Investigating the Second Language (L2) Writing Strategies of University Students with Different First Languages (L1)

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Submitted to the
Institute of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts
in
English Language Teaching

Eastern Mediterranean University
September 2023
Gazimağusa, North Cyprus

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate the writing strategies employed by university students from diverse first languge (L1) backgrounds when writing in English (L2), highlighting the potential influence of L1 on L2 writing performance. The study was conducted amongst ten participants with five different L1s, those being Arabic, French, Turkish, Russian and English. The participants were all Freshman university students at Arkın University of Creative Arts and Design (ARUCAD) in North Cyprus, taking the mandatory SOFL102 course for all students regardless of their level of English. The data was gathered through a questionnaire, think-aloud procedures and a semi-structured restrospective interviews. During the think-aloud procedures, participating students were first required to write an academic argumentative essay and then a short story. The findings showed that regardless of the L1 the participants had, they generally did not use writing strategies when writing in their L1. This could be due to their confidence in their native language level and the type of task, as well as their unfamiliarity with the writing strategies in L1. In L2 writing, however, students with different L1s, regardless of which language they spoke, generally preferred to use various writing strategies in pre, while-, and post-writing stages. They reported that they used mostly 'planning' and 'brainstorming', which are cognitive and metacognitive strategies. As regards the use of L1 knowledge and skills to facilitate the L2 writing process, using their L1 was generally not preferred as a writing strategy. The participants reported that the usage of their L1 while writing in L2 caused issues for them such as making them feel like they were losing their English knowledge or focusing too much on translations. This study focused on writing strategies and writing skills. Further research can be done focusing on other skills such as reading, listening

and speaking. Also, a similar study can be conducted over a longer period of time than the duration of this current study.

Keywords: first language (L1), second language (L2), writing strategies

ÖZ

Bu çalışmanın amacı, farklı ana dillere sahip öğrencilerin ikinci bir dilde (İngilizce dilinde) yazarken hangi yazma stratejilerini kullandıklarını ve bu süreçte ana dillerini bir yazma stratejisi olarak nasıl kullandıklarını araştırmaktır. Çalışmada yer alan katılımcılar, Arkın Yaratıcı Sanatlar ve Tasarım Üniversitesi'nde (ARUCAD'da) İngilizce seviyesi ne olursa olsun tüm öğrenciler için zorunlu ders SOFL102 dersini alan birinci sınıf üniversite öğrencileridir. Anadilleri Arapça (2 katılımcı), Fransızca (2 katılımcı), Türkçe (2 katılımcı), Rusça (2 katılımcı) ve İngilizce (2 katılımcı) olmak üzere beş farklı ana dile sahip 10 katılımcıdan, anket, sesli düşünme prosedürleri ve yarı yapılandırılmış geriye dönük görüşme yoluyla veri toplanmıştır. Sesli düşünme prosedürleri sırasında, öğrencilerden önce akademik bir makale (kontrollü yazma ödevi) yazmaları ve daha sonra bir 'kısa öykü' (serbest yazma ödevi) yazmaları istenmiştir. Bulgular, katılımcıların anadilleri ne olursa olsun, anadillerinde yazarken genellikle yazma stratejilerini kullanmadıklarını göstermiştir. Bunun nedeni, ana dil seviyelerine ve görev türüne olan güvenlerinin yanı sıra, birinci dildeki yazma stratejilerine aşina olmamaları olabilir. Ancak farklı anadillere sahip öğrenciler, hangi dili konuşurlarsa konuşsunlar ikinci dilde yazarken, genellikle yazma öncesi, yazma sırası ve yazma sonrası aşamalarda çeşitli yazma stratejilerini kullanmayı tercih ettiklerini belirtmişlerdir, bilişsel ve üstbilişsel stratejilerden en çok 'planlama' ve 'beyin fırtınası' kullandıklarını bildirmişlerdir. Anadildeki bilgi ve becerilerinin ikinci dilde (İngilizce) yazma sürecini kolaylaştırmak için bir yazma stratejisi olarak kullanılmasının, katılımcı öğrenciler tarafından genellikle tercih edilmediği ortaya çıkmıştır. Katılımcılar, ikinci dilde (İngilizce) yazarken anadillerini kullanmanın, İngilizce bilgilerini kaybediyormuş gibi hissetmeleri veya çevirilere çok fazla odaklanmaları gibi sorunlara neden olduğunu bildirmişlerdir. Bu çalışma, daha sonra

yapılacak çalışmalarda daha uzun bir süre diliminde yeniden tekrarlanabilir. İkinci dilde yazma stratejileri üzerine yoğunlaşan bu çalışma, okuma, dinleme ve konuşma gibi diğer dil becerileri için de tekrarlanabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ana dil (L1), ikinci dil (L2), yazma stratejileri

DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this thesis to my family.

They are my rock and my happy place.

You make me want to be better.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my great gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Ülker Vancı Osam who guided me step by step throughout my thesis completion process and gave me almost instantaneous feedback which motivated me to work just as hard just as fast as her. I would also like to thank all of my instructors at Eastern Mediterranean University. Every single lesson I completed had an input in my thesis. Thank you to all of my instructors for the valuable information they provided me.

I would also like to thank the Vice Rector and Ethics Committee Head of Arkın University of Creative Arts and Design Prof. Dr. Burcu Toker for taking time out of her busy schedule and giving me valuable feedback. She gave me the opportunity to collect data and implement my research in exactly the way I had envisioned. Many thanks also to my participants who were so willing to participate in my study.

Furthermore, I would like to thank my family for being a rock to me during this difficult process. Thank you especially to my parents for giving me the push and motivation I needed to complete this thesis. I would like to particularly thank my husband Sıtkı for his patience with me during this process. Without his unwavering support and patience, I would not have been able to complete this process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ARUCAD	Arkın University of Creative Arts and Design
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLL	Community Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
DM	Direct Method
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Languge Teaching
EMU	Eastern Mediterranean University
ENG	English
ESL	English as a Second Language
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
L1	First language
L2	Second language
L3	Third Language
MT	Machine Translation
PA	Participant – Arabic
PE	Participant – Native English
PF	Participant – French
PR	Participant – Russian
PT	Participant – Turkish
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SOFL	School of Foreign Languages
SVO	Subject – Verb – Object

TBL	Task-Based Learning
TRNC	Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus
UK	United Kingdom

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter provides a brief overview of the background to the study, followed by the problem statement and the aim of the study. Then, research questions and the significance of the study are presented. The chapter ends with the definition of some key terms.

1.1 Background to the Study

Ever since the Grammar Translation method, many scholars have believed that the first language (L1) of the learners should be completely ignored in English language learning classrooms (Richards & Rogers, 2001). However, recently it has been considered whether L1 could facilitate learning of the second language (L2). The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) has recently updated its expected learning outcomes of different levels. Through this update, they have added a new section: mediation. Most of the outcomes of mediation focus on translation between L1 and L2. These days, students are almost expected to create a bridge between their first language and the target language, this being English.

One of the skills that all language learners focus on is writing. This can be academic writing, creative writing, process writing or informal writing. When university language classes are considered, students are actively taught academic essay formats in particular. They are equipped with writing strategies such as planning and revising

their own work through checklists or similar tools. However, one thing that is often overlooked is how L1 can impact writing in L2 tasks.

L1 use is not considered a debilitating factor, but rather as a kind of compensatory strategy for the difficulties that L2 writers face in L2 composition writing (Manchón, Roca de Larios, & Murphy, 2007). Nowadays with developed technology in the form of smart phones being very easy to access by all students, it becomes easier for them to use L1 while writing in the form of translation. Platforms and websites such as Google Translate and Tureng.com have enabled students to easily translate their ideas written in their L1 into L2. Although this is a very time-saving tactic to use for students which allows them to focus on developing ideas rather than forming correct sentences, it does not equip learners with the necessary skills they need to produce those translated sentences themselves. Bearing in mind that writing as a productive skill is one of the most difficult language skills for students, it may be correct to say that students seek ways to make this process as easy as possible. By allowing students to use their L1, teachers will be enabling the use of another writing strategy which can be beneficial for students as what they are trying to do is a difficult task.

The study of cross-cultural differences in cognition and writing styles has become a serious subject of study within the last forty years or so. According to one viewpoint, academic discourse is universal (Widdowson 1979); another viewpoint contends that cognitive and textual structures are culture-specific (e.g., Clyne, 1987; Kachru, 1983; Kaplan, 1966/1980). A number of subsequent investigations refuted Widdowson's claim, at least in part, demonstrating that categorizing data according to academic disciplines and text kinds produces a more nuanced picture of cross-cultural diversity. In other words, they claimed that writing styles vary among cultures.

For many years now, research has been done on the effects of L1 when learning L2. One focus from these studies was on how L1 use affected L2 writing. Mahmoud (2000) stated that when L2 learners are attempting to compose a piece of written text, they might use transfer of their L1 into L2 as a tool to learn or as a way to convey their meaning. For Cumming (1990), learners who have already learned how to plan, develop ideas, revise, and edit their writing in their L1 may use the same strategies when they are composing in L2. However, it could be possible to note that being able to transfer their message through these strategies may require a certain level of proficiency. This may be a skill beyond beginner and pre-intermediate level (Berman, 1994).

Particularly adult learners who are cognitively mature have complex ideas that they wish to convey into their L2 writing. Based on their level of proficiency, they may find the strategy of transfer from L1 into L2 more convenient. On the one hand, using L1 to transfer complex ideas can be an advantage. On the other hand, if these ideas are not transferred accurately based on insufficient knowledge of L2, this can lead to errors in L2. Several studies (Karim & Nassaji, 2013) have investigated whether L2 writers use their L1 to facilitate content, generate ideas, or plan while writing. Uzawa and Cumming (2001) contrasted the writing processes of four intermediate Japanese as a foreign language learners in Japanese and English. The students wrote essays on the same topic, one in Japanese and one in English. The students reported using the L1 (English) extensively for idea generation, topic research, concept development, and information organisation.

In a separate research, Beare (2000) examined the writing strategies employed by both first language (L1) and second language (L2) students in the context of writing in both

their native language and their second language. The study involved a sample of eight individuals who demonstrated a high level of proficiency in both English and Spanish languages. The results of the study revealed that the utilisation of conceptual planning techniques in the writing of native English speakers was more prevalent in their L1 (English) at a rate of 19%, whilst in their L2 (Spanish) it was seen at a lower rate of 8%. Conversely, in the case of native Spanish speakers, the trend was reversed, with a higher occurrence of conceptual planning strategies in their first language (Spanish) at 24% and a higher occurrence in their second language (English) at 34%. This finding serves as a valuable perspective for examining cross-cultural disparities as well.

Several other studies have been undertaken to examine the function of translation from the first language (L1) and its use as a facilitative approach in second language (L2) writing. Examples of such research include those conducted by Cohen and Brooks-Carson (2001), Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992), Mahmoud (2000), and Uzawa (1996). Several research studies have indicated that the act of translating from one's first language (L1) can yield some advantages in terms of essay organisation and the complexity of the target language. These benefits are particularly evident among students who possess lesser levels of skill in their second language (L2).

It has been also observed that when students are restricted in their use of L1, they sometimes, if not often, reach a block in using L2. This is especially true in writing. It can be seen that students who produce quality work in class due to tools that allow them to use their L1, seem to perform differently in exam situations where they cannot rely on their L1 (Almoayidi, 2018).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Having reviewed the earlier studies in the related literature, it would not be wrong to say that despite the numerous studies conducted with the aim of looking at how proficiency levels and L1 translations can benefit L2 writing, there is still a gap in the literature pertaining to studies done to investigate the usefulness of L1 transfer for L2 writing tasks through a comparison of different first languages. Also, in L2 writing studies in which the Turkish language was considered as L1, we can say that most of them are quantitative in nature (for example, Akyel, 1994), or reporting the results of an inventory of learning strategies (for example, Er, 2018), or no emphasis was made on the use of L1 (Turkish) in writing in L2 (English) (for example, Alpaslan, 2002). It is believed that a wider and deeper search among different L1s and L2s would reveal a similar scarcity of such comparative studies with respect to the use of L1 in L2 writing.

1.3 Aim of the Study

In order to address the gap in the related literature, this study aims to investigate how L2 learners with different L1 backgrounds handle writing tasks with the aid of their L1. To this end, the following research questions are addressed in the study;

1) What writing strategies do university students with different L1s use while writing in L2 (English)?
2) How do students make use of their L1 when writing in L2 tasks?

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study is significant in a number of aspects. Firstly, use of L1 has always been a question in the world of English language teaching. While most teachers are adamant in limiting the use of L1 in classes, this research may show that L1 use can be

beneficial in L2 writing tasks. Secondly, this research will be beneficial in shedding light on how different cultures think in writing tasks. It could help teachers in preparing writing curricula, for they may be more aware of the differences in cultures and create tasks or lesson plans accordingly rather than in a one size fits all manner. Although there has been some research on how different proficiency levels use L1 (Kim & Yoon, 2014), little has been done in terms of comparing different first languages. This study will provide essential information in that aspect. Finally, the methodology followed in this current study might inspire other researchers in the field of translanguaging who are interested in investigating the thought processes that learner-writers are engaged in while writing in L2. Think-aloud protocols and retrospective interviews enabled the researcher to detect more closely how learner-writers make use of L1 in constructing the text in L2.

1.5 Definition of Key Terms

First language (L1): According to Thornbury (2006), a learner's first language is also known as their native language or their mother tongue. "This contrasts with their second language (L2) or their third (L3), etc." (p. 81). Although this concept is unproblematic in monolingual countries, it may be ambiguous in multilingual contexts to decide which is a person's first language or whether they have more than one. In this study, the term L1 is used to refer to learners' mother tongue (or native language) such as Turkish, Arabic, French, Russian, or English.

Second language (L2): According to Thornbury (2006), the term "second language" refers to any language that is acquired after the initial learning of the first language (L1) (p. 202). The author highlights the fact that a considerable number of individuals possess proficiency in many second languages, so suggesting that the phrase 'extra

language' is often favoured as a more suitable alternative. The concept of second language is distinct from that of a foreign language. According to Moeller and Catalano (2015) foreign language refers to a non-native language spoken outside of its native environment. Often, a distinction is drawn between 'foreign' and 'second' language acquisition. A second language requires the learner to reside in a setting where the language is spoken. Within the context of this study, the term second language or L2 refers to the language the participants are learning and using, this being English, in their current environment.

Writing strategies: According to Torrance et al. (2000), the concept of writing strategy encompasses the several stages in which a writer undertakes planning, composing, revising, and other activities linked to the act of writing (p. 182). According to Cornaire and Raymond (1994), the concept of writing strategy refers to a systematic approach or intentional intervention employed to address a task with the aim of resolving a problem or attaining a specific objective. Leki (1995) defines writing strategies as the actions employed by skilled writers to produce a written text. Multiple readings of the text would be an example of a writing strategy (Leki, 1995). In this study, the term 'writing strategies' refers to the tactics the participants employed when writing to make achieving their goal more manageable. In this case, usage of L1 as a writing strategy is being studied.

Translanguaging: Translanguaging is a complex cognitive process in which bilinguals transition between their languages as part of their communicative practise. According to Garcia (2009), translanguaging encompasses and expands upon what others have referred to as language use and language contact among bilinguals. In this study, translanguaging refers to the idea of languages being interrelated. It is also

referring to the code switching and translation between the two languages which is one of the main sections of the data collection process.

1.6 Summary

The chapter provided an overview of several studies that have been undertaken to investigate the utilisation of the first language (L1) in second language (L2) writing. It highlighted the significance of L1 use in educational settings and its impact on L2 acquisition, with a specific emphasis on the writing skill. Additionally, the issue statement, purpose, and research questions were specified. Ultimately, the study's significance was elucidated, and several essential concepts were explicated.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter firstly reviews the literature on the use of the first language in language learning with a focus on teacher and student attitudes and beliefs in the matter as well as the benefits and drawbacks of L1 use in the language learning classroom. The chapter then shifts to translanguaging, then a comparison between translanguaging and code-switching, and the linguistic interdependence theory with finally the use of translanguaging in the classroom. Following this information, this chapter gives information about translation in second language learning classrooms with a focus on translation and language teaching and machine assisted translation and language learning. The chapter then includes information on mediation with detailed information on mediation, translation and inerpreting. Following this, the chapter gives information on writing strategies in second language classrooms and L2 writing tasks. Then the use of L1 as a writing strategy is analysed particularly with a focus on L1 transfer into L2 and cultural differences in writing. It provides information on related literature of the topics above with detailed information on the studies done in these areas.

2.1 Use of the First Language (L1) in Language Learning Classrooms

Is using the first language in a language classroom really such a sin? A topic which has been long debated is exactly this. While some argue that learners should not utilise their L1 because it might prevent negotiation in L2 (Swain & Lapkin, 1995) and hinder their second language (L2) learning so learners should be immersed in the second

language only (Krashen, 1981; Levine, 2003; Littlewood & Yu, 2009; Nation, 2003; Scott & de la Fuente, 2008), others argue that using mother tongue in the L2 classroom is advantageous as a learning strategy because it improves learners' L2 learning (Atkinson, 1987). According to Atkinson (1987), "complete prohibition of the students' L1 is no longer trendy" (p. 241). Similarly, Brown, Malmkjaer, and Williams (1996) propose that if an environment is created in which an individual's first language competency is recognised and valued, this could have a significant affective and motivational impact on their approach to learning a second language. Supporting the idea of L1 use in L2 learning, Eldridge (1996) states that there is no scientific evidence to support the notion that restricting the use of a learner's native language would necessarily improve student performance.

The interpretation of the importance of the first language (L1) in second language (L2) learning has varied across different approaches and methodologies in the field of language teaching, as noted by Üzüm (2022). One potential factor contributing to the bias against employing the native language (L1) in second language (L2) classrooms could be attributed to the prevalence of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in Europe until the mid-20th century. In the context of GTM, the utilisation of students' first language (L1) as the primary instructional medium has been shown to restrict their exposure to and utilisation of the target language (Wharton, 2004). Consequently, this has led to inadequate development of communicative competence, prompting a re-evaluation of the practise of including L1 in educational settings.

