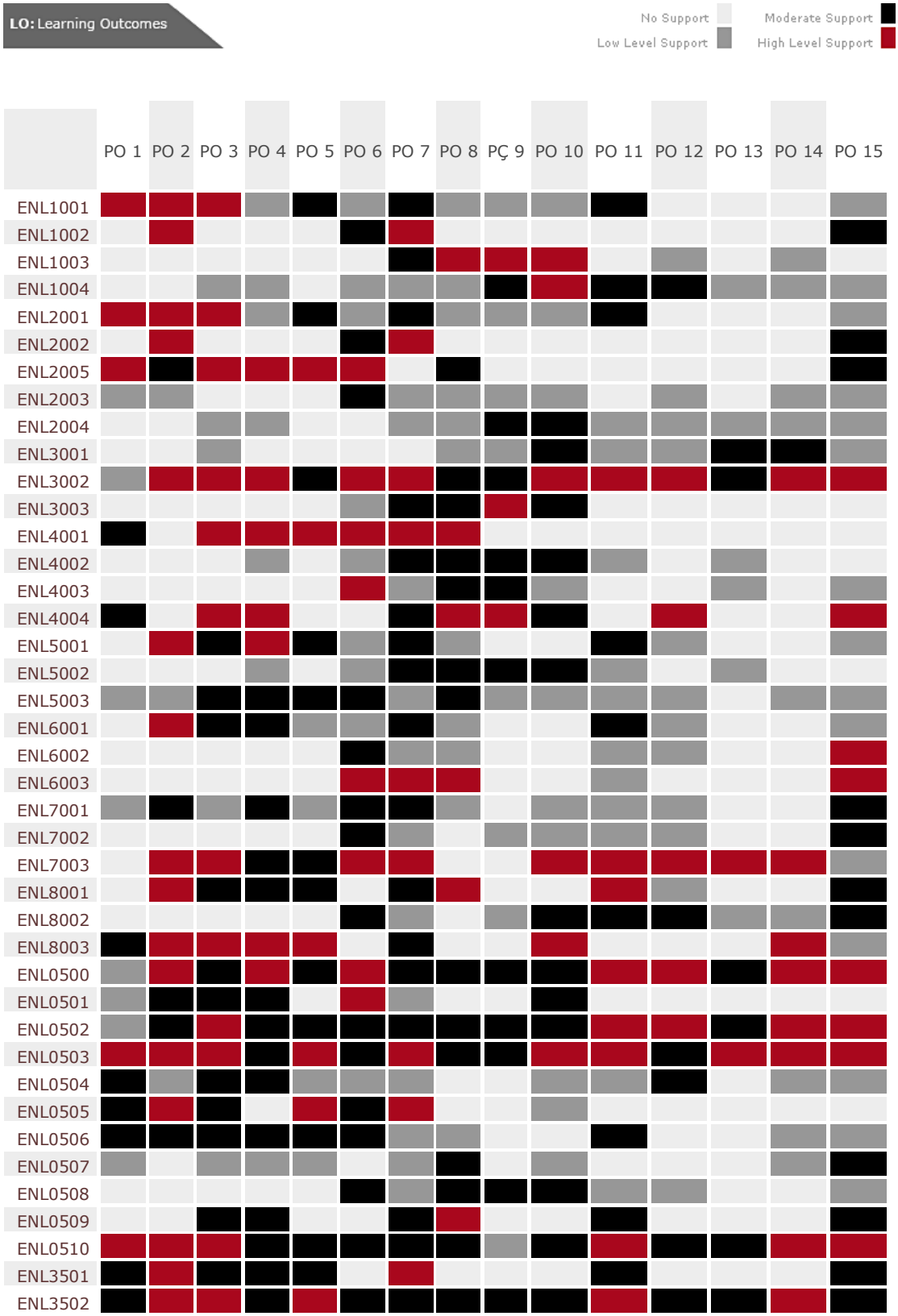
Departmental Elective Courses

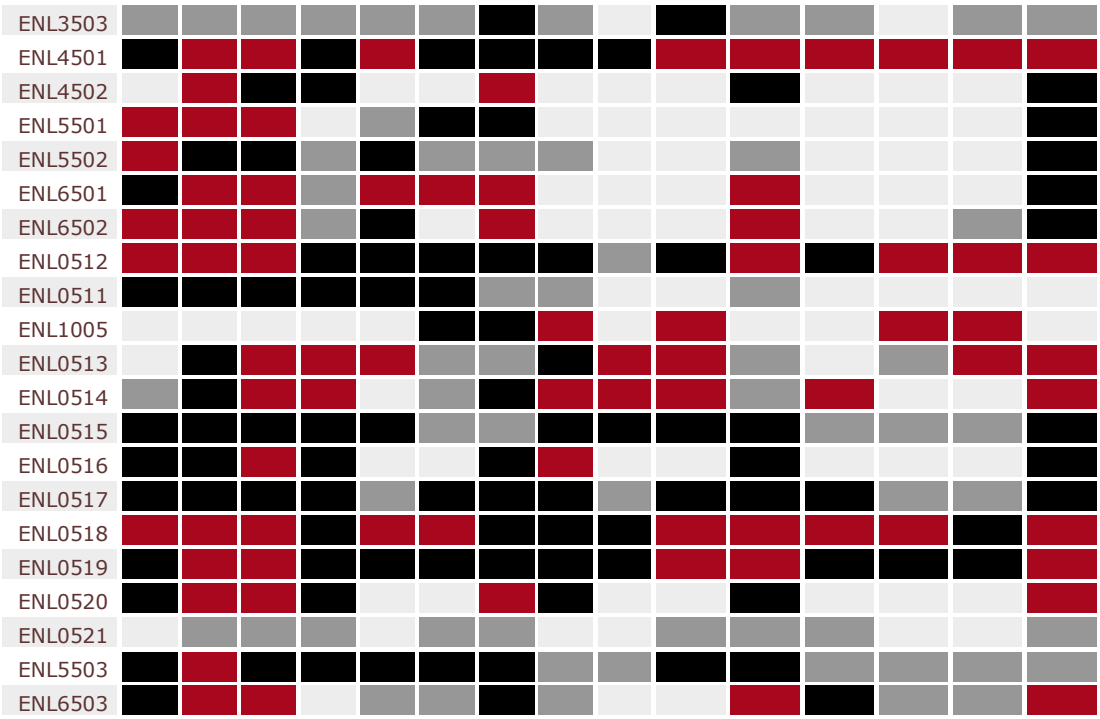
Course Code	Course Name	CC/DE/EL	LE/RC/LA	ECTS
ENL0500	Classical Tragedy	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0501	From Text to Screen	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0502	Mythology	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0503	Modern and Contemporary Drama	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0504	Modern and Contemporary Poetry	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0505	American Drama	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0506	Gothic Tradition	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0507	Writing the Self	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0508	Language and Culture	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0509	Metafiction	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0510	Women Writers	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0511	Fictions of Crime	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0512	Satire and Humour	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0513	Creative Writing Workshop	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0514	Story Design	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0515	Selected Topics in American Literature	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0516	European Novel	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0517	Postcolonial Readings	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0518	Literature and Mythology	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0519	Readings in Milton	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0520	From Utopias to Dystopias	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL0521	Special Topics in Translation	DE	3/0/0	5
