

**A ROTTEN APPLE SPOILS THE BARREL: CAUSE MARKERS
EMPLOYED BY NATIVE SPEAKERS OF TURKISH WHEN WRITING
CAUSE PARAGRAPHS IN ENGLISH AND TURKISH**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE BOARD OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY, NORTHERN CYPRUS
CAMPUS**

BY

ÇİĞDEM ULUÇAY

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

JUNE 2014

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. M. Tanju Mehmetođlu
Chairperson

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

Assist. Prof. Dr. Scott Boyd
Program Coordinator

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. iler Hatipođlu
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Assist. Prof. Dr. Sonu Dimililer Girne American University/ELT _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. iler Hatipođlu METU NCC / TEFL _____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Nur Yiđitođlu METU NCC / TEFL _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name : ıđdem ULUÇAY

Signature :

ABSTRACT

A ROTTEN APPLE SPOILS THE BARREL: CAUSE MARKERS EMPLOYED
BY NATIVE SPEAKERS OF TURKISH WHEN WRITING CAUSE
PARAGRAPHS IN ENGLISH AND TURKISH

Çiğdem Uluçay

M.A., Department of English Language Teaching

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Çiler Hatipoğlu

June 2014, 181 pages

This study aims to identify and analyse the frequencies and functions of cause markers employed by native speakers of Turkish when writing cause paragraphs both in Turkish and English. It also examines whether the employment of the cause markers differs while writing in L1 versus L2 and whether or not the students have any problems while using the cause markers in English. The effect of teaching materials (input) on the written products of the participants (output) is also investigated. A number of studies examined the L2 writing habits/skills of native speakers of Turkish so far; however, as far as the author is aware, there is not a study focusing specifically on the cause paragraphs written by Turkish students in English yet. Therefore, this study is hoped to contribute to filling in the gap in the field.

The study was conducted with 63 participants attending the pre-intermediate level classes of METU NCC. Each participant was first asked to write a cause paragraph of about 150-180 words both in Turkish and in English, and then, to discuss the why and how of cause markers employed by them in their cause paragraphs. All of the paragraphs and the writing hand-out were coded, transcribed and analysed by using CLAN CHILDES program. The interviews were transcribed and the common topics in those were identified and examined.

As it describes the way Turkish students employ cause markers in their L1 and L2 compositions and identifies their weaknesses and the steps to be taken to create more natural paragraphs, the results of the present study provide invaluable suggestions to experts teaching writing in Turkish as L1 and L2, writing in English as a foreign language, preparing teaching materials and developing institution curricular.

Keywords: L2 writing, L1 writing, cause paragraphs, Turkish, English as a foreign language, linguistic devices of causality, teaching writing.

ÖZ

ÇÜRÜK ELMA YANINDAKİLERİ DE ÇÜRÜTÜR: ANADİLİ TÜRKÇE OLAN YAZARLAR TARAFINDAN TÜRKÇE VE İNGİLİZCE YAZILAN NEDEN PARAGRAFLARINDA KULLANILAN NEDENSELLİK YAPILARI

Çiğdem Uluçay

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Çiler Hatipoğlu

Haziran 2014, 181 sayfa

Bu çalışma anadili Türkçe olan kişilerin Türkçe ve İngilizce neden paragraflarında kullandıkları nedensellik yapılarının sıklığını ve işlevlerini belirlemeyi ve analiz etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu yapıların anadil ve ikinci dilde yazarken değişiklik gösterip göstermedikleri ve öğrencilerin İngilizce paragraf yazarken bu yapıları kullanmada sorun yaşayıp yaşamadıkları da incelenmektedir. Ayrıca, kullanılan öğretim materyallerinin katılımcıların yazılı ürünleri üzerindeki etkisi de araştırılmaktadır. Şimdiye kadar anadili Türkçe olan yazarların ikinci dildeki yazma becerileri/alışkanlıkları birçok çalışmada araştırılmıştır; ancak, yazarın bildiği kadarıyla, henüz Türk öğrencilerin yazdıkları İngilizce neden paragrafları üzerine yoğunlaşan bir çalışma yapılmamıştır. Bu sebeple, çalışmanın alandaki boşluğu doldurmaya yardımcı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Çalışma ODTÜ Kuzey Kıbrıs kampusu hazırlık programının orta-düzey öncesi sınıflarında eğitim gören 63 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcılardan, önce, Türkçe ve İngilizce 150-180 kelimelik birer neden paragrafı yazmaları istenmiştir. Tüm katılımcı paragrafları ve öğretimde kullanılan yazma materyali, CLANCHILDES programı ile kodlanıp yazılmış ve analiz edilmiştir. Paragraflar incelendikten sonra katılımcılara paragraflarındaki nedensellik yapılarını neden/hangi amaçla kullandıkları sorulmuş ve yapılan mülakatlardaki ortak konular belirlenip incelenmiştir.