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) was replaced by the Direct Method (DM) which was developed as a reaction to GTM (Üzüm, 2022). Instead of translation and

L1 usage, a big amount of meaningful input and a large number of spoken interaction are prioritized in DM (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Thus, L1 is prohibited and the use of the target language exclusively is encouraged. Following the Direct Method came the Audiolingual Method (ALM) where most language material is presented directly, with as little use of the students' L1 as possible to allow for plenty of practice in the L2 (Brown, 2007). These methods were followed by designer methods. These were Community Language Learning, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia and Total Physical Response. Information regarding the use of students' L1 in these methods can be seen in the table (Table 1) below.

Table 1: Information about the designer methods and their treatment of the L1.

Community Language Learning	Initially, the security of students is improved by using their native language. Using one's native language serves as a conduit between the familiar and the unfamiliar. When feasible, literal native language equivalents are provided for words transcribed into the target language. This clarifies their meaning and enables students to combine the target language terms in a variety of new sentences. Classes and sessions in which students can convey themselves and be understood are conducted in the students' native language. In later phases, it is possible to use more and more of the target language. (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.130)
The Silent Way	Clarification of meaning is achieved by focusing students' perceptions, not by translation. When necessary, the students' native language can be used to give instructions, for instance to assist a student improve his or her pronunciation. During feedback sessions, the native language is also used (at least at beginning proficiency levels). Importantly, the teacher of the target language can capitalise on the students' prior knowledge of their native language. (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.94)
Suggestopedia	Native language translation is used to clarify the dialogue's meaning. When necessary, the teacher also employs the native language in

	class. As the course progresses, the instructor's use of the native language decreases. (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.112)
Total Physical Response	TPR is typically introduced to learners in their native tongue. After the introduction, the native language would be used infrequently. Meaning is made plain through physical action Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.145)

These designer methods generally limited the use of the L1 in the English learning classroom. The Designer methods were followed by Task- based Learning (TBL) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) both of which focused on oral competency resulting in a limitation in the use of the L1 within language classrooms. Task-based learning put the focus on form last in line with more focus on production and practice instead. Communicative language teaching put the focus on all components of language learning, these being communication, form, discourse etc. Both TBL and CLT limited the use of the L1 in class both for the teacher and the learner. The belief was that exposure was more important than instruction in some contexts, the only exposure students would receive would be within the language classroom. Hence, L1 use was limited and even sometimes prohibited.

Zulfikar (2019), on the other hand, notes that there are advantages or rather acceptable reasons for why the L1 should be used within ESL or EFL classrooms. One of the main reasons is exposure. He states that although it is generally accepted that in countries where English is not the first language, the biggest exposure to the language is in the English learning classroom. However, Zulfikar (2019) notes that this exposure is far from authentic. He states that the English learnt in the classroom environment has no direct association with the English spoken in an English speaking community. Hence, it is not necessary to severely restrict the usage of L1 in these classrooms.

2.1.1 Teacher and Student Attitudes and Beliefs towards the Use of L1 in Language Classes

Although the topic of L1 use has been highly discussed amongst scholars, perhaps an important aspect to also take note of is the teacher and student attitudes and beliefs towards the use of L1 in language classes. A study was conducted within the Asian context by Kim and Petraki (2009). This study investigated the attitudes of students and instructors towards the use of L1 in EFL classrooms at a Korean school in Vietnam. In the Asian context, little research has been conducted on the instruction of English in multilevel language classrooms. The study utilised questionnaires, interviews, and observations to determine the attitudes of the participants towards L1 usage in three distinct contexts: novices, intermediate, and advanced learners. It was found that the use of L1 is seen as a helpful tool rather than a hindrance. The results imply that L1 is helpful in the language classroom, particularly in the beginning stages of language learning and more so in reading and writing. While native speaker English language teachers emphasised the value of employing L1 exclusively, Korean students and Korean teachers agreed on the benefit of L1 though not using exclusively in the classroom. L1 was found to be helpful for providing word definitions and grammar explanations. Interestingly, this study found that native speaker English teachers seemed to use L1 a little or none at all even though they agree that it can be beneficial. This seems to be the case throughout all proficiency levels. However, non-native teachers seem to change the frequency of use depending on the students' proficiency level. That is to say, the higher the proficiency level, the lower the frequency of use of the L1 in the classroom. The teachers were also questioned about where they use L1 in classes and the general consensus was for clarifying meaning of words and explaining grammar rules. Students, on the other hand, preferred the use of L1 in

classes to be very often. This could possibly be due to the use of the L1 facilitating classes in terms of saving time during instruction. Not surprisingly, students often make use of the L1 when asking questions to their teachers.

Another study was conducted by Kayaoğlu (2012) within the Turkish context. This study aimed to investigate the theoretical and practical positions of English instructors regarding the use of their native language in the classroom. 44 English instructors at Karadeniz Technical University participated in the investigation. The data were collected through the administration of a 35-item questionnaire and analysed using SPSS 16.00. In order to obtain a deeper understanding of teachers' current classroom practises, an in-depth interview with 12 participants was also conducted. The study found that there are teachers who try to adhere to the popular belief of L1 being a hindrance in second language acquisition (SLA) even though that is not their true feelings concerning this topic (Kayaoğlu, 2012). The findings of the overall analysis show that most of the teachers adopted a realistic and practical approach to the usage of L1 rather than following widely held opinions on the subject. Incidentally, the study found that 97,3% of participants believed that students learn grammar rules better when their L1 is employed in explanations. More than 70% of the participants disagreed with the idea that students should not use their L1 at all in classes.

Shabir (2017) conducted a study to examine the beliefs of English language student-teachers around the globe regarding the use of L1 in EFL classrooms in the context of the ongoing debate among researchers and practitioners regarding whether or not L1 should be used to teach English in ESL or EFL contexts. This study investigated teachers' perspectives and reflections on the demands of their pupils in the Master of Applied Linguistics programme at the University of Queensland, Australia. It was

found that even though teachers may not feel the necessity to use the L1 in certain instances, sometimes student demand tends to change this. Teachers try to use the L1 less and less in their classes; however, in some circumstances, they have no choice but to make use of the students' mother tongue. According to Shabir (2017), it is recommended for teachers to utilise English as the primary language of instruction and to promote English communication among students. However, in certain instances where the use of the first language (L1) may prove advantageous, teachers should consider employing L1 or permitting students to use L1. This is particularly important when a learner with limited English proficiency encounters difficulties, experiences anxiety, and consequently struggles to articulate thoughts or ideas. Educators maintain the viewpoint that excessive reliance on the first language (L1) is not advantageous, since it detracts from the limited opportunities available for pupils to engage in communicative activities in the second language (L2). However, it is also argued that relying solely on the L2 can hinder advancement, as it may induce anxiety and stress among students.

All of the studies mentioned above show that the use of L1 could be perceived beneficial if used in the correct instances. According to the studies above, grammar explanations and clarification of meaning could be facilitated with the use of the L1. However, the studies also seem to point out that the use of L1 should be done carefully. That is to say, it should not be overused to the point where students have limited amount of time to practice oral communication due to the fact that in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, students only have the chance to practice English within the language classroom. To take away time from these lessons to excessively

use the L1 could lead to less time being allocated to communicative practice which in turn may even slow down progress in terms of communicative competence.

2.1.2 Benefits and Drawbacks of using L1 in Language Classes

Based on the aforementioned studies, it can be posited that the use of the first language (L1) in language education presents both advantages and disadvantages. According to Auerbach (1993) and Bowen (2004), the utilisation of the first language (L1) offers several benefits, such as enhancing learners' sense of security and reducing stress levels, which in turn impact their motivation to acquire the target language. Similarly, Deller (2003) asserted that the use of the first language (L1) could potentially serve as a source of motivation for learners, as it enables them to derive enjoyment from items that may otherwise be excessively difficult for them. Additionally, the utilisation of the first language (L1) by teachers may result in time-saving benefits. As noted by Viney (2005), when a significant number of students have successfully inferred the meaning of a word from its context, employing a quick translation is a more straightforward approach compared to alternative methods such as visual aids, gestures, monolingual dictionaries, paraphrasing, or providing definitions.

When the drawbacks of the use of L1 are considered, the most important two worth mentioning is that excessive use of the L1 will limit the exposure students receive to the L2, as already mentioned above; in addition, it can make the students become dependent on the L1 explanations and clarifications. Another disadvantage mentioned by Al-Buraiki (2008) is that the use of L1 in classes will not only reduce exposure time but also practice time. This in turn leads to the idea of translanguaging in language learning classrooms. Information regarding translanguaging and its connection to language learning and teaching can be found in the following section.

2.2 Translanguaging

For many years, scholars and researchers created concepts and labels that put people into groups. Some of the common concepts that are used today are monolingual, bilingual and multilingual. The Oxford Dictionary defines monolingual as “speaking or using one language”, bilingual as “able to speak two languages equally well” and multilingual as “speaking or using several different languages”. Language was thought to be a separate entity taking up place in the brain. The more languages an individual knew, the more separate compartments would be used. Traditional bilingualism is viewed as two separate autonomous objects with the two different languages being kept apart rather than intertwined. However, translanguaging offered a new definition to this situation. A new term of “languaging” was offered as early as 1973 by Dell Hymes. Garcia and Wei (2014) state that the term languaging is necessary in reference to the synched process of continuous becoming and language practices as interaction and meaning making is fulfilled. Translanguaging includes translation and code switching, yet it is so much more than both of those things. Translanguaging is a complex cognitive process in which bilingual individuals switch between their languages as part of the communicative practice (Garcia, 2009). According to Garcia (2009), translanguaging includes but extends what others have called language use and language contact among bilinguals. Instead of concentrating on the languages themselves and how one or the other might connect to how a monolingual standard is used and has been characterised, the idea of translanguaging makes it evident that there are no distinct boundaries between the languages of bilinguals. Essentially, translanguaging is the idea that languages are interrelated. Therefore, the teaching of languages should be done with this notion in mind. Translanguaging acknowledges that languages are social constructs that reflect nation-state ideologies (Heller, 2007).

From the standpoint of translanguaging, the language skills that emergent bilinguals are learning are interconnected and functionally part of a larger system. According to Makoni and Pennycook's (2007) research, bilinguals possess a single linguistic repertoire that includes characteristics that have been socially allocated to constructions that are called ‘languages’. Thus, it would be incorrect to state that languages are unconnected.

Vogel and Garcia (2017) state that the idea of translanguaging, from a sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspective provides valuable insights into the language use of bilingual individuals. This theory places emphasis on bilingual performances rather than solely focusing on monolingual ones. Translanguaging, as an educational strategy, utilises the flexible use of many languages by learners in order to enhance their involvement and understanding of intricate subject matter and written materials. Furthermore, the implementation of translanguaging pedagogy facilitates the development of both languages that are the focus of bilingual instruction. This approach recognises these languages as interconnected and part of the learners' linguistic repertoire, rather than treating them as distinct entities in a hierarchical structure.

2.2.1 Translanguaging and Code-switching

Translanguaging and code-switching are two important terms used in the English language teaching world but often mixed up. Garcia (2009) states that bilinguals occasionally combine two language-based speaking acts rather than selecting just one. Code-switching is the term used to describe the process of switching between languages. Translanguaging, therefore, goes beyond what has been termed code-

switching although it includes it, as well as other kinds of bilingual language use and bilingual contact.

Translanguaging surpasses the concept of code switching, as it acknowledges that two languages are distinct systems or codes that are interchanged for the sake of communication. Initially, code-switching was regarded as a practise that fell under the umbrella of translanguaging. However, it was later determined that these two concepts were epistemologically incompatible. This is because translanguaging theory challenges the existence of distinct language categories and instead adopts an internal perspective to describe the language usage of individuals who are considered bilingual or multilingual. The concept of code-switching is supported by proponents (e.g., MacSwan, 2017) who argue that named languages are linguistic entities. According to the assertions made by Otheguy, Garcia, and Reid (2015), there exists a singular language system and grammar, from which individuals choose specific linguistic aspects. However, MacSwan (2017) introduces the term 'translanguaging' to contend that each language possesses its own distinct grammar. The selection of linguistic features is determined by the sociolinguistic awareness possessed by each speaker on the particular communicative setting in which the social interaction occurs. Insufficient comprehension of these notions might hinder attempts to promote the utilisation and endorsement of pedagogical and language practises in educational settings that facilitate instruction and acquisition, while also validating the diverse linguistic identities of students (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Wei, 2014). According to Goodman and Tastanbek (2021), the phenomenon of code-switching initially originated in social contexts before being seen in educational settings. In contrast, translanguaging research initially focused on classroom interactions, but has now

broadened its scope to encompass communication beyond the confines of the classroom. According to the findings of Garcia and Wei (2014), the phenomenon of translanguaging necessitates the use of distinct languages to transmit distinct pieces of information, while the complete message is conveyed through the bilingual nature of the text. The simultaneous use of both languages is essential for the effective communication of information. According to Strauss (2016), code-switching refers to the practise of alternating between two linguistic varieties, typically the speaker's native language (L1) and second language (L2), while translanguaging is defined as the process of constructing meaning, shaping experiences, and acquiring a more profound comprehension and knowledge of the languages being utilised. Hence, despite their apparent similarity, translanguaging and code-switching diverge in terms of their intended purposes of utilisation.

2.2.2 The Linguistic Interdependence Theory

One important topic that needs to be referred to when translanguaging and code-switching are mentioned is the Linguistic Interdependence Theory/Hypothesis developed by James Cummins in 1978. According to this theory, certain first language knowledge can be successfully transferred throughout the process of second language acquisition. Vrooman (2000) points out that the acquisition of equivalent skills in the L2 can be greatly aided by a learner’s knowledge and proficiency in the L1. The L1 must be fully learned prior to considerable contact with the L2 as would be found, for instance, in a learning environment, in order for these languages influencing facilitative characteristics to function. Principles of Universal Grammar, which hold that there are biologically determined aspects of language that interact with the learner's linguistic environment to produce language acquisition, maintains that there are innate properties of language shared by the human species. According to the

developmental Interdependence Theory, the sort of competence that a bilingual child has attained in L1 at the time that intensive exposure to L2 begins will partially determine the amount of L2 competence that child will eventually achieve. When a child's linguistic environment outside of school actively encourages the use of specific language functions and the development of L2 vocabulary and concepts, intensive exposure to L2 is likely to lead to high levels of L2 competence without compromising L1 competence. Due to the initial high degree of L1 development, L2 competence can be developed to levels that are almost as high as L1 (Cummins, 1978). Hence, according to Cummins' Interdependence Theory, emergent bilinguals' proficiency in their native tongue will be helpful for the acquisition of a second language. The Interdependence Principle underpins translanguaging processes in this way. According to the Interdependence Theory, a cognitive and academically useful type of bilingualism can only be achieved on the basis of appropriately developed L1 skills and the development of L2 skills is a result of L1 skills previously acquired (Vrooman, 2000).

2.2.3 Translanguaging in the Classroom

Regarding the influence translanguaging can have in English language teaching, it would not be wrong to say that classroom practices can also change in accordance with translanguaging. Lewis, Jones and Baker's (2011) identification of four potential benefits of translanguaging in the context of schools helped to further refine the notion of translanguaging. These benefits are given below;

- Translanguaging fosters a more thorough and comprehensive comprehension of the subject.
- Translanguaging aids in the improvement of the less developed language.

- Translanguaging promotes cooperation and connections between home and school.
- Translanguaging makes it easier for L1 and L2 speakers to integrate at different levels of proficiency.

A topic must be processed and ‘digested’ in order to be written about in another language, according to Lewis et al. (2011), who use this statement to further illustrate the first point of comprehension. In explanation of the second topic, Lewis et al. (2011) surmise that students are deterred from completing the bulk of their work in the stronger language when improving oral communication and literacy levels, which helps them acquire academic language abilities in both languages. The third point is explained in the following manner by Lewis et al. (2011): For a deeper understanding and to ease the strain on learning, students who are studying in a second language must reprocess the material. These mental exercises enable students to communicate with carers at home in the other language about what they have learned in the second language. Finally, Lewis et al. (2011) explain the fourth point by stating that the development of topic content and the second language may happen simultaneously when both languages are used intelligently and appropriately. Williams (2003) adds that translanguaging frequently utilizes the stronger language to develop the weaker language, so potentially promoting a balanced development of a child's two languages.

Notwithstanding these notions, there exists a counterargument against the implementation of translanguaging in the realm of education. Garcia and Lin (2017) posit that a significant hindrance to the implementation of translanguaging in educational settings is the disagreement arising from two distinct theoretical approaches on the subject. One perspective argues that individuals who are

multilingual do not just speak different languages, but rather utilise their diverse linguistic abilities selectively and judiciously. The aforementioned phenomenon is commonly referred to as the strong version of translanguaging. Conversely, a variant of translanguaging exists that acknowledges the significance of national and state language boundaries, while also pushing for their gradual relaxation. In order to ensure a more equitable and just education for bilingual children and to preserve minority language practises, it is imperative to include both the weak and strong forms of translanguaging theory into bilingual education programmes. In the process of facilitating communication and interaction among the recognised languages, it is imperative for educators to preserve distinct domains for each language. However, it is imperative to establish a conducive setting that facilitates the cultivation and application of translanguaging in a critical and innovative manner, without imposing restrictions on speakers that compel them to select and suppress specific linguistic components derived from their own linguistic repertoire (Garcia & Lin, 2017).

2.3 Using Translation in Second Language Learning

While linguistics has always gone hand in hand with language learning and teaching, translation never quite received the same attention, partly due to the now widely rejected Grammar Translation Method. For around a hundred years from the 1840s to the 1940s, the Grammar Translation Method had dominated the field of language teaching. The goal of the Grammar Translation Method was to create learners proficient in reading and writing a language. Communicative competence was not among the achievement goals of the grammar translation method. Classic languages such as Latin were taught using this method. It relied on detailed analyses of grammatical rules generally done in the L1 and many bilingual vocabulary lists ready for memorisation.