ENL3501	From Monsters and Dragons to Villains	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL3502	Renaissance Drama and Its Medieval Roots	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL3503	Medieval and Renaissance Varieties of Love	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL4501	Topics and Trends in Enlightenment Literature	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL4502	The Rise of the English Novel	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL5501	The Romantic Hero	DE	3/0/0	6

ENL5502	Varieties of Romanticism	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL5503	Romanticism: Crisis and Consolation	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL6501	Realism and Fantasy in Victorian Literature	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL6502	Victorian Fictions	DE	3/0/0	6
ENL6503	Victorian Heroines	DE	3/0/0	6

APPENDIX J

COURSE AND PROGRAM OUTCOMES MATRIX




ENL3503
ENL4501
ENL4502
ENL5501
ENL5502
ENL6501
ENL6502
ENL0512
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ENL0514
ENL0515
ENL0516
ENL0517
ENL0518
ENL0519
ENL0520
ENL0521
ENL5503
ENL6503

APPENDIX K

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE – FOR STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

Name: .....

Surname:.....

Year of study:.....

Bu anket Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü'ne bağlı olarak yürütülen; Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde lisans seviyesinde eğitim gören öğrencilerin aldıkları akademik yazma teknikleri derslerinin içeriğini araştırmaya yönelik bir doktora çalışmasının veri toplama yöntemlerinden biridir. Bu anket öğrencisi bulunduğunuz üniversitedeki öğretim elemanlarıyla hiçbir şekilde paylaşılmayacak ve notlarınızı hiçbir şekilde etkilemeyecektir. Burada verdiğiniz cevaplar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Dilediğiniz takdirde anketin ve çalışmanın sonuçları sizinle paylaşılacaktır. Katkılarınız için çok teşekkürler.