Çalışmanın, Türk öğrencilerin nedensellik yapılarını anadil ve ikinci dil yazımlarında nasıl kullandıklarını tanımlaması, eksiklikleri ve daha doğal paragraf yazımı için atılacak adımları belirlemesi beklendiğinden, sonuçların; anadil ve yabancı dil olarak Türkçe ya da ikinci dil olarak İngilizce yazım dersi veren, materyal hazırlayan ve müfredat geliştiren uzmanlara değerli öneriler sunduğu düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İkinci dilde yazım, anadilde yazım, Türkçe, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce, nedensellik yapıları, yazım öğretimi

To my never ending sources of inspiration:

Masal Naz and Ege Onat...

Hiç tükenmeyen ilham kaynaklarım

Masal Naz ve Ege Onat'a...

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are many people that I want to express my gratitude to.

First of all, and foremost, I am deeply grateful to my thesis advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Çiler Hatipođlu, not only for her visionary guidance and feedback all throughout the way, but also for being a perfect role model and a great source of inspiration for me. I truly appreciate her ever-lasting trust, encouragement, brightening laughs and invaluable advice. If it had not been for her, this thesis would have never been completed.

I want to take the opportunity to thank Assist. Prof. Dr. Sonu Dimililer and Assist. Prof. Dr. Nur Yiđitođlu for their valuable comments adding a new perspective to my study.

I also want to express my heartfelt thanks to all my lecturers, Prof. Dr. Meral ileli, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet Ok, Assist. Dr. Scott Boyd, Assist. Prof. Dr. A. Cendel Karaman, Assist. Dr. Mary Ann Walter, Dr. Alev zbilgin, Dr. Eda Iřık Tař, Dr. Gloria Gitlin, Dr. Eda Sun Selıřık, Instr. Nvit Tarhan, Instr. Steve Neufeld, and Instr. Derek Dowey for their contribution to my development as a researcher and a teacher.

I owe a special thanks to my dear husband Muhammed Uluay for his constant support, never ending patience and precious technological assistance. I feel heartily indebted to him for making my life easier in each and every step of this challenging process.

I felt very lucky to have my dear friends Dilara Bidav, Gizem Gülbiçen and Ülgen Acar next to me, giving the motivation and emotional support all the way through. Even at the times when I felt hopeless and disappointed with my progress, they renewed my faith in myself.

Last but not the least; my warmest thanks go to my wonderful family: my parents Hülya and İlhan Özyavru, and my sisters Burcu Yalçın, Tuğba Şık and Nadide Özyavru for being great sources of love and encouragement from the first day till the end. They have always made me feel that I would never be alone in this world.

Thank you all!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xvii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Presentation	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 The Aim, Scope, and Significance of the Study	7
1.3 Definition of Key Terms	9
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.0 Presentation	11
2.1 Second Language Writing	11
2.2 Writing in Turkish: Instruction and Skills/Habits	12
2.3 English Writing in the Turkish Context: Instruction and Skills/Habits	17
2.4 English Cause paragraphs and Cause Markers	21
2.5 Turkish Cause Paragraphs and Cause Markers	23
3. METHOD OF RESEARCH	25
3.0 Presentation	25
3.1 Research Questions	25
3.2 The Setting and the Participants.....	26
3.2.1 The Setting	26
3.2.2 The Participants	28
3.3 The Data Collection Tools and the Procedure.....	32
3.3.1 Background Questionnaire	32

