

# DISCIPLINARY ACADEMIC

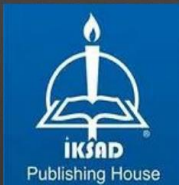
WRITING:

*Opportunities  
and Challenges*

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Elif TOKDEMİR DEMİREL

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Dr. Behice Ceyda CENGİZ



September 2023

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## **Disciplinary Academic Writing: Opportunities and Challenges**

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## PREFACE

Throughout history, writing has been the most effective tool for communicating ideas, experiences, hopes, beliefs and cultures. What we know about the heritage of humankind depends greatly on written sources. People have written on the walls of caves, on stone walls of monuments, on papyrus and on paper.

People have always written for two main reasons: to share knowledge and to leave a mark in history. The role of writing as the permanent tool for sharing knowledge and ideas has never changed; however, the means by which we share our written work has evolved.

In today's world, writing has become digitalized but the urge of humankind to share and leave a mark has always remained.

In the academic sphere, scholars' way of communicating ideas is through academic writing. In all disciplines, scholars carrying out research have a common language which is academic writing. Academic writing and sharing ideas through scholarly publications is the way for scholars to keep connected as a community.

This is the way knowledge is shared, discussed and evolved. Researchers from different language backgrounds carry out research and share their findings in scholarly publications both in their native languages and in English which has become the lingua franca of publications.

Therefore, the chapters in our edited book are mostly related to the investigation of various issues on academic writing in the English language by scholars and EFL learners.

The impetus behind this edited book has been to contribute to the discussion on the challenges faced by non-native speakers of English in the process of publishing in English in various academic disciplines and EFL learners in developing their foreign language writing skills.

The specific topics that have been discussed in the chapters include but are not limited to the processes in academic writing and publishing, ethics in publishing an academic research paper, equity in publishing academic research papers, technology and academic writing, challenges of writing academically in a foreign language, teaching academic writing to non-native students challenges in using specific disciplinary terminology in academic writing.

Distinguished reviewers have contributed with valuable feedback to our chapters. We would like to thank our reviewers Bena Gül Peker, Buğra Zengin, Gözde Balıkçı, Nihan Erdemir, Nuray Alagözlü, Safiye İpek Kuru Gönen, Şevki Kömür.

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We would also like to extend our thanks to our chapter writers: Elif Tokdemir Demirel, Işıl Günseli Kaçar, Fatma Şeyma Doğan, Emel Küçülali, Hatice Altun, Özkan Kırmızı, Haticetül Kübra Er, Burcu Turhan, Elif Aydın Yazıcı, Derin Atay, Tuba Aydın Yıldız, Ümran Üstünbaş, Neslihan Keleş, Ali Şükrü Özbay, and Elham Zarfsaz who contributed with chapters with a wide range of topics including corpus based investigation of academic writing, Translanguaging in EFL writing, the use of Google Jamboard meetings in EFL writing, Metacognition in EFL writing, Self-regulation in EFL writing, The facilitative role of Chat GPT in academic writing, digitalization in academic writing, investigation of semantic prosody in academic writing, the effect of pre task planning in EFL writing, digital formative assessment in academic writing, and authorial voice in argumentative writing.

The contributions from our chapter writers have gone beyond our expectations and we are very excited to share their work and hope that this edited book will benefit writing researchers and writing teachers.

Yours Respectfully

September 29, 2023

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## Variation in Disciplinary Academic Writing: A Corpus-Based Investigation

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## **1. Introduction**

English is regarded as the lingua franca of scholarly publication in nearly all fields of science including social sciences. Not only international journals but also national journals published by universities in many countries have accepted English as the language of publication in the past decades. Additionally, the dominance of English in the increasingly globalized scientific community has started to motivate researchers from all nationalities to write their publications in the English language. English serves as an additional language for these scholars since they are usually writing research both in their native language and in English, the accepted language of academia. In Türkiye, universities are increasingly including English as a language of publication in their journals and both English and Turkish publications are accepted for publication in numerous university journals as well as journals published by other scientific organizations in Türkiye. However, making publications in internationally indexed journals is regarded as more prestigious among Turkish scholars as well as researchers from other nationalities (Li & Flowerdew, 2009). In the global academia, the number of scholarly publications written in English by Turkish researchers indexed in the Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI) has been increasing; e.g., out of 507 arts and humanities journal articles written in a period of 4 years between 1999-2003 by Turkish researchers affiliated with a Turkish institution, an overwhelming majority of 91% were written in English (Şahiner & Tonta, 2006). This increase may in part be motivated

by the prestige and privilege with which these publications are associated.

Academic publications have certain rules and conventions to be followed by researchers; however, research papers written in various disciplines still show variation even within the social sciences. Exploring the variation between research papers between various fields of social sciences has the potential to offer valuable insights into the dynamics of academic writing for especially non-native research writers. One effective way for analyzing variance in academic writing specifically in research writing is the use of corpus linguistics methodology.

Research comparing and contrasting various fields of academic publications has the potential to shed light on the criteria required for getting published and thus acting as a guide for researchers. However, only a limited number of research studies have investigated Turkish scholarly writing in a detailed and systematic way and there is not a corpus consisting of Turkish scholarly writing produced in English. Corpus compilation by means of computers first started with the compilation of the Brown corpus in the 1960s (Meyer, 2002). Since then, numerous corpora of various sizes and with various purposes have been compiled and numerous computer programs have been developed which aid the analyses of corpora. A corpus (plural corpora) in linguistic terms can be defined as “a collection of spoken and written texts, organized by register and coded for other discourse considerations” (Biber et al, 1999, p4). Some examples of corpora have been provided in Table 1 below.

**Table 1.** Corpus Resources (see Meyer, 2002 for a complete list)

Resource	Description	Availability
American National Corpus	In progress: spoken and written texts	Project website: <a href="http://www.cs.vassar.edu/~ide/anc/">http://www.cs.vassar.edu/~ide/anc/</a>
Bank of English Corpus	415 million words of speech and writing (as of October 2000); texts are continually added	Collins-Cobuild: <a href="http://titania.cobuild.collins.co.uk/boe_info.html">http://titania.cobuild.collins.co.uk/boe_info.html</a>
Birmingham Corpus	20 million words of written English	Evolved into Bank of English Corpus
British National Corpus	100 million words of samples of varying length containing spoken (10 million) and written (90 million words) British English.	BNC website: <a href="http://info.ox.ac.uk/bnc/index.html">http://info.ox.ac.uk/bnc/index.html</a>
Brown Corpus	One million words of edited American English	ICAME CD-ROM
Cambridge International Corpus	100 million words of spoken and written British And American English	CUP Website: <a href="http://uk.cambridge.org/bnc/getting/sampler.html">http://uk.cambridge.org/bnc/getting/sampler.html</a>
Cambridge Learners' Corpus	10 million words of student essay exams	CUP Website: <a href="http://uk.cambridge.org/bnc/getting/sampler.html">http://uk.cambridge.org/bnc/getting/sampler.html</a>
Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Learner Corpus	25 million words of learner English	Contact: John Milton Project Director <a href="mailto:lsjohn@ust.hk">lsjohn@ust.hk</a>
International Corpus of English (ICE)	600.000 words of speech, 400.000 words of text representing National varieties of English	Great Britain: <a href="http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/ice-gb/index.htm">http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/ice-gb/index.htm</a>

The main difference between the corpus linguistics approach and traditional approaches such as generative grammar towards language analysis is the distinction between ‘prescription’ and ‘description’ (Meyer, 2002). While corpus linguists try to describe the actual use of language depending on data from everyday use, generative grammarians aim at developing ideal theories of language and thus prescribe what is correct or incorrect use of language. The following quote from Meyer

(2002) further explains this difference: Of primary concern to the corpus linguist is an accurate description of language; of importance to the generative grammarian is a theoretical discussion of language that advances our knowledge of universal grammar (p, 4).

Corpus linguistics has contributed to linguistics research greatly by putting language, which is a social entity, into such a form that it is scientifically analyzable. By means of computer programs specially designed for language analysis (e.g., corpus wizard, corpus presenter, Monoconc, Sara, AntConc) it has become possible to analyze large online samples of everyday language and research various properties of languages such as co-occurrences of certain language elements. The main advantage is that linguistic analyses can be done on a larger scale than ever before by means of corpus linguistics.

In Türkiye, corpus studies are relatively new compared to the United States and Europe. One recent large-scale project which has started as a university project is an attempt to put together a spoken corpus of the Turkish language (Ruhi, 2010). Without the compilation of a specialized corpus, it would not be possible to conduct large-scale analyses of English texts or speech produced by people whose native language is Turkish. One potential area of interest is scholarly articles written in English by Turkish researchers. Research in Türkiye on scholarly writing in English written by NNS researchers usually focuses on the experiences of Turkish researchers as non-native writers in the process of publishing in academic journals (Başaran & Sofu, 2009) but these

research studies do not examine the actual publications from the aspect of corpus linguistics.

Academic prose as a register is characterized by certain lexicogrammatical features and certain conventions. Therefore, substantial variation would not be expected to occur between writers belonging to different language backgrounds. In the case of academic language and publications; however, studies that follow a corpus linguistics methodology have revealed variance between different writer groups, genres, registers and disciplines (Csomay 2007, Xiao 2009, Cacoullous 2009, Kikuo 2010). This body of research has yielded interesting findings and has analyzed corpora of various sizes representing different genres for different purposes. For example, Csomay (2007) explored variation within student talk of American university students by using a corpus of 1,4 million words; Kikuo (2010) analyzed the 7,5 million word corpus of Spontaneous Japanese for allophonic variation in the use of the /z/ morpheme in current Japanese; Xiao (2009) explored variation across 12 registers and 5 varieties of English by using the ICE (International Corpus of English) and Cacoullous (2009) explored the 870,484-word corpus of Spoken Canadian in order to account for the syntactic, semantic and discourse pragmatic factors causing variation in the use of 'that' or 'zero complementizer'. Egbert (2015) employed Multi-Dimensional analysis to examine linguistic variation in academic writing across different publication types and disciplines. Such studies make contributions to the literature by identifying dimensions of variation between disciplines. The specific study by Egbert (2015), for instance,



identified five dimensions of variation: "Affective synthesis vs. specialized information density," "Definition and evaluation of new concepts," "Author-centered stance," "Reader-friendly narrative," and "Abstract observation and description." The study used factorial ANOVAs to test interactions between publication type and discipline on these dimensions and found significant interactions in four out of five dimensions. In his study, Kanoksilapatham (2015) compiled a corpus of 180 high-quality RAs for analysis, and identified common textual structures in each sub-discipline, and quantitatively analyzed these structures using "move" and "step" units. The results revealed distinct variations in textual organization influenced by sub-disciplines, emphasizing the unique characteristics of each. The results of his research are relevant in improving communication in engineering by enhancing awareness among students and practitioners when reading or writing RAs. Boettger (2016) discussed the importance of understanding the linguistic and rhetorical patterns within academic disciplines to improve students' professional writing skills. His research presented a case study where corpora were integrated into a graduate-level technical editing course to teach students about writing variation, which they then applied to edit research-based texts for non-native English speakers in STEM disciplines. The described approaches are adaptable to various educational systems, grade levels, and student proficiency levels. The paper also addresses the challenges of integrating corpus-based learning into the classroom. This kind of research at this scale would not have been possible without the use of corpus linguistics methods. A study by

Pastor (2009) between research writers of different language backgrounds has shown that variation exists between samples of academic writing such as technical writing by non-native and native speaker (NS) writers.

Although studies of linguistic variation that utilize corpus methods are becoming more widespread in the world to explore different languages and genres, in Türkiye such studies have not received much attention from researchers. There are no large-scale corpora consisting of the English language produced by Turkish speakers either in written or in spoken form. However, in order to make possible large-scale analyses of the English language produced by Turkish speakers, the first step is to compile specialized learner/user corpora.

A possible area of interest is academic publications by Turkish researchers who use English as an additional language (EAL) for publication. Since this kind of corpus does not exist, the compilation of a corpus of academic publications written in EAL by Turkish researchers as NNS would greatly assist corpus linguistics studies and yield interesting findings on the characteristics of Turkish researchers' academic publications. Thus, for this study, firstly a comprehensive corpus of academic publications written in English by NNS (non-native speaker) Turkish researchers in social sciences was compiled and secondly a Multi-dimensional analysis (MDA) (Biber 1985, 1986, 1988) of these academic publications was carried out. To be more specific, the main purposes of the study were:

1. To pioneer corpus linguistics studies in Türkiye by compiling a corpus of NNS academic publications written in English by Turkish researchers in the field of social sciences.
2. To conduct Multi-dimensional analyses in order to find variations in specific features of NS academic publications and NNS academic publications by Turkish researchers.
3. To question whether academic publications and NNS academic publications show variation in the social sciences discipline.
4. If so, to question in which aspects publications by NNS writers show variation in the social sciences.
5. To discuss the implications of such variations for future researchers and writers of academic publications as well as journal editors.

## **2. Material and Method**

### **2.1. Methodology**

This study used the Multi-dimensional analysis method of corpus linguistics in order to analyze and compare NNS academic publications in various subdisciplines of social sciences. Multi-dimensional analysis (MDA) has been developed by Biber (1985) and has been improved over the years by the researcher. As a methodological approach, Biber et al. (2007) describe two main purposes for MDA:

To identify the salient linguistic co-occurrence patterns in a language, in empirical,/quantitative terms; and (2) compare spoken and written genres/registers in the linguistic space defined by those co-occurrence patterns (p. 261).

The co-occurrence patterns are important in analyzing text because they reflect functions of texts within a genre that are similar across that genre and can be interpreted in terms of the situational, social and cognitive functions shared by the linguistic functions (Biber et al, 2007, p. 262). MDA is going to be used in the present study in order to detect co-occurrence patterns in NS academic publications and NNS academic publications and thus allow for comparisons of the two groups of texts. As suggested by Biber et al (2007), the study followed eight steps of MDA which are summarized as follows:

1. A corpus of NNS academic publications were compiled and input into the computer. (The academic publications were chosen among the ones published in refereed academic journals in social sciences).
2. Research was conducted in order to identify the linguistic features to be included in the analysis, together with functional associations of the linguistic features. (in the case of academic publications, the linguistic features to be analyzed could be verb phrases and noun phrases)
3. The Biber tagger was used to tag all relevant linguistic features in the compiled texts.
4. The entire corpus of texts was tagged automatically by computer, and all texts were edited interactively to ensure that the linguistic features were accurately identified.
5. Additional computer programs were run to compute frequency counts of each linguistic feature in each text of the corpus.
6. The co-occurrence patterns among linguistic features were analyzed, using a factor analysis of the frequency counts.

7. The factors from the factor analysis were interpreted functionally as underlying dimensions of variation.

8. Dimension scores for each text concerning each dimension were computed; the mean dimension scores for each register were then compared to analyze the salient linguistic similarities and differences among the registers to be studied.

## **2.2. Corpus Description**

A corpus of social sciences research articles was compiled for the study. The corpus which was named Turkish Academic Corpus (TAC) contains research articles in the field of social sciences published in Turkish Journals in the field of social sciences. The Turkish journals were chosen among refereed journals that were published by either Turkish Universities or research organizations. These journals published articles in primarily Turkish and English languages. The TAC consists of a total of 282 texts representing published social sciences articles in refereed Turkish scientific journals. The size of the TAC is 1.274.516 words. Table 2 describes the Turkish Academic Corpus (TAC).

**Table 2. Turkish academic corpus**

<b>Journal</b>	<b># of texts</b>	<b>Approx. # of words</b>
Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences	8	60791
Ankara University, Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences	1	5985
Çukurova Üniversitesi School of Education Journal	3	18714
Hacettepe University Journal of the Faculty of Education	15	62402
Journal of Sociology*	1	7924
Blacksea Research Journal	2	9876
Middle East Technical University Journal of the Faculty of Architecture	20	152183
Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education	33	157347
The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology	41	174203
Trakya University Journal of Social Sciences	4	21859
Turkish Journal of Psychiatry**	85	348822
Zonguldak Karaelmas University Journal of Social Sciences	4	20342
Turkish Psychological Counseling and Guidance Journal	15	13482
Balıkesir University Journal of Social Sciences Institute	2	9876
Cukurova University Social Sciences Journal	1	4073
EKEV Academy Journal***	8	50239
Journal of Social Sciences****	4	15681
Journal of Theory and Practice in Education	23	114773
Turkish Journal of Psychology	12	25944
Total	282	1.274.516

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*\*\*Published by the Turkish Association of Nervous and Mental Health*

*\*\*\*Published by Erzurum Foundation of Culture and Education*

*\*\*\*\*Published by Cumhuriyet University*

The social sciences field is a diverse field that includes various subjects that are related to the social sciences in one way or another. Therefore, the journals included in the study did not contain articles from a narrow range of subjects, rather they covered a diversity of areas. The social sciences sub-disciplines covered in the TAC are listed in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Sub-disciplines in TAC

<b>sub-discipline</b>	<b># of texts</b>
education	105
psychiatry	100
ELT	23
architecture	21
business	15
psychology	12
history	7
Total	282

### **2.3. Statistical Analysis**

One important and central element of MD analysis is co-occurrence patterns since each dimension yielded by the analysis represents a different set of co-occurring linguistic features. Factor analysis is the statistical procedure used in order to extract dimensions or identify co-occurring features called factors consisting of sets of co-occurring features. Factor analysis procedure reduces a large number of original variables to a small set of derived, underlying variables-the factors

(Biber, 1995). The most widely used factor analysis procedure is the ‘principal factor analysis’ which has been also used in this study. The principal factor analysis procedure extracts the maximum amount of shared variance among the variables for each factor. The first factor extracts the maximum amount of shared variance and the second factor extracts the maximum amount of shared variance left over after the first factor has been extracted (Biber 1988, p82).

The relationship between co-occurrence and shared variance has been explained by Biber (1995) as such:

*When considering a set of linguistic features each having its own variance, it is possible to analyze the pool of shared variance, that is, the extent to which the features vary in similar ways. Shared variance is directly related to co-occurrence. If two features tend to be frequent in some texts and rare in other texts, then they co-occur and have a high amount of shared variance.*  
(p. 109)

Multiple factors are extracted as a result of a factor analysis. Each factor is a grouping of linguistic features that co-occur with a high frequency. The size of a correlation, positive or negative, shows the extent to which two linguistic features vary together. The existence of a large negative correlation shows that two features systematically covary, that is, when one is present, it is highly probable that the other will be absent. On the



other hand, the existence of a large positive correlation is indicative of the systematic occurrence of two features together.

In the present study, 53 variables from Biber’s 1988 factor analysis were included in the analysis to compare social sciences research articles from various subdisciplines written by NNS writers (Turkish non-native speakers of English). Table 7 shows the 53 variables used in the analysis. Among these 53 variables are inclusive variables which combine several variables; for example, in the category of subordination features in order to avoid overlaps, not all specific variables but combined variables such as ‘THAT cl. with all verbs’ or ‘TO cl. With all nouns’ were included.

**Table 4.** Linguistic features used in the analysis of variation in academic writing

A.	Tense and aspect markers
	1. Past tense
	2. Perfect aspect verbs
	3. Non-past tense (present tense)
B.	Place and time adverbials
	1. Place adverbials
	2. Time adverbials
C.	Pronouns and proverbs
	1. First person pronouns
	2. Second person pronouns
	3. Third person pronouns
	4. Pronoun IT
	5. Demonstrative pronouns
	6. Indefinite pronouns
	7. Do as PRO-verb
D.	Questions
	1. WH questions
E.	Nominal forms
	1. Nominalizations
	2. Nouns
F.	Passives
	1. Agentless passives
	2. BY passives
G.	Stative forms
	1. BE as main verbs
H.	Subordinations features

1.	Adv. Subordinator: causative
2.	Adv. Subordinator: condition
3.	Adv. Subordinator: other
4.	That_rel: THAT relatives
5.	Rel_obj: WH relatives, obj. position
6.	Rel_subj: WH relatives, subj. position
7.	Rel_pipe: WH relatives, fronted preposition
8.	THAT cl. With all verbs
9.	THAT cl. With all adjs
10.	THAT cl. With all nouns
11.	WH clauses
12.	TO cl. With all verbs
13.	TO cl. With all adjs
14.	TO cl. With all nouns
15.	TO cl. With all
I.	Prepositional phrases
1.	Prepositions
2.	All stance adverbs
3.	Common adverb
J.	Lexical specificity
1.	Type/token ratio
2.	Mean word length
K.	Lexical classes
1.	Conjuncts
2.	Downtoners
3.	Amplifiers
4.	Emphatics
5.	Discourse particles
L.	Modals
1.	Possibility modals
2.	Necessity modals
3.	Predictive modals
M.	Specialized verb classes
1.	Mental verb
N.	Reduced forms and dispreferred structures
1.	Contractions
2.	THAT deletion
3.	Stranded prepositions
4.	Split auxiliaries
O.	Coordination
1.	Phrasal coordination
2.	Clausal coordination

### 3. Findings and Discussion

To describe the variation among social sciences disciplines, the mean dimension scores for the seven disciplines in the TAC corpus were plotted based on the combined scores of the co-occurring features in each

discipline. Disciplines with high positive mean scores on a dimension contained high frequencies of the positive features for that dimension and low frequencies of its negative features (see Table 10 above). Conversely, disciplines with large negative mean scores on a dimension have high frequencies of the negative features of that dimension and low frequencies of the dimension's positive features. The plots reveal interesting findings about the linguistic characteristics of various disciplines of the social sciences. (Biber, 2002, p.4)

### 3.1. Discussion of Variation among Social Sciences Research Articles from Various Disciplines

Salient features with positive loadings in dimension 1 are time adverbials, stance adverbs, adverbial subordinators, downtoners, conjuncts, infinite pronouns, emphatics, place adverbials, demonstrative pronouns, pronoun it, third person pronouns, predictive modals, first person pronouns and wh. Relatives in object position.

**Table 5.** Summary of the factorial structure of dimension 1 (factor 1) of the social sciences research articles

Linguistics Features	Dimension 1	Factor Loadings
Advs	Adverbs	0.73
tm_adv	time adverbials	0.61
all_adv1	all stance adverbs	0.58
sub_othr	adv. subordinator: other	0.47
Downtone	downtoners	0.46
Conjuncts	conjuncts	0.45
Pany	indefinite pronouns	0.44
gen_emph	emphatics	0.41
pl_adv	place adverbials	0.41
Pdem	demonstrative pronouns	0.40
It	pronoun IT	0.39

pro3	third person pronouns	0.33
prd_mod	predictive modals	0.32
pro1	first person pronouns	0.30
rel_obj	WH relatives: obj. position	0.29
all_vth	THAT cl. with all verbs	-0.29
Mentalv	mental verb	-0.34
agls_psv	agentless passives	-0.54
n_nom	nominalizations	-0.61
N	Nouns	-0.64
Wrldngth	word length	-0.71

A close examination of these linguistic features gives a hint of the communication style in the text groups with positive loadings for dimension 1. Biber et al. (1999) provide a comprehensive investigation of all lexico-grammatical features which acts as a guide to researchers in Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. In the following section insights from research findings shared by Biber et al. (1999) are interpreted in order to bring to light the linguistics characteristics of various sub-disciplines of social sciences targeted in the present research.

*Time adverbials:* According to Biber et al. (1999), time adverbials are used to express four time-related meanings: position in time, duration, frequency and temporal relationships.

*Stance adverbials:* These adverbials express the speaker's comments on the content of their message or the way they are saying it. Among stance adverbials, epistemic adverbials such as 'definitely', 'really' or 'from my perspective' focus on the truth value of the proposition made, attitude stance adverbials such as 'appropriately' or 'more importantly' express the writer's attitude towards the content and

lastly style stance adverbials such as to be the precise function in a way to clarify how the content should be understood.

*Place adverbials:* They convey distance, direction, or position. Among these, direction adverbials describe the pathway of an action and position adverbials which often occur with stative verbs and communicative and action verbs.

*Adverbial subordinators:* Another salient feature, adverbial subordinators indicate meaning relationships between the dependent clause and the subordinate structure showing time, reason and condition relations.

*Downtoners:* Downtoners function as degree adverbs that scale down the effect of the modified item and provide hedging which is common in academic writing. They include items such as ‘slightly’, ‘somewhat’ or ‘quite’.

*Conjuncts:* Conjuncts join independent clauses and act as subordinators rather than coordinators.

*Indefinite pronouns:* Indefinite pronouns are used to refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are.

*Emphatics:* Emphatics such as myself, herself, and yourself are used immediately after the noun to show emphasis.

*Demonstrative pronouns:* Demonstrative pronouns are generally more common in conversation than in written registers; however, this, these and those are more common in academic prose than in other registers according to Biber et al. (1999).

*Pronoun it:* Pronoun ‘It’ is used to express an inanimate physical object, abstract concept, situation, action, or characteristic. According to Biber et al. (1999) the pronouns it, they and them are relatively common in news and academic prose.

*Third Person Pronouns:* While the third person pronoun it is most common in conversation, third person pronouns he and she are used in conversation but not in academic prose.

*Predictive modals:* Volition or prediction modals are more common in conversation registers compared to academic registers according to Biber et al (1999). In academic prose, the use of predictive modals indicate predictions of events or states not involving personal agency. Among predictive modals will is extremely common and would is also relatively common.

*WH relatives object position:* As subordinate clauses, wh-relatives can be introduced by one of the wh-words (What, who, which, when, where, why or how) and can function as subjects, objects or complements. The most frequent wh-relativizer in academic prose is which followed by who and where (Biber et al., 1999).

The features with negative loadings in dimension 1 are mental verbs, agentless passives, nominalizations, nouns and word length.

*Mental verb:* Mental verbs include cognitive meanings and emotional meanings and do not involve physical action.

*Agentless passive:* Agentless passives are frequently used in academic prose since academic discourse is more concerned with

generalizations rather than individuals who carry out actions. The frequency of this feature is very low in conversation.

*Nominalizations:* Since academic discourse is more concerned with abstract concepts, nominalizations are more frequent in academic prose compared to conversation.

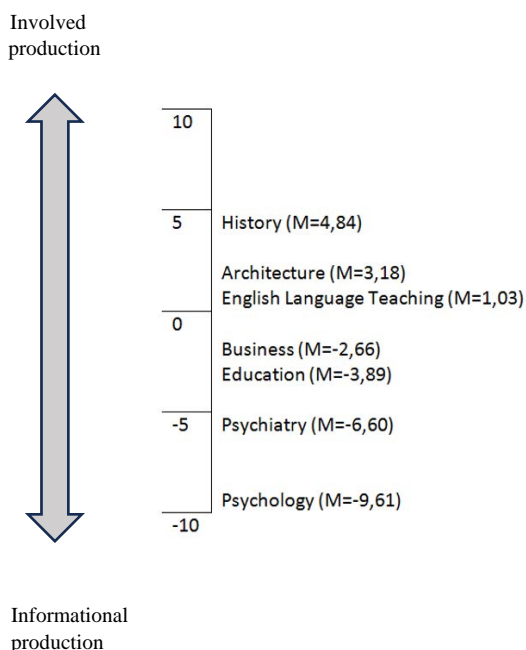
*Nouns:* Nouns are far more common in academic prose compared to conversation according to Biber et al. (1999).

*Word Length:* The negative loading of word length in dimension one shows similarity with Gray's (2013) dimension 1 in her multidimensional study of registers.

All the texts in the TAC corpus come from one register: academic research articles but from various disciplines under this specialized register: History, Architecture, English Language Teaching, Business, Education, Psychiatry and Psychology. The distribution of social sciences disciplines along Dimension 1 is somewhat surprising since different disciplines of the social sciences have different Dimension 1 scores ranging from positive to negative.

As a result of the examination of the features with positive and negative loadings on dimension 1, this dimension was labeled as involved versus informational production after Biber (1999) and Gray (2013). The positive loadings of features such as stance adverbs, downtoners and pronoun it for example indicate a more involved communication style in which the writers present a discussion and elaboration of the subject at hand. A comparison of the seven disciplines from the TAC corpus indicates that while the subdisciplines of history, architecture and English

language teaching have positive dimension scores on dimension 1 indicating a more involved communication style, the subdisciplines of business, education, psychiatry and psychology have negative dimensions indicating a more informational communication style with a high density of informational content as also displayed on Figure 1.



**Figure 1.** The mean dimension scores of seven social sciences disciplines for dimension 1 for the TAC Corpus ( $F=7.8$ ,  $p<.0001$ ,  $r^2=19\%$ )



#### 4. Conclusion and Suggestions

The current multidimensional study aimed to shed light on the variation between NNS Turkish Scholars' English publications in different subdisciplines of the social sciences published in refereed national journals in Türkiye. The study utilized a corpus-based approach and a corpus was compiled for the study: the TAC (Turkish Academic Corpus) consisting of journal articles of NNS scholars published in Turkish national journals on social sciences consisting of 1.274.516 words. The corpus was tagged using a part-of-speech tagger (Biber, 1993).

A multidimensional comparison approach was followed in the study and factor analyses were conducted using data from corpus. The obtained findings of the study, as described and discussed in the preceding section of the study, might yield fruitful insights and, accordingly, implications for both macro and micro-level stakeholders in different domains, especially corpus linguistics, applied linguistics, and educational linguistics.

Multidimensional analysis comparing the subdisciplines under one broader discipline has the potential to add to our understanding of academic writing by bringing to light the differences in the utilization of linguistic resources by subdisciplines. In this study, the focus was on Dimension 1 labeled as involved versus informational communication which has also been highlighted as the most important distinction in academic writing (Gray, 2013).

The analysis of the linguistic features of Dimension 1 in the study shows variation between the seven subdisciplines of social sciences in terms of the degree of informational density and the degree of involvement and elaboration reflected in the discourse. While three subdisciplines; History, Architecture and English Language Teaching are closer to the involved end of the spectrum of dimension 1 the remaining 4 subdisciplines; business, education, psychology and psychiatry tend to be closer to the informational end. The implications of the findings for non-native research paper writing could be a raised awareness of the repertoire of resources available to be used in academic writing to create more authentic and linguistically rich research papers. It could also add to their understanding of the complex nature of academic writing.

In terms of language teaching pedagogy language teachers, teachers can consider these findings in adopting sources to teach to their students. This, in turn, enhances the authenticity factor in pedagogy, which can improve the effectiveness of the learning process. Corpus-based findings, such as those of the current study, might be very advantageous in teaching the English language to learners of different levels (Lenko-Szymanska, 2014).

Material developers may also benefit from the present findings. They can consider these findings to produce textbooks, materials, and other sources that are more in accordance with the writing style of native speakers. This, in turn, enhances the probability and chance of successful language learning by non-native language learners.

The study also offers some new avenues to research. One is running the same corpus study for exploring the variations between natives and non-natives in other academic fields, such as engineering or empirical sciences fields.

Another potential topic for future study could be implementing cross-cultural equivalent studies and replications and comparing the findings of this study with those of other contexts and cultures.

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## Conceptual and Practical Aspects of Digital Formative Assessment in EFL Writing: Affordances and Challenges

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## **Conceptual and Practical Aspects of Digital Formative Assessment in EFL Writing: Affordances and Challenges**

This chapter focuses on the conceptual and practical aspects of digital formative assessment in English as a foreign language (EFL) writing contexts. Conceptual aspects of assessment in EFL writing contexts are highlighted in the first part of the chapter. In this part, formative assessment and digital formative assessment are introduced. In addition, a list of tools utilized for digital formative assessment is presented for EFL writing instructors. In the second part of the chapter the practical aspects of digital formative assessment in EFL writing are discussed. Affordances and challenges of digital formative assessment for students and teachers are also addressed in this part. In addition, practical examples for good practices are presented and new policy directions, implications and suggestions for further research are provided.

### **1. Conceptual Aspects of Assessment in EFL Writing Contexts**

Assessment is one of the basic pillars of language education (Graham, Hebert, & Harris, 2015) not only in Türkiye but also all around the world. It refers to “the systematic collection of information about student learning, using the time, knowledge, expertise, and resources available to inform decisions that affect students' learning” (Walvoord, 2004, p.2). It includes three basic steps: expressing learning objectives clearly, collecting information about students’ learning processes and the motives underlying their performance and using the information for improving

students' performance (Black & William, 2009; Walvoord, 2004). As can be seen, assessment provides an overall picture regarding the learning process and the quality of education. It is of great value in that it helps stakeholders in education become informed about how and to what extent learning goals are achieved and whether or not there is a gap between students' learning and learning objectives.

Assessment can be divided into two groups: formative and summative assessment. Formative assessment, described as "assessment for learning", gives on-going information related to students' current levels, their weaknesses, as well as the gap between teaching and learning goals, and provides opportunities for improving learners' skills while summative assessment, referred to as "assessment of learning", focuses on evaluating learners' performance at the end of the semester or at a predetermined time (Çekiç & Bakla, 2021, p. 1462). Lee (2011) claims that summative assessment, which is retrospective rather than prospective, is of little value for the process of learning and teaching, but in EFL writing classes, assessment has been mainly carried out for summative purposes. Also, the type of assessment plays a crucial role in promoting learners' interaction and collaboration rather than technology (Lee, 2010). In a similar vein, Ratminingsih, Marhaeni, & Vigayanti, (2018) put forward that the integration of summative assessment practices in EFL writing classes may not bring out positive changes related to students' writing performance.

There is a growing body of research that recognises the significance of formative assessment in improving learners' writing skills (Culham, 2018; Nguyen & Truong, 2021; Prastikawati, Wiyaki, & Adi, 2020; Wijaya, 2022). In spite of the importance of formative assessment in writing in general and particularly in EFL contexts, there is a lack of comprehensive research in this area (Burner, 2016). In fact, this chapter reviews some digital formative assessment tools adopted in EFL writing and provides new insights regarding digital formative assessment of writing.

### **1.1. Formative Assessment**

The origin of the concept *formative assessment* dates back to 1967 (Scriven, 1967). Scriven (1967) referred to this concept as “the improvement of the curriculum” while proposing the roles that evaluation may fulfil (p.4). However, it was through Bloom (1969) that formative assessment became popular in the field of education (Bailey & Heritage, 2008 as cited in Cekiç & Bakla, 2021, p.1461). There are different definitions of formative assessment in literature. In this chapter, formative assessment refers to “the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for making substantively grounded decisions or judgements about the product of a learning task in order to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go, and how best to get there” (Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2008, p. 11).

Formative assessment has been conceptualized as five key strategies: “clarifying and sharing learning intentions and criteria for success”,

“engineering effective classroom discussions and other learning tasks that elicit evidence of student understanding”, “providing feedback that moves learners forward”, “activating students as instructional resources for one another” and “activating students as the owners of their own learning” (Black & William, 2009, p.8). It facilitates the learning process and provides effective classroom practices (Auer, 2023; Black & William, 2009), which, in turn, affects the quality of learning and teaching. In order to carry out formative assessment practices, both traditional and technological tools can be used as a result of technological developments in education. (Çekiç & Bakla, 2021).

## **1.2.Digital Formative Assessment**

Digital formative assessment, also called “online formative assessment” and “web-based formative assessment” (Çekiç & Bakla, 2021, p. 1461), has emerged as a consequence of research into formative assessment and technology-enhanced assessment (McLaughlin & Yan, 2017). Digital formative assessment gained popularity during the COVID-19 pandemic and has continued its popularity afterwards as most higher education institutions are proceeding with hybrid education models viewed as “the new normal” (Auer, 2023, p.147) around the globe now. Digital formative assessment has several benefits in the learning process. It promotes self-regulation, learner autonomy, motivation, learner engagement with critical learning processes, enhances the dialog between the learner and instructor, provides response time and ongoing instant feedback, and clarifies learning outcomes (Auer, 2023). In addition, it

saves time and effort for teachers by decreasing scoring time (Çekiç & Bakla, 2021).

### **1.3. Digital Formative Assessment Tools in EFL Writing**

Recent years have witnessed an increase in the use of digital formative assessment tools in writing in the process of teaching and learning a foreign language as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Digital tools have been much more popular in EFL writing evaluation in the post-pandemic period (Zhang & Hyland, 2018; Zou, Kong, & Lee, 2021). Online formative assessment of writing involves the use of digital tools to assess learners' progress in terms of learning objectives in writing determined in the curriculum (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023). Digital formative assessment tools provide opportunities for educators to give feedback at different levels such as “information about right and wrong answers and explanations, an overall score for the quiz and progress of the class” (Çekiç & Bakla, 2021, pp.1476-1477). Furthermore, they enable students to try several times to get their minimum score (Shute & Rahimi, 2017) and reduce their stress level (Ninomiya, 2016). Considering their benefits in the process of teaching and learning, it is of great importance to effectively integrate such assessment tools into digital formative assessment practices.

There are different digital tools used for the formative assessment of writing. To illustrate, Academic Writing Evaluation (AWE) enables the provision of individualized feedback in various fields of writing such as

grammar, usage, mechanics, style and automatic scoring (Li, 2021; Shadiev & Yingying, 2023). Grammarly, Criterion, PaperRater, WriteToLearn, and Pigai are some examples for the automated writing evaluation tools used in EFL contexts (Li, 2021). Grammarly diagnoses mechanical errors successfully. In the same vein, Criterion serves as an online writing evaluation service that helps students plan and edit their essays (Li, 2021). In addition to assessing the mechanics of writing like Grammarly, PaperRater, detects plagiarism. Similar to PaperRater, WriteToLearn (WTL) uses automated feedback and scoring mechanisms to enable students to develop their reading comprehension and writing skills (Li, 2021). It is a digital assessment tool used in improving learners' writing skills. It has two components. Summary Street, the first component, provides opportunities for students to write summaries by getting individualized feedback. In the Intelligent Essay Assessor, which is the second component of WTL, students write prompted essays (Landauer, Lochbaum, & Dooley, 2009). On the other hand, Pigai, another AWE tool, can be used for revising written work. It can provide corrective feedback on a variety of language-related features such as collocations and feedback in student-written essays. It utilizes corpora and cloud computing programs to enable teachers to effectively score and develop students' syntactic knowledge (Gao, 2021; Karagoz & Bangun, 2023; Li, 2021, Lin, Lin, & Tsai, 2020; Shadiev & Feng, 2023; Zou et al., 2021).

Apart from the AWE tools, Padlet can be used to provide online feedback in a formative manner (Pachler, Daly, Mor, & Mellar, 2010). In addition, the following tools are commonly utilized for digital formative assessment in writing: Google Docs (Rahmawati, Yanto, & Ahmad, 2021), Tencent Docs (Zou et al, 2021), Moso Teach (Zou et al., 2021), Moodle, Quizziz, (Graham et al., 2015), Socrative, Mentimeter, Formative, Padlet, PBWorks, Fandom, Etherpad, Manubot, Wikidot, (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023) and some online writing platforms including vlogs and web blogs such as Wordpress and Blogger. Table 1 below summarizes the features of digital tools which can be used for the formative assessment of writing.

**Table 1.** Tools for the Digital Formative Assessment of Writing (Adapted from Karagoz & Bangun, 2023, p.12)

Tools and Links	Assessed Writing Skills	Mode of Interaction	Assessment Features
Google Docs <a href="https://www.google.com/docs/about/">(https://www.google.com/docs/about/)</a> Padlet <a href="https://padlet.com/">(https://padlet.com/)</a> PBWorks <a href="https://www.pbworks.com/">(https://www.pbworks.com/)</a> Wikidot <a href="https://www.wikidot.com">https://www.wikidot.com</a> Fandom <a href="https://free-anime.fandom.com/">https://free-anime.fandom.com/</a> Etherpad	Planning ,organizing, writing, text editing	Collaborative writing with peer and teacher feedback  Individual writing with peer and teacher feedback	Writing essays and research papers, technology-mediated peer feedback provision  Limited peer feedback



<a href="https://etherpad.org/">(https://etherpad.org/)</a> Manubot <a href="https://manubot.org/">(https://manubot.org/)</a> Edmodo <a href="https://new.edmodo.com/">(https://new.edmodo.com/)</a>			Instructor-provided prompts No automatic scoring Ubiquitous feedback provision
Grammarly <a href="https://grammarly.com/">(https://grammarly.com)</a> Hemingway App <a href="https://hemingwayapp.com/">(https://hemingwayapp.com)</a> PaperRater <a href="https://www.paperrater.com/">(https://www.paperrater.com)</a> WriteToLearn <a href="https://pearsonassessment.com/WriteToLearn">https://pearsonassessment.com/ WriteToLearn</a> Pigai <a href="http://en.pigai.org">http://en.pigai.org</a> Criterion <a href="https://criterion.ets.org">https://criterion.ets.org</a>	Automated writing feedback	Individual writing (sentences and passages) Automatic writing feedback	Automatic and immediate grading Feedback without full accuracy
Vlog and Digital Storytelling YouTube <a href="https://www.youtube.com/">(https://www.youtube.com)</a> Vimeo <a href="https://vimeo.com/">(https://vimeo.com)</a> Facebook <a href="http://www.facebook.com">www.facebook.com</a> Instagram <a href="http://www.instagram.com">www.instagram.com</a> TikTok <a href="https://www.tiktok.com/">(https://www.tiktok.com)</a> DailyMotion <a href="https://www.dailymotion.com/">(https://www.dailymotion.com)</a> )	Prompt-based writing Planning, organizing, writing, and script editing	Individual or group projects Individual writing with teacher and peer feedback Group writing with teacher and peer feedback	Prompts and feedback for digital writing Instructor-provided prompts Non-automated scoring Ubiquitous

Twitch ( <a href="https://www.twitch.tv">https://www.twitch.tv</a> )			feedback
Wix ( <a href="https://www.wix.com">https://www.wix.com</a> )			Project-based learning
Weebly ( <a href="https://www.weebly.com">https://www.weebly.com</a> )			
WordPress ( <a href="https://www.wordpress.com">https://www.wordpress.com</a> )			
Blogger ( <a href="https://blogger.com">https://blogger.com</a> )			
Tumblr ( <a href="https://www.tumblr.com">https://www.tumblr.com</a> )			
Blooket ( <a href="http://www.blooket.com">www.blooket.com</a> )	Quiz-style online feedback	Individual sentence writing with automated writing feedback, mechanics, transitions	Focus on proper mechanics (spelling and grammar) Automated and immediate feedback
Kahoot ( <a href="https://www.kahoot.it">https://www.kahoot.it</a> )			
Quizziz ( <a href="https://quizzis.com">https://quizzis.com</a> )			
Quizlet ( <a href="https://quizlet.com">https://quizlet.com</a> )			
Google Slides ( <a href="https://www.google.com/slides">https://www.google.com/slides</a> )			
Menti ( <a href="https://www.menti.com">https://www.menti.com</a> )			Using proper style and transitions
Socrative ( <a href="https://www.socrative.com">https://www.socrative.com</a> )			
Formative ( <a href="https://www.formative.com">https://www.formative.com</a> )			Grading open-ended items (e.g., Formative)

As well as the aforementioned digital formative assessment tools in Table 1., online backchannel is one of the innovative ways to implement formative assessment in English language classes by using internet-based tools including Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, and Line (Prastikawati, et al., 2020). In their mixed methods study, Prastikawati et al. (2020) focused on the impact of online backchannel in improving learners' writing skills. They found out the use of online backchannels contributes to learners' writing skill development, leading both students and teachers to get the maximum benefit from writing courses. Also, they reported that the implementation of online backchannel in formative assessment has several benefits in learners' writing performance. It increases students' awareness level regarding grammar errors, motivation and confidence, student-student as well as student-teacher interaction, leading them to enrich their vocabulary. By means of this tool, students have a chance to share their writing ideas without the fear of grades, and read what their friends wrote related to the topic in online backchannel groups. As can be seen, digital formative tools are likely to be useful for students in the process of defining a writing topic, writing their first draft, and editing the draft into the final draft without having a fear of being assessed.

Based on relevant literature, it can be said that there are various digital formative assessment tools, which are generally process-oriented, contributing to learners' writing skills at different levels in line with learning objectives. The use of online formative assessment tools is not

likely to be effective if such tools are used for the sake of technology. In order to assess students' progress in writing effectively, the tool choice should be aligned with the learner profile and the teaching context. The following eight criteria could be considered for the choice of digital formative assessment tools (Robertson, Humphrey, & Steele, 2019, p.3): “immediacy”, “elaborate feedback from the instructor”, “personalized feedback for the student”, “reusability”, “accessibility”, “interface design”, “interaction” and “cost”, In the light of the abovementioned studies, it can be concluded that digital formative assessment tools can lead to better student writing if the appropriate tools are chosen.

## **2. Practical Aspects of Digital Formative Assessment in EFL Writing**

This section addresses the practical issues related to digital formative assessment pertinent to writing in EFL contexts, which play a pivotal role in the development of digital assessment literacy for students and teachers. Affordances and challenges involved in online digital assessment practices for students and teachers also discussed. Features of effective digital formative assessment practices in EFL writing classes are also mentioned in this section.

### **2.1. Affordances and Challenges of Digital Formative Assessment in EFL Writing for Students and Teachers**

As far as the affordances of digital formative assessment practices are concerned, in a systematic literature review study on online formative

assessment tools in the higher education context, Bin Mubayrik (2020) revealed that the integration of online formative feedback practices into EFL classes fosters student-centred teaching and provides multiple opportunities to enhance teaching/learning processes. Such assessment practices were found to enable instructors to accomplish learning objectives effectively (Mohamadi Zenouzagh, 2019).