Derya Altınmakas

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

**** Anket 4 bölümden oluşmaktadır. Anket soruları İngilizce'dir; bazı soruların daha anlaşılır nitelikte olması için Türkçe açıklamalar yapılmıştır. Sorulara İngilizce veya Türkçe, dilediğiniz şekilde cevap verebilirsiniz.**

PART I: WRITING INSTRUCTION IN TURKISH

1. On a scale of one to ten (one=minimal, ten=excellent), rate your current level of writing in Turkish. (Türkçe yazma yeterliliğinizi bir ile on arasında değerlendiriniz.)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. Have you received writing instruction in Turkish at high school? (Even if you only wrote compositions as a part of your Turkish or Turkish literature courses, this should be considered as having received Turkish writing instruction).

Lisede Türkçe yazım tekniklerini içeren bir ders aldınız mı? (Türkçe dilbilgisi veya edebiyat derslerinde sadece kompozisyon yazdıysanız bile bu soruya "evet" yanıtını verebilirsiniz.)

YES NO

****** If your answer to **question 2** is **YES,** please continue to answer the following questions.If your answer is **NO,** then skip the following questions and **proceed to Part II.**

3. Mark the text type(s) you wrote as part of your writing instruction in Turkish from the following list.

Aşağıda belirtilen yazın türlerinden, Türkçe derslerinizde hangisini veya hangilerini yazdığınızı işaretleyiniz.

☐ **story**

☐ **expository essay** (herhangi bir konuyu açıklayan kompozisyon)

☐ **argumentative essay** (herhangi bir konuyu tartışan kompozisyon)

☐ **reports**

☐ **poems**

☐ **journals** (günlük)

☐ **short answers in examinations**

☐ **summaries**

☐ **research papers**

☐ **others (specify) .....**

4. Which three types of writing from the above list were the most common?

Most common _____

Second most common _____

Third most common _____

5. Did your teacher(s) assign specific topics for your writing? ***(Circle one)***

Yazacağınız metinlerin konusu öğretmenleriniz tarafından belirlenir miydi?

Always ☐ **Usually** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Never** ☐

6. Give 3 examples of the most common assigned topics you wrote about in high school.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

7. Did your teacher(s) ask you to rewrite your papers in your Turkish courses? ***(Circle one)***

Öğretmenleriniz ödevlerinizi kontrol ettikten sonra, sizden tekrar yazmanızı isterler miydi?

Always ☐ **Usually** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Never** ☐

8. According to your Turkish language teacher(s), what were the major ways of persuading your reader in an essay? (Bu soruya Türkçe olarak da cevap verebilirsiniz).

……...……
……...……

9. According to your Turkish language teacher(s), how should an essay be organized? (Bu soruya Türkçe olarak da cevap verebilirsiniz).

……...……
……...……

10. What features of writing did your Turkish language/ literature teachers generally emphasize in your assignments?*(Check all that apply).*

Hazırladığınız ödevlerde veya yazdığınız kompozisyonlarda öğretmenleriniz aşağıdakilerden hangi noktaların önemli olduğunu vurgulardı?

☐ **grammatical correctness** (dilbilgisi)

☐ **mechanics and spelling** (yazım kuralları: noktama ve imla kuralları)

☐ **clarity of main idea** (ana firkin açık olarak belirtilmesi)

☐ **topic sentence in each paragraph**

☐ **thesis statement**

☐ **use of effective language** (etkin dil kullanımı)

☐ **expressing your true feelings**

☐ **persuasiveness** (okuyucunun ikna edilmesi)

☐ **organization of ideas**

☐ **length of paper**

☐ **neatness and beautiful handwriting**

☐ **originality and imagination**

☐ **quoting experts, important names and using other sources**

☐ **truth of your ideas**

☐ **using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas**

☐ **content** (içerik)

☐ **coherence at paragraph level**

☐ **title**

☐ **other (specify) ……**

11. Which three things from the above list were most emphasized?

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

PART II: WRITING INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH

1. On a scale of one to ten (one=minimal, ten=excellent), rate your current level of writing in English. (İngilizce yazma yeterliliğinizi bir ile on arasında değerlendiriniz.)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. Have you received writing instruction in English at high school? (Even if you only wrote essays or paragraphs as a part of your general English courses, this should be considered as having received English writing instruction).

Lisede İngilizce yazım tekniklerini içeren bir ders aldınız mı? (Genel İngilizce derslerinizde sadece kompozisyon veya paragraflar yazdıysanız bile bu soruya "evet" yanıtını verebilirsiniz.)

YES NO

3. Mark the text type(s) you wrote as part of your writing instruction in English from the following list.

Aşağıda belirtilen yazın türlerinden, İngilizce derslerinizde hangisini veya hangilerini yazdığınızı işaretleyiniz.

story

expository essay (herhangi bir konuyu açıklayan kompozisyon)

argumentative essay (herhangi bir konuyu tartışan kompozisyon)

reports

poems

journals (günlük)

short answers in examinations

summaries

research papers

others (specify) .....

