



**CRITICAL READING TOWARDS CRITICAL
WRITING: AN EXPLORATORY RESEARCH
WITH 2ND YEAR EFL STUDENTS**

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**CRITICAL READING TOWARDS CRITICAL WRITING: AN
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JÜRI VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI



ÖZET

ELEŞTİREL YAZMAYA YÖNELİK ELEŞTİREL OKUMA: YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE 2. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİYLE KEŞİFSEL BİR ARAŞTIRMA

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğrencilerin okuma yazma dersleri 1. yıl sonu notları, ÖSYM puanları, hazırlık genel puanları, dilbilgisi-okuma testi puanları ile Eleştirel Okuma ve Yazma dersleri arasındaki ilişkinin ve öğrencilerin eleştirel okuma becerilerinin ne düzeyde olduğunu incelenmesidir. Ayrıca öğrencilerin eleştirel okuma puanlarının bütünleştirilmiş yazma puanlarını ne ölçüde yordadığı ve bütünleştirilmiş okuma-yazma ödevinde kullanılan kaynak metinlerdeki değişiklik derecesi incelenmiştir. Nicel araştırma yöntemlerinden ilişkisel desen kullanılmıştır. Nicel sonuçları desteklemek için yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yoluyla nitel veriler de toplanmıştır. Nicel kısım beceri derslerinin 1. yıl sonu puanları ile Eleştirel Okuma ve Yazma dersinin ara sınav ve final puanlarından oluşmaktadır. Nitel analiz, bir çerçeve kullanarak yazma ödevlerinin kodlanmasını ve 15 öğrenci (temsilci olarak her düşük, orta ve yüksek başarı grubu için 5'er kişi) ve 3 öğretmenle yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeleri içermiştir. Katılımcılar 132 2. sınıf İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencisi ve 3 eğitmendir. Araştırmacı da katılımcılardan biridir. Sonuçlara göre değişkenler arasında zayıftan güçlüye doğru korelasyonlar bulunmuştur. 1. yıl okuma puanları ile akademik yazma puanları arasında anlamlı, güçlü bir pozitif korelasyon bulunmuştur. Değişkenlerin akademik yazma puanlarını yordama gücünü görmek için yapılan regresyon analizleri, 1. yıl okuma puanlarının etkili olduğunu göstermiş ve eleştirel okuma puanları, akademik yazma puanındaki varyansın çoğunu açıklamıştır. Ek olarak, yüksek başarı gösteren öğrencilerin kaynak kullanımlarında diğer öğrencilere göre daha yetkin olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bulgular, röportaj alıntılarıyla desteklenmiş ve yazma öğretimi için öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Kaynak temelli yazma, Eleştirel okuma, Bütünleşik yazma, Kaynak kullanımı

ABSTRACT

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This study aims to investigate the relationship between students' 1st year final grades of reading and writing courses, OSYM scores, preparatory overall scores, structure-reading test scores and Critical Reading and Writing courses, as well as the extent to which students' critical reading scores predict their integrated writing scores, and the degree of modification of source text language in the integrated reading-writing task. A correlational design of quantitative research methods was employed. Qualitative data were also gathered through semi-structured interviews to support the quantitative results. The quantitative part consisted of 1st year final scores of skill courses and midterm and final scores of Critical Reading and Writing course. The qualitative analysis included coding final assignments using a framework and semi-structured interviews with 15 students (5 for each low, mid and high achievement groups as representatives), and 3 instructors. The participants are 132 2nd year ELT students and 3 instructors. The researcher was also a participant. The results showed weak to strong correlations among the variables, with a significant strong positive correlation between 1st year reading scores and academic writing scores. The regression analyses conducted to see the predictive power of the variables on academic writing scores yielded 1st year reading scores and critical reading scores explained much of the variance in academic writing score. Additionally, high-achieving students demonstrated a significant advantage in the proportion of types of source-use incidents and writing ability, except in the adoption of RC type of source-use. The findings were backed with interview excerpts and implications were provided.

Key words: Source-based writing, Critical reading, Integrated writing, Source use

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

Bu tezin bana ait, özgün bir çalışma olduğunu; çalışmamın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu olmak üzere tüm aşamalarında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı; bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen tüm veri ve bilgiler için kaynak gösterdiğimi ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi; bu çalışmanın Anadolu Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan “bilimsel intihal tespit programı”yla tarandığını ve hiçbir şekilde “intihal içermediğini” beyan ederim. Herhangi bir zamanda, çalışmamla ilgili yaptığım bu beyana aykırı bir durumun saptanması durumunda, ortaya çıkacak tüm ahlaki ve hukuki sonuçları kabul ettiğimi bildiririm.

Musa TÖMEN

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

I hereby truthfully declare that this thesis is an original work prepared by me; that I have behaved in accordance with the scientific ethical principles and rules throughout the stages of preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation of my work; that I have cited the sources of all the data and information that could be obtained within the scope of this study, and included these sources in the references section; and that this study has been scanned for plagiarism with “scientific plagiarism detection program” used by Anadolu University, and that “it does not have any plagiarism” whatsoever. I also declare that, if a case contrary to my declaration is detected in my work at any time, I hereby express my consent to all the ethical and legal consequences that are involved.

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“Öd Tengri aysar, kişi oğlu kop ölgeli törimiş.”

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
CRITICAL READING TOWARDS CRITICAL WRITING: AN EXPLORATORY RESEARCH WITH 2ND YEAR EFL STUDENTS	i
JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI	i
ÖZET	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ	v
STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xii
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Critical Reading	4
1.2. Integrated Writing Tasks	6
1.3. The Relationship between Reading and Writing	7
1.4. The Statement of the Problem and Research Questions	8
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1. L2 Writing	11
2.1.1. The paradigms of teaching/learning writing	13
2.2. English for Academic Purposes	19
2.3. 21 st Century Skills	26
2.3.1. The importance of 21 st century skills for education	29
2.4. Critical Reading	30

2.5.	Reading - Writing Integration.....	35
2.5.1.	Text world production model.....	36
2.5.2.	The constructivist model of reading and writing.....	36
2.5.3.	Discourse synthesis model in L2 synthesis writing.....	39
2.6.	Source Use	40
3.	METHODOLOGY	48
3.1.	Research Setting	49
3.2.	Participants	52
3.3.	Instruments	54
3.4.	Semi-Structured Interviews.....	55
3.5.	Data Analysis	56
4.	RESULTS AND FINDINGS.....	60
4.1.	Quantitative Data	60
4.1.1.	Results for assumption check	60
4.1.2.	Results of the hierarchical regression analyses.....	65
4.1.3.	The distribution of source use incidents across groups	71
4.2.	Qualitative Data.....	76
4.2.1.	Findings of the student interviews	79
4.2.2.	Findings of the instructor interviews.....	91
5.	DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS.....	103
6.	CONCLUSION	113
	REFERENCES	116
	APPENDICES	
	CURRICULUM VITAE	

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 2.1. Related literature.....	21
Table 2.2. Related literature.....	44
Table 3.1. Course contents.....	51
Table 3.2. Coding framework	58
Table 4.1. Descriptive statistics for the variables	63
Table 4.2. Pearson correlation analysis results	64
Table 4.3. Hierarchical regression results for model 1	66
Table 4.4. Hierarchical regression results for model 2	67
Table 4.5. Hierarchical Regression Results for 1st year writing	68
Table 4.6. Hierarchical regression results for 1 st year reading	68
Table 4.7. Hierarchical regression results for critical reading	69
Table 4.8. Regression results for unique contribution of each variable	70
Table 4.9. ANOVA results for SU incidents across groups	72
Table 4.10. Distribution of source use incidents across groups.....	74
Table 4.11. Source use frequencies of the students	78

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure 1.1. Reading and critical reading.....	6
Figure 2.2. Process writing scheme (White and Arndt, 1991)	15
Figure 2.3. Process writing scheme (Harmer, 1998)	15
Figure 4.1. Regression standardised residual	61
Figure 4.2. Normal P-P Plot of regression standardised residual	62
Figure 4.3. Scatterplot of homogeneity of variances.....	62
Figure 5.1. Average correlation and correlation values between reading and writing (Chan and Yamashita, 2022, pp. 8).....	104

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALES	: Akademik Personel ve Lisansüstü Eğitimi Giriş Sınavı (Academic Personnel and Graduate Education Entrance Exam)
APA	: American Psychological Association
CoHE	: Council of Higher Education
COPE	: Certificate of Proficiency in English
CRW	: Critical Reading and Writing
EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESL	: English as a Second Language
ESP	: English for Specific Purposes
IELTS	: International English Language Testing System
L2	: Second Language
OECD	: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PTE	: Pearson Test of English
TOEFL IBT	: Test of English as a Foreign Language Internet Based Test
TYT	: Temel Yeterlilik Testi (Basic Proficiency Test)
YDT	: Yabancı Dil Testi (Foreign Language Test)
YKS	: Yükseköğretim Kurumları Sınavı (Higher Education Institutions Exam)

1. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing is traditionally covered in a syllabus that generally starts with how to write a thesis statement and ends with the essay types (genres). The students are taught how to write introduction sentences, conclusion sentences, paragraphs, paragraph types, how to support or refute ideas, and essay genres. What is lacking is that the students are not taught how to use sources (written or oral), how to read graphics or tables, how to cite a sentence or idea from the source they are using. It can be claimed that the main focus of second language writing instruction has exclusively focused on independent writing tasks. Indeed, the previous research has made it well evident (Bitchener, Young, and Cameron, 2005; Dockrell, Marshall, and Wyse, 2015; Miao, Badger, and Zhen, 2006; Storch 2005; Wigglesworth and Storch, 2012; Yasuda, 2015).

Source based tasks are considered to be making teaching and learning truly communicative and authentic (McDonough and Shaw, 2012). Hartley (2007) also points out that it is not so possible to teach second language writing without taking reading, speaking, and listening skills into consideration. Reading is seen as an integral part of writing practice such as writing to read, and reading to write exercises (Hirvela, 2004). Reading can provide the reader with the necessary knowledge of rhetorical, linguistic, and/or stylistic information that can be used in writing tasks.

The challenges that L2 students face while using sources in academic writing have been extensively researched, notably in connection to plagiarism, patchwriting, and excessive dependence on quotations (e.g. Campbell, 1990; Howard, 1995; Keck, 2006; Pecorari, 2003, 2008; Pennycook, 1996; Shi, 2004, 2010). The problems occurring in source use are mainly attributed to language proficiency (Campbell, 1990), cultural differences (Pennycook, 1996) and lack of understanding of what appropriate source use is (Pecorari, 2003). When the related literature is reviewed, it is seen that these problems are characterised as writing related, that is writing has gained more attention than reading.

There is mounting evidence that efficiently writing from sources is a necessary, threshold skill for pupils to be able to participate proficiently in academic pursuits in a second or additional language (Cumming, 2013, 2014; Cumming et al., 2005; Gentil, 2011; Huang, 2010; Macqueen, 2012; Raymond and Parks, 2002). When we consider testing writing, it is seen that recently in standard proficiency exams integrated writing tasks have been used frequently to assess academic writing abilities (Gholami and

Alinasab, 2017). Traditional approaches to assessing writing ability have been abandoned in favour of source use, which is seen to be the greatest indicator of effective academic writing competence among second language learners (Cumming et. al., 2005; Gebril and Plakans, 2016; Guo, Crossley and McNamara, 2013). The reason why highly accredited language proficiency exams such as the Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL iBT), the Certificate of Proficiency in English (COPE), the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), and the Pearson Test of English Academic (PTE Academic) have incorporated reading and/or listening based prompts as an integral component of their writing modules can be claimed to serve the purpose of being able to assess academic writing competencies of the test takers eloquently. It is a challenging skill that even native speakers have to work hard to be able to accomplish. Research has also proposed that integrated tasks improve the authenticity of academic writing assessment since they are considered to be simulating the actual practices in academic contexts (Gebril, 2009; Knoch and Sitajalabhorn, 2013).

It is necessary to define briefly what key terminology will be used in the study before looking at the studies conducted on writing tasks in terms of source use experiences of the students, lexical sophistication of the written products, and score comparisons.

- **source-based tasks:** Writing-from-sources, also known as writing-from-sources or composing-from-sources, is a crucial aspect of academic writing. It is made up of the combination of numerous source texts and may take many different forms, such as summarising, synthesising, replying, reporting on a topic, suggesting a solution, criticising, and presenting an argument. In source-based writing, the right use of sources and the creation of proper intertextual connections are regarded as essential (Polio and Shi, 2012; Shaw and Pecorari, 2013). These are the tasks that ask test takers to integrate information from source texts when responding a prompt (Integrated tasks, read/listen-to-write) (Plakans and Gebril, 2013)
- **synthesis writing:** Synthesis writing is a sort of source-based writing. It is also a complicated reading-to-write operation. To synthesise is to select or extract important ideas and relevant information from multiple sources, organise that information using proper mental representations (e.g., look for an

overarching theme, compare-contrast, problem-solution, cause-effect, etc.), and connect all of the ideas to construct meanings in new texts.

- **Discourse synthesis:** Spivey (1990) used the phrase "discourse synthesis" to describe how L1 students approach synthesis tasks. Discourse synthesis was characterised by Spivey (1984) as follows:

[Discourse synthesis is] an active process of text construction in which a writer reads textual sources on a particular topic, selects some of the available information from the sources, and combines elements in a new way, providing an overall organisation as well as connectivity among related ideas. (p. 1)

- **Source use:** the way the test takers use the source text (direct copying, paraphrasing, word-strings taken from the text etc.) (Shi, 2012)

The source use experiences of the second language learners have gained importance as there is a gradual shift in second language writing practices. The shift aims to take the writing instruction beyond the five-paragraph essay boundary, at least in academic writing instruction. Five-paragraph essay is also considered an obstacle in L1 writing instruction, which restricts students in writing creatively (Campbell and Latimer, 2012). There are also some criticisms on five-paragraph essays' being inappropriate for high-level writing (Punyaratabandhu et al., 2013). Dombek and Herndon (2004) also points out although traditional writing instruction of five-paragraph essays can serve as a good base for beginners, the students should carry their writing skills in the kinds of critical and creative analysis common in authentic discourse. Mainly, paraphrasing experiences of the students will be extracted from the writings they have done so as to find out whether they have the ability to reformulate sentences and ideas with their own words. Their copying patterns will also be seen by looking at the word strings they have taken from the source without changing. In order to analyse their paraphrasing experiences, the data will be collected in the Critical Reading and Writing Course, one of the courses added by Higher Education Council to the new curriculum of English Language Teaching. In that course, it is probably aimed to teach reading and writing in an integrated way.

The change in the curriculum is still being criticised as there is a clear decrease in the hours of English skill courses and field courses, such as Reading, Writing, Linguistics, Grammar etc. When compared to the earlier curriculum, the new curriculum seems to have more courses related to educational sciences rather than English Language Teaching related courses. And the credits of "other courses" are higher than field courses.

Surprisingly, the medium of instruction in these “other courses” is Turkish, which decreases the use of English among the students in the department of English Language Teaching. The Critical Reading and Writing course is a fall-term course and 2 hours is allocated for that course, which is another controversial issue as it is not considered enough for the expected outcomes.

1.1. Critical Reading

The discussion of source use, integrated writing tasks, contemporary writing evaluation bring us to the point that if one is expected to become a writer, s/he should be able to read critically. Therefore, the questions of what reading is and what critical reading is should be clarified before the review of the literature. The relationship between writing and reading should also be explored and discussed.

For early learners, reading might be defined as decoding texts, accurately pronouncing words, or practising language structure. For more advanced students, the comprehension model remains prevalent. Even while current writers in the field of reading research argue for the establishment of a model of reading as interpretation, the ultimate and unique purpose of reading is text comprehension (Wallace, 2003). Grabe and Stoller (2011) distinguished between low-level and high-level comprehension processes while reading for comprehension. Low-level comprehension entails linguistic processes like word recognition, syntactic parsing, and semantic formation, whereas high-level comprehension entails mental processes like combining information to form a text's meaning, inferencing, interpreting, and evaluating the text based on the readers' goal, fillings, and background expectations.

L2 learners, it is believed, need to be equipped with the ability to critically analyse what they read, express themselves well both vocally and in writing, and develop thinking abilities that allow them to apply what they have learned in different situations. The significance of skills like reading and writing cannot be overstated, especially in higher education, where books are the primary source of knowledge. As a result, L2 instruction should no longer be focused on the separate teaching of language skills, but rather on critical thinking. When the term “critical” is attached to reading or writing, it carries the meaning of having an ability to think critically. Therefore, critical reading and critical

thinking are generally used interchangeably because not only does critical reading need the formation of meaning, but it also necessitates critical thinking. We cannot read critically without thinking critically, thus both critical reading and critical thinking are intertwined (Abdelhalim 2011, Mayfield 2014, Lee 2015). The phrase "critical" refers to a collection of cognitive abilities that include recognizing, collecting, and interpreting information in order to make a choice.

Instead of trusting that everything in a text is true, critical reading requires you to challenge it. To analyse the evidence and make a critical judgement about how trustworthy the information is, the reader must consider the questions of how, why, who, and when in addition to what the text states (Kurland, 2000). It also requires inferencing an opinion or a fact which is not directly accessible in the text. Critical reading skill also requires assessing the extent to which authors provided adequate justification for the claims they are making. The assessment that the reader is supposed to make depends on what the author has communicated in the text. However, the reader is also expected to rely on other relevant knowledge, experience and inference that can be brought into the frame (Wallace and Wray, 2011:7).

In L2 critical reading, EFL/ESL readers construct the meaning of the text using their L2 vocabulary knowledge, prior knowledge and experience of the world, particularly their "L2 world," and their L2 linguistic knowledge, which includes text-decoding and linguistic knowledge, and then use their critical thinking skills to interpret, analyse, criticise, reflect, and evaluate the text for deeper understanding. As a result, their L2 language competency and critical thinking abilities affect their critical reading ability.

Many scholars have shown that critical reading and critical thinking go hand in hand. Critical reading, according to Collins and Cheek (1993), necessitates evaluative judgments of the text based on the reader's reasoning skills. Reading engages the reader's mental processes, according to Shihab (2011), and schemata and critical thinking are vital in reading comprehension. Aloqaili (2012) observed a significant link between reading comprehension and critical thinking, while Lee (2015) stated that "reading literacy," which includes critical reading, "shares the essential elements in critical thinking" (p. 182).

Critical reading employs critical thinking skills such as analysis, synthesis, and assessment (Lee 2015). When critical readers or critical thinkers receive new information through reading for readers and listening or reading for thinkers, they first form an initial understanding, then interpret and integrate the information to form a deeper understanding, and finally reflect on and evaluate the information using their outside knowledge and experience. When the comprehension process becomes more complicated, a greater degree of cognitive activity is necessary; hence, critical reading can assist readers in becoming independent thinkers (Collins and Cheek 1993).

Critical reading skills are mostly tested through a detailed set of reading comprehension questions including analysis and inferencing skills of the readers. The length of the texts used in assessing the critical reading skills may vary.

	READING	CRITICAL READING
Purpose	To get a basic grasp of the text.	To form judgments about <i>HOW</i> a text works.
Activity	Absorbing/Understanding	Analyzing/Interpreting/Evaluating
Focus	What a text SAYS	What a text DOES and MEANS
Questions	What is the text saying? What information can I get out of it?	How does the text work? How is it argued? What are the choices made? The patterns that result? What kinds of reasoning and evidence are used? What are the underlying assumptions? What does the text mean?
Direction	WITH the text (taking for granted it is right)	AGAINST the text (questioning its assumptions and argument, interpreting meaning in context)
Response	Restatement, Summary	Description, Interpretation, Evaluation

Figure 1.1. *Reading and critical reading*

The figure taken from an internet source shows the basic comparison of reading and critical reading¹.

1.2. Integrated Writing Tasks

Integrating writing with other language skills, such as reading or listening, is a relatively new way to assess academic writing. The reason for integrated tasks is founded on authenticity arguments, which assert that academic writing is heavily reliant on reading or listening to source material (Gebriel, 2009; Grabe and Zhang, 2013; Plakans, 2009). In actual life, writing is mostly associated with reading or listening. These exercises are also intended to produce content; thus they reduce the influence of previous

knowledge, creativity, and life experience on writing performances (Read, 1990; Weigle, 2004). Large-scale exams such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), The International English Language Testing System (IELTS), and the Pearson Test of English (PTE) have all employed integrated skills assessments.

Summarising and paraphrasing source materials, comparing and integrating multiple texts or voices on a topic through critique and synthesis, writing research papers and response essays, taking notes, and writing essay tests are examples of assignments that require students to use skills in an integrated approach (Plakans, 2015). These tasks are challenging for L2 students' reading and writing skills. As a result, assessing integrated reading and writing is critical in language development (Weigle, 2004).

1.3. The Relationship between Reading and Writing

The concept of integrated reading and writing instruction arose in response to the audio-lingual approach, which separated these abilities into separate entities (Turuk, 2010). Both talents, however, are clearly processes of meaning production, including comparable thought patterns and language prerequisites. Reading and writing are activities that are done with a specific aim in mind. A person reads for the purpose of obtaining information, and any change in this aim has an impact on how they engage with the text.

Background information is important for both reading and writing because they both rely on the same cognitive data pool of written language, use comparable mechanisms to convert background knowledge into text, and use similar processing patterns in text generation when a person reads or writes. It is one of the strongest aspects of the connection between reading and writing as it encourages students to interact with the text by employing their background knowledge through reading and writing activities. The activation of schemata enables students to internalise the new knowledge. This step is regarded as important in the learning process by the sociocultural theorists.

Setting objectives, developing ideas, organising information, selecting suitable language, planning, writing, editing, reading, and rewriting in a recursive manner until the final result is done are all part of the writing process (Hedge, 2000). Reading is also a recursive, non-linear activity in which the reader goes back and forth to confirm the

accuracy of the meaning construction and the logical coherence of the text while comparing it to prior knowledge. Reading and writing can both be seen as clumsy processes of meaning formation in which no clear or systematic approaches are used.

The cognitive characteristics combined in reading and writing are dependent on thinking and reasoning skills. Generating ideas, organising, and restructuring the text, examining the logical coherence are thinking activities. None of the language skills can be used effectively without the intervention of the cognitive abilities involving critical thinking. As described, there is an imperious link between reading, writing, and thinking. Moreover, it is claimed that good readers tend to be good writers (Daane, 1991).

1.4. The Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

L2 writing is mainly assessed by two different task types: independent and integrated. The independent tasks require test takers to produce language in written or spoken form based on prior knowledge or experience. Their validity is questioned by Cho (2003) with a claim that they may not measure the writing construct as a whole as the text lacks authenticity. If the test takers have the relevant background knowledge about the topic and providing no input in any form contaminates the construct validity of writing tasks (Gebril, 2009).

Integrated tasks, on the other hand, necessitate that test takers listen to and/or read materials before producing a suitable output. Integrated problems are becoming increasingly popular in international and regional language assessments due to their theoretical validity, practical authenticity, and testing fairness (Barkaoui et al., 2013; Gebril, 2009). Therefore, in this study the students will be asked to write integrated writing tasks.

The gradual shift in L2 writing requires integrating reading and skills with the writing skill, as mentioned above. To achieve this, the students are supposed to be able to make citations, use evidence from source(s), summarise, and paraphrase by using the source. These all need a set of reading skills, called critical reading. Students' source use behaviours are also regarded as indicators of their proficiency levels and their general performance in L2 writing (Plakans and Gebril, 2013). Hence, this study will be an attempt to reveal the source use behaviours of the students in our context, in their

paraphrasing experiences. It can clearly be claimed that the students in our context lack these subskills.

The new undergraduate curriculum of English Language Teaching, which has recently been introduced by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE), involves a “Critical Reading and Writing” course. The course content provided by CoHE states that the students are expected to produce authentic texts by applying critical reading skills such as analysing the text according to the context, comparing different texts having the same claims, reading between the lines. This study will be an attempt to take a picture of the current situation and to provide insights into teaching critical reading by analysing their final writing assignment of problem-solution essays. As argumentative and persuasive writing are regarded to require and reflect the critical reading abilities of the writers, the final assignment will be taken as data. Persuasion is among the objectives of the students while writing their problem-solution essay to make the reader convince their solution(s) to the problem is the best.

The students’ L1 writing experiences do not vary as can clearly be seen in primary, secondary, and high-school curriculums. There is no comprehensive L1 Turkish writing instruction in the Turkish Education System. Native language instruction in schools of Türkiye is, unfortunately, based on grammar teaching and reading comprehension. The writing instruction lacks the systematicity that English writing instruction has. There was also no L1 academic writing instruction until 2019, when CoHE introduced a new curriculum. The reading instruction in L1 also lacks critical reading skill teaching. The critical skills of the students are tested through reading comprehension, paragraph ordering, and vocabulary questions in nationwide standardised tests like university entrance exam (YKS), graduate education entrance exam (ALES). In this sense, it can be claimed that the students may lack the necessary skills required for critical reading.

This study will try to contribute to the literature on the relationship between critical reading and writing by taking the picture of the current situation of ELT students in our context in the recent ELT curriculum. The paraphrasing experiences of the students were explored in their final assignments they submitted for their final grades in Critical Reading and Writing course.

This study fills a critical gap in the literature by examining the relationship between critical reading and writing skills among Turkish ELT students, who have traditionally lacked systematic instruction in academic writing and critical reading skills. By exploring the source use behaviours and paraphrasing experiences of these students, this study aims to provide a clearer picture of their writing proficiency levels and to shed light on the ways in which critical reading skills are linked to writing abilities.

Furthermore, the findings of this study can inform the development of more effective writing curricula and pedagogical practices that incorporate critical reading skills and strategies. By highlighting the specific areas of weakness and strength in the writing abilities of Turkish ELT students, this study can contribute to the ongoing efforts to improve the quality of English language education in Türkiye and to enhance students' preparedness for academic and professional contexts. The study's findings may contribute to the development of instructional materials and strategies that can improve students' critical reading and writing abilities in the Turkish context. By identifying the specific areas in which students struggle and the sources of these struggles, educators and curriculum designers can create more effective and targeted interventions to address these issues. Additionally, the study's results may inform the development of new academic writing courses or the integration of critical reading and writing instruction into existing language courses. Finally, the study may also have implications for assessment practices, as the findings may suggest the need for more authentic and integrated writing tasks that better reflect the complex demands of academic writing in both L1 and L2 contexts.

The study will aim to answer the research questions below:

- Is there a correlation among students' 1st year final grades of reading and writing courses and Critical Reading and Writing courses?
- To what extent do the students' critical reading scores predict their integrated writing scores?
- To what extent do students paraphrase source text language in the integrated reading/writing task, in terms of degree of modification?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. L2 Writing

Theories of L2 writing have emerged from a variety of domains, including English for Specific Purposes (ESP), contrastive rhetoric, written discourse analysis, functional language usage, and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Grabe and Stoller, 2001). As it is for English L1 theories, theories on L2 writing first followed theories of the writing process as well. It was Swales, Johns, and Connor (as cited in Grabe and Kaplan, 2014), who have been influential on the nature of writing instruction.

There were also assumptions that English L1 and L2 writing experiences and instructions were different from each other. These assumptions had a strong impact in L1 instruction emphasising critical thinking and logic of argumentation. A further set of articles by Leki and Carson (1994, 1997) have pointed out that L2 students experience problems meeting the academic curriculum beyond the ESL writing classroom. The set of skills acquired by those students in their EFL classes are not adequate enough for them to survive in university curriculum. Their EFL experiences are too easy and their practises in writing are not sufficient for the writing demands of an academic environment. Therefore, English L2 writers do not have enough practice in writing which will help them in an academic environment. So, L2 writers are not able to have the same control of English structures and vocabulary as English L1 writers do (Sasaki and Hirose, 1996).