Advocates of the Audio-lingual and Communicative approaches held a strong conviction that the utilisation of the native language hindered the effective acquisition of a new language. Consequently, they argued that incorporating translation in the classroom could have detrimental effects, impeding students from developing the confidence to express themselves fluently in the target language (Carreres, 2006). Over the past two to three decades, there has been a significant shift in the perception of translation as both an academic discipline and a professional pursuit. Translation studies is presently a burgeoning area of research that is gaining increasing recognition within academic institutions.

2.3.1 Translation and Language Teaching

According to Popovic (2001), translation has been disregarded as a viable approach in English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts, while it continues to be utilised in public education systems in numerous nations. There appears to be a shifting perspective about translation, as scholars now argue that it holds value as a pedagogical tool, particularly within English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. These proponents advocate for the rehabilitation of translation as a valid practise.

Individual language learners have reported that translation aids their language acquisition, and empirical research has verified this. O'Malley, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that translation (defined as using the first language as a foundation for understanding and/or producing the second language) accounted for over 30 percent of strategy uses when examining the learning strategies employed by students of English as a second language, as well as learners of Spanish and Russian in a foreign language setting.

Friedlander (1990) conducted another empirical study with conclusions pertinent to this topic. Using the findings of multiple studies and his own experiments, Friedlander (1990) determined that the planning of some language themes appears to be increased when writers utilize the language of topic-area terminology. Translation from the native language into English appears to aid rather than impede writers, as they had greater access to knowledge when writing in their own first language. Friedlander (1990) proposed that ESL writers should be encouraged to compose a first draft in their native language and subsequently translate it. For Popovic (2001), with the increasing emphasis on learner-centred language instruction, anything that aids the learner in his or her own way is unquestionably beneficial. Popovic (2001) suggested that translation should be used as a multi-directional, or multi-skill integration, as this will make it effective from a pedagogical and organisational standpoint. Consequently, preparation exercises or pre-translation activities should also include prewriting, post-reading, grammar, and vocabulary assignments. In addition, translation activities can sometimes be utilised for consolidation, whereas post-translation activities can be centred on rephrasing, rewriting, editing, and evaluation.

All in all, academics and practitioners are required to study what aids learners in achieving their goals in the most useful manner. Consequently, if one of the best ways of achieving this goal is in fact translation, then why should it not be employed in language classes?

2.3.2 Machine-assisted Translation and Language Learning

Perhaps one of the more controversial topics related to translation and language learning is the use of machine-assisted translation tools. In the past, it was possible to say that these tools were not very accurate. This was mainly due to the different

linguistic features and structures of languages. Machines had difficulties in matching the grammatical structures of the target languages. Another issue they had was the cultural features of the source text. Machines were unable to find equivalents of these features and this resulted in a lot of concepts becoming translated incorrectly. Nevertheless, in the recent few years, free online translation tools such as Google Translate have improved immensely to the point where almost no revision is necessary when the process of translation is completed. This situation has led to such translation tools to be used often, also in language classes. Students are making use of the tools to translate text and vocabulary they come across. Using machine translations have become much easier these days as there are programs where students only need to point the camera of their smart phones to and the text will be automatically translated into the chosen language. According to Deng and Yu (2022), in the 21st century there has been extensive integration of machine translation into education, particularly language learning. Different levels of education, spanning from elementary to postgraduate, have incorporated machine translation in the classroom. Naturally, there is a rising interest in how machine translation techniques can be used to enhance student learning. Lee (2023) examined two versions of students' writing, namely the initial English-as-a-second-language writing and the corrected English writing using machine translation. Students dramatically improved their writing scores and reduced lexical and grammatical errors through editing.

Ducar and Schocket (2018) made a valid point by mentioning that for the generation of digital natives who grew up with the instinct to ‘Google’ any query, seeking answers through technology is second nature. Therefore, it should not come as a surprise that online translation tools also have a considerable, albeit frequently unacknowledged,

presence in L2 classrooms. At this point, language teachers need to address the question of using machine translations in the classroom. Is this really something so evil that it should be banned in all language classes? Or can it be incorporated into the pedagogy in a way that would benefit language learning and acquisition? Niño (2009) attributed students' reliance on Machine Translation (MT) to its wide availability, immediacy, and multilingualism, as well as its capacity to produce short lexical units and simply organised texts. In reality, according to Niño's research of advanced Spanish students, 75% reported using MT to "get a quick draft on which to build" (p.249) and 69% stated they would use MT in the future. It must be accepted that no matter the feelings of teachers and instructors towards machine translation tools, students will always love them.

There are similar studies conducted to investigate the students' use of MT. For instance, in a study conducted by Alhaisoni and Alhaysony (2017), the results indicated that 96% of the participants used Google translate in their language learning. They mostly used this tool for vocabulary translation, reading comprehension and writing assistance.

Chompurach (2021) conducted a study in which he looked at the ways students use Google Translate to improve and assist in their writing. He found that students use Google Translate both at sentence level and paragraph level. Some of the participants in the study stated that they use Google Translate to have more coherent writing, to use the output as a guideline, to have better sentence structures, and to waste less time (Chompurach, 2021). Interestingly, the participants, who were all students, were aware of the fact that Google Translate was not good at rendering long sentences and sometimes it would give mistranslations of phrases and structures. However, they felt

very strongly about teachers not allowing the use of Google Translate in classes because they believed the website/application is a good resource to use. Students make use of Google Translate as a post-editing tool. This enables them to spot mistakes and fix them themselves. Chompurach (2021) ends with the suggestion that the data could be used by language instructors to construct activities, lessons, and training courses on the effective use of Google Translate and the Google Translate output for editing for EFL students. In this manner, language learners could learn how to maximise their usage of Google Translate and recognise the significance of post-editing while using Google Translate for language learning, particularly English writing. This is something to consider when writing curriculums are being prepared. Perhaps it is time to move on from the prejudice towards translation and language learning.

Despite the reluctance of language teachers to incorporate machine translation (MT) into their classrooms, there is a significant and increasing number of language learners who are already utilising MT for academic purposes (Briggs, 2018; Lee, 2019; Murtisari, Widiningrum, Branata, & Susanto, 2019). According to Ducar and Schocket (2018), the utilisation of machine translation (MT) for academic purposes has become ubiquitous. Furthermore, research has indicated that simply banning machine translation (MT) has proven to be counterproductive for foreign language (FL) acquisition (Alhaisoni & Alhaysony, 2017; White & Heidrich, 2013). Hence, educators must ascertain the appropriate course of action regarding the swift emergence of this tool and deliberate on the most suitable approach and timing for its implementation. However, it is imperative that the decision is grounded in rigorous research rather than relying solely on the limited experiences or subjective perceptions of individual teachers regarding MT. A considerable quantity of publications on

machine translation (MT) has been published, with varying outcomes contingent upon the specific research emphasis, research methodologies, and other aspects. Several aspects have been identified as influencing the quality of machine translation (MT) outputs. These factors include the language pair being translated, the specific type of MT system being used, the unit of translation employed, the quality of the source language (L1), and the genre of the text being translated (Godwin-Jones, 2019; Goulet et al., 2017; Shadiev et al., 2019).

2.4 Mediation

In recent years, the concept of mediation has garnered increasing attention in second language instruction. North and Docherty (2016) define mediation in the following way:

> The primary emphasis lies on the significance of language in various processes, including facilitating communication and learning, generating and collaboratively generating fresh interpretations, and transmitting information. Additionally, language may be modified to simplify, expand, or otherwise accommodate the specific task at hand (p.20).

In all contexts, mediation requires building connections between concepts and exchanging elements and spaces. It would not be incorrect to say that mediation is a process. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) introduced mediation as a fourth mode of communication, alongside reception, interaction, and production. Prior to this, there were no illustrative descriptors determined for mediation. Piccardo, North and Goodier (2019) provide the following definition for mediation: the process of constructing new meaning refers to the development of fresh comprehension, knowledge, and concepts. Mediation typically includes both the process of receiving and producing information, and frequently involves interactive elements. In contrast to the four skills model or its adaptation in

the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) as reception, interaction, and production, mediation does not prioritise the language expression of a speaker. The emphasis lies on the function of language in various processes, such as facilitating communication and learning, collaborating to generate fresh insights, promoting the construction and comprehension of novel meanings, conveying new information effectively, and modifying input to facilitate these processes (North & Piccardo, 2016).

2.4.1 Mediation, Translation and Interpreting

For the first time perhaps since the Grammar Translation Method, language teachers are being encouraged to use translation strategies in classes. The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) has added illustrative descriptors and objectives that enable the use of translation and interpreting within the language classroom. The CEFR defines mediation as the linguistic activity of reformulating, orally or in writing, an oral or written text to which one or more third parties do not have direct access. This could be a record, a summary, a translation, etc. Therefore, mediation is the production of a text from a source text in order to transfer its content (if only in condensed form).

When it comes to translation, looking at the descriptors of the CEFR it can be seen that at the lower levels, rough translations of routine, everyday material in simple texts give way to progressively fluent and accurate translations of increasingly complicated texts. The primary difference between levels A1 and B1 is the types of texts involved. By B2, the user/learner can provide spoken translation of complex texts containing information and arguments on topics within his/her professional, academic, and personal interests, and at the C level, he/she can fluently translate complex texts on a wide range of general and specialised topics, capturing nuances and implications. It

must be noted that translation competency is not mentioned in the descriptors. Figure 1 below shows some of the descriptors given to B1 level for "translating into a written text in speech.

B1	Can provide spoken translation into (Language B) of texts written in (Language A) containing information and arguments on subjects within his/her fields of professional, academic and personal interest, provided that they are written in uncomplicated, standard language.
	Can provide an approximate spoken translation into (Language B) of clear, well-structured informational texts written in (Language A) on subjects that are familiar or of personal interest, although his/her lexical limitations cause difficulty with formulation at times.

Figure 1: Translating into a written text in speech descriptors.

These example descriptors show that it is now almost expected for language learners to make use of translation when comprehending written and spoken texts. Interestingly, the descriptors do not specifically call for the use of L1 or mother tongue. It states Language A and Language B. These could be any two languages the learner wants to use, not necessarily his or her first language and target language.

2.5 Writing Strategies in Second Language Learning and L2 Writing Tasks

Perhaps one of the more difficult skills that language learners need to learn is considered to be writing. Due to the fact that it is a productive skill, learners generally struggle to perfect their writing initially. What's more, if there are considerable differences between the learner's L1 and L2, this can also lead to some confusion in grammatical structures. However, this challenge can be made a little more manageable with writing strategies. Writing strategies can not only facilitate written production, it can also assist language learning.

Despite this emphasis, studies have shown that writing is employed for relatively restricted objectives in the majority of classes mostly for monitoring and assessing what learners already know (Graves, 1978 Applebee, Auten & Lehr 1981). Little instructional time is devoted to writing for other, more reflective objectives (Langer, 1986). Langer (1986) notes that writing can lead to extensive rethinking, revising, and reformulating of what one knows. It can make a person aware of what is known, what is unknown, and even what needs to be known. When writing essays, students reinterpret the material in ways that cut across ideas, concentrating on wider issues or topics. They assimilate knowledge and engage in more complicated reasoning as a result. Hence, critical thinking and language analysis also becomes engaged. According to Klein and Boscolo (2016), writing has played a more prominent role than learning since writing has, in a sense, 'integrated' learning. Research on writing as a 'method or 'tool' for learning tends to overlap with academic writing research. There are very few forms of writing that are unrelated to education. Learning is essential to writing not only because writing is a cognitively demanding activity that is rarely performed without cognitive effort, but also because writing is a fundamental skill.

2.5.1 English Writing Strategies

According to the study conducted by Maarof and Murat (2013), the act of writing presents a formidable challenge, regardless of whether it is performed in one's native language or in a secondary or foreign language. Research undertaken by Arndt (1987), Wenden (1991), Victori (1995), and Riazi (1997) in the field of second language (L2) writing reveals that the act of writing is a cognitively intricate task that encompasses multiple processes and necessitates the use of diverse methodologies. The process of writing in a second language (L2) differs significantly from writing in a first language (L1) in terms of strategic, rhetorical, and linguistic aspects. Consequently, it is

imperative to provide explicit instruction on L2 writing methods to inexperienced L2 writers. Nevertheless, it is seldom for learners to receive explicit instruction regarding the implementation of writing strategies that have the potential to enhance their writing proficiency. The significance of writing strategies in the writing process has grown in recent years, with distinctions being made between proficient and less proficient learners in terms of the quantity and diversity of strategies employed, the manner in which these strategies are applied to the task, and the suitability of the strategies for the given task (Maarof & Murat, 2013).

In their study on the writing methods employed by ESL students in the composition of essays, Maarof and Murat (2013) identified 10 predominant tactics frequently utilised by students while writing essays in the English language. The table below illustrates the tactics commonly utilised by English as a Second Language (ESL) students during the writing process.

Table 2: The strategies generally employed by ESL students in different stages of their writing, determined by Maarof and Murat (2013)

Prewriting Stage	**Writing Stage**	**Revising Stage**
1. Think and plan in mind	1. Begin with introduction 2. Re-check what is written to get idea to continue 3. Use word in mother tongue before finding appropriate English word 4. Use bilingual dictionary 5. Ask help from classmates or teacher when facing difficulties 6. Stop to read after each sentence	1. Check mistakes after feedback from teacher 2. Check if essay fulfils requirements

	7. Stop after few sentences covering an idea	

The results of Maarof and Murat's study (2013) showed that there was no significant difference between the proficiency levels and the frequency of writing strategy use. The differences were in which strategy was used instead of how frequent strategies were used. This research indicated that ESL students generally did not spend much time on pre-writing strategies but focused more on the while writing strategies. Rereading what they have written was one of the most used strategies. Although Maarof and Murat's study (2013) found interesting insight concerning different proficiency levels, there was no indication of the learners' cultures. Also, the usage of L1 as a writing strategy was not taken into consideration.

A study taking into consideration the use of L1 was conducted by Arndt (1987). Arndt's (1987) research of the composing activities of six Chinese postgraduate EFL students as they generated academic written works in both their native and foreign languages is one of the early studies on ESL writing styles. As shown in the table below, she used eight categories to classify the writing strategies employed by the pupils.

Table 3: Arndt's (1987) categories of ESL writing strategies

Category of Strategies	**Definition**
Planning	Determining a central theme and selecting a subject matter
Global Planning	Determining the overall structure and organisation of the text
Rehearsing	Experimenting with concepts and determining the most appropriate linguistic framework to articulate them.
Repeating	Utilising significant terms and expressions
Re-reading	Reading through the written text.
Questioning	Classifying ideas, or evaluating what had been written.

Revising	Modifying the written text in order to clarify meaning
Editing	Modifying the written text to rectify syntax and spelling errors.

Arndt (1987) employed a categorization system to describe the writing styles employed by Chinese students, and a few of her findings are indeed worth mentioning. Chinese students demonstrate a greater emphasis on revising word choice in the ESL task compared to the L1 assignment, but they allocate more practise towards word choice in the L1 task as opposed to the ESL task. According to Arndt (1987), the reason behind this phenomenon can be linked to the comparatively lower ability of ESL students to explore alternative options and their reduced level of satisfaction with their decisions, as compared to students in their first language (L1). This discrepancy arises not only due to the limited resources available to ESL students, but also because they experience a diminished sense of confidence in their decision-making abilities.

Later, based on interviews and think-aloud protocol analyses, Victori (1995) identified seven distinct writing strategies. According to Victori (1995):

i) *planning strategies* are ways by which the author plans and discusses the subsequent concepts, and expressly defines his or her organisational and procedural objectives.

ii) *monitoring strategies* are techniques that authors employ to evaluate and verify their approach during the writing process and to spot impending issues.

iii) *evaluating strategies* are employed when re-evaluating the written content, previous objectives, and anticipated thoughts, as well as when modifying the material.

iv) *resourcing strategies* utilise available external reference sources of knowledge about the target language, such as reading the dictionary to look up or confirm doubts (lexicon, grammatical, semantic, or spelling concerns) or to seek alternatives (synonyms).

v) *repeating strategies* involve repeating sections of language, either when evaluating the work or when transcribing new thoughts.

vi) *reduction strategies* are methods for eliminating an issue, such as removing it from the text, abandoning attempts to fix it, or paraphrasing to avoid the problem.

vii) *use of L1 strategies* are methods employing the mother tongue for several purposes: to produce new ideas, to analyse and make sense of ideas written in the L2, or to transcribe the correct idea/word in the L1.

2.6 The Use of L1 as a Writing Strategy

According to Richards and Rogers (1986), there has been a prevailing belief among scholars that the first language (L1) of learners should be disregarded entirely in language learning classes, starting from the Grammar Translation Method. In recent times, there has been a growing consideration of the potential facilitative role of the first language (L1) in the acquisition of a second language (L2). The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) has recently revised its objectives for various proficiency levels. In this latest edition, a new element has been incorporated, namely mediation. The primary emphasis of mediation objectives lies in the process of transferring information between a first language (L1) and a second language (L2). In contemporary times, there exists a prevailing expectation for students to establish a connection between their native language and the desired language of acquisition, namely English.

Writing is a skill that garners significant attention from language learners. The aforementioned forms of writing encompass academic writing, creative writing, process writing, and informal writing. In the context of university language courses, students receive explicit instruction on academic essay structures. Individuals possess writing methods, such as the utilisation of planning and rewriting techniques, which involve the use of checklists or other instruments to enhance the quality of their own written work. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge the potential influence of one's first language (L1) on writing performance in second language (L2) assignments.