4. Which three types of writing from the above list were the most common?

Most common _____

Second most common _____

Third most common _____

5. Did your teacher(s) assign specific topics for your writing? ***(Circle one)***

Yazacağınız metinlerin konusu öğretmenleriniz tarafından belirlenir miydi?

Always Usually Sometimes Never

6. Give 3 examples of the most common assigned topics you wrote about in high school.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

7. Did your teacher(s) ask you to rewrite your papers in your English courses? (Circle one)

Öğretmenleriniz ödevlerinizi kontrol ettikten sonra, sizden tekrar yazmanızı isterler miydi?

Always ☐ **Usually** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Never** ☐

8. According to your English language teacher(s), what were the major ways of persuading your reader in an essay? (Bu soruya Türkçe olarak da cevap verebilirsiniz).

……...……
……...……

9. According to your English language teacher(s), how should an essay be organized? (Bu soruya Türkçe olarak da cevap verebilirsiniz).

……...……
……...……
……

10. What features of writing did your English language teachers generally emphasize in your assignments? (Check all that apply).

Hazırladığınız ödevlerde veya yazdığınız kompozisyonlarda öğretmenleriniz aşağıdakilerden hangi noktaların önemli olduğunu vurgulardı?

☐ **grammatical correctness** (dilbilgisi)

☐ **mechanics and spelling** (yazım kuralları: noktama ve imla kuralları)

☐ **clarity of main idea** (ana firkin açık olarak belirtilmesi)

☐ **topic sentence in each paragraph**

☐ **thesis statement**

☐ **use of effective language** (etkin dil kullanımı)

☐ **expressing your true feelings**

☐ **persuasiveness** (okuyucunun ikna edilmesi)

☐ **organization of ideas**

☐ **length of paper**

☐ **neatness and beautiful handwriting**

☐ **originality and imagination**

☐ **quoting experts, important names and using other sources**

☐ **truth of your ideas**

☐ **using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas**

☐ **content** (içerik)

☐ **coherence at paragraph level**

☐ **title**

☐ **other (specify) ……**

11. Which three things from the above list were most emphasized?

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

PART III: PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS TOWARD WRITING

****Bu bölümdeki 3-4-5 numaralı soruların cevaplarını TÜRKÇE olarak da verebilirsiniz.**

1. I enjoy writing in Turkish.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. I enjoy writing in English.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Do you generally prefer writing in Turkish or in English?

……

4. What do you think is the most important prerequisite to become a good writer?

Sizce iyi bir yazar olmanın en önemli önkoşulu nedir?

……...……
…

5. Do you think with a good writing education everybody can write well?

Sizce yazım teknikleri hakkında iyi bir eğitim alarak herkes iyi yazabilir mi?

……...……
…

PART IV: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. **Age**: ……
2. **Gender**: FEMALE □ MALE □

3. **The name of your Secondary/ High school:** ……

4. **How long have you been studying English/ in English?** …….

5. **Evaluate your proficiency level of English on the scale below.**
   (1=Beginner – 10 near-native) 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 □ 6 □ 7 □ 8 □ 9 □ 10 □

6. **Did you study in prep-school last year?**
   YES □ NO □

7. **Do you speak any other languages in addition to Turkish and English? If yes, please indicate.**
   NO □ YES □ …….

8. **Do you use English language in your daily life?**
   YES □ NO □

9. **In which domains of your life or with whom do you use English most?**
   Genellikle hangi durumlarda veya kişilerle İngilizce'yi kullanıyorsunuz?
   ……

10. **Would you like to contribute to this study by participating in writing and interview sessions, which will take <u>only</u> three hours (one hour per week) during the term?**

    Bu araştırmaya destek vermek için bu dönem içinde sadece 3 saatinizi (haftada 1 saat) alacak bir çalışmaya katılmak ister misiniz?

    a) **There will be a total of 2 (two) interviews (20 minutes each) during the term.**
    b) **You will be asked to write one plot summary of a short-film.**
    c) **You will receive gift certificates.**
    YES □ NO □

İletişim Bilgileri (e-posta/cep telefonu): …….....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION!! ☺☺☺

APPENDIX L

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

Bu kısa anket Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Dil Eğitimi Bölümü'ne bağlı olarak yürütülen; Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde lisans seviyesinde eğitim gören öğrencilerin akademik yazı yazma deneyimini araştırmaya yönelik bir doktora çalışmasının veri toplama yöntemlerinden biridir.
Burada verdiğiniz cevaplar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Dilediğiniz takdirde anketin ve çalışmanın sonuçları sizinle paylaşılacaktır.

Katkılarınız için çok teşekkürler.