The writing process is an extremely intricate endeavour as it requires much more than studying a particular structure. It is a process including various aspects such as analysing and imitating rhetorical forms, outlining a composition, combining, and presenting ideas in suitable discourse and style, exemplifying ideas with examples. Therefore, the cognitive load of writing in L2 is enormous. The process also involves two interdependent phases -prewriting and rewriting- and students' improvement in writing is bound to each of these phases (Barut, 2012). It is accepted to be an arduous process for learners. "Writing may be the most difficult language arts component to develop" (Lemlech, 1990, p. 260). Hence, as it is difficult, the quality of instruction that is given to the students in the area is of prominence.

Below are the five broad levels of writing purpose by Grabe (2001, p. 171) which may have hierarchical status:

1. Writing to control the mechanical production aspect (motor coordination, minimal fluency).
2. Writing to list, fill-in, repeat, paraphrase (not composing, only stating knowledge).
3. Writing to understand, remember, and summarize simply, and extended notes to oneself (composing and recounting).
4. Writing to learn, problem solve, summarize complexly, synthesize (composing and transforming, composing from multiple sources).
5. Writing to critique, persuade, interpret (privileging perspectives and using evidence selectively but appropriately)
 - a. Writing to create, an aesthetic experience, to entertain (composing in new ways, figurative levels of composing, violating composing norms in effective ways).

One has to be able to have production fluency to be able to list and paraphrase. One needs to be able to list, repeat and paraphrase ideas well to be able to write simple summaries and to take notes. S/he should be able to summarise a text, take notes and remember to be able to write more complex summaries, make synthesis. And s/he needs to be able to summarise, synthesise and learn from texts to be able to persuade, interpret and critique.

The importance of assessing writing is also crucial along with the teaching process. Teachers evaluate the written works of students in terms of language use, understanding and responding to the prompt, vocabulary use, genre and organisational discourse, and critical thinking skills. However, although writing is acknowledged as a compulsory skill to be taught in the classroom, it is a known fact that many teachers are not trained to teach writing properly. As Graham (2008) reports many teachers refrain from teaching writing as they do not see themselves adequate. In his work, around half of the teachers report a lack of focus on teacher training.

The emergence of L2 writing courses, teacher training programs and various textbooks is not surprising considering the international students going abroad to study.

Even in Türkiye there are numerous undergraduate and graduate programs in which the medium of instruction is English. However, it is widely accepted that writing has always been ignored in English Language Teaching (ELT) Curriculum in almost all stages although it is of utmost importance in productive language use. It is proposed that writing is useful for the reinforcement of academic tasks instead of being a subsidiary to language learning; thus, it has a significant role as a language tool for language users. Moreover, writing is considered a key means of proposing and defending arguments for the individuals to present their existing knowledge and to convey their experiences, imaginations, thoughts and feelings by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers (2010). Moreover, as it is mentioned in the National Commission on Writing for America's Families, Schools, and Colleges (2004), writing is a threshold skill both for the promotion of an individual and for employment. The same council also notes in 2003 report that:

...if students are to make knowledge their own, they must struggle with the details, wrestle with the facts, and rework raw information and dimly understood concepts into language they can communicate to someone else. In short, if students are to learn, they must write (p. 9).

To do that, it is recommended to students that they have to devote significant time and effort to writing many pieces of writing during their education.

2.1.1. The paradigms of teaching/learning writing

Novel approaches and theories in teaching and learning writing seem to emerge within the context of EFL following the social and conceptual breakthroughs in decades or centuries. It is the natural outcome of ideas conflicting with each other on an issue in all fields of science. In L2 writing the long-lasting conflict between process and product.

2.1.1.1. *Process and product*

Writing is a long-lasting process including idea generation, writing, editing, getting feedback and rewriting phases. The research on writing mainly focused on the product at first rather than the process itself until the 1970s (Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer, 1963). It was believed that a pedagogical approach focusing on usage, structure or correct form would be beneficial for the learners to improve their writing skills (Zamel, 1976). Other actors of writing, purpose, the audience, and the process itself were given less attention. How learners compose their writing, the idea generation process, the stages of writing were not considered in these studies. The linearity of writing had also been neglected and the learners were not provided with feedback and revision chances. The studies of the researchers such as Murray (1968, 1972 as cited in Barut, 2012), Emig (1971), Elbow (1973) (as cited in Vanmaele and Lowcyk, 2005) and others introduced the process in EFL writing.

This paradigm shift in writing resulted in a process-oriented and student-centred writing approach in ELT curriculum and the old teacher-centred pedagogy, which was stated to be demotivating and not efficient for students to master various processes of writing (Chitravelu, Sithampram and Choon, 1995), was left aside. Another criticism for the product-oriented ELT classes is that it is not authentic, and it does not develop students' writing skills beyond sentence level (Hyland, 2003). However, it should be kept in mind that the expectations of a writing class before the 1970s did require students to have structural knowledge, grammar, and mechanics rather than the content, purpose and the audience. That the approaches and paradigms reflect the necessities of the era does not make them inferior to one another.

Studies on process writing started in L1 and the first claims were that the writing had a recursive nature, and it was an unconscious learning process more than a conscious teaching (Emig, 1971; Zamel, 1976). It was also defined as a process to be experienced not a product to be evaluated. It is not a linear process and has also been put forward in various concepts and/or figures. Each stage has an influence on another, and the audience is also important in the process.

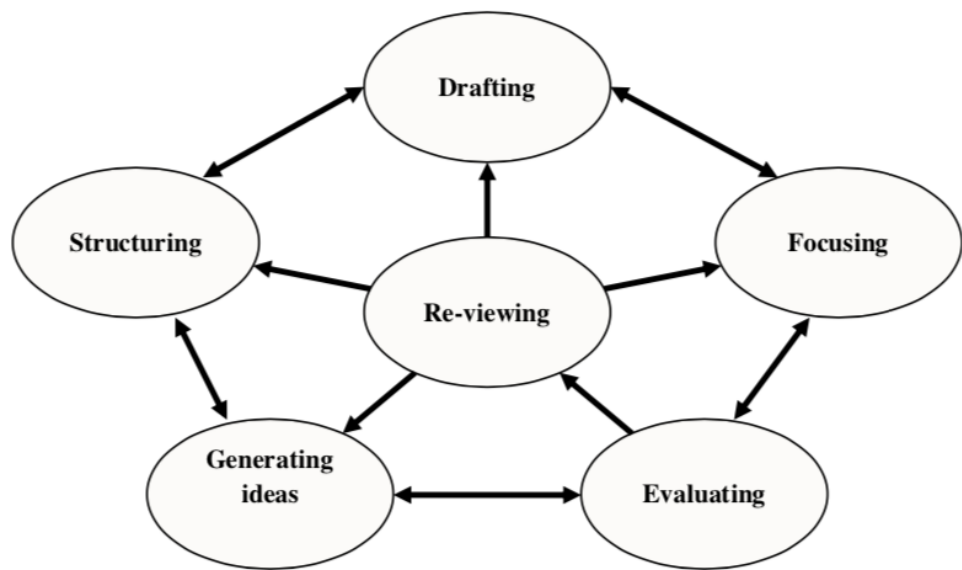


Figure 2.1. *Process writing scheme (White and Arndt, 1991)*

Another description of the recursive nature of writing given by Harmer (1998) uses a wheel metaphor to show the developmental stages in process writing, another student-centred methodology of ELT classes.

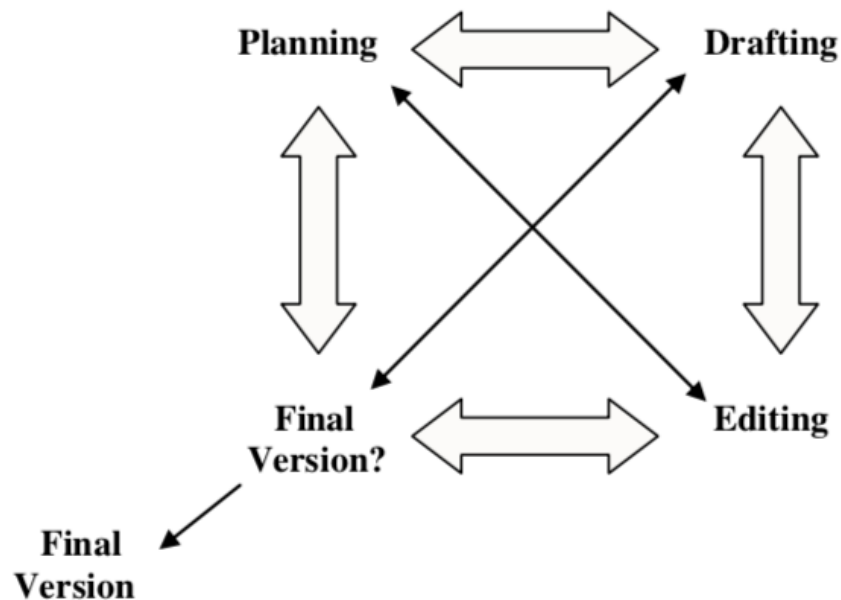


Figure 2.2. *Process writing scheme (Harmer, 1998)*

The conflict between the product and process initially required researchers to take sides. Only after the 1980s it was concluded that it was not correct to ignore product in

focusing on process in writing studies, because it was also needed to write well-developed texts (Tobin, 2001). This view states that students are to be taught to take meaning and content and the linguistic and rhetorical features of the target language into account. It is still valid in today's ELT writing classes. Product is of, by all means, a prominent place in the writing curriculum and the assessment is mainly based on the products.

In short, it is not false to claim that process approaches have shifted the focus on writing instruction in ELT and EFL classes. Although the complex features of writing have been unveiled (Hyland, 2003), the debate on whether process writing is more effective than product writing continues (Canagarajah, 2002).

2.1.1.2. *Cognitive process in writing*

Following the idea that writing is a process, the researchers tried to define and describe the process in a clearer way by applying think-aloud protocols to find out the cognitive processes taking part in writing. In the late 1970's, Flower and Hayes (1981) developed a cognitive model to represent the writing process. Prior to their research, writing had been considered a linear process of prewriting, writing and revision. In their writing framework, Flower and Hayes (1981) put forward that writing was goal-directed, and an interactive metacognitive process played a role in developing the written product by permanently revisiting the goals. They divided their model into three: the task environment, writer's long-term memory and the composing processor. A "monitor" manages these three processes. It is an individual mechanism and depends on the writer. The process itself alleges that writing is indeed a problem-solving process in which the writer applies various cognitive skills to overcome the problems encountered while writing.

2.1.1.3. *Genre approach*

The genre approach to L2 writing emphasises the importance of teaching students how to write in specific genres or text types, such as academic essays, research reports, or business letters. The approach is based on the idea that writing is a socially situated activity that is shaped by conventions and expectations within particular discourse communities. Thus, students can receive help from explicit instruction and practice in the

language, structures, and conventions of specific genres in order to develop their writing skills and effectively communicate with members of the target discourse community. Key features of genre approach are as follows:

Genre as social action: In the genre approach, genres are seen as social actions that serve specific communicative purposes within particular discourse communities. For example, the genre of an academic research paper serves the purpose of presenting research findings to a scholarly audience, while the genre of a business memo serves the purpose of conveying information and making recommendations to a professional audience (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2004).

Focus on genre features: The genre approach emphasises the importance of developing students' awareness of the rhetorical structures and language features of different genres. This involves analysing the typical organisation and language patterns of different genres, as well as the social and communicative functions that they serve. For example, an academic essay typically has an introduction, body paragraphs, and a conclusion, and often includes features such as a thesis statement and evidence to support the argument (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Paltridge, 2001; Schleppegrell, 2004).

Teaching through exemplars: The genre approach often involves using exemplars, or models of well-written texts, to help students learn about the language, structures, and conventions of specific genres. By analysing and comparing different exemplars of a particular genre, students can gain a deeper understanding of the genre's features and develop their own writing skills through imitation and practice (Swales and Feak, 2004).

Focus on audience and purpose: The genre approach emphasises the importance of considering the audience and purpose of a particular piece of writing to make appropriate language and rhetorical choices. Students are taught to consider the expectations and needs of their target audience, as well as the communicative purpose of their writing, to effectively convey their message and achieve their goals (Hyland, 2002).

2.1.1.4. *Process approach*

The process approach to teaching and learning writing is based on the idea that writing is a complex and dynamic process that involves a range of activities, from planning and pre-writing to revising and editing. According to this approach, effective

writing is the result of a recursive process that allows writers to generate, refine, and clarify their ideas as they work through multiple drafts. The following is a detailed description of the process approach to teaching and learning writing:

Prewriting: The process approach emphasises the importance of prewriting activities that help students to generate and organise their ideas before beginning to write. Prewriting activities can include brainstorming, clustering, outlining, and freewriting. According to Murray (1972), prewriting activities help students to develop a clear sense of purpose and audience for their writing, and to set up a framework for organising their ideas.

Drafting: Once students have completed prewriting activities, they can begin to draft their writing. The drafting process involves putting ideas into sentences and paragraphs and developing a first draft of the text. According to Elbow (1973), the drafting process should be focused on generating ideas and getting them down on paper, rather than worrying about grammar, spelling, or punctuation.

Revising: The process approach emphasises the importance of revising, or re-seeing, the text. Revising involves making changes to the content, structure, and organisation of the text, with the goal of improving its overall quality. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the revising process should be focused on making substantive changes to the text, rather than minor edits or corrections.

Editing: The process approach also emphasises the importance of editing, or fine-tuning, the text. Editing involves making minor changes to the text, such as correcting grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors. According to Murray (1972), the editing process should be focused on ensuring that the text is clear, concise, and error-free.

Reflection: Finally, the process approach emphasises the importance of reflection and self-assessment in the writing process. Reflection involves thinking about the writing process, the strengths and weaknesses of the text, and strategies for improving future writing. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), reflection is a key element of the writing process, and can help students to become more self-aware and self-regulated writers.

2.2. English for Academic Purposes

It is not easy to define what academic writing is in short; however, it is widely accepted that writing in academic contexts is regarded as academic writing. Paragraphs, summaries, essays, reports and other types of written products are components of academic writing. That is, it is not the written products of academicians only, every piece of writing written according to a prompt of a teacher consists of academic writing. English for Academic Purposes has become a prominent research and teaching area all over the world since its pacey development in the 1980s (Perez-Llantada and Swales, 2016). The purpose of EAP education is to professionally prepare university students and early-career researchers to communicate effectively in English in academic and research environments by teaching and mastering specialised language knowledge and literacy skills. The reason for its rapid development is that the number of international students in universities is increasing day by day. The need to communicate in English in global academia, where English is the *lingua franca*, is unrivalled.

Because students are assessed based on what they write on exam papers or for assignments, academic writing is at the centre of teaching and learning in higher education. Students must learn both general academic conventions and disciplinary writing requirements to be successful in their departmental studies (Coffin, Curry, Goodman, Hewings, Lillis, and Swann, 2005). Nonetheless, as previously said, writing has traditionally been overlooked or disregarded in postsecondary language learning programs. According to Christison and Krahne (1986), students who finished intensive language programs said that they employed writing abilities for just 10% of the time they spent on academic assignments.

Academic writing, without a doubt, necessitates a set of abilities that can help students succeed in their academic careers. Students are needed to generate certain writing genres such as a descriptive essay, a summary, a critical review, and a research paper in the academic setting, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). Students are expected to specialise in pre-writing activities, which are often accomplished through the integration of other language abilities, in order to complete these tasks. When it comes to the reading–writing interaction in writing programs, texts are typically thought of as a stimulant for students to generate thoughts about the topic about which they are writing. Because many students struggle to find meaningful facts and viewpoints in their writing

assignments, this is one of the most important issues for both scholars and practitioners today. As a result, it is said that a writer must have analytical and critical thinking abilities in order to efficiently complete this process:

... critical thinking in academic writing is a manifestation of an author's ability to understand and analyse the ideas, evaluate and synthesize the arguments in a variety of sources before making any conclusions, and then presenting them clearly to an audience. It entails the ability to: understand key concepts and ideas; distinguish the main ideas and arguments from the subordinate ones; judge their relevance and provide reasons; judge the credibility of sources of information; and be able to paraphrase them and later draw conclusions based on all the justifications made (Daud, 2012, p.22).

University students are expected to read various texts in their classes, and they are asked to write essays or reports in their exams or as assignments. However, Hirvela (2010) states that EFL learners prefer to read in L1, and they do not like writing in either language. That brings out another problem in their academic environment. The writing processes and products of university students are examined under the title of English for Academic Purposes and academic writing. As mentioned above, the studies on writing initially started in L1 contexts and then L2 studies appeared. The process-oriented approach to writing sees L2 writing as a reflection of L1 writing (Carkin, 2005). Preparing teaching materials for an EAP course is based on a needs analysis study. It is a way to figure out the kinds of genres that the students will encounter in their learning environment and the skills they will need to attain to be able to comprehend and compose these genres (Paltridge et. al., 2009). There are several instructional models for EAP, but a consensus is built up on the effectiveness of task-based instruction in EAP education.

Academic writing classes within the EAP curriculum start at undergraduate levels in which students are often exposed to short and extended essays, reports, summaries, responses, and on some occasions ending with term papers. At a graduate level, the classes are shaped towards the needs of the students but mainly go through abstract writing, theses, dissertations, journal applications.

Some of the studies on EAP that are mostly cited in the past ten years are listed in Hinkel (2017) in table below.

Table 2.1. *Related literature*

Researcher(s) / year of publication	Scope	Methodology	Findings	Implications
Biber and Gray (2010)	Explicitness in academic writing and degree of complexity.	A corpus of research articles in different fields.	• Academic writing is less structurally elaborate and less explicit in meaning compared to academic speech. • Structural compression in writing involves using phrasal modifiers embedded in noun phrases.	• To improve the ability to understand these constructions, more practice in text decoding with phrasal modifications is needed. • Prose writing instruction.
Liu (2012)	Multi-word constructions and its use in academic writing.	Corpus of Contemporary American English and British National Corpus	• There are a total of 228 multi-word constructions. • The most commonly used types of multi-word constructions are those involving nouns and prepositions.	• draw attention to multi-word constructions that appear frequently
Cortes (2013)	Grammatical and functional features of lexical bundles	A one-million- word corpus of research article introductions from various disciplines	• Many expressions are extremely frequent • Some lexical bundles are linked to one move or step in a move; others occur across several moves/steps • Some groups of words serve as signals or prompts for specific actions or steps within a piece of writing.	• to help students recognize and use these bundles appropriately in their own writing by identifying them in their own corpora (collections of written or spoken texts). • Encouraging learners to observe how bundles are used (or not used) to convey specific communicative functions.

Hyland (2010)	Text organisation, argument, credibility, stance, and engagement features	120 research articles from science and engineering fields and 120 popular science articles	• The way a text is organised, arguments are presented, and sources are attributed reflects the writer's sensitivity to the intended audience.	• Instruction • on features of interpersonal • Learner noticing of features of popularizations and Ras
Molino (2010)	Personal and impersonal authorial references across academic writing cultures	60 single-authored RAs (450,000 words) in Linguistics (30 in English and 30 in Italian)	• Italian RAs have lower frequency of personal pronouns. • The frequency of specific speech acts correlates with the choice of interpersonal strategy.	• Instructional • focus on linguistic strategies of authorial visibility in relation to speech acts
Wingate (2012)	Students' concepts of 'argument' when arriving at university Argumentation strategies in student academic writing	117 first-year undergraduate students Academic Writing Questionnaire in Induction Week A diary when writing an essay The Student Handbook and the tutor comments on the 60 essays	• Lack of criticality when handling sources, failure to use sources for supporting evidence; difficulties with positioning • Lack of explicit guidance by tutors (i.e. absence of comments)	• Explicit instructional focus on argumentation • Use of student texts as exemplars
Loi (2010)	Rhetorical organisation of English and Chinese RA introductions in the field of educational psychology	20 English RAs written by first-language English speakers and 20 Chinese RAs written by first-language Chinese speakers	• English and Chinese introductions use 3-move structure • Rhetorical moves/steps are less common in Chinese introductions than in English introductions	• An analytic-synthetic approach to academic writing instruction, encouraging students to engage in genre- analysis tasks before doing their own writing

del Saz Rubio (2011)	Moves/ steps of RA introductions and metadiscoursal features signalling moves	28 RA introductions from the field of Agricultural Sciences	● Adherence to three-move rhetorical organisation ● Metadiscoursal features perform pragmatically (persuading readers; giving evidence; conveying attitude; establishing proximity or distance towards claims)	● Use of corpus ● data for designing and developing pedagogical material ● Focus on the pragmatic and socio-rhetorical conventions of the sub-disciplinary field
Sheldon (2011)	Rhetorical organisation of Introductions in RAs in English L1, Spanish L1, and English L2	RAs in English L1 and L2 and in Spanish L1 in applied linguistics	● English L1 introductions stick to CARS model. Spanish L1 introductions display a culture-specific writing style ● English L2 introductions appear to be developing CARS-like control	● Use of CARS model to support the teaching of RA introductions
Wette (2010)	Use of sources in both first- and second-language writing	78 undergraduate students from six strands of L2 writing courses A pre-unit quiz and guided writing task, a post-unit task Students' reflective comments Analysis of out-of- class assignments	● Students' significant improvement in the rule-governed aspects of source use ● Students have difficulties comprehending complexities in texts, summarising propositional content accurately, and integrating citations with their own voices and positions	● Greater length of instruction on handling source texts ● Extensive practice in paraphrasing and summarising source texts ● Classroom discussion and reflection so as to raise awareness of disciplinary practices
Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011)	Types and functions of citations in expert and novice RA writing	A case study on citation practices in 14 RAs written by non-native expert and novice writers	● Novice writers use citations to attribute. Experts use them to support claims. ● Novices use citations in isolation. Expert writers use non-integral citations.	● Instruction on the rhetorical functions of citations in academic writing

Li and Casanave (2012)	Students' understanding of plagiarism and their strategies for integrating source texts	A case study of two first-year students at a university in Hong Kong doing the same writing assignment that required the use of sources	• The two students' texts included patchwriting and inappropriate citation use • Only one student's problems with use of source material were spotted by the lecturer and checked with Turnitin	• Instruction should be perceptive of the place of reading • in source-based assignments, the difficulty level • of sources for an assignment, and • the complexities • of attribution in source-based writing assignments
Pecorari and Shaw (2012)	Intertextuality in student academic writing	Semi-structured text-based interviews with eight university teachers at several Swedish universities	• Intertextuality is conceptualised into four different types. Teachers have differing views as regards factors that determine their judgments on source use	• Students' exposure to conceptualization of source use (the four types of intertextuality) and discussion of differing judgments
Weigle and Parker (2012)	Borrowing of source text language	63 essays transcribed verbatim and coded for source text borrowing Two student groups (undergraduate and graduate) and four levels of proficiency	• Only a small percentage of students borrowed extensively from source texts • Minor differences in patterns of borrowing across topics, student groups, and proficiency levels	• Greater emphasis on how to write from sources • Instructional emphasis on appropriate use • of source texts, attribution, and citation conventions
Hirvela and Du (2013)	Strategies for paraphrasing of source text material	A study of two Chinese undergraduates at a comprehensive Midwestern university in the US Think-aloud protocols and text-based interviews	• Developmental learning of paraphrasing techniques • The students develop attitudes towards paraphrasing, as perceptions of source text material are culturally mediated	• Instructional focus on ways of paraphrasing literature • Greater attention to students' attitudes towards paraphrasing

Stapleton (2012)	Text-behaviour	composing	A case study of an L2 English master's student, while she writes a 4,000-word essay Student's logs, an open-ended retrospective questionnaire, and interviews	• Composing involves formulating thoughts into language, research (searching, reading, and copying), planning (generating ideas, deciding how to organise them, and anticipating audience reaction), revision, collaboration with a more experienced writer, and self-evaluation of writing	• Greater focus on researching skills, use of sources, textual borrowing, and paraphrasing
Charles (2012)	Vocabulary collocations	and	50 advanced-level students (mostly graduates) from multidisciplinary classes Initial and final questionnaires	• Success in constructing a corpus of 10–15 research articles • Students' own corpus building improves discipline-specific writing	• Integrating corpus-building task to supplement corpus- and task-based instruction

When the table is examined, it is seen that most of the studies are on the aspects of writing, which coincides with the assumption that academic writing is the most problematic issue among L2 users (Durmuşoğlu-Köse et al., 2019). The studies above show that L2 learners have problems in academic writing in various aspects. Source-use, argumentation, organisational pattern, their perceptions on reading related sources are among the findings that the researchers give implications about.

2.3. 21st Century Skills

The focus of education and evaluation in the 21st century encompasses more than just the basic skills of reading, writing, understanding, and combining information. One way of organising 21st-century competencies is based on the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) framework, which categorises skills into four groups: cognitive, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and technical (Ananiadou and Claro, 2009). Cognitive skills include solving non-routine problems, critical thinking, and understanding systems. Intrapersonal skills involve metacognitive abilities such as self-management, time management, personal growth, self-control, adaptability, and decision-making. Interpersonal skills encompass effective communication, social abilities like collaboration and teamwork, cultural awareness, and managing diversity. Technical skills focus on research and information literacy, entrepreneurship, and financial knowledge.

Looking at it from a different angle, fulfilling the demands of education, work, and commerce in the 21st century requires the development of various additional skills such as effective communication, technological proficiency, a global perspective, collaborative abilities, digital skills, and innovative thinking instead of just rote memorization. Communication skills have undergone a significant change, as the previous century's educational programs could not have foreseen the rapid development and widespread use of mobile technology, nor that the internet would enable global communication to be both immediate and inexpensive. Moreover, expertise has become so specialised that teams must work together to solve many problems, with no one expert having the skills to consider or solve most issues alone. Therefore, critical thinking skills, collaboration skills, teamwork skills, and cross-cultural awareness are crucial. Indeed, in a rapidly changing world, being initiative-taking in problem-solving and having an

entrepreneurial mindset are essential for individuals to adapt quickly and thrive. It is not just the responsibility of education, work, or commerce; rather, success relies on a mutually beneficial relationship between educators and the work and commerce industries (Geisinger, 2016).

In today's world, 21st century skills such as financial and entrepreneurial skills are essential. However, the importance of other skills such as problem solving, collaboration, and digital proficiency may not be as clear. While those in the education system, particularly in the United States, are familiar with the entrepreneurial successes of individuals like Bill Gates and Steve Jobs, the need for financial knowledge may not be as apparent. The shift from balancing a chequebook to online banking is one example of this change. Additionally, employees used to expect a defined-benefit pension, but now most have defined-contribution pensions which require them to make decisions on how to invest their retirement funds. This change highlights the need for new financial and problem-solving skills to plan for retirement. The shift to more flexible work arrangements also requires global or international skills, further emphasising the importance of financial and problem-solving skills in the 21st century.

The OECD has created a framework to organise the necessary skills and competencies for modern learners. These skills are considered essential for young people to become effective members of society and successful in the current knowledge-based economy (Ananiadou and Claro, 2009). The framework identifies four categories of skills: cognitive, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and technical skills, which are classified within three overarching dimensions. These dimensions are information, communication, ethics, and social impact. Information covers both the use and creation of information, communication includes various forms of communication and collaboration, and ethics and social impact relate to social responsibility, critical thinking, decision-making, and social awareness.

Metz (2011) provided a concise list of skills in the introductory editorial of a special issue of *The Science Teacher* that focuses on 21st-century skills. The skills identified by Metz include core subject knowledge, particularly in science; the ability to be flexible, adaptable, and innovative; critical thinking, creativity, and the capacity to solve non-routine problems; communication skills that are complex, collaborative, and demonstrate social and cross-cultural competencies; self-direction, productivity, and accountability;

and systems thinking. Metz's listing of skills is similar to that of Ananiadou and Claro (2009). These skills and abilities can also be categorised as cognitive, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and technical skills.