The integration of digital writing platforms into EFL writing classes is likely to foster writing assessment, which might be pedagogically empowering for teachers and students (Bangun, Li, & Mannion, 2019), as indicated in previous studies confirming the dynamic peer interaction and feedback, independent learning opportunities, and the writing skill development in EFL technology-enhanced learning environments (Amir, Ismail & Hussin, 2011; Hung, 2011; Wagener, 2006). Video-based activities are considered to promote students' public speaking and writing skills as well as student engagement and self-directed learning skills (Wagener, 2006). Video blogs (vlogs) are likely to provide students with ample opportunities for their planning, organizing, writing and editing processes. In fact, Wagener (2006) indicated that the use of vlogs in EFL classes contributes to students' lexical repertoire and their use of lexis. The use of vlogging could be accompanied through YouTube, Vimeo, Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, DailyMotion, and Twitch (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023). Digital writing practices via blogs or podcasts are likely to promote student-student interaction, facilitating the personal and interactive nature of the learning process (Warschauer & Grimes, 2007).

Additionally, blogging enables students' linguistic knowledge via writing in collaboration (Amir et al., 2011). The use of blogging could be fostered through certain tools such as Wix, WordPress, Weebly, Medium, Ghost, Blogger, and Tumblr (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023).

Apart from the aforementioned affordances digital online formative assessment of writing provide in the EFL context, it also brings certain challenges for teachers and students. Regarding teachers' challenges involved in digital formative assessment practices, the extant literature revealed that contextual, personal, and technological factors have an impact on teachers' online formative assessment engagement in EFL writing contexts (Zou et al., 2021). Contextual factors in the form of institutional and collegial support were found to affect teachers' online formative assessment practices in previous studies (e.g., Krishnan, Black, & Olson, 2020; Wang, Shang, & Briody, 2013). In fact, teachers reported experiencing various challenges regarding formative assessment practices on digital platforms due to a lack of training opportunities regarding the integration of online tools in assessing EFL writing (Nguyen & Truong, 2021; Zou et al., 2021).

The relative lack of student engagement in formative assessment practices was also regarded as a contextual challenge for teachers in relation to efficient formative assessment practices in writing. In fact, it is regarded as crucial to maximize the efficiency of the assessment process (Topping, 2010). As Topping (2010) suggested, increasing the efficiency

of formative assessment practices cannot be regarded as solely the teachers' responsibility since it also relies on student engagement in the process of getting feedback related to their ongoing process in writing. When students are engaged in the assessment process, they can raise their awareness towards their own learning processes, which may, in turn, enhance the quality of student learning. In fact, the teachers' apprehension about the student involvement in the assessment process was also mentioned in some other studies such as Burner (2016). He indicated that it is of great importance for teachers and students to create a shared meta-language to discuss different aspects of formative assessment and to allow students to take part in the assessment process. Another contextual challenge for teachers revealed in digital formative assessment literature is related to time constraints. To illustrate, Lee (2011), Johansson and Nadjafi (2021) and Nguyen and Truong (2021) viewed time-related concerns as one of the biggest obstacles hindering the implementation of online formative assessment practices.

Technological factors were also indicated to pose a challenge for teachers' online assessment practices in EFL writing. A lack of face-to-face interactions in digital learning environments was reported to have a negative impact on student participation in writing (Zou et al., 2021). The interaction between students and teachers in the course of formative assessment practices is crucial to maximize its efficiency. To foster student involvement in the formative assessment process, instructors could collaborate with students regarding the formation of formative

assessment criteria (Blair, 2019). In fact, rubrics are likely to foster student engagement in formative assessment practices by aligning technology use with predetermined pedagogic goals and to serve as a tool for highlighting the rhetorical context for the students (Li, 2021).

Apart from the contextual and technological factors, individual factors such as teachers' beliefs, digital literacies and their teaching/learning experiences are also likely to affect teacher engagement in digital formative assessment practices in writing (Zou et al., 2021). Rahmawati, et al. (2021) underlined pre-service teachers' lack of knowledge and expertise related to online formative assessment. Based on existing literature it can be said that pre-service and in-service teachers may have limited knowledge related to online tools which may differ in “their functionality”, “pedagogical quality”, “costs”, and “operating systems” for assessing writing and challenges regarding how to choose the right tools for writing assessment (Çekiç & Bakla, 2021, p.1460). In fact, Johansson and Nadjafi (2022) pointed out that there exists a discrepancy between how teachers perceive formative assessment and how they utilize it in their classroom practices.

Regarding students' challenges in terms of digital formative assessment practices in EFL writing, access to technology may be considered a technological challenge. Even though it seems that problems regarding technology have been solved in recent years, some students may still have problems with the unreliable internet connection (Karagoz &



Bangun, 2023; Wang & Tahir, 2020). Students might feel under stress when they are expected to respond accurately within a limited time period and might be afraid of losing face among their peers (Wang & Tahir, 2020).

Lack of receptivity towards formative assessment practices due to an excessive emphasis on grades might be considered an individual challenge for EFL students, as pointed out in the studies by Havnes, Smith, Dysthe, and Ludvigsen (2012) and Saliu-Abdulahi, Glenn, and Hertzberg (2017). The importance of a harmonious dialogue between teachers and students related to formative assessment practices is underscored to facilitate and enhance the quality of online formative assessment. Furthermore, the excessive focus on the summative assessment in the educational system may also constitute a problem at schools in the EFL context (Lee & Coniam, 2013).

## **2.2. Practical Examples for Good Practices**

Since the abrupt shift that occurred from face-to-face to online instruction, during the COVID-19 pandemic, digital formative assessment has started to play an important role in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing classrooms, promoting teacher engagement with such technology-mediated assessment (Zou, et al., 2021). Although there has recently been a surge of interest in how digital formative assessment can be integrated into EFL writing classes (White, 2019), scant attention

has been paid to the investigation of teachers' digital formative assessment practices in EFL writing classes (Zou et al., 2021; White, 2019). Despite the existing research evidence indicating the effectiveness of digital formative assessment in terms of fostering the EFL writing processes of students, EFL writing teachers' engagement with technology-mediated formative assessment is still underexplored (Mimirinis, 2019). Particularly the ubiquitous nature of digital assessment is likely to enhance the popularity of such type of assessment and to make it an integral part of the academic writing courses in the tertiary contexts (Du & Zhou, 2019; Mohamadi, 2018; Mohamadi Zenouzagh, 2019).

Online feedback provision through discussion boards, social networking sites and electronic files seems to be gaining popularity and has started to establish the norms in the digital learning environments of the 2<sup>1st</sup> century (Elola & Oskoz, 2017). Computer-mediated communication technologies have enhanced writing feedback practices for teachers as well as for peers (Li, 2021). The online teacher/peer feedback can be provided asynchronously and synchronously (Li, 2021). The asynchronous feedback can be provided through Word document (Word doc) comments and track changes and the synchronous feedback through Chats. In a study by Ene & Upton (2018) on the implementation asynchronous and synchronous teacher feedback in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes, findings demonstrated that the students' level of uptake through Word doc feedback was remarkably

higher than that via chat sessions. The use of multimodal feedback, incorporating audio and visual modes such as voice commenting, screencast feedback, has also started to draw attention of teachers and researchers recently (Li, 2021). In fact, exploring the students' preferences related to the choice of written feedback in a tertiary education setting, Cunningham (2019) found that students opted for screencast feedback (via TechSmith Snagit) as opposed to text feedback (via Word doc) for its clarity and awareness-raising features.

Technology-mediated peer feedback is also promoted thanks to the breakthroughs in new technologies. New generation online peer feedback is likely to replace traditional online peer feedback via Word doc. For instance, Turnitin PeerMark is likely to enhance online peer review activities via unique features such as composition marks, commenting bubbles and PeerMark questions in freshman composition courses, as revealed by Li and Li (2017).

Apart from the aforementioned technology-mediated writing feedback tools, Automatic computer-generated feedback, “automated writing evaluation (AWE)”, is considered to promote writing instruction (Li., 2021, p.10). The AWE feedback is likely to have a favourable impact on the revision processes of students, helping them focus on forms and meaning and present strong evidence for the use of AWE for diagnostic writing assessment and feedback, as confirmed by Chappelle, Cotos, & Lee's (2015) study on students' reactions to AWE based on the

evaluation of two types of AWE-based diagnostic assessment (i.e., Intelligent Academic Discourse Evaluator and Criterion). Consequently, it can be considered beneficial in terms of typological error reduction and writing accuracy as well as linguistic skill improvement (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023). It is also likely to enhance student motivation, metacognitive skills and learner autonomy (i.e., Hyland, 2019; Link, Dursun, Karakaya, Hegelheimer, 2014; Wang et al., 2013). It is used for both assessment and instructional purposes (Ranalli, Link, Chukharev-Hudilainen, 2017; Shermis, Burstein, Elliot, Miel, & Foltz, 2016; Stevenson, 2016; Zhang, 2020).

Among the common AWE tools, WTL provides some facilities for both instructors and students. Instructors can assess, instruct, and direct students' learning process in writing with “greater speed”, “frequency”, “focus” and “flexibility” (Landauer et al., 2009, p.51). As a result, students can receive immediate individualized feedback regarding their writing, which can promote self-regulation and learner autonomy. WTL is acknowledged to be a useful tool for supplementary formative assessment (Liu & Kunhnan, 2016).

On the other hand, Pigai, another AWE tool, can be used for revising written work. It can provide corrective feedback on a variety of language-related features such as collocations in student-written essays. It utilizes corpora and cloud computing programs to enable teachers to effectively score and to help students develop their syntactic knowledge

(Karagoz & Bangun, 2023; Li, 2021, Lin et al., 2020). While Pigai has some limitations regarding giving feedback on content and genre features (Wu, 2017), it helps instructors provide feedback that is responsive to learner' needs (Zou et al, 2021). Studies (i.e., Fu, Zou, Xie, & Cheng, 2022; Han, Zhao, & Ng, 2021; Vassiliou, Papadima-Sophocleous, & Giannikas, 2023; Zou et al, 2021) revealed its applicability and efficiency in EFL writing. In a study by Zhang (2020) where Pigai was used for online written feedback provision for students, findings indicated the students' utilization of AWE feedback for correcting language errors and for developing their linguistic competence.

In addition to the aforementioned online formative assessment tools, the use of Padlet as a formative assessment tool enables timely feedback provision, an essential feature of effective feedback (Black & William, 1998). The findings of Albarqi's (2021) study revealed that Padlet fosters effective feedback provision, confirming Sadler's (1998) notion of the effective feedback that focuses on learners' production and the explicit provision of response. Instructors can be advised to use Padlet in a formative assessment activity in the following way (Albarqi, 2021). To begin with, they can promote students to work collaboratively and engage in discussion and post the main points of their discussion on Padlet. Secondly, after students have posted their work on Padlet, they can provide corrective feedback on the students' mistakes and start a whole-class discussion on these mistakes in class. Alternatively, students can engage in providing peer feedback by pointing out the strong and

weak aspects of their peers' work on Padlet. Finally, they can motivate students to share the peer feedback they have received with other students and to revise their work based on the peer feedback that they have received.

Applications that enable teachers to prepare multiple-choice or true/false quizzes and to provide automatic feedback can be considered other online formative assessment tools. Providing online automated feedback in the quiz format in game-based learning environments is regarded as an innovative approach. Online quiz style feedback is a student-centred approach that enables immediate feedback and regulates formative feedback in the classroom (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023). It helps teachers decide on which concepts require further revision (Winstone & Carless, 2020), enhances student engagement, and provides students with an opportunity to develop their problem-solving skills. As revealed in Omar (2017), some online in-class formative assessment tools such as Kahoot foster student motivation, metacognitive and self-regulatory skills (Omar, 2017), as well as providing a classroom atmosphere with a low affective filter (Wang & Tahir, 2020). Other online quiz style digital tools such as Quizzis, Google Slides, Jeopardy, Quizlet, Menti, and Socrative promote creativity in formative assessment (Karagoz & Bangun, 2023). Although in blogs authors are in interaction with the audience, they maintain an authorial voice. However, in Google documents, there is no clear-cut distinction between authors and audience, promoting the interaction between both parties (Li & Storch, 2017; Vandergriff, 2016).

To promote student engagement in the digital formative assessment practices in EFL writing, it might be useful for group members to be engaged in a joint assessment of the equality and mutuality of their peer interaction at different stages of the collaborative writing task, and in the continuous monitoring of their collaborative writing process (Li, 2021). Equality refers to learners' individual contributions to the task and mutuality indicates to what extent group members support one another and interact with each other reciprocally (Storch, 2013; Zhang & Chen, 2022). In computer-mediated collaborative writing, equality is measured by exploring individual task contribution in the following ways: the contribution to the jointly-constructed written product (e.g., Cho, 2017), language use in the course of peer interaction (e.g., Li & Kim, 2016), and instances of text construction saved in revision histories (e.g., Li & Zhu, 2017). Mutuality is investigated via the examination of peer discourse during task engagement (e.g., initiation vs response moves) and the engagement in peer revision (e.g., revision of self-generated texts vs. revision of texts produced by others) (Li & Kim, 2016).

Related to the assessment criteria, both the product and the writing process should be assessed. Credits should also be allocated to the quality of individual contributions as well as to the joint text construction (Storch, 2013; Trentin, 2009). Regarding the grading rubrics in particular, instructors can form a certain criterion specifying the allocation of points in the evaluation process (e.g., Zhang & Chen, 2022). As specified in Zhang & Chen's (2022) study, a rubric allowing the

assessment of not only the product but also the process in computer-assisted collaborative writing might be developed. For the product evaluation, the following parameters might be used: content, organization, and language use. However, for the process evaluation, a five-point scale assessing peer interaction in terms of mutuality and equality might be utilized. Teachers might choose to assess the quality and quantity of each group member's online posts and the level of group members' mutual engagement in the collaborative writing process (Li & Kim, 2016). Assigning an overall grade for the final text and an individual grade component specifying individual contributions during the collaborative writing process may be an alternative as well (Storch, 2017).

The positive impact of process-and-product-oriented assessment (i.e., evaluating both the written products as well as writing/collaboration processes in a collaborative writing task) on the L2 learning process has been confirmed in literature (Black & William, 1998; Zhang & Chen, 2022). The use of a process-and-product-based rubric leads students to be more committed to the task. The result might be better writing quality and longer texts (Zhang & Chen, 2022).

In digital formative assessment in writing, the type of tasks should be chosen carefully. It is the task types, instead of technology, that are likely to impact learner interaction and collaboration (Lee, 2010).



Collaborative tasks, as opposed to cooperative ones, are more likely to foster learner interaction (Storch, 2013).

In order to ameliorate teachers' practices, the provision of pedagogical scaffolding, the alignment between instruction and assessment might be recommended. Furthermore, the integration of assignment-specific rubrics into the assessment practices may be considered (Lee & Coniam, 2013). Effective digital formative assessment practices can lead learners to become more critical towards their written products, create a mutual, holistic, and collaborative learning environment for writing among learners and teachers (Wijaya, 2022; Vassiliou et al., 2023).

### **3. New Policy Directions**

The research evidence and the anecdotal evidence from instructors regarding online formative assessment practices underline the necessity of student involvement in the writing process in the EFL contexts. Formative assessment practices need to be implemented in such a way to facilitate students' self-regulation. Instructors, curriculum designers and course developers need to take into consideration that online formative assessment practices should be designed in such a way as to foster learner autonomy (Jonsson & Eriksson, 2019). Formative assessment practices should be designed to promote teacher and peer interactions, aiming to build collaborative online communities of practices, providing ample time for student and peer reflections. Instructors may consider

using computer software to provide quality written feedback (Gikandi, Morrow, & Davis 2011).

#### **4. Conclusion, Implications and Suggestions**

The chapter highlights the conceptual and practical aspects of digital formative assessment in EFL writing contexts, with an emphasis on the affordances and challenges for students and teachers. It is suggested that the integration of digital formative assessment into pre/in-service education is likely to have a favourable impact on the teaching/learning processes in not only K-12 but also in higher education contexts. The employment of formative assessment practices in online writing classes is likely to promote learners' motivation to learn and their autonomy as well as equipping them with collaborative writing and self-regulatory skills, which will prepare them to effectively function in the 21st century. However, it is also revealed that pre-/in-service teachers need ample amount of guidance and support to develop their digital assessment literacy and to effectively integrate digital formative assessment into their classroom practices in EFL writing.

Given the selection, training and implementation phases of using digital formative assessment tools for writing, teachers should be prepared for an abrupt shift from the face-to-face to hybrid, blended or online instruction as the need arises due to natural disasters such as pandemics and earthquakes, developing their techno-pedagogical knowledge and

digital literacy skills to effectively implement digital formative assessment tools in EFL classes. In addition, they need to be provided with institutional support. Otherwise, digital formative assessment practices can be seen as a burden for them. The stakeholders in education including students, educators, trainers, curriculum/course designers, technology producers, and administrators should come together to maximize the effectiveness of the integration of technological tools in EFL writing classes.

In-depth comprehensive training programs should be organized to enhance the digital formative assessment literacy of pre-service and in-service teachers at all levels of education (Li, 2021). Also, both pre-service and in-service teachers should receive training in terms of online formative assessment and computer-mediated collaborative writing task design (Yi, Shin, & Cimasko, 2020). Workshops and tutorials should be organized to introduce both groups of teachers to the digital formative assessment tools that might be compatible with their learner profiles and teaching contexts. They should be encouraged to reflect on their online formative assessment practices on a regular basis by keeping journals or via regular professional development meetings in their local contexts and online meetings with other colleagues from different educational institutions. Video tutorials can be prepared related to how to use digital assessment tools in writing classes. In addition, tutorials and workshops might be held for pre-/in-service teachers to raise their awareness towards academic integrity-related issues. Collaboration among teachers

should be promoted to create online formative assessment tasks and to provide peer support (Lee, 2011). It is of great importance to extend all the aforementioned professional training events in the higher education contexts to K-12 contexts to enhance digital formative assessment literacy practices at all levels of education.

Regarding the suggestions for the further research, comparative longitudinal studies might be conducted into EFL teachers' perspectives on online writing task design and assessment at different levels of education and in different educational institutions. Further research on the development of genre-based multidisciplinary assessment rubrics might also be considered. Finally, it is recommendable to develop and evaluate AWE systems related to multidisciplinary knowledge, which can help students gain familiarity with various academic writing genres (Li, 2021).

### **Information Note**

The article complies with national and international research and publication ethics. The ethics committee approval was not required for the study.

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Both authors contributed equally to the article. There is no conflict of interest.

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## L2 Undergraduate Writers' Strengths and Weaknesses in Terms of Authorial Voice in Argumentative Writing: A Comprehensive Rubric-based Study

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## **1. Introduction**

As was put forward by Matsuda (2015), the term ‘voice’ evades easy definition with earlier definitions encompassing specific and rhetorical aspects in writing (Stewart, 1992)., implying that high-quality writing would have a high-quality voice. Voice has meant different things to different scholars, with several changes ever since it appeared during the last part of the 1960s. Some early conceptualizations view it as part of the sound of the writer on the paper (e.g., Elbow, 1994; Stewart, 1972). Some other scholars viewed it as part of the identity of the writer (e.g., Hyland, 2010; Matsuda & Tardy, 2007). Some other conceptualizations include ‘intertextual voice’ (Yancey, 1994), a dialogic sociohistorical view (Prior, 2001; Stapleton, 2002), or a text-oriented view (Hyland, 2008). At the turn of the century, the concept of voice involved more social and cultural aspects of in voice construction (Prior, 2001).

More recent conceptualizations of the term voice are more text-based foregrounding interactional features of discourse (Hyland, 2005, 2008). Hyland (2008) suggested that what determines voice is actually to what extent the writers interact with readers in academic texts. Hyland’s model is the basis of Zhao’s (2013) rubric, which is used in the present study. Hyland’s model (2008) also includes terms such as stance or engagement, the former referring to writer-related features while the latter referring to the extent to which authors include the readers in the discourse. Hence, engagement is more of a reader-related component. In the present study, voice is studied in relation to L2 argumentative

writing. The analytic tool (Zhao, 2013) used in the present study combines the textual elements of voice as conceptualized by Hyland (2008) and semantic elements. Hence, it can be said that voice is conceptualized in a holistic way. As a reference point, we used a TOEFL writing quality scale to draw comparisons between argumentative voice and essay quality in L2 writing.

Despite the role ascribed to voice in student writing, there are also some researchers downplay the role of voice in student writing on the basis of two main arguments (see Zabihi, Mehrani-Rad, and Khodi, 2019). First, some scholars suggest that L2 writers have some other issues to tackle before establishing voice which include grammatical accuracy, lexical accuracy, or content development (e.g., Helms-Park & Stapleton, 2003). Another line of researchers put forward that voice may not be so prominent for collectively organized cultures (Hirvela & Belcher, 2001). According to Matsuda and Jeffery (2012), voice may have been overlooked in L2 writing. The present study assumes importance in that regard given that the participants are at a relatively higher level of proficiency and are expected to spare more room for voice. Yet, another side of the coin is that students in Türkiye are not highly engaged in how to establish their voice in their writing, not even in vernacular language education.

In the present conceptualization, the term ‘voice’ encompasses discourse tools such as hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mentions, which allow writers to establish themselves in the texts. Writers could use hedges to express uncertainty (e.g., can, may, might, probably, etc.) and

boosters to expose their certainty or confidence in presenting proposition (e.g., definitely, very, highly, etc.). A third option, attitude markers are devices for authors to establish their affective stance towards a proposition or claim (e.g., reasonable, honestly, etc.). Finally, authors may use self-mentions to expose themselves to the readers in the text. The present study assumes importance given that we use Zhao's rubric (2013), which covers all these devices as it is based on Hyland's (2005) model. On the other hand, the engagement dimension covers the present and inclusion of readers in the discourse. Hence, it includes reader pronouns, directives, questions, knowledge references, or personal asides as discourse elements that provide the dialogic space between the author and the reader. However, since Zhao's (2013) rubric does not include these elements, they were not the focus of the present study.

Argumentation is a critical L2 writing skill, especially in the case of high-stakes testing or advanced-level college writing with its focus on critical thinking and analytical skills (Chuang & Yan, 2022; Hirvela & Belcher, 2021). Therefore, teachers pay attention to linguistic and rhetorical features of argumentative L2 writing to equip them with the necessary competencies (Qin & Uccelli, 2020). Studies on argumentative L2 writing have problematized rhetorical features employed by L2 writers (see Plakans, Gebril, and Bilki, 2019). Moreover, argumentative L2 writing has also been studied in terms of the lexico-grammatical aspects of (Plakans et al., 2019; Yan & Staples, 2020), metadiscourse use (Ho & Li, 2018), voice quality (Zhao, 2017), and source use (Gebril & Plakans, 2009). These studies mostly point to a potential relation between

argument quality and lexico-grammatical features. To contribute to the existing literature on the lexico-grammatical aspects of argumentation, it would be wise to conduct an in-depth analysis in L2 writing at different contexts. As such, the present study aims to investigate voice quality through a detailed rubric which was prepared by Zhao (2012).

To emphasize the role of voice in L2 argumentative writing, Johns (2017) stated that “effective argumentation is situated, requiring a significantly thorough understanding of the audience, of how to construct an authorial presence within the text, of acceptable text structure, and of the appropriate use of print and visual language” (p. 80). Although the term ‘voice’ has been hard to define at times ever since it was initiated in the latter part of the 1960s, the author's voice is viewed as a mainstay in the overall quality of student writing (Matsuda & Jeffery, 2012; Zhao & Llosa, 2008).

Yoon (2017) put forward that voice in L2 writing has not received due attention. Consequently, as was suggested by (Matsuda & Jeffery, 2012), voice rubrics are rather scarce compared to other writing rubrics. Nevertheless, the introduction of the voice rubric for argumentative writing by Zhao (2012), which was developed depending on Hyland’s (2008) voice model, filled this void. In a later study, Zhao (2017) used this rubric and found strong correlations between voice quality and general quality in argumentative writing.

## **2. Review of Literature**

An early study on the relation between voice and writing quality was conducted by Helms-Park and Stapleton (2003), who did not find any

tangible evidence suggesting the relationship between writing quality and argumentation. However, later, this was Helms-Park and Stapleton's (2003) study was replicated by Zhao and Llosa (2008), who reported that, unlike the initial findings, there was a significant correlation between voice and writing quality.

A number of studies handled the relationship between voice and essay quality (Yoon, 2017; Zhao, 2017). Voice has been measured through rubrics. Zhao's (2013) rubric was one of the most commonly used rubrics. Voice rubrics mostly include how assertive are writers in their claims, and how clearly they convey their ideas, in addition to the presence of the writer (Zhao, 2013, 2017). Zhao (2017) found strong relations between argumentative voice and text quality even if they stated that their results, like other rubric-based studies, should be generalized with caution. Yoon (2017) used a rubric that was based on Zhao (2013) and investigated Greek-speaking learners' essays at an intermediate level. Their study did not find a strong correlation between voice strength and essay quality. Some factors that may cause this include learning context, proficiency, or some other learner backgrounds. A study like the present one was conducted by Chuang and Yan (2022), who measured the argumentative elements through Toulmin's model. They found a strong relation between argument quality and overall writing quality. The variety in findings warrants more research in this regard. This was one of the starting points for the present study.

Argumentation has also received considerable attention from researchers. A sizeable amount of literature employed Toulmin's argumentative

model and shed great light on how L2 writers structure their argumentation. Qin and Karabacak (2010) worked on 130 writings of undergraduate students in China and found that essay quality correlated with counterarguments and rebuttals. In another study, Liu and Stapleton (2014) reported that counterarguments and rebuttals, which are significant components of the argumentation scheme of Toulmin, correlated with overall essay quality in the writings of L2 writers in a Chinese university. Although Toulmin's argumentative scheme is not used in the present study, these studies indicated that argumentation is somehow related to overall writing quality. The overall writing quality is one of the concerns of the present study.

Based on the argument above, the present study aims to measure the strengths and weaknesses of advanced-level L2 writers in terms of argumentative voice in L2 writing. One of the starting points of the present study is that the learning culture assumes importance in how students establish their voice. Most of the studies mentioned above were conducted in various locales. Hence, there is a need to see how learners in Turkish culture establish their voices. To this end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What is the voice strength in L2 argumentative writings among Turkish L2 writers as well as holistic rating and TOEFL grades?
2. Is there a correlation between or among the three dimensions (ideational, affective, presence) of authorial voice?
3. Is there a correlation between the overall authorial voice strength and the overall quality of L2 argumentative writing?

4. Is there a correlation between the overall authorial voice strength and the TOEFL grades?

### **3. Methodology**

The present study is a rubric-based study. Two rubrics were used. The corpus of the study consists of 104 argumentative texts written by advanced-level L2 writers.

#### **3.1. Context and Materials**

The present study was conducted at the tertiary level with English Language and Literature department students. It is believed that the participants are at B1 or B2 level. The number of participants in the present study is 104. They were asked to write individual argumentative writing on the following topic “Do media trigger violence in adolescents?”. They were not given strict guidelines so that they could individually decide on the length and the preciseness of the argument. The materials were rated by the researchers. At the beginning of the process, 15% of the material was coded together so that consistency could be ensured. Then, each researcher coded and rated the 104 essays independently. Upon completion, the rates were compared, and a high level of interrater reliability was found ( $r=.83$ ).

#### **3.2. Instrument**

##### **3.2.1. Zhao’s (2013) argumentative voice rubric**

The analytic rubric used in the present study was prepared by Zhao (2012). Zhao’s (2012) three-dimensional analytic rubric enables researchers to analyze argumentative texts from the reader-engagement dimension including reader pronouns, personal asides, references to

shared knowledge, and directives. In a subsequent study, Zhao (2017) could voice in texts with text quality. Zhao (2013) based the rubric on sound theoretical ground, which basically depends on Hyland's (2008) voice model. In each dimension, it is possible to rate the written material based on whether the voice is present and prominent. Raters graded written materials based on a 5-point scale. The first dimension, the ideational dimension, includes whether there is a clear and well-developed central point in the text. Zhao (2013) suggested that this was the main dimension in the rubric, based on the observation that readers first see voice in argumentation in whether ideas are properly designed. Second, the affective dimension covers considerations such as how confident is the author in presenting the argument and what attitude he or she takes on. Third, the presence dimension is concerned with to what extent the author reveals himself or herself in the text and to what extent readers can identify themselves with the text. According to Zhao (2017), this rubric is a viable tool that allows researchers to examine voice elements in argumentative writing. One reason why we opted for this rubric is that it is based on Hyland's (2008) voice model. Hyland's voice model underlines the role of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, reader pronouns, personal asides, references to shared knowledge, or rhetorical/audience-directed questions. A copy of the rubric is presented in Appendix A.

### **3.2.2. TOEFL Scoring Rubric**

We used the TOEFL scoring rubric in order to grade and evaluate the overall writing quality of students' papers. Each writing was rated by the



two authors. Since the number of student writings was at a manageable size, we rated the papers separately. In the end, we found a high level of consistency ( $r=.84$ ). In addition, at times of indecision, we corresponded and negotiated the inconsistent points. The TOEFL rubric provides a holistic account of writing quality based on 1 to 5 rating scale. It is given in Appendix B. It covers four components which are relevance, content development, organization and coherence, and language use.

#### 4. Findings

In this section, we present the descriptive findings first, followed by correlation and regression analysis. Table 1 presents the results regarding the descriptive findings based on the dimensions of the voice rubric along with TOEFL rating scores and a holistic rating of the papers. First, we give the first research question.

*Research question 1: What is the voice strength in L2 argumentative writings among Turkish L2 writers as well as holistic rating and TOEFL grades?*

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics regarding the sub-dimensions of argumentative voice and TOEFL scores (n=104)

Dimension	Min.	Max.	M.	Median	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Ideational	1	5	3.49	4	0,71	-0.88	0.71
Affective	1	5	3.37	4	0,76	-0.75	-0.17
Presence	1	5	3.37	3	0,65	-0.78	0.52
Holistic view	1	5	3.55	3	0.76	-0.70	-0.19
Total	1	20	13.59	14	2,54	-1.02	1.23
TOEFL	1	5	3.45	4	0.76	-1.11	0.12

We can understand from Table 1 that the average score participants received from the ideational dimension is 3.49, from the affective dimension 3.37, from the presence dimension 3.37. The holistic rating average for all the dimensions was 3.55, indicating an average level of writing quality in terms of argumentative voice, and the total average was calculated as 13.59 out of 20. The average for the TOEFL score was 3.45, again indicating a moderate level of success in terms of the holistic TOEFL score. The median scores range between 3 and 4. The median score for the ideational dimension is 4, for the affective domain 4, and for the present domain 3. The median score for the holistic view is 3, endorsing the previous finding that the writing quality of the participants was at an average level. The standard deviation scores range between 0.65 (present dimension) and 2.54 (the total grade). These standard deviation scores show that the grades for most of the participants were consistent. In addition, the sample was found to be normally distributed. The skewness and Kurtosis values are between -1.5 and +1.5.

*Research question 2: Is there a correlation between or among the three dimensions (ideational, affective, presence) of authorial voice?*

To answer the second research question, we conducted a Pearson-Product-Moment correlation analysis including authorial voice components, L2 argumentative essay scores, and TOEFL scores. The results are presented in Table 2. It can be understood that a statistically significant correlation was observed between the sub-components of argumentative voice. For example, a high level of correlation was observed between ideational dimension and affective dimension ( $r = .57, p < .01$ ), presence dimension

( $r = .75, p < .01$ ), holistic ratings ( $r = .66, p < .01$ ), total scores ( $r = .84, p < .01$ ), and TOEFL scores ( $r = .75, p < .01$ ). High level of correlation was observed between affective dimension and present dimension ( $r = .63, p < .01$ ), holistic ratings ( $r = .88, p < .01$ ), total ratings ( $r = .89, p < .01$ ), and TOEFL grades ( $r = .82, p < .01$ ). High levels of correlation was also observed between presence dimension and holistic ratings ( $r = .68, p < .01$ ), total ratings ( $r = .86, p < .01$ ), and TOEFL scores ( $r = .78, p < .01$ ). Finally, holistic ratings highly correlated with the TOELF grades ( $r = .87, p < .01$ ). The highest rate of correlation was found between holistic ratings and affective dimension ( $r = .88, p < .01$ ). TOEFL grades mostly correlated with holistic dimension ( $r = .87, p < .01$ ) and affective dimension ( $r = .82, p < .01$ ).

**Table 2.** Correlation Matrix for the argumentative components, essays grades, and TOEFL scores

	Idea	Affect	Pres	Hol	Total	TOEFL
Idea	-					
Affect	0.57*	-				
Pres	0.75*	0.63*	-			
Hol	0.66*	0.88*	0.68*	-		
Total	0.84*	0.89*	0.86*	0.93*	-	
TOEFL	0.75*	0.82*	0.78*	0.87*	0.92*	-

\*Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

*Research question 3. Is there a correlation between the overall authorial voice strength and the overall quality of L2 argumentative writings?*

To check whether the components of authorial voice can predict the overall quality of argumentation, we conducted a multiple regression analysis (MRA). The initial analysis indicated that the model was statistically significant ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ), and the adjusted  $R^2$  was 0.81, indicating a high level of consistency. The model was meaningful ( $p = 0.01 < 0.05$ ). The results are presented in Table 3. Table 3 shows that all the argumentative voice components (ie., ideational, affective, and presence) predict the overall holistic essay ratings.

**Table 3.** The predictors of overall argumentative voice quality

Variable	Estimate	SE	p
Intercept	-0.116	0.180	0.522
Ideational	1.190	0.0695	< .001
Affective	1.719	0.0549	< .001
Presence	1.114	0.0792	< .001

\*dependent variable: overall argumentative voice quality

*Research question 4. Is there a correlation between the overall authorial voice strength and the TOEFL grades?*

To see whether the components of authorial voice can predict the overall quality of argumentation, we conducted a multiple regression analysis. The initial analysis indicated that the model was statistically significant ( $R^2 = 0.908$ ), and the adjusted  $R^2$  was 0.82, indicating a high level of consistency. The model was meaningful ( $p = 0.01 < 0.05$ ). This means that the model is highly meaningful. Table 4 shows that all the components of argumentative voice highly predicted the TOEFL scores.

**Table 4.** The predictors of TOEFL score

Variable	Estimate	SE	p
Intercept	-0.288	0.179	0.111
Ideational	0.281	0.068	<.001
Affective	0.498	0.0545	<.001
Presence	1.114	0.0786	<.001

## 5. Discussion

The main objective of the present study was to measure the argumentative voice quality of L2 writers at the undergraduate level. All the participants in the present study are English Language and Literature department students, and they have a certain level of proficiency, which is above B2. The findings of the study indicated that the L2 writers ranked in the middle in terms of the three sub-dimensions, which are ideational, affective, and presence, of argumentative writing. The overall argumentative scores were also mediocre. The correlation analysis indicated that there was a strong correlation among the sub-dimensions of argumentation. The holistic ratings also highly correlated with the other sub-dimensions. Yet, the results indicated that they do not have a satisfactory level of voice with mediocre performance. This could be due to a lack of sufficient practice in that regard. In the Turkish education system, argumentation is not handled to the fullest degree. Students are not pushed, which leads to fragmentary performance not only in how they establish themselves in the text but also in faltering use of source

use. However, writing high-quality argumentative essays is a critical skill and one of the most demanding skills. Moreover, even though the term ‘voice’ may defy easy definition, the use of Zhao’s (2013) rubric enabled us to conceptualize the term in a multi-dimensional way.

In the present study, we employed the Argumentative Voice Rubric, which was developed and validated by Zhao (2013) and is one of the most commonly used rubrics in L2 writing research (i.e., Zhao, 2017; Zabihi et al., 2019). In a recent study, for example, Zhao (2017) found that all the components of argumentative writing were germane and highly predicted TOEFL scores. The present study also linked the argumentative voice component to overall TOEFL results and hence, in a sense, could be said to have replicated the findings of Zhao (2017). Hence, with this rubric, it is possible to get a relational understanding of argumentative voice.

The results regarding the argumentative voice quality clearly showed that the L2 writers have a moderate level of quality for almost all the dimensions. The ideational dimension was slightly above the affective and presence dimensions. A moderate level of quality in terms of ideational dimension shows that L2 writers can hardly adumbrate the central idea in their writings. It does not feel complete. The writing has some level of commitment to the topic; however, supporting ideas are either weak or not supported by literature or data. Exemplification was also found to be rather weak, not striking. The detailed analysis also showed that the readers are not invited to the text. Hence, overall, the argumentative essays of L2 writers in the present study were found to

lack uniqueness, intellectual saturation, or well-craftedness. This could be explained through the collectivist learning culture in Türkiye. In collectivist societies, individuals may abstain from asserting themselves. This is an important point that the education system should work on. From our observations, we can see that voice is the least handled component in L2 writing. Similar observations were made in the literature. For example, Zhao (2017) suggested that voice fails to become a prominent focus in L2 writing courses.

Similar results are valid for the affective dimension. In the writings of the L2 writers, frequent but insipid use of hedges was observed (i.e., can, may). They did not seem to integrate their authority into the text, staying behind the scenes. In a sense, they abstained from or slightly integrated themselves into, the text. Lack of authority could be explained by the assumption that they read very little. In a similar way, the stance taken by the L2 writers in the present study was not clear and it was hard to locate them in the text. In addition, the text could hardly be said to be engaging and lively. Finally, the texts written by L2 writers lacked variety in terms of word choice and did not intend to catch readers' attention. Third, when it comes to the presence dimension, the same picture was seen. The L2 writers failed to provide their presence effectively. We can see the L2 writers in the text, but not sufficient. Upon reading the texts, one does not feel that he or she is not drawn into the text. In addition, the L2 writers seem to have performed moderately in terms of presenting their personal backgrounds or experiences.

Overall, the present study showed that the L2 writers performed moderately in terms of establishing an argumentative voice. Similar results were reported in the literature. For example, Zabihi et al., (2019) found that Iranian L2 writers failed to insert themselves into their texts in a way that manifests their stances. They reasoned that the collectivist nature of the Iranian culture could be one factor given that it partially hinders the assertion of individuals. Rather than this, individuals in collectivist cultures tend to go with the trend without making themselves stand out. A similar case can be observed in Turkish culture, which is also highly collectivist, which may prevent individuals from presenting their ideas freely or putting themselves into the text.

The correlation and regression analyses conducted in the study indicated that all the sub-components of argumentative writing correlated with each other as well as with overall voice ratings and TOEFL ratings. This indicates that argumentative voice elements are significant indicators of overall writing quality.

Some studies reported different findings. Zhao (2017), for example, found that only the ideational dimension significantly correlated with overall TOEFL scores. The author suggested that the clear establishment of ideas is an important facet of voice.

In a different study, Zabihi et al., (2019) reported that all three argumentative voice components correlated with overall writing quality and predicted overall TOEFL results. This variance in findings warrant further research.



## 6. Limitation

All the efforts notwithstanding, several limitations could be mentioned, and caution is required to generalize the results. First, the number of essays in the present study was 104. Although it is a sizeable number, future research could consider having a bigger corpus. Second, in the present study, we used holistic TOEFL scores. Future research could consider taking into account all the sub-dimensions in the TOEFL rubric. Another limitation could be related to the conceptualization of voice, which followed Hyland's (2008) voice conceptualization.

The rubric is a viable tool to analyze voice. However, as was suggested by Matsuda (2015), it is highly text-oriented and captures voice only in terms of that respect. Future studies could consider this limitation and include more author-oriented aspects as well as the analysis of voice. Finally, another point that must be considered is that in the present study, like other studies, may be influenced by the rubric which is selected as the reference rubric. Hence, different results could be expected from other rubrics.

Finally, one further avenue for research could be to include more raters and seek their impressions. All in all, when considered within these limitations, the study could be said to have contributed to the existing body of knowledge in argumentative voice and writing quality.

## **7. Conclusion**

Having employed a validated argumentative voice rubric (Zhao, 2013), the present study explored the argumentative voice in L2 writers' essays in relation to overall voice quality as well as TOEFL ratings. The findings indicated a high level of consistency between and among all the variables. The L2 writers were found to have performed moderately in all the components of argumentative voice.

### **Thanks and Information Note**

Ethics Committee approval was not required for the study.

### **Author Contribution and Conflict of Interest Disclosure Information**

All authors contributed equally to the chapter.

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## Appendices

### The Analytic Voice Rubric (Zhao, 2013).

Ideational Dimension	Voice Evoked by the Presence and Clarity of Ideas in the Content
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The reader feels a clear presence of a central idea (point of view) throughout the text.</li> <li>● The writing shows a strong commitment to the topic through full development of the central idea (point of view) with adequate use of effective examples and details.</li> <li>● The reader feels that s/he is being invited to participate in the discussion of the topic and the construction of an argument through the author's use of directive phrases when presenting ideas.</li> <li>● The idea (point of view) and the use of examples and details in the writing are unique, interesting, and engaging, indicating sophisticated thinking behind the writing.</li> </ul>
4	
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The reader feels that there is a central idea (point of view) in the text, but it is not fully developed.</li> <li>● The writing shows some commitment to the topic with proper use of some supporting examples and details. But the examples are not always appropriate or effective.</li> <li>● The reader occasionally feels that s/he is being invited to participate in the discussion of the topic; but more often, the reader feels a lack of interaction with the writer.</li> <li>● The idea (point of view) and the use of examples and details in the writing are safe and general, lacking uniqueness, sophistication, or thoughtfulness.</li> </ul>
2	
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The reader cannot find a consistent central idea (point of view) in the text.</li> <li>● The writing does not show any commitment to the topic; rather, it is only an attempt (or a failed attempt) to answer a question. No examples or details are used to develop the topic.</li> <li>● The reader feels that the writer is not concerned with the reader, and the writing is a confusing monologue instead of a clear dialogue between the writer and the reader.</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The writing is generic and lifeless.</li> </ul>
Affective Dimension	Voice Evoked by the Manner of Presentation
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The writer presents ideas and claims with language that shows authority and confidence.</li> <li>• The reader feels that the writer has a clear stance on and a strong attitude toward the topic under discussion.</li> <li>• The tone of the writing shows personality, adds life to the writing, and is engaging and appropriate for the intended reader.</li> <li>• Word choice, and language use by extension, is varied, often interesting, sophisticated, and eye-catching to the reader</li> </ul>
4	
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The writer presents ideas and claims somewhat mildly with frequent use of unnecessary hedges; only occasionally does the writing show some degree of authority and confidence.</li> <li>• The writer seems to have a stance on the topic under discussion, but no strong attitude is revealed in the writing.</li> <li>• The tone of the writing is appropriate for the intended reader and the purpose of the writing, but lacks personality and liveliness.</li> <li>• Occasional interesting word choice and language use may catch the reader's attention, but the effect is inconsistent.</li> </ul>
2	
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The writer presents ideas and claims very mildly, showing a lack of authority and confidence in what s/he is writing.</li> <li>• The writer seems indifferent and does not have a clear stance on or attitude toward the topic under discussion.</li> <li>• The writer writes in a monotone that does not engage the reader at all; oftentimes the reader find him- or herself drifting off while reading the text.</li> <li>• Word choice or language use is flat, general, and dull, and thus unable to catch the reader's attention.</li> </ul>
Presence Dimension	Voice Evoked by Writer and Reader Presence
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The writer reveals him- or herself in the writing either directly or indirectly, giving the reader a clear sense of who the writer is as a unique individual.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The reader feels that the writer is aware of and able to engage the reader effectively in a direct or subtle way.</li> <li>• The sharing of personal backgrounds and experiences, if any, is effective, genuine, and engaging to the reader.</li> </ul>
4	
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The writer reveals him- or herself in the writing to some extent, leaving the reader with some sense of who s/he is.</li> <li>• The reader feels that the writer is aware of and trying to engage the reader in a way, but with limited success.</li> <li>• The sharing of personal backgrounds and experiences, if any, is genuine but not so engaging or effective to the reader.</li> </ul>
2	
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The reader has little or no sense of who the writer is as a unique individual instead of a generic, faceless person.</li> <li>• The reader feels that the writer is not concerned with the reader or completely fails to engage the reader in any way.</li> <li>• The sharing of personal backgrounds and experiences, if any, is generic, ineffective, and even inappropriate, making the reader feel annoyed.</li> </ul>

### Appendix B: Holistic Voice Strength

Holistic Voice Strength	
5	The reader feels a very strong authorial voice in the writing that is compelling and engaging
4	The reader feels a fairly strong authorial voice in the writing.
3	The reader feels a somewhat weak authorial voice in the writing.
2	The reader feels a very weak authorial voice in the writing.
1	The reader cannot really feel the presence of an authorial voice in the writing

### Appendix C: The TOEFL Scoring Rubric

Score	Task Description
5	An essay at this level largely accomplishes all of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• effectively addresses the topic and task</li> <li>• is well organized and well developed, using clearly appropriate explanations, exemplifications, and/or details</li> <li>• displays unity, progression, and coherence</li> </ul>
4	An essay at this level largely accomplishes all of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• addresses the topic and task well, though some points may not be fully elaborated</li> <li>• is generally well organized and well developed, using appropriate and sufficient explanations, exemplifications, and/or details</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● displays unity, progression, and coherence, though it may contain occasional redundancy, digression, or unclear connections</li> <li>● displays facility in the use of language, demonstrating syntactic variety and range of vocabulary, though it will probably have occasional noticeable minor errors in structure, word form, or use of idiomatic language that do not interfere with meaning.</li> </ul>
3	<p>An essay at this level is marked by one or more of the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● addresses the topic and task using somewhat developed explanations, exemplifications, and/or details</li> <li>● displays unity, progression, and coherence, though connection of ideas may be occasionally obscured</li> <li>● may demonstrate inconsistent facility in sentence formation and word choice that may result in lack of clarity and occasionally obscure meaning</li> </ul>
2	<p>An essay at this level may reveal one or more of the following weaknesses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● limited development in response to the topic and task</li> <li>● inadequate organization or connection of ideas</li> <li>● inappropriate or insufficient exemplifications, explanations, or details to support or illustrate generalizations in response to the task</li> <li>● a noticeably inappropriate choice of words or word forms</li> <li>● an accumulation of errors in sentence structure and/or usage</li> </ul>
1	<p>An essay at this level is seriously flawed by one or more of the following weaknesses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● serious disorganization or underdevelopment</li> <li>● little or no detail, or irrelevant specifics, or questionable responsiveness to the task</li> <li>● serious and frequent errors in sentence structure or usage</li> </ul>

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## Exploring Translingual Pedagogy in Academic Writing Classes: A Practitioner Research Study in the Turkish EFL Context

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## **1. Introduction**

The key to successful language teaching starts with knowing how students learn. During effective language teaching, students must be provided with different acquisition processes and opportunities. Although bilingual or multilingual education is one of the undeniable facts of language teaching fields in the 21st century, the languages in question are distinctly separated in multilingual classroom environments, and bilingual students are treated as “two monolinguals in one body” (Grosjean, 2010). This is because, in the context of linguistics, communication and language proficiency are determined within the norms of monolingualism and the nation-state (Velasco & García, 2014; Wei, 2022). However, in recent years, academics have opened up to the concept of ‘translanguaging’ against this sharp distinction in language classes brought about by increasing multilingualism (Canagarajah, 2007; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Lynch, 2011; Velasco & García, 2014). Today, ‘translanguaging’ is a major focus of interest in academia because there are limited classroom practices studies on how these languages influence each other while students acquire language skills in the process of learning one or more languages. This study aims to investigate the potential contribution of the translanguaging approach to the writing skills of plurilingual students in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) preparation classes in Türkiye, a context becoming increasingly multilingual and multinational. Specifically, the research explores a pedagogical approach grounded in Canagarajah’s (2011) negotiation strategies. This approach is examined for its potential to enhance the writing process by effectively organizing students’ complex language

repertoires during planning, drafting, and product stages, and to understand how and why students resort to translanguaging elements. The study further seeks to discern an amalgamated framework encompassing translanguaging, pragmatic code-binding, translation and language mixing, as essential for a nuanced understanding of the multifaceted ways students employ translanguaging in writing. Ultimately, this research aims to promote translanguaging as a countermeasure to the prevailing English-only writing instruction in Türkiye, recognizing its unique capacity to reveal distinctive skills that remain concealed within the conventional monolingual writing environment.