3.3.2	Compositions in Turkish and English	33
3.3.3	The Writing Handout	35
3.3.4	Semi-structured Interviews	35
3.4	Data Analysis	37
4.	RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	41
4.0	Presentation	41
4.1	The Cause Markers Employed in the Turkish Paragraphs	41
4.1.1	Nouns	46
4.1.2	Connectives	48
4.1.3	Postpositions	52
4.1.4	Verbs	55
4.1.5	Suffixes	57
4.1.6	Adjectivals	59
4.2	The Cause Markers Employed in the English Paragraphs	59
4.2.1	Nouns	61
4.2.2	Conjunctions	63
4.2.3	Complex Prepositions	65
4.2.4	Prepositions	68
4.2.5	Verbs	69
4.2.6	Adjective Phrases	72
4.3	A Comparison of the Cause Markers Employed in the Writing Handout, Expert Corpus and the English Paragraphs	73
4.3.1	Frequency and Use of English Cause Markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	73
4.3.1.1	Nouns	77
4.3.1.2	Conjunctions	78
4.3.1.3	Complex Prepositions	79
4.3.1.4	Prepositions	81
4.3.1.5	Verbs	82
4.3.1.6	Adjective Phrases	84
4.3.2	Comparison of the WHO, Expert Speaker Data and the Student English Paragraphs with Respect to English Cause Markers	84

4.3.2.1 Nouns	88
4.3.2.2 Conjunctions	89
4.3.2.3 Complex Prepositions	90
4.3.2.4 Prepositions	91
4.3.2.5 Verbs	94
4.3.2.6 Adjective Phrases	96
4.4 Interview Results: Student Perspective Concerning their L1 and L2 Writing Practices and Habits	97
4.4.1 Topics	97
4.4.2 Comparison of difficulty in L1 writing and L2 writing	98
4.4.3 Background education on L1 writing	100
4.4.4 Background education on L2 writing	104
4.4.5 The WHO	108
4.4.6. Repetition of the cause markers in student paragraphs	113
 5. CONCLUSIONS	
5.0 Presentation	114
5.1 Summary of the Design	114
5.2 Summary of the Results	116
5.3 Conclusions and Implications for the Language Teaching Field	119
5.4 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research	122
 APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A	140
APPENDIX B	142
APPENDIX C	143
APPENDIX D	144
APPENDIX E	145
APPENDIX F	159
APPENDIX G	164

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

2.1 Aims of the different expressions types in Turkish	24
3.1 Equivalency table for EPE, TOEFL and IELTS	27
4.1. Total and average number of words, and cause markers employed in the Turkish paragraphs	42
4.2 The specific cause markers under each category and example sentences	45
4.3 Total and average number of the words and cause markers in English and Turkish paragraphs	60
4.4 Types of cause-markers and their frequencies in SEP.....	60
4.5 Comparison of the verbs used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus	70
4.6 Total number of words, and of cause markers employed in the WHO	73
4.7 Types of cause-markers and their frequencies in the WHO	74
4.8 Comparison of the types of cause-markers and their frequencies in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	75
4.9 The frequencies of specific cause-markers in the two sets of data	76
4.10 Comparison of the verbs used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	83
4.11 The frequencies of specific cause-markers in the three sets of data	86
4.12 Comparison of the verbs used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP	95

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1 Processes of written products	2
1.2 Kaplan’s cultural thought patterns	3
1.3 Influences on newly defined contrastive rhetoric	4
2.1 Considerations in academic writing	21
3.1 Years of English instruction given to the participants	30
3.2 FREQ program in CLAN CHILDES	38
3.3 COMBO program in CLAN CHILDES	39
4.1 Types of Turkish cause-markers and their frequencies in student paragraphs	43
4.2 Distribution of the nouns used as cause markers in the Turkish data	46
4.3 Distribution of the connectives used as cause markers in the Turkish data	50
4.4 Comparison of the connectives in terms of their place in the sentence	51
4.5 Distribution of the postpositions used as cause markers in the Turkish data	53
4.6 Distribution of the verbs used as cause markers in the Turkish data	56
4.7 Distribution of the suffixes used as cause markers in the Turkish data	58
4.8 Comparison of the nouns used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus	61
4.9 Comparison of the conjunctions used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus	63
4.10 Comparison of the complex prepositions used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus	66

4.11 Comparison of the prepositions used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus	68
4.12 Comparison of the nouns used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	78
4.13 Comparison of the conjunctions used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	79
4.14 Comparison of the complex prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	80
4.15 Comparison of the prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus	81
4.16 Types of cause-markers and their frequencies in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP	85
4.17 Comparison of the nouns used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP	88
4.18 Comparison of the conjunctions used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP	89
4.19 Comparison of the complex prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP	90
4.20 Comparison of the prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP	92