Soland, Hamilton, and Stecher (2013) have adopted a comparable model to the OECD framework (Ananiadou and Claro, 2009) that omits technical skills. Their model includes three main components: cognitive competencies (which encompass academic proficiency, critical thinking, and creativity); interpersonal competencies (including communication and collaboration, leadership, and global awareness); and intrapersonal competencies (such as growth mindset, learning how to learn, intrinsic motivation, and grit).

The Partnership for 21st Century Learning (2007) has also presented a model which includes four categories: key subjects and 21st century themes; learning and innovation skills; information, media, and technology skills; and life and career skills. Key subjects include traditional subject areas as well as global awareness, financial, economic, business, and entrepreneurial literacy, civic literacy, health literacy, and environmental literacy. Learning and innovation skills encompass creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, communication, and collaboration. Information, media, and technology skills include informational literacy, media, and information, communication, and technology literacy. Life and career skills primarily involve intrapersonal skills such as flexibility and adaptability, initiative and self-direction, productivity and accountability, and leadership and responsibility. According to this model, the key subjects and 21st-century skills are fundamental and intersect with all other skills. Furthermore, in this special issue, the authors Herde, Wüstenberg, and Greiff, as well as Ercikan and Oliveri, have presented yet another model (Binkley et al., 2012).

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) has developed a comprehensive framework that provides a way to understand different types of skills that are important for college and the workforce. For example, the learning and innovation skills category includes creativity, critical thinking, problem solving, and collaboration and communication. Information, media, and technology skills include the ability to understand and use information, media, and communication technology. Lastly, the life and career skills category include adaptability, self-direction, social and cultural

awareness, accountability, productivity, leadership, and responsibility. (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009).

2.3.1. The importance of 21st century skills for education

For a long time, educators have emphasised the importance of developing critical thinking skills, which have been shown to predict important outcomes in education and employment in various contexts (Miller, Sadler, and Mohl, 1993.) Similarly, motivation researchers argue that motivating children is crucial because it predicts motivation in later life, and motivation is linked to achievement and IQ. Research suggests a relatively consistent relationship between motivation and achievement in reading and maths. For instance, Broussard and Garrison (2004), Gottfried (1990), and Lange and Adler (1997) found that intrinsically motivated first-grade students tend to have higher achievement in these subjects than extrinsically motivated students, and mastery motivation predicts later reading and maths achievement while judgement motivation does not. Moreover, Lange and Adler (1997) found that motivation contributes to predicting achievement beyond one's ability.

Improving creative thinking has been found to have a positive impact on academic achievement, according to Maker (2004). Sternberg (2006) found that measures of creative thinking were significant predictors of first-year college students' grade point averages and success in graduate school, even after controlling for high school GPA and SAT scores. Lubart and Guignard (2004) argue that as technology continues to progress, creative and divergent thinking will become increasingly important for solving recent problems. This, in turn, will lead to more societal and technological advancements as creativity drives the development of new ideas, inventions, and technologies. The introduction of new approaches to different fields of study leads to innovation and progress, either by looking at old ideas in new ways, advancing current thoughts, introducing new concepts, or integrating diverse concepts in novel ways.

According to research studies, metacognition, or the ability to reflect on one's own thinking, may help to make up for a lack of intelligence or prior knowledge in problem solving (Prins, Veenman, and Elshout, 2006). Students with high levels of metacognitive skills have been shown to perform better on complex and unfamiliar tasks, even when

their abilities or aptitudes are similar to those of students with low metacognitive skills. This may be because students with strong metacognitive skills are better able to create heuristics and improvised strategies to solve problems (Prins et al., 2006).

Collaboration has a significant impact on students' learning, resulting in higher scores on work completed collaboratively, even when individual products are submitted (Fall, Webb, and Chudowsky, 1997; Rojas-Drummond and Mercer, 2003; Saner, et al., 1994). Studies have also shown that learning that takes place during collaboration continues afterward, with students performing better on subsequent tasks completed individually compared to similar-ability students who work alone. This implies that participating in collaborative learning opportunities with peers can have a long-lasting effect on individual learning. Collaborating with others can also improve students' social skills, such as conflict resolution and the use of helping behaviours, as well as academic self-concept (Ginsburg-Block, Rohrbeck, and Fantuzzo, 2006).

2.4. Critical Reading

Reading is to get meaning from a text in its basic sense. It is again a process like other language skills, and it starts with selection. The readers select a text, classify the text, and interpret the information in the text by using their earlier experiences (Darojat, 2015). Celce-Murcia (2001) defines reading as meaning construction through the written symbols. The readers get the meaning of the symbols of a language, and they form interpretations according to their prior knowledge.

Nunan (2003) defines reading as a fluent process of combining information from a text and from background knowledge to create a meaning. In these three definitions, it is seen that prior knowledge or background information is a component of meaning construction. The main aim of the reading is comprehension, and the readers reach that comprehension by using the same sets of skills. Another important aspect of reading is to be able recall the information when it is necessary.

Texts are the main teaching material of any science field. And therefore, reading is the most used strategy in schools. Teachers and faculty members use reading to facilitate learning and integrate the learners into the academic discourse (Hermida, 2009). Within academia, reading is viewed as a purposeful, critical, and challenging skill for the students

(Isakson and Isakson, 2017). It is the integration of knowledge to create a new piece of knowledge, and it requires discrete strategies to be able to interpret any texts (Manarin et. al., 2015). It also requires some genre knowledge for students to get the whole idea behind the text. This set of skills differ from the concept of basic reading. Academic reading or critical reading, which is more popular as being a part of critical thinking, is used to give more insights into the concept of reading (Gorzycki, Desa, Howard, Allen, 2016).

As Geisinger (2016) pointed out, the 21st century we live in requires the people to develop suitable skills to be able to satisfy the demands of education as well as the other parts of life. The framework of the curricula in the educational institutions is being modified according to the needs of the era, which necessitates the human being to keep up with these updates by presenting various skills. These skills are generally defined as 21st century skills.

21st century skills are often based on critical thinking skills. Critical thinking is a combination of high order thinking skills and more complex cognitive processes. It is necessary to achieve either academic or professional success (Greiff, Niepel, and Wustenberg, 2015). In this respect, one of the components of critical thinking skills that can be applied in an educational setting is critical reading. In addition, this phenomenon is getting increasingly important in performing the tasks in a classroom since almost all the qualified trainers utilise such kinds of activities.

Critical reading has become influential together with the introduction of critical thinking as a 21st century skill. It is argued in an academic context that many of the students are not yet competent to read critically even in their L1s (Wilson, 2016). Critical reading is different from ordinary reading as it requires the reader to engage more with the text. While ordinary readers attempt to grasp a text's essential message, thesis, or story, critical readers go beyond (Jensen and Scharff, 2019). Davies (1995) divides reading into two categories: passive reading and active reading. In passive reading, students scan the book for information and try to answer some basic questions; whereas, in active reading, they read between the lines and interact with the text. Making students more engaged in the reading process allows them to become more critical readers (Davies, 1995).

Critical reading is defined as a high-level comprehension of written material that necessitates interpretation and evaluation skills that allow the reader to distinguish between essential and non - essential information, distinguish between facts and opinions, and determine the writer's purpose and tone (Pirozzi, 2000).

It entails more than just being able to grasp a passage's stated meaning. It entails application, analysis, and assessment. It is a method in which students engage in an internal conversation with the reading material, identify the audience, draw conclusions, and predict the meaning of words in context. Students may also establish cause and effect, locate the evidence used in the text, notice the writer's bias and tone, and discern the author's point of view and intended meaning (Phillips and Sotiriou, 1992).

Critical reading means different things to different people like critical thinking. What critical reading is and why people step on it too much are authentic educational concerns because as it is stated above reading itself is the foundational skill for successful learning in every stage of schooling. Students are expected to be active, critical readers to achieve success academically (DiYanni, 2017).

Critical reading necessitates the active participation of readers in order for them to think deeply and use a variety of abilities. The aim of critical reading is to disclose a text's major ideas, make a conclusion from it, link the information, anticipate the text's purpose, analyse the arguments, identify diverse points of view, and assess ideas (Flemming, 2012). A critical reader can (1) accurately summarise textual arguments, (2) identify claims, (3) discover stated or implied assumptions, (4) analyse and evaluate the precision of the reasoning that supports a particular thesis statement, and (5) analyse, evaluate, and explain the purpose or consequence of the use of specific facts or sources of information (Barnet and Bedau, 2011).

All the definitions of critical reading state that it is not just understanding what a text says, it is also necessary for a reader to analyse how the information is conveyed to the reader. When the term “critical reading” is seen, the first thing that comes to mind is that the reader should “criticise” the text, to “judge” the text. However, the first thing should be the main goal of reading: understanding the text. Without understanding the text first, it is not possible to criticise or to judge or to take a stance against the text. Students are supposed to understand the text and show it by summarising the text and by

paraphrasing it accurately in writing. Therefore, it is not correct to engage the students in any kind of critical challenge before being sure that the comprehension is achieved.

Various researchers have proposed different sub-skills of critical reading. However, seven of them frequently overlap and they include the abilities as follows (Ueai-Chimplee, 2007):

- (a) distinguishing between fact and opinion,
- (b) identifying an author's purpose,
- (c) recognizing an author's tone,
- (d) recognizing an author's attitude,
- (e) recognizing an author's organisational patterns or writing style,
- (f) drawing inferences or logical conclusions, and
- (g) identifying a source of information.

Moreover, critical reading has many benefits to the students in terms of various aspects. These benefits can be summarised as follows. A student who manages to read critically can;

- become a better and more intelligent reader, and understand what s/he is reading at a deeper level,
- acquire more out of the text and remember more of what s/he reads since s/he is expected to be more engaged with it,
- prevent herself/himself from limiting what is written and just blindly believing and accepting the words on the page,
- improve her/his critical thinking skills and make herself/himself smarter,
- extract the maximum value from the text s/he reads (Life Lessons, 2022).

Considering the benefits above, one can clearly conclude that critical readers can analyse, interpret, understand, question, evaluate, critique, and reflect what they are reading. Thanks to these advantages, critical reading is preferred by educators in educational settings. However, implementation of critical reading strategies is not only

important in this framework. But the implementers of such strategies should have knowledge of assessing the students to reveal the outcomes of the implemented activities.

The question of how to assess critical reading skills in the classroom is one of the main debates about critical reading. Brookhart (2010) puts forward three principles of critical reading assessment:

- Make students think with the help of an introductory text, visuals, scenarios, resource material or some problems.
- Try to use new materials that are different from those covered in classroom activities.
- Adjust the level of difficulty (hard versus easy) and level of thinking and control for each one by one.

Since critical reading is of a different process from the way of traditional reading, it requires the reader to follow some strategies. These strategies are listed by Gilmartin (1993) as annotating, contextualising, reflecting on challenges to one's beliefs and values, paraphrasing, outlining, and summarising.

In the first strategy, the reader is expected to annotate the text in question. S/he may underline, circle, or highlight the significant parts of the text such as the thesis statement, topic sentences, supporting ideas, critical statements, and the keywords that are thought important. After annotating the text, a reader should contextualise it to activate the second strategy in that process. Considering the language, ideas, and knowledge in the text, s/he needs to contextualise it and identify how this context differs from her/his own understanding.

The third strategy begins with reflecting on challenges to the reader's beliefs and values. In this aspect, the reader tries to explore how the meaning of the text challenges her/him. By doing so, the reader can succeed in discovering her/his own real thoughts or feelings. As a fourth strategy, paraphrasing follows the third one. In this strategy, the reader creates the original text by using different words. The purpose of this strategy is to simplify the text to be able to acquire a deeper meaning.

One of the last two strategies revealing the integration between reading and writing is outlining. This strategy also serves as a preliminary for the last strategy. Outlining assists the reader to list her/his own ideas related to the original text. Therefore, s/he can

decide the basic structure of the text. The last and sixth strategy is called summarising. This strategy enables the reader to generate a new text by comparing all the elements, and it eases understanding the original text in detail.

2.5. Reading - Writing Integration

Reading and writing connections were studied as interrelated literacy acts until the early 1980s. The groundbreaking work began with Stotsky's (1983) synthesis of reading and writing relationships; and the argument advanced by Tierney and Pearson (1983) that reading and writing are essentially similar meaning-making processes. In the L1 field of written composition, scholars have come to view reading (in parallel with writing) as a constructive rather than a receptive process (Haas and Flower, 1988; Spivey, 1990). Indeed, viewing reading as a process of formation challenged the incomplete view of reading as processes of decoding and encoding, reflecting previous discussion of the cognitive and social view of literacy. Salvatori (1996) argued that reading and writing in composition classes are interrelated activities, so composition teachers should make the invisible connections of reading and writing more visible to students. He discussed “the theoretical and practical relevance of using 'reading' to teach writing” (p. 441). Salvatori's argument on the place of reading in the composition class was a crucial theoretical and pedagogical proposition.

Researchers studying on L2 writing have also had studies on that connection (Hirvela, 2004) because in the early 1990s L2 writing instruction shifted towards a source-based writing orientation. These scholars also emphasised the important role of reading in second language composition classes and suggested using reading as a tool for teaching writing as a reaction to the previous teaching of second language writing instruction models that regarded reading and writing as separate. Research on textual borrowing and source use has emerged as a feasible area of inquiry in L2 writing scholarship among these important topics (Hirvela and Du, 2012; Polio and Shi, 2012; Shaw and Pecorari, 2013; Shi, 2004, 2010, 2012). Despite the fact that the importance of second language literacy links has long been acknowledged, it remains a largely unexplored and under-theorised field (Grabe and Zhang, 2013). In L2 source-based writing instruction, there is a critical lack of a theoretical reading-writing connection model.

There are two important models of reading and writing connections in the L1 domain and it is essential to mention these two models as they can be used to provide a better understanding of the reading-writing relationship in L2. The first model, text world production, which claims that both skills have parallel processes of meaning construction, was proposed by Stephen Kucer (1985). The second one, the constructivist model of reading and writing was put forward by Spivey (1990) and this model is mainly based on discourse synthesis writing on which she had comprehensive research.

2.5.1. Text world production model

In this model the procedures that readers and writers use to access their background knowledge, the cognitive strategies employed to alter background knowledge into a text, and the role of context in the retrieval process were discussed (Kucer, 1985, p.319). In his model Kucer drew advantage from schema theory of reading research.

His claim is that readers search, retrieve, evaluate and organise their existing knowledge to comprehend the meaning of the texts. However, if the information in the long-term memory cannot be retrieved or used, readers need to reframe their previous knowledge to create a new schema that will adapt to the new situation. He also considers that the cognitive strategies, generating, integrating, selecting, and revising, which are used in meaning construction in reading and writing are similar. All these strategies are used reciprocally and recursively, not in a linear fashion. Finally, context has an important role in text construction, as Kucer states; “Each context is defined by the particular reader’s or writer’s experiences within the culture and by his or her past encounters with similar situations” (p. 326).

2.5.2. The constructivist model of reading and writing

Spivey (1990) asserted a constructivist model involving three processes central to the construction of textual meaning in discourse synthesis tasks: organising, selecting, and connecting. This model focuses on the alterations that learners do in combining new written texts by using sources. When composing from sources, readers are also writers who transform source texts to create new texts (Spivey and King, 1989). Learners utilise constructive operations of organising, selecting, and connecting to build meaning by

using different types of texts -a report, a summary, a proposal, an article, a story, a study paper, etc.-to create an authentic text. While employing these operations, writers use two types of knowledge sources: the direct knowledge accessible immediately through the source text and the knowledge that can be generated from previously acquired knowledge in long-term memory. A person's knowledge base is built, partly, from the readings s/he has made, of relevant texts whose identities are often untraceable by a researcher and are often forgotten by the person who internalises them. When learners create from sources, the processes of reading and writing are mixed, making it difficult to distinguish between what is done for reading and what is done for writing (Spivey, 1990). That is, acts of composing from sources are *hybrid acts of literacy* in which writing influences reading and reading influences writing (Frederiksen, 1982 as cited in Spivey, 1990).

Although the use of text as a source in writing is quite common, writing research is almost entirely focused on writing a text on a specific topic on which the author relies on his/her prior knowledge.

Writing can only be understood when common acts of composing in which writers draw from immediate sources as well as from stored knowledge to produce texts other than summaries are examined thoroughly. As for reading research, which has mainly focused on reading comprehension in isolation, it should also be investigated in situations in which it is done for purposes of creating an authentic text. To theorise the integration of reading and writing Spivey (1990, p.256) describes her constructivist theory as; “They (readers/writers/learners) **dismantle** source texts and **reconfigure** content they select from these sources, and they **interweave** the source material with content they generate from stored knowledge.” Accordingly, organising, selecting, and connecting are fundamental in constructing meaning and transforming the text in synthesis writing.

Organizing

Readers use textual clues about how the meaning in the text is organised by looking at its organisational patterns, referential and logical links that hold the coherent chunks together while interpreting and trying to comprehend the text. It is known that text types and genres have canonical forms that help readers to predict some conventional units arranged in a conventional order. For example, a reader, more or less, expects to see an

order starting with an introduction section and ending with a discussion section while reading a research paper. Therefore, it can be thought that discourse knowledge is used in both reading and writing. A writer uses this knowledge of text forms and ways of forming a text while composing a text and a reader uses this knowledge of organisation while trying to get the meaning of a text.

It is quite interesting that when a reader encounters an unfamiliar organisational structure in a text, s/he tries to figure out the organisational pattern and to conform it to his/her schemata of a text genre for similar text types. Similarly, writers also transform text organisation and content in other ways when producing a new text. In a text written using a single source, the author usually wants to use the organisational structure of the original source. However, in a text synthesised using more than one source, it is quite possible that the text type is different from the organisational structures of the original sources because the writer tries to associate his mental representation with the sources he uses while creating a new text (Spivey, 1990).

Selecting

When writers create new text from sources, they must select important and relevant information from the original texts as well as organise the content. As readers, they select important information based on textual clues presented by the author. Writers, on the other hand, can select the relevant information according to the purpose of writing and the criteria they have determined in the selection of source information. Spivey (1990, p. 274) uses “textual relevance” and “intertextual criteria” to explain this complex transformation process. She also indicates that there are other factors that might influence the content selection such as cultural background of the writer, background knowledge, and sensitivity to the texts.

Connecting

In the process of understanding the text, readers integrate what they already know with the content in new texts. Readers add inferential material to information in the text and then often fail to distinguish between the two types of information. As a result, reproduced texts consist of information selected from two source pools: textual information and prior knowledge. Writers use these sources to obtain relevant content to

realise his/her purpose in writing. Writers have to rely on their prior knowledge on the topic if there is not enough information presented in the source text to fulfil the task.

2.5.3. Discourse synthesis model in L2 synthesis writing

In order to understand the processes involved in different academic writing tasks, Plakans (2008) compared the composing processes of two writing tasks—integrated reading-to-write (i.e., synthesis, source-based writing) and independent writing-only tasks. The writings were used in writing placement decisions of the university. Think-aloud protocols were used in the study and Plakans stated that the students had different performances in two tasks. The source-based writing tasks required a more constructive process while writing-only tasks required mainly pre-writing planning. The interview data showed that experienced writers were interactively more active in source-based tasks. She stated that “the reading-to-write tasks appeared to elicit this discourse synthesis process” (p. 122) and claimed that synthesis tasks were more suitable for university context writing.

In her later research Plakans (2009) analysed the constructive process in source-based tasks used in a writing placement test of an American university. She used think-aloud protocols and interviews to gather data on the actual writing process of synthesis tasks that include reading-writing integration. It was found that L2 writers employed the sub-processes of discourse synthesis introduced by Spivey (1990). There were individual differences in employing these acts and Plakans attributed these differences to various factors such as their proficiency, previous exposure to source-based tasks, and their familiarity with the writing topic. She recommended using discourse synthesis framework in L2 integrated writing research. Shifting from writing-only tasks to integrated writing tasks was among her implications of the study.

Plakans (2009b) investigated the use of reading strategies in the execution of integrated tasks by twelve L2 students, guided by the preceding investigation of reading ability and studies on L2 reading strategies. Plakans investigated the frequency and types of reading tactics used throughout the prewriting, writing, and revising sequences using think-aloud protocols, interviews, and student essays. Cognitive processing was found to be the most often utilised strategy, followed by global and mining methods, and goal-setting and metacognitive strategies were found to be the least frequently employed. In addition, throughout the prewriting stage, students employed more reading skills. The

study also investigated the differences in reading techniques used by high and low achievers. High-achieving kids, on the other hand, used more global and mining methods, as well as goal-setting and self-regulation exercises. Low-achieving pupils, on the other hand, tended to do more bottom-up word-level reading. As a result of the frequent usage of cognitive processing processes, it was discovered that the synthesis writing assignment needed a significant level of reading comprehension. The disparities in results between high and low achievers revealed that global and mining techniques were critical for good reading-to-write task performance.

Yang and Plakans (2012) looked at L2 students' self-reported strategy utilisation and performance in an integrated reading-listening-writing examination to learn more about how they employ reading strategies in synthesis writing assignments. The authors identified three key tactics or processes: self-regulatory approach, discourse synthesis strategy, and test-wiseness strategy. Self-regulatory strategy controlled and monitored other strategies; discourse synthesis strategy (i.e., organising, selecting, and connecting processes) contributed to better test performance; and test-wiseness strategy (e.g., copying, patchwriting, and using previously memorised writing templates) had negative effects on students' test performance. The findings of this study bolstered the argument that discourse synthesis activities are critical to the effectiveness of composing from sources, and not just for L1 writers (Spivey, 1990, 1997), but also for L2 learners (Plakans, 2009a, 2009b).

Yang and Plakans (2012) also linked these findings to the writing abilities and source utilisation of L2 students. Concisely, they concluded that source use, as evidenced by low-scoring students' verbatim copying, may be a problematic part of L2 academic writing that warrants more study attention from L2 writing scholars and practitioners.

2.6. Source Use

Writing in a second language (L2) can be a daunting task for many students. One particular challenge that L2 writers face is effectively incorporating sources into their writing. To write persuasively and accurately, L2 writers must develop a sophisticated understanding of source use. This essay will explore the importance of source use in L2

writing, the challenges that L2 writers face when using sources, and strategies for effective source use.

Source use is a critical component of academic writing in any language. To produce high-quality academic writing, writers must use sources to support their arguments and provide evidence for their claims. L2 writers face the same expectations in terms of source use as native speakers. However, L2 writers may find it more challenging to use sources effectively due to their limited knowledge of the target language, cultural differences, and differences in academic writing conventions (Hyland, 2002).

Source use has long been regarded as a critical component of academic composition in the field of L2 writing (Polio and Shi, 2012; Shaw and Pecorari, 2013). To produce high-quality academic writing, writers must use sources to support their arguments and provide evidence for their claims. L2 writers face the same expectations in terms of source use as native speakers. However, L2 writers may find it more challenging to use sources effectively due to their limited knowledge of the target language, cultural differences, and differences in academic writing conventions (Hyland, 2002). Source use is directly tied to the selection and linkage of source material in synthesis writing. One of the primary challenges that L2 writers face when using sources is accurately representing the ideas of others. L2 writers may struggle to understand the nuances of the target language, which can make it difficult to accurately paraphrase and summarise source material (Flowerdew and Li, 2007). In addition, cultural differences can affect how L2 writers interpret and use sources. L2 writers may not be familiar with the expectations of the target academic community, which can lead to inappropriate source use (Hyland, 2002).

Despite the challenges that L2 writers face when using sources, there are strategies that can help them use sources effectively. L2 writers should focus on building their vocabulary and developing a deeper understanding of the target language. This can help them accurately interpret and use source material (Flowerdew and Li, 2007). L2 writers should be encouraged to engage in critical reading practices. By analysing and evaluating source material, L2 writers can develop a deeper understanding of the conventions and expectations of the target academic community. This can help them make more informed decisions about how to use sources in their own writing (Hyland, 2002). L2 writers should be trained in proper citation practices. This includes learning how to use citation styles and avoiding plagiarism. L2 writers should also be taught how to effectively integrate

sources into their writing, such as using signal phrases and appropriate reporting verbs (Flowerdew and Li, 2007).

Source use provided significant problems to second language writers, as demonstrated by the aforementioned study (Yang and Plakans, 2012). This was especially true when it came to writing synthesis. Shi (2004) explored a variety of textual borrowing tactics used by both L1 and L2 learners in writing two synthesis tasks: summary and opinion essays, in important research on source-based writing. The goal of this study was to see how undergraduates' usage of sources was impacted by their first language and the sort of writing task they were given. Indeed, the study discovered that students' textual borrowing is influenced by their first language as well as the genre of writing task they are given. In all activities, Chinese L2 students borrowed considerably more terms from the sources than native English speakers. In the summary task, both groups of learners tended to rely more on source texts than in the opinion task, indicating that task types differed in their reliance on source material. The link between source usage and writing quality was unknown in this study since the focus was on the use of sources rather than the quality of the two synthesis assignments.

Unlike the previously reviewed research (Plakans, 2009a, 2009b), which indicated a substantial association between reading ability and synthesis writing quality, it is unclear how source use may impact the quality of synthesis written products. Plakans and Gebril (2012) investigated source use in an L2 integrated writing assessment, looking at the test takers' awareness of sources, the roles of source texts, and the connection between source use and writing score. The study discovered that using sources served many purposes: 1) gaining ideas and shaping one's view on the issue, 2) supporting the authors' opinion, and 3) providing linguistic assistance for L2 learners writing. Understanding of source texts revealed to be important in synthesis writing tasks, suggesting a threshold impact of L2 reading comprehension and L2 proficiency. Despite this, the association between source use and writing scores appeared to be equivocal, highlighting the difficulty of evaluating source use in synthesis task assessment.

Plakans and Gebril (2013) investigated L2 writers' use of source materials (adding listening to academic lecture as a new source type) and its relationship to test takers' writing performance in another study on integrated writing assessment, using TOEFL iBT integrated reading-listening-writing tasks. Three elements of source use were

investigated in this study: 1) the selection of key ideas from source texts, 2) the origin of ideas from sources, whether from reading or listening, and 3) the integration style, which includes explicit (i.e., quote) and implicit (i.e., paraphrase) usage of sources (i.e., paraphrasing or summarising). This study's quantitative analysis revealed that both the selection of essential ideas and the source of ideas predicted scores. High-scoring L2 writers were more likely to find and incorporate significant information into their composition. Surprisingly, verbatim copying from the reading passage and excessive reliance on the reading passage had a detrimental impact on writing grades. Furthermore, the listening component of sources had a considerable influence on the writing performance of L2 students. Due to the special requirements of the TOEFL integrated writing task and the delivery of the listening section, this should be read with caution.

There are numerous studies conducted on synthesis writing and source use experiences of the L2 learners in L2 writing. Below is a list of the most recent studies conducted.

Table 2.2. Related literature

Researcher(s) / year of publication	Participants	Methodology	Findings	Implications
<i>Chan and Yamashita (2022)</i>	N/A	Meta-analysis	- The results indicated that reading and writing skills were more strongly correlated than listening skills with respect to IW scores. - The correlation with text length was found to be the strongest, followed by source integration, organisation, and syntactic complexity. The weakest correlation was observed with lexical complexity.	It is evident that further research is necessary on Integrated Writing (IW), which should include not only reading but also listening and speaking activities.
<i>Toprak (2022)</i>	600 theses and dissertations	Qualitative study	- Both advisors and students often struggle to fully understand the requirements of academic writing. - They tend to view academic writing in a narrow and uniform way, with a conception of writing that is repeated across different contexts but makes limited contributions to the development of writing skills. - There is a need for a more nuanced and flexible understanding of academic writing, which recognizes the diverse range of disciplinary and professional contexts in which writing takes place.	The academic community in Türkiye is facing a significant need for epistemic writing centres and writing courses. The way writing is currently understood and put into practice requires an immediate and significant change
<i>Doolan (2021)</i>	Post-secondary L1 and L2 writers	Mixed design	L2 writing demonstrated more responsible use of various types of source integration compared to L1 writing; both L1 and L2 writing showed very low frequencies of synthesis writing	Results suggest the need for targeted instruction on synthesis writing and for careful consideration of how source material is integrated into student writing

<i>Çankaya (2020)</i>	57 EFL students	Quasi-experimental study	The suggested syllabus is proven to make a significant change in students' critical reading and critical writing skills.	● It is advisable to incorporate the perspectives and preferences of the learners in the development of the syllabus. ● instructors can design a course that is more tailored to the specific needs of the learners.
<i>Merkel (2020)</i>	5 undergraduate L2 students	Quasi-experimental case study	● Certain mitigating factors, such as the guidelines provided for assignments, had a disorienting effect on students as they worked on their tasks. ● These factors significantly influenced the actions that students took to complete their assignments and the amount of effort they put into becoming active members of their academic communities.	● Instructors should not only teach the fundamental features of source-based writing, such as paraphrasing and source usage, but also strive to empathise with their students. By identifying and addressing the specific issues and challenges faced by L2 students, instructors can modify their pedagogy to better meet the needs of their students, and thereby improve the effectiveness of their instruction.