### **Research Questions**

The research was guided by the following key questions:

1. How and why do plurilingual students resort to translanguaging elements in their writing process, and what impact does it have on their writing performance?
2. In what ways do Canagarajah's (2011) negotiation strategies influence the planning, drafting, and product stages of the writing process among plurilingual students?
3. How does the translanguaging approach contribute to the writing skills of plurilingual students in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) preparation classes in Türkiye?

#### **1.1. Literature Review**

The significant impacts of globalisation on language include the propagation of multilingual practices, stimulating a vibrant intellectual

discourse on well-established concepts such as multilingualism, codes, and languages as distinct entities (Velasco & García, 2014). Multilingual practices, traditionally understood as individuals' use and engagement with multiple languages in their day-to-day life, are now being reevaluated with the emergence of a new concept known as 'translanguaging.' This paradigm, invites us to perceive language as a fluid, intricate, and unified system, where all languages interconnect (García & Wei 2014). One of translanguaging's main tenets is the notion that people do not utilize languages as distinct and isolated codes, but as integrated and fluid systems that are continually evolving (Canagarajah, 2011). Speakers don't switch languages, but instead transition effortlessly between them, often giving rise to novel linguistic forms and expressions (ibid). Translanguaging encourages the use of all linguistic resources available to a speaker, including different languages and language variants, to convey meaning (Canagarajah, 2016; Wei, 2018). It thus recognizes the inherent dynamism of language use, asserting that individuals with a range of linguistic skills do not adhere to rigid language boundaries (García & Wei, 2018; Wei, 2022). Furthermore, translanguaging accentuates the socio-cultural aspects of language use, acknowledging that language acts not only as a vehicle for communication but also as a potent symbol of identity, affiliation, and social standing (Wei, 2018). By acknowledging and appreciating the complete linguistic repertoire of speakers, translanguaging aims to foster more inclusive and equitable language practices in education and society (Canagarajah, 2011; 2016).



Although translanguaging challenges established notions of language functionality, it has faced criticism. There have been concerns about the pedagogical use of translanguaging. Jaspers (2018, p. 5) worries that translanguaging might not be as transformative in practice as it has been assumed to be, and its widespread heralding as a transformative tool can lead to unqualified implications of assured effects. This is because research in translanguaging seems to have significant similarities with the monolingual authorities it critiques, it relies on assumed cause-effect relationships that can't be guaranteed, and because, in some instances, translanguaging is turning into a dominant force rather than a liberating one (Jaspers, 2018). In response to this criticism, Wei (2022) asserts that translanguaging allows both the internal and external senses of language to coexist, and it represents an epistemological shift, with the potential to change how translanguaging is perceived, thereby significantly impacting schooling.

## **1.2. Translanguaging and Writing**

Translanguaging promotes an approach to teaching writing that recognizes languages as perpetually interrelating, interacting to create new forms and meanings (García & Wei, 2018). From this perspective, translanguaging writing is an established literary practice where writers negotiate their symbolic resources in relation to prevailing writing traditions (García & Kleifgen, 2020). Texts produced through this practice vary depending on the context, interlocutors, ideologies, norms, and objectives. This approach motivates students to deploy strategies drawn from their existing language repertoire in a manner suitable to the context. Teachers are encouraged to identify pedagogies (Rowe, 2022),

feedback, and assessment methods that suit the unique context and genre expectations of each student (Li & Zhu, 2013; Lu & Horner, 2013; Pacheco et al., 2021). Canagarajah (2011) highlights the value of translanguaging pedagogy by focusing on code-meshing strategies within a classroom context. Code-meshing treats all languages as parts of a single, unified system and supports the potential of incorporating other sign systems and communication modalities. In this study, code-meshing, (Canagarajah, 2011, 2013) is used for implementing translanguaging in texts.

### **1.3. Theoretical Framework: Canagarajah's Codemeshing Strategies**

The concept of translanguaging hinges on the idea that bi/multilingual individuals constantly generate new linguistic structures and meanings through the interactive synergy of their language resources (Canagarajah, 2016). While often understood as a pedagogical concept, translanguaging also incorporates code-meshing—an approach based on code-mixing, which blends various languages or language styles to achieve a specific rhetorical impact (Canagarajah, 2011).

Although there is a degree of intersection between code-switching and translanguaging, the distinction between these two concepts is a topic of interest to many academics (García, 2009; García et al., 2014). Code-switching is primarily viewed as a term with roots in linguistic structure, researchers emphasize, while translanguaging is seen as having a foundation in a more comprehensive sociolinguistic and ecological methodology. This is particularly true when it comes to language pedagogy, where translanguaging serves as a counterpoint to the

monolingual standards and ideologies prevalent in language learning environments and beyond (García et al., 2017; Jonsson, 2017; Velasco & García, 2014; Wei, 2018).

Code-meshing (Canagarajah, 2011), in its essence, is a sociolinguistic approach where the author intertwines multiple languages, dialects, or sociolects in a single discourse, reinforcing the individuality and cultural diversity in written texts. Canagarajah's (2011) negotiation strategies emphasize the importance of recognizing and understanding this language diversity in textual interpretation and construction. These strategies essentially facilitate a mutual understanding between the author and reader, ensuring effective communication while embracing linguistic diversity. He offers four negotiation strategies:

**Envoicing strategies:** These strategies emphasize why an author chooses to use code-binding, or code-meshing. They invite the reader to consider the author's motivations and intentions, which could be driven by a variety of factors, from socio-cultural background to the context of the text. Understanding these motivations can provide valuable insight into the author's perspective and enrich the interpretation of the text.

**Recontextualization strategies:** These strategies focus on grounding the negotiations on a firm foundation of genre and contextual traditions. This involves understanding the norms and conventions of a specific genre and adapting to them, ensuring the text fits within the expectations of that genre. Such understanding is key to analyzing the usage and impact of code-meshing within the text.

**Interactional strategies:** These strategies involve the processes that writers and readers use to reconstruct meaning within a text. They encompass the cooperative work between the author and the reader, taking into account their backgrounds and perspectives to facilitate effective communication. It emphasizes that reading is an interactive process and that the interpretation of code-meshed texts often requires an active negotiation of meaning between the reader and the writer.

**Entextualization strategies:** These involve the reshaping of the text based on the ongoing negotiations, which may vary with time and place. This can include the addition, deletion, or modification of elements within the text. It acknowledges the fluidity of language and the potential for texts to be reshaped in response to various socio-cultural factors.

The use of these strategies is dynamic and enthusiastic. The interlocutors, in their engagement with texts, actively employ strategies that further their rhetorical objectives and discard those that do not aid their purpose. This highlights the active, strategic nature of engagement with code-meshed texts.

Canagarajah's (2011) approach pertains to the diversity in language use and the role of educators in fostering an environment that acknowledges, values, and effectively utilizes this diversity. It also draws attention to the importance of understanding the strategies involved in navigating language diversity, both from the perspective of authors and readers.

#### **1.4. Context**

Tertiary education in Türkiye is uniquely characterized by a rich diversity that brings together students from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. As a consequence, language educators, particularly those tasked with teaching prep classes where English and Turkish are taught as foreign languages, are confronted with pedagogical challenges that demand adaptable, responsive approaches to instruction.

One significant group of learners in this context comprises students who have learned different languages as their first languages. These multilingual individuals often bring linguistic habits and perspectives from their first languages into their writing, employing metaphors, idioms, and analogies that are contextually rich in their original languages but may not translate well into Standard Written English (SWE), which is conventionally employed in academic writing (Altun, 2021).

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing to these multilingual students, particularly in prep classes, is further complicated by the diverse nature of language classes in Türkiye. In some cases, classes may be multilingual and multinational, which could result in a broad range of language competencies and expectations. In other situations, classes may be predominantly monolingual and non-national, leading to a contrasting set of challenges. These variations reflect the complex, intricate nature of teaching EFL writing in Türkiye's tertiary education sector.

In either case, individual differences, cultural backgrounds, and linguistic awareness among students add additional layers of complexity to the

pedagogical landscape. Each student brings a unique set of experiences, expectations, and expressive capacities to the classroom, requiring instructors to craft pedagogical strategies that account for these diverse learning profiles.

The primary challenge in this context lies in the standardization of writing instruction. Conventional writing lessons tend to be uniformly normative, designed to promote SWE.

However, translanguaging approach may undermine the expressive capacities of multilingual students, who may struggle to assert their presence in writing classes. Their distinct linguistic backgrounds and interpretive frameworks may not align with the stylistic and grammatical conventions of SWE, leading to an increased need for pedagogical sensitivity and adaptability on the part of EFL instructors.

In order to effectively teach EFL writing to multilingual students in Türkiye, teachers must strive to balance the requirements of standard academic writing with an understanding and appreciation for the linguistic and cultural diversity of their students (Altun, 2021).

This approach will not only cater to the varied learning needs of the students, but also enrich the learning environment by acknowledging and celebrating the students' unique linguistic backgrounds.

## **2. Material and Method**

This research is designed as practitioner research employing a mini ethnography in which the researcher assumes the role of an observer-participant, enabling an in-depth, detailed exploration of the research questions. The research setting was two academic writing classes at a public university in Türkiye over the course of an academic semester.

### **Sample**

The sample for this study consisted of the students enrolled in the two academic writing classes, whose linguistic backgrounds varied considerably. Given the focus of the research, attention was primarily directed towards plurilingual L2 writers.

### **Setting and the Participants**

The study was carried out in two classes within a multilingual educational setting, both characterized by similar demographic profiles, but specifically chosen to enable a detailed examination of the ‘translanguaging’ approach. The primary motivation for this selection was to obtain a sufficient number of students to evaluate the effectiveness of the translanguaging approach. Typically, individual classes did not have enough plurilingual students to rigorously test the application of this method. To address this limitation, the inclusion of a second class in the study was undertaken to compensate for the insufficient number of students in a single class. The participants were in a range of B1 English to B1-C2 Turkish language proficiency, focusing on ‘translingual academic writing,’ with a cohort size of 16 to 17 students. The dominant languages were English and Turkish, and the central view embraced the

idea that languages reinforce each other, leading to perceived soft boundaries between languages.

Choosing two classes also provided an opportunity to validate the robustness of the translanguaging approach across different settings, thereby contributing to the generalizability of the findings. If one class showed positive engagement with the implementation, the reaction of the other class could provide additional insights into the conditions and factors influencing the success or failure of the approach.

The experimental study was designed to introduce ‘translanguaging’ as an innovative teaching method. In contrast, the general school setting, aligned with the school’s typical teaching policy, which advocated for a monolingual, product-oriented perspective and emphasized ‘Standard Written English (SWE)’, with a broader participant pool of approximately 1200 students. Unlike the experimental classes, the school policy saw languages as potentially contaminating each other, with rigid boundaries set between languages.

Table 1 describes the overall context, underlining the carefully designed contrasts that underpin this study’s innovative exploration of language teaching and learning.

The participants in both classes represented a diverse range of linguistic backgrounds, hailing from countries with multiple indigenous languages. Figure 1 shows the specific languages spoken by the participants in two classes. Both groups had multilingual students whose native languages were not confined to a single linguistic group but spanned across a wide spectrum of languages worldwide.



**Table 1.** Overall specifics of the context

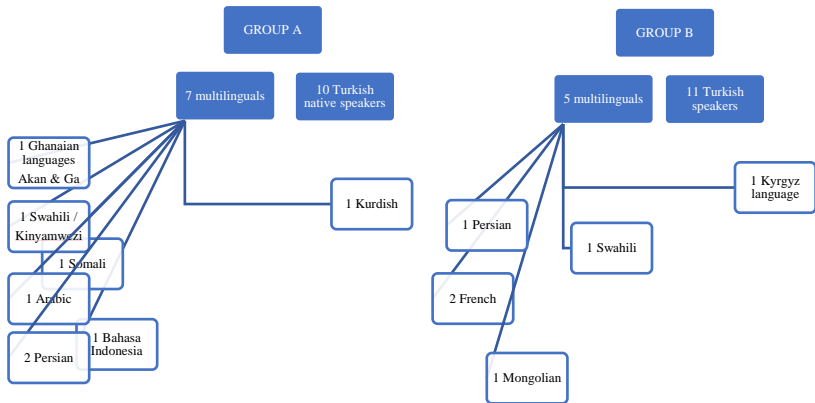
	<b>Group A/B</b>	<b>School Policy</b>
<b>Level</b>	B1 English/ Turkish B1-C2	B1 English/ Turkish B1-C2
<b>Focus on</b>	Translingual academic writing	Academic SWE
<b>Number of participants</b>	17-16	Around 1200
<b>Dominant Language</b>	English, Turkish	English
<b>Dominant view</b>	Languages reinforce each other	Languages contaminate each other
	Soft boundaries between languages	Hard boundaries between languages
	Multilinguals are different monolinguals.	English native speaker is the role model
	Process	Product

For instance, French-speaking students were from the Republic of Congo and the Comoro Islands, speaking Comorian, French, and Arabic. Similarly, Persian-speaking students were proficient in Pashto, while students from Kyrgyzstan were bilingual in Russian and Kyrgyz. This linguistic diversity offered an enriched context for the study.

Group A comprised 17 participants, of which seven were multilingual. These seven plurilingual students had unique language backgrounds: Bahasa Indonesia, Somali, Kurdish, Swahili/Kinyamwezi, Arabic, Ghanaian languages (Akan & Ga), and Persian. The remaining ten participants were native speakers of Turkish.

Group B consisted of 16 participants, among which five were plurilingual. These five students had diverse language proficiencies:

Swahili, Kyrgyz, French, Mongolian, and Persian. The rest of the group, eleven participants, were native speakers of Turkish.



**Figure 1.** Language profile of the participants

This diverse linguistic landscape provided an ideal setting to explore the impact of multilingual instructional strategies and how these compared to monolingual, product-oriented approaches in a real-world, multilingual classroom setting.

### **Procedure**

The research procedure began with an orientation session introducing the concept of translanguaging to the students. This introduction was accomplished through interactive discussions, real-life examples, and emphasis on its relevance in multilingual settings. Students were engaged in pre-activities that allowed them to practice translanguaging, followed by feedback sessions to clarify doubts and hone their skills. The translanguaging approach was gradually incorporated into regular

classroom activities and monitored to assess students' adoption. Next, eight distinct writing tasks were introduced, explaining their design to evaluate how students employed translanguaging in different types of essays. Through guidance sessions, students were provided examples and engaged in interactive discussions to brainstorm ideas for each task. The tasks were then implemented either individually or in groups, with necessary resources provided for each theme, including clear timelines. Regular check-ins with students ensured understanding and progress, with additional support offered as needed. Finally, the completed scripts were collected, evaluated based on predefined criteria focusing on the use of translanguaging, and feedback was shared with students during recorded audio feedback sessions which were 16 hours in total. After these sessions, interviews with the volunteering students were conducted. Eight short interviews allowed students to express what they have gone through during the writing sessions focusing on translanguaging. The interviews were then recorded and transcribed for qualitative coding. This comprehensive approach ensured seamless integration of translanguaging into the classroom, fostering clear understanding among students of the task requirements, and enabling the capture of complex and nuanced ways students employed translanguaging in their writing.

### **Tasks**

The study was designed around eight writing tasks to assess instances of language borrowing in students' written work, reflecting a variety of themes and styles. The first three tasks were more personal in nature, where students wrote descriptive and narrative essays about their languages, life aspirations, and a happy day in their lives. The next two

tasks shifted to cause-and-effect essays about natural disasters and global warming, drawing content from course books. The selection of these cause-and-effect tasks, along with the subsequent opinion and argumentative essays on topics like social media, social class, migration, and pandemics, was intentional to align with the common curriculum used in the school. This alignment was not merely a reflection of the existing educational framework, but a strategic choice made to integrate the translanguaging approach into the curriculum. By choosing tasks that resonated with both the conventional learning objectives and real-world themes, the study aimed to create a potential implementation of translanguaging in a Turkish EFL setting. This integration allowed for a more dynamic, contextual, and responsive evaluation of the students' abilities, aligning with broader educational goals and promoting an understanding of mixed languages within the framework of the existing curriculum. The study thus served as both an exploration of students' linguistic competencies and a practical application of translanguaging in a way that could be naturally woven into everyday teaching and learning practices.

### **Data Analysis**

The data analysis stage of the study was multifaceted, employing qualitative coding and an analytical framework derived from Canagarajah's work (2011) to interpret students' linguistic strategies in both oral and written forms.

The initial phase of the study involved the analysis of students' written outputs, where eight distinct writing tasks were implemented. These tasks spanned various themes and styles, including personal narratives, cause-

and-effect essays, opinion essays, and argumentative essays, culminating in a collection of 202 scripts. The analysis prioritized identifying instances of mixed-language usage within these written texts, providing a nuanced evaluation of how students leveraged different languages in their writing.

Subsequent to the analysis of the written data, the study delved into the oral data, consisting of eight interviews and 16 hours of audio feedback sessions. These audio sessions and interviews were designed to explore the translanguaging examples in the written outputs. Students were asked to explain further about their specific language use in their outputs. Then this data underwent qualitative coding (Saldana, 2018), a process which involved the identification and categorization of patterns, behaviors, or themes. These elements, critical to understanding the students' use of language, were then organized into manageable segments and themes for further analysis. Through this method, a comprehensive understanding of the linguistic strategies employed by the students, both in written and oral forms, was obtained.

Subsequently, both oral (interviews and audio sessions) and written data were examined through the lens of Canagarajah's (2011) framework, which offers invaluable insights into the usage of language in multilingual settings. The negotiation strategies framework—including envoicing, recontextualization, interaction, and entextualization—served as guidelines for investigating how and where students applied translanguaging strategies during their dialogues, audio feedback sessions, and written tasks. The aim was to understand how students alternated between languages, mixed linguistic codes, and employed their

complete linguistic repertoires to enhance their academic learning experiences.

By leveraging an analytical framework based on Canagarajah's (2011) negotiation strategies alongside qualitative coding, this study sought to capture a nuanced understanding of translanguaging practices within the context of the classroom. The incorporation of both oral and written analyses provided a more comprehensive view of the complex and dynamic linguistic strategies that multilingual students employ in academic settings. This multifaceted approach aimed to illuminate how students navigate and integrate multiple languages in a structured academic context, offering insights into their distinctive skill set and the potential contributions of the translanguaging approach in a multilingual educational environment.

### **3. Findings and Discussion**

The results section of this study unveils a multifaceted investigation into the complex linguistic dynamics that underpin translanguaging within a multilingual educational environment. This inquiry is characterized by a detailed examination of both oral and written forms of language, utilizing a comprehensive analytical framework that draws from Canagarajah's work (2011).

Starting with an elaborate qualitative coding process (Saldana, 2018) of the collected data, which included, eight interviews and 16 hours of audio feedback sessions, the study discerned various patterns and themes that inform students' use of language. Only four major themes were included in the discussion section. This analysis not only offered a structured

segmentation of students' written outputs but also paved the way for a nuanced examination of the oral data. Through eight distinctive writing tasks, encompassing a diverse range of themes and styles, the research gathered 202 scripts that were intricately analyzed for instances of mixed-language usage. This examination revealed a range of 12% to 22% mixed-language usage across the tasks, substantiating language borrowing as a contextual and systematic practice.

By threading the qualitative coding with Canagarajah's (2011) negotiation strategies framework—including facets such as envoicing, recontextualization, interaction, and entextualization—the study ventured into a thorough exploration of how students and why apply translanguaging in written tasks, through audio feedback sessions, and interviews. This multidimensional approach succeeded in unearthing the dynamic interplay of languages in students' academic experiences, both verbally and in written forms.

In the following subsections, the results will be presented in detail for each of the eight tasks, exploring the subtleties and complexities of the students' use of mixed languages in their writing.

The findings highlight not only the students' ability to employ different languages but also their ability to transcend mere code-binding, employing a more textured and nuanced interplay between languages that reflects the inherent complexity of multilingual practices.

### **3.1. Writing Tasks and Borrowing**

The results of the study unveils a complex and detailed understanding of language borrowing within students' written texts, shaped by the analysis of eight distinct writing tasks.

The detailed analysis revealed a nuanced variation in the mixed-language usage across tasks, ranging from approximately 12% to 22% (see Table 2). The percentages of borrowings were given for descriptive purposes. This finding indicates that language borrowing was neither a uniform nor a random phenomenon but a systematic linguistic strategy shaped by the specific demands and contexts of each task. Far from being a mere amalgamation of languages, the instances of language borrowing illustrate how students systematically navigate and integrate multiple languages within a structured academic context.

Each task provided a unique opportunity to explore specific aspects of students' linguistic abilities, offering insights into how they creatively and thoughtfully engaged with language.

The first task, titled "My Languages," was a descriptive essay, for which 33 scripts were collected. Eight of these scripts exhibited usage of mixed languages, accounting for approximately 22% of the total scripts for this task. The primary source for the task was personal.

The second task required students to write a descriptive narrative about "My Aspirations about Life." A total of 31 scripts were gathered, out of which six showed instances of mixed language use. This represented about 17% of the total collected scripts for this task. The task relied on personal experiences as the main source of content.

The third task was a narrative essay on "The Day I was Very Happy." Here, 27 scripts were collected, with nine containing elements of mixed languages, translating to around 14.3% of the total. This task, too, drew upon personal experiences.



In the fourth task, students wrote a cause-and-effect essay about “The Effect of Natural Disasters.” From this task, 21 scripts were gathered, four of which utilized mixed languages, making up about 12% of the total. The main source for this task was text from a course book.

**Table 2.** Type of tasks and the percentages of borrowing

Essay Topic	Type of Task	Number of scripts collected	Number of scripts using mixed languages	Percentages of scripts using mixed languages	Source
My languages	Descriptive	33	8	22	Personal
My aspirations about life	Descriptive Narrative	31	6	17	Personal
The day I was very happy	Narrative	27	9	14.3	Personal
The effect of natural disasters	Cause and effect	21	4	12	Course book text
Global warming	Cause and effect	18	5	17	Course book text
Social media and public opinion	Opinion	26	7	12.4	Course book text
Social class and migration	Opinion	18	5	13	Course book text
Pandemics: natural or manmade	Argumentative	28	6	12.8	Newspaper

The fifth task was another cause-and-effect essay, this time on “Global Warming.” Eighteen scripts were collected, with five showing usage of mixed languages, representing 17% of the total. The content for this task was derived from a course book.

The sixth task required an opinion essay on “Social Media and Public Opinion.” Twenty-six scripts were collected from this task. Seven scripts showed the use of mixed languages, constituting about 12.4% of the total. The primary source for this task was also a course book.

The seventh task was another opinion essay focusing on “Social Class and Migration.” This task yielded 18 scripts, with five demonstrating the use of mixed languages, accounting for 13% of the total. Course book text served as the main source.

The final task asked for an argumentative essay on the topic “Pandemics: Natural or Manmade.” A total of 28 scripts were collected, six of which contained elements of mixed languages. This represented roughly 12.8% of the total. The main source for this task was a newspaper.

The findings highlight the students’ capacity to employ different languages in their writing in a manner that transcends mere code-switching (Velasco & García, 2014). Rather, the usage of mixed languages appears to be a sophisticated linguistic strategy, enabling them to articulate complex thoughts and ideas (Canagarajah, 2011).

In essence, the results underscore the inherent complexity of language use in a multilingual educational context (Cenoz, 2017). They illuminate how students engage with and leverage their diverse linguistic resources, reflecting a nuanced interplay between languages that contributes to a more textured understanding of multilingualism (Wolff, 2018). This

insight into language borrowing not only enriches the current understanding of multilingual practices but also offers practical implications for language teaching and learning, emphasizing the importance of embracing and nurturing the multifaceted nature of language in educational settings (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019).

### **3.2. Different Linguistic and Cultural Backgrounds**

The study's findings underscore the importance of considering students' written outputs from varying perspectives, particularly when those students hail from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Kaplan, 1966). Such backgrounds have been found to significantly influence the rhetorical and syntactic choices made by the participants, sometimes resulting in unconventional or 'unnatural' forms in their writing from a Western perspective.

One of the key findings is that individuals from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds exhibit distinct thought patterns, attributable to the unique developmental pathways of their respective cultures (Cumming, 1990). These differences in thinking, typically manifested as linear versus circular thought patterns, were evident in the students' writing tasks.

Most of the participants seemed to grapple with the Western linear thought pattern, which focuses on logic, analysis, and science, and tends to foster active, extroverted, and open behavior (Elabdali, 2022). These students, whose cultural backgrounds were predominantly Eastern, generally employed a circular mode of thinking. This thought pattern emphasizes intuition and imagery and is often associated with quiet, introverted, and conservative behavior (Lu & Xie, 2019).

The Eastern thought pattern's intuitive holistic nature and harmonious dialectical essence were manifest in the students' writing (Hongladarom, 1998). The tendency for these students to gravitate towards these thought patterns illuminates the challenges they faced when trying to conform to Western linear thought patterns in their written tasks.

The following extract is taken from one of the participants from Group A.

*“When I sat on a chair on a rainy day, I was in a Brown study. I realised that people have differences like rain drops. For example, in spite of the fact that people have the same kind of clothes and similar cars, there are different qualities among each others. But people are similar are in fact different. People like also different things. For example I like dancing but my firend likes playing football. When I reduced this to my family, I meet with the reality of my parents were 2 different people. That is, both my parents have mainly different features as physical appearance, characteristic fetures, leisure activities.”* (aspirations about life text, Sherriff)

Sherriff's 'Aspirations about Life' text reflects a contemplative perspective on individuality and diversity among people. The opening line, which refers to the author being in a 'Brown study,' suggests a deep, introspective thought process.

The analogy of people's differences being akin to raindrops signifies the author's recognition of the inherent diversity among humans. Just like every raindrop is unique, so too are individuals, regardless of apparent similarities such as clothing or cars. Sherriff acknowledges that surface-level similarities often mask deeper, more nuanced differences in character and personal preferences.

The statement "People like also different things." further illustrates this point, drawing on the example of contrasting hobbies between the author

and a friend, dancing and playing football, respectively. This statement serves to highlight the individuality that lies beneath broad-brush categorizations (Creese & Blackledge, 2015).

The last part of the extract narrows the focus to Sherriff's family, specifically their parents. He notes how two individuals, despite sharing a close familial relationship and living under the same roof, can possess unique features and preferences in physical appearance, character traits, and leisure activities.

This extract is a testament to the Eastern thought pattern described in the results section, emphasizing intuition, imagery, and a holistic approach (Kaplan, 1966). The narrative doesn't follow a linear, point-by-point argumentation style but rather evolves organically, touching upon various aspects of human diversity, ultimately circling back to the familial sphere from a broader, societal viewpoint. It demonstrates the author's contemplative, introspective thought process, reflecting a circular pattern of thinking that is characteristic of Eastern cultures (Bibikova & Kotelnikov, 2023).

### 3.3 Not All Are Unwitting Errors

Another striking result was to recognize that not every instance of nonstandard usage by a student is an unwitting error (Lu & Horner, 2013). The following extracts can illustrate such uses of language.

*“One of my best friends used to **mencomot** when we were at high school. She used to make us to do the same thing just for fun.” (Arini – my aspirations text) (Bahasa)*

*“I was **tarooftng** **تعارف** but the didn't understand and did not ask me again to go with them.” (Arvin – my languages text) (Persian)*

*“Usually the economic situation changes the food you eat. Middle class people eat **boko boko** but lower class eat soy beans.” (Mbogo – social class and higher education text) (Swahili)*

*“Sometimes, I want to say **kolay gelsin** or **geçmiş olsun** but I don’t think they will respond.” (Burcin – my languages text) (Turkish)*

*“We call him “**Hemse Ehmes**” because he is the most beloved kid in the family. (Issam – the day I was happy) (Arabic)*

The given extracts, sourced from students’ texts, serve to highlight the use of nonstandard or multilingual expressions. These instances are not mistakes but deliberate choices by the students to incorporate their native languages into their English texts. This represents the translanguaging strategies these students have developed to navigate multilingual settings (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016).

In the first example, Arini uses the Bahasa term “mencomot” in an English sentence, depicting a shared experience from high school. The usage of this term enriches the narrative, lending authenticity and cultural nuance to the story.

In the second instance, Arvin uses the Persian concept of “taroofting” in his text, which is a form of etiquette deeply embedded in Iranian culture. The insertion of this term highlights a cultural misunderstanding and emphasizes the challenge of cross-cultural communication.

Mbogo’s text, using the Swahili term “boko boko,” demonstrates the connection between socio-economic status and diet. By integrating a Swahili term, Mbogo successfully communicates the specifics of cultural context and its influence on food choices.

Burcin’s use of Turkish expressions “kolay gelsin” and “geçmiş olsun” in her text signifies an attempt to convey specific sentiments that may not have direct English equivalents, showcasing the limitations of monolingual communication in expressing nuanced cultural meanings.

Lastly, Issam uses the Arabic term “Hemse Ehmes” in his text. The term, which refers to a beloved family member, conveys a specific cultural sentiment that cannot be easily translated into English.

Sometimes it is an active choice motivated by important cultural and ideological considerations. They picked up words that had no equivalents in English for example. *Mencomot* (Indonesian) Stealing things of small value, mostly for fun rather than out of necessity *Tarof* (Persian: تعارف) Refusing a favor without meaning it and expecting the host to insist on offering the tribute (often signaling a hierarchical rank in social relations) *Boko Boko* a special stewed meat with special herbs.

These examples clearly demonstrate that the use of nonstandard language forms by multilingual students is often not an error but a deliberate strategy to communicate specific cultural and linguistic nuances (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). The instances reflect the students’ ability to use their full linguistic repertoire effectively and illustrate the benefits of translanguaging in academic writing (Canagarajah, 2011).

### **3.4. Strategies Used to Negotiate**

In the results section, an analysis was conducted on the negotiation strategies used by the students during the audio feedback sessions and interviews, following the four strategies delineated by Canagarajah (2011). These strategies include *envoicing*, *recontextualization*,

*interaction*, and *entextualization*. The subsequent sections provide an examination of the strategic use of language in the written outputs, along with an analysis of themes and interactions informed by these specific linguistic practices during both audio feedback sessions and interviews.

### **3.4.1. Envoicing**

From the perspective of envoicing, the following extract was interpreted:

*“I was thinking in Lingala at the time... couldn’t think of synonyms in English because French words kept coming through my mind one after another. So, I depended on my French. [For example], we had ‘C’est n’importe quoi’ means not logical. When I understood the word in French, an English word ‘make sense’ came through my mind. This way, I used French for the task.”* (Prosni, audio feedback session, 7).

Envoicing, in this context, refers to the process of giving voice to one’s thoughts, which may be influenced by various languages. The student’s experience of thinking in Lingala and relying on French to understand an English concept illustrates the complexity of multilingual cognition (Rowe, 2022). The negotiation between different languages within the student’s mind, and the resultant synthesis of understanding, exemplifies the intricate interplay of languages (Arnaut, 2016). The student’s dependence on French to arrive at an English understanding underscores how multilingual individuals may utilize various linguistic resources in unique and dynamic ways (García et al., 2014). This example highlights how envoicing as a strategy manifest in real-world language tasks, underscoring the fluidity and adaptability of multilingual cognition. The ‘envoicing’ strategy as proposed by Canagarajah (2011) refers to the speaker’s process of choosing to use certain voices, perspectives, or languages in their utterances to convey meaning effectively. This strategy



reflects how multilingual speakers harness their full linguistic repertoire to communicate effectively.

In the given extract from Prosni's audio feedback session, the 'envoicing' strategy is evident. Prosni describes the experience of thinking in Lingala, only to have French words come to mind when attempting to find English synonyms. This phenomenon showcases the dynamic negotiation between languages that occurs within a multilingual speaker's mind (Velasco & García, 2014).

Prosni's reliance on French, despite the task being in English, demonstrates the fluidity of multilingual thought processes. For example, the phrase "C'est n'importe quoi," which Prosni translates as 'not logical,' leads to the English term 'make sense.' This illustrates how the comprehension of a phrase in one language (French) can facilitate the recall of a concept in another language (English) (Horner & Tetreault, 2017).

From the 'envoicing' perspective, Prosni's narrative is a powerful demonstration of the way multilingual speakers navigate their diverse linguistic resources. By freely transitioning between languages, Prosni is able to negotiate meanings and articulate thoughts more effectively. This underscores the multilayered and dynamic nature of multilingual communication (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019).

### **3.4.2. Interaction and rehearsing**

The interaction strategy as outlined by Canagarajah (2011) relates to the negotiation process that occurs between individuals to establish meaning. This often involves feedback, questions, clarification, and a shared construction of understanding, typically seen in multilingual settings.

In the following extract, Ugur presents an initial text about the benefits of social media, notably its role in communication. Ugur selects the term ‘transfer’ to express the conveyance of ideas between people. This choice was determined after Ugur checked for the English translation of the Turkish word “iletmek,” and decided to use ‘transfer’ over ‘transmit’ based on personal preference.

*“The first benefits of social media is communication. Communication is very important for people. Many people want to transfer their ideas to other people. Together with these applications, social project or ideas spread easily. Thus, the exchange of information among people increases rapidly. In addition, it’s use to talk to other people. Thanks to friendship applications, we can meet people who have ideas and hobbies like ourselves.”* (social media and public opinion text, Ugur, Turkish L1)

*“I first checked for the English translation of “iletmek” and I saw “transfer” and also “transmit” and I tried transmit it sounds not good so I decided to use transfer.”* (Ugur, audio feedback session 11)

However, during the audio feedback session, a peer, Naseer, provides constructive feedback on Ugur’s text.

*“I think you need a word that describes human communication. Transfer is more like a machine thing to me. I think you should use “communicate” here.”* (Naseer, audio feedback session 11)

Naseer suggests that ‘communicate’ would be a more appropriate term than ‘transfer’ in this context, as ‘transfer’ has machine-like connotations that may not be suitable for describing human interaction.

Rehearsing is another strategy as part of interaction. As part of his negotiations, Ugur talks about how he picked the word transfer for this sentence. Envoicing strategies evaluate what prompts the author to use code binding. Additionally, a recontextualization strategy offered by another student during the feedback session is observed. Naseer helps Ugur to put the word on a more solid base and help him use it in a context appropriate way. As a result of these negotiations, Ugur decided to reformulate the text depending on the context. Thus it could also be considered as an example of Entextualization.

This situation exemplifies the interaction strategy in operation. The negotiation between Ugur and Naseer over the appropriate term to use reflects a shared construction of understanding. Their exchange provides an opportunity to discuss and refine the meaning of the text, demonstrating how the interaction strategy facilitates a deeper engagement with the material and aids in creating more effective communication.

### **3.4.3. Entextualization, Envoicing and Postponing**

Another interesting finding was observed in Zafira's writing about global warming, which highlights the process of envoicing and entextualization within a translanguaging context. The original extract reads:

*“Our world is (baaba’a) disappearing slowly day by day. Everyone is aware of the danger but nobody is doing anything. Of course, I am talking about global warming. Sea level is rising and glaciers are melting because of global warming. Global warming has many effects on our world such as changes in climate, harmful sun rays, and disruption of the ecosystem.”* (Global warming text, Zafira).

Zafira's utilization of her native Somali word "baaba'a" for "disappear" reveals an intricate strategy she employed in her writing. During her audio feedback session, she explains, "I first thought baaba'a in Somali for disappear and finished writing the text and then I came back to that word and used disappear" (Zafira, audio feedback session 12).

The use of this approach, referred to as "postponing," involves initially jotting down a word in one's native language, then continuing to write and returning to that word to replace it with the equivalent in the target language. This strategy showcases how Zafira engaged her full linguistic repertoire to express her meaning. By using a term from her own language first, and then revisiting it to confirm her meaning, she demonstrates how a student's multilingual abilities can be harnessed within the writing process (Kaufhold, 2018).

Zafira's approach is reflective of both envoicing and entextualization strategies, manifesting as an alternative way to convey meaning. It provides insight into how translanguaging allows students to navigate between languages, leveraging their entire linguistic toolkit. This method indicates that there may be more flexibility in the writing process for plurilingual students and underscores the potential richness that translanguaging can bring to academic writing (Lu & Horner, 2013).

Her response offers a valuable perspective on how multilingual students creatively and effectively engage with the writing task, utilizing all available linguistic resources to craft meaningful and coherent text (Lynch, 2011).

#### **3.4.4. Entextualization and revision**

An exploration of students' strategies in writing in a second language revealed a commonality among different language backgrounds: the practice of multiple revisions in the target language. This practice appears to be a key interaction and entextualization strategy used by students to ensure that their texts meet the context and genre expectations.

Hassan, an Arabic speaker, shared his process, stating, "I am thinking and writing in Arabic when I try to write, but always I try to control my essay in English. I read it one last time in English before submitting it" (Hassan, audio feedback session 5). Similarly, Ezgi, a Turkish speaker, reflected on her high school experience: "Our English teacher used to say in high school we have to think in English while writing. So I always check the final copy and be careful about English" (Ezgi, Turkish, audio feedback session 1). Siri, from Mongolia, emphasized attention to vocabulary, explaining, "I especially check the vocabularies twice when I finish writing. I check the spelling and the correct meaning" (Siri, Mongolian, audio feedback session 6).

These insights highlight a consistent strategy across diverse linguistic backgrounds: the practice of multiple revisions, often with a specific focus on vocabulary, grammar, and alignment with English. This technique seems to serve as a bridge between their native language thinking and the final English product, enabling students to maintain control over their expression while ensuring that their work is aligned with the expectations of English academic writing.

The findings shed light on how multilingual students navigate the complexity of writing in a target language, particularly in a formal academic setting. They illustrate how students consciously draw from their native languages while also actively engaging with English through repeated revisions. This iterative process appears to provide students with the means to not only express themselves accurately in the target language but also to refine their texts to meet the specific demands of the context and genre (Tardy, 2016). This technique underscores the dynamic, flexible nature of multilingual writing processes and emphasizes the value of understanding and leveraging these processes within academic settings (Prada, 2022).

#### **3.4.5. Entextualization and metacognitive comparisons**

The theme of interactional strategies that aid entextualization surfaces again, this time with a focus on the use of metacognitive comparisons. An extract from an interview with Arini, a Bahasa speaker from Indonesia, sheds light on this strategic approach, highlighting her active consideration and comparison of different languages' pragmatic and syntactic features.

Arini explained,

*"For me, I speak in three different languages in Indonesia,... Jawa, Makassar, and Indonesia. We learn Indonesia and English when we attended school (from elementary schools)... Commonly we spoke our traditional language just at home, daily life or unofficial events. But because the traditional language is just for unofficial events, I never wrote any assignments or official paper by using it in simple way, it is just for basic life. Because of that, I just can compare the basic differentiation from Bahasa structure and English structure. Bahasa/Indonesia language was created with simple grammar and structure. For example, in English, there are past tense, simple, continuous, future, and others. But, in Bahasa,*

*we only have simple tense. In Bahasa, we just say 'saya menulis' saya means I, menulis means write, for every tense, no difference. Sometimes, if we want to say for specific times, we just put an adverb of time, example, we say 'Saya akan menulis besok.' 'Akan' means 'going to,' 'besok' means 'tomorrow.' Or 'Saya menulis hari ini.' 'Hari ini' means 'today'" (Arini, Bahasa, interview 1).*

This extract showcases Arini's metalinguistic awareness and ability to evaluate her languages based on their functional and structural aspects. By comparing English with Bahasa, she points out the simplicity of the latter's tense system and explains how specific time references are made. Arini's reflections reveal a deeper understanding of the languages in her repertoire and how they function in different contexts, both formal and informal. The analysis demonstrates how multilingual individuals not only switch between languages but also actively compare and contrast them, recognizing unique grammatical features and using them to their advantage (Kaufhold, 2018).

Such metacognitive comparisons further illuminate the complexities and intricacies of multilingualism, highlighting the rich linguistic awareness that multilingual speakers often possess. These insights contribute to a broader understanding of how students navigate multiple languages, leveraging their metalinguistic knowledge as a strategic tool in their writing and communication processes.

In further exploring the interactional strategies that help with entextualization, additional insights were gathered from various students. These insights revealed some unique linguistic challenges and appreciations encountered by the students.

Issam, an Arabic speaker, pointed out a specific challenge related to capitalization, noting, “We don’t have a capital letter in my language, so I am always confused when I have to use a capital letter after a period.” (Issam, Arabic, Audio feedback session 11). This statement reflects the difficulties faced in adapting to orthographic conventions that differ between languages.

Arvin again expressed a sense of joy when encountering familiar linguistic elements, stating, “I always feel happy when I see Persian words in English or in Turkish.” (Arvin, audio feedback session 16). This demonstrates a connection between the student’s native language and the languages they are learning, which could foster a sense of comfort and recognition.

El-Zehra’s comment highlighted the challenge of syntactic differences between languages. She observed,

*“I found it very difficult to put sentences in order while learning Turkish. The verb is at the beginning of the sentence in Arabic, but it comes at the end of the sentence in Turkish. Sometimes it even seemed to me that people were talking backwards. But English is similar to Arabic in terms of verbs.”* (El-Zehra, interview 8).

This extract emphasizes how sentence structure and word order can significantly influence the learning process, and it reflects the complexity and variety of the students’ linguistic experiences.

These diverse experiences and challenges add depth to the understanding of how students navigate multilingual landscapes. They reveal how linguistic elements and structures can be both stumbling blocks and points of connection and appreciation. This highlights the intricate



relationship between language learning, identity, and the ways in which students approach the entextualization process (Li & Zhu, 2013). It also underscores the importance of recognizing and valuing the varied linguistic resources and backgrounds that students bring to the learning environment (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

#### **4. Conclusion and Suggestions**

Drawing from the extensive data gathered and analyzed, this research presents a thorough examination of translanguaging and its implications within the context of plurilingual student writing in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) preparation classes in Türkiye. Addressing the guiding research questions has illuminated significant findings that can inform pedagogical practices and future research.