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EPE	English Proficiency Exam
METU NCC	Middle East Technical University, Northern Cyprus Campus
SEP	Students' English Paragraphs
SFL	School of Foreign Languages
STP	Students' Turkish Paragraphs
WHO	Writing Handout
n	Number

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Presentation

The aim of this chapter is to provide the outline of the thesis. To this end, first, the background of the study is presented (1.1.), and then, (1.2.), the aim, scope and significance of the study (1.2.) are discussed. Lastly, definitions of some of the salient terms in the study (1.3.) are provided.

1.1. Background to the Study

As Kachru (1986) foresaw in his famous three concentric circles model of English language, the expanding circle (where English is widely spoken as a foreign language despite having no historical background) grows constantly since English is considered as the common language of technology, business, academia, science and many other contexts (Kırkgöz, 2005). As a result of this, teaching English to the speakers of other languages has become a main issue in many countries including Turkey (Acar, 2004).

Currently, English is the only compulsory second language in Turkish schools and it is introduced to the students at the fourth grade in primary schools (Süngü & Türkmen, 2012). Also, there are universities offering English as the medium of instruction and they have preparatory classes for the students who are not proficient in the language. These intensive programs are generally one-year long and students have to sit an exit exam at the end to certify that they can continue their departmental studies.

The globalization and use of English as a lingua franca requires non-native speakers to be proficient in all four skills of the language. One of the most overwhelming of these skills for the students is writing because it is productive rather than receptive, and it requires employment of culture specific techniques and conventions (Levy & Ransdell, 1995; Zimmermann, 2000). Being a continuous process and a combination of many elements to be considered before and during the process as Figure 1.1 shows (Raimes, 1983, as cited in Selvikavak, 2006), writing requires specific instruction and training:

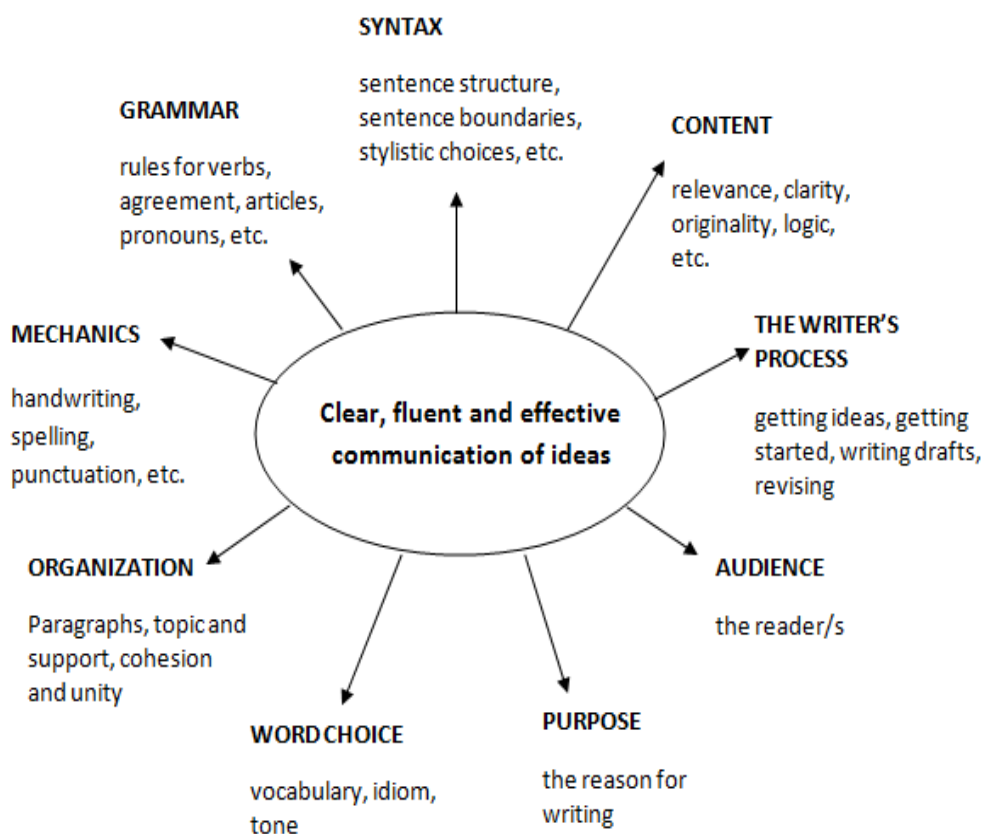


Figure 1.1 Processes of written products (adapted from Raimes, 1983 as cited in Selvikavak, 2006: 19)