<i>Mira and Fatimah (2020)</i>	59 EFL students	Qualitative study	49% of student paraphrases were classified as "minimal revision," which suggests that on average, twelve words from the original author's text were used verbatim in the students' 32-word paraphrases, indicating a high incidence of plagiarism. 59% of the paraphrases were categorised as "somewhat inappropriate," indicating that these paraphrases did not meet three to four criteria required for a properly executed paraphrase. - Verbal feedback obtained from an interview session with four respondents revealed that the students lacked a clear understanding of the concept of paraphrasing, as most of their knowledge was based on conjecture.	It is recommended to provide tools and resources to facilitate EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students and writers in verifying the authenticity of their own or others' paraphrases, thereby raising awareness of the issue of plagiarism in academic writing.
<i>Nguyen and Buckingham (2019)</i>	7 Vietnamese international Master's students	Qualitative study	- Insight into how students approach using sources in read-to-write assignments and incorporating content from source texts into assignment writing. - How electronic tools are used to identify, evaluate and interact with sources, and note the impact of text-matching software on student engagement with source content in writing. - Students' successful performance in text-based writing assignments may have been facilitated by their academic ability, mature-student status, and prior disciplinary-relevant writing experience in the workplace.	- The study's findings suggest the need for explicit instruction and support for international students in using sources effectively in read-to-write assignments. - The impact of text-matching software on student engagement with sources should be considered, and the study's findings may have implications for the design of writing courses for international Master's students.

<i>Payant et al. (2019)</i>	111	English for academic purposes students	Mixed method	• The study found that both anxiety and reading scores had a noteworthy impact on the CAEL (Canadian Academic English Language) writing band scores, indicating that they are significant predictors. • The interview data gathered during the study helped to provide a deeper understanding of the reading-to-plan strategies and challenges experienced by second language (L2) writers.	• It is recommended that writing teachers collaborate with their writing students to enhance their reading strategies, including their note-taking skills. • It is important for educators to raise students' awareness of the close relationship between reading and writing, as these skills are frequently taught separately and may not be fully integrated in a writing course.
<i>Weijen et al. (2018)</i>	20	L2 English students	Comparative analysis of L1 and L2 texts	• When comparing the texts of the same writer in their L1 and L2, it was found that there appears to be a relationship between their writing competencies in both languages. • There were some differences in the writers' source use behaviour between the two languages, but the strong positive correlations between the source use features suggest that this was more related to the individual writer than to the language itself.	It is possible for students to acquire writing-related skills in one language and then transfer them to another language, enabling them to apply these skills in their second language as well.
<i>Yalcin Duman and Saglam Gokturk (2020)</i>	Twenty	essays of undergraduate L2 learners	Quantitative study	• a considerable proportion of writers (67%) incorporated source-based ideas into their writing using incorrect APA citation, • proficient writers at levels 3 (54%) and 2 (46%) tended to use indirect citation more often than direct citation (quotations) as a method of borrowing from texts, • low proficiency writers tended to rely more on quotations (42%) and verbatim source use (31%)	• It is important not to limit proficiency to just language skills. • Developing academic literacy skills, which involve understanding the various rhetorical purposes for borrowing text and establishing a writer's own voice, are also critical components in the development of academic writing.

3. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the writing from a source experiences of ELT students at a state university in Türkiye along with interpreting the relationship among the reading comprehension, critical reading skills and academic writing in Turkish context as a new curriculum was introduced to teacher training programs. A new course, Critical Reading and Writing, was implemented into the ELT program. The outcome of this course expects students to be able to summarise and report the current studies of the field. The students are also expected to evaluate the selected studies within the local context and to compare and contrast the studies advocating different views on the issue. Accordingly, the students are supposed to produce authentic texts by synthesising these views (CoHE, 2018, <https://www.yok.gov.tr/kurumsal/idari-birimler/egitim-ogretim-dairesi/yeni-ogretmen-yetistirme-lisans-programlari>).

The aims of the study are twofold; therefore, in this study a mixed design, in which qualitative and quantitative research methods were used together, was selected. For the quantitative part, the previous various exam scores of students and their midterm and final scores of the course were obtained and the required analyses were carried out on these scores. For the qualitative part, the final assignments of the students were analysed and coded according to the framework developed by Shi (2004) to show the source-use experiences of the students. The coding scheme developed by Shi (2004) encompasses two dimensions: degree of modification of the source text and presence or absence of source attribution. Before that, the students were categorised and listed according to their success on final assignment grades. Two threshold scores were decided, and the students fell in three groups accordingly, high, mid, and low achievers. That is, the students who mostly managed to use the source texts appropriately by avoiding direct copying and by applying paraphrasing techniques were considered high achievers. Semi-structured interviews about the process of writing the final assignment, and source use were planned to be conducted with five (5) students from each group and the instructors of the course. Overall perspectives of the participants included in the interview questions.

This study used a correlational research design, in which quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed to identify patterns and relationships among variables. Participants were selected using a combination of convenient and purposive sampling techniques, with a total of 132 2nd year ELT students from Anadolu University

Faculty of Education participating in the study. Students' writing scores, reading scores, and critical thinking abilities were assessed using standardized measures, and semi-structured interviews were conducted with a subset of participants to gain deeper insights into their experiences and perspectives.

Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics and correlational analyses, while qualitative data were analysed using a content analysis approach. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses were then triangulated to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the factors that influenced students' engagement with critical reading and writing activities. Overall, the use of a correlational research design and triangulation of data sources helped to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings.

3.1. Research Setting

The study was conducted with the data collected from Anadolu University Faculty of Education English Language Teaching Department students with the permission of the Ethics Committee from the institution (Appendix VI). Anadolu University is one of the leading state universities in the field of foreign language education in Türkiye. In order to be placed in the department, students have to get a high score in the university entrance exam. The minimum score in the students' entrance years was 416,522, and the lowest success ranking was 8769. The entrance exam has two phases. In the first phase, Basic Proficiency Test (TYT in Turkish), the students are expected to answer 145 multiple choice questions (40 Turkish language, 25 Social Sciences, 40 Mathematics, and 20 Science). In the second phase, Foreign Language Test (YDT in Turkish), they answer 80 multiple choice questions as a language achievement test. Their OSYM scores consist of 40% of their TYT scores and 60% of their YDT scores. That is, the students studying in the Department of English Language Teaching are not placed solely on their foreign language proficiency. There are students who surpassed other students by solving more Mathematics or Science questions in the entrance exam. It is debatable that language proficiency is not a prerequisite in the university entrance exam held for student selection to the foreign language department.

The English language teaching department is a program that includes a 1-year compulsory preparatory class. Students who are placed in the department must take the proficiency exam at the beginning of the semester in order to be exempt from the preparatory school. Students who do not get the required score (60) from the proficiency exam can take the proficiency exam again after taking one or two semesters of preparatory education, depending on their level.

When the curriculum of the 2017-2018 academic year is examined, it will be seen that the students take the Academic Reading and Written Communication Skills courses in the first semester and the Critical Reading and Academic Writing and Reporting courses in the second semester. In the other semesters of the program, it is seen that the field courses are intense. Except for the first two semesters, there are no courses directly related to reading and writing skills in the program. However, this curriculum has been changed as per the decision taken by the Council of Higher Education.

In the new curriculum, it is seen that there are basic language skills lessons in the first two semesters as well as the earlier one. In addition, there is a Critical Reading and Writing (CRW) course in the third semester. It is noteworthy that the course hours and credits of the field courses in the old program were higher than in the new curriculum. Field courses and basic language skills lessons, which were previously at least 3 hours per week, have been reduced to 2 hours per week with the new curriculum.

Participants were second-year students of the new curriculum. They took Reading Skills I, II, and Writing Skills I, II in their first year and they were to take the CRW course, on which the study was based on. When the annual catalogues published by the university are compared, it is seen that the course contents of the reading and writing skill courses are the same. Therefore, it is possible to argue that the only change in the curriculum are the names, credits and hours of the courses. It also implies that the instructors attempt to deliver the same course content in two hours rather than three hours each week under the new curriculum. The course contents are given in the table below.

Table 3.1. *Course contents*

Course	Course Content
Reading Skills 1	● grasping different perspectives using authentic reading pieces such as newspapers, magazines, reviews, and academic articles, ● predicting inter-sentence connections and the main idea of an article, ● acquisition of high-level reading skills such as reaching the main idea and using semantic clues between sentences ● Gaining the habit of reading in and out of the classroom, ● development of critical thinking skills based on the synthesis, analysis, and evaluation of knowledge.
Reading Skills 2	● making inferences and understanding the meaning between the lines by induction and deduction, ● to comprehend direct and indirect, plain and figurative meanings by examining the information in reading texts, ● to be able to convey personal opinions to the texts read in short oral and written forms, ● understanding the fact that the meaning the reader deduces and the meaning intended by the author may differ from each other.
Writing Skills 1	● Paragraph formats and structure; technical characteristics of the paragraph, ● paragraph analysis; making a paragraph plan, ● producing text with description, comparison, discussion, narration types, writing summary, interpretation, ● writing short stories, reviews (on books and/or films) and formal/informal letters.
Writing Skills 2	● Reading to write, writing to be read, ● raising awareness about the practices to be done before, during and after writing; rewriting with paraphrase, ● the ability to review their writing; self-evaluation of what you have written; peer review, ● composition and homework report writing.
Critical Reading and Writing	● To be able to analyse, summarize and/or report current studies selected from the field of English language education, ● the ability to examine studies in their context and localize knowledge, ● Comparing and synthesizing texts advocating different views on the same subject and producing their own original texts.

3.2. Participants

The data for those purposes were collected from 2nd year ELT students of Anadolu University Faculty of Education in their new undergraduate course “Critical Reading and Writing”. All the students (8 groups) were the participants of the study; therefore, a convenient sampling was adopted. There were 141 students at the beginning of the study. Six (6) students were excluded from the study as they did not have OSYM Score, and three (3) students were excluded as they were transfer students and as they did not have 1st year reading and writing scores. A total of 132 students were the participants and the quantitative analysis was conducted on the data set. Two (2) of the students were excluded after the first descriptive analysis as they were outliers. The quantitative analysis is based on the data of 132 students’ scores.

The first phase of the qualitative analysis was conducted on 123 student papers as there were students who did not complete the final assignment of the Critical Reading and Writing course. The second phase of the analysis included content analysis of the semi-structured interviews of 15 students and 3 instructors.

The participant selection in this study used a combination of convenient and purposive sampling techniques. Convenient sampling was used to select all 2nd year ELT students from Anadolu University Faculty of Education who were enrolled in the new undergraduate course “Critical Reading and Writing” at the time of the study. This sampling technique was selected for its ease of recruitment and because all of the students in the course met the inclusion criteria.

In addition, purposive sampling was used to exclude students who did not meet specific eligibility criteria for the study. Specifically, six (6) students were excluded from the study as they did not have OSYM Score, and three (3) students were excluded as they were transfer students and did not have 1st year reading and writing scores. This is an example of purposive sampling, which is often used in studies where the researcher wants to select participants who meet specific criteria or characteristics.

After applying the exclusion criteria, a total of 132 students were included in the quantitative analysis. Two (2) of the students were excluded after the first descriptive analysis as they were outliers. This sample size was determined by the number of students who met the eligibility criteria and agreed to participate in the study. For the qualitative

analysis, a combination of purposive and convenience sampling techniques were used. The first phase of the qualitative analysis was conducted on 123 student papers, as there were some students who did not complete the final assignment of the Critical Reading and Writing course. The second phase of the analysis included content analysis of the semi-structured interviews of 15 students and 3 instructors. All of the instructors involved in this study were highly experienced in teaching writing. One of the instructors had over 20 years of experience in the ELT department and had written a Master's thesis on peer feedback in L2 writing. S/he holds a PhD degree in the field. The second instructor had also been teaching in the department for over 20 years and had extensive experience teaching writing courses at all proficiency levels in the prep school and in the department. Furthermore, this instructor held an MA degree in the field of ELT. The third instructor, who had over 20 years of experience in the department, was also involved in teaching writing courses and had obtained an MA degree in ELT as well. Overall, the study benefited from the expertise of instructors who had significant experience in teaching writing and had demonstrated their knowledge through advanced degrees and specialized research.

For the interview part of the study, the instructors who taught the course were interviewed first. A purposive sampling technique was employed to select student interviewees who were likely to provide rich and insightful data related to the research questions. Specifically, students were selected based on their writing scores, as these were considered an important indicator of their ability to engage in critical reading and writing activities. Invitations to participate in the interviews were sent to students who had achieved high, mid, and low scores on the writing assignment, with the aim of capturing a range of perspectives and experiences.

Of the students who were invited to participate, those who accepted the invitation were ultimately included in the study. This approach allowed the researcher to capture a diverse range of experiences and perspectives, while also ensuring that the participants were willing and able to devote the time and energy required to provide in-depth responses.

The use of purposive sampling in this study helped to ensure that the qualitative data obtained were of high quality and provided valuable insights into the experiences and perspectives of the participants. By selecting participants from high, mid, and low-

achieving groups, the researcher was able to gain a nuanced understanding of the factors that influenced students' engagement with critical reading and writing activities, and to identify areas where additional support and resources may be needed.

Overall, the combination of convenience and purposive sampling techniques used in this study allowed the researcher to obtain a comprehensive dataset that provided a rich understanding of the experiences and perspectives of 2nd year ELT students in their new undergraduate course “Critical Reading and Writing”.

Finally, it is worth noting that the researcher played a dual role in the study, as both a researcher and a participant-observer. This role was crucial to the research design and analysis, as it allowed the researcher to gain a more nuanced understanding of the experiences and perspectives of the students and instructors in the course. This dual role was crucial in the research. When it comes to qualitative studies, the role of a participant-observer is not a straightforward "yes or no" situation, but rather a spectrum that spans from complete involvement to complete detachment (Patton, 2002).

3.3. Instruments

To test critical reading skills, mid-term exam scores will be used. In the exam, the students were given a text on “Ethics of Internet” and asked to answer a set of comprehension questions. Then, they were asked to write a summary of the text or to write a response to the text (Appendix III).

Their source use experiences were extracted from the final task they were assigned for their final grades of the Critical Reading and Writing Course. In that task the students were asked to write a problem solution essay on the topic “Procrastination”. The students were given three sources and they were told that to use them in their essays was necessary. They had to use at least five sources and they were told to use nonverbal evidence to support their claims. The task should be prepared following APA style, and they were asked to cite their sources appropriately. The students were also aware that their works would be analysed on Turnitin, which allows the instructors to see the similarity percentages of the students' works (Appendix IV).

The students were given the structure and written expression and reading comprehension sections of a TOEFL Test. First section of the test consists of 15 multiple

choice structure questions and 35 written expression questions to test the students' ability to recognize grammar and usage suitable for standard written English (see Appendix VII). In the written structure section, the students were expected to choose one of the erroneous uses among four underlined words or phrases, which is a typical question type of TOEFL. 25 minutes were given to this section and the application was sat in the classroom. In the reading comprehension section of the test, the students had 55 minutes to answer 50 multiple-choice reading comprehension questions of 4 different passages.

To look at the source use behaviours of the students, the framework developed by Shi (2004) was used, which is explained in detail under the data analysis section.

3.4. Semi-Structured Interviews

The interview questions were sent to five (5) field experts and the questions were revised according to the comments and suggestions of the experts. Thesis committee members also gave insights and recommendations for the questions during the progress phases. The last version of the interview questions was presented in thesis progress report. After the approval of the committee a pilot semi-structured interview was conducted with three (3) students. As a result of the pilot interview, it was seen that the interview questions were clear and understandable. It is also determined how long an interview will take on average. Semi-structured interviews for the thesis were conducted as detailed below. When there were points that were not understood by the interviewee during the interview, the researcher intervened and explained the questions.

The interviewees were chosen according to their final grades of the Critical Reading and Writing Course. Their final scores were taken from the student affairs office and the accumulated average of midterm and final exams were known to be used in grading (40% of the midterm and 60% of the final exam). The students were classified as high achievers, mid achievers, and low achievers.

Nine students, whose final scores were above 85 out of 100, were invited to the interview as high achievers. Five (5) of the students, whose scores ranging from 89 to 95, accepted to take part to the interview. Seven (7) students from the mid achievers were asked to take part and five (5) of them were interviewed. Their final scores range from 59 to 74. The students who would represent the low achievers were chosen among the

ones whose scores were below 45. Eight (8) students from that group were invited to the interview and five (5) of them were interviewed.

The instructors of the “Critical Reading and Writing” course were also interviewed. These interviews were conducted in their offices. The lecturers of the course were also informed about the study before the interview. The instructors were also asked to sign a consent form, and it was stated to the instructors that they could withdraw from the study at any time. As a researcher, I was also one of the lecturers who taught the CRW for one semester.

The date of the interviews was decided by communicating with each of the students and the students were invited to the researcher's office one by one in accordance with this planning. Semi-structured interviews with students were held in the researcher's office and each interview was recorded. The students were informed about the study before the interview. They all signed a consent form, which is in Turkish and gives the details of the study. They were assured that their personal information would be confidential, and their names would not be used in any phase of the study. They were also reminded that they would withdraw from the study in any phase. The interviews lasted about 30 minutes for each participant. The recordings were then transcribed in Word format and the analysis were conducted from those transcripts.

3.5. Data Analysis

The study consists of two types of data. The quantitative data were analysed through SPSS and the results reported accordingly. Correlations and regression analysis were tabulated and given. For the qualitative data collected through semi structured interviews and final writing assignment, document analysis were conducted.

The systematic assessment and evaluation of documents, including printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) content, is known as document analysis. Document analysis calls for data to be studied and evaluated to extract meaning, acquire insight, and create empirical knowledge, similar to other analytical techniques in qualitative research (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; see also Rapley, 2007). Researchers often analyse earlier literature as part of their investigations and include such material into their findings. Document analysis is often used as part of triangulation, which is defined as

"the combining of approaches in the study of the same phenomena," along with other qualitative research techniques (Denzin, 1970, p. 291). Documents offer background information, a context for further inquiry, supplemental data, a way to monitor change and progress, and confirmation of results from other data sources (Bowen, 2016).

Skimming (superficial examination), reading (thorough examination), and interpretation are all parts of document analysis. This iterative technique combines content and theme analysis aspects. The process of categorizing material into categories linked to the research's primary concerns is known as content analysis (Bowen, 2016).

The data set used for the quantitative analysis consists of 9 different scores of the students:

- i.** 1st year Reading Courses' final scores (2 semesters),
- ii.** 1st year Writing Courses' final scores (2 semesters),
- iii.** university entrance exam scores,
- iv.** prep school pass scores,
- v.** structure-reading test scores,
- vi.** Critical Reading and Writing course midterm scores as critical reading scores,
- vii.** Critical Reading and Writing course final scores.

In order to answer the first research question, a correlational analysis was conducted among the variables. And for the second research question, a set of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to see the unique and relative contributions of the variables under investigation to the dependent variable, Critical Reading and Writing final score.

The qualitative data set consisted of interview transcripts and final writing assignments of the students. The final assignments were coded according to the framework which has been detailed below. The interview transcripts were analysed via content analysis and the answers for each question were reported with excerpts. While reporting the interviews each question was regarded as a code itself and the answers to the questions were examined accordingly.

Students' final assignments were coded according to the framework developed by Shi (2004) in terms of resource use. Three main types of textual borrowing are classified by the coding scheme: (a) borrowing without references, (b) borrowing with references

to the author or the original text, and (c) borrowing with quotations. The first and second categories are further divided into three subcategories to show whether word strings were (a) precisely copied, (b) slightly modified by adding or deleting words or using synonyms for content words, or (c) closely paraphrased by rearranging the syntax or changing the wording of the original text (Shi, 2004).

Table 3.2. Coding framework

Major Categories	Subcategories	Codes
With no reference (N)	The exact same word combinations (C)	NC
	A string of words with a few additions, deletions, or substitutions for the content words (M)	NM
	Word combinations that have been changed by reformulating the syntax or structure of the source text (R)	NR
With reference to the author (R)	the exact same word combinations (C)	RC
	A string of words with a few additions, deletions, or substitutions for the content words (M)	RM
	Word combinations that have been changed by reformulating the syntax or structure of the source text (R)	RR
With quotation (Q)	the exact same word combinations (C)	QC

The borrowings made by the students from the articles given as a source were coded and noted down according to the criteria specified in the framework, and the frequency values of each label were tabulated in the results section.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants to gather qualitative data about their experiences with critical reading and writing. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and later translated into English by a professional language expert to ensure accuracy. The interviews were then manually coded for analysis. The coding process involved reading through all of the interview transcripts to gain a general understanding of the data, followed by segmentation of the transcripts into smaller, more manageable units. These units were then manually coded based on the content of the responses. Each question was regarded as themes and coding was done accordingly. After the initial coding was completed, the codes were organized under the themes. This allowed for a more comprehensive and organized analysis of the data, as patterns and connections between codes were identified. The results of the analysis were reported by including excerpts from the transcripts that were representative of the main themes and patterns identified. The themes that emerged from the analysis included students' attitudes towards critical reading and writing, their approaches to resource use, and their perceptions of the importance of critical reading and writing skills. Each theme was discussed in detail, with examples of supporting quotes from the transcripts.

4. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1. Quantitative Data

In order to establish the relationship between the independent variables and critical reading and writing scores Pearson correlation was administered. As for measuring the variance in critical reading and writing scores attributable to the variance in the independent variables, a series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Prior to the relevant analyses, a set of additional analyses were run to make sure that the data meet several requirements. The following section presents the preliminary analysis results.

4.1.1. Results for assumption check

The data were analysed first to determine whether the assumptions of outliers, collinearity, normality of error distribution, and homoscedasticity were met. Based on the results, the necessary actions were taken to ensure that the data met all the assumptions before proceeding to the actual analysis.

First, the data were checked whether there were any outliers in the dataset. Initially, the results indicated that there were some outliers in the dataset violating the assumption of no-outliers (*Std. Residual Min* = -3.52, *Std. Residual Max* = 2.11). Based on standard residual statistics, 2 participants were detected to be outliers and removed from data analysis. A second analysis was conducted to see if removing the participants was effective in achieving no-outliers assumption. Removing the two participants from the dataset proved to be effective since the optimal value (between -3.29 and 3.29) for standard residuals was achieved (*Std. Residual Min* = -3.27, *Std. Residual Max* = 2.05).

The second assumption for regression analysis is whether the independent variables do not correlate too strongly with each other. If collinearity exists among two independent variables, it means that the researcher is measuring the same construct in reality and one of the variables should be excluded from the model. In this regard, each independent variable was checked whether a multicollinearity problem was observed. The results demonstrated that multicollinearity was not observed among the independent variables (OSYM Scores, *Tolerance* = .95, *VIF* = 1.53; preparatory exam score, *Tolerance* =

.72, $VIF = 1.37$; reading scores, $Tolerance = .60$, $VIF = 1.65$; grammar and reading test scores, $Tolerance = .81$, $VIF = 1.23$; critical reading and writing mid-term scores, $Tolerance = .69$, $VIF = 1.44$; and writing scores, $Tolerance = .62$, $VIF = 1.60$).

The third assumption for regression analysis is that of independent errors, that is, the measurement errors in the dataset should be uncorrelated. The results highlight that these assumptions have been met (*Durbin-Watson value* = 1.44).

Another assumption of regression analysis regards the normality of distribution of errors, which means that the measurement errors observed in the dataset demonstrate a normal distribution curve. Figure 1 and 2 demonstrate the distribution of errors across the dataset.

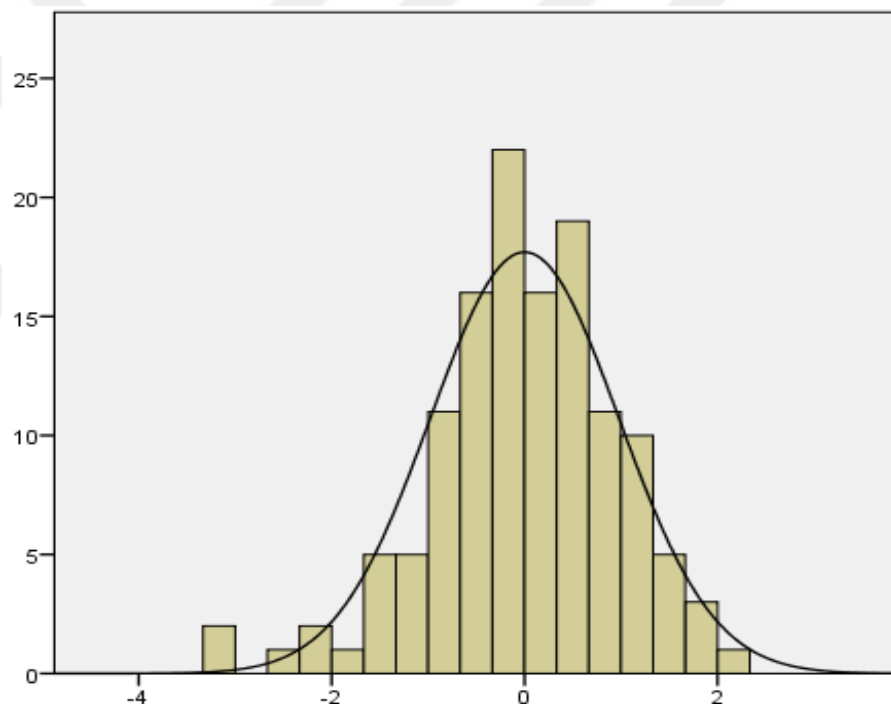


Figure 4.1. *Regression standardised residual*

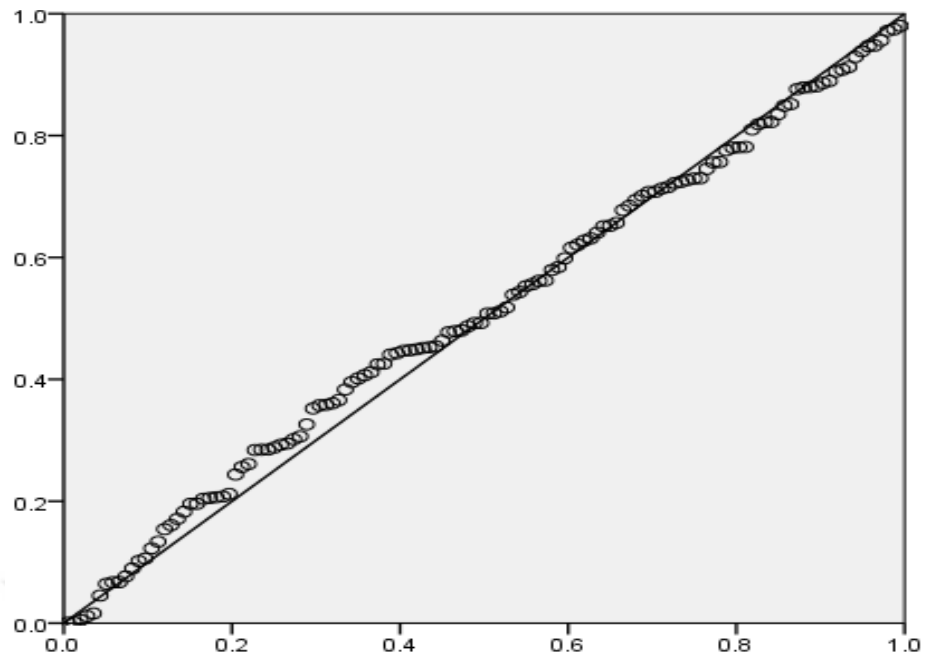


Figure 4.2. *Normal P-P Plot of regression standardised residual*

As seen in Figure 1, the dataset demonstrates a normal distribution curve in terms of distribution of errors. Similarly, when we investigate figure 2, it can be seen that measurement errors are scattered close to the regression line. Both observations ensure that the data meet the assumption of normal distribution of errors.