To the first research question - how and why plurilingual students resort to translanguaging elements in their writing process, and the impact on their writing performance - the analysis revealed that plurilingual students creatively employ their entire linguistic repertoire in their writing. This practice, often framed as ‘language borrowing,’ ‘postponing,’ ‘revising,’ or ‘metacognitive comparisons,’ provided students with more nuanced ways of conveying their thoughts, leading to richer and more engaging content. This adoption of translanguaging elements, far from diluting their proficiency, actually served to enhance their writing performance, allowing them to navigate complex ideas and express intricate arguments more effectively.

Addressing the second research question - the influence of Canagarajah’s (2011) negotiation strategies on the planning, drafting, and product stages

of the writing process among plurilingual students - the study demonstrated that these strategies were indeed pivotal. Students were found to actively employ strategies such as re-contextualization, re-semiotization, and envoicing, particularly in the drafting stage of the writing process. The use of these strategies ensured the creation of more coherent and cohesive text, effectively aiding the students in aligning their content with the expectations of their academic discourse communities.

Regarding the final question - how the translanguaging approach contributes to the writing skills of plurilingual students in EFL preparation classes - the study provided ample evidence of the benefits of this pedagogical method. As highlighted by Adamson and Coulson (2015), it was observed that translanguaging offered students a more flexible and inclusive language-learning environment, encouraging them to draw from all of their linguistic resources. This not only improved their engagement and motivation but also contributed significantly to their writing skills, enabling them to produce written work that was more complex, insightful, and attuned to their personal voice.

The current study underscores the considerable potential of translanguaging as a pedagogical tool in EFL writing instruction, particularly for plurilingual students. It highlights how drawing on the full range of a student's linguistic resources can significantly enhance their writing performance. Furthermore, the study calls attention to the need for a more differentiated approach to studying the written forms of translanguaging, emphasizing the importance of considering the pragmatic and context-specific uses of language (Altun, 2021;

Canagarajah, 2016). Finally, it invites a reconsideration of the traditional English-only approach in EFL writing instruction, encouraging educators to embrace a pedagogy that values and leverages students' diverse linguistic backgrounds.

Despite the valuable insights gleaned from this research, certain limitations are noteworthy. The study's scope and scale were relatively small, primarily conducted within two classes in a single educational context in Türkiye, thereby curtailing the generalizability of the findings to other contexts, countries, or larger student populations. Additionally, the study did not assess the long-term impact of using translanguaging strategies on students' writing skills and overall language competence, suggesting a potential avenue for future longitudinal studies. Lastly, the reliance on student self-reporting introduced the potential for bias, as these reflections could be influenced by a variety of factors, including perceived expectations, levels of self-awareness, and understanding of their own processes. Despite these limitations, this research significantly contributes to the field, and the outlined limitations can serve as valuable considerations for guiding future investigations.

### **Information Note**

The ethics committee approval has been obtained for the current study: Pamukkale University Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee, 29/08/2023, 10.160.1.52192913.09.2023

### **Author Contribution and Conflict of Interest Disclosure Information**

There is no conflict of interest.

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## The Semantic Prosodic Investigation of English Intensifiers in Native and Non-Native Academic Corpora

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## 1. Introduction

Writing in English as a global language is a sine qua non skill for learners who will use it for academic purposes. EFL learners studying English Language and Literature (hereafter ELL) often regard writing as the most difficult of the four essential language skills (Belkhir & Benyelles, 2017) since it requires an ability to use words meaningfully together. Undoubtedly, a well-developed knowledge and mastery of vocabulary lie at the center of writing skills in foreign language, because “the lexicon is the driving force behind sentence production” (Levelt, 1989, p.181). Many language learners concur that learning vocabulary is still difficult even after overcoming the initial phases of the language learning process (Meara, 1980). Concerning this, writing can be considered one of the most problematic productive skills and is certainly worthy of much closer analysis through corpus linguistic investigations. Developing writing ability relies heavily on sufficient vocabulary knowledge. While doing so, many learners struggle to use them properly despite their best efforts to memorize and grasp the meanings of isolated words. They acquire a larger number of words but may not semantically combine them with other lexical items, resulting in an insufficient ability to produce a deeper intended meaning (Conzett, 2000). Correspondingly, Pawley and Syder (1983) claimed that the sentences that learners form might adhere to grammatical rules and be considered correct, but they may still lack nativeness and idiomaticity. That is to say, words may have diverse implications, which can be completely different in certain

semantic settings. Therefore, language learners should be able to use words and collocations correctly in different contexts.

The potential problems and common linguistic errors may not be avoided in writing with a limited proficiency in language acquired during learners' interlanguage development. One of the aspects revealing the features of the interlanguage developmental levels of ELL learners may be doing some research on their semantic prosodic awareness. Semantic prosody occurs when seemingly neutral words create negative or positive associations after being used frequently with certain collocations. The semantic prosodic elements can be analyzed through the employment of intensification as it tends to be a challenging issue even for those with advanced English proficiency (Lorenz, 1999). Awareness of the semantic prosodic associations of a particular language allows language learners to distinguish between words having similar meanings (Morley & Partington, 2009).

Intensifiers are words often used interchangeably in everyday conversations, and non-native English speakers struggle to differentiate between them due to slight differences in meaning. Novice writers may know the meanings of English intensifiers; however, they may ignore their contextual functions. Knowing the exact definition of intensifiers may not be sufficient for complete control of their correct use. Similarly, Ahmadian, Yazdani & Darabi (2011) indicated that studying the meaning of these isolated lexical items is insufficient for acquiring fluency in the target language. According to Lorenz (1999), intensifier usage of L2 learners can be scrutinized to gain a deep insight into their tendencies and

behaviors in target language. It also helps them become more conscious about using near-synonymous degree adverbials to intensify their messages.

More specifically, this corpus study centers on the semantic prosodic orientation of adjective intensification in Turkish ELL learners' written productions and intends to analyze their overall distribution by comparing native and non-native learner corpora. The most convenient way to dig in much deeper in such a comprehensive semantic prosodic investigation of intensification can only be feasible with the aid of computerized corpus tools. Although the usage of corpora for lexical analysis is not a new phenomenon, its importance has only recently been understood especially since the active employment of corpus tools by many researchers in Türkiye and elsewhere in the world (Özbay & Kayaoğlu, 2016, p.343).

### **1.1. Theoretical and Conceptual Background**

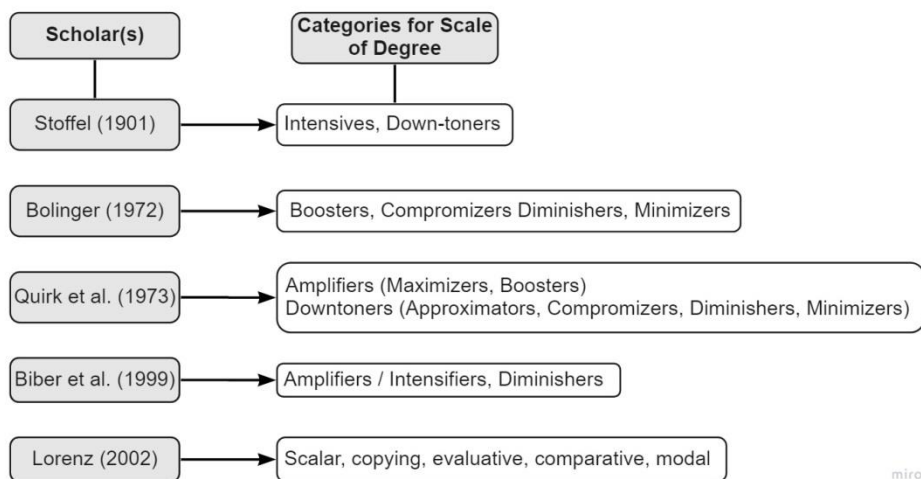
The concept of interlanguage, which was initially coined by Selinker (1972), can be defined as a continuum between non-native and native languages where language learners actively participate in learning (as cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). The present study is as an instance of interlanguage research as it investigates the level of semantic prosodic awareness among Turkish ELL learners. This corpus analysis compares native and non-native corpora to determine interlanguage problems in intensifier use. In recent decades, Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) lies in the center of many corpus investigations using computerized learner corpora. This theory proposed by Granger (1996)

makes a dual comparison between native and non-native speakers (NS vs. NNS) and non-native speakers and non-native speakers (NNS vs. NNS). Granger (1998) states that comparisons between native and non-native languages seek to disclose the characteristics of 'non-nativeness' while the comparison of two interlanguages reflects the nature of interlanguage.

Semantic prosody is one of the frequently encountered interlanguage issues among foreign language learners, and there has been a notable rise in the significance and popularity of semantic prosody as a subject in linguistics since the beginning of the century. As a well-known concept, semantic prosody was initially proposed by Louw (1993). In his definition, Louw (2000) broadens the range of semantic prosody, stating that it involves a particular type of meaning that emerges from a consistent pattern of associated words, often categorized as either positive or negative, and its main purpose is to indicate the behaviors of the speaker or writer towards a particular pragmatic context. As Stubbs (1995) explained, semantic prosodies are classified into three types as negative, positive, and neutral prosody. This study expands on semantic prosody as one of the core concepts of inquiry in corpus linguistics, following Stubbs's classification.

As the focus of this comparative corpus investigation, intensifiers refer to a class of words that typically serve as adverbial degrees. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985) defined intensifier as a scaling device co-occurring with a gradable adjective (p. 445). In addition, Partington (1993) described these modifying adverbs as “a direct

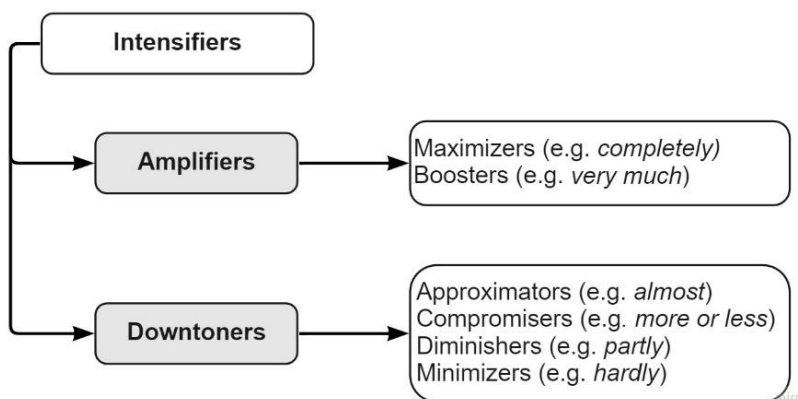
indication of a speaker’s desire to use and exploit the expression of hyperbole” (p.178). Various forms of intensifiers have been categorized in earlier research in the literature. The following figure was organized by the authors based on various categorizations of intensifiers proposed by distinguished scholars:



**Figure 1.** Categorization of intensifiers by different scholars

The focus of this study is the classification of intensifiers proposed by Quirk et al. (1985). Lorenz (1999) claimed that Quirk et al.’s categorization has been very influential, and some scholars investigating the intensification preferred employing it in their studies (e.g., Méndez-Naya, 2003; Partington, 1993; Wang, 2017). Quirk and his colleagues (1985) identified two intensifier subgroups: *amplifiers* and *downtoners* (See Figure 2). Amplifiers are divided into two groups: (a) *maximizers* representing the scale's upper limit and (b) *boosters* denoting a higher degree on the scale. Downtoners are grouped into four categories: (a)

*approximators* expressing an approximation to the force of the verb, (b) *compromisers* having only a slight lowering impact, (c) *diminishers* scaling downwards, and (d) *minimizers* denoting a negative meaning (Quirk, 1985, p. 597). Figure 2 illustrates the subcategories of intensifiers introduced by Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 589-590):

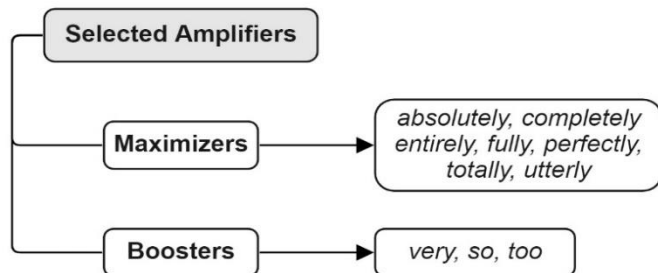


**Figure 2.** Subcategories of intensifiers

In a broader sense, the term ‘intensifier’ can be used as an umbrella term referring to any kind of intensification patterns in spoken or written language. Although the word ‘intensifier’ is used in the research title as a general label, the research attention is mainly on *amplifiers*. The present study concentrates solely on amplifiers that appear adjacently before adjectives since it is the most dominant intensifier category according to British National Corpus (Kennedy, 2003). To narrow the scope of the research, ten frequently used amplifiers were selected and comparatively analyzed in terms of their overall frequency distribution and semantic



prosodic nature. Seven maximizers and three boosters investigated in this research are listed below:



**Figure 3.** The selected amplifiers

## 1.2. Research Questions

This research investigated Turkish ELL learners' semantic prosodic tendencies to use English intensifiers in their argumentative essays. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the overall frequency distribution of selected intensifiers in argumentative essays of tertiary level Turkish ELL learners and native speakers of English?
2. Do the intensifiers exhibit a distinct semantic prosodic profile, such as being predominantly positive, negative, or neutral, based on the analysis of the three corpora under examination?

## 1.3. Literature Review

As mentioned previously, CIA is a method that compares corpora of native and non-native speakers to uncover linguistic features exhibited by learners through their authentic spoken or written samples. Being an

essential approach in SLA and EFL research, CIA is used in many studies highlighting the significance of learner corpora. For instance, Altenberg and Granger (2001) focused on the use of high-frequency verbs, specifically the verb *make*, by Swedish and French EFL learners. The primary objective of the research was to determine the excessive and insufficient usage of these verbs by conducting a comparative analysis between authentic learner data and the computerized corpora of native speakers. Their findings revealed that even advanced learners struggle with this particular verb. Furthermore, Ringbom (1998) analyzed the overuse of general nouns by EFL learners, while Aijmer (2002) investigated the overuse of modals by Swedish, German, and French learners. Nesselhauf (2003) explored the effect of the first language on collocations by German EFL learners. Leńko-Szymańska (2004) examined the use of demonstratives by Polish EFL learners, emphasizing the value of learner corpus data for identifying interlanguage problems. Babanođlu & Can (2018) investigated adverbial connectors in Turkish EFL learners' essays, noting a tendency for overuse. Akbana & Koşar (2015) analyzed advanced learners and native speakers regarding the use of the highest-frequency vocabulary. Finally, Özbay & Kabakçı (2016) explored the use of support verb constructions by tertiary level Turkish learners, highlighting both general tendencies and specific patterns. Many studies have been conducted on semantic prosody by renowned linguists with a growing interest from scholars worldwide, particularly in China. Chinese researchers, such as Wei (2002), Wang & Wang (2005), and Gong & Wu (2012), investigated the semantic prosody of specific

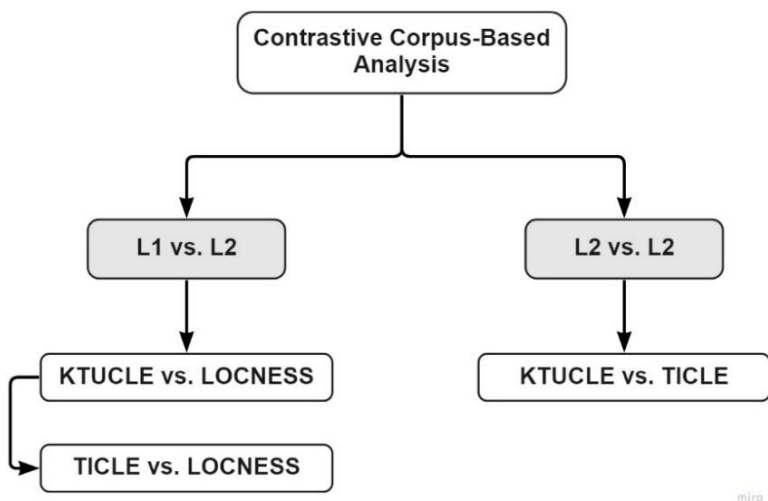
words in English and Chinese learner corpora, comparing them with native speaker corpora. They observed variations in the usage of semantic prosody between native and non-native speakers. In addition, Zhang (2010) focused on the verb "commit" by Chinese EFL learners and found both similarities and deviations from native speaker usage. Sardinha (2000) conducted a semantic prosodic analysis of English and Portuguese, while Oster and Lawick (2008) explored co-occurrence patterns in German, Spanish, and Catalan idioms in terms of translation aspects. McGee (2012) examined semantic prosodic awareness among non-native speakers compared to native speakers, and Begagić (2013) analyzed the collocation 'make sense' in corpus linguistics. Ünaldı (2013) studied the word 'pose' in terms of semantic prosody. Turkish researchers, such as Çalışkan (2014), Kara (2017), and Pilten (2017), have also investigated semantic prosody in the Turkish language using Turkish corpora.

Moreover, many studies explored ELL learners' intensifier use in spoken and written language. Their usage patterns varied between spoken and written productive skills, with intensifiers being more abundant in writing compared to speaking (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, Finegan, 1999). The previous studies elaborating on intensifier use, especially in writing, were reviewed to understand L2 learners' intensification in their writing. There are several studies undertaken by notable scholars (Lorenz, 1998; Granger, 1998; Kennedy, 2003; Partington, 2004) and various studies conducted by other researchers (Liang, 2004; Yaoyu & Lei, 2011; Eriksson, 2013). The use of

intensifiers and their prosodic nature were also studied by some Chinese researchers (Huang, 2007; Kim & Lee, 2009; Zhang, 2013; Dao, 2014; Yang, 2014; Su, 2016; Wang, 2017). Besides, Turkish researchers, Özbay & Aydemir (2017) conducted a study that focused on the usage of intensifiers by Turkish EFL learners at the tertiary level.

## 2. Material and Method

The study adopts a contrastive corpus-based methodology based on the theory of the CIA (Granger, 1996). Figure 4 demonstrates the methodological framework of the research:



**Figure 4.** Methodological framework

As illustrated above, this research employed three distinct corpora for the analysis. The primary learner corpus, KTUCLE, was compiled from essays written by English language learners at Karadeniz Technical University in Türkiye (Özbay, 2015). TICLE, is a Turkish sub-corpus of

ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English), comprising argumentative essays produced by Turkish adult learners of English (Can, 2009). LOCNESS, serving as the reference corpus for the study, consists of essays authored by native English speakers. A detailed description of the corpora under investigation is presented in Table 1:

**Table 1.** The profiles of selected corpora

	<b>KTUCLE</b>	<b>TICLE</b>	<b>LOCNESS</b>
Profile	Learner Corpus	Learner Corpus	Reference Corpus
Tokens	709,748	223,449	361,054
Texts	1600	280	282+
L1	Turkish	Turkish	American English, British English
Genre	Expository	Expository Argumentative	Expository Argumentative

This study primarily adopts a quantitative research approach to gather frequency-based statistical data and percentages. The widely-used software tool Sketch Engine was used to conduct the frequency analysis of the corpora in this research. The three corpora used for analysis were uploaded onto this corpus tool, allowing for automated retrieval of the required data for analysis. In Sketch Engine, the raw frequencies of lexical items were automatically standardized into values per million, enabling comparisons of frequencies across corpora of different sizes.

Subsequently, Log-Likelihood (LL) scores were computed to assess differences or similarities in the usage of intensifier collocations between

native and non-native speakers. The LL scores of the selected intensifiers were determined using the online log-likelihood calculator from Lancaster University, helping to ascertain whether the frequency differences between the three corpora were statistically significant.

### **3. Findings and Discussion**

In the light of the primary research question, the selected maximizers and boosters were separately analyzed in terms of their overall distribution and prevalent adjective collocations. The second research question seeks an answer to the semantic prosodic descriptions of selected intensifiers as evidenced in three corpora.

#### **3.1. The Overall Distribution of Selected Amplifiers**

According to the findings, a total of 495 instances of intensifiers were identified used together with adverbs, verbs, or nouns. However, being the focus of this study, "intensifier + adjective" combinations were found to be limited in number. Out of these combinations, there were a total of 164 maximizers intensifying adjectives, accounting for 33% of all types of occurrences. Table 2 provides a detailed representation of maximizers in terms of raw frequency and percentages in alphabetical order:

**Table 2.** The overall distribution of maximizer + adjectives

Maximizers (INT-adj)	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
absolutely	5	8,06	22	29,33	3	11,11
completely	15	24,19	28	37,33	11	40,74
entirely	8	12,90	5	6,66	1	3,70
fully	7	11,29	2	2,66	6	22,22
perfectly	14	22,58	2	2,66	0	0
totally	12	19,35	15	20	6	22,22
utterly	1	1,61	1	1,33	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>100</b>

In LOCNESS, the most frequently used maximizers are "completely" (f=15) and "perfectly" (f =14), while "utterly" is the least frequent, with only one occurrence. In KTUCLE, "completely" (f=28) and "absolutely" (f=22) show the highest percentages, whereas "utterly" (f=1), "fully" (f=2), and "perfectly" (f=2) show the lowest percentages. In TICLE, "completely" (f=11) has the highest percentage, while "perfectly" and "utterly" have no instances, and "entirely" (f=1) has a low percentage. Overall, "completely" is the most commonly used maximizer in both the native corpus and learner corpora, while "utterly" is the least frequent. Another frequently used maximizer was "totally," in KTUCLE and TICLE, and it served a similar function to "completely" in scaling upwards.

The second category of amplifiers commonly used in English are

boosters. Their total number across all corpora is 2926, significantly outnumbering the maximizers. The number of boosters is almost 18 times greater than maximizers (f=164). Specifically, there are 568 boosters in the native corpus LOCNESS. In contrast, KTUCLE contains 1751 boosters, while TICLE includes 607 boosters in total. Table 3 displays the distribution of boosters in alphabetical order:

**Table 3.** The Overall Distribution of Booster + Adjectives

Boosters (INT-adj)	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
so	133	23,41	392	22,38	166	27,34
too	97	17,07	343	19,58	77	12,68
very	338	59,50	1016	58,02	364	59,96
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>568</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1751</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>607</b>	<b>100</b>

The booster "very" is the most frequently used among all others, with a total raw frequency of 1718 in total (LOCNESS=338, KTUCLE=1016, TICLE=364). It suggests that the participants in all three corpora heavily rely on this booster with similar usage proportions. "So" is the second highest booster with 690 occurrences across all corpora (LOCNESS f =133, KTUCLE f =392, TICLE f =166). On the other hand, "too" is the least frequent booster with a total raw frequency of 517.



### 3.2. The Distribution of Intensifier + Adjective Collocations

#### 3.2.1. Maximizers

The distribution of collocations with maximizers exhibits distinct distribution patterns, yet only a limited number of intensified adjective collocations are commonly found across the three corpora. Since common "maximizer + adjective" collocations are low in number, LL scores were not measured to figure out underuse/overuse patterns. Table 4 presents the frequency of all adjective collocations of seven maximizers:

**Table 4.** Adjective collocations of maximizers

Maximizers	LOCNESS		KTUCLE		TICLE	
	Adjective	f	Adjective	f	Adjective	f
completely	indifferent	2	wrong	6	unpleasant	1
	innocent	2	different	5	opposite	1
	different	2	good	4	special	1
	recyclable	1	useful	3	safe	1
	erroneous	1	clear	1	adequate	1
	unjustified	1	misguided	1	right	1
	abhorrent	1	coherent	1	theoretical	1
	false	1	independent	1	human	1
	ethical	1	innocent	1	true	1
	equal	1	valid	1	equal	1
	new	1	helpful	1	different	1
	impossible	1	true	1		
				dependent	1	
			possible	1		
totally	unacceptable	2	wrong	4	different	2
	dependent	2	bad	2	invaluable	1
	alien	1	useful	2	wrong	1
	absurd	1	distribute	1	true	1
	powerless	1	dependable	1	little	1
	abhorrent	1	poisonous	1		
	blameless	1	opposite	1		
	futile	1	right	1		
	unrealistic	1	harmful	1		

	different	1	true	1		
absolutely	unacceptable	1	wrong	9	meaningless	1
	huge	1	necessary	3		1
	ridiculous	1	right	2	compulsory	1
	necessary	1	efficacious	1		
	wrong	1	barbaric	1	impossible	
			express	1		
			false	1		
			unnecessary	1		
			essential	1		
			aware	1		
		important	1			
perfectly	legal	2	healthy	1	-	
	natural	2	safe	1		
	safe	2				
	good	2				
	comparable	1				
	understandable	1				
	visible	1				
	healthy	1				
	logical	1				
	acceptable	1				
entirely	true	2	obsolete	1	unnecessary	1
	separate	1	man-made	1		
	unfounded	1	clear	1		
	voluntary	1	wrong	1		
	contradictory	1	dependent	1		
	dependent	1				
	ethical	1				
fully	integrated	1	useless	1	conscious	3
	presidential	1	individual	1	human	2
	reassured	1			functioning	1
	integrated	1				
	redundant	1				
	human	1				
	aware	1				
utterly	devoid	1	different	1	-	

The maximizer "completely" has only one common adjective collocation placed in all corpora, which is *completely different* (KTUCLE f=5, LOCNESS f=2, TICLE f=1). Surprisingly, "totally" has

no common adjective collocations in the three corpora despite being used frequently by native speakers and non-native learners. *Wrong* is the most common adjective collocation of "totally" in KTUCLE, yet it only appears once in TICLE.

Various adjectives are intensified by "absolutely," but no shared collocation has been found in each corpus. In KTUCLE, the most prevalent adjective collocation is *absolutely wrong*. By contrast, native speakers tend to use *wrong* in conjunction with "absolutely" only once. The reason for this discrepancy is unclear, but it is possible that ELL learners employ the same adjective with nearly synonymous maximizers, disregarding their semantic prosodic distinctions.

Although being the second most frequent maximizer in the native corpus, "perfectly" is less preferred by English language learners. In LOCNESS, it occurs 14 times, while in KTUCLE it appears only twice, and there are no instances of "perfectly + adjective" collocations in TICLE. The only shared collocation between KTUCLE and LOCNESS is *perfectly healthy*. The infrequent use of "perfectly" in learner corpora suggests that Turkish ELL learners tend to rely on a limited set of maximizers such as "completely" and "totally" for intensification.

In LOCNESS, "entirely" and "fully" appear to have relatively similar frequencies. Both maximizers are not used much in learner corpora. *Entirely dependent* is the single collocation shared by LOCNESS and KTUCLE. There is only one instance of "entirely" in TICLE. Although these two maximizers appear near-synonymous, they collocate with different adjectives.

"Utterly" has no shared adjective collocations in any of the corpora. It is rarely employed as a maximizer, either in conjunction with adjectives or other word classes. This suggests that Turkish ELL students considerably overuse a small number of intensifiers such as "totally", "completely", or "absolutely". However, the maximizers like "utterly" are rarely used by non-native learners in comparison to native speakers. The indication is that ELL learners may not probably have achieved sufficient proficiency to use intensifiers during their interlanguage development efficiently.

### **3.2.2. Boosters**

The top ten most frequent adjective collocations were identified in the three corpora to gain a deeper insight into the collocation patterns of booster intensification. Then, their LL scores were calculated to assess their collocation distribution. By using the native corpus as a reference, a comparison was made to determine the tendency towards overuse or underuse patterns of specific boosters. The findings for each booster are presented in separate tables, providing a comprehensive understanding of learners' tendencies and patterns in utilizing the selected boosters.

Table 5 compares the adjective collocations in LOCNESS and KTUCLE in terms of their overuse and underuse:

**Table 5.** Overuse / Underuse Ratio of "very" in LOCNESS and KTUCLE

Adj.	LOCNESS 361,054		KTUCLE 709,748		Log-likelihood	
	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	+/-
important	25	69,20	245	345,19	89,28	+
few	15	41,55	7	9,86	10,85	-
strong	12	33,24	6	8,45	8,11	-
low	6	16,62	2	2,81	5,69	-
hard	6	16,62	25	35,22	3,15	
little	11	30,47	10	14,08	3,08	
popular	7	19,39	7	9,86	1,57	
good	14	38,78	33	46,49	0,33	
difficult	12	33,24	23	32,40	0,01	
expensive	6	16,62	12	16,90	0	

According to the results, it is possible to conclude that non-native learners overused *very important*, being the most frequent adjective collation in KTUCLE. In LOCNESS, the adjective *important* collocates with the booster "very" with a normalized frequency of 69,20. When normalized frequencies and corpus sizes are considered, the difference between native and non-native corpora appears to be significantly high, resulting in overuse by KTUCLE students with LL scores of +89,28. The examples of underuse adjective intensifications are: *very few*, *very strong*, and *very low*.

Table 6 presents the adjective collocations in LOCNESS and TICLE in terms of their overuse and underuse distribution:

**Table 6.** Overuse / Underuse Ratio of "very" in LOCNESS and TICLE

Adj.	LOCNESS 361,054		TICLE 223,449		Log-likelihood	
	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	+/-
important	25	69,20	44	196,91	18,35	+
few	15	41,55	1	4,47	8,89	-
strong	12	33,24	1	4,47	6,43	-
difficult	12	33,24	17	76,08	4,92	+
hard	6	16,62	11	49,22	4,86	+
little	11	30,47	15	67,12	4,02	+
good	14	38,78	16	71,60	2,80	
expensive	6	16,62	2	8,95	0,63	
popular	7	19,39	3	13,42	0,30	
low	6	16,62	4	17,90	0,01	

When compared to the reference corpus there are several overuse and underuse patterns appeared in TICLE *Important, difficult, hard, and little* are the overused adjectives in collocation with "very". *Very important* has the highest occurrence of overuse in TICLE with a LL score of +18,35. *Very few* and *very strong* are underused in learner corpus. Correspondingly, in both non-native corpora, *very few* and *very strong* are underused in academic writing.

"So" is the second most frequent booster in all corpora. Table 7 and Table 8 show the most common adjectives used with the head of booster "so" in KTUCLE and TICLE:

**Table 7.** Overuse / underuse ratio of "so" in LOCNESS and KTUCLE

Adj.	LOCNESS 361,054		KTUCLE 709,748		Log-likelihood	
	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	+/-
important	2	5,53	44	61,99	24,09	+
little	5	13,84	1	1,40	6,29	-
bad	1	2,76	8	11,27	2,48	
many	40	110,78	57	80,31	2,38	
useful	1	2,76	7	9,86	1,90	
easy	2	5,53	8	11,27	0,92	
different	1	2,76	5	7,04	0,88	
hard	7	19,38	9	12,68	0,69	
much	19	52,62	46	64,81	0,60	
difficult	2	5,53	7	9,86	0,57	

KTUCLE present only one pattern. *So important* appears twice in the native corpus, but KTUCLE contains 44 frequencies. As a result, with an LL score of +24,09, this collocation is considered overused in KTUCLE. *So little* has a very low raw frequency whereas LOCNESS has 5 raw frequencies. As a result, the LL measure of -6,29 indicates evidence of underuse. *So many* and *so much* are among the most common collocations, although there is no statistically significant difference in the two corpora to identify any evidence of overuse or underuse.

**Table 8.** Overuse / Underuse Ratio of "so" in LOCNESS and TICLE

Adj.	LOCNESS 361,054		TICLE 223,449		Log-likelihood	
	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	+/-
important	2	5,53	15	67,12	18,46	+
many	40	110,78	48	214,81	9,58	+
easy	2	5,53	9	40,27	8,80	+
different	1	2,76	4	17,90	3,65	
much	19	52,62	21	93,98	3,34	
little	5	13,84	1	4,47	1,33	
bad	1	2,76	2	8,95	0,99	
hard	7	19,38	6	26,85	0,34	
useful	1	2,76	1	4,47	0,11	
difficult	2	5,53	1	4,47	0,03	

TICLE, on the other hand, presents three examples of the overuse of "so + adjective" collocations. *So important* has a normalized frequency of 5,53 in the native corpus and a normalized frequency of 67,12 in TICLE, indicating an overuse in TICLE. Another overuse example is *so many* in TICLE, with an LL score of +9,58. The most commonly used "so + adjective" collocation is *so many* (110,78) in LOCNESS but a normalized frequency of 214,81 in TICLE. Similarly, *so important* is the common overused "adjective + booster" collocation both in KTUCLE and TICLE.

Table 9 and Table 10 introduce the most common "too + adjective" collocations in KTUCLE and TICLE in comparison with LOCNESS.



**Table 9.** Overuse / Underuse Ratio of "too" in LOCNESS and KTUCLE

Adj.	LOCNESS 361,054		KTUCLE 709,748		Log-likelihood	
	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	+/-
much	23	63,70	182	256,42	55,76	+
high	4	11,07	1	1,40	4,52	-
late	5	13,84	23	32,40	3,51	
difficult	1	2,76	7	9,86	1,90	
important	3	8,30	10	14,08	0,70	
long	2	5,53	3	4,22	0,09	
many	14	38,77	29	40,85	0,03	
big	1	2,76	2	2,81	0	
young	1	2,76	2	2,81	0	
strong	1	2,76	2	2,81	0	

Table 9 indicates only one evidence of overuse and underuse pattern concerning "too + adjective" collocations in KTUCLE. *Too much* with a normalized value of 256,42 is overused in KTUCLE, while *too high* is underused with a normalized value of 1,40. The other adjectives show no statistically significant difference in terms of overuse or underuse. Surprisingly, the use of *too many* as the second most preferred "booster + adjective" collocation in KTUCLE and LOCNESS shows no meaningful difference.

**Table 10.** Overuse / Underuse Ratio of "too" in LOCNESS and TICLE

Adj.	LOCNESS 361,054		TICLE 223,449		Log-likelihood	
	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	+/-
difficult	1	2,76	6	26,85	6,76	+
much	23	63,70	29	129,78	6,54	+
young	1	2,76	4	17,90	3,65	
high	4	11,07	1	4,47	0,77	
late	5	13,84	5	22,37	0,57	
important	3	8,30	1	4,47	0,31	
long	2	5,53	2	8,95	0,23	
many	14	38,77	7	31,32	0,22	
big	1	2,76	1	4,47	0,11	
strong	1	2,76	1	4,47	0,11	

As shown in Table 10, there is no evidence of underusing of "too + adjective" collocations in TICLE, but two occurrences of overuse exist: *too difficult* and *too much*. *Too much* is the only overused collocation in KTUCLE.

Although "so", "too", and "very" are near-synonymous, they may be preferred to be used with specific adjectives in conjunction with them. Their semantic prosodic characteristics may reflect ELL learners' unique preferences for adjective intensification.

### 3.3. Selected Amplifiers and Prosodic Description

Language learners must possess an understanding of the prosodic features related to the usage patterns of intensifiers that are very similar to those of native speakers. Hence, we focus particularly on amplifier analysis in terms of semantic prosodic features, aiming to uncover the

shared features between native and non-native speakers in their utilization of adjective intensification. Following Stubbs's (1996) classification of semantic prosody, all maximizers and boosters combined with adjectives are grouped into positive, negative, or neutral semantic prosody. Their raw frequencies are also categorized into their semantic profiles in Table 11.

**Table 11.** Semantic prosodic profiles of maximizers + adjectives

		absolutely	completely	entirely	fully	perfectly	totally	utterly
LOCNESS	Positive	2	6	3	3	13	1	0
	Negative	3	5	3	1	0	10	1
	Neutral	0	4	2	2	1	1	0
KTUCLE	Positive	10	15	1	0	2	4	0
	Negative	12	5	3	1	0	11	1
	Neutral	0	8	1	1	0	0	0
TICLE	Positive	0	7	0	6	0	2	0
	Negative	3	2	1	0	0	2	0
	Neutral	0	2	0	0	0	2	0

It seems that "perfectly" predominantly appears with adjectives bearing a positive meaning, "completely" and "fully" exhibit a positive semantic profile. "Totally," "absolutely," and "utterly" tend to have a negative semantic profile. The maximizer "entirely" shows a tendency to present negative and positive polarities. It is clear that a particular maximizer with a positive meaning may collocate with adjectives, but its contextual usage may still entail an underlying negative evaluation. Therefore, a thorough examination of concordance lines in the reference corpus is necessary to reveal the prosodic properties, as adjective collocation frequencies based on raw data may not accurately

show the precise semantic usage patterns by native speakers. Functioning primarily as an adjective modifier, the maximizer "absolutely" conveys the meaning of "to the fullest extent; in the highest or utmost degree" (Lorenz, 1999, p.83). Table 12 demonstrates that "absolutely" is used with both positive and negative adjectives, indicating its versatility in prosodic patterns. Partington (2004) discovered the balance between favorable and unfavorable items collocating with "absolutely" (p.146). Moreover, examples from the online Oxford Dictionary further exemplify the varied prosodic usage of "absolutely," including instances of positive, negative, and neutral associations, such as *absolutely incapable*, *absolutely correct*, and *absolutely personal*".

**Table 12.** The semantic prosodic profile of "absolutely"

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	Absolutely + adjective
LOCNESS	Positive (2)	huge, necessary
	Negative (3)	unacceptable, ridiculous, wrong
KTUCLE	Positive (10)	necessary (3), right (2), efficacious, express, essential, aware, important
	Negative (12)	wrong (9), barbaric, false, unnecessary
TICLE	Negative (3)	meaningless, compulsory, impossible

The results regarding the maximizer "absolutely" in LOCNESS validate that its usage is distributed in a roughly balanced manner, with a total of 3 occurrences in a negative context and 2 occurrences in a positive context. A similar pattern is observed in the frequency of maximizers in KTUCLE, with 10 occurrences in a positive context and 12 occurrences in a negative context. This distribution of adjective collocations in both corpora is not sufficient to categorize "absolutely" as having strictly positive or negative prosody. Instead, it can be described as having a mixed semantic profile, indicating its use in various contexts.

The maximizer "completely" tends to predominantly co-occur with negative adjectives, observed by researchers such as Louw (1993),

Paradis (1997), Kennedy (2003), and Wang (2017). Greenbaum (1970) noted that "completely" is largely used with verbs indicating a failure to achieve a desirable goal or state, such as *forget* and *ignore*. In Partington's (2004) study based on the Cobuild Corpus, it was found that "completely" collocates with several means indicating a state of change (e.g., *hopeless*, *ignored*, *lost*, and *unexpected*) or absence (e.g., *altered*, *changed*, *destroyed*, and *different*). This finding aligns with examples provided by the Oxford Dictionary, which illustrate *completely unsatisfactory*, *completely ridiculous*, *completely untrue*, *completely different*, and *completely transformed*, reflecting the patterns identified by Partington.

Contrary to the previous studies, "completely" is seen to carry positive prosody, as shown in Table 13:

**Table 13.** The semantic prosodic profile of "completely"

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	Completely + adjective
LOCNESS	Positive (6)	innocent (2), recyclable, ethical, equal, new
	Neutral (4)	indifferent (2), different (2)
	Negative (5)	erroneous, unjustified, abhorrent, false, impossible
KTUCLE	Positive (15)	good (4), useful (3), clear (1), coherent, independent, innocent, valid, helpful, true, possible
	Neutral (5)	different (5)
	Negative (8)	Wrong (6), misguided, dependent
TICLE	Positive (7)	special, safe, adequate, right, human, true, equal
	Neutral (2)	theoretical, different
	Negative (2)	unpleasant, opposite

In KTUCLE, there is a notable presence of positive adjective collocations with the maximizer "completely" ( $f = 5$ ). Similarly, in TICLE, positive adjectives are prevalent compared to the other two prosodic profiles ( $f = 7$ ). This suggests that ELL learners may not be fully aware of the negative attitudinal meaning associated with "completely." Furthermore, the results indicate that the adjectives frequently collocate with negative prefixes, which aligns with Wang's (2017) findings that "completely" tends to collocate strongly with adjectives featuring negative prefixes (e.g., *indifferent*, *unjustified*, and *impossible*) (p.90). The only adjective commonly used in all three corpora is *different*, which does not exhibit clear evidence of prosody and is considered neutral in meaning.

Table 14 reveals negative and positive adjectives with a balanced

distribution intensified by the maximizer "entirely" in LOCNESS, with a roughly similar number of neutral items. It appears that there is no discernible prosodic distribution of adjectives in the control corpus. In Kennedy's (2003) corpus-based study on amplifiers, "entirely" occurred with items having either positive or negative associations. According to Partington (2004), the collocations of "entirely" appeal to larger range of senses compared to other amplifiers, including words that express opposition between dependence-independence. It is argued that there is no exact distinction for "entirely" in prosodic terms (Özbay and Aydemir, 2017).

**Table 14.** The semantic prosodic profile of "entirely"

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	Entirely + adjective
LOCNESS	Positive (3)	true (2), voluntary
	Neutral (2)	separate, ethical
	Negative (3)	unfounded, contradictory, dependent
KTUCLE	Positive (1)	clear
	Neutral (1)	man-made
	Negative (3)	obsolete, wrong, dependent
TICLE	Negative (1)	unnecessary

We observed that native speakers tend to use the maximizer "entirely" with negative adjectives, such as *unfounded* or *dependent*, or in negative patterns. In the LOCNESS corpus, the two positive intensification examples with the adjective *true* were found to be used in negation (e.g., *not entirely true*). From these findings, it can be concluded that "entirely" primarily collocates with neutral or negative items.

The maximizer "fully" can be perceived as having a positive connotation. Altenberg (1991) stated that synonymous maximizers such as "entirely," "completely," "totally," and "fully" share the sense of being comprehensive in every aspect. The Oxford Dictionary defines "fully" as "completely or entirely; to the fullest extent." Collocations of "fully" occur in conjunction with adjectives like *determined*, *aware*, *candid*, and *interactive*, all of which convey a positive meaning. Additionally, Kennedy (2003) noted that the maximizer "fully" is exclusively associated with positive adjectives having the suffixes *-able* or *-ible*. In the present study, the only instance of negative prosody observed in LOCNESS is the word *redundant*, which is used in a sentence structured in negation, such as "...the case, then the human brain will never become *fully* redundant". Conversely, in TICLE, there is solely evidence of positive associations (f = 6). Surprisingly, there is no evidence of positive semantic usage in KTUCLE. Notably, "fully" is not a highly preferred amplifier among non-native learners. Instead, ELL learners tend to use "completely," which may be more familiar to them.

**Table 15.** The semantic prosodic profile of "fully"

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	Fully + adjective
LOCNESS	Positive (3)	reassured, human, aware
	Neutral (3)	integrated (2), presidential
	Negative (1)	redundant
KTUCLE	Neutral (1)	individual
	Negative (1)	useless
TICLE	Positive (6)	conscious (3), human (2), functioning



As its name suggests, the maximizer "perfectly" exhibits a strong positive semantic prosody. According to Bäcklund (1970), "perfectly" tends to collocate with words that refer to positive aspects (p.137). Partington (2004) noted that "perfectly" shows a tendency to associate with positive things. It is important to note that the adjectives intensified by this maximizer should not be paired with negative prefixes, as combining "perfectly" with words containing negative morphemes may sound odd or inappropriate, such as *perfectly unhealthy* (Paradis, 1997). As indicated in Table 16, there are 13 occurrences of positive collocations with "perfectly" in the LOCNESS corpus.

**Table 16.** The semantic prosodic profile of "perfectly"

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	Perfectly + adjective
LOCNESS	Positive (13)	legal (2), natural (2), safe (2), good (2), understandable, visible, healthy, logical, acceptable
	Neutral (1)	comparable
KTUCLE	Positive (2)	healthy, safe

An interesting discovery is that despite KTUCLE being a large corpus, it only contains two instances of positive prosody, while TICLE does not provide any evidence of any semantic category. In both KTUCLE and LOCNESS, the common adjective collocations with "perfectly" are *safe* and *healthy*. Although "perfectly" predominantly reflects a positive connotation in its usage and does not create prosodic complexity, non-native learners do not show a preference for using it in their writing.

On the other hand, "totally" is among the highly preferred maximizers.

Paradis (1997) noted that "completely" and "totally" are the preferred modifiers with adjectives that contain negative morphemes (p.82). Kennedy (2003) also confirmed that "totally" co-occurs with negative associations. This is evident in Table 17, which shows that the negative associations of "totally" in LOCNESS and KTUCLE outweigh the positive and neutral prosodies.

**Table 17.** The semantic prosodic profile of "totally"

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	Totally + adjective
LOCNESS	Positive (1)	blameless
	Neutral (1)	different
	Negative (10)	unacceptable (2), dependent (2), alien, absurd, powerless, abhorrent, futile, unrealistic
KTUCLE	Positive (4)	useful (2), right, true
	Negative (11)	wrong (4), bad (2), distribute, dependable, poisonous, opposite, harmful
TICLE	Positive (2)	invaluable, true
	Neutral (2)	different (2)
	Negative (2)	wrong, little

In conclusion, "utterly" appears to be closely linked to unpleasant events. As noted by Greenbaum (1970) and Louw (1993) "utterly" is in the category of unfavorable semantic prosody. Based on the analysis, it can be observed that "utterly" is the least frequent type of "maximizer + adjective" collocation among all. Only two instances are found, one with negative prosody in LOCNESS and the other with neutral prosody in TICLE. Therefore, the findings do not provide sufficient evidence to draw conclusions regarding the semantic prosodic use of "utterly" in learner corpora. It can be concluded that ELL learners do not favor "utterly" in academic writing.