The utilisation of the first language (L1) is not regarded as a hindering element, but rather as a form of compensatory tactic employed by second language (L2) authors to address the challenges encountered in L2 composition writing (Manchón, Roca de Larios, & Murphy, 2007). In contemporary times, the widespread availability of advanced technology, particularly smartphones, has facilitated convenient access for students. Consequently, this accessibility has rendered the utilisation of one's native language (L1) during the writing process, namely in the form of translation, a more convenient practise. The availability of platforms and websites such as Google Translate has facilitated the process for students to conveniently translate their ideas from their first language (L1) to their second language (L2). Considering the fact that writing, being a productive talent, poses significant challenges for students, it is plausible to assert that students actively seek strategies to facilitate this process and minimise its difficulty. By permitting them to utilise their first language (L1), educators can facilitate the adoption of an additional writing strategy that can be advantageous for students, given the challenging nature of the task they are attempting to do.

2.6.1 L1 Transfer into L2

For many years now, research has been done on the effects of L1 when learning L2. One focus from these studies was on how L1 use affected L2 writing. Mahmoud (2000) stated that when L2 learners are attempting to compose a piece of written text, they might use transfer of their L1 into L2 as a tool to learn or as a way to convey their meaning. For Cumming (1990), learners who have already learned how to plan, develop ideas, revise, and edit their writing in their L1 may use the same strategies when they are composing in L2. However, it could be possible to note that being able to transfer their message through these strategies may require a certain level of proficiency. This may be a skill beyond beginner and pre-intermediate level (Berman, 1994).

Particularly adult learners, who are cognitively mature, have complex ideas that they wish to convey into their L2 writing. Based on their level of proficiency, they may find the strategy of transfer from L1 into L2 more convenient. Woodall (2002) states that less proficient L2 learners were more likely to switch to their L1s than more advanced learners. In his study (2002), he also pointed out that both intermediate- and advanced-level ESL writers frequently resorted to L1 while composing for a variety of purposes ranging from higher level operations such as planning, revising, and lexical searches to lower level operations such as editing, spelling, and word generation. His research indicated that L1 usage may vary greatly from writer to writer and may be utilised indiscriminately.

In their study of Chinese-speaking EFL learners, Wang and Wen (2002) found that writers with lower L2 proficiency levels constructed sentences through translation, whereas writers with higher L2 proficiency generated text directly in L2, but proficient

writers still used L1 for generating and organising ideas. On the one hand, using L1 to transfer complex ideas can be an advantage. Wang and Wen (2002) demonstrated that low-proficiency writers turned to L1 to evaluate linguistic aspects of their written output and used translation as a "coping device", whereas high-proficiency writers used L1 for higher level writing processes, such as consulting discourse plans, considering intended readers, and paying attention to text organisation or coherence. Interestingly, high-proficiency writers switched languages more frequently, but they did so to address global rather than local textual difficulties.

The research conducted by Whalen and Menard (1995) on English-speaking French learners yielded comparable results. All participants in the study employed translation as a tactic, albeit in various ways. The writers with the highest level of strategic competence maintained a sense of their global communication objectives and utilised translation fluidly to produce material. The less strategic writers generated content in a tedious manner via word-for-word translation and were incapable of attending to higher levels of discourse processing. On the other hand, if ideas are not transferred accurately based on insufficient knowledge of L2, this can lead to errors in L2.

Numerous scholarly investigations have been dedicated to examining the extent to which second language (L2) writers employ their first language (L1) as a means of enhancing material, developing ideas, or strategizing during the writing process (Karim & Nassaji, 2013). According to Karim and Nassaji (2013), the transfer of languages can be considered as a dual-purpose mechanism, serving both as a means of learning and as a potential resolution for addressing communication challenges in second language (L2) writing. Uzawa and Cumming (1989) highlighted the existence of shared composition approaches between the first language (L1) and second

language (L2), suggesting the potential for L2 learners to transfer these strategies to their L2 writing. For example, individuals who have acquired skills in planning, idea generation, rewriting, and editing in their first language (L1) may utilise similar cognitive processes when composing in their second language (L2). Uzawa and Cumming (2001) conducted a comparative analysis of the writing processes employed by four intermediate learners of Japanese as a foreign language, focusing on the disparities between the Japanese and English languages. The students composed essays on a same subject, with one essay written in the Japanese language and the other in English. According to the students' accounts, they commonly relied on their first language (English) to a significant extent when it came to creating ideas, searching for themes, formulating concepts, and organising information.

Beare (2000) conducted a separate study to examine the writing styles employed by second language (L2) learners when composing texts in both their first language (L1) and the L2. The study involved a group of eight individuals who demonstrated a high level of proficiency in both the English and Spanish languages. The results of the study revealed that there was a disparity in the utilisation of conceptual planning techniques between native English speakers' writing in their L1 and L2. Specifically, the percentage of conceptual planning strategies employed by native English speakers in L1 was found to be greater (19%) compared to L2 (8%). Conversely, the opposite pattern was observed in the writing of native Spanish speakers, where the employment of conceptual planning strategies was higher in L2 (34%) compared to L1 (24%).

Several other studies have been undertaken to examine the function of translation from the first language (L1) and its use as a facilitative approach in second language (L2) writing. Examples of such research include those conducted by Cohen and Brooks-

Carson (2001), Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992), Mahmoud (2000), and Uzawa (1996). Several studies have indicated that the act of translating into one's first language (L1) can yield advantages in terms of essay organisation and the complexity of the target language, particularly for students who possess lower levels of skill in their second language (L2).

2.7 Summary

It would not be incorrect to state, based on a review of previous research in the field, that despite the numerous studies that have been conducted with the purpose of examining how proficiency levels and L1 translations can benefit L2 writing, there is still a gap in the literature regarding studies investigating the usefulness of L1 transfer for L2 writing tasks through a comparison of different first languages. Therefore, the current study was planned to cover this gap. The following chapter gives information about the nature of the study, methodology and data analysis procedures.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter focuses on the methodology used to investigate the writing strategies employed by university students with various first languages (L1) when writing in their second language (L2), namely English. In the following sections of this chapter, the research design, the context in which the research took place and a profile description of participants are described in detail. In addition, the data collection tools and procedures as well as data analysis processes are explained. Finally, the issues of credibility and validity are discussed.

3.1 Research Design

The research methodology employed in this study is a qualitative research design, chosen to effectively address the research topic and provide answers to the research questions posed. In the context of qualitative research, the primary objective of the researcher is to efficiently identify and extract the central results derived from the participants' responses. This is achieved through the utilisation of codes, which serve to provide contextualization to discrete units of data (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun., 2012). Analysis is commonly seen as the process of deconstructing data into smaller components, and afterwards synthesising these components to get meaningful insights (Dey, 2005, p. 31). According to Fraenkel et al. (2012), qualitative codes can be categorised as either descriptive or interpretive, and they are typically derived either by a priori selection (selective coding) or through inductive emergence from the data (open coding) (p. 436). The established categories and codes are employed as a

framework through which to enhance understanding of the data, in accordance with the deductive approach. On the contrary, the inductive methodology suggests the comprehensive examination of the complete dataset followed by the process of categorization or labelling. The temporal occurrence of the initial appearance of a category or label is also of significance. This study employed a combination of inductive and deductive methodologies to examine the data collected using various instruments, such as a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

The analysis of questionnaires should follow "an inductive path that begins with few perceived notions, followed by a gradual fine-tuning and narrowing of focus" because qualitative studies frequently have characteristics that are process-oriented with potential categories that emerge (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 163). In order to understand how the data are consistent with the questions in the semi-structured interview, the content analysis technique was used for its data (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2012).

Based on the type of data obtained within this study, it is clear to say that it is a qualitative data research study. With the prepared questionnaire, think-aloud procedure and semi-structured interview, the data obtained would be best analysed as qualitative data.

3.2 The Context

The present study was carried out at Arkın University of Creative Arts and Design (ARUCAD). ARUCAD, founded in 2017 in North Cyprus, is a specialised university focused only on the fields of art, design, and communication. The primary objective of ARUCAD is to establish itself as a highly esteemed institution in the field of art

education. This entails fostering an environment in which students consistently enhance their creative output through the implementation of interdisciplinary and cross-cultural programmes. These initiatives are grounded in the principles of traditional, modern, and contemporary art pedagogy, while upholding the essential connection between theoretical knowledge and practical application (https://arucad.edu.tr/en/).

ARUCAD is made up of four faculties: The Faculty of Art, the Faculty of Design, the Faculty of Communication and the Faculty of Music and Performing Arts. It is a university that offers education in English except for two departments (New Media and Acting departments) which are offered in Turkish. Because the medium of instruction is in English in almost all departments, students are required to show proof of their English proficiency. Those who meet the requirement of minimum B1 level or above are exempt from studying within the English Preparatory School. Those who are not at the correct level of proficiency are required to study in the prep school for a minimum of one semester. Once the language requirement is met, all students can begin studying in their departments. All students without exception or exemption are required to study the SOFL101 and SOFL102 courses in their first year within their departments. The participants of the current study were SOFL102 students.

SOFL102 is a CEFR B2 English for Academic Purposes course for Faculty students. According to the course description, it is a 16-week course, with minimum 3 hours of instruction each week. It aims to help students to further enhance their Academic English, study skills as well as critical thinking skills to excel in their chosen faculty and to interact within an international setting. The goal is also to prepare students to succeed in the global environment and to promote the benefits of pluri-lingualism and

multi-culturalism in language learning. This course is aimed towards achieving its goals in full academic semester of 16 weeks through the development of four language skills as follows:

1. Reading - The ability to comprehend and interpret written materials predominantly composed of commonly used language in everyday contexts.
2. Listening - The ability to comprehend and grasp the primary ideas presented in coherent and standard speech on issues that are common, such as current events, as well as subjects that are of personal or professional significance.
3. Speaking - Engaging in routine oral communications that pertain to personal interests and are relevant to daily life.
4. Writing - The ability to compose coherent and cohesive written discourse about subjects that are familiar or personally intriguing, including essays, reports, and formal or casual communications.

The course learning outcomes indicate that a student who completes the course:

i. can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization.
ii. can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party.
iii. can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

3.3 Participants

The research involved a diverse group of university students with different L1 backgrounds, chosen using a technique of purposive sampling to assure representation from various language groups. Ten participants were chosen for this study based on purposive sampling strategy, as they were ideal for the study in a number of ways:

a) they were freshman students,

b) they were enrolled in the SOFL102 course,

c) they had different first languages,

d) they had minimum B1 level English.

The main criterion for choosing the participants was that they had different L1s. The participants of this study consisted of two Congolese, two Moroccan, two Turkish, two native English and two Russian students whose first languages were French, Arabic, Turkish, English and Russian, respectively. All of the students were freshman students taking the SOFL102 course aimed at improving their academic English. Their level of English varied from B1 to C1+ level. All of the participants had previously taken the placement exam of the university English Preparatory School. The results they had obtained in this exam were consistent with the levels they had chosen when answering the questions in the questionnaire. The table below (Table 4) shows detailed information of the participants' backgrounds and language levels. Due to the confidentiality of the study, the participants' names are not given despite the participants willingly sharing their names with the researcher. Instead, they were coded as P (standing for the word 'participant) followed by the initial of their L1 (A for Arabic, F for French, T for Turkish, E for English and R for Russian). The numbers 1 and 2 refer to each of the participants sharing the same L1. Thus, P-A1 refers to one of the two participants whose L1 is Arabic.

Table 4: Demographics and Background of the Participants

Participant	Gender	Nationality	First Language	Level of English
P A1	Male	Morroccan	Arabic	Native like
P A2	Male	Morroccan	Arabic	Advanced
P-F1	Male	Congolese	French	Intermediate
P F2	Female	Congolese	French	Intermediate
P-T1	Female	Turkish Cypriot	Turkish	Native-like
P-T2	Male	Turkish Cypriot	Turkish	Advanced
P E1	Female	British	English	Native
P-E2	Male	British	English	Native
P-R1	Female	Belarussian	Russian	Intermediate
P R2	Male	Russian	Russian	Intermediate

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

A background information questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data during think aloud protocol sessions. The researcher created a questionnaire to collect demographic information from participants regarding how long the participants had been learning English, their nati one of the ve languages, their proficiency levels, their writing habits and preferences in both their native language (L1) and English (L2). The questionnaire consisted of 13 questions with varying question types, including two Likert scale type questions, six multiple choice questions, two ranking questions and two open ended questions (see Appendix E).

Another tool to collect data was a think aloud protocol followed by a semi structured interview. The think aloud session consisted of a writing task in which the participants were required to verbalise their thought processes in their L1 while writing in the L2. The think-aloud section of the study took up around 35 minutes on average. Straight after the writing section was a retrospective interview. The interview consisted of seven questions prepared by the researcher with a focus on the research questions. The researcher opted not to directly ask the research questions but rather to collect

information that would lead to satisfactory responses to her research questions. The participants were asked to give information about their attitudes and feelings towards writing in the way conducted within the scope of this study. The participants were also asked to describe their writing process and to make comparisons between their writing habits in their L1 and L2. The questionnaires were given as a hard copy and filed in a physical folder. The think-aloud and interview sessions were audio recorded as per the consent of the participants. The final written texts were also filed away in a physical folder.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

In order to begin the data collection process, the researcher was required to fulfil a number of steps. Firstly, the researcher applied to the Ethics Committee at the Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU). A few revisions were required before the permission was to be given. Meanwhile the researcher applied to the Ethics Committee at ARUCAD in order to have the necessary permissions for data collection. Once the permission was received from ARUCAD, EMU also allowed for the data collection process to begin (See Appendix C and D). With the receipt of the permissions, the researcher visited the head of the English Preparatory School at ARUCAD who helped in arranging a time to meet with potential participants. The researcher met with the potential participants at the allocated time and gave information about the study and its voluntary basis. Twelve students volunteered to take part in the study. A meeting was arranged for the next day with two of the students (who met the criteria used to select participants) to pilot the study before beginning the data collection process. They were SOFL102 students with B2 level English and they both spoke Ukranian as their first language, and they were excluded from the main data collection process. Having

piloted the study with these two students, the researcher made the following changes to the data collection tools:

1) One of the questionnaire questions asked students to select their English proficiency level from A1 to C2. However, the participants were uncertain of their level since they had never been informed of it. Therefore, the researcher altered the options to intermediate, advanced, native-like, and native.

2) The argumentative essay's topic was "Art should be a required high school course." Do you agree or disagree." However, the students struggled to generate ideas on this topic and were unable to compose lengthy texts, resulting in very brief think-aloud sessions. Therefore, the researcher changed the subject to "People are born with talent. It cannot be learned. Do you agree or disagree?"

3) The researcher also added a question into the retrospective interview in which the participants were asked to consider the difference in their writing process in academic writing tasks and creative writing tasks.

Once the piloting was completed, the researcher came together with the other ten participants for the questionnaire completion. Prior to the initiation of the data collection process, the researcher created folders on her personal laptop to make sure all collected data, namely the audio recordings, were filed away in an organised manner. The participants all gathered in a computer lab on the campus, and completed the questionnaire on paper. Once everyone was finished, the researcher gave information about the second section of the study which was the essay writing and think-aloud session. The researcher demonstrated to the participants how to verbalise their thought processes by using a reading task from the University’s own reading

course, rather than a writing task, in order not to influence their output during the data collection process. It was a B2 level text with 10 multiple choice questions. The researcher began by verbalising that she would read the questions first, then would start reading the text. She focused on the keywords while reading the multiple choices of each question verbalising aloud why she thought they would be useful in finding the answers in the text. She then read aloud the paragraphs corresponding to each question and thought out loud during her elimination process of the multiple choices. By doing this, the participants were able to see how the researcher was putting into words her thought process. The researcher welcomed any questions once her demonstration was finished, but the participants seemed confident in their understanding.

When all was clear about what was expected, the participants were given the academic essay topic ("People are born talented. It cannot be learned. Do you agree or disagree?") and they began writing their essay in English (L2) while recording their voices (in their L1) on the computers within the computer lab. This session took on average 35 minutes to complete. The researcher was in the room the whole time, gently prompting the participants who became quite and were not verbalising their process. The participants generally had no issues in understanding what was expected of their think-aloud process. There were no problems during the execution of the first task in terms of the think-aloud protocol.

Once this stage was completed, the researcher took all participants together into a retrospective interview session. The researcher decided to complete the interview as a group for two reasons: 1) to save time, and 2) to enable the session to be more of a discussion rather than an interview. The interview (as a group discussion) took around

30 minutes to complete. Once the interview was completed, the participants were informed of the second tasks date, which was to be the following week. Having finished this first round of data collection stage, the researcher began to transcribe the audio recordings (in participants' L1) using a program called Descript. Following the transcription, the transcribed texts were translated into English through the use of Google Translate. In order to check the correctness of the transcription and translation, native speakers of French, Arabic and Russian were contacted. The French speaker was an academic staff member in the Translation and Interpretation department of EMU. The Arabic speaker was an English teacher working in another university in North Cyprus and the Russian speaker was a student studying in ARUCAD. The researcher herself is fluent in English and Turkish; therefore, no further help was required concerning the English and Turkish native speakers' data.

The following week (i.e., in the second round of data collection stage), the participants and researcher came together again to complete the second writing task which was a creative writing task, unlike the academic task in the first round. This task required the participants to write a short story which began with the sentence "I couldn't believe what I was seeing when I opened the box." The reason for not choosing another academic writing task as the second task was to observe whether there were any differences in the way the participants handled the two different writing styles. For instance, if a participant was focusing on their sentence structure in the academic writing task, were they also focusing on sentence structure in the creative writing task or were they more focused on vocabulary this time? The task took on average 20 minutes to complete. The researcher was in the room at all times prompting the participants who went quiet and were not verbalising their thought processes. Once

again the writing session was followed by a semi-structured group interview. The researcher collected all written texts and audio recordings and began their transcription and translation. Similarly, the transcriptions and translations were checked for correctness by native speakers of French, Arabic and Russian. Any necessary corrections and adjustments were made accordingly.

The figure below (Figure 3.1) shows the details of the data collection procedures. With the completion of the data collection, the researcher began the data analysis.