Derya Altınmakas

1. What features of writing do you generally emphasize in your writing instruction and/or do you pay attention to when you provide feedback to your students' written work? (Circle all that apply).

a) grammatical correctness
b) mechanics and spelling
c) clarity of main idea
d) topic sentence in each paragraph
e) thesis statement
f) the use of effective language
g) expressing true feelings
h) persuasiveness
i) organization of ideas
j) length of paper
k) neatness and beautiful handwriting
l) originality and imagination
m) quoting experts, important names and using other sources
n) the truth of ideas
o) using good examples and details to illustrate main ideas
p) content
q) coherence at paragraph level
r) unity at paragraph level
s) title
t) other (specify) ……

3. Which three things from the above list are most important?
a) Most important _____
b) Second most important _____
c) Third most important _____

Personal Information:
Gender: Female ☐Male ☐
Education: BA ☐MA ☐PhD ☐

Teaching experience:
High-School ☐for …… year(s).
Preparatory School ☐for …… year(s).
University – Faculty ☐for …… year(s).

Current teaching position:
English Language Teacher ☐
Instructor ☐
Lecturer ☐
Assistant Professor ☐
Associate Professor ☐
Professor ☐

Please answer the following questions that apply to you:

Have you ever taught academic writing? Yes ☐No ☐

Are you currently teaching academic writing? Yes ☐No ☐

Are you currently teaching writing in English? Yes ☐No ☐

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION ☺☺

APPENDIX M

STUDENT ESSAYS AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Topic: Television,newspapers,magazines,andother media pay too muchattention to the personal lives of famous people suchas publicfigures andcelebrities.We also often see pictures of them in privatesituations.

Are famous people treatedunfairlybythe media? Shouldthey be givenmore privacy,oris the priceoftheir fame an invasion into their private lives?

STUDENT ESSAY #1

The Media and Famous People

Fame is a word which represents being known by people in a society, in a nation or in the whole world. Famous people are known with their fame because we track them for what they do, what they eat or wear and where they go. In other words, we live with those people in every aspect of our lives just to be like them. Until this point, there is nothing wrong. Do we have right to invade famous people's lives for the sake of following them? The answer is we do not. The price of being famous should not be paid as an invasion to those people's lives. Thus, famous people should be given more privacy because of the danger which is the obsession of people for
the sake of watching celebrities all the time and the overstatement of all kinds of the media agains famous people.

Moral values represents the line between people and private life. Each people deserves to spend personal time apart from their jobs in daily life. Being famous does not mean that their private lives can be interrupted. When we look at the media nowadays, tracking celebrities have turned into a whole different subject which is related to being obsessive. By not taking each person's private life and moral values into consideration, famous people are being tracked and chased with cars by paparazzi after exiting from night club, being shot while they are at home spending time with their children or enjoying their leisure time. If this happens to a normal person, everyone including the media itself lectures about the importance of private life. When it comes to famous people, it is understood as if it is something normal and they are always ready for media and paparazzi to show themselves. That is not the price to pay for being famous and there must be a limit for following famous people.

Media and paparazzi always lead the events which manipulate the things in agenda. Their attitude towards people or specific groups determine people's attitude towards media. By using that, media uses famous people generally to get attention or high ratings on television. For doing that,

famous people which are being idolized by the masses are used in some unwanted situations. As an example, Zlatan Ibrahimović was seen with another football player while chatting. Reporters, later on, asks Ibrahimović if he is gay or not. By doing that, speculations starting to appear one by one on the media and so called critiques talk about those situations and shape the agenda. In some situations, tracking celebrities on social media, looking on their pictures on Facebook, Instagram or Twitter, or following their updated informations. This is right because they share informations on these social sites willingly. Apart from that, they do not deserve to be disturbed just because they are famous.

As a conclusion, famous people are normal just like other people. Being famous just make them popular but not let other people invade their private lives. They deserve a normal and life which is not interrupted by other people just because obsessiveness and the media's attitude for making profit by using famous people's name. Also, speculations which often created by the media itself about the famous people should not be published just to get attention. After all, they are all ordinary people living their ordinary life just like us.

STUDENT ESSAY#2

Are Famous People Treated Unfairly by the Media?

People read celebrities' private lives both from magazines and media. The media follows celebrities and tries to make news about them. However, those news are generally attacking celebrities own lives. Although the media's purpose is to make general news about celebrities, it disturbs celebrities' lives with the aspects of their own lives and career, their partners and that of children. Media shows famous peoples' lives in order to inform and gain money from them. However, the media affects celebrities' own lives and career. Celebrities cannot walk in public areas because of paparazzi. When some of them walk in the public area, there are a lot of fans and cameras around them and it makes them asocial. For example, Michael Jackson was the singer who wanted to keep his privacy but the media judged him because his black skin wasturned into white even though it was a disease and he could not take care of his children well and the plastic surgery that he had was welcomed by the media. Also, his sister Janet Jackson was judged by the media. She was on stage with Justin Timberlake who took off Janet's blouse. The media blamed her that it was planned even though she did not realize it. That incident almost finished her career.