**Table 18.** The semantic prosodic profile of "utterly"

<b>Corpus</b>	<b>Prosodic Profile</b>	<b>Utterly + adjective</b>
LOCNESS	Negative (1)	devoid
KTUCLE	Neutral (1)	different

In general, the target maximizers possess a different semantic prosodic profile. The findings of Bublitz (1998) are concurrent with the results of our study. Both "completely" and "entirely" share an up-scaling meaning. However, when it comes to the distribution of negative and positive semantic prosody, these two nearly synonymous amplifiers are not considered complementary. In other words, they differ in that "completely" clearly exhibits negative semantic prosody, while "entirely" does not have definite semantic prosody and can potentially collocate with negative, positive, and neutral items. Additionally, Bublitz (1998) noted that the remaining scalar maximizers, namely "utterly" (negative), "totally" (negative), and "perfectly" (positive), have evident semantic prosody (p.26).

The semantic profiles of the three chosen boosters, namely "so," "too," and "very," are categorized and presented in Table 19. These boosters can be used interchangeably with adjectives to convey negative, positive, and neutral evaluations. Identifying boosters' exact prosodic nature is more challenging than maximizers, as they exhibit a wider range of semantic relationships.

**Table 19.** Semantic prosodic profiles of booster + adjectives

Corpus	Prosodic Profile	very		so		too	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
LOCNESS	Positive	89	66,91	62	63,91	151	44,67
	Neutral	11	8,27	9	9,27	78	23,07
	Negative	33	24,81	26	26,80	109	32,24
KTUCLE	Positive	269	68,62	237	69,09	623	61,31
	Neutral	26	6,63	39	11,37	149	14,66
	Negative	97	24,74	67	19,53	244	24,01
TICLE	Positive	118	71,08	49	63,63	178	48,90
	Neutral	13	7,83	9	11,68	86	23,62
	Negative	35	21,08	19	24,67	100	27,47

LOCNESS indicated that a similarly high frequency of positive semantic prosodic profiles is seen with the three boosters. *Very important* is the most commonly occurring collocation. These findings suggest that "very" in LOCNESS display a mixed nature of usage profile due to very similar percentages. The positive profiles make up 44% of the total, while the negative profiles make up 32%, and the neutral percentage is 23% of the total. The frequencies of "very" in TICLE are relatively close to those in LOCNESS. However, in KTUCLE, ELL learners use "very" in a predominantly positive semantic orientation, with a percentage exceeding 60%. Using adjectives with negative and neutral prosodies is less frequent than positive ones. Tertiary level ELL learners prefer "very" due to its simplicity in combining with adjectives of various meanings. Given its broader collocational range, "very" is heavily utilized in comparison to

other boosters or maximizers.

The booster "so" is the second most commonly preferred one in all corpora. The percentages of positive, negative, and neutral semantic usage of "so" are very similar across the native corpus and non-native corpora. "So" was used as a positive prosody in each corpus, ranging between 67% and 71%. With this in mind, however, there is no way that we can categorize it as having strictly positive prosody, as it can be appropriately used with a wide range of adjectives. Some common examples of adjective collocations with a positive meaning intensified by "so" include *important*, *useful*, and *easy*, while those with negative meanings include *hard*, *bad*, and *difficult*, and those with neutral meanings include, *different*, *general*, and *little*.

The booster "too" is less frequent than other boosters in the corpora. The findings suggest that "too" primarily intensifies adjectives with positive meanings. The percentages of "too" in LOCNESS align with the frequency observed in TICLE. In Table 12, it is indicated that the KTUCALE and TICLE have positive semantic profiles. But, these findings provide limited insights into the underlying semantic profile of "too." The most common adjective collocations of "too" in all corpora are *too many* and *too much*. These two combinations constitute 90% (f = 211) of all positive adjectives in KTUCLE (f = 232). In LOCNESS, *much* and *many* account for 66% (f = 41) of positive adjectives in combination with "too" (f = 62), while in TICLE, they represent 73% (f = 36) of positive adjectives (f = 49). However, upon a detailed analysis of concordance lines, it becomes apparent that *too much* or *too many* are frequently used to express exaggeration or negation. Although *many*

and *much* may initially seem to have positive connotations, a negative association can be inferred when they collocate with "too" in specific usage patterns, such as *too much/many that*.

#### 4. Conclusion

The study specifically focused on examining the frequency distribution and semantic prosodic features of amplifiers in combination with adjectives and the term "intensifier" was used as a broad category.

The analysis demonstrates that boosters significantly outnumber maximizers. Quirk et al. (1985) noted that "while maximizers constitute a limited set, the class of boosters is more expansive". The analysis indicated that Turkish learners tended to use a relatively restricted number of maximizers, such as "completely" and "totally". The overreliance on specific maximizers is attributed to their limited vocabulary and proficiency levels. Another reason may be that they are more familiar with frequent maximizers and prefabricated or prefixed collocations, such as *totally wrong*, *absolutely necessary*, and *completely different*, since they are often seen learning materials, books, and academic writing. Interestingly, the other maximizers, including "entirely," "fully," "perfectly," and "utterly," were not preferred by non-native learners and were also not widely used by native speakers, with the exception of "perfectly."

In contrast, boosters are extensively utilized by Turkish EFL learners at the tertiary level. The results reveal that KTUCLE has the highest frequency of the boosters "very," "so," and "too," while TICLE and LOCNESS display similar percentages. "Very" is the most common booster across all three corpora and is excessively used by non-native speakers both in terms of overall occurrences and adjective-

intensification functions (Lorenz, 1999, p.30). The higher usage of "very" can be attributed to learners' preference for employing "all-round amplifiers" or "safe-bets" strategies, especially "very," to minimize errors (Xiaohua & Haihua, 2007, p.759). In other words, due to lack of phraseological knowledge or competency, ELL learners tended to avoid using complex or unfamiliar phrases in order to prevent making mistakes during language production. "Very" is an intensifier that ELL learners can easily employ without any concerns about its semantic prosody.

"So" is the second most common item across the corpora. Lorenz (1999, p.70) indicated that the boosting function of "so" becomes more apparent when there is no basis for comparison. Similar to "very," *so important* has an overuse pattern. Additionally, *so many* and *so much* were the widely preferred items in all corpora. Finally, "too" has the least frequency. Lorenz also stated that when modifying an adjective, "too" serves to scale upwards unless used in negation, and it bears a resemblance to "very" in its virtually unrestricted collocability. The overuse pattern of *too much* is prevalent in KTUCLE and TICLE. Similarly, *too many* is highly favored by participants in both corpora, with no significant difference observed in all corpora under investigation.

Semantic prosody was examined based on Stubbs's (1996) classification of positive, negative, and neutral categories. The selected amplifiers and the adjectives were thoroughly analyzed to identify their prosodic profiles. The results indicated that "completely" and "totally" were the most commonly used maximizers. Although they share a negative underlying association in meaning, they were used

interchangeably. However, EFL learners may not fully know the negative semantic prosody associated with "completely." Additionally, they tend to use "totally" with adjectives conveying positive meanings, which may be given to the fact that they have low pragmatic competence.

Another noteworthy finding is that ELL learners prefer using familiar maximizers, such as "completely," "absolutely," and "totally," for adjective intensification while underusing other intensifiers like "perfectly" and "utterly." Wang (2017, p.125) suggests the significant role of L1 transfer in the overuse, underuse, and misuse patterns of certain intensifiers. Furthermore, the boosters "very," "so," and "too" can be freely and interchangeably used to convey negative, positive, and neutral attitudes. Consequently, Turkish EFL learners tend to rely more heavily on boosters than maximizers in their writing.

## **5. Implications**

From a pedagogical perspective, this study highlights the importance of pragmatic competence and grammatical competence for foreign language learners. It suggests that more than mere knowledge of grammar is required to achieve proficiency in a foreign language. Instead, learners should develop pragmatic skills to utilize vocabulary in the target language effectively. Near-synonymous words like intensifiers pose a challenge for ELL learners due to the subtle nuances in their meanings. Therefore, learners should pay careful attention to the semantic prosody of intensifiers to achieve proficiency in their usage.



The study also indicates that the use of intensifiers by ELL learners in written discourse is influenced by their first language (L1) transfer. For instance, many English intensifiers have equivalent counterparts in the Turkish language. As a result, Turkish ELL learners may encounter difficulties in selecting appropriate English intensifiers that align with specific semantic contexts. In order to minimize the potential for errors, learners tend to restrict themselves to a limited set of intensifiers in their writing. It is crucial to understand the underlying issues faced by non-native learners of English in using intensifiers, such as overuse, underuse, or neglect of semantic prosody. Therefore, gaining a deeper understanding of these issues and providing appropriate instruction to enhance learners' awareness of semantic prosody is important.

The choice of intensifiers as the focus of this study stems from their frequent usage by ELL learners in both spoken and written language, as they aim to add emphasis or force to their expressions. However, learners often do not pay sufficient attention to the positive or negative semantic prosody and collocational usage patterns of intensifiers. While the curriculum may not explicitly address the teaching of intensifiers, pragmatic classroom activities can be designed to raise learners' awareness of semantic prosody and enhance their understanding and usage of intensifiers in the target language.

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The authors equally contributed for the chapter and do not have any conflict of interest in the study.

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## Facilitating EFL Students' Self-regulation Skills in Writing through an SRL-based Instruction

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## **1. Introduction**

Whether in L1 or LX, writing is a challenging and recursive process by its nature (Anastasiou & Michail, 2013). As Darwin (2010: p.30) states, a child has “the instinctive tendency to speak whilst no child has an instinctive tendency to bake, brew or write”. The demanding aspect of writing stems from the fact that it embodies some cognitive, metacognitive, social and even emotional dimensions. As a cognitive and metacognitive process, writing can be conceptualized as a set of mental stages such as planning, analyzing, problem solving, revising and redrafting (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1981). On the other hand, according to Kohls (2018), writing is a social activity which develops in its social contexts like classrooms through interaction with teachers and pupils before starting to take shape in the minds of the writers. In addition to its social and cognitive aspects, this skill can also be associated with some affective factors such as beliefs, attitudes, and motivation (McLeod, 1987). From this perspective, it is suggested that one’s affective reactions should be taken into account and should be regulated to work for him in the writing process. All in all, while writing is accepted as such an intimidating skill even in L1 due its multidimensional aspects mentioned above, it is a much more demanding process for L2 writers. In order to complete a writing task, L2 students need to employ cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, use their higher and lower skills such as organizing, word choice, and so on, exploit various sources, activate their existing knowledge, and regulate their

emotions by sustaining their motivation throughout the process (MacArthur, 2014; Usher; Wang, 2014). In this sense, self-regulated strategies (SRL) for L2 writing suggest a multidimensional model for both L2 learners supposed to ‘learn how to learn’ and L2 teachers supposed to ‘learn how to facilitate the process’ (Oxford, 1990: p.201). SRL strategies include the training of cognitive, metacognitive, social behavior and motivational regulation strategies to provide better L2 writers.

Although SRL has gained an increasing interest in second language learning as general in the last few decades (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994), there is still a need for further research to present the effectiveness of the SRL strategies with reference to specific skills such as writing, and to present an evidence-based practice to guide L2 teachers willing to adapt it in their EFL settings.

### **1.1. Literature Review**

In educational psychology, self-regulation is attributed to the process of organizing thoughts, feelings, and actions for well-determined goals (Usher & Schunk, 2017). Especially with the concept of life-long learning, the ultimate aim of most education programs and settings today has been reshaped to facilitate self-regulated learning in the ways that learners can take control of their own learning process (Griffiths, 2013; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). From this perspective, teachers once viewed as authority figures are now accepted as a facilitator, helper and guide to help students become self-regulated, independent, goal-oriented

with lifelong learning strategies (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006). With this shift, Winne and Perry (2000: p. 533-334) define self-regulated learners as who “can approach challenging tasks and problems by choosing from a repertoire of tactics those they believe best suited to the situation, and applying those tactics appropriately”. Within the context of L2 writing, SRL writing strategies are defined as “deliberate, goal-directed attempts to make writing enjoyable, less challenging, and more effective” (Teng & Zhang, 2016: p. 680). In this process, L2 writers are supposed to use and regulate their self-directed thoughts, actions and feelings to obtain their goals and to learn how to write (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Incorporating SRL strategies into the second and foreign language learning is highly recommended because of the positive correlations between the use of SRL strategies and L2 attainment (e.g., Cohen, 2014; Hu & Gao, 2018; Oxford, 2016). More specifically, some studies have also found similar positive correlations between the SRL strategies and other academic outcomes in writing. For example, Teng and Huang (2018) studied with 682 secondary school students to determine the predictive effects of SRL writing strategies on these students’ writing achievements. The results showed that goal-oriented and monitoring was the most important strategy among this group of students, and that the use of SRL strategies had a significant predictive effect on writing proficiency. On the other hand, the study by Zhou and Hiver (2022) investigates SRL strategy use in writing in relation to two constructs

namely engagement and procrastination. With a total number of 816 L2 Chinese learners from six different colleges, the study concluded that while explicit teaching of SRL strategies in writing positively predicts the student engagement, it decreases procrastination in writing. In addition to writing achievement and student engagement, some studies have reported a positive correlation between SRL strategies and students' self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, Teng and Zhang (2020) conduct a self-regulated learning strategies-based instruction with L2 Chinese university students in writing course to investigate not only student's self-report SRL strategy use but also their self-efficacy level. It was found that the students in the experimental group became more active in using cognitive, metacognitive, social behavior and motivational regulation strategies when it is compared to the ones in the control group, and that this strategy acquisition increased these students' linguistic and performance self-efficacy. Lastly, there are also some studies which take attention to the positive effects of self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) on student motivation in writing. Fahim and Rajabi (2015) studied with 60 Iranian EFL students divided into two groups to investigate their writing scores and motivation. In line with the other studies mentioned earlier, a very similar positive correlation was reported between the SRSD instruction and students' writing scores. The study also highlighted that SRSD instruction had a positive power in fostering student motivation in writing.

As mentioned so far, there are crucial studies conducted on the SRL strategies in L2 writing and their effects on achievement, self-efficacy or engagement (Karagül & Seker, 2021; Zhou & Hiver, 2022); nevertheless, little is known about the students' reflections on the effectiveness of these strategies. All these studies were conducted with large-scale questionnaires and did not go beyond the general conclusions about the effectiveness of SRL strategies. Virtually no study has addressed the same issue to get a better insight into the students' own experiences with these strategies. In order to facilitate an effective SRL strategy acquisition in writing, improve EFL students' self-regulation skills and explore the learners' experiences with these strategies, the present study investigates the following research questions:

1. What are the EFL students' existing SRL writing strategies before the training?
2. Is there a significant difference between SRL strategy-based instruction and standard instruction in terms of students' SRL strategy use in writing?
3. What are the students' perceptions about the effectiveness of the strategies used in the training program?

### **1.2. Multidimensional Model of SRL Strategies for L2 writing**

The three main tenets of all SRL strategies in writing are to be goal-oriented, to focus on learning process, and to entail learners' active participation from the initial stages of writing to the evaluation part (Cumming, Busch, & Zhou, 2002; Teng & Zhang, 2016). Within the

framework of the present study, the categorization of SRL writing strategies was grounded on the Teng and Zhang's multidimensional model of self-regulated writing strategies (2016). Initially regarded as a cognitive process, the concept of self-regulation in L2 writing then involved the metacognitive aspect with the influence of the social cognitive theory (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). Teng and Zhang (2016) expanded this concept to a higher order model which views self-regulated writing as a product of cognition, metacognition, social behavior and motivational regulation.

According to this multidimensional model of SRL strategies in writing, cognitive strategies refer to the ability of processing knowledge and information through text processing and course memory strategies such as checking logical coherence among the sentences, checking grammar mistakes, or manipulating the course materials over and over again to complete the writing text. As the strategies in this category entail the active engagements of the learners in the self-regulation process, they result in high level of academic achievement in writing (Winne, 2011; Zhang, Gu, & Hu, 2008). The second category in this multidimensional model is the metacognitive strategies referring to the skills of determining the demands of a particular task and regulating one's own cognition to meet those demands (Winne, 2011). Within the framework of SRL strategies in writing, they specifically include setting up learning goals, idea planning, utilizing different sources to organize ideas, monitoring one's own progress, and evaluating to direct writing activities



(Teng & Zhang, 2016). Although cognitive and metacognitive strategies are accepted as the most effective strategies for the long-term memory in language learning (Oxford, 2013), writing is a social process and self-regulated learners are supposed to work in collaboration rather than in isolation (Kohls, 2018). In this sense, this model suggests social behavior strategies as the third dimension of SRL strategies which include peer learning and feedback handling (Teng & Zhang, 2016). Collaborative brainstorming, classroom discussion before writing, working with the peers to complete the writing task are a few of them. The overarching aim of these tasks is to provide cooperating learning environment in which learners ask help not only from the teacher but also their more knowledgeable peers (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). The last key aspect of SRL writing strategies is motivational regulation. As Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997: 76) argued, “writers must be aware of readers’ expectations and must be willing to devote the personal time and effort necessary to revise text drafts until they communicate effectively”. The rationale behind this type of strategy training is to regulate students’ willingness and persistence on the writing task (Wolters & Hussain, 2015).

## **2. Material and Method**

The study followed a mixed method research design and employed two data collection tools. The first instrument employed in this experimental research was writing strategies for self-regulated learning questionnaire (WSSRLQ) developed by Teng and Zhang (2016). WSSRLQ is a 40-

item and seven-point-Likert scale. It includes four dimensions as cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, social behavior strategies and motivational regulated strategies. Each dimension has its own subdimensions. Namely, cognitive strategies measure text processing and course memory; metacognitive strategies include goal-oriented monitoring, evaluating, and idea planning; social behavior strategies comprise of peer learning and feedback handling; lastly, motivational regulated strategies include enhancement, motivational self-talk, and emotional control. This questionnaire was given to the participants in both group at the beginning and at the end of the training period. While the first implementation was to diagnose the Turkish EFL students' existing self-regulation strategies in writing, the post-test was to determine the participants' self-regulation developments in writing. The second data collection tool was the topic-based students' journals collected at the end of each intervention week to get a clear idea about how effective particular writing strategies were in facilitating their cognitive, metacognitive, social behavior and motivational regulated skills.

When it comes to data analysis part, mean scores of the four dimensions were calculated with the descriptive analysis to present the EFL students' existing self-regulation strategies, which was followed by an independent t-test analysis to analyze the results of the second research question. The last research question was sought to delve into the students' perceptions about the effectiveness of the strategies during the training. For this part,

the analysis was guided by the pre-defined categories suggested by the self-regulated learning strategy questionnaire (Teng and Zhang, 2016). Deductive thematic analysis was followed to discuss the students' experience with the training.

### **2.1. Participants**

The participants of the present study were intermediate level EFL students in a prep school of a state university in Türkiye. There were totally 30 voluntary students who were randomly assigned to experimental (n=15) and control groups (n=15). While the experimental group received SRL-based writing instruction for 2 hours throughout 5 weeks, the control group received only regular instruction in academic writing courses for the same amount of time. None of these students had such a strategy training before, and the same instructor/researcher guided the courses in both groups in order to eliminate the instructor-based differences. All students from experimental and control group were informed about the aims and the content of the study beforehand, and a voluntary participation consent was taken from each of them.

### **2.2. SRL Training**

According to Weaver and Cohen (1994), there is not a standard instruction model to conduct a strategy training. That's why, training programs are expected be designed in accordance with the needs and goals of the students (Ferris, 2012). Within the framework of this study, four main categories in the WSSRL questionnaire and the students' needs in the experimental group guided the instructor to prepare this five-week

intervention. The results of the analysis revealed that metacognitive strategies were the least employed ones by the students in the experimental group, so an extra amount of time was allocated for this type of category. One week was spared for each one of three writing self-regulation strategies, namely cognitive, social behavior, motivational regulated strategies while two weeks were spared for the metacognitive strategies. The SRL training was embedded in the daily classroom teaching for five weeks, each lesson was 45 minutes, and there were two writing training lessons in each week. The students in the experimental group took 10 lessons of training in total, which was supported by the out-of-class activities as well. Both experimental and control students followed the same writing syllabus, the same writing book, the same number of writing lessons and were asked to write the same number of paragraphs on the same genres. Although the teacher made no explicit and systematic reference to the SRL strategies in the control group, some SRL strategies in the writing book were also practiced with them. While the students in both groups were asked to write a paragraph at the end of each week, only the students in the experimental group were asked to upload it to an online interactive writing platform called *Scribo* where they could get their feedbacks from the instructor and their peers as well. Meanwhile, control group did not follow an online interactive writing platform, and they only took teacher feedback.

For the weekly topic-based reflections, experimental students were also asked to complete a questionnaire in Turkish adopted from the items of

WSSRLQ. By this way, they had a chance to apply and evaluate the strategies taught that week. The below chart demonstrates the overall design of the intervention process in the experimental group:

**Table 1.** The design of the SRL-based Instruction

<b>Weeks</b>	<b>Strategy Category</b>	<b>Strategy Type</b>	<b>In-class and Out-of-class Activities</b>
1	Cognitive Strategies	Text Processing  Course Memory	Self-evaluation checklist  Placing new words/ expressions into their own paragraphs Keeping a language learning notebook with a list of new words/expressions/structure that they have learned Semantic mapping
2 & 3	Metacognitive Strategies	Idea Planning  Goal-oriented Monitoring  And Evaluating	Finding and reading a related article with the topic Online discussion boards for brainstorming via Padlet to generate ideas Creating a goal chart for writing course Progress evaluation questionnaire
4	Social Behavior Strategies	Peer Learning Feedback Handling	A collaborative writing task In-class guided peer feedback session
5	Motivational Regulation Strategies	Enhancement Metacognitive Self-Talk  Emotional Control	Writing on a free topic Competitive online games on Kahoot Encouraging activities e.g., making positive statements Integrating music to the sessions

### 3. Findings and Discussion

#### 3.1. Quantitative Findings

For the first research question which investigates the students' existing SRL strategies in writing, descriptive statistics of the mean scores of each dimension in the WSSRL questionnaire were presented in the following table.

**Table 2.** Descriptive analysis of the SRL strategies in the experiment group and the control group before the training

SRL Writing Strategies	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Cognitive Strategies	Cont. 15	3,59	0,659	-0,869	0,112
	Exp. 15	3,73	0,748	-0,095	-0,894
Metacognitive Strategies	Cont. 15	3,11	0,763	-0,393	0,241
	Exp. 15	3,35	0,706	0,840	0,541
Social Behavior Strategies	Cont. 15	4,03	0,809	-0,850	0,580
	Exp. 15	4,01	0,760	0,975	1,438
Motivational Regulation Strategies	Cont. 15	3,88	0,931	-1,039	2,430
	Exp. 15	4,05	0,856	0,721	-0,491

As seen in the Table 2, the highest rating was given to social behavior strategies in both experimental ( $M=4.01$ ;  $SD= 0.76$ ) and control group

(M=4.03; SD=0.80). This type of SRL strategies was followed by the motivational regulation strategies by the experimental (M=4,05; SD=0.85) and control group (M=3.88; SD=0.93). The third category was cognitive strategies with the mean scores of 3.73 (SD=0.74) for the experimental and 3.59 (SD=0.65) for the control group (M=3.56; SD=0.65). The results showed that metacognitive strategies were the least used by both the students in experimental (M=3.35; SD=0.70) and control group (M=3.11; SD=0.76). The results also showed that the levels of SRL strategy use in both groups were very similar before the SRL-based instruction.

While the Table 1 above shows the general categories of the SRL strategies in writing for both groups, the Table 2 below presents more details about each dimension by showing the most and the least frequently used SRL strategies by the students in the experimental group.

**Table 3.** The most and least frequently used SRL strategies by the EFL students

SRL Strategies in Writing		Mean	SD
Cognitive Strategies	When writing, I check my grammar mistakes	5.13	1.24
	When writing, I check the structure for logical coherence	4.60	1.50
	I write useful words and expressions taught in writing courses to help me remember them.	2.66	1.49
	I read my class notes and the course material over and over again to help me remember them.	2.60	1.45
Metacognitive Strategies	When writing, I tell myself to follow my plan	4.06	1.83
	When learning to write, I check my progress to make sure I achieve my goal.	3.86	1.76
	When learning to write, I set up goals for myself in order to direct my learning activities	3.20	1.56
	Before writing, I read related articles to help me plan	2.13	1.50

Social Behaviour Strategies	I am open to teacher feedback on my writing.	6.46	0.63
	I try to improve my English writing based on teacher feedback	5.53	1.45
	I brainstorm with my peers to help me write	2.73	1.98
	I work with my peers to complete a writing task	2.53	1.59
Motivational Regulation Strategies	I remind myself about how important it is to get good grades in writing courses	5.26	1.70
	I compete with other students and challenge myself to do better than them in writing courses.	5.06	1.48
	I choose interesting topics to practice writing.	2.86	1.99
	I try to connect the writing task with my personal interest	3.13	1.92

Looking into the cognitive strategies specifically, the students reported checking their grammar mistakes when writing is the most often ( $M=5.13$ ;  $SD=1.24$ ) while reading class notes and the course materials was the least frequently used strategy. As stated before, metacognitive dimension was the least employed SRL category by the students. Telling themselves to follow their plans has the highest mean score ( $M=4.06$ ;  $SD=1.83$ ), which was followed by the checking progress ( $M=3.86$ ;  $SD=1.76$ ). The least frequently used strategies in this group are setting up goals ( $M=3.20$ ;  $SD=1.56$ ) and reading articles to plan ( $M=2.13$ ;  $SD=1.50$ ). When it comes to the social behavior strategies, the results show that students generally prefer to take teacher feedback ( $M=6.46$ ;  $SD=0.63$ ) and to improve their English writing based on teacher feedback ( $M=5.53$ ;  $SD=1.45$ ). On the other hand, they do not frequently practice brainstorming with their peers ( $M=2.73$ ;  $SD=1.98$ ) or working with their peers to complete a writing task ( $M=2.53$ ;  $SD=1.59$ ). Lastly, two of the motivational regulation strategies, which were used frequently,



are reminding themselves how important it is to get good grades in writing courses ( $M=5.26$ ;  $SD=1.70$ ) and competing with other students to do better in writing courses ( $M=5.06$ ;  $SD=1.48$ ). However, they reported not choosing interesting topics to practice writing ( $M=2.86$ ;  $SD=1.99$ ) and not trying to connect the writing task with their personal interest ( $M=3.13$ ;  $SD=1.92$ ) very often.

For the second research question, in order to find out whether there is a significant difference between the SRL writing strategy-based instruction and standard instruction in terms of students' SRL strategy use in writing, further analyses were conducted. Initially, since independent T-test is a parametric test, the data set needs to be normally distributed. That's why, normality test was run to each factor of pre and post-tests of WSSRL questionnaire for the experimental and control group. As the number of the participants was less than 50 ( $n < 50$ ), Shapiro-Wilk normality test was used. According to Shapiro-Wilk test results, all pretest and post test scores are higher than 0.05 ( $p > .05$ ), which shows that the data set is normally distributed. Then, independent T-test was administered, and the results of the test were given in Table 4 below.

**Table 4.** Independent T-test results for the experimental and control group

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Cognitive Strategies	Equal variances assumed	,160	,692	-	28	,117	-,593	,367	-1,343	,158
	Equal variances not assumed			-	27,600	,117	-,593	,367	-1,344	,159
Metacognitive Strategies	Equal variances assumed	,000	,990	-	28	,045	-,791	,395	-1,601	,018
	Equal variances not assumed			-	27,301	,055	-,791	,395	-1,602	,019
Social Behavior Strategies	Equal variances assumed	,003	,959	-,778	28	,443	-,352	,452	-1,278	,574
	Equal variances not assumed			-,778	27,934	,443	-,352	,452	-1,278	,574
Motivational Regulation Strategies	Equal variances assumed	,002	,966	-	28	,000	-	,357	-2,145	-,682
	Equal variances not assumed			-	27,969	,000	-	,357	-2,145	-,682

As seen in the table 4, p-values are less than 0.05 for the two factors of WSSRL questionnaire. These factors are metacognitive strategies (0.045

< 0.05) and motivational regulation strategies (0,00 <0.05). This indicates that SRL-based instruction meaningfully improved the participants' metacognitive and motivational regulation strategies such as idea planning, monitoring, emotional control and goal-oriented strategies when compared to the students in the control group. However, p-values are greater than 0.05 for the remaining strategy types. In other words, there is not a statistically difference between the experimental and control group in terms of the cognitive (0.59>0.05) and social behavior strategy use (0.35>0.05) after the training. This may stem from the fact that most of the strategies in these groups such as feedback handling, peer learning and text processing covered not only in the experimental group but also in the control group during the flow of the writing courses.

### **3.2. Qualitative Findings**

Third research question focused on the students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the SRL strategies practiced in the experimental group for six weeks. The reflections collected from the students' journals were classified into four groups as cognitive dimension, metacognitive dimension, social behavior dimension and motivational dimension; and the emerging themes in each dimension were discussed as follows:

#### **3.2.1. Cognitive dimension**

In cognitive dimension, two important themes emerged from the students' reflections. The first one is the boosting effect of cognitive strategies on students' self-efficacy beliefs. Student 3 shared his

experience with some of the strategies practiced in this group like that: “Keeping language learning notebook was like the summary of what I have learnt so far. By this way, I can see obviously that I learnt a lot, and I can write more sophisticated”.

The second crucial theme driven from the students’ journals was developing writing quality through the imitation or manipulation of the course materials. Although initially the lowest rate in the cognitive dimension was given to the course memory strategies such as reading class notes or writing useful expressions by the students, it can be inferred from the following extract that most of the students modified their SRL strategies in time: “Now, when I realize that I use the same pattern in my paragraph, I refer to my course materials and sample paragraphs to imitate similar patterns” (Student 8).

### **3.2.2. Metacognitive dimension**

For the metacognitive dimension, raising awareness towards the importance of pre-writing stage was the most crucial recurring theme in the students’ journal. This awareness was exemplified by the students 7 and 10 respectively: “I didn’t use to spare time to make a mental map before writing. That’s why, my paragraphs were in a disorganized way. I had to add each new idea coming to my mind to my paragraph again and again, and this used to make me feel stressed”, and “I think idea planning is the most effective strategy. Using internet and reading related articles enriched my writing ability and vocabulary. I feel satisfied when I see my improvement in writing”.

In addition to the pre-writing stage, another important theme obtained from the students' reflections was that practicing evaluating strategies contributed to the students' ability of tracking their own progress, which was explained by student 2 as follows: "After writing a new paragraph, now I compare it with the previous ones. I try to add at least two different structures to my paragraphs. I am aware that I started to write better paragraphs"

### **3.2.3. Social Behavior dimension**

Students' journals showed that SRL strategies in this group played a pivotal role in facilitating collaborative learning environment and changing students' perceptions towards the nature of writing. Student 3 described their shift in conceptualizing writing as follows: "Initially, I thought that writing was an individual activity. However, I see that brainstorming with my classmates or discussing the topic together helped me generate new ideas and plan my paragraph better". Similarly, student 4 shared her experiencing enjoyment of learning in this collaborative learning environment by stating: "Working on a paragraph as a joint activity made the writing process more enjoyable and more productive. Producing a paragraph on an online platform and evaluating it as a group before submitting it to the teacher are more entertaining than producing a piece of writing individually".

Another aspect of social behavior SRL strategies emerged in the students' reflections is that peer learning and peer feedback handling developed the sense of comfort among the students. While most of the

students reported being open to teacher feedback in writing before the SRL-based instruction, the results showed that students changed their perspective about feedback handling in time. Student 6 and 9 underlined their increased comfort and their changing approach in terms of feedback in this way: “Giving feedback to a paragraph as a group helped me realize my own mistakes. Discussing the content, organization, and use of language in the sample paragraphs with other students broadened my view. Additionally, I felt very comfortable when I was taking feedback from my classmates and discussing my mistakes with them”. And, “We used to write a paragraph, submit it to teacher, and take feedback. It was the way of writing. However, I experienced that we had an opportunity to correct our mistakes before the teacher did”.

#### **3.2.4. Motivational dimension**

Before the SRL-based instruction training, the most frequently used strategy in this dimension was to reminding yourself how important to take good marks in the writing course. However, there some evidence in the students’ journals that practicing motivational regulation strategies helped these students change their extrinsic motivation into intrinsic one. As student 12 stated: “I tried to write on the topics that I am interested in such as novels and films for the out-of-class activities. Then it turned out one of my hobbies”. In line with student 12, student 1 also wrote: “I feel my habit of writing changed. I used to study for writing before the exams. However, writing at least a few sentences in English every day is my routine now”.

Lastly, some students reported finding some strategies ineffective especially regarding the ones for emotional control. For example, student 4 explained his opinion like this: “I try to control my anxiety for the writing exam but it is not so easy. Although I remind myself that I learnt how to write a well-organized paragraph, I feel very stressed when I see the writing topics in the exam”. Student 11 explained why he had some difficulties in regulating his stress as follows: “I try to be and keep calm during the exam, I remind myself some positive statements I wrote before; however, writing in a limited time usually made me feel anxious”.

### **3.3. Discussion**

The main objectives of this study were to discover the EFL students’ existing SRL strategies in writing, and to investigate whether an explicit SRL-based instruction would make a difference in terms of students’ use of SRL strategies. Lastly, the study attempted to explore the students’ opinions about the effectiveness of these strategies.

The first research question was not only about determining what SRL strategies the EFL learners use but also about making a need analysis to prepare an effective SRL-based training. The results showed that the students use social behavior strategies most often followed by motivational regulation strategies and cognitive strategies respectively, and the most problematic dimension was the metacognitive one. According to the results, while text processing, feedback handling through teacher, and motivational self-talk were among the most

preferred SRL strategies by the Turkish EFL students, the least frequently used SRL strategies from the four dimensions were course memory, idea planning, interest enhancement, and peer learning. Some dramatic changes were observed in the students' least frequently employed SRL strategies with the SRL-based training. That's why, the study strongly suggests that determining students' needs by making a need analysis and organizing a writing plan accordingly would be more tailored and effective rather than follow a prototype plan expected to appeal all students. This result is aligned with some studies (Ampa & Quraisy, 2018; Sakkir et. al, 2021) suggesting that need analysis was effective especially for the development of the appropriate materials and the identification of the course objectives in writing.

The statistical analysis for the second research question revealed that an SRL-based instruction was actually effective in facilitating students' self-reported use of SRL strategies in writing. The students in experimental group outperformed the ones in the control group in terms of metacognitive and motivational strategy use. This finding is in line with the results of some previous research (e.g., Karagül & Seker, 2021; Teng & Zhang, 2020). Various factors may have contributed to the effectiveness of these SRL strategies. For example, enabling students to practice those strategies on an online platform, *Scribo*, can be one of those reasons for the positive outcomes. Similarly, some studies suggest that integration of SRL strategies with the online teaching tools result in adopting more favorable perceptions of SRL writing strategies by the



students (Karagül & Seker, 2021; Tsai, 2013). Lastly, although the SRL-based instruction improved the experimental group students' use of SRL strategies in each dimension significantly, there was not a statistically meaningful difference between the control and experimental group in two dimensions which are cognitive and social behavior strategies at the end of the training. This may result from the fact that some of the strategies such as brainstorming and teacher feedback handling were also practiced in the control group although they were not as systematic and explicit as the ones in the experimental group.

In relation to the third research question, the results of the study showed that the students generally developed favorable attitudes towards the SRL strategies practiced in the training. The only strategy that they reported not benefiting from was emotional control strategies. This may stem from the fact that the ability of regulating emotions is not a kind of strategy that a person may acquire easily in a limited time, and internalizing emotional control strategies for students needs sufficient amount of time, quality and practice (Engelschalk *et al.*, 2017; Zimmerman, 2000). Notably, the present study also shows that there were some changes in students' widely preferred self-reported SRL strategies. For example, while they mostly preferred teacher feedback and to work individually at the early stages of the training, they started to take benefit from peer feedback and to become more inclined to work in collaboration with their peers after the intervention. It demonstrated that once students had a chance to experiment with some particular strategies, they could enhance

their potentials. This suggests that teachers should provide appropriate support and opportunity for language learners to try new learning experiences, which may help them discover their strengths and weaknesses. Students' reflections also indicate that integrating SRL writing strategies into the classroom activities promotes collaborative learning environment and enjoyment. In line with what the present study argues, previous research suggests that collaborative learning environment promotes learner satisfaction, enjoyment and motivation (Plantamura *et al.* 2004; Tsai, 2013). Lastly, although it was not within the scope of this study to investigate the correlation between an explicit SRL-based instruction and students' self-efficacy beliefs in writing, there were some significant traces in the students' journals that the training boosted their self-efficacy beliefs and motivations in a positive way as well. The more autonomous they became, the higher self-efficacy and motivation they developed towards writing. This result is consistent with some earlier studies investigating the effects of SRL strategies on students' self-efficacy and motivation (e.g. Csizer & Tanko, 2015; Teng & Zhang, 2020). Consequently, the study demonstrated that furnishing L2 students with SRL strategies and making them more self-regulated writers not only changed the students' perception of writing positively but also helped them modify their existing strategies with the more effective ones. That's why, the study suggests that SRL strategies should be integrated within the regular writing curriculum in accordance with the needs of the learners.

#### **4. Conclusion and Suggestions**

The present study mainly revealed that training L2 students with the SRL strategies in writing resulted in a lot of positive outcomes especially regarding raising awareness of students in their effectiveness. We hope that this research may facilitate some further studies especially designed for the long-term effects of the SRL training in writing. Further studies may also analyze whether these strategies can be transferred to other skills in L2 learning or not.

This study is subject to some limitations. Firstly, the time allocated for the SRL strategy development in the classroom was limited to active each individual strategy type in these four SRL dimensions. Although a five-week training had a profound impact on students in terms of fostering them to become strategic language learner in writing, extended time would be more advantageous for the L2 students. Secondly, the number of the students in both experimental and control group (n=15) would be broadened for the further studies in order to make more general assumptions about the SRL strategies.

### **Thanks and Information Note**

Ethics Committee approval in the study, Ethics Committee of Gebze Technical University dated 01.06.2022. It was taken with decision no E-43633178-199-60350.

### **Author Contribution and Conflict of Interest Disclosure Information**

There is no conflict of interest.

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## Google Jamboard Meetings: The Place of Metacognitive Support in an Online L2 Writing Course

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## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1. Metacognition and L2 Writing**

As a productive language skill, writing may cause individuals to have difficulties in searching for information, making evaluation and verification (Graham, Gillespie & Mckeown, 2013). Particularly for English as Foreign Language (EFL) students, writing is perceived as a difficult-to-handle activity (Teng & Huang, 2018). Therefore, it is important to enhance students' writing strategies with certain tasks and prompts. For instance, students can be asked to combine and integrate diverse views in order to employ advanced writing strategies (Conner, 2007). Beyond that, one beneficial strategy could be the use of metacognitive support as a way to create a learning environment where EFL students could communicate, make argumentation and offer rationales with peers (Teng, 2020). Similar to EFL students, teacher trainees also consider writing a challenging activity since it requires them to make cognitive and metacognitive effort as well as to acquire self-regulation skills (Zimmerman, 2013). Besides, many teacher trainees do not feel comfortable in utilizing cognitive and metacognitive skills while writing (Teng & Zhang, 2016). To overcome such discomfort in writing, teacher trainees should be engaged in a collaborative metacognitive process which helps them regulate the way they write in L2.

Flavell (1979) coined the concept of metacognition and defined it as the awareness and understanding of one's own thoughts and cognitive processes through such strategies as organizing, monitoring and adapting. Metacognition encompasses two main components which are

metacognitive knowledge and regulation (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). In the knowledge dimension, metacognition involves three types of knowledge which are declarative (awareness of one's own abilities), procedural (awareness of how to carry out a task), and conditional (awareness of situations in which declarative or procedural knowledge is necessary) knowledge (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). As for the regulation dimension, Schraw and Dennison (1994) describe three forms which are planning (ability to choose suitable strategies and sources), monitoring (ability to comprehend the task and perform it) and evaluation (ability to assess the effectiveness of the regulatory process and the value of the task outcome). In recent studies, metacognition is defined as the ability to have a critical look on, understand and control one's own cognitive processes (Adler et al., 2019). In other words, metacognition refers to self-regulation and monitoring one's own learning, both of which lead to the development of higher-order thinking skills through collaboration among peers (Teng, 2018). That is, metacognition involves a critical evaluation of one's own products as well as self-analyses of performance in collaboration with others.

Metacognitive awareness is examined under the categories of “person, task and strategy” variables, all of which respectively refer to the cognitive processor, cognitive task, and cognitive process (Flavell, 1979; 1987); and is regarded as a central component of writing (Hayes, 2006). However, novice writers lack of metacognitive awareness about the purposes of writing strategies or tasks demands in writing (Durst, 2006). Maybe this is because writing process is highly complex with its

cognitive, metacognitive and affective requirements (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006). According to Torrance and Galbraith (2006), the use of writing strategies can reduce the writer's processing demands with the aid of dividing a writing task into its components. Moreover, Graham (2006) shows that strategy instruction's positive impact is reflected on the upcoming writing tasks. Further, student academic writing research proves that there are strong ties between metacognitive awareness of strategies and the development of writing approaches (Negretti, 2012). Concerning person variables such as writing motivation and self-efficacy, it is obvious that metacognitive awareness significantly influences writing performance (Pajares & Valiante, 2006). As is clear, the ingredients of metacognitive awareness are diverse including the variables of writer, writing task and writing strategies.

It is evident that individuals need help and instruction to achieve the goals of writing tasks; and they should be informed about several metacognitive skills such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation (Teng, 2019). In parallel with this notion, Wu (2006) finds a positive effect of metacognitive instruction on Chinese EFL students' metacognition and EFL writing. In their study aiming to promote Vietnamese university EFL students' writing via training, Nguyen and Gu (2013) reveal that students who receive the training can self-regulate their writing tasks more than the students in the other two groups who do not receive training. Likewise, Teng (2016) explores that Chinese EFL students improve their writing and metacognitive regulation if they receive metacognitive instruction accompanied with cooperative learning. Some

other studies also demonstrate that metacognitive instruction is an efficient way to foster writing performance in English (e.g. Beals, 2016; Negretti, 2015).

## **1.2. Group Metacognitive Support**

The research on the concept of metacognition has generally focused upon the individual level, rather than scrutinizing metacognition at the group level (Biasutti & Frate, 2018; Zion, Adler & Mevarech, 2015). However, as Rapchak (2018) suggests, group metacognition is a vital component of successful collaborative learning. Group metacognition is the capability of reflecting on cognitive skills developed by groups as well as planning, monitoring and assessing the outcomes of groups' collaborative learning activities (Biasutti & Frate, 2018). Namely, group metacognitive support is a socially shared process (Kramarski & Dudai, 2009) and it is possible to take advantage of group metacognitive support through joint problem solving tasks and the application of the solutions by the group members with the purpose of regulating the learning process. During group metacognitive support, group feedback is accompanied by self-explanations performed by each participant in the group (Kramarski & Dudai, 2009). This is because group feedback is useful in terms of assisting participants to use their full potential in enhancing their solution strategies. Besides, self-explanation fosters students' competence of constructing their incomplete mental schemes (Chi, 2000). Yet, group feedback and self-explanations should be combined with well-designed metacognitive prompts (either in the written or oral versions) in order to yield fruitful learning outcomes in EFL classrooms. Such prompts could

be provided by instructors so that students can verbalize their thinking styles and patterns while writing (Chi, 2000). This is because group metacognitive support has positive effects on writing outcomes and metacognitive regulation since learning responsibilities are transferred from teacher to student step-by-step (Teng, 2020). Thus, students can gain metacognitive awareness independently and become better at guiding their writings with the help of group metacognitive support. That is to say, teachers gradually transfer learning responsibility to their students, which makes students' writing regulation skills to develop (Nguyen & Gu, 2013).

### **1.3. Google Jamboard**

The dominance of conventional teacher-centered approaches in EFL writing classes as a result of the absence of metacognitive strategies may be due to the limited time allocated to the writing strategies and skills (Liu, Rahimi & Fathi, 2022). To minimize the disadvantages of such time limitations, teaching with technologies can be useful (Ebadi & Rahimi, 2017; Lin, Barrett & Liu, 2021; Liu, Chen & Hwang, 2018; Rahimi & Fathi, 2021; Yilmaz, 2017). As an alternative to conventional whiteboards, Google Jamboard is one of the Google's free apps and has been in use since 2017 as an interactive digital whiteboard. It can be proposed that Google Jamboard is in compliance with the principles of Vygotsky's (1978) socio-constructivist theory. One of those principles is collaborative learning during which students work with more capable others who can assist and guide (Oxford, 1997). Identically, in collaborative EFL writing activities, students help each other raise

awareness of writing issues, take part in peer mediations in which they give comments and feedback on collaborative writing tasks, and co-construct each other's academic writings (Barrett, Hsu, Liu, Wang & Yin, 2021; Ebadi & Rahimi, 2018; Rahimi & Fathi, 2021). To accomplish effectiveness in collaborative writing, Google Jamboard offers teachers chances to present more attractive materials. Teachers can add frames, shapes, pictures and sticky notes; change the background and write with digital markers in various colors on Google Jamboard (Gulati & Bhatt, 2020).