Difficulties related to L2 writing grow when it comes to ‘*academic writing*’ in the target language (Alagözlü, 2007). According to Steinman (2003) the reason behind this is the fact that non-native learners must deal not only “with the obvious linguistic and technical issues such as syntax, vocabulary, and format, but they must also become familiar with Western notions of academic rhetoric” (p.80). Apparently, dealing with these two tasks at the same time makes the academic writing in the target language a challenging process to achieve.

Since being in an academic context requires students to be familiar with different types of academic writing tasks, the subject of academic writing has been studied in detail by many researchers so far (e.g. Akyel, 1994; Atay & Kurt, 2006; Hinkel, 2003; Kubota, 1998; Llosa, Beck & Zhao, 2011; Uccelli, Dobbs & Scott, 2013; Yaylı, 2011).

One of the most influential of these works is Kaplan’s (1966) contrastive rhetoric paper (i.e. *Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-Cultural Education*). In this article Kaplan (1966) focuses on cultural and linguistic differences in the writing of ESL students and argues that the assumption that a student who can write an adequate essay in his native language can do so in the L2 is fallacious because while writing in the L2, the students employ a rhetoric and sequence that do not match with the native speaker expectations (see Figure 1.2).

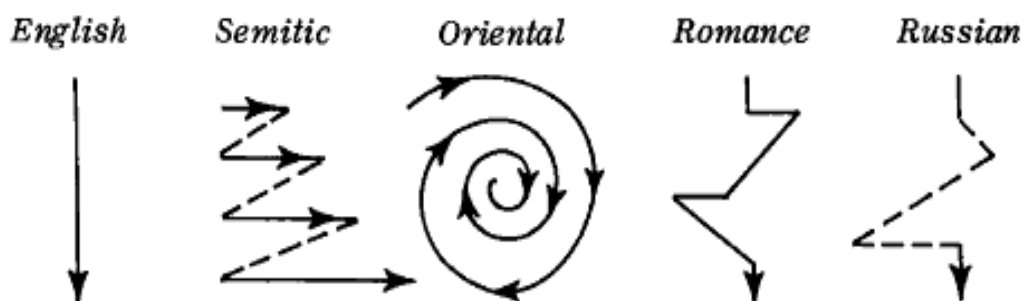


Figure 1.2 Kaplan’s cultural thought patterns (Kaplan, 1966:15)

However, Kaplan's (1966) contrastive rhetoric approach was criticized for having the Western way of writing in the centre as the norm (e.g. Matelene, 1985; Scollon, 1997). In the following decades, there have been some changes in the way contrastive rhetoric is perceived and Connor (1999) in her book *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing* provides her readers with the following diagram showing a number of theories that have affected contrastive rhetoric such as applied linguistics, literacy, translation, etc:

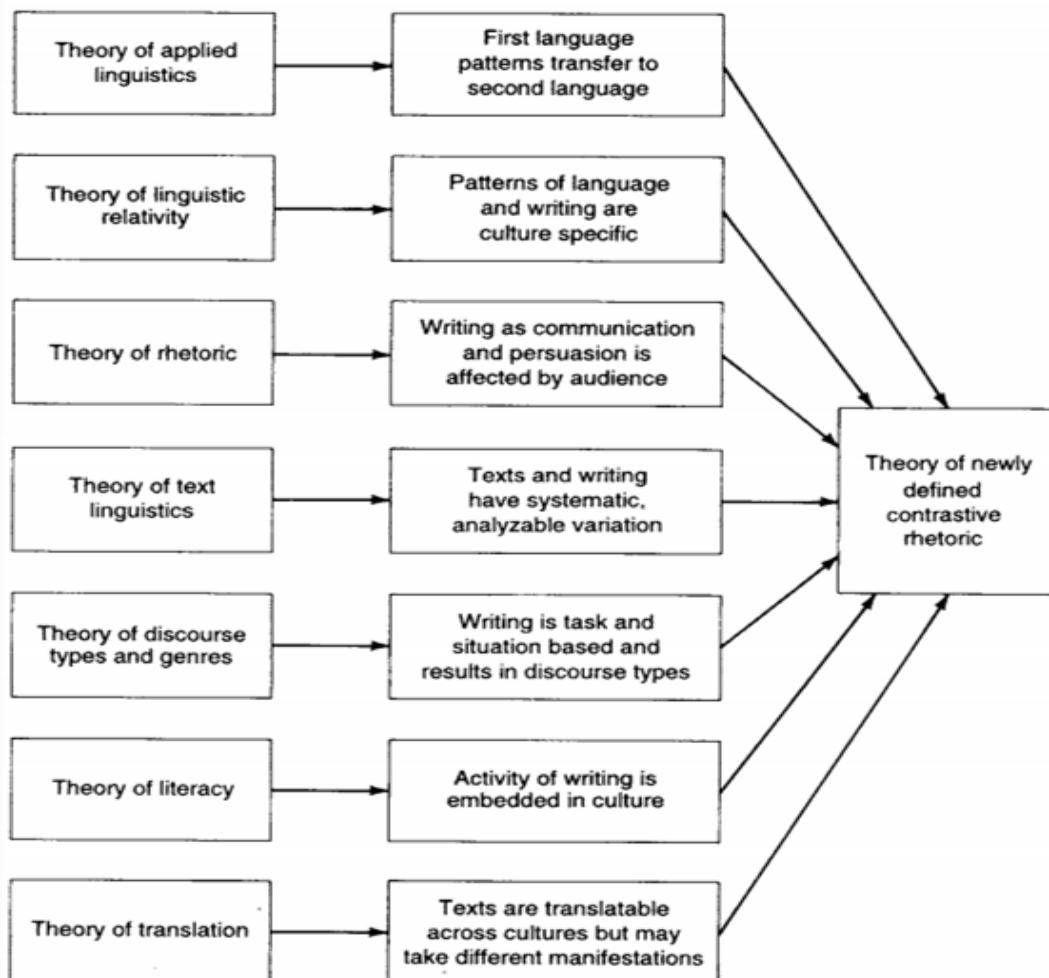


Figure 1.3 Influences on newly defined contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1999:9)

In the light of the comments and criticism Connor (2002) suggests that in recent contrastive rhetoric approach the focus is not only on received culture but also on “the differences in written communication as often stemming from multiple sources, including L1, national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary culture, genre characteristics, and mismatched expectations between readers and writers” (p. 504). She also explains that this approach now affects beyond teaching EFL and ESL and it is applied in teaching mainstream writing in the United States. In addition to teaching in general English in L2 contexts it is used while teaching in business or technology writing. Another change is related to the way cultures are perceived. According to Connor (2002) it is “becoming more sensitive to the social context and the local situatedness and particularity of writing activity” by scrutinizing the fact that “writing in given cultures is tied to the intellectual history and social structures of these cultures” (p. 506).

In conclusion, different languages and cultures have unique paragraph orders and part of language learning is learning its logical system. “Cultures do not write using the same assumptions, strategies, and goals. These basic characteristics are of the utmost importance for someone writing in or for another culture” (McCool, 2009, p.1). Therefore, teaching writing in a foreign language requires more than teaching the grammar, syntax, or morphology of the target language. Patterns, discourse, and cohesion must be addressed at the same time. This holistic approach is needed since, differently from speaking or listening, the writing skill is learnt at school in a conscious way and the education and cultural contexts we are exposed to influence the way we construct our texts (Uysal 2008). The patterns of writing we learn in our first languages (L1) are persistent and usually become the patterns we employ when writing in a second/foreign languages (L2) as well (Hirose, 2003; Uysal, 2008; Wang & Wen, 2002; Yiğitoğlu & Reichelt; 2014). On the other hand, there are some other studies indicating that the transfer is bidirectional, i.e. L2 writing structures may also influence the way people write in their L1 (e.g. Enginarlar, 1990; Oktar, 1991; Yiğitoğlu & Reichelt, 2012).