Final assumption of regression analysis is that of homoscedasticity and linearity. Figure 3 presents the distribution of variances across the dataset.

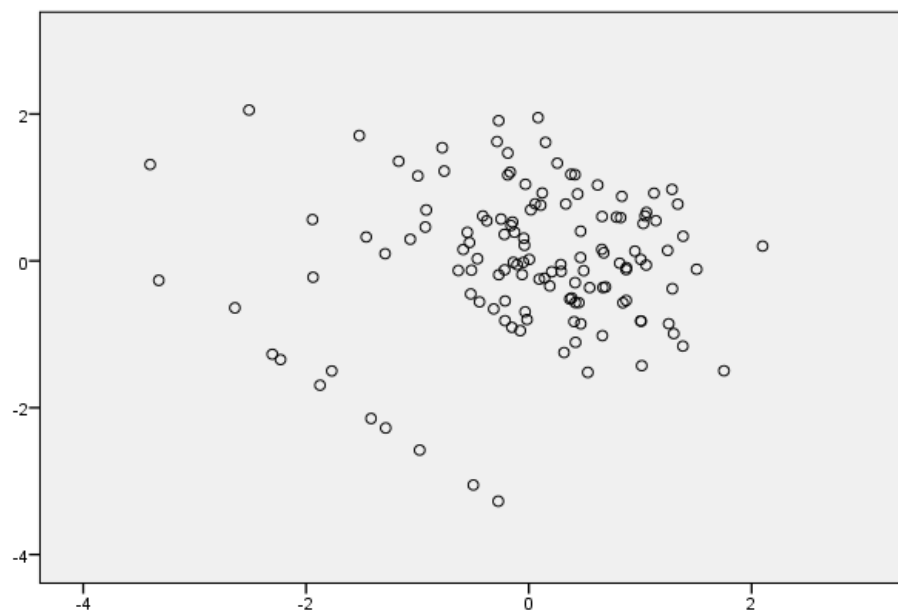


Figure 4.3. *Scatterplot of homogeneity of variances*

When figure 3 is investigated, it can be observed that the points are symmetrically and nearly evenly over and below the zero line, which indicates that the variance is homogeneously distributed.

With all the assumptions met for regression analysis, the relevant statistical procedures were conducted to analyse the data. First, Pearson correlation was computed to explore the relationship among the variables and following the correlation analysis, multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to determine the variance in source based academic writing scores attributable to variance in the dependent variables. Table 1 presents some descriptive statistics i.e. mean, standard deviation, minimum scores, and maximum scores obtained from each one of the instruments.

Table 4.1. *Descriptive statistics for the variables*

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Academic writing score	130	0	97	59.11	23.15
OSYM Score		374.06	488.49	422.71	10.72
Preparatory Scores		62.00	98.75	80.22	7.80
Grammar and Reading test scores		10.0	83.0	60.22	10.84
1 st year reading scores		28.75	94.05	69.67	11.41
1 st year writing scores		22.30	93.20	72.59	12.69
Critical reading scores		5	50	30.77	9.48

Pearson Correlation results obtained for investigating the strengths of association among the variables are displayed in table 4.2.

Table 4.2. *Pearson correlation analysis results*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Academic writing score		.15	.22*	.19*	.68**	.47**	.49**
2. OSYM Score			.18*	.03	.14	.15	.12
3. Preparatory Scores				.41**	.15	.33**	.31**
4. Grammar and Reading test scores					.18*	.22*	.23**
5. 1st year reading scores						.55**	.49**
6. 1st year writing scores							.41**
7. Critical reading scores							

*. Correlation is significant at .05 level

**. Correlation is significant at .01 level

As seen in table 2, the results of the correlation analysis yielded weak to strong correlations among the variables varying in terms of the level of significance. There are certain strengths of association worth mentioning among the variables. First of all, 1st year reading scores ($M= 69.67$, $SD=11.41$) demonstrate a significant strong positive correlation with the dependent variable, academic writing scores ($r=.68$, $p<.01$). It can be argued that higher reading scores were associated with higher scores on academic writing task and vice-versa.

Critical reading scores ($M=30.77$, $SD=9.48$) also correlated significantly with academic writing scores yet the strength of association was moderate and slightly below strong ($r=.49$, $p<.01$). Another significant finding is the moderate strength of association between 1st year writing scores ($M=72.59$, $SD=12.69$) and academic writing scores ($r=.47$, $p<.01$). Taken together, both critical reading and 1st year writing scores yielded similar strengths of association with academic writing scores, which means that academic writing process benefits a significant contribution from the two variables.

In addition to significant correlations obtained between the independent variables and academic writing scores, there are also important findings regarding the strength of association among certain independent variables. One such finding was observed between 1st year reading scores and 1st year writing scores which correlated strongly and

significantly with each other ($r=.55$, $p<.01$). Considering their relationship with the dependent variable, academic writing scores, this finding is even more noteworthy as scores in both variables are parallel to a large extent. Put differently, higher scores in one of the variables are associated with higher scores on the other, which in turn yielded considerable strength of association with academic writing. In addition, significant moderate correlations were observed between 1st year reading scores and critical reading scores ($r=.49$) and between 1st year writing scores and critical reading scores ($r=.41$) with $p<.01$. In this sense, critical reading scores, and reading and writing scores can be said to be linked to each other to a considerable extent. Another finding which deserves specific attention is the significant moderate correlation between preparatory education scores ($M=80.22$, $SD=7.80$) and grammar and reading test scores ($M=60.22$, $SD=10.84$) with a correlation coefficient value of $r=.41$ and $p<.01$. It is evident and also reasonable that grammar and reading scores are closely related to preparatory scores which comprise a great deal of syntactic and reading competency.

When we investigate the rest of the correlation values, there are not any notable strengths of associations obtained among the variables, especially those regarding ÖSYM scores, preparatory scores, and grammar and reading scores in relation with the dependent variable of academic writing. These trivial associations among these three independent variables and academic writing necessitates to control for these variables in the hierarchical regression and investigate the unique and relative contribution of 1st year reading and writing scores, and critical reading scores to academic writing score.

The following section presents the findings of hierarchical regression analyses conducted to find out the proportion of variance in academic writing scores explained by the variance in the three independent variables, i.e. 1st year reading and writing scores, and critical reading scores when controlling for the other three variables which are beyond the course instructors' reach, namely, ÖSYM scores, preparatory education scores, and grammar and reading scores.

4.1.2. Results of the hierarchical regression analyses

For measuring the relative and unique contributions of each one of the variables, a set of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. First, the three variables, ÖSYM

scores, preparatory overall scores, and grammar and reading scores were entered into model 1. These variables were entered first into the model for two reasons: a) these variables demonstrated relatively weak strengths of association with academic writing, and b) the variables should be controlled for as they are beyond the course teachers' reach. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3. *Hierarchical regression results for model 1*

Model	R	R ²	Change statistics				
			R ² Change	F change	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.157	.025	.025	3.229	1	128	.07
2	.252	.063	.039	5.243	1	127	.02
3	.276	.076	.013	1.774	1	126	.18

Predictors: (Constant), OSYM Score

Predictors: (Constant), OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall

Predictors: (Constant), OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, Grammar-Reading Test

When the regression results for the model are investigated, it can be clearly seen that the overall variance in academic writing scores explained by the variables together ($F(3, 129) = 3.468$) is 7.6% ($R^2 = .07$, $p < .05$). However, the only significant unique contribution was observed to come from preparatory overall scores ($F(1, 127) = 5.243$) with 4% of the variance in academic writing scores explained by this variable alone (F change = 5.243, $p < .05$). In order to see if there was an overlap of variances attributable to preparatory overall scores and grammar-reading test scores, the order of the two variables was adjusted and a second model was tested. The results for model 2 are displayed in table 4.4.

Table 4.4. *Hierarchical regression results for model 2*

Model	R	R ²	Change statistics				
			R ² Change	F change	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.157	.025	.025	3.229	1	128	.075
2	.242	.059	.034	4.574	1	127	.034
3	.276	.076	.018	2.423	1	126	.122

Predictors: (Constant), OSYM Score

Predictors: (Constant), OSYM Score, Grammar-Reading Test

Predictors: (Constant), OSYM Score, Grammar-Reading Test, Preparatory Overall

As a result of the change in the order the two variables were entered into the model, this time only grammar-reading test scores ($F(1, 127) = 4.574$) were found to significantly explain 3.4% of the variance in academic writing scores not accounted by OSYM scores ($F \text{ change} = 4.574, p < .05$). A similar case to that observed in model 1 regarding the unique contribution of the variable entered into the model in the last step was observed in the second model: preparatory overall scores explained a small amount of variance not accounted for by the other two variables, and the contribution was not significant. Comparing the unique contributions of grammar-reading and preparatory overall scores, the former explains a 0.5% additional variance in academic writing scores. It can be said that the two variables overlap with each other in explaining variance in academic writing scores to a large extent. Therefore, the small amount of variance explained by the three variables led us to enter these variables as a block in the following regression analyses and refer to these variables as peripheral variables.

In order to determine the unique and relative contribution of the latter three independent variables i.e. 1st year reading and writing scores, and critical writing scores to academic writing, another set of hierarchical analyses were conducted by changing the order these three variables were entered into the regression model. In the first model, 1st year writing scores were entered into the model after the first three independent variables were controlled for. The results of the regression analysis are displayed in table 4.5.

Table 4.5. *Hierarchical Regression Results for 1st year writing*

Model	R	R ²	Change statistics				
			R ² Change	F change	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.276 ^a	.076	.076	3.468	3	126	.018
2	.484 ^b	.234	.158	25.736	1	125	.000

Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall

Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, 1st year writing score

When we entered 1st year writing scores to the model, the explanatory power of the model increased significantly to 23% of variance in academic writing scores attributable to the variables in the model. When we further investigate the model, 1st year writing scores ($F(1, 125) = 9.546$) can be seen to significantly bring about additional 16% of explanatory power to the model ($F \text{ change} = 25.736, p < .001$). In this regard, writing scores alone can explain twice as much variance as the three variables in academic writing scores.

In the next model, 1st year reading scores were entered into the model to see the unique contribution of this variable to academic writing scores when controlling for the effects of peripheral variables and 1st year writing scores. The results of the regression are presented in table 4.6.

Table 4.6. *Hierarchical regression results for 1st year reading*

Model	R	R ²	Change statistics				
			R ² Change	F change	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.276	.076	.076	3.468	3	126	.018
2	.484	.234	.158	25.736	1	125	.000
3	.696	.484	.250	60.103	1	124	.000

Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall

Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, 1st year writing score

Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, 1st year writing score, 1st year reading score

The results of the regression analysis clearly underlines that 1st year reading scores ($F(1, 124)= 23.268$) significantly increased the explanatory power of the model with 25% of additional variance explained by the model when peripheral variables and writing scores were controlled for ($F\ change= 60.103, p< .001$). To this end, 1st year reading scores outperform the peripheral variables and writing scores together as the latter variables explain 23% of variance in academic writing together while reading scores alone accounted for 25% of variance.

Finally, critical reading scores were entered into the model to determine if additional variance can be accounted for by these variables when the rest of the variables were statistically controlled for. The results are displayed in table 4.7.

Table 4.7. *Hierarchical regression results for critical reading*

Model	R	R ²	Change statistics				
			R ² Change	F change	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.276	.076	.076	3.468	3	126	.018
2	.484	.234	.158	25.736	1	125	.000
3	.696	.484	.250	60.103	1	124	.000
4	.711	.506	.021	5.347	1	123	.022
Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall							
Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, 1 st year writing score							
Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, 1 st year writing score, 1 st year reading score							
Predictors: (Constant), Grammar-Reading Test, OSYM Score, Preparatory Overall, 1 st year writing score, 1 st year reading score, critical reading scores							

The regression analysis with all the variables entered into the model ($F(6, 123)= 20.961$) can significantly explain 50% of the variance in academic writing scores ($R^2= .50, p<.001$). The additional variance explained by critical reading scores is 2% ($F\ change= 5.347, p<.05$).

In order to figure out how much overlap exists among the latter variables, the order of the model was adjusted in a way to control for the other two variables as a block. Table 4.8 displays the regression analyses results for the contribution of each one of the variables when the other variables are controlled for. The first row of each model belongs to the values obtained for peripheral variables and the second row depicts the other two variables statistically controlled for.

Table 4.8. *Regression results for unique contribution of each variable*

Model	R	R ²	Change statistics				
			R ² Change	F change	df1	df2	Sig.
a	.506	.506	.076	3.468	3	126	.018
	.506	.506	.426	53.014	2	124	.000
	.506	.506	.004	.872	1	123	.352
b	.276	.076	.076	3.468	3	126	.018
	.576	.332	.256	23.759	2	124	.000
	.711	.506	.173	43.129	1	123	.000
c	.276	.076	.076	3.468	3	126	.018
	.696	.484	.408	49.004	2	124	.000
	.711	.506	.021	5.347	1	123	.022

a. unique contribution of 1st year writing

b. unique contribution of 1st year reading

c. unique contribution of critical reading

When model a is investigated, it is evident that 1st year writing scores fall short in bringing about a significant change in the overall explanatory power of the model when the other variables are kept under control ($F(1, 123) = .872, p > .05$) with only 0.4% of unique variance in academic writing scores explained. Unlike when entered first into the model, 1st year writing score was found to drastically lose its explanatory power once critical reading and 1st year scores were statistically controlled for. This indicates that 1st year writing scores share a large proportion of common variance with the other two variables.

Model b depicts the unique contribution of 1st year reading scores to academic writing when all the other variables are statistically controlled for. Among all the variables, the largest unique contribution comes from 1st year reading scores ($F(1, 123) = 43.129, p > .05$) with 17% of the variance in academic writing scores explained by this variable alone.

In model c, the unique contribution of critical reading scores to academic writing is presented. When investigated in detail, the results clearly underline that critical reading scores ($F(1, 123) = 5.347, p < .05$) significantly add up to the model a 2% of variance explained in academic writing scores after the other variables are controlled.

Considering the variance explained by the three variables which are beyond control of the course teachers and that explained by the other three variables, i.e. 1st year reading and writing scores, and critical reading scores, the effect of the former three variables seems to be a trivial one. In addition, a final model built to determine the peripheral variables' contribution to academic writing when the other variables were controlled for showed that these three variables accounted for only 0.5% additional variance which is highly negligible.

4.1.3. The distribution of source use incidents across groups

Another aim of the study was to take a picture of the participants' source use incidents. To find out the pattern of distribution of source-use incidents, we first divided the participants into low achievers, mid-achievers and high-achievers based on which quartiles their academic writing scores fell within. In this regard, the participants in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quartiles were placed in low, mid and high achievers respectively. The groups were then compared in terms of their mean scores in each one of the source-use incident types. Table 4.9 presents the ANOVA results for all the source-use incidents.

Table 4.9. *ANOVA results for SU incidents across groups*

SU Type	Group	N	Mean	SD	F	<i>p</i>
NC	Low	26	3.35	2.09	6.390	.002
	Mid	65	2.12	2.12		
	High	32	1.34	2.16		
NM	Low		.31	.73	2.928	.057
	Mid		1.22	2.54		
	High		1.81	2.78		
NR	Low		2.73	2.25	7.405	.001
	Mid		3.65	3.57		
	High		6.44	5.58		
RC	Low		2.77	1.84	2.214	.114
	Mid		2.42	1.91		
	High		1.78	1.69		
RM	Low		.88	.99	8.873	.000
	Mid		1.34	1.58		
	High		2.59	2.18		
RR	Low		.23	.43	27.445	.000
	Mid		1.20	1.69		
	High		4.25	3.69		
QC	Low		.65	1.05	2.823	.063
	Mid		1.37	2.24		
	High		2.00	2.55		

The ANOVA results highlight that the groups significantly differ from each other in terms of NC ($F(2, 120) = 6.390, p < .05$); NR ($F(2, 120) = 7.405, p < .05$); RM ($F(2, 120) = 8.873, p < .001$); and RR type of source use incidents ($F(2, 120) = 27.445, p < .001$). In the other types of source use incidents, namely, NM, RC, and QC, there were not statistically significant differences between the groups $p > .05$. Post hoc tests were used to detect which pairs differed statistically from each other. When the results of these post hoc test were investigated, most significant differences were found to be between low and high achiever groups. For example, only low achievers ($M = 3.35, SD = 2.09$) and high

achievers ($M=1.34$, $SD= 2.16$) differed significantly in terms of NC type of source use incidents. The mid achiever group scored close to the other groups, thus leading to insignificant statistical difference. Similarly, in terms of NR type of source use incidents, only low achievers ($M=2.73$, $SD=2.25$) and high achievers ($M=6.44$, $SD= 5.58$) differed significantly from each other but not from mid achievers. A similar case was also observed in RM type of observations with low achievers ($M= .88$, $SD=.99$) significantly differing from high achievers ($M=2.59$, $SD=2.18$). The mid achiever group did not differ significantly from either one of the other two groups.

These findings led us to exclude the mid-achiever group from statistical analysis. In addition, that two groups were left for data analysis, and that mean score comparison was not sensitive enough to detect the actual distribution of SU types across groups led us to abort mean score comparison and use chi square test instead. The new method was aimed at finding out the proportion of different types of source use incidents observed across two groups. To provide a picture of the distribution of source use incidents across the two groups, a 2x2 chi-square analysis was conducted. The results of the analysis are displayed in the table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10. *Distribution of source use incidents across groups*

Incident type	group				Total		X^2	p
	low		high					
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
NC	87	66.9%	43	33.1%	130	13.9%	186.735	.000
NM	8	12.1%	58	87.9%	66	7.1%		
NR	71	25.6%	206	74.4%	277	29.6%		
RC	72	55%	59	45%	131	14%		
RM	23	21.1%	86	78.9%	109	11.6%		
RR	6	4.2%	136	95.8%	142	15.2%		
QC	17	21%	64	79%	81	8.7%		
Total	284	30.3%	652	69.7%	936			

The results of the chi-square test of independence showed that the distribution of source use incidents was highly contingent upon achievement scores ($X^2(6, 936)=186.735, p<.001$). A detailed look at the chi-square results shows that the two groups demonstrated a total of 936 source-use incidents. Of all the source-use incidents, high achievers displayed 652 cases while the number among the low achievers was 284 equalling 69.7% and 30.35% of the incidents respectively. When the overall display of source-use incidents is taken into consideration, high achievers can be said to significantly outperform low achievers, meaning that they are engaged in significantly higher numbers of source-use patterns. In a source-use incident type manner, apart from RC, there is a significant link between the distribution of source-use incident types and achievement groups.

First of all, the low-achiever group was found to engage in NC type significantly more frequently than the high achiever group did with the number of incidents making

up 66.9% of the total incidents displayed by both groups together. High achievers on the other hand used NC with a proportion of 33.1% of the total NC incidents.

Second, unlike in NC incidents in which the low achiever group demonstrated a significantly higher proportion of the total incidents, high achievers demonstrated 87.9% of NM incidents. This indicates that NM types of source-use is significantly more common among high-achievers than that among low-achievers.

Third, similar to the case observed in NC type of source-use incidents, a significantly larger proportion of the total NR incidents, with 74.4%, was observed in the high-achiever group. It is an interesting finding that the high-achiever group tends to paraphrase the source material without giving a reference more frequently than the low achiever group. It can be argued that the high achiever group feel more confident to paraphrase the source material while the low achiever group remain hesitant in this type of source use.

Another important finding of the study, though not signalling a statistically significant difference between the groups, is that all the participants tend to use a direct quotation with reference without using quotation marks in a more or less similar proportion. This is an important finding since it indicates that the students may not be aware that they are actually violating citation rules.

A similar finding to the rest of source-use incidents was obtained in RM type of source-use incidents. The participants in the high-achiever group demonstrated an overwhelming proportion of the total incidents in this type with 78.9% versus 21.1%. Put differently, high achiever groups prefer to make small adjustments in the source material more frequently than their counterparts.

An astounding finding was obtained in RR incidents with high achieving group significantly surpassing their counterparts in the low achiever group. A crushing 95.8% of the total incidents in this category belonged to the participants in the high-achiever group. High achiever group, in this sense, can be argued to follow the appropriate procedures in paraphrasing with reference.

Finally, the high-achiever group was found to adopt QC type of source-use incidents significantly more frequently than the low achiever groups with a 79%

proportion of the total incidents. This, once more, underlines that high-achiever group is more skilled than their counterparts regarding the use of quotations with a due reference.

In sum, there is a significant link between the proportion of types of source-use incidents and writing ability with a clear advantage of high achievers. The only area where the two groups did not differ significantly was the way they adopted RC type of source-use. The remaining types enjoyed a significant difference between the two groups.

4.2. Qualitative Data

In this section the findings of the semi-structured interviews will be presented with the excerpts. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and translated into English by the researcher. The interviews provide insights on the context in general from the perspectives of instructors and students. The questions used in the interviews mainly seek answers to the research setting and past experiences of the participants regarding reading and writing skill courses of the department (Appendix VIII). Besides, the notion of plagiarism and the way they use source(s) in integrated writing tasks are examined. The findings contain valuable data that can be used in the interpretation of the quantitative analysis.

Each of the questions was determined as a theme for the qualitative research and the findings were exemplified with quotations from the views of the participants. The findings will also be used in the discussion section in justifying the quantitative results. Before that, a table showing the source use incidents of each group for each type is presented below.

This table shows the results of a study that analysed the source use incidents of students in their writing. The table presents the frequencies and percentages of six distinct types of source use incidents: no reference with direct copy (NC), no reference with slight modification (NM), paraphrasing without reference (NR), reference with direct copy (RC), reference with slight modification (RM), and reference with paraphrasing (RR). The table also includes the frequency and percentage of students who used a quotation with a reference (QC). The data is presented for three groups of students: low achievers, mid-achievers, and high achievers. The "Total" row shows the combined data for all three groups. Because the groups were determined according to quartiles of final writing

scores, the number of the students in each group is not equal. Therefore, interpreting the table by looking at the numbers and percentages below may be misleading. The ANOVA and Chi-square analyses present a more concise explanation to the frequencies and distribution of the incidents among groups.



Table 4.11. *Source use frequencies of the students*

	NC		NM		NR		RC		RM		RR		QC		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low Achievers <i>n=26</i>	87	30,6	8	2,8	71	25,0	72	25,4	23	8,1	6	2,1	17	6,0	284	100
Mid Achievers <i>n=65</i>	138	16,0	79	9,1	237	27,4	157	18,2	87	10,1	78	9,0	89	10,3	865	100
High Achievers <i>n=32</i>	43	6,6	58	8,9	206	31,6	59	9,0	86	13,2	136	20,9	64	9,8	652	100
Total	268	14,9	145	8,1	514	28,5	286	16,0	193	10,9	220	12,2	170	9,4	1801	100

NC: no reference with direct copy,
 NM: no reference with slight modification,
 NR: paraphrasing without reference,
 RC: reference with direct copy,
 RM: reference with slight modification,
 RR: reference with paraphrasing,
 QC: quotation with a reference

4.2.1. Findings of the student interviews

There are ten questions in the interview conducted with the students. Each question will be listed below along with the overall interpretation and excerpts. The students are coded with the initial letter of their groups, L for low achievers, M for mid achievers, and H for high achievers. R1 is the researcher.

Q1: Do you read or write in English outside of class?

In the semi-structured interview with the students, the answers given by the students to this question were examined. The students stated that they generally read in English outside of the classroom, but they did not do writing in English. They also stated that they did not normally do academic reading, instead they read social media posts and/or read for entertainment.

M1: "In other words, I can say that I am actually reading, but I cannot say anything like a book, etc., the things on the internet. Social media caps.

H1: I do write less but read more. But normal books, not very scientific ones. Just for entertainment.

As can be seen from the statements of the students in general, it was determined that extracurricular readings were made and these readings were carried out through social media and for entertainment purposes (books, magazines), but English writing activities were not carried out outside the classroom.

L1: I don't do a lot of writing. Only when I'm talking to my foreign friends or something.

L2: Writing always remains a dream. I have to write.

H2: I don't do much writing outside of class.

L5: I don't do any writing outside of class... I have no interest. Actually, I don't do it in Turkish. So, I don't have any habits of keeping a diary etc.

The responses of the students in the semi-structured interview suggest that they are more comfortable with reading in English than writing in English. The students mentioned that they read various types of materials in English, including social media posts, books, and magazines, for entertainment purposes. However, they do not seem to engage in much writing in English outside of the classroom.

Some students mentioned that they only write in English when they communicate with their foreign friends. This suggests that they may feel more motivated to write in English when they have a specific purpose or audience in mind. However, it appears that they do not have a strong interest in English writing activities beyond this.

It is worth noting that the students did not mention engaging in academic reading in English outside of class. This may suggest that they do not feel confident in their ability to understand or engage with academic texts in English. Alternatively, they may simply prefer to read for entertainment purposes.

Overall, the responses of the students suggest that they are more comfortable with reading in English than writing in English, and that their extracurricular reading is mainly for entertainment purposes. While they do not seem to engage in much writing in English outside of the classroom, some students mentioned that they write in English when they have a specific purpose or audience in mind.

Q2: What did you gain from the reading and writing skills classes you took in first grade?

When we look at the second question of the interview in general, it was seen that the students did not have writing lessons before coming to the university, and they were introduced to writing skills during their preparatory class or first year at the department.

L2: Of course, we have been reading, but I think that writing is not given much importance, so it started at university.

M3: We don't learn how to write essays in high school. As I didn't study in prep school, I can say that these courses helped me a lot with essay writing, essay types, paragraph writing etc. We were also giving feedback to our peers.

M4: When I took the preparatory exam, there was Essay writing in the writing exam. So, I didn't know anything. I noticed it there. I don't know how to write a paragraph introduction; I don't know what kind of genre I should write. I had no idea how to tie the end.

Students stated that they learned basic writing skills such as essay types, outline, reference, citation, and writing thesis statements from the writing lessons in the 1st grade. For the reading lesson, it is seen that mostly strategy-oriented acquisitions are mentioned.

Since the outputs of the writing lesson are more concrete than the reading lesson, it can be said that the students talk about the outputs of the writing lesson rather than reading. Since reading skills were studied before undergraduate education and within the scope of university entrance exams, it was seen that there were more strategy gains in reading lessons.

L3: Strategies yes. Whether it's those techniques or those strategies, they've been very useful to us. I am currently working in a private institution, and I still benefit from these techniques and strategies.

H2: S/he taught us strategies. Before each lesson, we would read the text and answer the questions and come to class. Actually, the teacher gave us this skill.

L4: These lessons taught me how to write, especially how to outline. ... I think I started writing in a more organised way thanks to this.

It appears that the writing skills classes they took in the first grade were beneficial for their writing development. Many students mentioned that they did not have any formal writing instruction prior to university, and therefore the writing classes in the first grade helped them to learn basic skills such as essay types, outlining, referencing, citation, and writing thesis statements. They also learned how to write in a more organized way, which helped them to improve their writing overall.