In addition to the media's effect on celebrities' lives and career, the partners of them suffered from the media. Some of the partners are both known by society or one of them is famous. For example, Prince William married to Kate Middleton who is from middle class. This marriage was discussed by both media and the royal family because the media showed her photo that was taken when she was drunk Also, Chris Brown, who is a singer, beat her girlfriend Rihanna and the photo of her was taken by police officers and shared by the media. Another example for partners is

the marriage between Ali Taran and Ayşe Özyılmazel. The media and some columnists judged them because Ali Taran was older than Ayşe Özyılmazel.

Not only famous peoples' partners suffer from the media, but also children of them pay the price of being celebrity. Paparazzi follow those little kids to make news about them. For example, Suri Cruise is the daughter of Tom Cruise and Katie Holmes. Suri Cruise is a public figure that her style and movement becomes popular which is led that media follows her step to make news. Also, Kurt Cobain's daughter Frances Bean Cobain was criticized by common people because the photo that the media shared shows that she did not look like a rock star's daughter. That was a quite disappointment for people especially who are fan of Kurt Cobain.

Even though the media is trying to make news about celebrities, they should do it by respecting famous peoples' private lives because it does not only harm their own lives and career, but also has an effect on their partners and children.

Assessment criteria/ Grades	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	
Paperorganization (Paragraphing: introduction-developmental paragraphs–conclusion) & OverallWriting	• Has**verylittle control**in organizational features. • **Cannot** communicate**any message**.	• Has**little**controlin organizational features. • Messageispartially communicatedand **mostlyconfusing**forthe reader.	• Has**adequate**controlin organizational features. • Messageiscommunicated andcan**sometimes**be **confusing**forthereader.	• Has**good**controlin organizational features. • Messageis **adequately** conveyedthough **someparts**maybe morefullycovered thanothers.	• Has**very good control**in organizational features. • Messageis **sufficiently**and	
Introduction Paragraph & ThesisStatement	• Openingstatements are**toocliché** and **vague**. • Thereis**noclear position**(thesis statement).	• Openingstatements**do not** leadthe reader tothe mainidea. • Attemptsto present a position (thesis statement)**but it is not clear.**	•Openingstatements **partially**leadthereaderto themainidea. • Presents a position(thesis statement)but**it is not veryclear.**	• Uses**relevant strategies**for openingstatements. • Presents**aclear position** (thesis statement).	• Uses**effective strategies** for openingstatements andthese**leadthe reader**	
QualityofContent DevelopmentofIdeas & Paragraphorganization (UnityandCoherence)	• Ideas aretoa large extent **undeveloped**or irrelevant. • Explanations and/orexamples **arenot clear**. • Ideas are**mostly not related**tothe topic and/or controllingidea (unity). • Ideas**arenot connected**and/or organized logically (coherence).	• Ideas are presentedbut thereis**noclear progression**inthe developmentof ideas. • Explanations and/or examples maybe **repetitive,**too **hypothetical**or **notwell supported**. • **Only some** ideas **are related**tothetopic and/or thecontrollingidea (unity). • **Verylimited control** of connectionand logical relationshipbetween ideas (coherence).	• Ideas are presentedbut**not sufficientlydeveloped**and there are **suddenshifts** in thepresentationof ideas. • Explanations and examples are**sufficient**butsometimes **repetitive** or **irrelevant in detail**. •**Someideasdigressfrom** thetopicand/or the controllingidea,but **do not distorttheoverall meaning** of theparagraph (unity). • **Limited control**of connectionand logical relationshipbetween ideas (coherence).	•Ideas are**relevant** forthetask but **some**maybe **undeveloped**or **unclear**. • Explanations and examples are **sufficient**and **conclusions**are drawnthough **sometimes**thereis **over- generalization**. • **Sufficient control**of unity and coherence.	• Ideas arewell developed, **extended** and relevant. • Explanations and exampleare **relevant,well researched**and **conclusions**are drawn. • **Goodcontrol** of unity and	