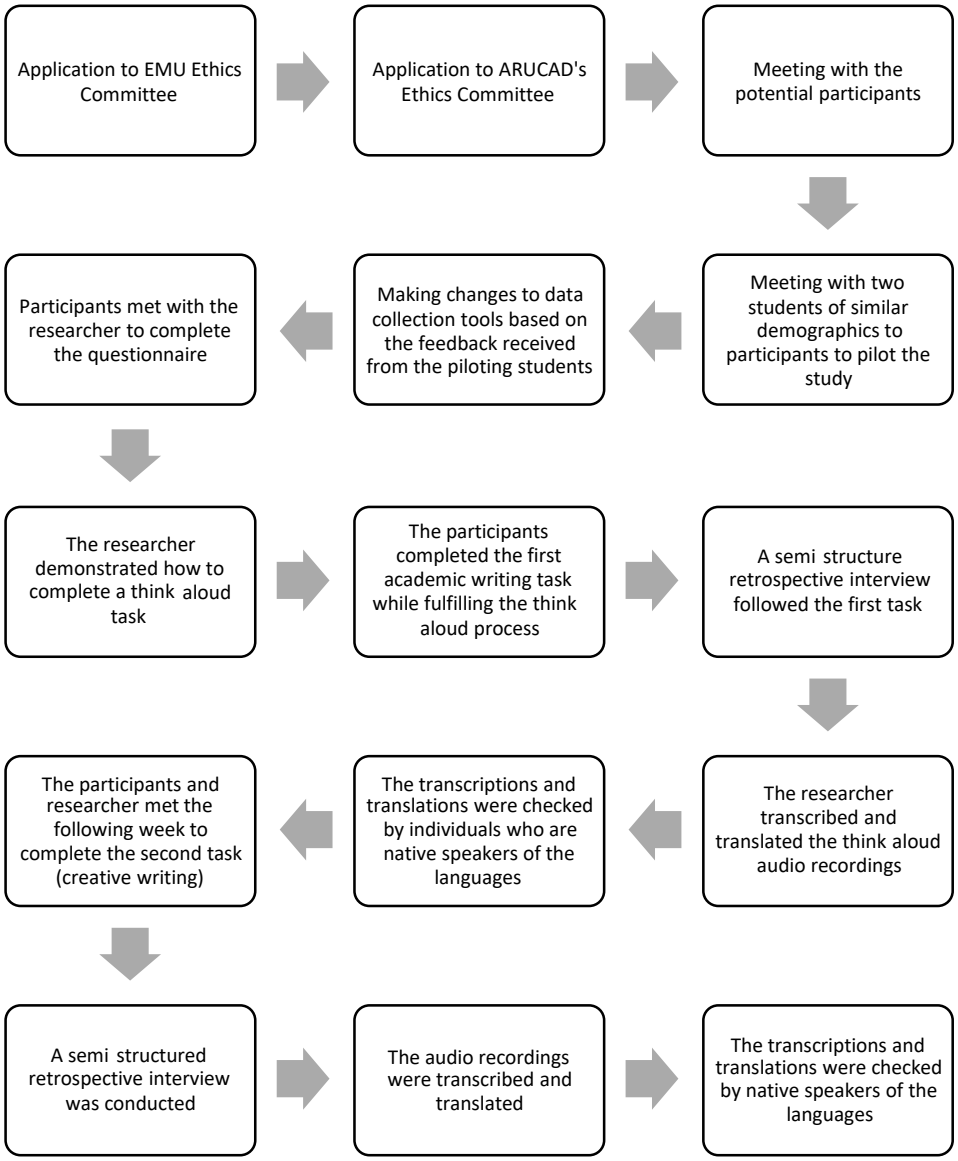

Figure 3.1: Steps Followed in Collecting Data

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

The qualitative data gathered from the questionnaires, think-aloud protocols, and interviews were analysed to determine whether or not there are similarities or differences between students with different native languages.

The collected data was first transcribed and then translated verbatim and shared with the participants in order to ensure the veracity of their responses. This process is called member checking and is considered a very significant characteristic of qualitative research as it enables the researcher to be sure about the accuracy of the data collected from the participants (Creswell, 2012). According to Byrne (2001), member checking enhances the credibility of the research.

The qualitative data was analysed using thematic analysis in order to gain insight into the experiences of each participant and to identify obvious patterns and emerging themes. It is possible to say that there are themes related to what the participants focused on when writing. The main focus of the participants can be categorised into three; these categories being i) vocabulary searching, ii) sentence structure checking, and iii) checking of information relevance. Also, there are similar ideas of the participants when considering the writing process regardless of their proficiency level and first language.

All coded interview transcripts were compared and contrasted to identify common themes. The themes were then evaluated and appropriately defined. In the final phase of data analysis, interpretations and conclusions were generated to address the study's research questions based on the identified themes and interview and think-aloud extracts.

3.7 Issues Related to Credibility and Validity

In order to overcome any issues that might arise in the context of credibility and validity, the researcher took some preventative and remedial steps. Firstly, due to the fact that the data collection tools, i.e. the questionnaire and the retrospective interview questions were formulated by the researcher herself, the study was first piloted by two students who had similar features to the participants of the study. Various changes were made to the questions based on the feedback of these students. The researcher changed the English level options in the questionnaire to include intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced, native-like, and native. The argumentative essay topic was changed to "People are born talented. It cannot be learned." The researcher also added a question in the second retrospective interview to consider the difference in writing processes between academic and creative writing tasks. These changes aim to provide more clear and meaningful information for participants.

Another point which required proof of reliability was the transcription and translation of the audios in other languages. Due to the fact that the researcher cannot speak French, Arabic and Russian, external transcription tools and translation tools needed to be utilized. A program called Descript was used to transcribe the texts. Native speakers of the languages checked the transcriptions to ensure that they were transcribed correctly. Following the transcription, Google Translate was utilized to translate the texts. Once again, speakers of the languages checked the translations to make sure there were no mistakes. A few corrections were made in the Arabic text, but overall the translations were effective.

In order to ensure validity and credibility of the current study, peer debriefing, transferability, confirmability and member checking were utilised. Peer debriefing as a strategy for conducting credible qualitative research, is the process of incorporating an impartial individual into data analysis (Creswell, 2012). It is crucial that the peer debriefer who is not engaged in the research study but is knowledgeable enough about the methodology and content of the study to comment on the researcher's assumptions (Byrne, 2001). In the current study, the researcher engaged in lengthy discussions on the coding of the qualitative data with an experienced colleague who was unfamiliar with the study's context and subject matter.

Transferability refers to the applicability and suitability of the study's findings (Byrne, 2001). In other terms, it is the evaluation of the transferability of findings to other contexts. In other words, a study with high transferability can be replicated in numerous other contexts. In order to ensure transferability, the current study provided detailed descriptions of the topic, participants, study constructs, and observation system.

To ensure confirmability**,** to maintain objectivity and avoid researcher bias, an independent examiner who was a doctoral student in English language teaching validated the current study by examining the data and conducting preliminary data analysis (e.g., categories). After briefing that colleague about the study, she was asked to review the data of one participant and determine the codes on her own. After comparing her reviews with the researcher’s and seeing **a high** agreement **(90%)**, the researcher continued doing the analysis on her own.

For member checking in qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that member verification is necessary for establishing credibility. Among the inherent characteristics of qualitative research, member checking allows the researcher to ensure the veracity of the data collected from participants (Creswell, 2012). In member checking, the researcher merely asks the participants to analyse and validate the research findings in order to increase the research's credibility (Byrne, 2001). Similarly, member verification was conducted for this study in order to increase its rigour. In order to conduct member verification, each participant was invited to a second interview following the completion of the two tasks during which the researcher and the interviewee reviewed the transcribed data (Birt, Scott, Cavers, Campbell, & Walter, 2016). During the second interview, participants were also asked clarification questions to help the researcher better understand what they had said.

3.8 Summary

The current chapter provided an exposition of the research design and research context, accompanied by a comprehensive description of the participants included in the study. Subsequently, the data gathering instruments, methods, and data analysis techniques were introduced. Furthermore, this study included a detailed description of the data collection methodology, the equipment employed, and an overview of the data analysis methods. The chapter concluded with addressing matters pertaining to reliability and validity. This chapter also presented an analysis of the data gathering tools which includes the questionnaire, think-aloud protocol notes, and retrospective interviews conducted with the students.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This chapter focuses on the results of the collected data. The data was collected through questionnaires, think –aloud sessions and semi-structured interviews. The data was analysed based on language pairs of the participants and common themes were attempted to be found. Initially, the data pertaining to the first research question, this being; *What writing strategies do university students with different L1s use while writing in L2 (English)?* is given in three categories – pre-writing strategies, while-writing strategies and post-writing strategies. These categories were analysed separately in terms of the languages of the participants. The second research question; *How do students make use of their L1 when writing in L2 tasks*, was analysed in two sub-categories. These are 1- searching for vocabulary, and 2- self-correction of grammar/sentence structure. Again, each language pair was analysed separately and later common themes amongst the pairs were analysed. Furthermore for both research questions, the responses of the native English speaking participants were used as a comparison to see how different L1 speakers and native English speakers differed in terms of writing strategies and L1 use with English being the native English speakers' L1. Finally, the benefits or disadvantages of using the L1 as a writing strategy was aimed to be analysed.

4.1 L2 (English) Writing Strategies Used by Different L1 Learners

4.1.1 Pre-Writing Strategies

Pre-writing refers to practice or experimental writing, which helps you get started, evaluate your knowledge, identify new ideas and areas requiring additional research. It is a practical application of critical reasoning. Prewriting can help enhance observation and evaluation skills. With pre-writing strategies, writers can test ideas, investigate a variety of topics, compile a list of ideas, and become acquainted with their topic. Pre-writing can help them save time by identifying rapidly which ideas are worthy of further development (Mahnam & Nejadansari, 2012). The pre-writing strategies used by the participants in this study are namely for generating ideas and information gathering. Information regarding how and which pre-writing strategies the different L1 speakers employed can be found below.

Arabic speaking participants

There were two male Arabic speaking participants in this study. Both participants were from Morocco. In terms of English levels, one of the participants was native-like while the other was advanced. The participant who was native-like shall be referred to as PA1 and the advanced level participant is PA2. In terms of planning habits, both PA1 and PA2 indicated that they do not plan when writing in their native language of Arabic. When asked why in the semi-structured interview, PA1 stated, “I don’t need to as I am more spontaneous when I write in my native language.” PA2, on the other hand, noted that he only comes up with the main ideas he wants to discuss before beginning to write in his native language, but he does not spend an extended amount of time planning out any other details. When asked about their planning habits before beginning writing in English, however, both participants said they take the time to plan

out ideas and brainstorm. The main focus of PA1's planning is to find the main ideas to be written about within their academic or even creative tasks and texts. PA2 focuses on finding supporting details. This was an interesting finding in terms of PA2. He focused on finding the main ideas when writing in his native language but focused on finding the supporting details when writing in his L2, this being English. PA1 and PA2 stated that when they plan before writing in English, they also focus on the format that is needed in the writing task. This response was more related to academic writing tasks however as they felt creative writing tasks were freer without a specific structure to follow. Interestingly, in the interview, PA1 stated that despite having made a plan, during the writing process, he seldom goes back to check what he had planned out as this makes him "lose my train of thought". According to PA1, this was true for writing tasks in both his L1 and in L2. In contrast, PA2 stated he constantly checks what he had planned during his writing process. PA1 also noted that he likes to research information before beginning to write in his L2, English. However, he doesn't do this all the time as sometimes he feels he knows enough about the topic to just begin writing though usually he regrets doing this but continues to write anyway as stopping will make him forget what he was planning on writing.

Table 5: The pre-writing strategies used by Arabic speaking participants

	LI (Arabic)	**L2 (English)**
PA1	- No plan	- Planning - Brainstorming - Finding the main ideas - Focusing on the format required for the writing task
PA2	- No plan - Only focus on main ideas	- Planning - Brainstorming - Finding supporting details - Focusing on the format required for the writing task - Constantly making use of the created plan

French Speaking Participants

There were two French speaking participants in this study. Both participants were from Congo and both were at intermediate level in English. The first participant, PF1, was male and the second participant, PF2 was female. When asked about their planning habits when writing in their native language, PF1 stated, “I begin writing without any research of information and vocabulary”. However, he stated that before beginning to write, he likes to think of the conclusion and while writing work his way to that conclusion:

> First of all, I start with the conclusion. I start to elaborate the conclusion. And after that now, I begin with the introduction, and I try to find some examples. I think it's all. That's it. After that, I try to make the summary of everything. (PF1)

PF2 also had similar planning habits. She did not create a plan usually when writing in her native language as she felt it “hindered my spontaneity”. Particularly in creative tasks, PF2 gave grave significance to spontaneity. When asked if she had a similar approach to beginning with the conclusion, she mentioned it was a good approach that they taught them early in their education in their country; however, she personally did not feel comfortable writing in that way. She preferred to go in order, starting with the beginning and building up to the ending.

When the participants were asked about their planning habits when writing in English, PF1 pointed out that he used the planning stage to find relevant information, the necessary vocabulary and relevant examples. Both participants stated that they make use of dictionaries and translation tools in the planning process in order to find the necessary vocabulary and phrases for their texts. PF1 mentioned that he places particular importance on working backwards from the conclusion when writing in

English. He states that he would be completely lost and would not be able to connect his ideas in anyway if he did not work back from the conclusion. In contrast, PF2 focused on the information and vocabulary, but began writing from the introduction instead of the conclusion. Interestingly, neither of the participants used the planning stage to find main ideas unlike the Arabic speaking participants.

Table 6: The pre-writing strategies used by French speaking participants

	LI (French)	**L2 (English)**
PF1	- Focusing on the conclusion first	- Finding the necessary vocabulary - Finding relevant supporting details - Finding relevant examples - Using a dictionary - Using translation tools
PF2	- No plan	- Finding the necessary vocabulary - Finding relevant supporting details - Finding relevant examples - Using a dictionary - Using translation tools

Turkish speaking participants

The Turkish speaking participants were both from Northern Cyprus. PT1 was a female Turkish Cypriot whose English level was native-like. PT2 was male, Turkish Cypriot and advanced. This was PT2's second university as he had previously graduated from the Translation and Interpretation program of a different university also in Northern Cyprus. In terms of their writing habits, PT1 liked to make a plan both in her native language (Turkish) and when writing in L2 (English). She made plans for almost similar purposes.

Despite being native-like, PT1 still checked for vocabulary in English, but instead of using a dictionary, she preferred to use a thesaurus. PT1 also pointed out that she likes to make a rough draft in English before beginning to write:

> I do good research before I actually start writing and I kind of try to do a rough draft or some kind of bullet points before I start writing.

PT2 focused less on planning before writing in his native language (Turkish) but tried to be well-prepared before writing in his L2 (English). Furthermore, due to his translation background, PT2 noted that before beginning to write, he would note down some phrases and sentences in Turkish and think about how he would translate them and add them into his English text. Overall, despite having different goals for planning in their native language, both participants gave great importance to planning in English, but used different tactics to make use of them with PT1 making a rough draft and PT2 using translation as a way to prepare to get his message across.

Table 7: The pre-writing strategies used by Turkish speaking participants

	LI (Turkish)	**L2 (English)**
PT1	- Finding relevant information - Finding the main ideas to be written about - Finding the relevant examples - Finding relevant supporting details	- Finding relevant information - Finding the necessary vocabulary - Finding the main ideas to be written about - Finding the relevant examples - Finding relevant supporting details
PT2	- Finding relevant information - Finding the main ideas to be written about	- Finding relevant information - Finding the necessary vocabulary - Finding the main ideas to be written about - Finding the relevant examples - Finding relevant supporting details

Russian speaking participants

PR1 and PR2 were both male students who had been learning English for a couple of years but had quickly become intermediate level students. When asked about their planning habits in writing, both participants noted that they do not make plans when writing in their native language. Contrary to their habits concerning their native

language, both participants explained that they make very comprehensive plans when writing in English. They both focus on finding the necessary information and relevant examples. PR1 also aims to become familiar with the format required for the writing task when planning.

Table 8: The pre-writing strategies used by Russian speaking participants.

	L1 (Russian)	**L2 (English)**
PR1	- No Plan	- Finding the necessary vocabulary - Becoming familiar with the format needed for the writing task - Finding relevant supporting details - Finding relevant examples
PR2	- No Plan	- Finding the necessary vocabulary - Finding relevant supporting details - Finding relevant examples

Native English Participants

The purpose of adding native English speakers to the study was to use the data collected from them in a comparison with the other participants. Due to the nature of the study, English was the second language of the other participants whereas it is the first language of the native participants. The data collected from the native speakers was used to show a comparison of writing habits and language use.

The native English speakers who participated in the study were both from the United Kingdom. PE1 was a female in her fifties. She was studying university for the second time in order to make her dream of studying art come true. She had relocated from the UK ten years ago and had learnt limited vocabulary in Turkish, the native language of North Cyprus which is where the study was conducted. She herself was a teacher but had retired and decided to become a student. Her being a teacher had influenced the way she wrote in her native language (English). She was well aware of the benefits of

planning before writing. Therefore, when asked if she made a plan before beginning a writing task, she stated, “I never begin a task before thinking about the main ideas, examples and supporting details”. Due to English being her native language, a comparison between her L1 and L2 could not be made as they are both the same language for PE1 and PE2. Interestingly, PE1 used the planning stage to find vocabulary. However, unlike the other language speakers, she didn’t use a translation tool or dictionary but instead used Google Search. She would look for particular words in certain categories. A typical Google search for her would be something along the lines of “words related to travelling” etc. The table below (Table 4.5) shows what she was focused on during the planning stage.

PE2 was male and also from the UK but had been in Cyprus for over 17 years. He was 26 years old and had spent most of his life in Cyprus. Despite leaving the UK at a young age, PE2 still maintained his native accent. When asked about his pre-writing stages, he noted that he was too impatient and usually tended to begin writing straightaway. However, sometimes especially in important situations such as exams, he would take the time to plan as he was aware of its importance. During those times he would spend the planning stage gathering information and making an outline of what he wanted to write. When asked if he searched for any vocabulary prior to the writing task, he stated that he felt confident in his language level and thus didn’t waste time looking up words. Therefore, it is possible to say that PE2’s planning focused more on information rather than format and lexis.