Students can reach higher levels of thinking using Google Jamboard which allows them to prepare texts, pictures and situations where they can be engaged in active learning (Liu et al., 2022). In Khuong's (2022) research, Google Jamboard is shown to promote communication among students and have a positive effect on essay writing in English. It should also be emphasized that teachers and students can benefit from the advantages of Google Jamboard in reflective online sessions. To exemplify, Ndwambi, Hlabane, Motlhabane and Malgas (2022) adapt Google Jamboard as a tool to reflect on previous learning experiences. Indeed, they use Google Jamboard in order to explain the place and vitality of technology in the classroom. In this sense, they are not only using Google Jamboard to learn in a reflective manner, but they are also reflecting on students' ability to learn through technology.

All in all, the originality of this study stems from its focus on the concept of metacognition as a whole embodying the variables of writer, writing task and writing strategy in an online L2 writing course in the Turkish



context. The incorporation of Google Jamboard as an interactive platform where the participants share their self-regulation strategies and provide inspiration for each other's metacognitive processes could also be considered as an innovative side of the study. To our knowledge, there is still little research dealing with the role of Google Jamboard in the learning process, especially in facilitating EFL students' language skills. With the ultimate purpose of moving beyond the benefits of simple group work (Teng, 2016), this study explores the metacognitive processes of EFL teacher trainees in an online L2 writing course where interpersonal relationships and support are limited compared to face-to-face courses. To this end, the following research questions guide the current study.

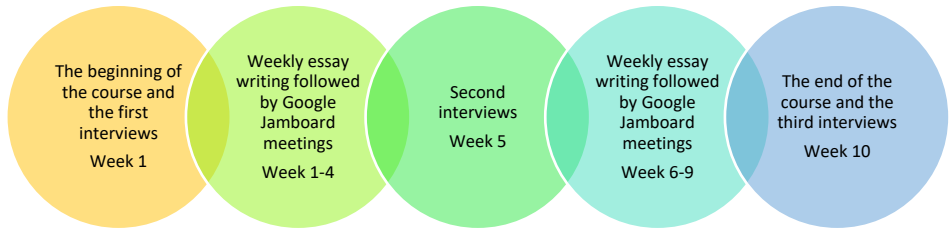
- What is the nature of the participants' metacognition in relation to person, task and strategy variables in an online L2 writing course in which group metacognitive support is incorporated?
- What are the participants' views on the use of Google Jamboard as a platform for group metacognitive support in an online L2 writing course?

## **2. Method**

### **2.1. Research Design, Participants and Procedures**

This study was designed as a descriptive case study which qualitatively summarized the experiences of individuals (Lambert & Lambert, 2012). The descriptive design was appropriate for this study since the intent was to gain insight into the nature of the participants' metacognition transitioning from a conventional face-to-face writing course to a learning environment where online instruction and platforms were in use (Yin, 2013). The participants who received the online writing course

were 30 EFL teacher trainees (21 females and 9 males) studying at the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of a state university in Türkiye. They were all the first grade students whose age range was 18-20 at the time of the study. Previously, they took a face-to-face 10-week writing course in which they made writing practices on writing basics, punctuation, word choice, purpose/audience/tone/content of writing, sentence variety and organizing writing and so forth. Afterwards, in this online course, they were encouraged to develop their knowledge on numerous rhetorical modes both in theory and practice. To be precise, each week's online course included the instructor's introduction of a rhetorical mode so that the participants could have an idea of the writing criteria and characteristic features of that rhetorical mode. In addition, the instructor supported the participants' writing strategies with metacognitive prompts in each online course session and Google Jamboard meetings. Even, the instructor organized critical discussions in online course sessions when there was a crucial view or experience detected in Google Jamboards. Hence, the participants received and provided more detailed and reflective group metacognitive support. The details about the weekly procedures followed in this online L2 writing course are presented in Figure 1.



**Figure 1.** The procedures followed in the course.

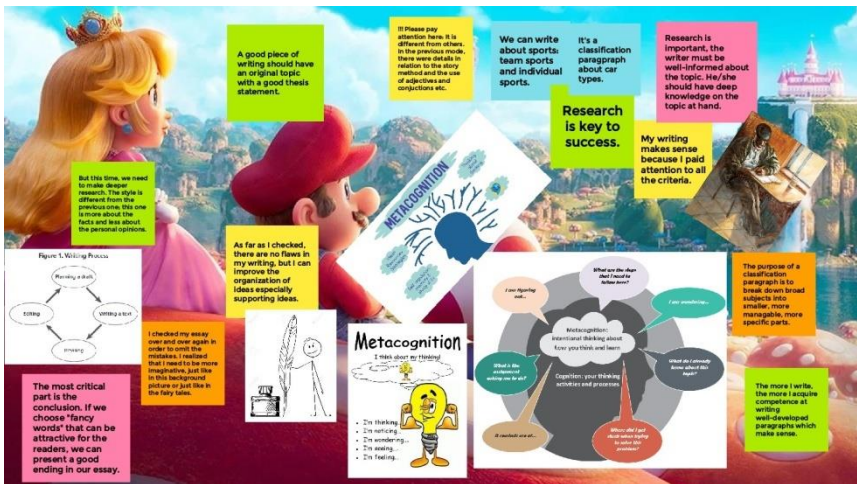
Figure 1 demonstrates that the 10-week online L2 writing course contained five major stages which were the first interviews, the first cycle of essay writing accompanied by Google Jamboard meetings, the second interviews, the second cycle of essay writing accompanied by Google Jamboard meetings of and the third interviews. In week 1, the course aim, flow and content were introduced. As this was the first time for the participants to encounter with the concept of metacognition, they were all asked to re-tell metacognition and its place in L2 writing in their own words. This was to ensure their understanding of the concept. Subsequent to this, each participant filled in the first interview forms aiming to detect their current metacognitive strategies in L2 writing without an intervention that could support their metacognition. In weeks 1-4, the participants wrote four different essays in the format of narration, illustration, description, classification respectively. The completion of each essay was followed by Google Jamboard meetings where the participants cooperated for reflection and fostering the metacognition of each other in a safe environment. In week 5, the second interviews were conducted with the purpose of identifying the participants' evolving

metacognitive stance toward L2 writing. In weeks 6-9, the participants wrote four more essays in the format of process analysis, definition, compare and contrast, and persuasion. Similar to what was carried out in weeks 1-4, the participants shared their metacognitive experiences through Google Jamboard with one another. Lastly, in week 10, the course ended with the completion of the third interviews that aiming to examine the participants' evolving metacognition in L2 writing and an overall evaluation of the Google Jamboard experience.

## **2.2. Data Gathering Tools**

To examine the writing metacognition of the EFL teacher trainees, two main data collection tools were utilized. One was the participants' metacognitive discussions via Google Jamboard meetings which took place asynchronously and with the regular participation and contribution of the instructor. At the very beginning of the study, the participants were informed about how to use Google Jamboard effectively by using sticky notes, visuals, and inspiring quotes if necessary. Moreover, a number of self-questioning prompts (e.g. what is my ultimate purpose in this writing task?, how can I develop a better writing this week?, what strategies should I use to produce better writing samples?, does my writing make sense?) that could help them direct their views toward their L2 writing metacognition on the right track. The metacognitive prompts provided by the instructor were all in relation to whether they truly comprehended the features of each rhetorical mode, could build links between their current and previous writings, were aware of writing strategies they employed and were able to evaluate their own writings through reflective lenses. In

total, 28 Google Jamboard pages were prepared by the participants. These pages were full of sticky notes, visuals and background pictures; all of which were associated with specific metacognitive notions produced as a result of the experiences gained during the writing process. An example Google Jamboard page is presented in Figure 2.



**Figure 2.** An example Google Jamboard page

The other data source was the three-phased interviews conducted at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the process. All the interviews were performed by the participants individually in a written format. Each participant sent their responses to interview questions to the instructor via e-mail. The questions in each interview were similar and designed in light of the components of metacognition proposed by Flavell (1979; 1987). Accordingly, the interview questions were formulated in a way that the participants could activate their metacognition in the contexts of the cognitive processor (e.g., who is a good writer?), cognitive task (e.g., what is your idea of good writing for this rhetorical mode?), and

cognitive process (e.g., what do you do when you have trouble in writing?). In fact, the prompts prepared for Google Jamboards along with the guiding questions in all the interviews were aimed to be in consistency so as to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' metacognitive stance. In addition, the third interview had an extra scope which was the views of the participants toward what they gained and experienced throughout the course with a specific focus on the use of Google Jamboard as a platform for group metacognitive support. In the end, a total of 90 interviews were exposed to analyses.

### **2.3. Data Analysis Technique**

A thematic content analysis technique was employed for the data gathered from Google Jamboard meetings and three-phased interviews as it is a flexible procedure to provide complicated and diverse details through the identification, analysis and reporting of the emerging themes. An 8-step method developed by Zhang and Wildemuth (2016) was used in the analyses. Accordingly, the steps followed are (1)preparing the data, (2)definition of analysis units, (3)categorization and codifying schemes, (4)testing coding scheme on a sample of text, (5)codifying all the text, (6)assessing coding consistency, (7)concluding from the coded data, (8)reporting methods and findings. Based on these steps, the whole data were organized for the analysis, the meaning units were determined, the codification process began, and the data was grouped and labeled. The similar and different codes were compared and contrasted, and this process continued until final themes were appropriately obtained. To ensure trustworthiness, oral consents of each participant were obtained at

the beginning of the course. As for the analyses, the intra-rater reliability (87%) and member check were achieved. Indeed, in each course session, the instructor created opportunities for member check through encouraging the participants to expand their views expressed in the Google Jamboard meetings. It should also be noted that the instructor of the course was the participants' writing instructor in the previous face-to-face writing course; that is, the participants were already familiar with the teaching style of the instructor. Besides, the instructor (she is also the author of this paper) had a two-year experience in teaching the so-called writing course but this was the first time for her to teach the course in an online format and with the integration of Google Jamboard.

### **3. Findings and Discussion**

The current study was an attempt to enhance the EFL teacher trainees' writing skills through group metacognitive support in an online setting. Accordingly, the data elicited from Google Jamboard meetings and three-phased interviews revealed three main themes which are summarized in the following sub-sections.

#### **3.1. Metacognition about L2 Writers**

Metacognition about L2 writers indicates the way how the participants conceptualized the characteristics of a successful L2 writer. The overall results showed the participants' views that were grouped under the themes of L2 writer knowledge and L2 writer personality, both of which were accepted as influential in becoming effective L2 writers. The participants defined a good L2 writer as follows.

Regarding L2 writer knowledge, a good writer is the one who has a satisfactory command of L2 and a unique perspective toward the writing topic. Specifically, L2 writers should be knowledgeable about L2 mechanics and linguistic system including the knowledge of morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Moreover, they should be able to play with words or paint pictures with words. A good L2 writer is also the one who has a unique perspective toward the writing topic. Namely, L2 writers should have deep knowledge of the topic that they write about, propose an original voice toward the topic at hand, and distill complex thoughts into comprehensible ones. While doing these, L2 writers should be sincere and authentic. Further, they should also have writing experiences in numerous rhetorical modes. The following excerpt illustrates how one of the participants explained the aforementioned components of L2 writer knowledge.

**Excerpt 1:** ...Good writers can structure their writing in a logical, coherent manner that is easy for readers to follow. They can well-organize ideas and build an efficient argument point by point...They employ sensory details, figurative language, and imagery. What is more, good writers develop a unique tone that shines through their writing. Their perspective feels genuine, consistent, and appropriate for their purpose and readers.... (Participant 15/Interview 2)

Concerning L2 writer personality, a good writer is the one who is open-minded, receptive to criticisms, and ambitious. Being open-minded refers to being open to delving into new writing topics and various rhetorical modes through imagination, creative thinking, and inspiration. In



addition, L2 writers should be receptive to any criticisms (both content- and structure-related criticisms) made by either other writers or readers so that they could have better writings. Last but not least, they should be ambitious which indicates the need for sustaining a strong desire and determination to write better in spite of challenges faced. A relevant excerpt about being an ambitious writer is presented below.

**Excerpt 2:** I, as a teacher trainee and L2 writer, always keep on writing. Writing should be something endless for a good writer. Motivation for writing in L2 might sometimes decrease, but I always write in English without losing my desire to write. (Participant 21/Interview 3)

### **3.2. Metacognition about L2 Writing Tasks**

Metacognition about L2 writing tasks is related to the ways how the participants conceptualize the task demands and the nature of differing rhetorical modes. Interview accounts and Google Jamboard discussions showed three main task-related metacognitive stances including the task purpose, the ideal outcomes of the task, and areas to be improved.

The participants' understanding of the task purposes can be divided into two themes which are specific and general purposes. The specific purposes of each writing task were to foster the ability to use L2 in academic writing, to develop four language skills, and to expand knowledge of various rhetorical modes. Beyond that, general purposes were to promote creativity, imagination, engagement in L2 writing with the ultimate aim of equipping the participants with new qualifications such as critical thinking, questioning skills, and communication skills. These new qualifications were thought to be beneficial for their

development as professionals in the teaching field as is obvious in Excerpt 3.

**Excerpt 3:** If you write more, you interact with English more, thus you develop not only your writing skills but also reading, listening, and speaking skills...It also helps us improve our expertise in teaching since we are going to teach how to write in English. (Participant 3/Interview 1)

The ideal outcomes of the task are associated with the expectations of the participants from their final writing products in terms of L2 use and quality content. The participants believed that they were expected to write essays suited to the rhetorical mode assigned in a way that they could appropriately convey the intended message to potential readers. However, restricting the writing task to a specific rhetorical mode each week was found to be ineffective by one of the participants with the reason that rhetorical mode restrictions may limit the writer style and power. Instead, she suggested topic limitations which would make it possible for them to write in any rhetorical modes. Besides, to succeed in writing, they had the belief that they should write by paying attention to accuracy, fluency, and clarity because all these help them to present reader-friendly content. Hence, their essays are highly possible to be more interesting, memorable and well-organized. In relation to this, one participant expressed the following words.

**Excerpt 4:** If readers can visualize the content clearly in their minds, then it is a good piece of writing.... (Participant 29/Interview 2)

Areas to be improved refer to the issues which need to be addressed so that the participants' weaknesses in L2 writing could be minimized. The

participants perceived themselves as inadequate in writing effectively on certain topics related to fictional, literary or scientific subject matters. They also indicated their need for becoming familiar with diverse rhetorical modes just as targeted in this course. Other areas that the participants felt themselves weak were to ensure fluency (e.g., cohesion, coherence), use appropriate vocabulary items and punctuation marks. Lastly, they were also complaining about their inability to produce more interesting content for the readers. This is evident in Excerpt 5.

**Excerpt 5:** I try to stick to the assigned rhetorical mode, but I may write ordinary essays that are similar to each other in terms of style and format. I am not sure how I can make the content and structure of my essays more attractive... (Participant 11/Interview 1)

### **3.3. Metacognition about L2 Writing Strategies**

The writing strategies can be described as tactics that are employed by the participants depending on their cognitive processes during writing practices. On the whole, the participants stated that they used certain strategies in order to make their writing more absorbing and readable. The results demonstrated three categories which are dividing the writing process into steps, solutions to the writing troubles, tips for better writing experiences.

When assigned a writing task, the participants' first attempt was to divide the writing process into numerous steps. Those steps can be categorized under two main themes as pre- and post-writing steps. In pre-writing, they brainstormed about the rhetorical mode and topic. They conducted Internet-based research with the intent of collecting relevant information

on the writing purpose and characteristics of potential readers. This was followed by sample examination, deciding on the terminology and working on the unknown vocabulary items. The pre-writing ended with preparing an outline (in a mental, written or visual format) which would guide the participants in the writing process. In post-writing, to evaluate their own writing, the participants compared their writing with sample essays, based on the criteria given by the instructor. They assessed their writing based on the standards of rhetorical modes, especially taking L2 writing mechanics into account. They also checked for clarity, fluency, and organization paragraph by paragraph. Apart from these, during evaluation, they needed external feedback from peers or teachers more than self-evaluation. With regards to these writing steps, one of the participants shared his ideas as given in Excerpt 6.

**Excerpt 6:** I look for similar writings from Internet so that I can have some ideas on the topic and writing style. Afterwards, I usually divide my essay into a number of pieces and I connect them all in the end. When my essay is over, I always check what I write. I read it as if someone else wrote it so that I could criticize myself more efficiently. (Participant 9/Interview 1)

It is evident in the aforementioned writing steps that the participants did not refer to while-writing step that contains the formulation of the thesis statement, paragraphing, idea organization, choosing a title, developing main and supporting ideas and so forth. However, depending on this, it should not be claimed that they never resorted to those strategies in the

while-writing step. They did just not verbalize those somehow during group metacognitive support.

The participants' solutions to the writing troubles pinpoint to the fact that they sought help from their teachers, peers or family members when they faced with writing troubles. As a coping strategy, they read samples and rewrote/paraphrased what they had written. Or, they struggled to find more sources and changed their attitude toward the task if they felt a problematic situation while writing. Yet, they generally preferred to comfort themselves by sparing sufficient time to concentration in case of a writing challenge. Excerpt 7 is clear evidence for the applied solutions to writing troubles.

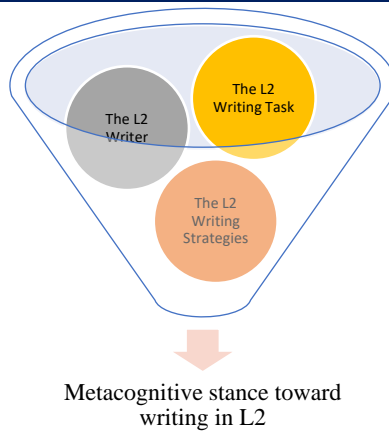
**Excerpt 7:** I take a break. Sometimes I just need to step away from the writing for a while. This helps me refresh my ideas. I ask for help. I ask friends, family or classmates to explain concepts I am struggling with or to give me suggestions to move forward. An outsider's perspective can be invaluable. (Participant 27/Interview 3)

The participants also suggested some tips for better writing experiences to manage the writing process effectively. They stated that they mostly relied on carrying out detailed research from the very beginning to the end of the writing process. They also assigned special importance to preparing drafts in the pre-writing step; they believed that they should construct at least one draft. The reason behind this was to make writing to be much more focused, which in turn assisted the participants to track their writing progress without neglecting any details. Besides, in the minds of the participants, reading and writing were strongly intertwined.

Namely, they already recognized that connecting reading and writing activities was a must to become better L2 writers. In this way, first, they knew that they had the chance to raise awareness of their own weaknesses and strengths in writing. Second, they could develop a unique writing style which was regarded as vital to build a sincere emotional bond with readers. This was accepted as the only way to improve creativity, inspiration, and multifaceted thinking during writing. Third, they could well-design the flow of their writings; particularly through the presentation of a compelling conclusion with the use of fancy words suitable to the context. Lastly, for the post-writing step, proofreading or feedback in terms of editing and revising the L2 use throughout the whole essay came to the forefront. The following excerpt is a summary of the suggested tips related to L2 writing fluency and mechanics.

**Excerpt 8:** Transitional phrases help your ideas flow smoothly from one paragraph to the next... Most importantly, I do a final check for typos, grammar mistakes, formatting issues, etc. Otherwise, minor errors may inhibit good writing. (Participant 14/Interview 2)

The above key themes provide some vital hints about the e.g., participants' metacognitive stance toward L2 writing, which revolved around the concepts of "the writer, the writing task and the writing strategies". In other words, perspectives toward the L2 writer, L2 writing task and L2 writing strategies constitute the backbone of the nature of the participants' metacognition of L2 writing as illustrated in Figure 3.



**Figure 3.** The dimensions of metacognition in L2 writing

Depending on the evolving metacognition of the participants in L2 writing, L2 writers' proficiency level of L2 should be at a satisfactory level and they should use the linguistic system of L2 creatively. In addition, L2 writers are perceived to develop an original point of view toward the writing topic, which means that they should not repeat others' writing styles or opinions. Beyond these, L2 writers should welcome criticisms about their writings. In that sense, they are regarded as being open-minded and ambitious. That is, they can see the positive aspect of each criticism and their motivation toward writing does not reduce because of those criticisms. These notions show that the participants developed a certain level of metacognitive knowledge toward L2 writing. Such development is important because metacognitive awareness is a central component of writing (Hayes, 2006) which is a highly complex and demanding process including a number of cognitive, metacognitive and affective variables (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006).

Regarding L2 writing tasks, in specific terms, the participants believe that the purpose of writing is to develop their four language skills as a result of learning about new rhetorical modes. In general terms, they are of the opinion that L2 writing tasks help them improve their creativity, imagination and engagement. It is promising to detect that they make association between the teaching profession and gaining experience in L2 writing. These can be regarded as clues on the effectiveness of instruction that aims to foster metacognition in writing (e.g., Beals, 2016; Negretti, 2015; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Teng, 2016). Moreover, the ideal outcome of the writings is perceived as accomplishing to produce writing samples which are fluent, clear and accurate. Yet, the participants think that they did not have sufficient knowledge about diverse rhetorical modes in L2 writing beforehand. Parallel to this, they define areas in which they need improvement as ensuring fluency, the correct use of vocabulary items and punctuation marks in their essays. To overcome such weaknesses, as intended in the current study, the combination of group feedback and self-explanation might be encouraged during group metacognitive support (Kramarski & Dudai, 2009).

Concerning L2 writing strategies, the most eye-catching finding is that the participants prefer to divide their writing process into steps. Such strategy could be beneficial because dividing a writing task into its component tasks can reduce the writer's processing demands (Torrance & Galbraith, 2006). In fact, the pre- and post-writing steps are dominant in the participants' writing process. However, the while-writing step is not referred either in the interviews or Google Jamboard discussions. It is

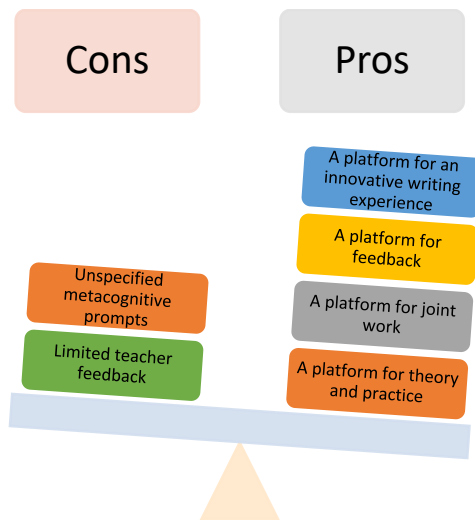


evident that the participants need guidance or instruction on this issue and such need is natural and predictable especially for novice L2 writers. This is also argued by Teng (2019) who emphasizes that individuals need to be informed about several metacognitive skills such as planning, monitoring and evaluation (Teng, 2019). Namely, the participants need to receive help for a better understanding of their monitoring strategies in the writing process. The metacognitive thoughts of the participants on the pre-writing step includes conducting research about the writing style and content, brainstorming, becoming familiar with the terminology and preparing an outline. Besides, the post-writing step contains the comparison of one's own writing with a typical sample written in the same rhetorical mode. It is also proposed that they need external feedback in the evaluation which is also conceptualized as a part of the post-writing step. Yet, metacognition requires one to self-regulate and monitor one's own learning, particularly for the development of higher-order thinking skills through interactions with peers (Teng, 2018). Similar to these metacognitive strategies in the post-writing step, the participants state that they need to receive help from others, look for various sources and samples, and allocate time to comforting themselves in case of writing troubles. Such needs can be accepted as normal because EFL students perceive writing as a difficult-to-handle activity (Teng & Huang, 2018). Likewise, teacher trainees consider writing a challenging activity for the reason that it necessitates them to exert cognitive and metacognitive effort (Zimmerman, 2013). Last but not least, the participants view "reading and writing" as a collaborative act

rather than a solitary act. This is another promising finding which indicates that the participants are aware of the strong links among those language skills.

### 3.4. Google Jamboard as a Platform for Group Metacognitive Support in L2 Writing

Within the scope of the study, the central focus was on the integration of Google Jamboard meetings and the participants' views toward the social and academic outcomes of these meetings. In the third interviews, the participants shared their thoughts on the effectiveness and appropriateness of Google Jamboard as a platform for group metacognitive support in L2 writing. The related results are summarized in Figure 4.



**Figure 4.** The pros and cons of Google Jamboard experience

Figure 4 demonstrates that the pros of Google Jamboard as a platform for group metacognitive support in L2 writing are more in number and

variety compared to the cons. Google Jamboard is found to be a suitable platform for expanding theoretical knowledge (e.g. it provides one to learn about new rhetorical modes, ensure coherence and cohesion, choose appropriate vocabulary items, use correct grammatical structures and punctuation marks) and practical knowledge (e.g. it offers chances to have more writing practices, gain comprehensive knowledge on the writing styles and content, be active in the learning process). The chance of active learning thanks to Google Jamboard is also proposed by Liu et al. (2022) who claim that students can reach higher levels of thinking using Google Jamboard allowing them to prepare texts, pictures and situations (Liu et al., 2022). In addition to new learning experiences, the use of Google Jamboard can be encouraged in order to benefit from the advantages of joint work (e.g., it creates opportunities for learning from others' perspectives, comparing oneself with others' way of writing, getting inspiration from others' work). Identically, Khuong (2022) discovers that Google Jamboard promotes communication among students and has a positive effect on essay writing in English. The participants also use Google Jamboard as a platform for feedback (e.g., it helps one realize others' weaknesses and strengths, make critical analysis of the writing process, self-evaluate). More importantly, Google Jamboard is perceived to be a platform for an innovative writing experience (e.g., it makes one to become more willing and self-confident toward writing, have fun especially with the use of sticky notes, get rid of prejudices about writing, become an effective writer, express oneself deeply in an online setting). Excerpt 9 provides evidence for these pros.

**Excerpt 9:** Jamboard was a bit confusing, but in time, I got accustomed to it. I believe that Jamboard was useful to better understand the nature of essays we wrote. We could evaluate the essays of our friends and compare each other's ways, strategies and styles of writing...Thus, we improve academically. I mean we learnt how to write coherent essays. (Participant 8/Interview 3)

All these show that the participants were reflective about what they experienced throughout the online L2 writing course with the help of the discussions taking place in Google Jamboard meetings. In the same vein, the role and advantages of Google Jamboard as a tool to reflect on previous learning experiences in reflective online sessions were also argued by Ndwambi et al. (2022). In terms of the cons in the use of Google Jamboard, two main disadvantages were elicited. First, to a certain extent, the participants found the teacher feedback that they received through Google Jamboard limited. This is resulting from the fact that the ultimate aim was to promote metacognition through peer feedback in an online setting. The rationale for this is related to the idea that group metacognitive support has positive effects on writing outcomes and metacognitive regulation since learning responsibilities are transferred from teacher to student step-by-step (Teng, 2020). Second, the metacognitive prompts were thought to be unspecified. In other words, the participants would prefer to receive more specific and diverse prompts that could trigger their metacognitive notions. This is obvious in Excerpt 10.

**Excerpt 10:** I really liked the way we used Jamboard. It was a new experience for all of us. However, I wish our teacher could provide more guidance and she would change the self-questioning statements each week. (Participant 27/Interview 3)

Considering that the pros outnumber the cons, the integration of Google Jamboard as a platform for fostering metacognition of novice L2 writers into an online writing course is highly logical and useful. This is because conventional teacher-centered EFL writing classes may result in the absence of metacognitive strategies due to the limited time allocated to the writing strategies and skills (Liu, Rahimi & Fathi, 2022). For this reason, teaching with technologies can be helpful (Ebadi & Rahimi, 2017; Lin, Barrett & Liu, 2021; Liu, Chen & Hwang, 2018; Rahimi & Fathi, 2021; Yilmaz, 2017). Additionally, through online applications, just as accomplished in the current study with the use of Google Jamboard, group metacognitive support can be designed for a great number of students. Hence, each participant contributing to the group metacognitive support has the chance to be inspired from more various perspectives shared by a great number of peers.

#### **4. Conclusion and Suggestions**

This study is a report of the EFL teacher trainees' metacognition about L2 writing along with their views on the use of Google Jamboard as a platform for group metacognitive support. The results revealed the three dimensions of the EFL teacher trainees' metacognition about L2 writing. The first dimension (L2 writers) indicates that a good L2 writer is competent in presenting a unique perspective and using L2 linguistic

system creatively. The second dimension (L2 writing tasks) shed light on how the EFL teacher trainees focus upon L2 writing mechanics more frequently than the writing content; build ties between the outcomes of the writing tasks and the teaching profession; benefit from the sample writings and the evaluation criteria shared by the instructor. The third dimension (L2 writing strategies) shows that the EFL teacher trainees do not concentrate on the while-writing step most of the time compared to the pre- and post-writing steps. Besides, it seems that they generally prefer peer evaluation over self-evaluation; and make use of the theoretical knowledge covered in the previous face-to-face writing course while revising or editing their essays. As for the use of Google Jamboard, the EFL teacher trainees are content with their learning experiences in Google Jamboard meetings although they believe that it could be better for them to receive more specific and varied metacognitive prompts and teacher feedback. Depending on these conclusions, the following suggestions could be made:

- L2 writers could be more explicitly guided in terms of how to assess the quality and originality of the writing content. This could be possible with the use of a separate dynamic criteria sheet for evaluating the content.
- Considering that L2 writers are able to make associations between what is achieved in this writing course and the teaching profession; similar courses could be designed and implemented for teaching other L2 skills (e.g., speaking, listening or reading).
- L2 writers could be encouraged to conduct extra research about the different or alternative ways for the writing styles of the assigned

rhetorical modes for the sake of improving their creativity, rather than solely focusing on the writing samples and the criteria selected by the instructor. For this, the instructors could direct L2 writers toward appropriate websites including writing samples published by authors from different cultures.

- L2 writers could be provided with help for how to be more reflective and critical about the while-writing step. To achieve this, think-aloud protocols could be utilized.

- L2 writers' attempts for creating links between what they learn as a result of the previous and current courses could be praised by the instructors from time to time. In this sense, L2 writers could be given a chance to compare their previous writings with the new ones through rubrics.

- L2 writers could be instructed to build a balance between the amount of peer evaluation and self-evaluation practices so that their self-awareness could be facilitated. To this end, writing instructors can make use of digital reflective journals that only focuses on self-progress.

- The use of Google Jamboard could be accompanied with other online tools (e.g., blogs, podcasts, padlet) that may help instructors provide more detailed metacognitive prompts for smaller groups of students. Thus, the sense of responsibility of students toward their own learning and peers' learning can increase in smaller groups, and writing instructors can take a more active role by contributing to the blogs and padlet as well as the analyses of the podcasts.

- Put it in a nutshell, Google Jamboard could be an advantageous and entertaining platform where L2 writers develop metacognitive skills through social learning opportunities.



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This research was designed, conducted and reported by the author herself and there is no potential conflict of interest.

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## Translanguaging by a Native EFL Teacher and her Turkish Students in Writing Classes: Language Analysis of Bilingual Speech in Class Audio Recordings

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## 1. Introduction

The present quantitative study examined translanguaging behavior of a native EFL teacher and her Turkish students during their academic writing sessions. Translanguaging was elaborated from the dynamic multilingual perspective. Translanguaging pedagogies (TP hereafter) as its implications in education include the integration of multiple languages in class to enhance teaching and learning (García & Wei, 2014). The present study aims to investigate the number of languages and proportion between the languages used, and the types of TP which were practiced during the academic writing session by both the teacher and students.

The research on translanguaging in EFL context is more about EFL teachers' and students' attitudes toward translanguaging measured by questionnaires and interviews.(Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Emilia & Hamied, 2022; Yang, Yang & Shi, 2023; Zhang, 2023). The research on analyzing translanguaging talk in EFL classes is also relatively common when the observations have been used as data collection tools (Cai & Fang, 2022; Emilia & Hamied, 2022; Yang et al., 2023). However, studies on translanguaging with a focus on the analysis of in class audio/video recordings seem not to be sufficient (Afriadi & Hamzah, 2021; Jiang, Gu & Fung, 2022). The research on analyzing EFL class recordings with native EFL teachers are given even less attention (Jiang et al., 2022). With an attempt to give insight into the issue, the present study aims to investigate the translanguaging pedagogies (TP hereafter)

practiced by a native English teacher and her Turkish students in EFL writing classes in Turkish university context. The analysis of the in-class recording aims to elicit the frequency and type of TP used during the writing session.

## **1.1. Literature Review**

### **2.1. Translanguaging**

The term translanguaging was first mentioned by Cen Williams (Williams, 1996) as a pedagogical practice where students shift between English and Welsh in a bilingual context (García & Wei, 2014). Since then the term has developed into Translanguaging Pedagogies with a wider pedagogical implications (García & Kano, 2014). In the context of the present study, Translanguaging pedagogies (TP) refer to the practices in which students and teachers use and shift between two or more languages to foster teaching and learning process (Canagarajah, 2020; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a; Council of Europe, 2020).

Based on the principles of multilingual ideology and the concept of dynamic bilingualism, TP acknowledges the inclusion of the languages utilized by individuals who are bi/multilingual as a cohesive and integrated linguistic system. (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b; García & Wei, 2014). In the classroom, TP opposes the monolingual perspective which, separates the languages, prioritizes the TL (Target Language) and ignores the rest known languages in the classroom. On the contrary, TP supports

the inclusion of learners' all languages while teaching TL in class (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b).

The research suggests the implementation of translanguaging pedagogies, which involve the integration of various languages in educational settings (Council of Europe, 2020; García & Wei, 2014). The present study centered on four cross-linguistic TP such as

- 1) translation,
- 2) comparison of languages
- 3) switching between languages
- 4) comparison of cultures (Council of Europe, 2020; García & Wei, 2014).

The Revised Hierarchical Model (Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Kroll & Tokowicz, 2005) is a psycholinguistic model which supports TP in terms of language integration, and matches the EFL emergent bilinguals context of the study. The Revised Hierarchical Model which was developed by Kroll and her colleagues, suggests that lexical and conceptual representation of the first (L1) and the second (L2) languages are separate but interconnected. According to this psycholinguistic model, to access the meaning of L2 words emergent bilinguals use indirect connections via first language translation equivalents (L2 → L1 → Conceptual system), however proficient bilinguals, have settled direct links to L2 (L2 → Conceptual system), and can reach the meanings of L2 words without depending on their L1 (Ellis, 2008, p. 375).

## **1.2.Previous Research**

The research on translanguaging has been mainly on multilingual contexts. However, recent research has also started to investigate translanguaging in EFL contexts (Emilia & Hamied, 2022; Liu & Fang, 2020; Yang et al., 2023; Zhang, 2023). That research reveals that translanguaging has been implemented in the classroom to teach grammar and vocabulary, compare English and students' L1, give instructions and feedback, engage in small talk, ask and answer questions, for clarifications and the like (Turnbull, 2018; Yuvayapan, 2019). The research also reported that TP was used for constructive, cognitive, interactive, and affective purposes in EFL classrooms (Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021).

The research in EFL writing contexts showed advantages of TP on students' writing skills such as higher performance, participation and interest in essay writing. (Turnbull, 2019; Zhang, 2023). Additionally, translanguaging pedagogies promote EFL students' content comprehension, effective communication and critical awareness during academic writing sessions (Yang et al., 2023).

The research in which in class observations and recordings of EFL classrooms were analyzed, revealed that TP were practiced with interpretive, managerial, and interactive functions (Emilia & Hamied,

2022). The results of observation analyses showed that various TP were used such as deepening understanding, explaining key terms, and creating classroom interaction (Cai & Fang, 2022). Other observation findings indicated that learners invariably adopted translanguaging practices of their teachers,(Anderson, 2022). Findings from recorded EFL classroom interaction between teacher and students indicate that EFL target language were mainly used for instructional purposes that is, explanations, clarification, and classroom management (Afriadi & Hamzah, 2021).

The research above is mainly involved with non-native EFL teachers, however, a study managed to examine 11 native English teachers' engagement with TP in Hong Kong TESOL classrooms, by analyzing video recordings of classroom interactions. The findings indicated not intensive ambivalent translanguaging practices, such as disguised translanguaging, and multimodal translanguaging without involving students' L1 (Jiang et al., 2022).

### **1.3. Research Questions**

The present study aimed to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the frequency of the words spoken in English and Turkish during the writing lesson?

RQ2: What are the functions of TP used during the writing lesson?

## **2. Material and Method**

Quantitative design was followed for the present study.

### **2.1. Participants**

The participants, selected through purposeful sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000), consist of a native EFL teacher and her university students (N=16) in the English pre-sessional program of a Turkish university. The teacher is British; however, the students are of Turkish nationality.

### **2.2.Data Collection Instruments and Procedures**

Data was collected from audio recordings embracing a 50-minute academic writing session in English pre-sessional classes. Data was recorded in July 2018 during the summer school lectures and then transcribed according to the CHAT Transcription Format (MacWhinney, 2000) (See App. A for CHAT transcribed sample)

### **2.3.Data Analysis**

Data were analyzed through descriptive statistics (for language analysis) by using CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) Program (MacWhinney, 2000; Wei & Moyer, 2008). First, each word in the transcribed recordings was labeled with the language it was used in. After that, the type of used TP were coded under the related utterances by

two independent coders (See App. A for coded sample). The codes and transcription conventions were used according to the CHAT Transcription Format. Finally, for the language analysis, FREQ command was run to list (See Appendix B for FREQ command output sample) 1) the frequency of words used in each of the languages, and 2) the frequency of the codes representing TP implemented during the lesson, and their functions. The commands for the analysis were selected from the manual of the CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) Program (<https://talkbank.org/manuals/CLAN.pdf>).

#### **2.4. Validity and Reliability**

For the reliability of the codes used for the analysis of the recordings, inter-coder reliability analysis using the Kappa statistic was performed to determine consistency between two independent coders of the data (Landis & Koch, 1977). The inter-coder reliability for eight codes of recording data was found to be  $Kappa = ,72$  (Sig= 0.000;  $p < 0.001$ ) which is a significant result and considered to be a substantial agreement between two coders (Viera & Garrett, 2005).

The analysis of the recordings was conducted using the CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) Program (MacWhinney, 2000) in order to improve the reliability of the study by providing standardized coding and transcription standards (Wei & Moyer, 2008). The codes,

transcription protocols, and analytic instructions were chosen from the CHILDES (Child Language Data Exchange System) (MacWhinney, 2000).

## Findings and Discussion

### 3.1. Findings Related to RQ1: What is the frequency of the words spoken in English and Turkish during the writing lesson?

The findings in Table 1 indicated that during the writing session, English and Turkish were spoken both by the teacher and students. However, the frequency of the English words/tokens ( $f=880$ ) was much higher than that of the Turkish words/tokens ( $f=66$ ). The teacher spoke in English ( $f=666$ ) much more than Turkish ( $f=8$ ). English was also the prevailing language ( $f=214$ ) for the students, but their Turkish was more actively integrated ( $f=58$ ) compared to their teacher's ( $f=8$ ).

**Table 1.** Frequency of English and Turkish words/tokens

Participants	Teacher	Students	Total
Frequency (f) of English words/tokens	666	214	880
Frequency (f) of Turkish words/tokens	8	58	66

### 3.2. Findings Related to RQ2: What are the functions of TP used during the writing lesson?

Table 2 below indicates that only two types of TP were practiced in the classroom: 1) switching between Turkish and English and 2) comparing



cultures. Table 2 also shows the frequency, the functions and the languages used during TP practices.

**Table 2.** Frequency of codes representing the functions of TP used during the writing session.

Codes	Teacher		Students	
	Frequency	Language	Frequency	Language
Giving feedback / answers	12	EN	10	EN
			1	EN-TUR
Asking questions	1	TUR	6	EN-TUR
			2	EN
Jokes / Fun	2	EN-TUR	1	TUR
Instructions/explanations	6	EN		
Informal talk	1	EN-TUR		
Group work			1	TUR
Comparison of cultures	1	EN		

Both teacher and students preferred English for formal functions like giving instructions, explanations, feedback, and answers during guided activities:

TCH: Ok perfect thank you what about another one what about the education system soccer and basketball what did you say there are many answers possible here.

STS: There are several similarities and differences between soccer and basketball.

On the other hand, when asking questions for clarifications with individual students the British teacher spoke in students' local language.

When students asked questions to their teacher intra-sentential switches were very common:

STS: How can I *bunun gibi mi?*

TCH: Yes, like this.

STS: Do you have *aaa o zaman no*.

TCH: *Aaa o zaman no ok*.

Turkish was preferred by the students in group works, while intensive code-switches were used for fun and informal talks by both parties:

TCH: Yes, similar is adjective that is why ok let's do some practice of this please look at page xxx *fotokopilerden var mı?*

The teacher compared American and English culture to explain vocabulary and pragmatic issues by speaking only in English:

TCH: What is the meaning of utility?

STS: Use.

TCH: Utility is actually an American word, means like electricity gas water all of the things you need in your homes ok anymore same or different things.

### 3.3. Discussion

The findings of the present study support the literature. To begin to integrate students' L1 to teach the target language is in line with the Revised Hierarchical Model (Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Kroll & Tokowicz, 2005) because as emergent bilinguals, students of the present study use indirect connections to access the meaning of L2 words via L1 equivalents (Ellis, 2008, p. 375).

Additionally, the findings of the present study are in line with previous research. Just like in the present study, TP, specifically language choice and switches, were used for effective communication (Yang et al., 2023), with interpretive, managerial, and interactive functions (Cai & Fang, 2022; Emilia & Hamied, 2022). Other common finding is that learners adopted translingual practices of their teachers (Anderson, 2022), the students switch to the language mode which is used by their teacher. Other shared finding is that EFL target language was used for instructional purposes that is, explanations, clarification, and classroom management (Afriadi & Hamzah, 2021).

Finally, the translanguaging practices of the native English teacher from the present study mirrors her native colleagues from the previous research. Just like them, the teacher of the present study followed non-intensive weak form of TP by giving priority to the TL (Jiang et al., 2022).

#### **4. Conclusion and Suggestions**

The findings of the present study may lead to some implications such as including translanguaging in teacher education/training, and in-service training with native teachers of the foreign language. Also, to raise awareness among native EFL teachers, translanguaging should be piloted and experienced in some educational contexts.

The limitations of the present study are that it lacks qualitative methods, and triangulation with other quantitative data.

Suggestions for further research include conducting longitudinal studies in different contexts with other teacher and student profiles.

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All authors contributed equally to the e-book section. There is no conflict of interest.