Using the abovementioned statements as a springboard, this particular study aims to examine whether formal instruction about writing in English or Turkish affects the way native speakers of Turkish write cause paragraphs in English (i.e., their L2) and Turkish with the help of the comments the participants made about their own paragraphs.

Cause texts are giving information about why or how things happen. In his “An Apparatus for the Identification of Paragraph Types”, Langacre (1980) puts cause-effect paragraphs under the title of ‘paragraphs that encode logical relations’, and he defines them as “expansions of conditional sentences reporting logical relations” (p.12.) Meyer and Poon 2001, (as cited in Williams et al., 2007) suggest that this type of paragraph structure is included in ‘expository texts’, which are known to give information, explain or describe. Under this category, we can list problem-solution, argumentative, descriptive, and narrative paragraphs, too (Becker, 1965). The place of causal analysis in the academic world is stated by Meyers (2009) clearly:

Writing about causes or effects is an important part of academic and professional life. In science courses- and in scientific professions- you may investigate the causes of a chemical reaction or the effects of a new chemical. In a nursing course, you need to know the causes of a fever and the results of a treatment. In a history course you may need to know the causes- and results- of a war. In a business course...(p.260).

This statement emphasizes the importance of the cause paragraphs in every academic and professional context, and language instructors need to consider this fact while teaching academic writing.

So far, a number of studies have examined the L2 writing habits/skills of native speakers of Turkish (e.g. Akyel, 1994; Enginarlar, 1993; Oktar, 1991). There are studies focusing on the overall organizational structures of the paragraphs written by Turkish students (e.g. Bayat, 2009), assessment of the writing instruction and materials in Turkey (e.g. Coşkun, 2011), how to integrate the required language structures into Turkish students’ compositions in English (e.g. Özbek, 1995), cultural

patterns in writing (Uysal, 2008;), and argumentative paragraphs (e.g. Algi, 2012; Can, 2007). As far as the author is aware, however, there is not a study focusing specifically on the cause paragraphs written by Turkish students in English yet. Therefore, it is hoped that this study will contribute to filling an important gap in the field and will have significant implications for courses teaching writing in English and Turkish.

Another inadequacy is that in Turkish there is not a complete and explicit definition of what cause-markers are or which markers are employed while writing about causes or reasons of something in Turkish. Therefore, identification and classification of these markers are of great importance so that Turkish students can relate their English compositions with the Turkish ones and they may see how important it is to use those markers to connect their ideas and create a coherent paragraph in a foreign language, too.

1.2. The Aim, Scope, and Significance of the Study

As mentioned earlier, writing in a foreign language has always been perceived as a difficult task to achieve and the same thing applies for the students in preparatory classes in Turkey, too. It is reported by Topçu (2005) that the most problematic area for the students of Department of Basic English at METU is the writing component (as cited in Coşkun, 2011).

Having a similar participant profile (i.e. preparatory school students who are native speakers of Turkish), this study aims to identify and analyse the frequencies and functions of the cause markers employed by native speakers of Turkish when writing cause paragraphs both in Turkish and English. It also examines whether the employment of the cause markers differs while writing in L1 and L2. The effect of teaching materials (input) on the written products of the participants (output) is also investigated. Finally, the student perspective in terms of their employment (or lack of) of cause markers in their cause paragraphs is studied by means of semi-structured interviews and stimulated recall interviews. The specific research questions that this thesis aims to answer are:

1. What kinds of cause markers, how frequently and why are employed by native speakers of Turkish while writing cause paragraphs in Turkish?
2. What kinds of cause markers are employed by native speakers of Turkish with pre-intermediate level of proficiency in English while writing cause paragraphs in English?
3. What is the role of the provided teaching materials in the use of cause markers while writing cause paragraphs in English?
4. What is the student perspective on cause paragraph writing and their preferences of using/ not using cause markers both in their L1 and L2?

As for implications, the study is the first one to identify the cause markers employed by Turkish students when writing in English and Turkish. With the identification of these structures, the aim is to form a basis to see the tendencies and the needs of Turkish students so that teachers can anticipate the problems they may face while teaching cause paragraph writing not only in English but also in Turkish.

The study may also stimulate further study on several other organizational text structures such as problem-solution, descriptive, and process paragraphs written by Turkish students both in Turkish and in English because, as it is suggested by Hyland (1997), these patterns of writing and employment of certain structures in them are necessary for successful academic writing.