Table 9: The pre-writing strategies used by Native English participants.

	L1 (English)	**L2**
PE1	- Finding relevant information - Finding the necessary vocabulary	N/A

	- Becoming familiar with the format needed for the writing task - Finding relevant examples - Finding relevant supporting details	
PE2	- No Plan	N/A

The figure below (Figure 4.1) shows the different uses of pre-writing strategies as outlined by the participants in the study. It was prepared in line with the answers given by the participants to the questionnaire. There are four questions asking about pre-writing steps and strategies that can be potentially employed by a writer before a writing task.

4.1.2 While-writing Strategies

While-writing strategies are those employed by writers during the writing process itself. They usually include but are not limited to re-checking what they wrote after a few sentences or a paragraph, using a dictionary or translation tool while writing or researching information. Another strategy that can be noted is editing while writing. This could include crossing out or deleting parts of what had been written. Information regarding how and which while-writing strategies the different L1 speakers employed can be found below.

Arabic Speaking Participants

The Arabic speaking participants in this study were very different to each other in terms of the strategies they employed while they were completing the writing tasks. Before beginning writing in L2, English, PA1 would make a plan focusing only on the main ideas. Interestingly, at the writing stage he does not check his plan at all because he believes constantly checking his plan will make him lose his train of thought. Nevertheless, he pointed out that usually he reaches a block and has to do research of information while writing. He understands that if he took the time to make a

comprehensive plan, he would not need to do research while writing but he gets impatient and wants to begin writing as soon as he can. When asked about his writing habits in his native language, he responded that he does not make a plan or research anything while writing and just writes using his own general knowledge about the topic. When prompted why, he mentioned that he had never really had to write academic Arabic texts; therefore, he never learnt to make plans or write comprehensive texts in that language.

PA2, on the other hand, not only makes comprehensive plans in which he finds the supporting details, but he also constantly checks his plan and crosses off the ideas that he has added into his text. In other words, he uses his plan as a checklist of ideas. When asked why, he responded that he doesn't want to waste time trying to find ideas when he is already working too hard trying to get the sentence structure right. This led to the question of his writing tactics in his L1 to which he gave a similar response to PA1. He, in turn, had not needed to produce many academic texts in his native language as well. Thus, he was not sure what he would do in a situation as such. Though he had previously mentioned that when he makes a plan to write in his native language, it is usually focused on the main ideas only, he stated that he wouldn't use this plan as a checklist and wouldn't be as dependent on it as he is with his plan when writing in English. When asked why, his response was that there wasn't as much importance placed on writing in Arabic as there is in English, particularly in terms of academic writing.

Table 10: The while-writing strategies used by Arabic speaking participants.

	L1 (Arabic)	**L2 (English)**
PA1	- doesn't make use of any writing strategies while writing	- researches information while writing

PA2	- would only check plan occasionally and not focus on it as much	- constantly checks plan and ticks off ideas as he writes

French Speaking Participants

As mentioned before, PF1 was an individual who liked to begin with a plan of the conclusion and work his way backwards. For this reason, when writing in English he makes a plan of his ending and possible ways to get to that ending. Hence, he is constantly checking his plan, making sure that he is on the right track to the ending that he had pre-determined. While writing, PF1 makes use of online dictionaries and translation tools. He used translation tools to check that what he had written made sense rather than for the tool to produce the sentence for him. He would do a back translation of the sentence he wrote in English and check if the French was what he was attempting to produce or if it was close to it. He was doing a similar thing with his dictionary use. He would translate a French word into English, then using a dictionary, he would check the definition of the English word to make sure it was suitable for what he wanted to say. Although this was a long process and one that he wouldn't have time for or the resources for in an exam setting, he stated that he enjoyed doing it and it helped him learn better. This could particularly be accepted as true as when asked how long he had been learning English, his response had been one year. Though when listening to him speaking and reading his written productions, it is clear that he is very much in the intermediate level. Evidence of his level can be seen in the structures that he uses being firmly embedded in the intermediate level. Interestingly, PF1 stated that when planning, he makes a list of possible vocabulary or structures; however, when he begins the writing process, he is constantly using the internet to make sure what he is using is relevant. Also, while writing, he is re-reading every

sentence to make sure the grammar is correct. After this he will re-read a whole paragraph to make sure it flows. Then when finished writing, he will re-read the whole text to check his spelling, grammar and flow of ideas.

In terms of his while-writing strategies when writing in his native language, he first thinks of the conclusion as well and makes sure to find information related to his topic. However, he is not as dependent on his plan as when writing in English. He re-reads what he writes all throughout the task and doesn't check through at the end. When asked why, he stated it is usually because he re-reads every sentence, then reads the paragraph as a whole, too. Therefore, he doesn't feel the need to read the whole text through at the end.

When writing in English, PF2 finds information, vocabulary and examples while making use of dictionaries and translation tools. She organises her writing starting from the introduction unlike PF1 who begins from the conclusion. While writing she checks her plan often and uses translation tools. When asked if she had used all of the vocabulary she had prepared in advance, she had stated that she only used maybe six of the 15 words she had come up with. Her reasoning for that was because when writing, she gets more ideas as she goes along. Thus, she deviates from her plan. Although she doesn't completely move away from it, she doesn't stick to it one hundred percent. She uses translation tools to translate phrases. She mentioned that she doesn't trust the tools to completely translate a sentence correctly. She feels more comfortable with just some phrases and her creating her own sentences using these phrases as if doing a puzzle. When asked about her while-writing tactics in her native language, she mentioned that she doesn't make a plan and spontaneously writes. She does, however, stop often and re-read what she has written in order to make sure her

text flows well because her ideas come thick and fast and she has jumped from idea to idea in previous writing assignments. Hence, she makes sure she is cohesive in her writing when writing in French. When asked if she did this when writing in English as well, her response was that she prefers to read it all through when she finishes the task. When writing in English, she stated that her ideas are more organised due to her plan, so her main focus is making sure her sentence structure, spelling and punctuation are correct rather than her information as she trusts the information flows fine due to her plan.

Table 11: The while writing strategies used by French speaking participants.

	L1 (French)	**L2 (English)**
PF1	- doesn't check his plan much re reads while writing	- uses translation tools to back-translate what he wrote - uses dictionary to check definitions of translated words - re-reads while writing each sentence, then each paragraph and once through at the end
PF2	- re-reads each sentence as she writes to make sure they are cohesive	- uses translation tools - checks plan often - only reads through at the end to check spelling, grammar and punctuation

Turkish Speaking Participants

PT1 made comprehensive plans when writing in English. She would find information, vocabulary, main ideas, supporting details and even the examples before beginning to write. While writing, she followed her plan word for word. She also would add to her plan for the following sections if she came up with ideas before coming to that particular section. Because she made comprehensive plans beforehand, she didn't need to make use of any search tools, translation tools or dictionaries. She re-read what she

had written at the end of every paragraph and made sure the text flowed well. Due to the fact that she was native-like, she didn't focus on the sentence structure but made sure the spelling and punctuation were correct as well as the flow of ideas. When asked what her writing habits were like in the writing process of producing a Turkish text, she mentioned that she made the same type of plan excluding finding vocabulary. She did, however, mention that she sometimes knew the English of a particular word that she wanted to use better than the Turkish and used a translation tool at times. She also didn't read through as much as she does in English writing tasks, only reading once at the end to check the flow of ideas.

PT2 usually made a plan before writing too; however, his plans were not nearly as comprehensive as PT1's. Therefore, he often ended up researching information while writing. Also, due to his translation background, similar to PF1, he would back translate some of the structures that he used just to make sure they were as clear as he had intended them to be. Unlike PT1 who re-read at the end of every paragraph, PT2 only read back what he wrote at the end and didn't read through while writing. In terms of his L1 writing habits, PT2 stated that he had good knowledge due to his translation background, i.e., he has translated many texts in many different fields. Hence, he can usually give detailed information about most topics he may come across. However, he has a slight language barrier; therefore, he needs to do research for particularly the terminology use in English. In contrast, he doesn't need to do this in Turkish as it is his native language and he feels confident in his knowledge of vocabulary. As a result, he doesn't do research during the writing process when writing in his L1. Also, he only re-reads at the end of the task just to check if the ideas are flowing.

Table 12: The while-writing strategies used by Turkish speaking participants.

	L1 (Turkish)	**L2 (English)**

PT1	- checks plan often - occasionally uses a translation tool - re-reads only at the end	- checks her plan often - re-reads at the end of every paragraph.
PT2	- just writes - re-reads only at the end	- researches information and terminology while writing - does back translation of structures - only re-reads at the end

Russian Speaking Participants

The Russian speaking participants were similar in their pre-writing habits. They both didn't make plans in their L1s and made plans for similar purposes for writing tasks in English. Throughout the L2 writing process, PR1 made use of his plan, particularly in terms of vocabulary. He made sure he chose very specific verbs in his writing, i.e. those which he felt would make more of an impact on the reader. For this reason, he made a list of words at the pre-writing stage, but throughout his writing, he used a thesaurus to find more impactful synonyms, particularly for the verbs. He also edited his writing all throughout the writing process. When asked about his strategies for writing in his first language (Russian), he stated that he doesn't do any research before beginning writing. According to him, this was partly because of his command of the language but also because he hadn't needed to produce many academic texts in his native language. Hence, he isn't exactly sure what his process might be when writing in Russian. He did, however, state that he only reads through his Russian writing once at the end.

PR2 also makes comprehensive plans before beginning to write in English. He, however, didn't make use of his plan as he stated that writing down his ideas helps him get a clear focus, so he doesn't feel the need to constantly check that guide. He makes a mind-map of the ideas and details he wants to use but searches for relevant

information during the writing process. Interestingly, he didn't look for information on English sites but on Russian sites. When asked why, his response was that he was more familiar with Russian websites and the resources so he could locate information quicker. He felt confident with his level of English to be able to paraphrase and translate the ideas he read on these websites. He didn't like to read through what he wrote as he goes so he kept that to the end, only reading once and checking just the flow of the information. When asked about his L1 process, he, similar to PR1, stated that he hadn't written many academic texts in Russian; therefore, he was unsure about what he would do prior. However, he did state that due to his competency in Russian, he probably wouldn't make such a comprehensive preparation before writing. He mentioned if the researcher were to give him a task and say write this in Russian, he would just start writing, only stopping occasionally to search for a new idea in his mind.

Table 13: The while-writing strategies used by Russian speaking participants.

	L1 (Russian)	**L2 (English)**
PR1	- reads through once only at the end to check flow of information	- uses thesaurus to find powerful verbs - check as he goes along
PR2	- searches for ideas in his mind only - no other strategy use	- paraphrases online information while writing - translates information from Russian sites while writing

Native English Participants

For the native speakers, the process for them was not very different to the other participants. PE1 likes to make very comprehensive plans. She visualises and hypothesises her writing before beginning. While writing, she tends to write down all the sentences that come to her mind in spite of whether she is at the introduction or body or conclusion. For instance, she may be writing the introduction but she thinks of a sentence suitable for her conclusion, so she will note this sentence down on a

separate page. She then continues to write from where she left off, all the while visualising her ideas and finding information to branch off from her main ideas. During her writing process, she reads through constantly checking the tone of her writing. Particularly in academic writing, she is very careful to make sure the tone of her text is academic and not informal. If she feels a phrase is not formal or academic enough, she will either delete it all together or change it using a thesaurus to make sure the tone of her writing is not off. When she finishes writing down all of her ideas and supporting details, she goes back to the random sentences she noted and adds them into the correct places within the text. She stated that she spends at least ten minutes at the end of each task organising her writing. She mentioned that she is aware of how much of a time-wasting habit this may be, but she feels that she will forget everything she wants to write if she waits to come to that place in the text to write down that particular sentence which she was thinking of.

PE2, on the other hand, makes no plans before writing and employs hardly any writing strategies during his writing process. He doesn't like to make use of the internet while writing and solely relies on his own knowledge. Furthermore, he doesn't check through his text neither while writing nor at the end. When asked why, he stated he didn't feel it was necessary because he was in command of the language and he usually had knowledge about the topics given to him in terms of academic writing tasks. In terms of creative writing tasks, he stated that he absolutely didn't make use of any tools whatsoever when writing creative texts as it all depended on his mind and heart.

Table 14: The while-writing strategies of Native English participants.

	L1 (English)	**L2 -**
PE1	- notes down any and every sentence that comes to her mind while writing - re-reads to check for tone - organises her sentences into the correct order	N/A

PE2	- just focuses solely on writing - doesn't read through his text	N/A

4.1.3 Post-writing Strategies

Post writing strategies are focused on revising and editing, following the completion of the writing process. When implementing these strategies, writers are usually checking their spelling, grammar, punctuation or their information, flow of information or tone of their essay. In this study, almost all of the participants employed a post-writing strategy.

Arabic Speaking Participants

Both of the Arabic speaking participants spend around ten minutes at the end of their writing process reading through what they have written when completing English writing tasks. PA1 focused on the flow of ideas and content when re reading what he had written. PA2, on the other hand, focused more on the lexis and syntax. This could be related with PA1 being native like; therefore, feeling confident about his grammar and word choices while PA2 is advanced level. PA2 may feel the need to re-check his syntax even though 'advanced' generally means the individual has a good command of the language. PA1 does not stop while writing to read. Thus, all of the necessary editing is done post-writing. The same can be said for PA2. He also reads through only at the end and makes any necessary changes and corrections then. PA2 does, however, read more thoroughly. PA1 admitted to generally skimming the text and correcting anything that jumps out at him.

When asked about their post writing strategy use in L1 writing tasks, both participants said that they only read through once at the end and generally don't change anything or make any corrections.

Table 15: The post-writing strategies used by Arabic speaking participants

	L1 (Arabic)	L2 (English)
PA1	- only generally skims at the end	- re-reads to check information
PA2	- only generally skims at the end	- re-reads to check lexis and syntax as well as information

French Speaking Participants

The French speaking participants both employ revision and editing strategies post-writing. When writing in English, PF1 constantly reads through every sentence he writes while writing. Hence, he only reads through once at the end to check the general information and flow of his ideas. He stated that he usually focuses on the vocabulary and grammar and fixes any mistakes concerning them when reading while writing. Therefore, his post-writing check is mainly focused on the content of his produced text. In terms of his post-writing strategies concerning his L1, he stated that he only reads while writing and doesn't read through at the end. Thus, it is possible to say that he doesn't employ any post-writing strategies in writing assignments in his L1. When he finishes writing, that is the end of the process for him.

Unlike PF1, PF2 doesn't read through while writing in L2 (English), but she does so when writing in her L1 (French). When writing in English, she reads through only at the end and uses this time to correct any mistakes she may have concerning her spelling, grammar and punctuation. When writing in her L1, she reads through while writing and checks the cohesiveness of her written text.

Table 16: The post-writing strategies used by French speaking participants

	L1 (French)	L2 (English)
PF1	- reads while writing, doesn't read at the end	- reads throughout (checks spelling, vocabulary and grammar) and at the end (checks relevance of information)

PF2	- reads while writing, doesn't read at the end	- reads at the end and corrects spelling, grammar and punctuation

Turkish Speaking Participants

Despite the fact that the Turkish speaking participants had very different pre- and while-writing strategies, they seem to have similar post-writing habits. Both of the Turkish speaking participants re-read their texts that they write in English. However, they have different purposes for re-reading their texts. While PT1 re-reads to check grammar, punctuation and flow of ideas, PT2 re-reads to check spelling and grammar only. PT1 noted that she liked to read through while writing but made the most corrections at the end of her writing process. She stated that she particularly focused on the content and syntax when re-reading her text. PT2, on the other hand, did not focus on content but only on syntax. When asked why, he stated that because he also took an extra step in translating his ideas, he felt that content wise he would have heeded any discrepancies during that stage and would have distinguished them long before coming to the end of the writing process.

When asked about their post-writing strategy use in L1 writing tasks, both participants noted that they only re-read at the end of their writing process, but they do not focus on syntax or lexis but rather on the content. PT2 noted that he seldom makes any changes or edits to his L1 texts when re-reading at the end.

Table 17: The post-writing strategies used by Turkish speaking participants

	L1 (Turkish)	**L2 (English)**
PT1	- only re-reads at the end, checks content	- re-reads at the end, checks grammar, punctuation and flow of ideas
PT2	- only re-reads at the end, checks content	- re-reads at the end, checks spelling and grammar

Russian Speaking Participants

The Russian speaking participants were very different in terms of their post-writing strategy usage. When writing in English, PR1 usually read as he went along but also reread at the end to check the flow of the ideas. When asked about his post-writing strategy usage after completing a writing task, in his response, he noted that he hadn't done many writing tasks in his native language, but if he were to do so, he would probably just read through once at the end in order to make sure that the information written was cohesive.

PR2 noted that he only read through once at the end of his writing process and during this re-read he checked the ideas and details to make sure they were relevant. His most common form of editing a re-read was deletion. In terms of his L1, PR2 gave a similar response to PR1 in that he didn't have a lot of experience writing texts in Russian, but he did state that if he were to re-read his text, he would check the content of the text rather than the structure in terms of grammar or relevancy of the vocabulary used.

Table 18: The post-writing strategies used by Russian speaking participants

	L1 (Russian)	**L2 (English)**
PR1	- reads at the end, check relevance of information	- reads at the end to check flow of ideas
PR2	- reads at the end to check the content rather than the grammar and relevancy of the vocabulary used	- reads at the end checking content and relevance of information

Native English Participants

The native English speaking participants had very different post-writing strategy use habits. PE1 is very goal-oriented and likes to check through her work both while writing and at the end of her writing process. Due to her good command of the English

language, she only checks the content and the tone of what she has written when she is rereading her text. When asked why she didn't check lexis or syntax, she responded that she was confident in her ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. Furthermore, she had a good plan with important vocabulary noted down to help her keep track of what she is writing. Therefore, the only aspect of her writing that she intended to go over was the tone of what she was writing and the relevance of the content she had created.