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## Appendix A

### CHAT transcription format and coding sample

---

\*STS: yes.  
%spa: \$ANS:ENG  
\*JUL: we can work together if you want, five minutes making sentences for the same and different places.  
%spa: \$INS:ENG  
@Bg: Clarification  
\*STS: how can I şukadar@s gibi@s mi@s?  
%spa: \$QST:TUR:ENG  
\*JUL: yes like this.  
\*STS: bu@s şekilde@s mi@s getirecez@s araya@s?  
%spa: \$QST:TUR:ENG  
\*JUL: ne@s?  
%spa: \$QST:TUR  
\*STS: mesela@s bu@s şekilde@s mi@s for this much money?  
%spa: \$QST:TUR:ENG  
\*JUL: we could say it like this xxxx.  
\*STS: ok.  
\*JUL: you are listening to nice music.  
@Eg: Clarification  
\*JUL: ok are you ready to talk about some answers, obviously I will not ask all the students because we have no time so does anyone want to give us comparing sentences any answers.  
%spa: \$INS:ENG  
\*STS: it is too xxxx xxxx xxxx xxxx but xxxx all in english.  
%spa: \$ANS:ENG  
\*JUL: ok excellent wonderful thank you anyone else.  
%spa: \$FEE:ENG  
\*STS: it is too xxxx xxxx xxxx xxxx but the other apartment xxx all in english.  
\*JUL: may be we can share xxxx xxxx.  
%spa: \$ANS:ENG  
\*STS: it is too xxxx xxxx xxxx xxxx but the other apartment is more expensive xxxx all in english.  
**09aug02[E|CHAT] 9**

## Appendix B

### FREQ command output sample

```
freq +l +t*JUL +t*STS +s@s:eng +s@s:tur trans.acad.wrt *.cha
Mon Oct 02 20:48:19 2023
freq (09-Aug-2020) is conducting analyses on:
  ONLY speaker main tiers matching: *JUL; *STS;
*****
From file <trans.acad.wrt.cha>
Speaker: *JUL:
  8 i@s:eng
  1 l@s:eng
  4 a@s:eng
  2 aaa@s:eng
 20 about@s:eng
  1 absolutely@s:eng
  1 actually@s:eng
  1 adjective@s:eng
  1 after@s:eng
  3 all@s:eng
  1 also@s:eng
  1 alternative@s:eng
  1 although@s:eng
  1 american@s:eng
  2 an@s:eng
 11 and@s:eng
  1 another@s:eng
  1 answer@s:eng
  6 answers@s:eng
  5 any@s:eng
  1 anymore@s:eng
  3 anyone@s:eng
09aug02[E|TEXT] 22
```

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## Does ChatGPT Facilitate Academic Writing: EFL Pre-Service Teachers' Views

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## **1. Introduction**

The majority of pre-service teachers now urgently need to develop productive skills in order to advance their academic writing successfully. In the more computerized than ever before daily environment of today, it is obvious that we must consider this environment as a tool that aids in improving its users' learning abilities in addition to being a tool for task performance. Studying in the twenty-first century requires students to acquire a variety of skills and aptitudes in order to keep up with the rapid speed of the information revolution. To become autonomous learners, this calls for the development of specific academic talents in students that may impact the enhancement of their learning processes. The teaching and learning process must take into account the workforce, a crucial domain, which calls for learners' knowledge and skill levels to be updated on a regular basis. The high level of competition model of evaluations and assessments, the depletion of corporate resources, the quick changes in technology, and the difficulty in finding and keeping brilliant, skilled, and trained teachers are just a few of the new issues that university students in today are progressively experiencing. With the introduction of Web-based technology for communication, Newman, Couturier, and Scurry (2004) indicate that the change of the educational experience in higher education is unavoidable. Hence, one of the most significant competitive benefits that many learners want to achieve is presenting performance better and faster than others. Universities all across the world are increasingly offering courses in an online setting. Higher education institutions are constantly implementing online

teaching innovations (Weldon, Ma, Ho, & Li, 2021). Many conventional approaches are changed by the use of technology with the goal of advancing these institutions' achievement and earnings. Those who work in these institutions should efficiently design a transformation plan in order to have a clear vision for the future of the institution (Lick & Kaufman, 2003). Reading and writing are regarded as socially constructed acts, as Gee (2005) contends, as their significance can only be fully grasped by taking into account the context in which they are produced. This suggests that literacy is not a fixed, unchangeable concept but rather a collection of skills that are always being developed and improved. These abilities change as a result of the varying contexts in which they are entrenched. The changing nature of literacy practices has been influenced by a variety of causes. The use of digital technologies in writing processes is among the most important. Numerous studies conducted in the last few decades, including those in the fields of linguistics, didactics of languages, and technology for education, have shown how literacy practices have changed as a result of the increasing importance of technology in our lives (Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, Castek, & Henry, 2017). As a result, the idea of digital literacies<sup>1</sup> (Lanham, 1995), a phrase that includes the abilities required to incorporate technology into literacy processes, has come into being. Thus, the potential for enhancing academic writing abilities through the integration of artificial intelligence (AI), such as ChatGPT (Chat Generative Pre-trained Transformer – open AI model, which is a distinctive example), in automated environments has become an imperative because the constructivist approach is

prevalent and learning by doing is seen as an important requirement for most programs in higher education. This is possible with combining the academic writing lessons supervised by facilitators. It is important to think about how instructors and facilitators might affect learner-centered settings.

### **1.1. Background**

There is a dearth of in-depth study on the digital writing procedures used by university students (e.g., Gourlay & Oliver, 2018). It is crucial to take care of this situation. This is due, in part, to the fact that student writing is frequently treated as an issue (Stanley, 2010). In parallel, the demands placed on students have increased in recent decades, at least in the context of Europe (Castelló & Donahue, 2012). Therefore, further research is required to enhance writing teaching and, more broadly, to make academic writing skills available to all students. This study has connections to some notions that university students are "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001). According to this perspective, those people don't need any instruction, at least not from higher education institutions, to use digital technology. Higher education papers do, however, call for a particular kind of digital competence: pre-service teachers must be able to locate and read a significant amount of electronic literature, switch between texts, connect texts to their own projects, address scientific information, evaluate such data, and convey this content in a manner that satisfies the requirements of the particular academic community. Because of this, academic writing requires knowledge of how digital technology can be used for certain academic writing purposes, knowledge that may

not be widely shared among students. Digital writing, according to Dahlström (2019) (see also Van Waes & Schellens, 2003), renders it simpler for students to develop their own writings. However, digital writing also poses difficulties, particularly when it comes to building text summaries, or what Haas called "text sense" (Haas, 2013). Digital writing is basically essential of students today. According to Lea and Jones (2011), there is a deficit of research that thoroughly examines what students actually do in situations when they are utilizing various programs or digital applications, or how meanings are created as a result of and through involvement with these technologies.

## **1.2. AI (ChatGPT) In Academic Writing**

Artificial intelligence (AI) tools that support writers during the writing process and tools that review and assess the veracity and accuracy of written material can be broadly categorized into two categories in academic writing. In order to write and prepare papers, authors can use tools like ChatGPT, natural language processing, which can comprehend and produce human-like language. ChatGPT is a large language model (LLM) that can produce replies to texts that resemble those of humans since it has been built on a vast corpus of text. The ability of AI-based solutions to reduce time and increase productivity in academic writing is one of its most important benefits (Golan, Reddy, Muthigi & Ramasamy, 2023). Natural language processing algorithms, for instance, can assist pre-service teachers in locating and fixing problems in their writing, allowing them to concentrate on the subject matter rather than the mechanics of their writing. Therefore, AI can also be utilized to help with



translation and abstracting duties, which can speed up detailed literature studies and increase their effectiveness. Additionally, ChatGPT can produce precise outlining for reports, emails, publications, procedures for research, proposal for grants, informed consents, emails, insurance letters of medical necessity, and other written materials.

Therefore, with data processing applications, artificial intelligence has shown to be a useful tool for academia in expediting the research process. AI systems can identify significant findings by processing massive amounts of data, possibly saving researchers hours of human data analysis (Stone, 2020). It is clear that AI is capable of producing intelligible statements, and it is getting harder to distinguish AI sentences from those written by humans. According to a 2022 article in the magazine *Nature*, researchers were already utilizing chatbots to help them plan their ideas, get feedback on their studies, create code, and even synthesize study literature (Van Dis, 2023). The capacity for this technology to create spam and other undesirable outcomes, however, is also very concerning for our civilizations (Van Dis, 2023).

Additionally, the utilization of AI for text generation is emerging in the context of academic writing, along with the potential benefits and risks it poses (Wilder, Weßels, Gröpler, Klein & Mundorf, 2021), such as the submission of entirely AI-generated texts as test questions. However, the accuracy of AI-based instruments for creating text based on ChatGPT has significantly increased, and the results, such as translations or texts, are frequently dissimilar from human ones (Dwivedi et al, 2023). At present, all of the duty for academic writing rests with teachers and students, both

in terms of the writing's creation and its final product. Given that multiple players are involved in the process of developing AI and managing its repercussions, this responsibility distribution needs to be examined much more. There is a critical need for the research community to engage in a thorough discussion on the potential benefits, risks, and limitations of these tools on academic writing given the potential for ChatGPT to disrupt numerous professions (Dergaa et al, 2023). Therefore, the objectives of this essay are to (i) present an overview of ChatGPT's impact on academic writing and (ii) investigate the implications for pre-service teachers regarding the drawbacks or benefits of ChatGPT, as well as other relevant data.

Research questions;

1. What is the most difficult thing about academic writing?
2. Do the pre-service teachers use ChatGPT for writing before? (For what, and under what condition)
3. What are the opinions of the pre-service students on academic writing with ChatGPT? Is there any difference between academic and general writing? (positive and negative)

## **2. Method**

### **2.1. Model**

The qualitative research methodology was used to conduct this study. Research that uses qualitative data gathering techniques, such as observing, interviewing, and document examination, as well as a qualitative procedure to expose perceptions and occurrences in the

natural world in a comprehensive manner is referred to as qualitative research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013).

## **2.2. The Participants**

30 pre-service teachers from several Turkish universities' faculties of education make up the study group for the research. These pre-service teachers are enrolled in English language teaching departments. A convenient and intentional sampling technique was used to create the study group. 22 of the participants were males and their ages varied 20-23.

## **2.3. Instruments and Procedure**

In this study, firstly, an information form created using Google Forms and including demographic information (such as age and gender) was used. Since the pre-service teachers are not from a single university, it was designed in this way to facilitate remote access. After the demographic information form, an interview form was created to ascertain the pre-service teachers' academic writing practices using ChatGPT in online settings. 3 open-ended questions make up the semi-structured interview form.

The data gathered from the interview form was used to determine the students' writing practices in digital contexts. The advice of subject-matter experts and earlier, comparable studies in this field were consulted to prepare the interview form. The opinions of the pre-service teachers regarding their thoughts on academic writing in AI environments, the features they use in their academic writing, whether or not they have previously used ChatGPT for writing and under what circumstances, as

well as the benefits and drawbacks of doing so, were gathered through interviews.

#### **2.4. Data Gathering**

Permission from the Zonguldak Bülent Ecevit University's Ethics Committee was required in order to perform the study. After obtaining permission, an online interview form was conducted with the pre-service teachers via their e-mails. The pre-service teachers' data were gathered during the first semester of the 2022–2023 school year. All of the participants whose information was gathered for this study gave their consent and took part voluntarily. It was made clear to the management of the school and students that the data would be utilized for an academic study and that the findings would not be made open to public. Additionally, no student identity information was obtained. A quasi-qualitative technique was used for the analysis, which involved reading and analysing the sources to find pertinent information to support the study objectives.

#### **2.5. Data Analysis**

The data analysis employed content analysis. The pre-service teachers' responses to the items were reviewed first before the data analysis. The themes and codes were then developed underneath the themes based on the pre-service teachers' responses. The concepts in the responses were used to create the codes that were gathered from the data. The ideas that were discussed in the views of pre-service teachers were identified once the codes were exposed, and these responses were grouped under the

corresponding themes and codes. The distribution and frequency of the students' opinions were taken into account while interpreting the data.

## **2.6. Validity and Reliability**

In order to ensure the authenticity of the research, necessary steps have been followed. In order to thoroughly and properly reflect the academic writing patterns of pre-service teachers, research in this subject were scanned using the interview form. The interview form's items were then developed. Additionally, it is crucial for the research's content validity that all form fields pertaining to students' writing practices be filled out. As a result, it also enhanced the research's content validity. Five items, each asking about academic writing, were used in the study to gauge their habits. The fact that each item in the research challenges a separate view is crucial for its validity. To protect the pre-service teachers from being impacted by various circumstances and events, the data for the study were collected in an online environment. The pre-service teachers were also made aware that the information collected from them would not be used to determine their grades, avoiding them from becoming anxious and providing inaccurate information. In terms of application conditions, these circumstances help the research's validity.

In order to ensure the validity of the research, necessary steps have been followed. The interview form's items were double-checked by specialists to ensure that the students wouldn't misinterpret their meanings, and changes were made in accordance with their recommendations. The time allotted for pre-service teachers to complete the form's questions was adequate. By making sure that the pupils could readily respond to the

questions, an effort was made to support the reliability. By choosing students from various colleges, the validity of the study was attempted to be guaranteed. The researcher who conducted the study and a subject-matter expert analysed the data from the interview form in order to assure reliability in the study. Aspects that the two researchers concurred upon were immediately approved. Agreement (positive and negative conclusion) was obtained on the points of contention.

### **3. Findings**

#### **3.1. Findings about the RQ1**

The first research question is about the difficulty, the pre-service teachers have ever faced before, in academic writing, in order to state a problem about the subject to solve. Since there is not a problem, then it is useless to try to give any solution about it. The respondents were questioned further regarding the difficulties with developing content-based academic writing abilities. Most of the students (n=20) agreed that it would be much better if they had the opportunity to obtain that kind of instruction more explicitly using various technology tools, so they wouldn't be as uncomfortable with the vocabulary and academic writing customs of their department. pre-service teachers' opinions on academic writing are generally divided into two categories. These headings represent opposing viewpoint of pre-service teachers gave their comments on academic writing in six distinct ways under the heading of "positive opinion." The students provided 24 different opinions about writing in digital environments under the heading of negative opinion. Some pre-service teachers voiced multiple opinions. When the pre-service teachers'

positive and negative thoughts were carefully reviewed, it became clear that they had overwhelmingly expressed unfavourable opinions. Despite the fact that some students believe academic writing is not normally tough, there are much more students who have negative perceptions than good ones. The extracts below demonstrate the expectations of the pre-service teachers:

*“Academic writing may seem appealing in terms of content at first glance, but it is a challenging subject for many students, including myself. Academic writing is significantly different from regular general writing. Although the basic principles remain the same, there are numerous rules that need to be followed in practice.”*

*“I get anxious when it comes to academic writing because even in general writing courses, I struggle, and academic writing requires knowing specific vocabulary and using them with different sentence structures.”*

*“Terminology and structuring the topic with headings and filling them in, even citing sources, all involve specific rules. Academic writing is definitely much more challenging than general writing courses.”*

*“...writing academically is not as hard as all my friends think because it is clear how to set a sentence or to what extent you can generate opinions or facts.”*

As can be understood from above examples, most of the pre-service teachers (%86) complained about the harness, the rules they must follow, the terminology of a specific field, and the structure of academic writing. %14 of the pre-service teachers did not see any difficulty on academic writing learning.

### 3.2. Findings about the RQ2

The second research question is whether the pre-service teachers have ever used ChatGPT for any piece of writing before. When the pre-service teachers' opinions were examined, it is seen that most of them (96%) used ChatGPT at least for once before, however, it may be insufficient first impression for some;

*“Using ChatGPT was suggested by my friend, so I gave it a shot. It was correct but also quite strong (it can write a poem about getting into a university, which I asked for entertainment). When I repeatedly asked ChatGPT the same question, sometimes it would give me different replies.”*

*“I have never used it to complete assignments for school or write essays (I enjoy writing, so I do that myself).”*

*“I used it for a try. Because the ChatGPT tends to be brief and frequently lack the degree of knowledge needed to produce a paper on a certain topic, I came to the conclusion that they aren't particularly skilled at writing papers after using them.”*

*“Yes, I personally utilized ChatGPT and explored with it; it is quite helpful for assignments.”*

The distinctive examples of the pre-service teachers demonstrated that they have used it several times to evaluate ChatGPT's capabilities. It is evident that they were really taken aback by its capacity to create essays or writings, especially those that used sources. Additionally, it can be used to provide outlines of writing, which they can definitely see being very beneficial for pre-service teachers themselves. Additionally, the participants thought that ChatGPT provides the precise details on different kind of genres such as historical events, fashion or architecture, making it simple for them to obtain a trustworthy source.



### **3.3. Findings about RQ3**

The last research question is about the advantages and the disadvantages of using ChatGPT for academic writing and, if any, there is difference in utilizing ChatGPT in general or academic writing. After assessment of the given answers of the pre-service teachers, it can be said that they seem ChatGPT to be advantageous (%82) rather than disadvantageous (%18). The responds, as divided into two main headings, however, it is better to give sub-headings for each one. For advantageous part (see Table 1), the sub-titles are separated according to the facilitation type of ChatGPT for given answers as; cognitively, linguistically, motivational and structurally.

**Table 1.** The views of the pre-service teachers on advantages of ChatGPT in academic writing

<b>Advantages</b>	
1. Cognitively	problem solver
	easier to organize thoughts
	easier to summarize
2. Linguistically	confirming multi-word chunks
	helpful semantically
	-to find meanings
	-synonyms & antonyms
	-lexical variances
	frequency of words
3. Motivational	less anxiety
	more motivated
	more self-esteem
4. Structurally	shaping the text
	textual patterns

According to the Table 1, it has been noted in comments on ChatGPT's benefits that pre-service teachers frequently get cognitive advantages by utilizing ChatGPT to resolve a dilemma, arrange their ideas, or wrap up a particular work of literature. In addition, participants have discovered a number of advantages to using ChatGPT, as indicated in the linguistically subsection. They use it to accomplish objectives including detecting meaning, building sentence structures, identifying synonyms and antonyms, fostering linguistic diversity, and mastering the frequency and common usage of words in texts. One of the most favoured advantages of using ChatGPT is these features. When pre-service teachers use ChatGPT to complete academic writing assignments, they appear to have benefits in terms of motivation, including decreased anxiety, increased

self-assurance, and increased drive. Furthermore, it is observed that pre-service teachers who want to engage in academic writing using ChatGPT find it advantageous in terms of structuring the text and emerging a textual pattern or to keep up with the rules of available text. Some of the pre-service teachers' opinions are as follows:

*"I've used ChatGPT in the past, and I've found it to be incredibly beneficial for me. Whether I'm using it for funny questions, personal inquiries, or aid with schoolwork, it facilitates my ability to quickly and efficiently obtain information. As a future teacher, I especially enjoy trying new things. I now have fresh perspectives on teaching a foreign language thanks to it."*

*"To evaluate ChatGPT's capabilities, I utilized it several times. Its capacity to compose writings academically, especially ones employing sources, really amazed me."*

*"By offering synonyms, antonyms, and contextually suitable words, ChatGPT can help us expand their vocabulary."*

*"It can provide grammar and syntax hints, assisting us in improving the general coherence and clarity of our writings."*

*"ChatGPT can help us articulate our ideas more clearly by assisting us in creating succinct, well-structured phrases."*

*"It can act as a brainstorming buddy, generating fresh insights and ideas that students may not have initially thought of."*

*"I can explore many topics and deepen their learning by having access to a wealth of knowledge and information through ChatGPT."*

*"As I receive direction and approval for my writing attempts, it can lessen isolation and boost self-efficacy."*

*"By fostering a non-judgmental environment where I may openly share my ideas and receive helpful feedback,*

*ChatGPT can help all of us overcome our academic writing-related fears.”*

For disadvantageous side, the sub-categories are separated from the perspectives of ethical and linguistic features as can be seen in Table 2.

**Table 2.** The views of the pre-service teachers on disadvantages of ChatGPT in academic writing

	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Ethical	teacher is better
	easier to cheat
	easier to copy
	lacking productiveness of the students
	unfair grading by teachers
	challenging the reliability
Linguistical	shortened inspiration
	under developing the academic writing skills
	inaccurate answers (such as suggesting wrong previous studies)

As can be understood from the Table 2, the disadvantages defined by the pre-service teachers of EFL are divided into two categories; ethical and linguistic issues. From the former ones, the pre-service teachers reported that a teacher can never be replaced by ChatGPT, and it is important to learn with a real teacher. Also, it is clear that the pre-service teachers have some other points such as it is much easier to cheat or copy how ChatGPT directs or recommends. Additionally, the pre-service teachers believe that using ChatGPT lacks the productiveness of the students and shortens the inspiration as it frames the subject. Academic writing facilitating with ChatGPT is also criticized about grading their assignments by their teachers, because they believe that it is hard to

distinguish whether it is written by a student of ChatGPT since it can imitate human. Therefore, the reliability of the papers are staggered. From the letter point of view, the pre-service teachers accredited that ChatGPT lacks academic writing skills. Furthermore, it gives inaccurate answers while searching some previous studies about a subject. Some of the answers of the pre-service teachers about the third research question is presented;

*“Because these chatbots are so brief and frequently lack the degree of knowledge needed to produce a paper on a certain topic, I arrived at the opinion that they aren't particularly skilled at writing papers after using them. They don't truly employ educated phrases when you respond to a request; instead, they just use very brief, filler words. The idea is reasonable in my opinion, but it needs to be greatly improved before it can be applied frequently.”*

*“...not only does it provide answers to all of your questions, but it also fully negates the need for tutors. However, it should be highlighted that because it is simpler to cheat and simply duplicate what the AI is supplying, it can be utilized unethically even while it can be used constructively...”*

*“...you should usually turn to the teacher if you want to learn more about anything relating to the assignment. The teacher is a lot more trustworthy than any website. When you're off from school, on the weekends, or during the summer, ChatGPT can be useful. Additionally, it's critical to understand how to use actual books and not solely rely on the internet...”*

*“...It would deprive students of any motivation to learn, which would encourage laziness, and I believe it would be detrimental to schools since it might cause students to become weak in their literacy abilities, academic writing, or essay-writing skills...”*

*“...additionally, this is unfair to the professors because they would not be able to detect academic dishonesty and would essentially be judging the work of an AI rather than real people...”*

#### **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

In this study, a research model was created using an online semi-structured interview form for 30 pre-service teachers. The responses to three open-ended questions in this form, created through Google Forms, were consulted and analyzed by experts and researchers to conduct content analysis. The results derived from the analysis of the responses provided by pre-service teachers have shown that they do not have a bias against the use of ChatGPT in academic writing. Moreover, they believe that the use of ChatGPT is advantageous cognitively, linguistically, motivationally, and structurally. However, a small group of pre-service teachers agreed that the use of ChatGPT could raise various ethical problems and hinder the linguistic acquisition process of academic writing to some extent.

The primary theoretical premise of the current study was that a reference tool, particularly one that makes use of chatbots like ChatGPT, can engage pre-service EFL teachers in an intellectual collaboration and broaden their knowledge. Overall, ChatGPT was demonstrated to improve their intellectual performance for resolving lexico-grammatical issues that developed during academic writing by acting as an intellectual partner through a cognitive division of labor. According to Lauter, Elder, Hill, and Congdon (2004), vocabulary knowledge plays a vital part in the success of having high language abilities and linguistic competency.

ChatGPT gave those who took part access to lexical and grammatical choices that they would not have been able to immediately access because these items had not yet been gained or fully internalized (i.e., problem solving), to give only the most basic description of the common division of labor that occurred in problem solving. For this reason, it necessitates proper word usage in the proper context, a broad vocabulary, distinct concepts regarding the pertinent subject, and a combination and structuring of those stages in the paper (Rusinovci, 2015). It was also able to evaluate and modify their form-meaning mappings (such as outlining or summarizing) using ChatGPT. As a result, the pre-service teachers together found solutions to linguistic issues that the participants alone could not have—at least not as successfully—found. The pre-service teachers regard themselves as more confident and less apprehensive throughout the process, which keeps their motivation high. More than ever, instructors are in charge of planning a future in which chatbot models like ChatGPT will support, not replace, teachers. This is important for navigating the complex world of academic research (Fok & Weld, 2023). However, a small percentage of the participants also expressed varied levels of irritation with the linguistic and ethical procedures associated with using ChatGPT. Although using ChatGPT was intended to increase their above-described cognitive, linguistically, structural, and motivational knowledge, the participants occasionally found the tool's use to be morally taxing because writing development takes time and teachers of writing at various levels are expected to face more difficulties and exhibit patience (Hyland, 2013). The misalignments

between issues like unfair grading or feeling like cheating or copying, discouraging academic writing skills, unreliability of the papers, and suppressing their inspiration within the affordances offered by the tool are to blame for the majority of these conflicting perceptions among participants in the current study. It can be resolved that when AI grows more prevalent, academia should be aware of this possibility and decide how to treat it ethically (DuBose & Marshall, 2023). The participants were all aspiring EFL instructors, and they all approached academic writing for course assignments and degree requirements in ways that normally prioritized meaning, content, organization, and coherence. But the existence and use of ChatGPT increased their awareness of language issues and gave them a way to deal with them immediately. The affordances provided by ChatGPT occasionally encouraged participants to pay closer attention to linguistic aspects of writing than they would have otherwise. On these occasions, the major participant objectives and the tool's affordances were out of sync, and ChatGPT consultation lessens an additional cognitive weight. When they were first starting to write, when their attentional resources were primarily concentrated on content rather than rhetorical considerations, this misalignment frequently occurred. This is in line with some participants' critical comments in Hafner and Candlin (2007) who claimed that utilizing ChatGPT and other AI technologies caused them to focus excessively on linguistic structure at the expense of substance. This interpretation strongly suggests that the general educational contexts, the kinds of academic writing tasks, the stages in the writing process, and the goals



and expectations arising from each stage are major influences on individual writers' intellectual partnerships with and perceptions of reference resources (i.e., chatbots). This interpretation is in line with the findings from previous research (Hafner & Candlin, 2007; Yoon, 2008). Additionally, pre-service instructors admitted that they used ChatGPT to check their prior knowledge rather than to learn something new about their topic during the completion process (Park, 2010; Yoon, 2008, for examples). In addition to serving as writing tools, many resources (such as ChatGPT) also influence the writing that is done (Gourlay & Oliver, 2018).

## **5. Suggestions**

The study's conclusions only apply to department that teach English as a second language. As diverse language education situations demand different competencies at varying levels, the conclusions drawn from various studies may offer varying findings and views. Even while including the opinions of various stakeholders is beneficial, particularly for requirements analysis, it is believed that more detailed data may be required to triangulate the results of this study. For instance, tracking students writing over time may help paint a clearer picture.

### **Thanks and Information Note**

This book section complies with national and international research and publication ethics.

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The author has no conflict of interest.

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## The Effect of Pre-Task Planning on the Complexity of Advanced and Intermediate Turkish Male and Female EFL Learners' Writing Performance

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## 1. Introduction

The importance of writing in EFL competence has consistently been highlighted in second - language studies, but despite the extensive study of this ability, it has consistently been regarded as the most difficult and troublesome area for EFL students (Salimi, Shafaei, & Kuhi, 2012). The large percentage of students find that learning English is a challenging activity that occasionally bores them, necessitating drive and attention. Finding a means to assist EFL learners in producing complicated writing is one of the main challenges for many scholars. Students can become more inspired by practicing writing according to the appropriate level of assignment difficulty. Some of them point out that various writing tasks and possibilities aren't provided enough time (Rahmanian, 2004).

ESL instructors have used the process method in writing for over 40 years, following the dominance of regulated writing and traditional rhetoric (Manchon & Roca de Larios, 2007). Regulated writing prioritizes form over ideas, reinforcing speech behaviors. Current-traditional rhetoric supplements this by teaching various rhetorical approaches but maintains an emphasis on form, correctness, and finished projects.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) categorized writing process strategies into four phases. The emotive phase encouraged writers to express freely but was criticized for lacking theoretical support. In the 1970s, the cognitive psychology approach to writing emerged, emphasizing goal-driven, collaborative processes and the differences between expert and novice



writers. However, this approach faced criticism for overemphasizing the individual, neglecting linguistic knowledge, and disregarding context.

A psychological context for writing was later established as a response to these limitations, viewing writing as a socially constructed behavior (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Various perspectives, including psychology, language networks, ethnography, and sociolinguistics, contributed valuable insights to this social constructionist view. Ethnographic studies recognized the influence of social settings on language usage.

The discourse community concept integrates social and cognitive approaches, considering interactions among readers, writers, texts, and social contexts. Swales (1990) defined a discourse community as one engaged in debate, establishing norms, using specific vocabulary, and sharing common goals. Acknowledging discourse communities is essential for higher education writing curricula. However, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) cautioned against elite members within a discourse community exerting undue influence over information sharing among members.

From two distinct angles, the question of how and whether EFL students plan their language is significant. Because of its meaning-centered and outcome-oriented character, TBLT has drawn criticism since it could at most, result in the development of impoverished and pidginized speech, that is of minimal benefit for L2 learning (Seedhouse, 1999). But as a number of studies have shown, giving students definite objectives to complete may encourage them to develop complicated and precise

language (Ellis, 2009). As a result, findings from this line of research may enhance task-based language teaching in EFL/ESL situations by providing instructors with procedural alternatives that have been extensively examined from multiple angles and across numerous contexts.

Planning is one of the task condition variables that impacts the development of a foreign language, and it has conceptual significance for SLA scholars as well as practical significance for language instructors (Ellis, 2005). By offering students clear tasks to do, language learning may be improved (Skehan and Foster, 1999). In order to prioritize one of these components of language over the other, second-language students frequently find it challenging to pay attention to both form and meaning at the same time, especially those with minimal skill in the target language. Nevertheless, if they are given the chance to plan a task, language students have the chance to organize their speech in order to accomplish their communicative objectives, relieving them of the burden of processing load. In light of this, it has been theorized that pre-task planning might help reduce mental workload during language comprehension, enabling students to focus on different facets of language and resulting in better task completion. Technically, it may be hypothesized that language students prioritize meaning over form, focusing their sustained attention on language and giving form only excess or extra attention (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008).

Numerous research have examined the relationship between planning and task achievement of language students due to the significance of the task planning element in students' task completion (Yuan and Ellis, 2004; Mochizuki and Ortega, 2008). Just a few research have focused on written task completion, and the studies reviewed mostly involve oral task performance (Ellis and Yuan, 2004). This finding underlines the need for more research to examine learners' writing performance and task planning in a wider context and for a variety of task kinds. Additionally, efficiency, intricacy, and correctness have been the three key elements of language output used to analyze the consequences of planning (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). There is general agreement that pre-task preparation improves fluency, while outcomes for complexity and accuracy are less clear (Ellis, 2009). Therefore, this research focused on finding the effects of pre-task planning on the complexity of advanced and intermediate Turkish male and female EFL learners' writing.

### **1.1. Significance of the Study**

Many educational developments in l2 learning have been influenced by studies in task-based language teaching (TBLT). Employing task focus as a pedagogical strategy brings up more avenues for considering learning (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Some educators switched to a task-based curriculum in an effort to move away from the "pseudo-communication" that results from in-class exercises that don't have any real-world application. Others believed that assignments did not focus on real-world communication but instead tapped into learners' innate processes for Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Leaver & Willis, 2004). It relates

to any organized language teaching work with a clear purpose, appropriate material, a precise working technique, and a range of consequences for individuals who complete the assignment (Ong & Zhang, 2010).

According to McKinnon and Rigby (2004), this method gives the learner the chance to learn more spontaneously. Students utilize language as a tool to perform a goal that is the main focus of teaching process. In light of this, the task is an activity in which learners utilize language to accomplish a certain goal. Willis (1996) saw it from the perspective of the learners and backed up the notion that TBLL is a learner-centered method in which the students acquire the target language via independent, task- and project-based group activities. In TBLL, language learning turns into “a process that involves opportunities for learners to contribute in communication, where making meaning is primary” (Skehan, 1996, p.38).

Activities and tasks have taken center stage in SLA research and language education ever since the advent of task-based teaching methods in the 1980s. A task-based curriculum should arrange pedagogical exercises to gradually resemble the requirements of real-world goal tasks (Robinson, 2005). The numerous papers on TBLL, instruction, and assessment demonstrate the vibrancy of the field of task-based learning in SLA (Ong & Zhang, 2013; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Several research provide broad evidence in favor of the proposition that giving adult language students the chance to plan ahead of time or while completing a

task enables them to create speech of a better standard in the Second Language.

According to VanPatten (1990), it might be challenging for English learners to focus on both form and meaning at once while engaging in a communicative action. According to Ellis (2005), planning lessens the cognitive burden experienced during language production processing, enabling second language learners to more accurately recall information on different linguistic features from working memory. Providing students with planning time may also enable them to create pre-made strategies for various circumstances (Robinson, 2005).

According to Ellis (2005), planning is involved in even communication that appears to be straightforward and spontaneously occurring, which highlights the importance of planning in the subject of language learning. Ellis (2005) believes that “planning is essentially a problem-solving activity; it involves deciding what linguistic devices need to be selected in order to affect the audience in the desired way” (p.3). Planning gives you the ability to pay attention to language as form whether it's pre-task that is before the task performance, during the task performance or rehearsal performance (Ellis, 2005). Researchers studying second language acquisition and English educators both have a conceptual concern in planning and its function in language instruction. According to Ellis (2009), it conceptually evaluates statements made about the foundation of linguistic variety in students. Practically speaking, it can assist guide language teaching approach by examining the question of

whether or not to give learners time to plan and, if so, what sort of preparation should be done and for how long.

The study by Kargozari and Ebrahimi (2019) compared the effects of pre-task preparation and online planning on the performance of EFL university students with varying degrees of accuracy, fluency, and complexity of language use. In order to do this, 134 EFL students of various proficiency levels were given the job of writing narratives under two alternative planning scenarios (Pre-task planning and on-line planning). The investigation's findings demonstrated that neither pretask preparation nor online writing had an impact on writing accuracy. It was also discovered that pre-task planning, in contrast to online planning, caused the students to create more sophisticated written language. Online planning also resulted in more fluent written language than pre-task planning did.

According to Ashoori, Tootkaboni and Pakzadian (2020), different pre-task preparation time circumstances have distinct effects on the narrative writing output of Iranian EFL learners. 70 Iranian intermediate EFL students who were enrolled in a private language course in Iran participated in their study. Pre-task planning was operationalized at three levels: not at all, for five minutes, and for ten minutes. The analysis of the data showed that although there were significant differences in the performances of the groups with and without pre-task planning conditions, different pre-task planning time lengths did not result in significantly different productions in terms of accuracy, complexity, and

fluency. Additionally, it was discovered that pre-task preparation time significantly increased students' fluency in written narratives.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, there is a limited number of studies examining the impacts of planning time conditions in writing skill and demonstrating their impacts on many language performance components (Yuan and Ellis, 2003 and Ahmadian and & Tavakoli, 2011). After reviewing the findings of previous studies on planning time and task complexity, it was discovered that strategic planning time and task complexity, as well as their combined effects on L2 learners' written performance, have been rarely investigated in the literature, leaving a gap in the literature. As a result, the goal of this study is to examine the influences of strategic pre-task planning on the task complexity of EFL learners' written performance and compare it in different proficiency levels.

By tackling significant concerns in pre-task planning research, the current study adds to the body of knowledge, which may be its most important contribution. According to the Cognition Theory, the results of the study might support the idea that planning is a task feature that may contribute to the richness of Second - language production. The outcomes of this study may also be advantageous for other professional groups. The best way to provide students with pre-task preparation time before beginning their writing tasks may be understood by syllabus designers or curriculum developers.

### **1.2. Research questions**

The present study aimed to address the following research questions:

RQ1: Does pre-task planning significantly affect the complexity of the male intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production?

RQ2: Does pre-task planning significantly affect the complexity of the female intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production?

RQ3: Does pre-task planning significantly affect the complexity of the male advanced Turkish EFL learners' written production?

RQ4: Does pre-task planning significantly affect the complexity of the female advanced Turkish EFL learners' written production?

RQ5: Is there any difference between the effect of pre-task planning on the complexity of the advanced and intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production?

## **2. Material and Method**

### **2.1. Design of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of providing male and female EFL learners in intermediate and advanced proficiency level with pre-task planning on developing their writing complexity. Quantitative research methodologies have to be used because of the posed research questions and the requirement to record a process in operation. According to Castellan (2010), education-related study has generated and will continue to yield a growing body of knowledge. This gain in understanding doesn't happen by accident; rather, it results from the study of academics, empiricists, thinkers, and professionals and depends on the points they make, the difficulties they raise, and the



concerns they define. Regarding the sampling procedure which was done non randomly using a convenient sampling style, the current study falls within the quasi-experimental category that used a pre-test and post-test procedure accompanied by a comparison procedure.

## **2.2. Participants of the Study**

The population of the study included all male and female advanced and intermediate level learners studying English as a Foreign language at Institute of Foreign Languages at Gaziosmanpasa University. However, since the researcher did not have the possibility to choose the sample of the study randomly and had to conduct the study on eight intact classes, the convenient sampling was used.

Therefore, eight classes comprised of totally 160 male and female participants of advanced and intermediate levels students in Tokat Gaiosmanpasa University, were selected and homogenized based on the proficiency test. After taking the proficiency test, the eight intact classes were assigned.

In order to choose the participants of the study and make sure of their proficiency homogeneity, the researcher used CAE Cambridge test. The researcher used the means and standard deviations to decide about the homogeneity of the sample. Based on the results 152 learners whose proficiency test scores were lower than mean plus standard deviation and the ones which fell above mean score minus one standard deviation were taken as the participants of the study. After homogenizing the participants, the classes were assigned randomly as advanced male and female control groups, advanced male and female experimental groups,

male and female intermediate control groups and male and female intermediate experimental groups.

### **2.3. Instruments and Materials**

The following materials and instruments were used for implementing the treatment and data collection procedure.

#### **2.3.1. CAE Cambridge proficiency test**

The CAE proficiency test is a comprehensive evaluation of a person's language skills. The exam consists of four tests designed to gauge students' proficiency in the English language as one of the Cambridge English Qualifications was formerly known as Cambridge English: Advanced (CAE). Employers and colleges can see that a student has the language abilities they want by looking at their detailed, high-level qualifications.

#### **2.3.2. Writing pre and post tests**

To establish the similarity of the participants in all groups and also to evaluate the learners writing proficiency level and also to check their writing complexity level, they were given a pre-test for which the topic was selected from the writing section of the Advanced Writing (Williams, 2018). It is preferable to note that the pre-subject test and allocated time were the same for the all groups. A similar test was used at the end of the treatment to check learners proficiency and complexity at the end of study period. The learners were supposed to write in the form of a three paragraph writing essays including thesis statement, body and conclusion.

#### **2.3.3. Pictorial tasks used as topics**

The pictorial assignments were utilized to clarify various aspects of the desired themes in both verbal and graphic ways. The participants generated and organized ideas for the writing sections by using images from English literature, the internet, and magazines that related to the subjects of the writing assignments. By doing this, the photographs were actively debated throughout the pre-task stage. After completing the pre-task preparation stage, participants started working on their actual writing projects.

#### **2.4. Data Collection Procedures**

In order to collect the required data to answer the posed research questions, first the permissions were taken from the Ethics Committee and the classes were determined. Later, the researcher attended the first session and explained the objectives of the study as well as the required procedures. After giving the participants needed assurance about the confidentiality of the collected data, their consent was taken by giving them the participation consent form. As the next step, CAE proficiency test was given to the sample of the study to ensure their proficiency homogeneity. Based on the results, 8 learners were spotted as the outliers of the study whose scores were not used during data analyses. However, because of institute regulations and observing the research ethics, the outliers attended the classes throughout the study. Then, they were assigned as male and female control, and experimental groups in intermediate and advanced levels. After determining the participants of the study, the writing pre-test was given to all groups to check their

writing proficiency homogeneity and also to evaluate their writing complexity.

Following the pre-test, participants in each group underwent writing interventions for 12 sessions in order to carry out the research. The interventions were the same for all the experimental and control groups, though the topic given each session was different. Participants in the experimental groups received handouts with topic-related visuals and tips along with the topics to be studied. The picture activities were used to visually and verbally expound on various aspects of the desired themes. The clues included independent and complicated clauses that were marked to explicitly focus the participants' attention on complicated structures. To illuminate the extended thoughts on the tasks, however, some warm-up descriptions equivalent to the content of the clues used in the experimental groups were offered by the teacher in the control groups. This was done to stimulate the participants' schemata connected to the chosen topic.

It is crucial to remember that the instructor also gave the participants directions on how to complete their practice in these 12 intervention sessions. The control group's teacher was instructed to complete writing projects on a regular basis. The instructor in the experimental group was tasked with delivering an essentially different kind of instruction that placed a strong emphasis on pre-task planning activities. Pre-task planning was used extensively and clearly. This means that the instructor had to complete a detailed pre-task preparation process with the students at the beginning of each session before the

commencement of real writing activities. The learners were encouraged to concentrate on the topic-related photos and the clues, which included emphasized independent and complex sentences, throughout the pre-task preparation period, which lasted 10 to 20 minutes. During the pre-task phase, there was interactive discussion on the images and hints. After completing the pre-task preparation process, participants started working on their actual writing projects.

After 12 sessions of treatment which was given to the participants as discussed above, a writing posttest was given to the participants in all control and experimental groups to compare their writing complexity to the one obtained from pre-test.

### **3. Findings and Discussion**

#### **3.1. The Proficiency Test Results**

As it was mentioned, the participants were assigned to the chosen intact classes based on placement test or final test scores which highlighted their general proficiency homogeneity. However, the researcher decided to give a standard proficiency test to the participants of each level. Based on the test scores the learners whose score fell within the range of one standard deviation plus and minus standard deviation were chosen as the participants in each proficiency level. Based on the result of the tests, total number of 8 learners were considered as outliers and their performance scores were not taken into consideration while analyzing the data. It is worth mentioning that according to the regulations of the study and research ethics, the outliers were allowed to attend the classes during the study period and participated in all activities. After homogenizing the

participants of the study and assigning them as control and experimental group, their writing proficiency and their initial writing complexity status prior to the implementation of treatment.

### **3.2. Analyzing the Data Obtained from Writing Pre-test**

To check the participants' writing proficiency and initial writing complexity, their scores on writing pre-test which was given before conducting the treatment in the experimental groups were analyzed. The learners were supposed to write in the form of a three paragraph writing essays including thesis statement, body and conclusion, for which the topic was selected from the writing section of the Advanced Writing (Williams, 2018). The essays were scored by two raters. In addition, they used syntactic complexity and syntactic variety to score participants writing products. The proportion of clauses to T-units (the smallest final unit, along with any associated dependent clauses) in the participants' work is related to syntactic complexity.

After administering the Writing pre-test, the papers were scored by the researcher and another experienced teacher to avoid any prejudice in the scoring process, to do so, the researcher used an inter-rater reliability test. A measurement called inter-rater reliability is used to check for consistency in the categorization of a categorical variable by two individuals (raters or observers). It is an essential measure for assessing how well a coding or measuring system has been implemented. Another experienced EFL teacher scored 10% of the data to verify inter-rater reliability in order to apply it and confirm that the scoring technique was accurate enough to be coded by only one researcher.

**Table 1.** computing the inter-rater reliability for Writing Pre-test

Correlations		Rater one	Rater two
Rater one	Pearson Correlation	1	.728
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.021
	N	152	152
Rater two	Pearson Correlation	.728	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	
	N	152	152

The reliability of the scoring method was shown by the correlation coefficient of .72 between the two raters. After being assured of the reliability of the scores, the pre-test scores of all groups were analyzed. Regarding the quantitative nature of the data, the researcher used a Kolmogorov- Smirnov test to check the distribution normality of the data. The results are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Normality Test for the Distribution of Pre-test Scores  
**One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test**

		pretest
N		152
Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>	Mean	1.4079
	Std. Deviation	.36810
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.238
	Positive	.238
	Negative	-.150
Test Statistic		.238
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.071

Based on the results of data distribution normality shown in Table 2, it was concluded that the score followed a normal distribution since the p-value equaled .71 which was higher than the set alpha level for these types of studies that in turn rejects the deviation of scores from a normal distribution. Therefore, regarding the quantitative nature of the data and their normality, the researcher will use parametric tests to analyze the data. Continuing with the data analysis, the researcher examined the initial complexity of participants in all groups and also examined the homogeneity of EFL learners' writing complexity. To do so, first the descriptive statistics of the pre-test performances of the participants were compared. The results are tabulated in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Descriptive statistics of pre-test scores.

Descriptives								
pretest								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
expadvancemale	18	1.5278	.38242	.09014	1.3376	1.7179	1.00	2.00
expadvancefemale	20	1.3375	.35610	.07963	1.1708	1.5042	1.00	2.00
controladvancemale	20	1.3750	.36724	.08212	1.2031	1.5469	1.00	2.00
controladvancefemale	18	1.2500	.30917	.07287	1.0963	1.4037	1.00	2.00
expainterfemale	20	1.3750	.34887	.07801	1.2117	1.5383	1.00	2.00
expainterfemale	17	1.5588	.40048	.09713	1.3529	1.7647	1.00	2.00
controlintermale	20	1.4375	.38793	.08674	1.2559	1.6191	1.00	2.00
controlinterfemale	19	1.4211	.36374	.08345	1.2457	1.5964	1.00	2.00
Total	152	1.4079	.36810	.02986	1.3489	1.4669	1.00	2.00



Regarding the mean scores and standard deviations of the group shown in Table 4.3, it is observed that there exist some differences between the groups in terms of means which may indicate heterogeneity of the groups and difference in the level of complexity in writing. Hence, the possible difference was examined statistically using an ANOVA test.

**Table 4.** Comparing the mean scores of the groups using ANOVA test.

ANOVA					
pretest					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.258	7	.180	1.348	.232
Within Groups	19.203	144	.133		
Total	20.461	151			

Based on the results of the test, although some differences in the complexity of the writing performances of the participants in different groups prior to the treatment was observed, analyzing the data using an ANOVA test revealed that the observed differences were not statistically significant since  $p = .23$  which indicated the homogeneity of participants at the onset of the research.

**Table 5.** Normality test for the distribution of pre-test scores

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test		
		posttest
N		152
Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>	Mean	1.6168
	Std. Deviation	.34516
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.202
	Positive	.172
	Negative	-.202
Test Statistic		.202
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.086

According to the results of distribution normality, it was revealed that the significance level was  $p = .08$  which was higher than  $.05$ . Accordingly, it was determined that the posttest scores of the participants were normally distributed and hence, based on the quantitative nature of the scores and their normal distribution, the researcher used t-test to compare pre-test and posttest scores of the groups to answer the research questions.

### **3.3. Answering Research Questions One to Four**

The study aimed at comparing the effect of pre-task planning on the writing complexity of advanced and intermediate EFL learners across gender. So, the pre-test and posttest performances of the learners were analyzed using paired samples- t-test to find of the possible effect. For the first part, the analyses were done to answer first and second research questions focusing on the effect of pre-task planning on the complexity

of the male and female intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production.