In contrast to the writing classes, the reading skills classes seemed to focus more on strategies and techniques. The students mentioned that they learned various reading strategies, such as how to answer questions, before each lesson. They also mentioned that these strategies were helpful and that they still use them in their current work.

The students gained valuable skills from both the reading and writing skills classes they took in the first grade. The writing classes provided them with concrete skills and knowledge that they could apply to their writing, while the reading classes focused more on strategies and techniques that could be applied to their reading. Many students mentioned that these skills were useful beyond their first year at the university, and that they continue to use them in their current work.

Q3: Can you explain how this course (Critical Reading and Writing) is taught by giving examples?

In the question asked about the Critical Reading and Writing course given in the first semester of the 2nd grade, it was seen that the students focused more on giving references. It was mentioned that the course was mainly based on reading until the midterm, and then writing activities were carried out over the text.

It has been observed that there are differences among the instructors in the teaching of the course. Some students stated that the critical reading and writing lesson was taught as a compensation for the first-year writing lesson because they missed the writing skills lesson for various reasons.

M1: We had to write three essays just before the final exam. Our instructor didn't come to the class, and s/he didn't even inform us. I can give his/her name, s/he is not in the department anymore, I guess. As there was a problem, we had to revise essay types in this course.

H2: I took this course from X Hoca. S/he is the one who taught me most of the things. We both had readings and lots of writings. Other students taking the course from different instructors wrote only three essays during the semester while we wrote 10.

Another student mentioned that it is too early to give this course in the 2nd grade and that basic skills such as critical thinking should be taught before this course.

L3: Since I'm in the fourth year, we have a class in critical and analytical thinking. Now why did we focus directly on reading and writing in second grade when we started doing this when we could. First of all, what is critical, what is critical thinking, how can we think critically, there are strategies and techniques related to this. But without learning these things, going directly into a production phase, it was a little bit for me. I wish the lesson wouldn't be like that.

Based on these responses, it can be interpreted that the Critical Reading and Writing course is focused on both reading and writing activities, but the teaching methods may vary among the instructors. Some students found the course beneficial in terms of developing their writing skills, while others questioned its timing and suggested that basic critical thinking skills should be taught before this course. It is important for instructors

to consider these different perspectives and adjust their teaching methods accordingly to better meet the needs and expectations of their students.

Q4: Could you tell us how the evaluation processes of this course took place?

When the students' responses to the fourth question, which questioned how the lesson was evaluated, were investigated, it was discovered that the students could not recall how the lesson was evaluated in general.

L2: Maybe it was an exam, I can't remember right now, but I remember that we came up with an essay.

M3: I don't remember it, but I do remember that we did a lot of homework, so even if it was the final exam, those assignments would definitely affect our grade. I looked at the Turnitin, we uploaded about ten assignments yesterday.

H3: As far as I remember on the subjects we learned, we were asked to write an article on the subjects we learned, and our teacher evaluated the articles.

It was observed that when the students were reminded of the process by giving clues to remind them how the assessment was made, they remembered the assessment processes of the course.

R1: You were given an assignment. Do you remember what it was? What were you supposed to write?

M4: We were given 3 articles to analyse. Then we were to write an essay on procrastination by using the citation techniques we covered in class.

L5: There was something in the midterm, there was also the reading part, answering questions and authoring a small article. An entire article for the final grade. We were going to author our own article by reading five articles.

The students had a hard time recalling the evaluation processes of the Critical Reading and Writing course. While some vaguely remembered taking an exam or writing an essay, others mentioned doing a lot of homework and using Turnitin to upload their assignments. However, when prompted with clues, some students remembered more specific details about the evaluation process. For instance, one student recalled analysing three articles and writing an essay on procrastination using citation techniques covered in

class. Another student remembered taking a midterm that included answering questions and writing a small article, and a final assignment that involved reading five articles and authoring their own article.

Q5: What were your expectations about the course before taking this course?

One of the reasons why the students were asked this question in the interview was to see what they understood from the concept of critical reading. The other goal was to provide the background for what they would say about whether their expectations in the next question were met. When the answers of the students are examined, it is seen that they expect a more comprehensive course to be taught in general.

M4: Actually as there was the ‘critical’ word at the beginning of the course, I thought that we would somehow scrutinize every word, would have a long talk, and controversy on the topics by brainstorming and idea sharing.

L5: Frankly, I didn't think it would ever be mentioned about this citation thing. Just like reading and writing passed in first grade, I thought this course would be a bit more academic in depth. But the focus was on citing in general.

H2: So critical reading was like gaining comprehension skills for me. In other words, we are only reading this text, but why are we reading it, what is in this text, why are we reading it. For me, it was the ability to acquire these skills.

It has been determined that some students have expectations that they will do more reading than writing, but they have expectations that long texts will be written.

L4: Critical reading-writing is actually more interpretation than when I think about it. For example, seeing an article and pulling the information out of it with tweezers can be understood. It is more about how to write articles, not in the style of what plagiarism is, but rather seeing and interpreting, because I think that criticising is a little bit in the comment section, as a word meaning.

L1: I was expecting to write more long stuff or something. I was thinking of something more long in Essay format, around 10 pages to 20 pages. I thought they were going to give me a novel-style book and have it read.

M5: There was an expectation. In the first year, I had already taken a writing and reading lesson. Frankly, I was expecting that critical writing would be more comprehensive than reading. After all, I took the writing class. I learned it once,

how is it written? What are the text types? I have learned these. More detailed now. I expected it to be more critical and heavier, frankly, it did. For example, I took writing and reading lessons in the first grade. But in the lesson, I took in the second year, everything progressed more systematically.

Based on the responses of the students, it seems that they had various expectations about the course before taking it. Some students, such as M4 and H2, had a general expectation that the course would involve critical reading and analysis of texts, with a focus on understanding the purpose and meaning behind what they were reading. Others, like L5 and L1, had more specific expectations about the type of work they would be doing, with L5 hoping for a more academic and in-depth exploration of critical reading, and L1 hoping to write longer essays.

Interestingly, some students had expectations that the course would involve more reading than writing, while others had the opposite expectation. Overall, it seems that the students had different ideas about what critical reading and writing actually meant, and what the course would involve.

However, many of the students also indicated that their expectations were met or exceeded by the course. They felt that they learned important skills related to critical reading and analysis, and appreciated the systematic approach that was taken to teaching these skills.

Q6: What are your gains from this course?

When the interviewed students were asked about their achievements at the end of the course, it was seen that the answers were mostly shaped around the concepts of writing and academic writing. It is understood that some types of essays are also offered to students within the scope of the course.

M1: In other words, in connection with the answer I gave to the previous question, when writing an essay for other courses, for example, I can say that I know what genre I can write. When the teacher asks us a critical question, I can write something more critical. I can say that it had an effect in a sense, so I can say that I use those notes.

Citation methods and especially APA style is among the most mentioned topics. Regarding reading, it was said that gains for more detailed reading were obtained superficially.

M2: So I'm pretty sure I've learned how to use APA clearly. So that's all I've learned right now, that's what's on my mind. I remember learning that in this class. At first, of course, I did not know that we would learn such a thing, and we were all very scared, how we would keep it in our minds, how we would apply it, etc. But of course, I think we can all use it clearly now. So I can say that the contribution of this course to me was APA style.

H2: Using sources, not plagiarising...

L2: I have learnt APA style. I am using it.

L1: I have learnt to cite and write an article with citation.

There are also students who stated that they learned how to use sources efficiently.

H1: Because, for example, if I need to write even now, I think that I need to find sources from reliable sources, or if I use anything, I think that I should definitely use references there. It is also good to look deeper in reading, that is, surface reading, okay, for example, we read some things in general, but it is also good to go deeper. I ask questions such as the life of that author, why he wrote this, or what his purpose was, what he wanted to say. I noticed the thing; Sometimes I read something, I thought I understood it, but when I read it again after researching, I realised that there might be a different point of view.

H4: ...I also think that I am well-informed about reading, examining and writing them. Because we struggled a lot, we divided it into parts, and we also taught a lesson about citation. I think I became conscious of these issues because we had never seen them before.

There is a student who thinks that the course content is insufficient in writing.

M3: At the end of this course, I can say that I learned to read a reading text more critically, but I don't think I learned how to write critically... So yes, if the text was shorter like this and more things were expected from us in writing, if it had the same weight as in the final assignment, I think I could learn a lot in reading and writing.

The course has been effective in teaching them about writing and academic writing. The students reported learning about different genres of writing, such as critical writing,

and being able to apply them to their writing assignments for other courses. They also mentioned learning about citation methods, particularly APA style, which they feel they can now use clearly. Some students reported gaining a better understanding of how to use sources effectively and avoiding plagiarism.

In terms of reading, the students reported gaining skills in more detailed reading, looking deeper into the text, and asking questions about the author's purpose and background. One student mentioned that they thought they had understood a text before, but after researching further, they realized there could be a different point of view.

However, one student mentioned feeling that the course was insufficient in teaching critical writing, and that more weight should be given to writing assignments to help them learn more. Overall, it seems that the course has helped students improve their writing and reading skills and gain a better understanding of citation and the use of sources.

Q7: Can you give an example of how you use references, and cite while doing an assignment?

How students use resources was one of the main questions of this research and it was aimed to show the situation in the current context descriptively in the study. In this context, in the semi-structured interviews, the students were asked how they cite while doing a writing assignment. Looking over the responses, it is clear that the students attempted to use the APA style instructed to them in the course. Many students reported that they employed quotation marks to refer to sources.

L2: Again as we were taught in this course, I write the surname of the author in parentheses and the year, reference at the end, and then the whole name of the book, publishing house...

M1: I prefer direct quotation, maybe it is easier for me.

H2: I usually remember using quotation marks and sometimes copied as it was.

M3: I take it as it is. I say, 'she says that' and I try not to change the sentence.

L3: Usually, I use direct citations a lot because we had to quote directly on the topics we wrote, you know, because I thought that I could not paraphrase, it seemed to me that it would be more useful to quote directly, so I quoted directly.

M4: It's like I'm stealing like this if I cut it by changing it. It's like it doesn't really fit. How can I describe it to a real quote, I feel like I'm not really quoting and I'm stealing the idea there. If I write randomly in a sentence without putting it in quotation marks, I feel like I stole it.

L4: Now I prefer this more. I take the idea that was there, that is, the original thought of the author, and after that, I state my own opinion, 'According to what the author said.' Why don't I change the sentence and write it? Now, if I were to criticise myself, I think I might stray quickly from the subject. In other words, I think that I may misinterpret someone else's statement, for example, the academician, the professor whose article I read. That's why I prefer to take that person's idea first, put it there, and say, look, this is the original, but that's what I think. Because I thought I might stray off topic.

M5: I choose the information that will be useful to me from the article and sometimes I quote it directly. It's because I'm saying how well he wrote it. So, I say it fits perfectly to the text. Sometimes I put them directly. Of course, when I put it directly, there are some rules that I will use when citing. I am using them. I'm writing the name of the author, like the date or something. I write such things. Sometimes I paraphrase, but it is very difficult to paraphrase. Most of the time. That's why I usually use it directly.

Some students think that the use of references without citation is normal. It has been observed that they sometimes avoid citing by paraphrasing. They state that they sometimes use paraphrases to avoid plagiarism detection devices.

L2: Now certain sites have similarity limits. So up to that limit, I use what I can. I won't say copy paste again, but I do paraphrase.

H3: Let me tell you, there were times when I did. But when I did this, I did if you had a hard time writing something about the text. I had a hard time writing anything about the text. If I don't have much background information about the text and I don't have any interest in the text I wrote, I have done it by saying that the homework will be over and I will get rid of it.

H3: I did not cite the source and at the same time I paraphrased it so that there would be no plagiarism.

H3: But if we are expected to do academic writing in another course, I think they only look at the percentage of 'similarity'. Apart from that, they don't look much unless they exceed the limit they set. This can be overcome with the method I

mentioned first. (R1: So, you do paraphrase?) You are paraphrasing and you don't cite in any way, you don't make references.

Some students said that they hesitated to paraphrase for fear of changing the meaning of the expressions they used as a source. Some students also stated that it is difficult to paraphrase and/or they have difficulties while doing it.

M1: I see my grammar knowledge a little bit weak, yes, I can't be sure of its correctness, you know, you can change the word like this, maybe you can change it a little bit grammatically, you know, I can't be 100% sure of the sentence, you know, did I reflect that sentence correctly, could I paraphrase that sentence correctly, so that's why I don't prefer it.

M3: I mean, because it sounds like it would be difficult to find that sentence. It feels like I put my own opinion and cause something wrong, so I don't change it somehow... I think I can't handle it. It might be, so it feels like I'm always adding a comment when I'm thinking about something. That's why I never get into that thing.

It has been observed that high achiever students are more inclined to paraphrase.

H4: I usually try to paraphrase, try to change, especially if I can add something myself. But some things don't change much. Of course, I quote things that will not change much as they are.

H5: If this is not a stereotype of the author, of course, I try to write by paraphrasing as much as possible, maybe it is not the right word to change, but I try to write by paraphrasing. Because, as far as I remember, it is not a good way to quote it directly, I don't know.

It can be said that some students misunderstand the concept of paraphrase. There are students who think that they paraphrase the sentence by changing its structure.

L1: I paraphrase. If the sentence is in the simple past tense, I use the past perfect tense. I change the tense of it or I mention the author. Or I use reported speech as reporting.

In the study, the students were asked how they cite while doing a writing assignment, and the responses showed that most students attempted to use the APA style instructed to them in the course. They used quotation marks to refer to sources, wrote the surname of the author in parentheses, the year of publication, and the whole name of the book or publishing house. Some students preferred direct quotations, while others

preferred paraphrasing. However, some students hesitated to paraphrase for fear of changing the meaning of the expressions they used as a source or because they found it difficult. High achiever students were observed to be more inclined to paraphrase. Some students stated that they sometimes use paraphrases to avoid plagiarism detection devices. Although some students think that the use of references without citation is normal, it is important to cite sources to avoid plagiarism.

Some students in the study think that using references without citations is normal, which suggests that they may not fully understand the importance of citing sources in academic writing. It is important for students to understand that citing sources not only gives credit to the original author but also helps to support their own arguments by providing evidence and authority. Not citing sources can lead to accusations of plagiarism, which is a serious offense in academia. It is crucial for students to learn how to properly cite sources in their writing and understand that it is an essential component of academic integrity.

Q8: How do you evaluate citing without reference when writing a text?

In this question, in which students were asked whether they were aware of the concept of plagiarism and whether they plagiarised, it was also asked when this concept should be taught. Although it was not among the interview questions, they were asked whether they would plagiarise if there were no plagiarism detection programs, and the following answers were received.

M1: It is not appropriate. I think it should be taught in Turkish language or English language classes in secondary school.

H2: I see it as a bit of theft because others put in a lot of effort and produce an essay, and without any resources, it's a bit of a steal. I don't find it appropriate.

H2: Most of our instructors use turnitin, and there are similar assignments, so sometimes similar assignments can be made. That's why our teachers often use turnitin and I think that's right... I wouldn't plagiarise. I remember doing it once when I didn't know how to cite a source. This had already appeared on Turnitin as plagiarism. Other than that, I don't remember plagiarising.

M3: I think most people don't do this because they find this citation difficult, or they give too many citations. This time it will look like I haven't written anything. That's why I know that there are those who do not, so I interpret it as fear, anxiety, laziness.

The students generally recognize that citing without a reference is not appropriate and can be considered as plagiarism. M1 and H2 both explicitly state that they see it as a form of theft and do not find it appropriate. H2 also acknowledges the importance of using plagiarism detection programs like Turnitin to prevent plagiarism.

M3's response suggests that some students may avoid citing sources because they find it difficult or are worried that it will make it look like they have not written anything themselves. This may indicate a lack of understanding about the purpose of citations and how they are used to support arguments and give credit to original sources.

Overall, the responses suggest that the students have some awareness of plagiarism and the importance of citing sources, but there may be gaps in their understanding or knowledge. It is important to teach students about plagiarism and citation practices early on in their education to ensure that they have a solid foundation in academic integrity.

4.2.2. Findings of the instructor interviews

The instructors of the Critical Reading and Writing course were also interviewed. 8 questions were asked to the instructors to discuss their experiences regarding writing skill in general and plagiarism specifically. The instructors are I1, I2, and I3 in the excerpts. The researcher is R1.

Q1: What role do you believe academic writing plays in English language teaching?

First question of the interview was to get a clear understanding of the perspectives of the instructors to academic writing. These instructors taught Critical Reading and Writing course in the semester when the data for the study were collected. They taught writing courses for the first year English Language Teaching students for many years. They are all experienced writing teachers with a minimum of 15 years of expertise. Two of the instructors hold an MA degree and one has a PhD degree in English Language Teaching.

Their answers for the first question show that they think students in Türkiye start writing not before the university. They do not have a background knowledge on L2 writing in general and starting the department of ELT without prior knowledge on writing make it difficult for the students to excel in L2 writing. It also forces the instructors to adapt their teaching method and curriculum according to their needs. It is seen that even the students who have prep school education for a year have difficulty in writing mostly because of the instructional problems. In general, the instructors complain about the students' lack of experience in writing. They state that they have to start from the beginning in the first year with teaching topic sentence and so on, which makes it impossible for them to teach academic writing skills to the students. They point out that the students are not even familiar with basic ethical issues in writing such as plagiarism and citation. Overall, they regard writing as an important but ignored skill in teaching English.

I1: I think it has a very important place, but it has a somewhat neglected importance. That is, when we look at the Turkish education system in general, speaking and writing are both ignored while English is taught in secondary and high school. You know, we call them Cinderella Skill. Then, suddenly, we expect our students to write something, especially in an academic sense, and we expect them to speak.

I2: It has a very important place because these children unfortunately come without writing throughout their lives. They don't write in their mother tongue either, we try to do it in a second language. It is very natural for them to show resistance at first, and they do. As I said, they did not write in their mother tongue, how can he write in a second language? Their language level cannot go beyond grammar and vocabulary... We start teaching here, he sees it here for the first time, he gets into something called academic writing, but he also has to write. Knowing the language means being able to write.

I3: I think it's really very important. I am also a graduate of an English language teaching department and academic writing was one of our core subjects. We took two terms in the same way, and for example, using APA, quoting, citation, etc. These were very important skills for us... When I started my graduate education here, I saw that many students from other departments know nothing about APA, and plagiarism. That is when I realised that we were taught very important skills in our undergraduate classes.

The instructors in this study believe that academic writing plays a crucial role in English language teaching, but it is often neglected in the Turkish education system. They express frustration with the fact that students do not have a strong foundation in writing, both in their mother tongue and in English, and that this lack of experience makes it difficult for them to excel in L2 writing. The instructors note that they have to start teaching basic writing skills such as topic sentences, which makes it challenging to teach academic writing skills to the students. Additionally, the instructors point out that the students are not familiar with basic ethical issues in writing such as plagiarism and citation, which is a significant concern. The instructors believe that writing is an important but often ignored skill in teaching English, and they see it as their responsibility to teach academic writing skills to their students.

Q2: Which writing classes did you teach in the current English Language Teaching curriculum?

As stated earlier, the instructors taught writing classes for years in the department.

I1: I taught almost all of them for many years. I quitted 2-3 years ago.

I2: When I was in prep school, I taught writing classes at almost all language levels. I started with Beginner writing and worked there for five years. From beginner level to advanced writing. Here I have been at the Faculty of Education since 2003, I always entered at the beginning. Let me tell you how much I taught all the writing classes ... for the first 10 years, but then I got out of the writing classes somehow. After that critical reading, I'm back with this lesson.

I3: I do yes, but when we started there were two writing classes in freshman year. It's nice that you wrote this thesis. The reading and writing course was in my first semester of the second year and we were going by integrating reading and writing skills. Long ago, we had three separate writing lessons.

Q3: What are your views on the content, instruction and evaluation methods of the Critical Reading and Writing course in the program?

This question aims to visualise the course setting for the study. The answers from the instructors indeed reflect how they cover the course throughout the semester and it

allows us to compare the course content with how students answer the similar question they were asked. The instructors briefly summarised the course as an answer to the question.

I1: We were starting with the APA. We talked to our first year teachers, you know, there was a framework program about what kind of curriculum we should prepare. Therefore, our teacher X was both taking the first year classes and attending this class. We also exchanged ideas with him and we showed the citation techniques that started with APA, then got the students to have a summary, which we called summary analysis, and then after reading a text, we processed response printing, problem solution and argumentative essay types. The evaluation was as follows: Actually, we divided it into two. We gave a text to measure their reading in the midterm exam and asked questions. In the final exam, we have prepared another exam to measure writing skills.

Q4: What competencies do students need to take this course?

The instructors were questioned on the pre-competencies that they expect students to have to benefit from CRW course. The common idea was to implement prerequisite courses for CRW because it is stated that the students with lack of basic writing competency have difficulty in accomplishing the writing tasks in CRW. It is regarded as the follow up course of reading and writing courses of the first year as it requires students to have more or less attained the essay structure of L2 writing along with the fundamental citation techniques.

The lecturers interviewed did not directly complain about the teaching of reading and writing lessons in the first grade. However, from what these teachers said, it is understood that they were dissatisfied with the fact that the courses were not taught as they should have been in the previous year and that the students lacked basic skills. Therefore they found it challenging to follow the course syllabus of CRW. Overall, the instructors regard writing and reading skills as key competencies for CRW.

I1: In particular, this first-year reading and writing skills course must be taken and passed. Actually, we can consider this as a prerequisite. I think it is more important to attend these courses after passing them with a certain success. Because in the new curriculum, due to the fact that the course hours, especially the English course hours were reduced to two, and the hours and credits of the teaching profession

courses taught in Turkish were increased, the students pass these courses with a general average, even if they take DD from the first year courses, even though they should be unsuccessful. In fact, the students seem to be successful, but when we look at these two courses, we can see that they are not successful.

I1: ... maybe the teachers who teach these courses, that is, CRW, also apply for an exam that will determine the writing and reading competencies of the students; I think it would be better for the instructors to check what students know and don't know, and then plan the lesson accordingly. There were so many differences among the groups I taught. Because in the previous period, another teacher taught a group in a writing lesson. Another teacher taught the other group. It's the same in Reading. So it was a complete mixing ability class. It was very difficult for me to adjust the syllabus to be taught, to bring extra material, or to simplify and sometimes enrich the language I used on the subject.

I2: For example, while we were doing this lesson, we were waiting for them to know at least what an essay is, what are the five-paragraph types. We wanted them to know how to write a thesis statement, developmental paragraph, concluding sentence, what the paragraph is. But this was the first challenge we encountered. Students did not know the concept of the essay yet. Therefore, summary and response analyses could not be comprehended due to the lack of sufficient background knowledge, since the argumentative level is more difficult than the others in terms of academic level.

I2: We had very little time anyway. As I said, the first thing we encountered was that we tried to teach this thing to a student who could not write an essay yet. There was also a problem in understanding what they read, and there were also problems in their reading skills. Now, when we wanted them to write the response essay or write a paragraph, we gave a text, read it, generate an idea on what you read, or summarise what you read. They also had problems with reading comprehension. We were too theoretical and unable to advance the process. As I said, the course hours were very short, the number of students in the classrooms was high, 2, and our own workload. At that time, I was attending classes for 22 hours, maybe 24 hours. We couldn't run the process that way, we couldn't run it as drafting.

I3: I think it's a bit like a teacher's fault because I asked directly from which teacher they took this course. I think there was a friend who entered the class for the first time or something. I guess S/he didn't see too much of APA teaching right. In other words, there were friends who thought that APA was early in the first year and they did not focus on that. ... In my class but I guess it was. In other words,

one third of them came from a teacher who was doing well and they had knowledge, but it was like they continued with that knowledge. Maybe a few of those who didn't care from the beginning recovered from the more hardworking ones, but as I said, there was a big difference between the groups. In other words, the one who took it from the first grade could continue like that.

I3: So it's not just for writing at all, but having certain prerequisite skills in many courses is actually very helpful.

The findings suggest that students need to have certain competencies before taking the first year reading and writing skills course. The course appears to be a prerequisite for further academic success, but many students struggle with basic reading and writing skills, such as understanding the concept of an essay and developing a thesis statement. These skills are essential for success in the course, and instructors should consider assessing students' competencies and adjusting their teaching accordingly. The study also suggests that the quality of instruction may vary among different instructors, leading to inconsistencies in student preparation. The responses highlight the importance of prerequisite skills in many academic courses, not just in writing.

Q5: What is the process of reading and writing skills of the students taking this course?

The instructors witnessed a progress in students' overall competencies at the end of the course.

I1: We've seen some progress. I get feedback from students at the end of the semester. They also stated. In fact, it is also understood from what they wrote, because we do activities in the lessons, and we have various critical reading and writing activities in our book. The answers they gave to the activities at the beginning of the lesson, and the answers they gave to similar activities at the end of the semester, have changed and their answers to the questions they have written, read and given in the exams have also become better.

I2: Actually, there has been some progress. As a result, even if we can't go to full production by doing a little practice on the examples, the written ones, by being exposed to them in a way, even in 2 hours, something has been created by making practice sections, a notion has emerged, but if you say that they have progressed a lot, no.

I3: So, for example, when it was three hours, we saw much more progress, of course. Likewise, we saw even more progress when we had three writing lessons and were able to directly apply this advanced writing curriculum.

I3: Therefore, we could see faster improvement when we implemented our own curriculum. Of course, as I said, there are individual motivation and work differences. But being able to process those three separate essays was different. We were able to process two separate essays. We allocated more time for reading and we did not cover every feature of the essays. We were giving some sub-skills in the book, that was about the essay, that was about the research paper, but we couldn't use all of those sub-skills. ... Some of them have developed very well. There were some really good essays as well.

The findings related to the reading and writing skills of the students in the course indicate that there has been some progress in their abilities. This was evident from the feedback received from students at the end of the semester, as well as from the changes observed in their answers to critical reading and writing activities. The practice sessions, which involved exposure to examples and practical application, resulted in the development of a notion among the students. However, it should be noted that individual differences in motivation and work ethic also played a role in the progress observed. The implementation of a separate advanced writing curriculum, with dedicated time allocated for reading, resulted in faster improvement in the students' abilities. While some sub-skills related to essays and research papers were covered in the book, not all of them could be addressed. Nevertheless, there were some really good essays produced by the students.

Q6: What are your observations about the source use, citation, and citation experiences of the students taking this course?

This question was asked to the instructors in order to exemplify the source usage styles that the students apply while writing. The responses of the lecturers who grade the students' essays on this issue are critical to the study. These can be viewed as evidence of what the students said about their source utilisation during the interview. One of the instructors stated that the students had difficulty in paraphrasing and adding in-text references.

I3: Generally, when we teach how to use APA or something like this in writing classes, what we generally experience is that they make direct quotations good. In

other words, when they transfer it directly, they can add the surname and the year and so on. ... They're having a hard time with the indirect quotation because they can't find anything to write. In other words, they come up with something by summarising, compiling, combining and integrating from what they have read. When there is no direct quotation, it is indirect, that is, if there is an idea that is too high to be their own idea, they do not think too much about putting a reference at the end of that idea.

I3: I think they are not conceptually ready yet, but if they saw this from the first grade, when there were such frequent references in every article they read, they could do more if the awareness was increased. I think it has a lot to do with raising awareness and the texts they read. These can be increased more in the writing exercises they do in the classroom. So awareness is something that is gained over time. This is very new because it's one of the things they've never seen in their high school life. It is a very new concept for them, but the level of English also has an effect. In other words, there are definitely children who take it directly because they can't form that sentence. In a class of 25 people whose English is not good, 7-8 children are definitely writing it because their English is bad, even if they understand.

However, when the answers of the instructors were analysed it was seen that they all mentioned that source based writing and therefore referencing and citing were not used in other courses. In fact, the students do not write in other courses such as Literature, Linguistics, Acquisition etc. Even though they are expected to author a report for a course, they are not able to get any feedback on the assignment. They are not able to get any feedback on their source selection, source use, citation techniques. They are just introduced to APA in their writing classes in the first year and they are expected to master and adapt APA as a habit.