PE2 on the other hand was extremely relaxed in this manner. He didn't read through while writing nor even at the completion of his writing process. Therefore, it is possible to say that he didn't employ any post-writing or rather editing/revising strategies.

Table 19: The post-writing strategies used by Native English participants

	L1 (English)	**L2 -**
PE1	re-reads at the end and checked tone and content	N/A
PE2	no employed strategies	N/A

4.2 Use of L1 in L2 Writing Tasks

An important focus of this study was to observe the use of L1 while writing in L2 to complete a specific writing task. For this study, individuals with different L1s were chosen for the purpose of being able to make a comparison at the end. This topic was analysed in two main sub-categories. These were 1) searching for vocabulary during the think aloud session, and 2) self-correction of grammar/sentence structure while writing. Information regarding how and which of these strategies the different L1 speakers employed can be found below.

Arabic Speaking Participants

In terms of L1 use, PA1 generally used his native language of Arabic to search for appropriate vocabulary. To give an example, PA1 had around six instances in which he searches for a word as below:

> People can be… what's the English word for "talented" (instead of the word in quotation marks, PA1 used the Arabic word for talented in his think-aloud recording - الموهوب)?

PA1 was confident with his syntax in terms of essay writing and creative writing. Therefore, when analysing his transcriptions, there were no instances of any self-corrections of grammar. He does have grammar errors in his writing such as "Nobody like him". However, he did not correct these or use his L1 to find parallel structures while writing.

PA2, on the other hand, used his L1 to find parallel structures in terms of grammar. To give an example:

> 'Talent is gifts individuals have from birth.' This doesn't sound right. I think I need to use 'talents are gifts'. Talents should be plural.

While translating from his L1, PA2 used this sentence "هايا هي المواهب." which according to Google Translate translates as "talent is gifts". Because of his good level of English, PA2 was able to identify that he couldn't use the direct translation of the phrase he had come up with in his native language. Thus, he self-corrected the grammar.

French Speaking Participants

The French speaking participants used their native language for assistance in terms of both searching for vocabulary and self-correction of grammar. PF1 in particular was aware of the differences between French and English. He had stated that in French when you give your age you say “J’ai vingt ans” which literally would translate as “I have twenty years”. Because of this knowledge, he understood that if he wanted to transfer a sentence he had come up with in French into English, he would need to make adjustments. An example of a correction he made is:

> …I want to say “bien déterminé de la vie” but if I translate directly this will be “well determined of life”. It shouldn’t be “of”. What word do I use here instead? At? On? No, in. Yes, I need to use “in”. So well determined in life.

Also, PF1 used French as a means of finding the necessary vocabulary for the completion of the writing task. For instance, he uttered the following:

> … What was “meilleur” in English? Good, better… I can’t remember. Best! Yes, meilleur is best.

PF2 used French in a similar fashion to PF1. She searched for vocabulary equivalents in a similar manner to PF1.

> Hmm, comment dire "talent" en anglais? Let me look i t up. Ah , here it is: "talent." I will use that word dans mon essay.

She also self-corrected her grammar in much the same way as PF1.

> Je dois utiliser "I am persuaded" instead of "je suis persuadé" pour rendre cela clair et précis en anglais. (I have to use “I am convinced” instead of “I’m convincing” to make this clear and accurate in English.

Turkish Speaking Participants

Similar to the French speaking participants, the Turkish speaking participants also used their native language of Turkish to help them in terms of finding relevant vocabulary and corrections of grammar. With PT2 being a translator, it is unsurprising that he would make use of his L1 throughout the writing process. He particularly used his L1 to search for words as such:

> İnsanlar yetenekli doğar demek istiyorum. (I want to say people are born talented.) If I do a direct translation then my sentence will be "people talented born." Let's fix this to say "people are born talented."

In a similar way, PT1 also used translation as a means to convey her message while focusing on the grammatical structure and correcting it.

> …bana sorulsa insanlar yetenekli mi doğar diye ben evet cevabını verirdim. (If someone were to ask me whether someone is born with talent, I would say yes.) How can I say this in English? "If I were asked" no this sounds too translated and unnatural. "If someone asked me", this is a little informal. "If someone were to ask me…" yes, this is good.

In the excerpt above, it can be seen that PT1 struggled with the third conditional due to the nature of Turkish. However, through self-correction, she found a similar structure in English to convey her message.

In terms of vocabulary, PT1 searched for equivalent phrases in Turkish and English. For instance, she searched for the English of the words "şahsen personally", "yetenek – talent", and "yorumlamak – interpret".

PT2 also used his L1 in the same manner. PT2 had previously stated that due to him being a translator, he would note down phrases and words that he wanted to use and

later translate them and add them into his written text. When writing he searched for the English of the words “tarih – history”, “daha yetenekli – more talented”, and “ulaşmak – reach”.

Russian Speaking Participants

In terms of the Russian speaking participants, PR1 only focused on grammar corrections through the use of his L1 and PR2 only focused on vocabulary corrections and searches. For instance, PR1 said:

> “…Люди, которые начинают плохо - people who start not good”, no this is not right, I need to fix that.

According to Google Translate, the phrase above translates as “people who start badly”. However, word for word translation led to the phrase “people who start not good”.

PR2 focused on vocabulary instead of grammar. He uttered the following:

> Как сказать "проявил свой" на английском? Я поищу. Ah, вот: "demonstrated this." Я использовать это выражение в моем эссе. (How do you say "showed" in English? I'll look for. Ah, here it is: "demonstrated this." I use this expression in my essay.)

Native English Participants

The native English speakers both focused on vocabulary and didn’t give much importance to sentence structure as this came naturally to them. Both of their focus on terms of vocabulary was finding academic sounding “fancy words”. This can be seen in an extract from the think-aloud session transcription of PE1 in which she says:

> Talent shouldn't be viewed as a fixed quality. Abilities are shaped by contextual influences. Genetic predispositions and intentional practice. Oh you can never have enough big words.

Along with PE1, PE2 was also focused on the vocabulary aspect of writing. This can be seen in an extract from his think-aloud session transcription in which he utters:

> …and by doing this we release potential and enable this to go beyond their initial limitations. I don't like the word "go" there. Let's change that to…ermm..thrive! By doing this we release potential and enable this to thrive beyond their initial limitations. That sounds pompous. I like it.

4.2.2 Overall L1 Use

As can be understood from the information given above, there were two main categories in which the participants were focused when writing. These were finding the correct vocabulary and self correction of grammar. They used their L1 as a tool to search for vocabulary in that they would come up with a sentence in their L1 and attempt to transfer the same message or tone into the L2, this being English. In the same way, the participants were generally aware of the grammatical differences between their L1 and L2. Hence, when they did a direct translation of a sentence conducted in their L1, they would do a quick check and correct the necessary parts. This was sometimes prepositions, sometimes sentence structure subject-verb-object. The figure below shows how many of the participants focused solely on vocabulary, how many solely on grammar and how many on a combination of both.

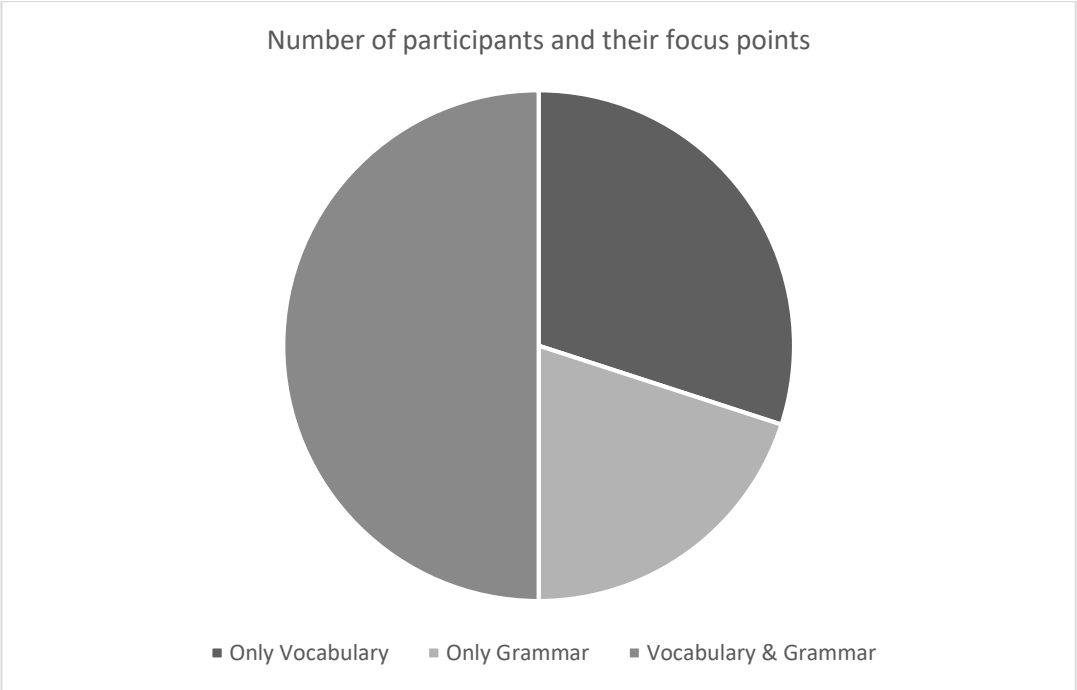

Figure 3: The focus points in terms of participants' L1 use while writing in an L2 task

4.3 L1 A Useful Tool or Not?

At the end of their writing process and editing processes, the participants were asked whether they thought thinking in their L1 had facilitated their writing process or not. Eight of the participants stated that it had not helped them because they were not used to thinking in their native language while writing in a different language. They were used to thinking in English and writing in English. One participant compared English and his native language to football and tennis. He stated:

> It was like trying to follow tennis' rules while playing football. I found it very difficult. (PA1)

Another participant (PT1) commented that she felt like she was losing her English while trying to think in her native language. She stated that she started off well, but

around mid-way she felt completely lost because she was not used to thinking in her native language while writing in English.

A different participant (PF1) stated that thinking in his native language was not very useful or a strategy that he will use in the future because he already struggled with the sentence structure of English. Thus, trying to think of ideas and sentences in his native language almost pushed him to make direct translations which he had to work very hard against when he first started learning English. Despite being aware of the differences between his native language and English, he found himself being tempted to make direct translations.

Another participant (PF2) also commented that using her native language felt like it limited her ideas and the flow of her writing. She felt a pressure to do translation while writing which felt very constricting as it is a process she is neither familiar with nor used to.

Two of the participants (PT2 and PR2), however, felt that using their L1 was beneficial. One of these participants (PT2) was a professional translator. Therefore, he was used to thinking in one language and producing a text in another. When his transcription of the think-aloud session is analysed, his structuring can be seen to be uttering a sentence in his native language, then consecutively translating that sentence correctly using the target grammar of English. The other participant (PR2) was one who was used to doing research in his native language and transferring ideas into English. For him, it was not a matter of just translation but rather translation along with paraphrasing and summarising. He used his native language as a beneficial research tool.

The figure below (Figure 4.6) shows a pie chart summary of the number of participants who found using their L1 useful and those who did not.

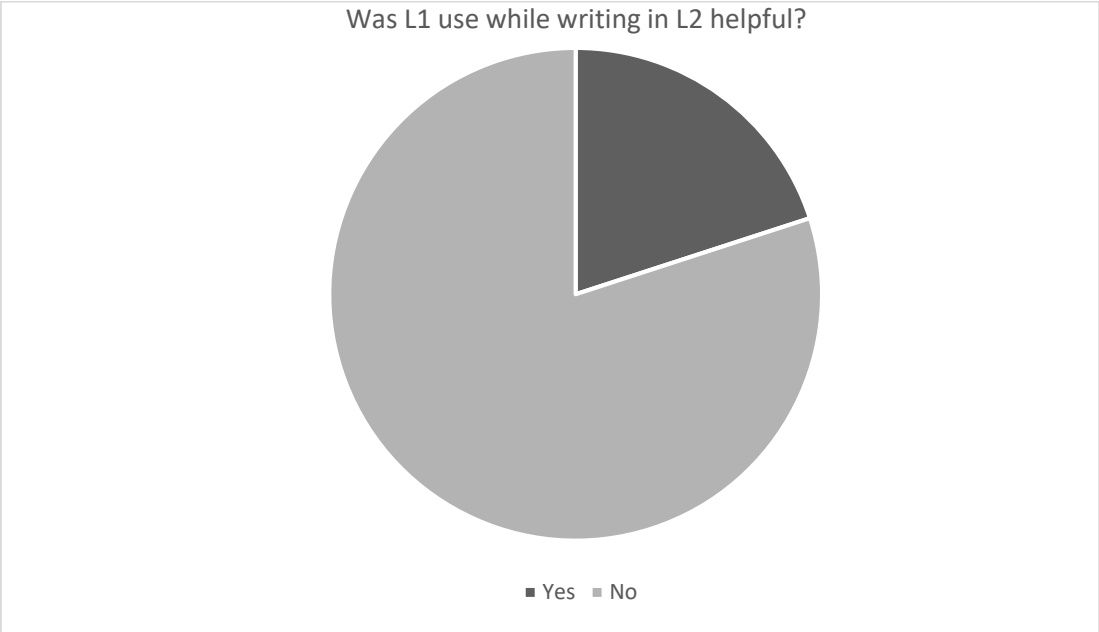

Figure 4: The usefulness of L1 as a tool when writing in L2 according to participants

4.4 Summary

In this chapter the two research questions of the study were attempted to be answered through a detailed analysis of the responses the participants had given to the questionnaires, retrospective interviews and think-aloud sessions. The data was analysed in terms of language pairs and common themes were attempted to be distinguished. The participants' responses were grouped under three sub-categories in relation with the first research question attempting to find information on the preferred writing strategies individuals with different L1s employ. These sub-categories were i) pre-writing strategies, ii) while-writing strategies, and iii) post-writing strategies. In line with the second research question analysing the use of L1 as a writing strategy, the responses were categorised into two. These categories were i) searching for vocabulary, and ii) self-correction of grammatical structures. The responses were

categorised in the correct sections and common themes were identified. In the following chapter, the discussion of these findings will be presented along with their implications to writing instruction.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a comprehensive examination of the study, including a detailed analysis of the primary findings pertaining to the writing strategies employed by students, as well as the utilisation of the first language (L1) as a writing technique in second language (L2) writing. This chapter also examines potential disparities in the utilisation of writing methods and writing habits among students with varying first languages (L1s) and native English speakers. The chapter delves into the practical consequences, potential avenues for further research, and the constraints inherent in the study.

5.1 Overview of the Study

In this study, a questionnaire and retrospective interview questions which were both prepared by the researcher were used in line with a think-aloud protocol during writing tasks in order to determine the writing strategies employed by students and whether they used their L1 as a writing strategy. In order to attain results, the researcher collected data using three different instruments without directly asking the research questions to the participants while trying to obtain detailed data. The researcher then compiled a list of possible writing strategies using Mu's (2005) list of writing strategies compiled through a synthesis of previous research in the area. Along with the writing strategies determined by Mu (2005), the use of L1 as a writing strategy was also investigated. Therefore, in line with this information, the following two research questions were attempted to be answered:

1. What writing strategies do university students with different L1s use while writing in L2 (English)?
2. How do students make use of their L1 when writing in L2 tasks?

The researcher also compared the responses of the bilingual participants with those of the native English participants.

5.2 Discussion of the Major Findings

This study's findings shed light on the diverse writing strategies employed by university students from diverse L1 backgrounds when writing in L2, highlighting the potential influence of L1 on L2 writing performance. In addition, this study demonstrated how students utilise their L1 knowledge and skills to facilitate their L2 writing process.

When considering the writing strategies that the participants made use of, in this analysis the three sub-categories used were pre-, while and post-writing. It would also be possible to categories the writing strategies that they used in line with cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Namely, the strategies used were:

a. Planning
b. Resourcing
c. Generating ideas
d. Rationalising format
e. Defining terms
f. Use of L1
g. Brainstorming
h. Re-reading.

Based on the distinction provided by Wenden (1991), the participants used mostly cognitive strategies with only planning and brainstorming being metacognitive strategies and the rest being cognitive.

Similar to the findings of the study conducted by Maarof and Murat (2013) in which they investigated the writing strategies used by ESL students in Upper Secondary School, the participants of the current study mostly used while-writing strategies, only employing a few strategies pre- and post-writing. Although Maarof and Murat (2013) focused on different proficiency levels, this study was focused more on different L1s. However, the findings suggest that lower levels of proficiency also has an impact on the writing strategy chosen. Interestingly, the findings show that the higher the level, the more organised the individual is in all stages of the writing process. For instance, PE1 who was a native speaker made extensive plans, re-read often and did a final check at the end. PR2, on the other hand, who had intermediate level English, did almost no planning and did not employ any post-writing strategies. Nevertheless, the focus of this study was based on different L1s. The findings show that regardless of the L1 the participants had, they generally did not use writing strategies when writing in their L1. This could be based on two reasons. The first can be that they are confident in their native language level and feel they can spontaneously write; therefore, they do not require the help of a plan or they do not need to edit at the end of their writing process. The second reason can also be due to the type of task. Most participants commented that they had almost never had to do an academic writing task in their native language before. Thus, they felt unfamiliar with the process. Interestingly, they did not transfer their writing process from L2 to L1. Berman (1994) conducted a study in which the transfer of writing skills between languages was researched. The study

constituted of three groups, one received writing skills lessons in English, the other in the L1 which in this context was Icelandic and the third group received no such teaching. His study found that many ESL students may have the grammatical proficiency that enables a transfer of knowledge between the languages. They were able to transmit these English-learned skills to their L1 writing. These findings contradict with those of this study as the findings in this study show that no matter capabilities and proficiency levels of the participants' L2, they almost never transferred their writing strategy use to their L1. Particularly in the pre- and post-writing stages.