Sentencestructure (Simple&Complex /Grammatical accuracy) &VocabularyUsage & Punctuationand Spelling	• Sentencestructures aresimple,**mostly inaccurate**and errorsingrammar **distort the meaning**. • Uses**verybasic, limitedrange**of vocabulary,which is**mostly** repetitive. • **Verylimited control**of punctuation and spelling.	• Uses**averylimited range**of sentence structures, mostly simple. • **Some**structures are **accuratebut**errorsin grammar**distort the meaning.** • Uses**basicvocabulary**, which maybe **repetitive**. • **Limited**controlof punctuation andspelling.	• Attemptstouse**complex sentence**structures**but these tend tobe less accurate**than simple sentencestructures. • Errorsingrammar **sometimes**distortthe meaning. • Uses**alimited rangeof vocabulary**and expressions. • **Adequate**controlof punctuation andspelling.	•Uses**amix of** complex and simple sentences. • Errorsingrammar **donot distort**the meaning;meaningis **generally**conveyed. •Uses**adequate rangeof vocabulary** and expressions. • **Good**controlof punctuation and spelling.	•Uses**amix of** complex and simple sentences. • Has**goodcontrolof grammar** and frequentlyconveys meaningwith**error-free**sentences. • Uses**widerangeof vocabulary**and **effective** expressions. • **Good**controlof punctuation and spelling.	
					Total Grade (20%)	

STUDENTESSAY #1

Stronger feature(s) ofthe essay:

Weaker feature(s) ofthe essay:

STUDENTESSAY #2

Stronger feature(s) ofthe essay:

Weaker feature(s) ofthe essay:

APPENDIX N

TASK SHEET FOR NARRATIVE ELICITATION DATA

DATE:

Short Film: *Will by Eusong Lee, USA*

1. *Please, briefly* ***narrate the story*** *(characters, theme, plot)of the short film you have watched and* ***tell what you have felt*** *while watching the film.*

DATE:

Kısa Film: *Nedir Bu? Yönetmen: Constantin Pilavios, 2007, Yunanistan.*

1. *Lütfen,izlediğiniz kısa filmin* ***hikâyesini*** *(karakterler, tema ve olay örgüsü)* ***kısaca anlatınız*** *ve* ***sizde uyandırdığı duyguları yazınız****.*

APPENDIX O

TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' CONSENT FORM

Consent to participate in Research

I AM BEING ASKED TO READ THE FOLLOWING MATERIAL TO ENSURE THAT I AM INFORMED OF THE NATURE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY AND OF HOW I WILL PARTICIPATE IN IT, IF I CONSENT TO DO SO. SIGNING THIS FORM WILL INDICATE THAT I HAVE BEEN SO INFORMED AND THAT I GIVE MY CONSENT.

Purpose
This study is being conducted by the researcher, Derya Altınmakas, as her PhD dissertation. The purpose of the study is to investigate the dynamics of factors influencing the academic writing practices of Turkish university students.

Procedures
By agreeing to participate, I consent to the following activities:

* assessing and evaluating two student essays.

* filling in a questionnaire.

* participating in an audiotaped interview when I am available.

Confidentiality

My name will only be known to the researcher. All references to me in conference presentations, papers, and articles will be used as a pseudonym. Only the researcher will have access to written texts and audiotapes produced by my participation in this study. I have the right to withdraw from the research at any time; if I do so, all written texts and audiotapes on which I appear will be destroyed. I do not give up any of my legal rights by signing this form. A copy of this signed consent form will be given to me.

If I have additional questions about the research, I can contact the researcher as follows:
Derya Altinmakas/ daltinmakas@gmail.com / 0532427 25 65

Investigator's statement:
I have fully explained this study to the participant. I have discussed and have answered all of the questions that the participant asked.
Signature: _____Date: _____

Participant's Consent:
I have read the information provided in this Informed Consent Form. All my questions were answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.
Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX P

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Semi- Structured Interview Questions

Freshman Year Students	Senior Year Students	EFL Teachers & Faculty Member
In the first part of the questionnaire, you have marked (…) for your competence in writing in English and Turkish. Can you explain your reasons?	In the first part of the questionnaire, you have marked (…) for your competence in writing in English and Turkish. Can you explain your reasons?	• What do you think about "writing" as a language skill? • What is the importance of "writing" in an EFL classroom and in an academic context?
• Could you briefly talk about the content of Turkish courses you received in high school? Do you use any of the skills you have gained in these courses while writing at university now? • Could you briefly talk about the content of English courses you received in high school? Do you use any of the skills you have gained in these courses while writing at university now?	• Could you briefly talk about the content of Turkish courses you received in high school? Do you use any of the skills you have gained in these courses while writing at university now? • Could you briefly talk about the content of English courses you received in high school? Do you use any of the skills you have gained in these courses while writing at university now?	• To what extent do you attach importance and/or prioritize "writing" in your courses? • How do you define "academic writing"? • What constitutes a "well-written essay" for you? • What sort of skills and knowledge do you expect your students to demonstrate in their written works?
Questions related to Part III of the Questionnaire: • In question 3, you have stated that you are more likely to prefer writing in English/Turkish? Can you elaborate on that? • You have answered question 4 (What do you think is the most important prerequisite to become a good writer) in this way. Can you explain your reasons? • You have answered question 5 (Do you think with good writing education, everybody can write well) in this way. Can you elaborate more on that?	Questions related to Part III of the Questionnaire: • In question 3, you have stated that you are more likely to prefer writing in English/Turkish? Can you elaborate on that? • You have answered question 4 (What do you think is the most important prerequisite to become a good writer) in this way. Can you explain your reasons? • You have answered question 5 (Do you think with good writing education, everybody can write well) in this way. Can you elaborate more on that?	• In the questionnaire, you have stated that you find (…) as the most important features of writing. Could elaborate more on this? • What type of writing tasks do you assign to your students? • When you are evaluating and grading your students' written works, what do you pay attention to most? • Do you provide feedback? If yes, what do you emphasize most in your feedback?