I1: But frankly, we were alone on this issue; we only gave them in writing class. In the past, they used citations when students were asked to do homework, be it literature or linguistics classes. Now, students do not do homework in any of the classes, since they leave us alone in those classes and turn to test-type things. They write plans in method classes, too, no open-ended questions, nothing. In other words, citation remains in the first class because it is not supported. Therefore, it is not implemented at all for four years.

I2: It was very superficial. Now, if a student cannot transfer something you teach in one lesson to another lesson, it is not considered to have already been learned. In other words, I can say that he couldn't bring the resource course into his life

like this because he only taught and used it in this course, students are having a hard time. We tried to show with examples how to give a source and how to write a reference, but let me tell you what happened, this could not be internalised because he had to use this process in other lessons for this. They didn't use it.

I2: So there was a research skills course, for example. It could have been used very well there, for example in literature classes, but as far as I understand there was no evaluation system that would force the student to do so. Did they present orally, give written sources, or write a research paper in their research skills classes? In literature, they either made a presentation or passed an hour-long multiple-choice test. Let me tell you, there has not been a classroom environment where the student can convey this in real terms and use it in more than one place. That's why the thing didn't settle in: Why am I writing a reference? This did not settle.

The observations on the source use, citation, and citation experiences of the students in the course indicated that the students had good skills in using direct quotations but struggled with indirect quotations. The students found it difficult to write about an idea that was not their own and did not put a reference at the end of such an idea. The instructors believed that the students were not conceptually ready for this and needed more awareness of citation practices. This awareness could be raised by increasing the frequency of references in the texts they read and in writing exercises done in the classroom. The instructors noted that the level of English proficiency had an impact on the students' ability to use citations correctly.

The lack of support for citation practices in other classes was also noted by the instructors. The students only encountered citation practices in the writing class and did not use them in other classes. The lack of an evaluation system that would require students to use citations in other classes was seen as a contributing factor to this problem. The instructors recommended the use of citation practices in other classes, such as literature or research skills, to reinforce the importance of these practices and enable students to apply them in various contexts. The instructors emphasized the importance of increasing awareness of citation practices and integrating them into various classroom activities to promote effective use of sources in academic writing.

Q7: How do you interpret the approach of the students taking this course to the concept of plagiarism?

This question was asked to get more information about students' source use behaviours. The instructors talked about the instances they experienced mainly dealing with the cultural perspective. They were additionally asked another question during the interview. The question was whether the language proficiency of the students has an effect on using sources in writing. The answers, by all means, state the obvious.

I1: Of course it's cultural. There is also the anxiety of passing the course, but when we look at it at first, it is cultural. Why cultural? Because we have a situation like this: "Is the teacher going to read all of these?" "What if I do it, the others are doing it anyway." They see the news of plagiarism. Is there a penalty for them? No. They hear from their friends "The teacher caught someone plagiarising in the class. "But did that student receive a deterrent punishment?" He didn't.

I1: Now, let me tell you about this, I caught the students a few times, I thought I would discipline them, but I was stopped by the senior management. Now your hands are tied in this situation, and therefore you cannot drop the student from the course, you cannot discipline. Then, "I will drop you from class." your word is false. Unfortunately, we could not see that the management, namely the Department Head and the dean, should stand behind you.

I2: ... only a few students were able to paraphrase. A huge paragraph, pasted there, taken from directly by citing inappropriately. They haven't seen it before. It is not in their lives. They don't read research articles. They haven't been exposed to it. We try to give it theoretically. We show them how to do it. They try to do it while preparing their assignments by looking at their notes. They can't memorise this. How is it going to be? They will understand as they use it or see it, as they underline it, as they get to know it. Students are not provided with such an environment.

I2: We, culturally, make generalisations. We don't make many references to that. We are a society that says what we read as if it were our own opinion, what we read as our own, and what we hear as our own. So are their teachers, so are their role models. It's okay for them to pretend it's their own.

I2: I think it has nothing to do with language skills. This is a bit, how can I say, because they are not used to it, they cannot think about it at first because they do not see it that way. For example, they say: "Am I stealing?", "Is this theft?", "But

I think the same", "She expressed it very well for me. Why should I paraphrase it, there is already a well written one."

The same instructor also stated that the students were indeed innocent as they had not been instructed before.

I2: In fact, children wouldn't do it if they knew. It really is. Seriously, in the first year, our lesson was too late for that, for example. At first, maybe a few hours, a few weeks seminar could be given in Turkish about this. In the beginning, five days could be devoted to it in the first week of their college life.

I2: ... I think it's like that. He does it because he doesn't know. If they knew, they wouldn't. They don't know what plagiarism is. There is no such thing in their past, this is the first time they encounter it here. I will say that adults do it too. It is heard. For example, isn't that the case in our society? We are looking at the thesis, his thesis is like that, this is the thesis of this one, they may not have seen it as a crime.

The other instructor mentioned nearly the same issues.

I3: So what we're talking about is what we just talked about. Since they haven't seen this since high school, doing all kinds of homework, just quoting from the books and combining it with their own sentences is perfect for the child. Even if he doesn't do it, no one is angry with him for having passed the encyclopaedia, even if he writes the same page as it is. They get high grades. You know, the child who doesn't see this as a crime until university, you know, when you suddenly commit a big crime, you know, they probably give the reaction "we didn't know".

The instructors' statements imply that the issue of plagiarism among the course's students is a cultural phenomenon that transcends a simple dearth of academic skills or language proficiency. They observe that many students appear to view plagiarism as a socially acceptable norm and that plagiarism penalties are not always enforced, resulting in a lack of deterrence. Due to a lack of exposure to research literature and insufficient instruction on academic writing conventions, instructors note that students may have difficulty comprehending the concept of plagiarism, particularly in regards to appropriate citation and paraphrasing. They suggest that providing a more comprehensive and culturally sensitive education on plagiarism in the early phases of college may help to prevent future occurrences. These insights emphasize the need for a nuanced and context-specific approach to combating student plagiarism.

Q8: When you evaluate the process in general, how would you evaluate the students' achievement of learning outcomes?

As the last question of the interview, it was asked whether the students achieved the learning outcomes of this course, and then the instructors were asked for their suggestions about the course, if any. The instructors stated that the students could not reach the desired level, and that they were insufficient in the types of essays (argumentative, response) that required students to add their own opinions and refute the confronting ideas. It was made clear that 2-hour was not enough for an integrated writing course.

One of the instructors commented on the drastic change of the curriculum. The abrupt change in the curriculum and the compulsory use of this curriculum by universities caused the lack of adequate preparation for this course. It has been remarked that reading and writing cannot be fully integrated within the course.

Their suggestions can be combined as to make students write more in other courses; using dynamic assessment methods such as portfolio assessment; professors' being role model in paying attention to citation and referencing; allocating more time for feedback sessions; increasing the course hour; a robust integration and rigid syllabus of reading and writing; determining prerequisite courses for some courses.

5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examines the relationship between students' performance in reading and writing courses and their critical reading and writing abilities. It also aims to understand the extent to which critical reading scores can predict integrated writing scores, and how students use sources in their reading-integrated writing tasks. In this section, the results of the study are discussed for each research question. The implications are also provided along with the relevant studies.

The study analysed the relationships between various independent variables (1st year reading scores, critical reading scores, 1st year writing scores, ÖSYM scores, preparatory education scores, and grammar and reading scores) and the dependent variable of academic writing scores.

The correlation analysis indicated that 1st year reading scores and critical reading scores were moderately to strongly associated with academic writing scores, while 1st year writing scores had a moderate association with academic writing scores. These findings suggest that higher scores in reading and critical reading can potentially lead to better academic writing performance. The strong positive correlation between 1st year reading scores and academic writing scores suggests that students who have strong reading skills are likely to perform better in academic writing tasks. This finding emphasises the importance of reading in developing writing skills, as reading comprehension is a critical component of academic writing. One of the reasons why the correlation between 1st year reading scores and academic writing score is the way how 1st year reading courses are covered and how their exams are made. Students are expected to read academic articles and answer the questions about the article in a written form before coming to the class. The questions are formed in way that when the questions are answered, the students get a typical annotated bibliography of the article. That is, they need to find the research questions, research setting, participants, method, and results of the article to be covered in the class. In the exams students again answer similar questions by analysing an article.

In addition, the results showed moderate correlations between 1st year reading scores and 1st year writing scores, and between 1st year reading scores and critical reading scores, as well as between 1st year writing scores and critical reading scores. The

moderate strength of association between critical reading scores and academic writing scores shows that critical reading skills are also important for successful academic writing. Critical reading involves analysing and evaluating texts, which can help students develop their writing skills by providing them with a deeper understanding of the text and the writing process. These results suggest that 1st year students who excel in one area are likely to do well in the other areas as well.

The relationship between students' reading comprehension ability and their writing skills is widely acknowledged (Cumming, 2014; Yu, 2007). Reading comprehension sub-skills, such as identifying main ideas and connecting ideas, are considered essential for completing writing tasks (Howells, 2011). Although many studies have examined this relationship, the results have been inconclusive. Some studies have reported moderate correlations between reading comprehension and writing performance (Cheong, Zhu, and Liao, 2018; Cheong, Zhu, Li, and Wen, 2019; Leopold, Bruckner and Dutke, 2019; Pećjak and Pirc, 2018; Phillips Galloway and Uccelli, 2019; Phillips Galloway, Qin, Uccelli, and Barr, 2020). The findings of the current study are in consistency with these studies. The figure below taken from Chan and Yamashita (2022) shows the correlation values of reading and writing skills.

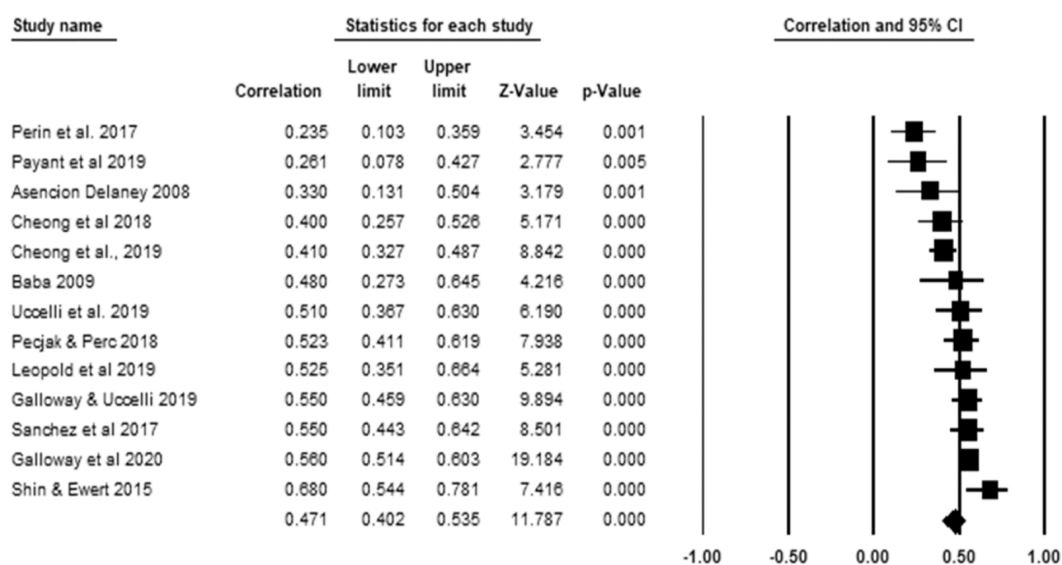


Figure 5.1. Average correlation and correlation values between reading and writing (Chan and Yamashita, 2022, pp. 8)

The similar strengths of association between 1st year writing scores and academic writing

scores as well as between critical reading scores and academic writing scores suggest that both writing skills and critical reading skills are equally important in the academic writing process. This finding highlights the need for educators to focus on both writing and critical reading skills to help students excel in academic writing.

However, the study did not find any notable strengths of association between OSYM scores, preparatory education scores, grammar and reading scores, and academic writing scores. The lack of significant correlations between OSYM scores, preparatory education scores, and grammar and reading scores and academic writing scores suggests that these factors may not have a strong influence on academic writing performance. Therefore, educators may want to focus on other factors, such as reading and critical reading skills, when teaching and assessing academic writing.

The reason OSYM scores weakly correlate with academic writing is obvious as OSYM score is not only based on languages skills but also other academic disciplines such as mathematics, social sciences, and science. Language exam of OSYM consists of 80 questions and these questions are multiple choice questions that mainly assess the reading comprehension and language use of the students. This finding can also be interpreted as there are overlapping factors between preparatory education and 1st year basic language skill courses. The weak correlation between 1st year writing scores and academic writing may be attributed to how writing courses are covered and how the students are assessed. Knowing that some of the instructors who taught writing courses in the first year did not perform well by looking at the excerpts from the interviews, 1st year writing scores may not be reflecting the real performance of the students.

A series of regression analyses were conducted to answer the second research question of the study seeking answer to what extent critical reading scores can predict integrated writing scores.

The three variables (OSYM Scores, preparatory overall scores, grammar-reading test scores) were entered first into the model to control for their potential influence on the outcome variable. The overall variance in academic writing scores explained by the three variables together was 7.6%, with the only significant unique contribution coming from preparatory overall scores (4% of variance explained).

To investigate the overlap of variances attributable to preparatory overall scores and grammar-reading test scores, the order of the two variables was adjusted and a second model was tested. In this second model, grammar-reading test scores were found to significantly explain 3.4% of the variance in academic writing scores not accounted for by OSYM scores. Preparatory overall scores explained a small amount of variance not accounted for by the other two variables, and the contribution was not significant.

Comparing the unique contributions of grammar-reading and preparatory overall scores, the former explains a 0.5% additional variance in academic writing scores. Overall, the small amount of variance explained by the three variables made it necessary to enter these variables as a block in the following regression analyses and refer to them as peripheral variables.

Another set of hierarchical regression analyses was conducted to figure out the unique and relative contribution of three independent variables (1st year reading and writing scores, and critical writing scores) to academic writing scores. In the first model, 1st year writing scores were entered into the model after the first three independent variables were controlled for. The explanatory power of the model significantly increased to 23% of variance in academic writing scores attributable to the variables in the model. 1st year writing scores significantly brought about an additional 16% of explanatory power to the model. Writing scores alone can explain twice as much variance as the three variables in academic writing scores.

In the next model, 1st year reading scores were entered into the model to investigate the unique contribution of this variable to academic writing scores when controlling for the effects of peripheral variables and 1st year writing scores. The regression analysis found that 1st year reading scores significantly improved the explanatory power of the model, explaining 25% more variance in academic writing scores when controlling for peripheral variables and writing scores. Critical reading scores also contributed an additional 2% of variance explained when controlling for all variables. Overall, the model with all variables can explain 50% of the variance in academic writing scores.

In summary, a series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to determine the unique and relative contributions of different independent variables to

academic writing scores. The first model included peripheral variables, followed by 1st year writing scores, 1st year reading scores, and critical reading scores in separate models.

The results showed that each variable made a unique contribution to the model, with 1st year writing scores explaining the largest proportion of variance when entered first into the model. However, when critical reading and 1st year reading scores were entered into the model, their unique contributions were found to be larger than that of 1st year writing scores.

Overall, the analysis showed that the three variables beyond the control of course teachers had a relatively trivial effect on academic writing scores, while the other three variables, i.e., 1st year reading and writing scores, and critical reading scores, accounted for a larger proportion of variance (50%). The peripheral variables were found to have a negligible effect on academic writing scores when the other variables were controlled for.

These results are consistent with a study conducted to explore the various variables' contribution to writing scores in a language test (CAEL). The researchers (Payant et al, 2019) had 111 EAP students who completed a reading comprehension, a listening comprehension, an integrated writing sections of CAEL, writing anxiety and self-efficacy questionnaires, and a semi-structured interview. The results of the multiple regression models showed that both anxiety levels and reading scores were significant indicators of CAEL writing band scores (Payant et al, 2019).

In our study, the strong contribution of 1st year reading scores to academic writing can be attributed to how 1st year reading courses are covered as mentioned in previous sections. Moreover, the students were expected to write a problem-solution essay by using sources for academic writing final scores, which requires basic reading comprehension. The threshold level of reading comprehension may be a crucial factor for achieving noticeable improvements in written productions. To improve their chances of success with complex integrated writing tasks, writing teachers should collaborate with their students to enhance their reading strategies, including notetaking (Siegel, 2018). Additionally, educators should raise students' awareness of the interdependence between reading and writing, as these skills are often not fully integrated into writing courses. The findings demonstrate the crucial role of reading in the academic writing process. Teachers of language should take advantage of the opportunities for teaching and practicing both

reading and writing simultaneously, starting from exploring various text organizations. Different text organizations may help learners be aware of the genre and academic writing conventions.

Third research question seeks to answer the pattern of distribution of source-use incidents among low, mid, and high achievers. The students' papers were coded according to the framework (Shi, 2004) and the data showed that the most common type of source use incident was paraphrasing without reference (NR), followed by reference with slight modification (RM) and reference with paraphrasing (RR). This suggests that students are more likely to use sources by rewording them in their own words rather than directly copying or using quotations.

However, we can also see that a considerable number of students, particularly among the low achievers, used no reference at all, either with direct copy (NC) or with slight modification (NM). This is concerning because it suggests that these students may not understand the importance of acknowledging sources or may not have been taught how to do so properly.

Interestingly, the high achievers had a higher percentage of reference with paraphrasing (RR) than the mid-achievers and the low achievers. This suggests that the high achievers may have a better understanding of how to use sources effectively and ethically in their writing.

In terms of quotations, we can see that they were not used very frequently overall, with the highest percentage of students using them with a reference being in the mid-achievers group. This suggests that students may not feel comfortable using direct quotations in their writing or may not have been taught how to do so effectively.

Among the low achievers, 30.6% of the source use incidents were NC (direct copy without reference), which is the highest percentage among all groups. This is a concerning finding because it suggests that these students may not understand the importance of acknowledging sources or may not have been taught how to do so properly. Additionally, 25.0% of the source use incidents were NR (paraphrasing without reference), which is the most common type of source use incident across all groups.

Among the mid-achievers, 27.4% of the source use incidents were NR (paraphrasing without reference), which is the most common type of source use incident

across all groups. However, there is a relatively high percentage of RM (reference with slight modification) and RR (reference with paraphrasing), suggesting that these students are more likely to use sources by modifying or rewording them in their own words. Additionally, 10.3% of the source use incidents were QC (quotation with reference), which is the highest percentage of this type of source use incident among all groups.

Among the high achievers, 31.6% of the source use incidents were NR (paraphrasing without reference), which is the most common type of source use incident across all groups. Interestingly, the percentage of RR (reference with paraphrasing) is higher among the high achievers than the mid-achievers and low achievers, suggesting that these students have a better understanding of how to use sources effectively and ethically. Additionally, 9.8% of the source use incidents were QC (quotation with reference), which is a relatively low percentage compared to the mid-achievers.

Overall, 28.5% of the source use incidents were NR (paraphrasing without reference), which is the most common type of source use incident across all groups. Additionally, there is a relatively high percentage of RM (reference with slight modification) and RR (reference with paraphrasing), suggesting that students are more likely to use sources by modifying or rewording them in their own words. The percentage of QC (quotation with reference) is relatively low across all groups, with only 9.4% of the source use incidents being QC. These findings provide valuable insights into the source use incidents of students in their writing, highlighting areas where improvements in teaching and understanding are needed.

An ANOVA was applied to see whether these differences were significant within groups and within incident types. The results showed statistically significant differences between the groups in NC ($F(2, 120) = 6.390, p < .05$), NR ($F(2, 120) = 7.405, p < .05$), RM ($F(2, 120) = 8.873, p < .001$), and RR types of source use incidents ($F(2, 120) = 27.445, p < .001$), but not in NM, RC, and QC types. Post-hoc tests revealed that most significant differences were between low and high achiever groups. Therefore, the mid-achiever group was excluded from statistical analysis.

A chi-square test was then used to find the proportion of different types of source use incidents observed across the two groups. The results of the chi-square test showed that high achievers significantly outperformed low achievers in terms of engaging in

significantly higher numbers of source-use patterns, with 652 cases observed among high achievers and 284 cases among low achievers, equalling 69.7% and 30.35% of the incidents, respectively. In terms of the type of source-use incident, there was a significant link between the distribution of source-use incident types and achievement groups, except for RC. The findings suggest that the pattern of source-use incidents varies significantly among low, mid, and high achievers.

RR is the most suitable and appropriate borrowing option among the others and when we look at the frequency table, ANOVA results and chi-square results, it is seen that high achievers have outperformed the low achievers as expected. According to Cumming et al. (2005), highly proficient writers tend to rely on summarization, while mid-achiever writers prefer paraphrasing and verbatim use. On the other hand, low proficiency writers tend to use source texts to a minimal extent. In our study the results show a similar picture however I must accept that the number of the students were not equally distributed among the groups. Therefore, it may be misleading to claim that the mid-achiever group refers more to the source texts.

When the question is asked whether the source use appropriacy of the students can be explained by just only looking at their L2 proficiency, the answer is not certain as Plakans and Gebril (2017) suggest this claim requires more studies. Another study conducted in the Turkish context indicates that a significant proportion of writers (67%) incorporated source-based ideas into their writing using incorrect APA citation (Yalcin Duman and Gokturk Saglam, 2020). Their analysis of the essays revealed that proficient writers at levels 3 (54%) and 2 (46%) tended to use indirect citation more often than direct citation (quotations) as a method of borrowing from texts. In contrast, low proficiency writers tended to rely more on quotations (42%) and verbatim source use (31%). Our study reflects a similar picture. Overall, it is seen that in most of the source-use incidents in our students (about 87% of the incidents) the students refer to the source texts either without citation or by copying. It is also obvious from the students' remarks in this study. Even some of the high achiever students tend to hide the citation and paraphrase the source while writing. Two students also stated that they were afraid of digress from the main idea if they paraphrased the source into their writing. Therefore, although it can be claimed that proficiency has an effect on students' source use preferences, it cannot be seen as the only reason behind that.

The statements made by a few mid-achiever students suggest that they may lack confidence in their language abilities and feel hesitant to make changes to sentences without being certain of their correctness. These findings could be attributed to a lack of exposure to and practice with the language, as mid-achiever students may not have as much experience or proficiency as high-achievers. Additionally, their fear of making mistakes and causing problems could be a result of pressure to perform well academically. These results highlight the importance of providing adequate language training and support to mid-achiever students to help improve their language skills and confidence.

Even though citation practices were addressed in the assessment criteria, the finding that most of the borrowed text was not attributed to its source must be a concern. However, students remarked that they thought the professors did not check the assignments in this regard. They think that they can use sources without citations up to the percentage level determined by the instructor. And some students stated that they paraphrased the source text without citations to escape from similarity tools, such as Turnitin.

The statements provided by the participants of the study shed light on the different attitudes towards plagiarism among low and high achievers. While low achievers seem to rely on paraphrasing without paying close attention to the limits of similarity, high achievers appear to be more cautious in their approach. They resort to paraphrasing only when necessary and make sure to cite the sources appropriately to avoid any possibility of plagiarism. The findings also suggest that the participants' perception of the plagiarism detection methods used by instructors may influence their behaviour. High achievers are more likely to view similarity percentage as just one aspect of academic writing, while low achievers tend to see it as the main criteria to avoid being caught for plagiarism.

The instructors also remarked that there were ways to escape from Turnitin and some students fell back on these ways. They pointed out that with the advanced technology today, students can find various ways to bypass plagiarism checkers like Turnitin. They noticed that some students incorporate sentences from the sources they read, but they then integrate them seamlessly into their own writing, making it difficult to detect plagiarism with Turnitin alone. This highlights the importance of not solely relying on technology to detect plagiarism, but also on the instructors' ability to critically evaluate the students' writing and detect any signs of academic dishonesty. The findings

suggest that instructors should be vigilant and adopt a multi-faceted approach to plagiarism detection.

Prior studies (Kirkland and Saunders, 1991; Pennycook, 1996) have found that students from test-focused educational cultures that emphasize rote learning tend to employ textual borrowing without using proper citations. The findings of our study align with these results as we found that a majority of students were unfamiliar with citing accurately in accordance with established citation conventions (i.e., including a date and page number when required). It is also evident from the students' and instructors' remarks. We are all aware that language education before the university is mainly test-focused although there are some exceptions like private colleges. Our students, future English teachers, are not taught basic language skills before coming to the department. They do not study in preparatory school because most of them can pass the proficiency exam which is relatively easy for those who have at least background level of English to be able to enter the department. Students are exempt from preparatory class if they get 60 out of 100. And the average of preparatory exam ranges from 60 to 100. That is, we have students who barely pass the exam with 60 points, and we expect that them to excel productive skills by providing them basic skill courses in their first year only.

The instructors in the study expressed their concerns about students' inability to properly use citations and paraphrasing. According to one of the instructors, only a few students were able to paraphrase properly, and many students simply copied and pasted paragraphs without proper citations. The instructors felt that students were not exposed to research articles or given enough opportunities to practice proper citation methods in their classes. I1 noted that citation was only emphasized in the writing class and was not supported or implemented in other classes. As a result, students were having a hard time internalizing the citation process and transferring it to other lessons. Despite efforts to teach proper citation and provide examples, students still struggled with it, indicating a need for more comprehensive and consistent instruction on citation and paraphrasing across different courses.

6. CONCLUSION

This research adds to the current body of knowledge on integrated writing by investigating the ways ELT students employ sources in their essays and analysing how discourse features and language proficiency are interconnected. In this study, the participants were given the sources and they were able to discuss with their peers, use dictionaries, internet while completing the integrated writing assessment task. Future research could explore how reading comprehension affects source use when test-takers encounter the sources for the first time under test conditions, in a classroom with proctors.

This study offers valuable insights for teaching in the local testing context, as the results underscore the importance of providing additional textual analysis and language support, as well as remedial instruction, not only for the mechanical aspects of referencing but also for the different purposes of citation. These findings are consistent with those of prior research studies and suggest that greater emphasis should be placed on source and citation use in integrated writing courses. Correspondingly, Hirvela and Du (2013) have suggested that when teachers teach citation techniques only as a way to prevent plagiarism, they may hinder the transformation of knowledge at a deeper and more analytical level. Instead of simply focusing on mechanical exercises of source use, instruction should aim to raise students' awareness of the authentic use of citation for rhetorical purposes in academic writing. This can empower writers to gain proficiency in strategically using source-based information to build their own arguments and establish a greater level of authorial ownership.

To better prepare students for writing tasks that involve sources, it may be beneficial to focus more on teaching them how to write from sources, especially in EFL settings where independent writing tasks have been more common.

To fully describe the role of source use in academic writing development, it is important to consider academic literacy skills beyond language proficiency in integrated writing courses. This includes recognizing various rhetorical purposes for textual borrowing and ways to establish authorial identity. Future research could explore how proficiency in these skills relates to the diverse disciplinary areas and purposes of citations.

In addition to the implications discussed above, further studies could explore the impact of cultural and linguistic backgrounds on source use in integrated writing tasks. As international students may bring diverse writing practices from their home countries, it is important to investigate how their previous educational experiences and cultural perspectives influence their use of sources in academic writing. Moreover, future research could examine the role of teacher feedback on students' source use and its effectiveness in improving their writing skills. This could provide insights into how to enhance the quality of academic writing instruction and provide more effective feedback on source-based writing tasks.