Another point to consider in this study is the differences in writing strategy use between the native speakers and the non-native speakers. In the study there were two native English speakers and two native-like speakers with the other six participants being non-native learners of English. When considering the pre-writing strategies, three of the native and native-like participants created plans before beginning to write. However, their purpose for planning was different to non-native participants. While the non-natives focused on finding structures and vocabulary using bilingual dictionaries or translation tools, the native and native-like participants focused more on finding information as well as supporting and main ideas. When searching for vocabulary they mostly used thesaurus instead of bilingual tools. In the while-writing stage, similar to the non-native speakers, the native participants made use of their plan in almost the same why. Post-writing, the native speakers checked more the flow of ideas and the tone while the non-native participants focused more on the form, grammar and appropriateness of the lexical choices they had made throughout their process.

To summarise the findings related to the first research question concerning writing strategies, it is possible to say that students use more writing strategies when writing in L2. They do, however, use a limited amount of writing strategies when writing in their L1, but they are not as comprehensive as those they use when writing in English. Furthermore, there are differences in the purpose of the writing strategies used between native speakers and non-native speakers with non-native speakers focusing more on the form of their writing while the native speakers focus more on the content of their writing.

In terms of the second research question analysed within the scope of this study, the use of the L1 in the writing process was also researched. In the pre-writing stage, only two of the participants used a translation tool or bilingual dictionary with the purpose of finding necessary vocabulary. Interestingly, both of these participants were Congolese with their native language being French. None of the participants used translation in their pre-writing stage when producing a text in their native language. While writing, four of the participants used translation and two of these participants used a back-translation technique to check the correctness of their formulated sentences. One of these participants was a French speaker. When grammatically analysed, it can be possible to say that when an English sentence is back-translated into French, there will not be big grammatical mistakes due to a similarity in sentence structure in its most basic form (SVO). The other participant making use of back-translation was experienced in the field of translation. Therefore, he could pinpoint the points that may need to be fixed. None of the participants made use of translation tools or their L1s in the post-writing stage.

When the participants were asked whether they found thinking in their L1 to facilitate their writing process, their general response was that it was more debilitating than facilitating. The participants noted they were not used to thinking in their L1 and producing in L2. Thus, they struggled to make a connection between the two languages. This finding falls in contradiction with Lay's (1982) study in first language assisting English writing production. In her study, Lay (1982) analysed the use of L1 of four Chinese students. According to Lay, her subjects' first language served as an aid and not a hindrance to writing, as they used Chinese when they were stuck in English, for instance to locate a key word. Lay (1982) observes that the quality of essays in terms of organisation and concepts improves in proportion to the number of switches into the native tongue. Contrary to Lay's (1982) findings, the participants of this study noted that the usage of their L1 made them feel like they were losing their English knowledge. However, Lay (1982) discusses circumstances that necessitate the use of the native tongue. She contends that at certain stages of language development, the first language is more probable and useful. As writers acquire more English, such use of their native tongue would decline. This could explain why the participants in this study did not feel the use of their L1 as beneficial. The participants were all minimum intermediate level which is a level in which individuals can produce texts without relying too much on their L1. In the CEFR, intermediate level is also known as the independent user level.

Translanguaging was also a main point of research in this study. Translanguaging is a focus on how the user switches between the two or more languages that he or she is proficient in. Throughout this study, it was observed that the participants had struggled to use just one language to think and generate ideas in and to write in another language.

This shows that in terms of translanguage, when limited, participants struggled to use the language that they are most familiar with. This idea is supported by Vogel and Garcia (2017) who state that the idea of translanguaging postulates that individuals possess a unified language repertoire consisting of distinct elements that are consciously chosen and utilised within various contextual settings. The fact that this study was specifically designed to limit this utilisation was an indirect way of seeing how much translanguaging comes into play throughout language use. The study limited the participants in the sense that it encouraged the participants to use their L1 in their thinking process during the think-aloud procedure. That is to say, the participants were prompted to generate ideas and work through the writing process while making use of their L1 while writing in L2.

In a study conducted by Bai, Hu and Gu (2013), the relationship between the frequency of writing strategy use and proficiency level was observed. Similar to the findings of this study, it was found that students with lower levels of proficiency used more writing strategies. Also, similar again to this conducted study, it was found that planning as a writing strategy was used by all participants regardless of proficiency level in English. Furthermore, as mentioned in the study conducted by Bai, Hu and Gu (2013), the higher proficiency groups tended to use planning and idea-generating strategies just as the participants of this current study had done, namely the native and native-like speakers.

Additionally, Mastan, Maarof and Embi (2017) conducted a study in which they compared the quality of the written texts prior to writing strategy instruction and then after the instruction. The results indicate that the implementation of the writing strategy training led to enhancements in the writing skills of intermediate-level ESL

learners. This phenomenon is apparent in the essays written by the learners during the post-test, as they were able to produce lengthier and more significant sentences by employing the right transition words that were taught in the instruction on writing strategies. Furthermore, the participants demonstrated the ability to formulate topic sentences and furnish them with relevant supporting elements, a skill that was lacking in the essays submitted during the pre-test phase. The outcomes of this study are consistent with previous research that had shown that learners who received explicit training on strategies created higher quality writings. In addition, this study supports the claim in this thesis that writing strategy instruction is an important point that needs to be incorporated in writing courses.

5.3 Implications for Practice

The findings of this study suggest that students do not prefer to make use of their L1 while writing. This could be due to the participants' levels of English making the use of their L1 as a writing strategy unnecessary or due to the fact that they are not sure how to do this.

Based on the findings of this study, it is possible to say that students do not make use of pre- and post-writing strategies as much as they make use of while-writing strategies. Therefore, instructors can actively teach planning steps as well as editing steps to further improve student writing. Based on their responses to the use of L1 as a writing strategy, it can be interpreted that perhaps students are unaware of how to actually make use of their L1 as a writing strategy. This could be something that is actively taught to students. Based on previous studies conducted by Chelala (1981), Johnson (1985), Jones and Tetroe (1987), and Lay (1982), the use of L1 can be

beneficial to the writing process. Perhaps students are unaware of the benefits of this as their background may have been focused on limiting the use of L1.

5.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The study was conducted based on a voluntary basis. The data collected was through questionnaires, think aloud protocols and interviews. It is assumed that the participants gave honest responses to the asked questions. The study was confined to one university and students of one SOFL102 class. The study can be repeated in other universities with students taking compulsory English (generally known as ENG101) courses in other private and public universities with students from more than one group. Only the student views were considered in this study, thus, teacher views could also be considered in further research.

The participant size of this study was ten with five different L1s. The study can be repeated with more participants representing each language to further get an idea of the uses of L1. Furthermore, different proficiency levels could also be analysed. For instance ten French speakers with varying proficiency levels of English can be analysed.

This study lasted two weeks due to limitations of time based on late responses of the respective ethics committees. Thus, in order to make sure adequate data could be collected before the semester was completed, the study had to be confined to two weeks. A similar study could be conducted over a longer period of time.

In this study only writing strategies were considered. Further research can be done with similar participant profiles while focusing on different skills such as reading, listening and speaking and the use of L1 in these areas.

The context of this study was in an Art University with art students. A similar study can be conducted in a technical university with students in different technical related departments. And finally, only French, English, Russian, Arabic and Turkish language users were involved in this study. A similar research can be conducted with L1 users such as Spanish, Chinese, Icelandic etc.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A : Petition to Department (EMU)

To: Chair, Department of Foreign Language Education

From: Bediz Çeliker (St. No:21505014)

Date: 27/03/2023

Permission Request

I am Bediz Çeliker enrolled in the MA in the ELT Program. I am conducting my MA study entitled *"*Investigating the Second Language (L2) Writing Strategies of University Students with Different First Languages (L1s)*"* under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Ülker Vancı Osam.

In order to start the data collection procedures, I need to get approval from the Ethics Board. Therefore, I kindly request you to initiate the 'Research Ethics Eligibility' process of my research study.

Sincerely yours,

Bediz Çeliker

E-mail : bedizceliker1@gmail.com

Phone : 05338329324

Attachments:

1. BAYEK application form
2. Appendix A – Questionnaire
3. Appendix B – Think-aloud Protocol Procedure Details
4. Appendix C – Retrospective Interview Questions
5. Appendix D – Consent Letter

Appendix B : Petition to Ethics Committee (ARUCAD)

To: The Chair of the Ethics Committee of ARUCAD

From: Bediz Çeliker (St. No:21505014)

Date: 07/04/2023

Permission Request

I am Bediz Çeliker enrolled in the MA program in the ELT department of the Eastern Mediterranean University. I am conducting my MA study entitled *"*Investigating the Second Language (L2) Writing Strategies of University Students with Different First Languages (L1s)*"* under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Ülker Vancı Osam. Due to its wide portfolio of international students, I would like to conduct my research at Arkın University of Creative Arts and Design

In order to start the data collection procedures, I need to get approval from the Ethics Board. Therefore, I kindly request you to initiate the 'Research Ethics Eligibility' process of my research study.

Sincerely yours,

Bediz Çeliker

E-mail : bedizceliker1@gmail.com

Phone : 05338329324

Attachments:

6. Ethics Committee application form
7. Appendix A – Questionnaire
8. Appendix B – Think-aloud Protocol Procedure Details
9. Appendix C – Retrospective Interview Questions
10. Appendix D – Consent Lettee

Appendix C : Letter of Approval (EMU)

EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES ETHICS SUB-COMMITTEE

Reference No: ETK00-2023-0108 30.05.2023

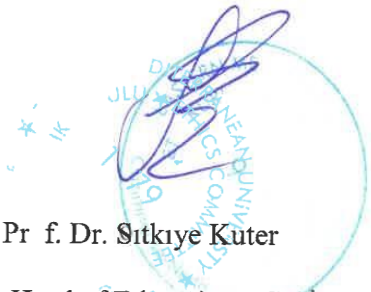
Subject: Application for Ethical Approval

Dear: Bediz Çeliker (21505014)

Your application regarding your master's thesis on "Investigating the Second Language (L2) Writing Strategies of University Students with Different First Languages (L1s)" under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Ülker Vancı Osam at Eastern Mediterranean University has been examined and approved in the meeting, dated 25.05.2023 and numbered 2023/137, by the Educational Sciences Ethics Sub-Committee at Eastern Mediterranean University.

I wish you success in your work

Regards



Pr f. Dr. Sıtkıye Kuter

Head of Educati Sciences Ethics Sub-committee

Appendix D: Letter of Approval (ARUCAD)

ARUCAD
Arkin University
of Creative Arts and Design

ETİK KURUL

15.5.2023

Sayı: EK/2022-2023/003

Konu: Bediz Çeliker Araştırma İzni İsteği hk.

Rektörlük Makamına,

Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi ELT Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Bediz Çeliker, Prof. Dr. Ülker Vancı Osam'ın danışmanlığında hazırlamakta olduğu tezinin gereği olarak üniversitemizde SOFL102 Academic English 2 dersi almakta olan 10 öğrenciye hazırlamış olduğu anketi uygulamak için izin istemektedir.

Olurlarınıza arz ederim.

UYGUNDUR
15.05.2023
Prof. Dr. Asım VEHBİ
Rektör

Saygılarımla

Prof. Dr. Burcu TOKER

Etik Kurul Başkanı

EK : Bediz Çeliker'in Başvuru Dosyası

Şair Nedim Street No: 11, Kyrenia (via Mersin-10, Turkey), 99300, North Cyprus
P. +90 (392) 650 65 55 | E. info@arucad.edu.tr
arucad.edu.tr

Appendix E : Questionnaire for Information Collection of Participants

1	What is your native language?	…….					
2	How long have you been learning English? Circle your answer	1-3 years	4-7 years	8-10 years	11-14 years	15+ years	
3	What is your level of English? Circle your answer	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
4	What types of texts do you generally write in your native language? (Choose all that are applicable to you) Circle your answers	e-mails letters blogs essays poems reports research papers Other:……	text messages notes articles creative writing				
5	What types of texts do you generally write in English? (Choose all that are applicable to you) Circle your answers	e-mails letters blogs essays poems reports research papers Other:……	text messages notes articles creative writing				
6	Do you like writing in your native language? Circle your answer	I don't like it at all	I don't like it	I don't mind it	I like it	I love it	

7	Do you like writing in English? Circle your answer	I don't like it at all	I don't like it	I don't mind it	I like it	I love it
8	What steps do you normally take before beginning a writing task in your native language? (Choose all that are applicable to you) Circle your answers	Planning Researching Information Drafting Checking vocabulary Using a translation tool Using a dictionary Brainstorming Discussion Begin writing without any planning Begin writing without any research of information and vocabulary Other:……				
9	What steps do you normally take before beginning a writing task in English? (Choose all that are applicable to you) Circle your answers	Planning Researching Information Drafting Checking vocabulary Using a translation tool Using a dictionary Brainstorming Discussion Begin writing without any planning Begin writing without any research of information and vocabulary Other:……				
10	What do you focus on when/if planning before a writing task in your native language? (Choose all that are applicable to you) Circle your answers	Finding relevant information Finding the necessary vocabulary Becoming familiar with the format needed for the writing task Finding the main ideas to be written about Finding relevant examples Finding relevant supporting details Other:……				
11	What do you focus on when/if planning before a writing task in English? (Choose all that are applicable to you) Circle your answers	Finding relevant information Finding the necessary vocabulary Becoming familiar with the format needed for the writing task Finding the main ideas to be written about Finding relevant examples				

		Finding relevant supporting details Other:……	
12	Rank the tasks that you feel are the easiest to the most difficult in your native language with 1 being the easiest and 10 being the most difficult	e-mails ☐ letters ☐ blogs ☐ essays ☐ poems ☐ reports ☐ research papers ☐	text messages ☐ notes ☐ articles ☐ creative writing ☐
13	Rank the tasks that you feel are the easiest to the most difficult in English with 1 being the easiest and 10 being the most difficult	e-mails ☐ letters ☐ blogs ☐ essays ☐ poems ☐ reports ☐ research papers ☐	text messages ☐ notes ☐ articles ☐ creative writing ☐

Appendix F : Retrospective Interview Questions

1) Was there anything that you paid particular attention to when writing in English such as vocabulary, structure, relevance of information etc.?
2) What did you do before starting to write in English?
3) Can you describe what you did during the writing process?
4) What did you do when you finished your writing process?
5) How did you feel about this type of writing task?
6) Would your process be different if you were doing a similar task in your native language?
7) Did thinking and using your native language help or slow down your writing process? Can you explain how?

Appendix G : Guidelines for Think-Aloud Protocol

Setting

The think-aloud step of the research will take place in a computer lab. All participants will be taken to the lab and given headphones with microphones where they can record their thinking aloud process.

Instructions

The instructions to be given for the think-aloud step is relatively simple. It will be along the lines of "answer the question with an argumentative essay of around 250-300 words but while doing so please verbalise your thoughts out loud" for the first task, and "write a story of 100-150 words on the given topic while verbalising your thoughts out loud" for the second task.

Behaviour of the researcher

The researcher will initially try to create a good rapport with the participants to help them feel more at ease so they will not be embarassed to explain their thinking process. The researcher will demonstrate using a reading activity how she wants the students to perform their writing tasks. Once the participants begin their tasks, the researcher will only speak if the participants become quite and that will be prompts such as "keep on talking" or "continue thinking out loud". The researcher will not correct the participants or offer assistance for word selections or grammar topics.

Recording

The sessions will be audio recorded on the computers within the computer lab. Initially, the participants will be asked to perform a short trial to test the equipment. When all is fine, the participants will be asked to begin their recordings on the computers and to speak into their microphones. The participants will be instructed that the recordings should not be paused or stopped until the task is finished. Once the participants have completed the tasks, the researcher will collect all of the audio recordings on a password protected USB flash drive.

Appendix H : Participant Consent Letter

Dear Participant,

I am an MA student and currently working on my thesis entitled "*Investigating the Second Language (L2) Writing Strategies of University Students with Different First Languages (L1s)".* I need your ideas and thoughts to investigate this topic in depth. Please take a few minutes to read the following information on this research carefully before you agree to participate. **If at any time you have a question regarding the study, please feel free to ask the researcher who will provide more information.**

The goal of my research is to investigate **the usage of L1 of international students in L2 writing tasks.** You are being kindly asked to take part in this study as you are an ideal candidate for the research, being an international student and one with a different first language to English. There will be three phases in the study.

The first phase will be answering a short questionnaire with 13 items about your writing strategies in your mother tongue and English; it will take only 5 minutes as you will be just ticking options.

In the second phase there will be two writing tasks, one academic writing and one creative writing which you will have around 60 minutes to complete. During the writing task you will be asked to fulfill a think-aloud protocol which is fundamentally verbalizing your thinking process while you complete the writing tasks. This step will be audio recorded to be translated later into English.

Straight after the writing tasks there will be an interview in English. This will last about 10 minutes. The interview will be recorded and a transcript will be produced and shared with you later to check for accuracy. All of the data from the interview you take part in will be treated and stored confidentially. Any summary interview content or direct quotations from the interview that are made available through academic publication or other academic outlets will be anonymized so that you cannot be identified, and care will be taken to ensure that other information in the interview that could identify yourself are not revealed.

Of course, you are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason. In this case, all of your responses will be destroyed and omitted from the research. If you agree to participate in and complete the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated

confidentially. Your participation and performance in this study will not have any negative influence in your course grade at all.

Thank you for reading this. If you have any queries about this research, please feel free to contact me or the thesis supervisor. If you are willing to take part in the study, please sign the consent form. Thank you for your participation and cooperation.

Ms. Bediz Çeliker
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✂ ----------

Consent Form

Please circle your answers:

1. I have been properly informed about the objectives and procedures of the interview. **Yes / No**
2. I understand the information for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions. **Yes / No**
3. I agree to take part in the above study **Yes / No**
4. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw at any time. **Yes / No**
5. I agree to interviews being recorded. **Yes / No**

Name, Surname : ---------- Your Pseudo Name (Optional): ----------

Signature: ---------- Date : ----------