• (if applies to the student) Can you comment on the writing courses you had in prep school? Do you use any of the skills you learnt in your courses now? • To what extent you find the writing courses you take now useful? Do you transfer any of the skills you learn to your other courses?	• (if applies to the student) Can you comment on the writing courses you had in prep school? Did you use any of the skills you learnt in your courses? • To what extent you find the writing courses you took in your freshman year useful? Do you use any of the skills you learnt in your other courses now?	Elaboration on the evaluation and assessment of student essay #1. Elaboration on the evaluation and assessment of student essay #2.
What does "writing" mean to you in general? • How do you feel when you write in Turkish or in English? • What are, if any, the similarities or differences between writing in Turkish and writing in English? • Can you describe the process of writing an assignment for one your courses?	What does "writing" mean to you in general? • How do you feel when you write in Turkish or in English? • What are, if any, the similarities or differences between writing in Turkish and writing in English? • Can you describe the process of writing an assignment for one your courses?	What do you consider to be problematic in your students' written works?
What role does English play in your life? What do you think would make you a better writer of English?	What role does English play in your life? What do you think would make you a better writer of English?	
	Do you observe any progress in your English writing skills since freshman year? If yes, what factors do you think have contributed to your progress?	

Stimulated Recall Interview Questions

<table>
<tr><th>Freshman Year Students</th><th>Senior Year Students</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Stimuli: Written data (students' short narratives about the Short Films (x2)
Field Notes of the researcher, indicating starting, pausing and ending times.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Writing in English (the first short film- Will)

1a. You started writing right after watching the film, did you plan what you were going to write while watching the film?
1b. You hesitated for a while before you started to write? Do you remember what you thought of?
2. While you were watching the film, did you take any notes? If yes, what were they about?
3. At (…) moment, you paused and thought for a while? What made you pause in these intervals? Can you point at specific parts in your narrative?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Writing in Turkish (the second short film- What is that?)
1a. You started writing right after watching the film, did you plan what you were going to write while watching the film?
1b. You hesitated for a while before you started to write? Do you remember what you thought of?
2. While you were watching the film, did you take any notes? If yes, what were they about?
3. At (…) moment, you paused and thought for a while? What made you pause in these intervals? Can you point at specific parts in your narrative?
Writing in Turkish (the second short film- What is that?)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Writing both in Turkish and English:

1. Did you pause more while writing in Turkish or in English? Why?
2. It took you longer to write in Turkish/English? Why do you think so?
3. When did you feel yourself at ease? Writing in Turkish or in English? Why?
4. How do you think this type of writing is different from other types of writing you practice at university?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Post-interview Questions:
1. Considering the text genres you are asked to write at university (i.e. Essays, response papers, short stories, and Plot reviews/summaries), which one(s) do you like best? Why?

2. Do you think you have developed your writing skills since beginning of this academic year?

3. What do you think of the homework you are assigned in your courses?

4a. What do you think about the feedback you receive from your tutors?
4b. Do you think there are any similarities or differences between what you and your tutors expect from the assigned coursework?

5. What do you think about plagiarism?

6. What sort of writing would like to practice more in the following years?</td><td>Post-interview Questions:
1. Considering the text genres you are asked to write at university (i.e. Essays, response papers, short stories, and Plot reviews/summaries, research papers), which one(s) did you like best? Why?

2a. What do you think about the feedback you receive from your tutors?
2b. Do you think there are any similarities or differences between what you and your tutors expect from the assigned coursework?

3. What do you think about plagiarism?

4. Do you think types of writing you have practiced so far will be useful for your future profession or ambitions?

5. Considering the skills you have gained by studying in this department for the last four years, which ones do you think you will be using for the rest of your life?</td></tr>
</table>

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