Furthermore, the findings of this study highlight the need for a more comprehensive approach to teaching integrated writing that includes explicit instruction on source use and citation as well as building students' critical thinking and analytical skills. This could involve providing students with more opportunities to engage with authentic academic texts and to practice synthesizing information from multiple sources. Additionally, incorporating peer feedback and collaborative writing tasks could facilitate the development of these skills in an interactive and supportive learning environment. Subsequent research endeavours may delve into the significance of diverse forms of source use in the context of integrated writing, encompassing but not limited to direct quotations, paraphrasing, and summarization. One potential area of exploration is the impact of instructing students on source use techniques as a means of enhancing their integrated writing abilities. To what extent do various instructional methods, including modeling, explicit instruction, and peer feedback, demonstrate efficacy? Furthermore, it would be worthwhile to investigate the influence of source use on the comprehensive score of the integrated writing component in high-stakes assessments, such as university entrance exams. An intriguing inquiry would be to investigate whether superior performance in the source employment classification of the integrated writing component aligns with elevated composite scores. Subsequent studies may investigate the potential transferability of source use competencies to alternative academic writing assignments, such as scholarly articles and critical analyses, within the domains of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL).

The best implication that can be given after this study is that a high threshold should be determined for the language levels of the students in the English Language Teaching

department. The fact that the university selection exam evaluates elements other than language reveals the importance of the preparatory school exams. It is not acceptable that students who will become English teachers are still taking basic language skills lessons in the first year of the department. This process needs to be handled with preparatory education or in previous years so that students can gain skills such as academic writing and critical reading in the department. It can also be seen by looking at the grade point averages of the students that the language proficiency is still an obstacle, and the proficiency level of the students is insufficient.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I. Old Curriculum of ELT Department

DERS PROGRAMI

I. YARIYIL

BİL 125	Bilgisayar	2+2	4,0
İNÖ 119	(İng) Bağlamsal Dilbilgisi I	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 125	(İng) Sözlü İletişim Becerileri I	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 129	(İng) Academic Reading (Akademik Okuma)	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 131	(İng) Written Communication (Yazılı İletişim Becerileri)	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 135	(İng) Listening Comprehension (Dinleme Anlama)	2+0	3,0

II. YARIYIL

İNÖ 120	(İng) Bağlamsal Dilbilgisi II	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 126	(İng) Sözlü İletişim Becerileri II	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 128	(İng) Otonom Öğrenme	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 130	(İng) Critical Reading (ELT'de Eleştirel Okuma)	3+0	4,0
İNÖ 132	(İng) Academic Writing and Report Writing (Akademik Yazma ve Raporlaştırma)	3+0	4,0

ÖMB 103	Eğitim Bilimine Giriş	3+0	4,0
TÜR 101	Türkçe I: Yazılı Anlatım	2+0	3,0
			30,0

İNÖ 136	(İng) Listening Comprehension and Note Taking (Dinleme Anlama ve Not Alma)	2+0	3,0
ÖMB 106	Eğitim Psikolojisi	3+0	4,0
TÜR 102	Türkçe II: Sözlü Anlatım	2+0	3,0
			30,0

III. YARIYIL

İNÖ 203	(İng) İngiliz Edebiyatına Giriş I	3+0	5,0
İNÖ 206	(İng) İngilizce Öğretiminde Yaklaşımlar	3+0	5,0
İNÖ 213	(İng) Linguistics I (Dilbilim I)	3+0	5,0
ÖMB 207	Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri	3+0	4,0
	<i>Seçmeli Dersler (3)</i>	-	11,0
			30,0

IV. YARIYIL

İNÖ 204	(İng) İngiliz Edebiyatına Giriş II	3+0	5,0
İNÖ 214	(İng) Linguistics II (Dilbilim II)	3+0	5,0
İNÖ 216	(İng) Methodology in the Area of Specialization: Grammar Teaching (Özel Öğretim Yöntemleri: Dilbilgisi Öğretimi)	3+0	5,0
İNÖ 218	(İng) Fundamental Aspects of English Language Teaching (İngilizce Öğretiminde Temel İlkeler)	2+0	3,0
ÖMB 212	Öğretim Teknolojileri ve Materyal Tasarımı	2+2	4,0
	<i>Seçmeli Dersler (2)</i>	-	8,0
			30,0

APPENDIX II. New Curriculum of ELT Department

DERS PROGRAMI

I. YARIYIL

BİL 105	Bilişim Teknolojileri	3+0	5,0
İNÖ 137	(İng)Okuma Becerileri I	2+0	2,0
İNÖ 139	(İng)Yazma Becerileri I	2+0	2,0
İNÖ 141	(İng)Dinleme ve Sesletim I	2+0	2,0
İNÖ 143	(İng)Sözlü İletişim Becerileri I	2+0	2,0
ÖMB 105	Eğitime Giriş	2+0	3,0
ÖMB 110	Eğitim Sosyolojisi	2+0	3,0
TAR 181	Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılap Tarihi I	2+0	3,0
TÜR 131	Türk Dili I	3+0	5,0
	<i>Yabancı Dil Dersleri I</i>	-	3,0
			30,0

II. YARIYIL

İNÖ 138	(İng)Okuma Becerileri II	2+0	2,0
İNÖ 140	(İng)Yazma Becerileri II	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 142	(İng)Dinleme ve Sesletim II	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 144	(İng)Sözlü İletişim Becerileri II	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 146	(İng)İngilizcenin Yapısı	2+0	2,0
ÖMB 107	Eğitim Felsefesi	2+0	3,0
ÖMB 112	Eğitim Psikolojisi	2+0	3,0
TAR 182	Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılap Tarihi II	2+0	3,0
TÜR 132	Türk Dili II	3+0	5,0
	<i>Yabancı Dil Dersleri II</i>	-	3,0
			30,0

III. YARIYIL

İNÖ 219	(İng)İngilizce Öğrenme ve Öğretim Yaklaşımları	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 221	(İng)İngiliz Edebiyatı I	2+0	4,0
İNÖ 223	(İng)Dilbilimi I	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 225	(İng)Eleştirel Okuma ve Yazma	2+0	3,0
ÖMB 114	Öğretim Teknolojileri	2+0	3,0
ÖMB 203	Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri	2+0	3,0
	<i>Alan Eğitimi Seçmeli Dersler</i>	-	4,0
	<i>Genel Kültür Seçmeli Dersleri</i>	-	3,0
	<i>Meslek Bilgisi Seçmeli Dersleri</i>	-	4,0
			30,0

IV. YARIYIL

ARY 214	Eğitimde Araştırma Yöntemleri	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 222	(İng)İngiliz Edebiyatı II	2+0	4,0
İNÖ 224	(İng)Dilbilimi II	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 230	(İng)İngilizce Öğretim Programları	2+0	3,0
İNÖ 232	(İng)Dil Edinimi	2+0	3,0
OKÖ 206	Türk Eğitim Tarihi	2+0	3,0
	<i>Alan Eğitimi Seçmeli Dersler</i>	-	4,0
	<i>Genel Kültür Seçmeli Dersleri</i>	-	3,0
	<i>Meslek Bilgisi Seçmeli Dersleri</i>	-	4,0
			30,0

APPENDIX III. Mid-term exam

ANADOLU UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
ELT DEPARTMENT
INO 225 CRITICAL READING & WRITING
2019-20 FALL MIDTERM

60 MINUTES

NAME:

NUMBER

SECTION:

**A. Read the text "Ethics of the Internet" and answer the following questions.
(7x7=49pts.)**

1. What do governments do to be seen as concerned and responsive to public opinion as regards the dangers of the Internet?
2. Why does the writer think that society cannot protect itself from the unethical use of the Internet?
3. Give ONE example of activities which can be banned easily without causing disagreement.
4. According to the writer, why is it difficult to determine what should be prohibited on the Internet?
5. Rather than leaving the difficult ethical issues to governments to solve, what does the writer suggest that we should do?
6. Why does the writer want the utilization of external monitor for the Internet to be delayed?
7. According to the writer, what could an unexpected positive result of the "anarchy of the Internet" be?

B. Choose ONE of the following and write ONLY ONE paragraph. Circle your choice below (51 pts.)

1. Write an objective, complete, and balanced summary of the given text in your own words.
2. Write your personal response (analysis) to one of the main ideas presented in the text.

Content: 21/ Organization: 15/ Language and mechanics: 15/
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APPENDIX IV. Final Assignment

ANADOLU UNIVERSITY Faculty of Education

İNÖ225 Critical Reading and Writing: Guidelines for the Final Paper

Write a well-developed Problem Solution essay on the following topic:

Procrastination is the practice of carrying out less urgent tasks in preference to more urgent ones, or doing more pleasurable things in place of less pleasurable ones, and thus putting off tasks to a later time, sometimes to the "last minute". It is very common among university students.

Why is it a problem and how can a student avoid procrastinating?

- A. Use at least **5 (five) secondary sources**.
- B. Write your essay obeying all the rules of APA.
- C. Use at least **1 visual support material** (i.e. graphics, photos, diagrams, etc.)
- D. Using the given three articles as sources is a MUST. (You can get the articles from the copy room.)
- E. Upload your paper to **Turnitin** under the relevant assignment title. The papers that are **not uploaded to Turnitin** or that are **off-topic or off-genre** will **not be evaluated**. The papers that receive a originality score **higher than 30** may be considered a sign of **plagiarism**.

Deadline: 03/01/2020

Introduction:	____/5
Thesis Statement:	____/5
Background Par.:	____/10
Topic Sentences:	____/10
Support:	____/20
Conclusion:	____/5
Visual Support:	____/5
Unity/Coherence/Organization:	____/10
Use of Language:	____/15
Use of APA:	____/15
TOTAL:	____/100

APPENDIX V. Coding Scheme

Coding Scheme for Textual Borrowing				
Major Categories	Subcategories	Codes	Example From Students' Writing	Source Texts
With no reference (N)	Strings of words exactly copied (C)	NC	If the physician appears sympathetic to the patient's interest in suicide, it may convey the impression that surely cannot not be cured and the best way is to die (O3, NC16).	If the physician appears sympathetic to the patient's interest in suicide, it may convey the impression that the physician feels assisted suicide is a desirable alternative (O3).
	String of words slightly modified by adding/deleting words or using synonyms for content words (M)	NM	The medication will contribute to the depression of respiration or blood pressure, and unconsciousness (W3, NM14).	... even though the medication may contribute to the depression of respiration or blood pressure, the dulling of consciousness, or even death ... (W3).
	Strings of words modified by reformulating syntax or structure of the original text (R)	NR	... increasing the dose of narcotics is morally correct, even if those dose can cause unconsciousness (W3, NR8).	It is morally correct to increase the dose of narcotics ... (W3).
With reference to the author (R)	Strings of words exactly copied (C)	RC	Wanzer says this because he feels the primary goal of the physician is to relieve suffering and pain (W3, RC10).	... the primary goal of the physician is to relieve suffering (W3).
	String of words slightly modified by adding/deleting words or using synonyms for content words (M)	RM	Sidney feels it is to relieve all the pain and suffering (from W3, RM7).	... the dose that is sufficient to relieve pain and suffering ... (W3).
	Strings of words modified by reformulating syntax or structure of the original text (R)	RR	David thinks that if the physician conveys a kind of impression that suicide is a desirable choice ... (O3, RR14).	If the physician appears sympathetic to the patient's interest in suicide, it may convey the impression that the physician feels assisted suicide is a desirable alternative (O3).
With quotation (Q)	Strings of words exactly copied (C)	QC	Physicians should not have the right of ending "pain and suffering" by means of death (W4, QC3).	... the dose that is sufficient to relieve pain and suffering ... (W4).

NOTE: Strings of words borrowed from source text are highlighted. Attached to each coding is the number of words identified as a string from the source texts. The letters and numbers preceding the codes indicate the source (Wanzer [W]; Orentlicher [O]) and sentence number in that excerpt.

APPENDIX VI. Ethics Committee Approval

Evrak Kayıt Tarihi: 13.03.2020 Protokol No: 23661

Tarih: 03.06.2020



ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERÎ BİLİMLER BİLİMSEL ARAŞTIRMA VE YAYIN ETİĞİ KURULU
KARAR BELGESİ

ÇALIŞMANIN TÜRÜ:	BAP Projesi-Doktora Tez Çalışması
KONU:	Eğitim Bilimleri
BAŞLIK:	Critical Reading Towards Critical Writing: An Exploratory Research with 2. Year ELT Students Eleştirel Okumaya Yönelik Eleştirel Yazma: 2. Sınıf İngilizce Öğretmenliği Öğrencileriyle Açıklayıcı Bir Çalışma
PROJE/TEZ YÜRÜTÜCÜSÜ:	Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE
TEZ YAZARI:	Musa TÖMEN
ALT KOMİSYON GÖRÜŞÜ:	-
KARAR:	Olumlu

APPENDIX VII. Reading and Grammar Test

2

Structure and Written Expression

Time: 25 minutes

This section tests your ability to recognize grammar and usage suitable for standard written English. This section is divided into two parts, each with its own directions.

Structure

Directions: Items in this part are incomplete sentences. Following each of these sentences, there are four words or phrases. You should select the *one* word or phrase—(A), (B), (C), or (D)—that best completes the sentence. Then fill in the space on your answer sheet that matches the letter of the answer that you have selected.

Example I

Pepsin _____ an enzyme used in digestion.

- (A) that
- (B) is
- (C) of
- (D) being

This sentence should properly read "Pepsin is an enzyme used in digestion." You should fill in (B) on your answer sheet.

Sample Answer

☐ A ☒ B ☐ C ☐ D

Example II

_____ large natural lakes are found in the state of South Carolina.

- (A) There are no
- (B) Not the
- (C) It is not
- (D) No

This sentence should properly read "No large natural lakes are found in the state of South Carolina." You should fill in (D) on your answer sheet.

As soon as you understand the directions, begin work on this part.

Sample Answer

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☒ D

1. Sharp knives are actually safer to use _____.
(A) as dull ones
(B) as ones that are dull
(C) than dull ones
(D) that are dull ones
2. Daniel Webster, Thaddeus Stevens, and many others _____ prominent in public life began their careers by teaching school.
(A) they became
(B) once they became
(C) became
(D) who became
3. As coal mines became deeper, the problems of draining water, bringing in fresh air, and _____ to the surface increased.
(A) transporting ore
(B) to transport ore
(C) how ore is transported
(D) ore is transporting
4. _____ because of the complexity of his writing, Henry James never became a popular writer, but his works are admired by critics and other writers.
(A) It may be
(B) Perhaps
(C) Besides
(D) Why is it
5. Piedmont glaciers are formed _____ several valley glaciers join and spread out over a plain.
(A) by
(B) when
(C) from
(D) that
6. As late as 1890, Key West, with a population of 18,000, _____ Florida's largest city.
(A) that was
(B) to be
(C) was
(D) it was
7. A mastery of calculus depends on _____ of algebra.
(A) an understanding
(B) is understood
(C) to understand
(D) understand

APPENDIX VIII. Interview Questions (Students)

ÖĞRENCİ GÖRÜŞME SORULARI



Sorular	Yorumlar
Öğrencilik sürecinizi kısaca anlatır mısınız? Kaç puanla bölüme girdiniz?	
1.Ders dışında İngilizce okuma/yazma yapıyor musunuz??	
2. 1. sınıfta aldığınız okuma ve yazma becerileri dersleri size ne kazandırdı?	
3. Bu dersin işlenişini örnek vererek anlatabilir misiniz?	
4. Bu dersin değerlendirme süreçleri nasıl gerçekleşti anlatabilir misiniz?	
5. Bu dersi almadan önce dersle ilgili beklentileriniz nelerdi?	
6. Bu ders sonucundaki kazanımlarınız neler?	
7. Bir ödev yaparken kaynak kullanma, atıf verme, alıntı yapmayı nasıl yapıyorsunuz örneklendirebilir misiniz?	
8. Bir metin yazarken kaynak göstermeden alıntı yapmayı nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?	
9. Derste ya da evde bir yazma çalışması yaparken neler yaşıyorsunuz? Karşılaştığınız zorlukları nasıl aşıyorsunuz?	
10. Öğretmen olduğunuzda daha iyi yazmak ve İngilizce yazma öğretmek için neleri öğrenmeniz gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?	

APPENDIX IX. Interview Questions (Instructors)

ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARI GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

Sorular	Açıklama / Öneri
1. Akademik yazmanın İngilizce öğretim sürecinde nasıl bir yeri vardır?	
2. Mevcut İngilizce Öğretmenliği müfredatında hangi yazma derslerine girdiniz?	
3. Programda yer alan “Eleştirel Okuma ve Yazma” dersinin içeriği, işlenişi, değerlendirme yöntemleri hakkındaki görüşleriniz nelerdir?	
4. Bu dersi alması için öğrencilerin ihtiyaç duyduğu yeterlikler nelerdir?	
5. Bu dersi alan öğrencilerin okuma ve yazma becerileri nasıl bir seyir gösteriyor?	
6. Bu dersi alan öğrencilerin kaynak kullanımı, atıf verme, alıntı yapma davranışları hakkında gözlemleriniz nelerdir?	
7. Bu dersi alan öğrencilerin intihal kavramına yaklaşımlarını nasıl yorumluyorsunuz?	
8. Süreci genel olarak değerlendirdiğinizde öğrencilerin öğrenme çıktılarına ulaşma durumunu nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?	
Dersin iyileştirilmesi için önerileriniz nelerdir?	

APPENDIX X. Consent Form (Instructor)

KATILIMCILAR İÇİN BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ ONAM FORMU

Sayın katılımcı,

Sizi, Anadolu Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu'ndan 03/06/2020 tarih / 23661 sayı ile izin alınan ve Araş. Gör. Musa TÖMEN tarafından Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE'nin danışmanlığında yürütülen "Critical Reading towards Critical Writing: An Exploratory Research with 2nd Year EFL Students" başlıklı araştırmaya katılmaya davet ediyorum.

Araştırmanın amacı	Bu çalışma son ELT müfredatında mevcut ELT öğrencilerinin durumunun resmini çekerek eleştirel okuma ve yazma arasındaki ilişkiye dair ilgili alan yazına katkıda bulunmaya çalışacaktır. Öğrencilerin yeniden yazma deneyimleri, kaynak kullanım davranışları, eleştirel okuma becerileri Eleştirel Okuma ve Yazma dersindeki final notları için verdikleri son ödevleri incelenerek belirlenmeye çalışılacaktır.
Araştırma kapsamında nasıl bir uygulama yapılacağı	Yüz yüze yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme
Öngörülen görüşme süresi	40 dakika
Araştırmaya katılması beklenen katılımcı/gönüllü sayısı	4 öğretim elemanı – 18 öğrenci
Katılımcı/Gönüllülerin, araştırmada karşılaşılabileceği riskler	Ön görülen bir risk bulunmamaktadır.
Araştırmanın yapılacağı yerler	Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi
Görüntü ve/veya ses kaydı alınacak mı?	☒ Evet ☐ Hayır

Araştırmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılma kararı verdikten sonra araştırmanın herhangi bir aşamasında çalışmadan çıkma hakkına sahipsiniz. Bu araştırmaya katılıminız için sizden herhangi bir ücret istenmeyecek ve size de herhangi bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır. Araştırmadan elde edilecek bilgiler yukarıda "araştırma amacı" kısmında belirtilen amaç dışında kullanılmayacak ve kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır. Katılıminızla araştırmamıza yaptığınız destek için teşekkür ederim.

Araş. Gör. Musa TÖMEN

KATILIMCI BEYANI

Yukarıda ayrıntıları belirtilen ve tarafıma aktarılan bu araştırma ile ilgili yapılan tüm bilgilendirmeleri ayrıntılarıyla anlamış bulunmaktayım. Gerek araştırma yürütülürken gerekse yayımlandığında katılımcı kimliğinin gizli tutulacağı konusunda güvence aldım. Ayrıca araştırma sonuçlarının eğitim ve bilimsel amaçlarla kullanımı sırasında kişisel bilgilerin dikkatle korunacağı konusunda bana yeterli güven verildi. Araştırma için yapılacak harcamalarla ilgili herhangi bir parasal sorumluluk altına girmiyorum ve bana herhangi bir ödeme de yapılamayacaktır. Araştırmanın yürütülmesi sırasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden çekilebilirim. Bu şartlar altında aşağıda adı soyadı yazılı şahsım, araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılıyorum. Bu formun bir kopyası bana verilecektir.

Katılımcı			
Adı ve Soyadı		Tarih ve İmza	11.04.2022 -
Adres	Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi	Telefon, eposta	

APPENDIX XI. Consent Form (Student)

KATILIMCILAR İÇİN BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ ONAM FORMU

Sayın katılımcı,

Sizi, Anadolu Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu'ndan 03/06/2020 tarih / 23661 sayı ile izin alınan ve Araş. Gör. Musa TÖMEN tarafından Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE'nin danışmanlığında yürütülen "Critical Reading towards Critical Writing: An Exploratory Research with 2nd Year EFL Students" başlıklı araştırmaya katılmaya davet ediyorum.

Araştırmanın amacı	Bu çalışma son ELT müfredatında mevcut ELT öğrencilerinin durumunun resmini çekerek eleştirel okuma ve yazma arasındaki ilişkiye dair ilgili alan yazına katkıda bulunmaya çalışacaktır. Öğrencilerin yeniden yazma deneyimleri, kaynak kullanım davranışları, eleştirel okuma becerileri Eleştirel Okuma ve Yazma dersindeki final notları için verdikleri son ödevleri incelenerek belirlenmeye çalışılacaktır.
Araştırma kapsamında nasıl bir uygulama yapılacağı	Yüz yüze yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme
Öngörülen görüşme süresi	40 dakika
Araştırmaya katılması beklenen katılımcı/gönüllü sayısı	4 öğretim elemanı – 18 öğrenci
Katılımcı/Gönüllülerin, araştırmada karşılaşılabileceği riskler	Ön görülen bir risk bulunmamaktadır.
Araştırmanın yapılacağı yerler	Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi
Görüntü ve/veya ses kaydı alınacak mı?	☒ Evet ☐ Hayır

Araştırmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılma kararı verdikten sonra araştırmanın herhangi bir aşamasında çalışmadan çıkma hakkına sahipsiniz. Bu araştırmaya katılımınız için sizden herhangi bir ücret istenmeyecek ve size de herhangi bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır. Araştırmadan elde edilecek bilgiler yukarıda "araştırma amacı" kısmında belirtilen amaç dışında kullanılmayacak ve kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır. Katılımınızla araştırmamıza yaptığınız destek için teşekkür ederim.

Araş. Gör. Musa TÖMEN

KATILIMCI BEYANI

Yukarıda ayrıntıları belirtilen ve tarafıma aktarılan bu araştırma ile ilgili yapılan tüm bilgilendirmeleri ayrıntıları ile anlamış bulunmaktayım. Gerek araştırma yürütülürken gerekse yayımlandığında katılımcı kimliğinin gizli tutulacağı konusunda güvence aldım. Ayrıca araştırma sonuçlarının eğitim ve bilimsel amaçlarla kullanımı sırasında kişisel bilgilerin dikkatle korunacağı konusunda bana yeterli güven verildi. Araştırma için yapılacak harcamalarla ilgili herhangi bir parasal sorumluluk altına girmiyorum ve bana herhangi bir ödeme de yapılamayacaktır. Araştırmanın yürütülmesi sırasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden çekilebilirim. Bu şartlar altında aşağıda adı soyadı yazılı şahsım, araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılıyorum. Bu formun bir kopyası bana verilecektir.

Katılımcı

Adı ve Soyadı		Tarih ve imza	12.05.2022 -
Adres	Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi	Telefon, eposta	

CURRICULUM VITAE

Adı Soyadı : Musa TÖMEN

Yabancı Dili : İngilizce

Doğum Yeri ve Yılı :

E-Posta :

EDUCATION

- **MASTER’S DEGREE**

Anadolu University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences Eskisehir, Türkiye

Thesis: The Relationship Between Vocabulary Size, Lexical Diversity, Lexical Density and EFL Writing Scores: A Cross-Sectional Study

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE

- **BACHELOR’S DEGREE**

Cukurova University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Adana, Türkiye

EXPERIENCE

- **ACADEMIC POSITIONS**

- **FIRAT UNIVERSITY**

Rectorate,

Instructor of English (Nov 2009 – Mar 2011)

- **ANADOLU UNIVERSITY**

School of Foreign Languages,

Instructor of English (Mar 2011 – Feb 2014)

- **ANADOLU UNIVERSITY**

Faculty of Education,

Research Assistant (Feb 2014 – Present)

- **ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE**

- **ANADOLU UNIVERSITY**

Research and Application Centre for the Turkic World,
Vice Director (Oct 2019- Sep 2020)

PUBLICATIONS

- **BOOK PUBLICATIONS**

1. Turan, Ü. D., Kopkallı, H., Balci, A. (Ed.) (2018). *Dilbilimde Güncel Tartışmalar*, Dilbilim Derneği Yayınları, Ankara. (Vice Editor)

- **JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS**

1. Durmusoglu Köse, G., Yüksel, İ., Öztürk, Y., and **Tömen, M.** (2019). Turkish Academics' Foreign Language Academic Literacy: A Needs Analysis Study. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(1), 717-736.
2. **Tömen, M.** (2019). The Use of First Person Pronouns in Turkish EFL Students' Argumentative Essay Writing. *Uluslararası Eğitim ve Dil*, 1(1), 1-9.
3. **Tömen, M.** (2022). Automated Essay Scoring Feedback in Foreign Language Writing: Does it Coincide with Instructor Feedback? . *Disiplinler Arası Dil Araştırmaları* , 4 (4) , 53-62 . DOI: 10.48147/dada.60

- **ORAL and POSTER PRESENTATIONS**

1. Tömen, M., (2022). *A Corpus Based Study on the Use of "as" in Non-Restrictive Sentential Clauses*. Paper presented at 4th International Turkic World Educational and Social Sciences Congress. Antalya, Türkiye.
2. **Tömen, M.**, Savuran, Y. (2021). *Investigating Markedness in Turkish L2 Instruction: Subject-Verb Agreement in Turkish 3rd Person Plural*, Paper presented at the 6th AATT Conference: Teaching Turkish and Turkic Languages During The Pandemic: Past, Present And Future Directions. (Online)
3. **Tömen, M.**, Durmuşoğlu Köse, G. (2019). *The Comparison of Independent and Source- Based Tasks in Writing Assessment: Textual Borrowing in TFL Learners' Essays*. Paper presented at the 5th International Congress of Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language. Athens, Greece.
4. Durmuşoğlu Köse, G., Yüksel, İ., **Tömen, M.**, Öztürk, Y. (2016). Academic English Literacy Skills of Turkish Graduate Students: The Preliminary Application of TAEELS. Paper presented at 9th International English Language Teaching Studies: Interdisciplinary Approaches. Canakkale, Türkiye.
5. Öztürk, Y., **Tömen, M.** (2016). The Use of Four Spoken Discourse Markers by Turkish EFL and British University Students. Poster presentation at AAAL 2016 Annual Conference. Orlando, the USA.
6. Durmuşoğlu Köse, G., Yüksel, İ., **Tömen, M.**, Susoy, Z. Arıkan, N. (2015) The Need Analysis of Turkish Academics' Foreign Language Academic Literacy. Paper presented at 3rd International Conference on Applied Linguistics. Canakkale, Türkiye.

RESEARCH PROJECTS

1. Anadolu University Scientific Research Project: A Study on the Effects of Physical and Virtual Museum Tours on the Promotion of Turkish World Science, Culture and Art Centre, **Researcher**, 2019.
2. TUBITAK, Project No: 113K353 _ Determining the Needs and Levels of Academic Literacy Competencies in Foreign Languages, **Bursary**, 2015

CONFERENCE ORGANIZATION

- Anadolu University Sharing Issues in ELT Conference, April 2011, Eskisehir, Türkiye
- Anadolu University Ulusal Dilbilim Kurultayı, May 2017, Eskisehir, Türkiye
- Anadolu University The 20th International Conference on Turkish Linguistics, August 2021, Eskisehir, Türkiye

MEMBERSHIP IN SCIENTIFIC ORGANIZATIONS

- The American Association of Teachers of Turkish (2021 – Present)

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

- Teaching Practicum
- English Language Classes for PREP School students (A1, A2, B1, B2)
- Turkish Language Courses for Foreign Learners, Intensive Course (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1)