**Table 6.** Descriptive statistics of pre-test and posttest scores of intermediate groups.

Paired Samples Statistics					
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	expaintermalePre	1.3750	20	.34887	.07801
	expaintermalePost	1.7250	20	.35262	.07885
Pair 2	expainterfemalePre	1.5588	17	.40048	.09713
	expainterfemalePost	1.7647	17	.25725	.06239
Pair 3	controlintermalePre	1.4375	20	.38793	.08674
	controlintermalePost	1.5250	20	.31309	.07001
Pair 4	controlinterfemalePre	1.4211	19	.36374	.08345
	controlinterfemalePost	1.5263	19	.34253	.07858

According to the mean score comparison shown in Table 6, it can be observed that there are considerable increases in the means scores in post-test, which may be indicator of the development of complexity of learners' writing in post-test. However, to get assured of the significance of the differences, the data were analyzed using some paired samples t-tests. The results are shown in Table 7.

**Table 7.** Comparing the writing complexity of intermediate groups in pre and posttests.

Paired Samples Test		Paired Differences								
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
					Lower	Upper				
Pair 1	expainterfemalePre expainterfemalePost	-.35000	.39236	.08773	-.53363	-.16637	-3.989	19	.001	
Pair 2	expainterfemalePre expainterfemalePost	-.20588	.41679	.10109	-.42018	.00841	-2.037	16	.049	
Pair 3	controlintermalePre controlintermalePost	-.08750	.23333	.05217	-.19670	.02170	-1.677	19	.110	
Pair 4	controlinterfemalePre controlinterfemalePost	-.10526	.25435	.05835	-.22786	.01733	-1.804	18	.088	

Based on the results of the paired samples t-test, the answer to the first research question which dealt with the effect of pre-task planning on male intermediate learners writing complexity was positive since the p value equaled .00 which rejected the first research hypothesis stating that Pre-task planning does not have any significant effect on the complexity of male intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production. To check the second research hypothesis claiming that Pre-task planning does not have any significant effect on the complexity of female intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production, the mean scores and writing complexity of the learners in pre and posttest were compared and it was concluded that the difference is statistically significant.

In the next part of data analyses, the pre-test and posttest scores of EFL learners in advanced level were compared. The results are shown in Tables 8 and 9.

**Table 8.** Descriptive statistics of pre-test and posttest scores of advanced groups.

Paired Samples Statistics					
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	expadvancemalePre	1.5278	18	.38242	.09014
	expadvancemalePost	1.7917	18	.28761	.06779
Pair 2	expadvancefemalePre	1.3375	20	.35610	.07963
	expadvancefemalePost	1.7500	20	.38044	.08507
Pair 3	controladvancemalePre	1.3750	20	.36724	.08212
	controladvancemalePost	1.5000	20	.33443	.07478
Pair 4	controladvancefemalePre	1.2500	18	.30917	.07287
	controladvancefemalePost	1.3611	18	.24588	.05795

According to the mean score comparison shown in Table 8, it can be observed that there are considerable increases in the means scores in post-test, which may be indicator of the development of complexity of advanced learners' writing in post-test. However, to get assured of the significance of the differences, the data were analyzed using some paired samples t-tests. The results are shown in Table 9.

**Table 9.** comparing the writing complexity of advanced groups in pre and posttests.

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper				
Pair 1	expadvancemalePre expadvancemalePost	-.26389	.29044	.06846	-.40832	-.11946	-3.855	17	.001
Pair 2	expadvancementfemalePre expadvancementfemalePost	-.41250	.52110	.11652	-.65638	-.16862	-3.540	19	.002
Pair 3	controladvancemalePre controladvancemalePost	-.12500	.37609	.08410	-.30102	.05102	-1.486	19	.154
Pair 4	controladvancementfemalePre controladvancementfemalePost	-.11111	.41322	.09740	-.31660	.09438	-1.141	17	.270

To address the third and fourth research questions, which were trying to find the possible effect of pre-task planning on female and male advanced learners' writing complexity, paired samples t-test was run on the pretest and posttest scores. Based on the results, the third and fourth research null hypotheses claiming that pre-task planning does not have any significant effects on the complexity of female and male advanced Turkish EFL learners' written production were rejected and the research hypotheses were accepted. Based on the results answering first to fourth research questions, it was concluded that pre-task planning had significant effect on promoting complexity of both advanced and intermediate EFL male and female learners. Considering the improvement in all experimental groups and also taking their similarity

in pre-test into consideration, the research conducted another ANOVA test to check whether any of the groups outperformed the others or not. More precisely, the analysis was done to answer the fifth research question stating whether there was any difference between the effect of pre-task planning on the complexity of the advanced and intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production.

### 3.4. Answering the Fifth Research Question

According to the fifth research question and taking the effectiveness of pre-task planning on writing complexity of both male and female and both advanced and intermediate EFL learners as well as their similarity in pre-test, the posttest scores were compared to check outperformance of any group over others. The descriptive statistics are shown in Table 10.

**Table 10.** Descriptive statistics of posttest scores of advanced groups

Descriptives						
posttest						
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
expadvancemale	18	1.7917	.28761	.06779	1.6486	1.9347
expadvancefemale	20	1.7500	.38044	.08507	1.5719	1.9281
expaintermale	20	1.7250	.35262	.07885	1.5600	1.8900
expainterfemale	17	1.7647	.25725	.06239	1.6324	1.8970
Total	75	1.7567	.32093	.03706	1.6828	1.8305

According to the descriptive statistics, some of the groups to a small extent have outperformed others obtaining a higher mean score.

However, these differences were checked by an ANOVA test in terms of statistically being significant.

**Table 11.** Comparing the mean scores of the groups using ANOVA test

ANOVA					
posttest					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.044	3	.015	.138	.737
Within Groups	7.578	71	.107		
Total	7.622	74			

Investigating the ANOVA results showed that the observed differences between the mean scores of the groups were not statistically significant since  $p = .73$  which was higher than  $.05$  the set level for current study. Hence, the fifth null hypothesis stating that there isn't any significant difference between the effect of pre-task planning on the complexity of the advanced and intermediate Turkish EFL learners' written production was accepted and none of the groups outperformed the others.

### 3.5. Discussion

This study attempted to investigate the effect of pre-task planning on the complexity of the Turkish EFL male and female learners' written production at advanced and intermediate proficiency level. Regarding the significance of pre-task planning, it is important to note that, according to Ellis (2005), preparation is a fundamental component of all both spoken and written language usage. In other words, all writers and speakers must decide what they want to say or write and how to express. Preparation is one of the many crucial activities associated with the creation of written



material, according to Ellis (2005). This amount of significance might be explained by the fact that preparing is a technique that relieves students of the strain and stress associated with real-time communication and ultimately helps them succeed (Sangarun, 2001).

According to the research questions which referred to whether pre-task planning has any effect on the complexity of the Turkish EFL learners' written product or not, based on the obtained findings, it was observed that in the all-experimental groups, there were a significant difference between the students' scores of pre-tests and post-test. Therefore, it was concluded that pre-task planning significantly affected the written product complexity of Turkish EFL learners. In fact, the mean and standard deviation of students in scores of pre-tests and post-test had significant differences. However, in the control groups, the mean and standard deviations had no significant difference in pre-test and post-test. Accordingly, the analysis of data to answer fifth research question and spot the outperforming group revealed that there were no significant differences between the complexity levels of the learners after the implementation of the treatment (pre-task planning). In addition, it was found that gender had no influence on the effect of pre-task planning on writing complexity in no of the proficiency levels studied in this research.

There have been studies that have explored at the same factors as this one. For instance, several researchers have examined the effects of planning on second language learners' writing performance, including Ellis (1987), Ortega (1999), Robinson (2003), Wendel (1997), and Yuan

and Ellis (2003). But the outcomes of these research have been varied, and sometimes even contradictory. According to the findings of the aforementioned research, when a language learner is given the opportunity to organize his or her intended communication (for example, pre-task planning), he or she may do much better than when he or she is not given planning time.

Similar to the findings of the present research, the findings of the studies previously stated demonstrated that pre-task planning increased student fluency as well as the improvement of writing and other abilities. For instance, research on the effects of pre-task planning on written output, such as that by Sharafi-Nejad, Raftari, Mohamed Ismail, and Siew (2016), Kargozari and Ebrahimi (2019) and Ashoori Tootkaboni and Pakzadian (2020) has shown that planning improves language performance in terms of fluency, complexity, and correctness. According to several research, allowing for pre-task preparation increases accuracy (Kawauchi, 2005).

The findings of study agree with Khorasani, Pandian, and Ismail (2012) who studied the effects of different planning conditions on learners' complexity, fluency, and accuracy of written task production. Similarly, they concluded the students undergoing planned conditions outperformed the students undergoing unplanned one in terms of the fluency of their productions as the experimental group participants did the same. The findings of current study are in line with the one carried out by Kargozari and Ebrahimi (2019) who compared the effects of pre-task preparation and online planning on the performance of EFL university students with

varying degrees of accuracy, fluency, and complexity of language use. Similarly, it was also discovered that pre-task planning caused the students to create more sophisticated written language. In addition, in line with the findings of current study, Ashoori Tootkaboni and Pakzadian (2020), found that there were significant differences in the performances of the groups with and without pre-task planning conditions in terms of accuracy, complexity, and fluency.

#### **4. Conclusion**

Investigating the effect of pre-task planning on male and female EFL learners' writing complexity in advanced and intermediate language proficiency levels revealed that pre-task planning has significant improving effect on both male and female learners writing complexity in both levels, it was also revealed that gender had no significant effect on the results since both gender groups had similar results. In addition, the effect of pre-task planning didn't differ in different proficiency levels. As was already mentioned, numerous researchers, including Ellis (2005), have emphasized the value of pre-task planning, asserting that since organising is one of the various procedures involved in the creation of written material and is regarded as a crucial step in language learning, its significance in writing should be considered in relation to other composing processes like monitoring, modifying, and assessing.

The research revealed some evidence that pre-task preparation led to an increase in learners' written complexity using a plethora of indicators. The results are supported by the information processing hypothesis, which holds that humans have limited capacity and cannot fully pay

attention to all facets of language during task execution. Hence, they need to plan in advance to be able to improve their performance regarding different aspects of language they are using. Swain's (1995) output theory also supports the study results. Accordingly, students may be encouraged to identify their issues and try to resolve them during their real performance via the strategic planning of the task performance. The study findings are also in line with Skehan's (1998) cognitive theory, which holds that language users differ in their preference for accuracy or complexity, with certain activities preferring individuals to prioritize accuracy while others prefer complexity. When given the chance to plan their performance on a decision-making exercise, students choose being more sophisticated.

In conclusion, it can be claimed that pre-task planning seems to have provided the students with the opportunity to conceptualize the content of the essay, engage in advance planning, and rehearse the language needed. In other words, the pre-task planning has enabled the learners to prepare the language for later production during which they can devote more attention to syntax or grammar resulting in more advanced structures.

#### **4.1. Limitations of the Study**

The present study was bound to suffer a number of weaknesses and limitation. Since the present research was conducted in a specific setting, it is necessary to note a few factors that prevent generalization of the findings. First of all, there weren't many individuals participating in the research. Almost twenty learners were allocated to each group in the present research. A biased perspective of the population may result from

using limited samples, according to Good and Hardin (2006). In order for each experimental group to accurately reflect the intended population, a higher number of volunteers would have been preferred.

This investigation conducted was of classroom type using intact classes with students who had previously been allocated based on certain general concepts. Because they take the same language course and must meet specific institute standards, the participants in this research were selected based on the assumption that they had similar backgrounds. The use of randomised groups is preferred since it is the idea of genuine experimental design, despite Adams' (2006) assertion that the use of intact groups is more pedagogically realistic.

#### **4.2. Suggestions for Further Research**

Pre-task planning also involves a number of additional factors that need more study. The findings of the current study complement those of other studies, which highlight the necessity for additional research into pre-task planning's potential to improve the instruction and learning of writing performance. Despite the concept popularity, further research on pre-task preparation is required in order to address the following difficulties.

- It is advised that future research repeat the current study with other populations of Turkish EFL students in various regions of the country.
- The research was carried out in an EFL setting. The findings of the same research might differ whether they were conducted in an ESL or native environment.

- The research may be repeated with other age groups to determine whether the outcomes are the same or not.
- An expanded version of the present research that included other pre-task preparation strategies in addition to those that were employed in this study would add to the body of knowledge about this practise and give further analysis of the variables in the current study.
- A more accurate picture of the impact of pre-planning on language acquisition may be obtained by doing a comparable research for other language skills such as reading comprehension fluency and listening.
- The research was conducted at a language school at university. The same research may be done in classrooms, or other language-learning facilities.
- Planning hasn't been investigated from a social angle. These research may provide intriguing data on how social circumstances influence language learners' cognitive processes, which can help us better understand the nature of second language acquisition.

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## Pre-Task Planning, Complexity, and EFL Learners' Writing

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## **1. Introduction**

The communicative language teaching (CLT) method gained popularity amongst 12 instructors and scholars as early as the 1970s (Skehan, 2003). A manifestation of communicative language teaching is task-based instruction. Since tasks serve as the framework for an entire language program, it is, in fact, the robust form of CLT (Ellis, 2004). According to Foster and Skehan (1999), numerous pre-, mid-, and post-task exercises may be used to assist learners in giving equal emphasis towards both meaning and form at once and improve the accuracy of both spoken and written communication. The Task-Based Approach (TBA) to language instruction, also referred to as Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) or Task-Based Language Learning, emerged in the 1980s as a logical extension of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). TBA is seen by Richards and Rodgers (2007) as the central component of language teaching planning and instruction. Nunan (1989) believes that TBA or TBLT prospectus includes "an integrated set of processes involving, among other things, the specification of both what and how" (p.1). In addition, as Sierra (1996) asserts TBA approach is "how a learner applies his or her communicative competence to undertake a selection of tasks" (p.183). Ellis (2003) claims that by completing unplanned tasks, TBLL involves instruction and language learning. He asserted that TBLL follows the learner-centered education concept. TBLL provides invaluable exercises that are content-focused. According to Richards and Rodgers (2007), the learner is a part of the team, a supervisor, a risktaker, and a pioneer. In addition, Richards and Rodgers (2007) assert that "the

teacher takes over the roles of selector and sequencer. He has to choose or create appropriate tasks for students and to bring them into a sequence, considering learners' needs, interests and language skill level" (p.236).

The research on TBLT is based on the theory of information processing proposed by Anderson (2000), which contends that the mind has a finite capacity to process knowledge, which hinders an individual from giving a task his entire attention. It is also based on Levelt's (1989) language processing model, which contends that the conception of a signal, articulation of its language representation, and language production all contribute to language formation; furthermore, it is derived from Skehan's (1998) exchange theory, which states that focusing on one component of language will make it more challenging to focus on other parts. As the final base for TBLT, It is said to be founded on Robinson's (2007) Comprehension Theory, which contends that processing and attentional constraints do not restrict the joint development in linguistic complexity and accuracy, which more complicated tasks might induce.

### **1.1. Approaches of the Writing Process**

According to Manchon and Roca de Larios (2007), many ESL instructors have been using the process method of composition for more than 40 years, after the supremacy of two instructional philosophies, regulated writing and existing rhetoric. The regulated writing orientation, based on Fries's behavioral psychology (1945), prioritizes the precision of forms beyond ideas since it sees writing as reinforcing speech behaviors by teaching students many rhetorical approaches, such as narrative, explanation, exemplification, analogy, contrasting, categorization, and

description, the succeeding current-traditional rhetoric method was used in ESL writing situations to address the gap of controlled production. However, it continues to emphasize forms, correctness, and finished projects, typical aspects of student writing that are assessed in the real world.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) used four phases to categorize the history of writing process strategies: the emotive phase, the intellectual phase, the interpersonal phase, and the speech group phase. Writers were expected to communicate themselves in their authentic voices without restraint during the emotive phase of the writing process. It was stated that this phase of the writing process failed to take their information and writing abilities into account because it was thought that they already had these things available to express on paper. It was also criticized for being unsupported by theoretical principles for potential cognitive processing variations between novice and experienced authors.

Early in the 1970s, the cognitive or intellectual psychology approach to writing was developed. It was predicted that writing is behavior motivated by goals, that its procedures are collaborative, interconnected, and possibly concurrent, and that expert writers differ from beginning writers in their writing styles (Flower & Hayes, 1980). One of the most significant cognitive models of the writing process was first introduced by Flower and Hayes in 1981 and later developed by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987). Although it has contributed invaluable insight to the area of composition, this intellectual approach to writing has received criticism for giving too much attention to the individual, ignoring the



significance of linguistic knowledge, and ignoring the reader's or society's consideration. In addition, it is believed to be meaningless outside of the social environment that establishes the particular writing goal, a belief that holds both in the classroom and in real-world contexts (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). The establishment of a psychological context to the writing process was prompted by these drawbacks for some composition scholars who saw writing as the product of a socially created behavior rather than an independent one.

Diverse viewpoints from the psychology of science, language networks, instructional ethnography, sociolinguistics, and other fields were represented inside the social constructionist perspective (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996), and these viewpoints provided some insightful information. For instance, ethnographic study in writing instruction considers the social settings in which language is used. As a result, it assumes that various language usage changes depending on the situation. Ethnography needed to work on generalizing while offering abundant data on people's writing styles and motivations.

The discourse community integrates the social and cognitive approaches to writing by considering exchanges between readers, writers, texts, and social situations (Rafoth, 1988). According to Swales (1990), a discourse community engages in debate, establishes discourse norms and styles, employs a particular vocabulary, has similar public aims, uses customized terminology, and has enough participants to debate pressing issues with a larger group. Considering the idea of a discourse community is crucial for the growth of Writing, Teaching at higher

education was subsequently included in the post-secondary writing curriculum. However, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) issued a warning that if a discourse community developed a group of elite members, their influence over the process of information sharing among its members might be detrimental (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

### **1.2 Task-based language teaching and learning**

Numerous planning research studies have been conducted on the TBLT teaching method. According to a data processing theory of language learning, exercise can transform descriptive linguistic competence into conceptual understanding. This shows that teaching has a facilitative effect on the acquisition of second languages. Accordingly, students are able to gain descriptive information through teaching and proceduralize it through exercise. Throughout this process, students' L2 knowledge and abilities are continuously reformed and improved, resulting in L2 learning. The next concern is the nature of successful instruction. TBLT, a contemporary method of teaching languages, is a variation of communicative language instruction. Tasks are employed in TBLT as opposed to more conventional methods, which view language as the subject of instruction and educate and practice it before asking students to use it to interact. In order to complete activities, students must communicate meaning, and while they do so, they use English as the language they are learning. This is based on the tenet of communicative language teaching (CLT), which holds that learning a language involves more than just mastering its linguistic principles (such as grammar,

pronunciation, and vocabulary). Consequently, communication-based learning is believed to be more successful (Long, 2007).

Several important SLA ideas impact and promote this kind of language instruction. For instance, according to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982), students might improve their L2 structure if they were exposed to relevant input that was just slightly above their present language skills but still understandable to them. In other words, understandable information creates a setting where language is implicitly picked up. In this approach, while concentrating on content, students also pick up on the formal features of the language. The Interaction Hypothesis is a different but similar idea (Long, 1996). This theory contends that during content negotiation, students modify communicative behavior (such as asking for an explanation or checking their understanding). Additionally, the negative feedback received during meaning negotiation may make students aware of the "disparities" and "gaps" in their present interlanguage.

Tasks allow students to engage in meaning comprehension or production; throughout this process, understandable information is accessible, and students may unintentionally pick up the language. Meaning negotiation can occur during production activities, which encourages the development of L2. Simply focusing on content, according to SLA research, also has drawbacks. Learners may rely on predictable phrases and/or communication tactics, including employing gestures, postures, and tone to convey meaning, rather than using the proper linguistic

forms, as Skehan (1996) noted. This might result in fossilization (i.e., a stage at which L2 development stops).

As a result, it is widely acknowledged that quality teaching must provide chances to "concentrate on form" (Long, 2007), which in the area of language teaching methods relates to the practical training program to guide students' learning focus to the formal aspects of language while their main focus is on meaning. Humans have a finite amount of working memory. It is challenging for students to focus on meaning and form concurrently while trying to understand intake or produce output. Learning to communicate effectively sometimes results in learners prioritizing meaning above some language details, remarkably repetitious and non-salient ones. Therefore, actions must be taken to focus students' focus on form. TBLT acknowledges this requirement. The post-task phase is often when students are attracted to form; however, planning can also occur during the pre-task period. Learners might focus on language constructions that emerged from the desire to transmit content when planning (VanPatten, 1990).

### **1.3 Definition of Task**

Task definitions have changed during the last two decades (Ellis, 2003). Although various experts sum up language task features in various ways, there is much overlap in their descriptions. For instance, Skehan (1998, p. 95) defines a "task" as "an activity in which the focus is on meaning, there is a communication issue to be resolved, there is some connection to activities that are analogous in the real world, task completion is given some priority, and the task is evaluated in terms of the results."

According to Ellis (2003, p. 10), "A task is a plan of action that emphasizes meaning, real-world language usage procedures, the application of any of the four language skills, cognitive processes, and a clearly defined communication end".

A task serves interaction requirements with a significant emphasis on meaning in both definitions. A task's relationship to real-world language usage and its assessment in terms of communicative results are further characteristics that are portrayed in both definitions. In addition, " a task might include any of the four basic language skills," as Ellis (2003, p.10) noted. For a more complete understanding of TBLT, which is the subject of this study, additional research in a writing environment is required.

### **1.3 Task complexity**

According to Shirai (2002, as cited in Robinson, Cadierno, & Shirai, 2009), the necessity to create standards for task ordering in a task-based curriculum gave rise to the problem of task complexity. The two best-known theories of task complexity are the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2005) and the Limited Capacity Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998). Coding complexity, cognitive complexity, and communication stress are the three elements Skehan (1998) believes makeup task complexity. Coding complication is focused on the language requirements of a task, cognitive complexity is associated with the task's content and process, and interactional intensity is associated with execution circumstances, including time constraints, medium, and management.

Skehan (1998) asserts that exchange between the ability to generate speech at a regular speed without excessive stops and starts, the capacity

to produce language correctly, and the elaborateness of the language should take place in language production because learners' processing capacity is constrained. Language suffers when one component is focused on at the expense of others. In the L2 system, Skehan (1998) distinguishes between an exemplar-based system and a rule-based system. The rule-based system, which takes more thinking during production, comprises linguistic rules instead of the exemplar-based system, which comprises lexical objects and ready-made formulaic chunks.

According to Skehan (1998), a learner's language might differ depending on the linguistic feature they emphasize. Students use their example-based approach and depend on the pre-made predictable linguistic blocks when fluency is emphasized, as in real-time conversation where communicative demands are urgent. Students are more likely to use their regulation approach and generate more precise and complicated language when they are required to participate in scheduled communication or have the chance to concentrate on linguistic forms, such as when they may prepare before performing a job.

According to Robinson (2005), task difficulty is "the outcome of the concentration, memorization, logic, and other knowledge acquisition pressure put by the design of the activity on the language learner" (from the standpoint of data processing). A different view, the Cognition Hypothesis put forth by Robinson (2011), contends that students can simultaneously access numerous and noncompetitive attentional streams and that problematic things should encourage more precise and

complicated language than simplified equivalents, despite less fluency. To more precisely describe task impacts, Robinson distinguishes between two groups of task factors (resource-directing and resource-dispersing aspects). Resources may be directed toward linguistic, structural, and syntax components of the L2 system that are necessary to correctly comprehend and impart constructs, such as time and space and movements, as task complexity increases along resource-directing aspects place more theoretical and interactive requirements on students. For instance, time-related activities must encourage the adoption of more developed L2 tense and inflectional encoding ( Robinson et al., 2009). Nonetheless, resource-dispersing aspects increase procedural expectations on cognition (e.g., preparation period, task structure, and previous knowledge), permitting automatic access to and management of existing interlanguage resources. The learner's attention is not diverted to linguistic code characteristics by increasing complexity along these dimensions, however (e.g., by eliminating planning time), but is instead spread out among several linguistic and nonlinguistic components of the task. The cognition hypothesis predicts that activities performed with less help would be less accurate, sophisticated, and fluent than tasks performed with support on this resource-dispersing dimension of task complexity. In certain circumstances, the impacts of raising the complication of a resource-directing feature (such as needing temporal reference) may be mitigated or eliminated by enhancing the overall effectiveness of a resource-dispersing feature (e.g., by taking away planning time). As a result, when tasks are more complicated

concurrently along both resource-directing and resource-dispersing aspects, the Cognition Hypothesis predicts that there would likely be "synergistic effects" on speech output (Robinson, 2011).

Skehan and Robinson anticipate the same things about the impacts of planning time, as can be seen from the quick comparison of the two models shown above. In Robinson and Gilbert's (2007) own words,

*The Cognition Hypothesis differs from the Limited Capacity Hypothesis over the claims [described above] for the beneficial effects on accuracy and complexity of increasing the resource-directing dimensions of tasks. The resource-directing/dispersing distinction is one that Skehan needs to make, leading him to claim that complex task performance, along any dimension, degrades accuracy, fluency, and complexity simultaneously (p. 167).*

The Limited Capacity Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998) predicts an exchange in the three components of language competence, but the Cognition Hypothesis does not make such a prediction. This is another contrast between the two theories (Robinson, 2005).

## **2. Pre-Task Planning**

As previously noted, planning allows students to focus on language structures that have developed due to their desire to transmit meaning. By altering planning instructions, one can explore ways to improve the quality of language creation by "manipulating the fundamental character of planning" (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008). Instructions given before planning are fundamental because they might direct learners' attention toward one component of language performance over another. Ellis (2005) presents pre- and within-task planning as the primary planning



forms. The latter is additionally known as online planning (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). The primary distinction between the two is the planning time concerning task performance or whether planning occurs before or during task execution.

Prior to doing a job, pre-task planning occurs. According to Ellis (2005), pre-task planning differs from pre-task activities like conceptualizing in terms of access to the task resources. In contrast to pre-task activities, when students are not given access to the resources, they will use to complete the work, students get the actual materials for the assignment during pre-task preparation.

Pre-task planning is a project execution requirement theoretically justified by information-processing models Skehan(1998) applied to language acquisition from cognitive psychology. These models contend that people have a finite capacity for attentional information processing and that focusing on one performance aspect may divert attention from another.

The notion of pre-task preparation as a predictor variable impacting language performance has also been connected to learning processes, according to Christison et al. (2015). As an illustration, Hulstijn & Hulstijn (1984) noted that planning includes the engagement and retrieval of information about language forms and their meanings held in the speaker's mind, which suggests planning procedures may encourage an emphasis on form. This form-meaning relationship may subsequently prompt hypothesis testing, metalinguistic analysis, and the identification of knowledge gaps, all essential for L2 growth (Swain, 1998).

By asking students to merely prepare what to say during their spoken picture-based storytelling assignment, Ortega (1999) studied advanced English learners of Spanish. She discovered that while accuracy only progressed in specific categories, fluency, and complexity considerably improved. Tajima (2003) also looked at post-beginning Korean Japanese language learners by having them prepare for leaving two phone messages without any precise planning guidelines. According to Ortega, planning greatly improved fluency in all metrics, but the results revealed little impact on complexity and accuracy. With pre-intermediate students, Foster & Skehan (1996) used similar instructions, decision-making, storytelling, and personal information activities. According to their findings, preparing according to the general directions only slightly improved precision in two of the tasks that called for it, and it only slightly boosted fluency and complication. Because the researchers utilized several performance metrics, the unanticipated results of these experiments may only be minimal. However, it is clear that generic instructions without specific planning requirements significantly impacted fluency. Organizers need more time to contemplate and practice their prepared remarks in preparation. Practice and strategic planning are the two categories of pre-task planning. Although both practice and strategic planning demand learners to participate in some activities to be ready for the assignment, they differ significantly from one another.

## 2.1 Rehearsal

According to Ellis (2005), rehearsal is repeating a task by a learner, whether it is the entire job or only a portion. Giving students a chance to practice the work before the "big performance" is what rehearsal implies. In other words, it entails repeating a task while seeing the initial performance as a training exercise for a later one (Bygate & Samuda, 2005). In Bygate (2001), a group of volunteers viewed a brief animated film with no speech and then recounted the tale it portrayed. The identical exercise was given to the subjects ten weeks later. They re-enacted the cartoon's plot while watching the identical cartoon they had previously viewed. The students received no feedback on their work or achievement throughout the ten weeks.

Across investigations, there are differences in the time between the initial performance and the recurrent execution. For instance, the delay in Bygate's research (2001) lasted ten weeks, but in Kawauchi's (2005) experiment, the primary and repeated performances happened quickly. Her study's participants engaged in a narrative task, answered a questionnaire, and then repeated the activity (Kawauchi, 2005). The subjects also completed the identical task thrice a week later (Kawauchi, 2005). It is assumed that education occurs between the two work activities when repeated execution outperforms the first performance. However, the duration of the delay may affect how much the initial performance affected the subsequent performance in terms of learning. The increase in the repeated performance when there is a significant time gap between the two performances may indicate that the previous

performance's memory is retained for a considerable amount of time. However, education, independent of the impacts of practice, may result in enhanced performance. On the other hand, if there is little time between the first and second efforts, the increase in the latter effort may be viewed as the result of performing the job. However, it is still being determined if the repetition of a task has any long-term effects on learning.

## **2.2. Strategic Planning**

Strategic planning is the second category of pre-task planning. For this kind of pre-task planning, students are given some time before the task is completed, which they use to think through the material they must provide and how to do so. Learners who are strategic planners think about the material they will need to encode and how to represent this content before performing the job. In other words, strategic planning involves students considering the information and vocabulary needed to complete the assignment. Pre-task planning technically refers to both rehearsal and strategic planning; however, many studies only use the word to refer to strategic planning (Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Skehan & Foster, 2005).

The majority of the time, students were permitted to take notes in order to get ready for the main performance (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 2005); however, there are many other activities for strategic planning, such as writing an essay, reading a book, and practicing. For instance, the participants in Kawauchi's research (2005) composed a composition

about the tale they subsequently presented as the assignment instead of taking notes.

## **2.2 Online Planning**

Online planning, also known as within-task planning, is a kind of planning that is possible while doing a job. The following is how Yuan and Ellis (2003) define online planning: During online preparation, speakers pay close attention to the speech's formulation phase and engage in pre- and post-production monitoring of their speech actions. When pre-task preparation is used, students organize propositional material and discrete linguistic units to encode it. Pre-task planning investigates how planning before performance affects productivity, whereas online planning—as its name implies—takes place while a task is being performed.

Ellis (2005) divided online planning into two types: pressurized and unpressured. The amount of time allotted to students for work completion distinguishes them from one another. In forced online planning, students are given a deadline to finish the assignment, limiting their preparation time. Conversely, with unhurried preparation, students are free to work on the assignment for as long as they choose. Researchers believe that by giving students limitless time, they would use it to plan online while they do the work. However, Skehan and Foster (2005) drew attention to the fact that it is just assumed that learners will use online planning if there is no time constraint during task completion. It is only possible to determine if learners are pre-planning their words online with data on learner behavior.

There are four different planning scenarios, according to Ellis (2005): (1) no pre-task or within-task preparation, (2) pre-task preparation but no within-task preparing, (3) pre-task preparation but with within-task preparation, and (4) pre-task preparation with within-task preparation. When learners are not permitted to plan beforehand or online under condition (1), they must do the work immediately after obtaining the activity instructions. In case (2), students can prepare for the work in advance, but they need more time to do so while performing, reducing online preparation. Contrarily, in situation (3), students have no chance to plan prior to task performance but are given an infinite amount of time to complete the work. The learners in situation (4) are given time before and during the task to participate in pre-task and online preparation.

### **3. Implications**

The chapter intends to provide some ideas or methods for introducing or improving pre-task planning in the context of Turkish education. First and foremost, it may enhance instructors' and learners' knowledge of these effective tactics. Increased task writing and planning will result from raising students' and instructors' understanding of these effective practices.

Second, research on the effects of planning is essential and beneficial. Researching ways to assist and encourage students to develop excellent planning skills would be very beneficial. This could be done by providing regular practice opportunities, pre-performance training, or awareness-raising exercises. By developing their planning skills, students

may have more opportunities to integrate form and function and identify their own competency gaps (Ortega, 1999).

Giving students a chance to supervise and customize their writing may increase their understanding of their troublesome language aspects and encourage them to pay more attention in subsequent production, resulting in better and more complex written works.

### **Thanks and Information Note**

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## 21st Century Skills and Digitalization in Academic Writing: A Metacognitive Perspective

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## **Introduction**

In an era of great innovations and rapidly changing trends, it is urgent to consider shifts in all areas of life without exception of education. In this sense, this century highlights integration of cognitive and social skills into educational programs to keep up with the change and meet emerging needs in the digital world. Concerning language education, writing is the skill to be directly considered in relation to integration of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills since it involves cognitive processes and social aspects in each stage of that, and academic writing could particularly be a focus in this connection with the needs of using advanced skills and social interaction with peers or the teacher. As part of academic writing instruction in a second or foreign language, learners engage in paragraph and essay writing in various types and formal genres, which could be challenging because of multi-faceted tasks involved in writing. Producing a well-designed academic paper requires use of strategies to generate and organize ideas, monitor the written work while writing and evaluate it after writing. Additionally, getting peer feedback and written corrective feedback of the teacher demands collaboration and interaction, which could be managed by implementing new methods in the digital age as well as available, traditional methods. Therefore, this chapter addresses the association between 21<sup>st</sup> century skills and academic writing by connecting opportunities and challenges to the concept of metacognition, which refers to an awareness about thinking process, and getting feedback as part of social aspects involved. To this end, first, 21<sup>st</sup> century skills in education are introduced and followed by the concept of

metacognition. Then, getting feedback is discussed in light of social dimension of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. Finally, implications are presented for academic writing instruction in the digital age.

### **1. Integration of 21st Century Skills in Language Learning**

Changing trends and developments in many areas in the new century have made it essential to adapt learning environments in a way that meets emerging needs. Thus, the 21<sup>st</sup> century education highlights socio-cognitive approaches and demands integration of related skills into all possible fields of teaching. From a social perspective, it is necessary for instructional programs to focus on increasing opportunities for students' interaction while enhancing their cognitive processes.

Intending to build an awareness about emerging needs in economy and businesses, an organization in the United States called as the Partnership for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills has cooperated for a project to guide policy makers in education and leaders in economy how to integrate a number of social and cognitive skills into education, in turn, to sustain human resource of the future economy and businesses. According to the Partnership for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills (2008), demand for better qualified workforce in the US was on the rise, but students constituting potential workforce of the future that could meet that demand were reported to get low PISA results especially for problem-solving. Therefore, it was concluded that there was a need to support students-workforce of the future-with cognitive skills such as problem solving and critical thinking (Czerkawski & Berti, 2020).

Taking the need abovementioned to foster students' cognitive skills into account, Partnership for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills (2008; 2009; 2015) proposed core knowledge areas and skills as part of a framework for essential skills for 21<sup>st</sup> century education. In accordance with the framework, there are core subjects (English, reading or language arts, world languages arts, mathematics, economics, science, geography, history, government and civics) and themes (global awareness, financial, economic, business and entrepreneurial literacy, civic literacy, health literacy) on the knowledge base (emphasis original). In addition to knowledge areas, there are intended skill areas depending on social and cognitive aspects (creative and critical thinking, problem solving, communication and collaboration). Apart from these basic areas, students are to be encouraged to improve their information, media and technology skills, as well as their life and career skills. The last but not the least, new areas have been added into the framework with an emphasis on education for everyone (critical thinking and problem-solving skills for everyone and life and career skills for everyone) (Fadel, 2008). Overall, social and cognitive skills form the basis of 21<sup>st</sup> century education, especially the ones referred as 4C (creativity, critical thinking, communication, and collaboration).

Being among the core subjects proposed in the framework of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, English, reading or language arts, and world languages are evidence for highlighted significance of language learning in the new century. Therefore, an individual to take part in the future businesses and economy needs to be open to world cultures and interaction with people

around the world, which is managed with a second language, lingua franca or foreign language. Increased interest and importance attached to learning new languages in the 21<sup>st</sup> century has made it essential to evaluate effectiveness of available language programs in meeting emerging communicative needs. With an emphasis on communicative approaches and meaningful instruction compared to the traditional, mechanic one on grammar and vocabulary, the skills in question could be addressed in language classes by providing opportunities for learners to communicate with other language learners to fulfil tasks through collaboration and use of cognitive skills. In addition, language learners could find opportunities to practice languages outside the classroom by communicating with other language learners or users around the world and/or digital tools and machines. In sum, language learning is directly linked to 21<sup>st</sup> century skills as it involves social aspects (communication and collaboration), cognitive aspects (critical thinking and problem-solving) as well as literacy on information, media and technology.

While language learning composes knowledge and skill areas promoted regarding education in the new century, it is easy to associate productive skills (speaking and writing) with application of those knowledge and skill areas due to the nature of communicative tasks in speaking and writing. In accordance with their language proficiency, learners collaborate to complete a communicative task involving socio-pragmatic aspects such as role-plays or they share their opinions through debates in speaking whereas they engage in various formal or informal tasks such as e-mails, reports, paragraphs, and essays. Thus, 21<sup>st</sup> century language



learners are encouraged to perform their skills in appropriate ways and contexts.

The writing skill is particularly associated to application of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills when referred to the cognitive processes during writing and complex and demanding nature of it (e.g., Mitchell, McMillan & Rabbani, 2019; Teng, Sun & Xu, 2018). With this regard, it not only involves higher order thinking skills to plan, monitor and evaluate a written product, but also communicative skills to get corrective feedback or seek help. Above all, it requires language competency to produce varied genres of writing (Bruning, Dempsey, Kauffman, McKim, Zumbrunn, 2013). These skills are particularly essential for academic writing including paragraph and essay writing, which connects it to metacognition (or metacognitive awareness).

## **2. Metacognition and Process of Writing**

Metacognition simply defined as awareness about thinking processes (e.g., Flavell, 1976; Schraw, 1998) is closely related to writing processes and 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. With this regard, it involves metacognitive knowledge (an individual's knowing about requirements of tasks, the conditions affecting their performance to perform that task, how and when to use knowledge) and metacognitive regulation (using cognitive strategies to perform a task by planning, monitoring, and evaluating). These aspects of metacognitive awareness are also part of learning and language learning. To this end, in order to perform communicative tasks, language learners first, recognize what type of task that is, choose an appropriate place and/or time to do the task and think about what

background knowledge they have and need to handle the instructions of the task. In other words, they evaluate available sources and plan the conditions before performing the tasks. Later, in the process of metacognitive regulation, they use several strategies to successfully complete the task. For example, assuming that a learner is performing a role-play assignment, his/her knowledge about the topic and function involved, his/her awareness of the vocabulary and functional phrases to be used, his/her choosing and communicating with a friend to conduct the task and determining a silent place or simulating the setting stated in the assignment indicate this learner's metacognitive knowledge. Additionally, the learner's writing the dialog, checking it for mistakes, rehearsing it with his/her partner and repeating the role-play to sound more natural signal his/her metacognitive regulation.

Regarding the example above, it is possible to indicate that metacognitive awareness is one of the basic concepts related to language learning. Therefore, it has been an important research interest in educational sciences (e.g., Efklides, 2002; Oxford, 2003; Schraw & Dennison, 1994). The research connects metacognitive awareness (particularly metacognitive regulation) with positive outcomes of learning such as higher level of motivation, learner autonomy and academic achievement (e.g., Cubukcu, 2009). That is, using metacognitive strategies effectively leads to higher level of academic achievement and better performance in task completion. In addition to benefits common to all fields of teaching, second language learning research puts forward specific results such as higher level of language proficiency (e.g., Öztekin & Erçetin, 2022) and

better performance in all language skills (e.g., Cross, & Vandergrift, 2018; Negretti, 2012; Pintrich, 2002; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang & Qin, 2018), which are so closely related to metacognitive strategy use and cognitive skills also highlighted in 21<sup>st</sup> century skills.

Of all language skills, writing is the primary one associated with metacognitive awareness as cognitive processes and challenges are more involved in it. Thus, L2 learners' metacognitive awareness is directly connected to their written products. In this sense, Ruan (2014) searched for EFL learners' metacognitive awareness in writing in Chinese context in consideration of person, task strategy variables. The findings of that study carried out with 51 EFL learners with elementary level of language proficiency through interviews indicated that for awareness about *person* variable, self-efficacy, motivation and anxiety were the factors affecting the learners' writing performance while task awareness included purpose and limits of task. Furthermore, it was found out that participants were aware of strategy use as planning, generating texts and revising were the strategies reported by them. In conclusion, this study suggested that the learners were metacognitively aware about their writing ability.

Among cognition-related skills, self-regulated learning and use of metacognitive writing strategies are highly associated with achievement of writing goals (e.g., Wei, Chen & Adawu, 2014; Teng, 2020). To this end, it has been stated that language learners having metacognitive knowledge and being able to how to regulate that knowledge with writing strategies are less likely to have problems in their written works (e.g., Iwai, 2011; Ramadhanti & Yanda, 2021). Supporting that, Wei et al.,

(2014) examined writing strategy use of beginner level ESL learners and found that that when taught, these learners could use writing strategies and perform better at organizing ideas in their essays. Similarly, Zhang and Qin (2018) investigated metacognitive writing strategy use of 400 Chinese EFL learners in a questionnaire development study and found out that as part of their metacognitive awareness, the learners used writing strategies to deal with writing tasks in a multi-media environment particularly to plan, monitor and evaluate their written products. As a later attempt, in a questionnaire development study, Sun, Zhang and Carter (2021) investigated EFL learners' metacognitive experiences in learning to write and concluded that metacognitive awareness was positively related to writing test scores. Thus, it has been highlighted that instruction on metacognitive awareness and writing strategies be part of language programs (e.g., Al-Jarrah, Mansor, Rashid, Bashir, & Al-Jarrah, 2018; Chen 2022, Ramadhanti & Yanda, 2021; Teng, 2020)

Apart from strategy use, getting and engaging in corrective feedback links to metacognitive awareness. In this sense, language learners' utterances and written products are corrected by their teachers explicitly or implicitly. Understanding the feedback and correcting speech or revising writing assignment are bound to cognitive processes. Critical thinking is the skill used in engaging in the feedback. Moreover, asking for feedback and help while and/or after writing requires communication and collaboration that are also emphasized in the 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. For an effective feedback session and helping learners enhance their metacognitive awareness, instruction on how to use their knowledge and

skills is stated to have a positive effect on improving productive skills (e.g., Ramadhanti & Yanda, 2021; Sato & Loewen, 2018). As evidence, in their study, Sato and Loewen (2018) investigated the effect of metacognitive instruction on two types of corrective feedback on language learners' spoken production and reported positive outcomes related to metacognitive instruction and corrective feedback. Overall, corrective feedback of teacher benefits language learners to develop their metacognitive awareness in writing through critical thinking and evaluating written products.

### **3. Digitalization in Academic Writing**

Latest developments in technology have triggered integration of various digital tools into education as digital literacy is one of the 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. Likewise, there are interactive tools enabling language learners to improve their language skills and conduct language studies. Within the scope of writing, digital tools could be used to cope with challenges of writing process, especially academic writing that necessitates application of metacognitive strategies to generate and organize ideas and evaluate quality of written product. Accordingly, language learners can use digital dictionaries, corpora, or machine translation to get help for vocabulary. Furthermore, machine translation can be used to check correctness of the translation product by comparing it to their writing. Moreover, artificial intelligence has taken more part in daily life recently by converting digital resources and tool. Now, there are popular artificial intelligence tools to support language learning. On the condition that they are used properly, digital tools may help second language writers to complete their

assignments. As to academic writing, language learners could find information and sources to support their arguments in their paragraphs and essays.

In addition to language learners' use of digital tools to perform writing tasks, language teachers could use them to give corrective feedback. Nevertheless, research suggests that teachers' perceptions about their use are neutral, and they do not use them often (Klimova & Pikhart, 2022). To provide variety in giving corrective feedback, teachers can benefit from the use of them. All in all, digital tools could be effectively used by language teachers and learners for writing and giving corrective feedback.

#### **4. Conclusion**

With the aim of providing insight into metacognitive concepts and how they are connected to 21<sup>st</sup> century skills in language education and the writing skill, this chapter has presented explanations and a brief literature review on the concepts. Firstly, 21<sup>st</sup> century skills have been introduced, and it has been explained that these skills are closely related to metacognition since they both refer to cognitive skills such as critical thinking. Later, the concept of metacognition has been associated with the writing skill and metacognitive writing strategies, which has been followed by explanations about the relation between getting/giving corrective feedback in writing and metacognition (also the 21<sup>st</sup> century skills). Lastly, the use of digital tools for writing and getting/giving corrective feedback has been briefly explained. In this sense, the suggestion that metacognitive instruction on how to use strategies and

21<sup>st</sup> century skills in writing is to be given is an essential step towards an effective writing instruction enriched with digital tools and sources.

#### **Thanks and Information Note**

This chapter complies with national and international research and publication ethics. Ethics Committee approval was not required for it since it only involves a review of literature.

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The chapter is written by one author. Thus, there is no conflict of interest.

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