Moreover, this study is needed for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the provided instruction and the materials used in teaching cause paragraph writing in English. As it describes the way Turkish students employ cause markers in their L1 and L2 compositions and identifies their weaknesses and the steps to be taken to create more natural paragraphs, the results of the present study may provide valuable guidelines for materials writers aiming to create effective resources for teaching the writing of cause paragraphs. This, in turn, could improve the writing performance of students both in English and Turkish, and increase student motivation.

1.3. Definition of Key Terms

The key terms included in the study are explained briefly below:

L2 writing: Although ‘second language’ and ‘foreign language’ are generally defined as being different in terms of the function of the language in the context where language learning takes place, second language may refer to both writing in a second or a foreign language. As Mitchell, Myles and Marsden (2013) also assert in their book, in this study second language is perceived as “learning of any language, to any level, provided only that the learning of the ‘second language’ takes place some time later than the first language” (p.1). Therefore, throughout the study, L2 writing refers to the condition of Turkish students writing in English.

Paragraph: “A paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic... To be as effective as possible, a paragraph should contain each of the following: Unity, Coherence, A Topic Sentence, and Adequate Development.” In this study a paragraph is around 150-180 words.

[\(https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/606/01/\)](https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/606/01/)

Cause markers: The discourse markers communicating the causal relationship between the ideas in a text are named ‘*cause markers*’ throughout the study. In her study, Flowerdew (1998) focuses on 34 causative devices (see: Appendix B) used by expert writers by putting them into six main subcategories: nouns, complex prepositions, prepositions, verbs and adjective phrases. These categories are taken as the framework for the English paragraphs. On the other hand, as far as the researcher is aware, the cause markers used in Turkish writing will be identified and listed for the first time in this particular study.

Connectives: Discourse connectives, differently from conjunctions, which combine two or more items sharing the same syntactic feature, link at least two sentences, showing the cohesive relationship between them (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005).

Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases: Prepositions are function words which generally work with a complement or object. When the preposition and its complement come together, they form a prepositional phrase. A preposition indicates the relation “between a structure that precedes it (e.g. a verb) and another one that follows it (e.g. an NP)” (Saint-Dizier, 2006, p.2).

Postposition: “A word which, together with the noun phrase complement that it follows, forms a phrase with an adverbial or adjectival function... Turkish postpositions usually correspond to prepositions in English” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.476).

Adjectival (phrase): An adjectival or adjectival phrase is defined as “any linguistic structure that performs the function of an adjective” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 470).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Presentation

This chapter consists of four main sections and their subsections. In the first section of this chapter, research on L1 writing in the Turkish context, L1 paragraph writing instruction at schools, and L1 writing habits/skills of students who are native speakers of Turkish are discussed. In the second section, literature on L2 writing in Turkish context, L2 paragraph writing instruction and L2 writing skills of Turkish students were briefly introduced. Next, the studies investigating the English cause paragraphs and the cause markers employed in them are indicated. Lastly, the studies focusing on Turkish cause paragraphs and the cause markers used in them are shortly summarized.

2.1. Second Language Writing

In the last few decades there has been an increase in the number of the studies conducted on L2 writing skills of language learners. These studies have examined various aspects of L2 writing such as the differences between L1 and L2 writing (e.g. Berman, 1994; Hall, 1990; Pennington & So, 1993), the effect of L2 proficiency level on L2 writing (e.g. Cumming, 1989; Pennington and So, 1993; Zamel, 1982), error correction and feedback (e.g. Ferris et al., 2011; Lee, 2008; Lee, 2009; Truscott, 1999), writing teacher education (e.g. Hochstetler, 2007; Lee, 2010), use of portfolios in L2 writing classes Ghoorchaei et al., 2010; Song & August, 2002; Yancey, 1999), collaborative writing (e.g. Dobao, 2012; Shehadeh, 2001; Storch, 2005), and lastly different organizational patterns of writing such as argumentative

writing (Carrell & Connor, 1991; Helms-Park & Stapleton, 2003; Hirose, 2003), narrative writing (Ishikawa, 1995; Kang, 2005) problem solution writing (Flowerdew, 2003), and descriptive writing (Gorjian, Pazhakh & Parang, 2012; Lisa & Refnaldi, 2013).

As this study specifically focuses on the written product of the Turkish students when they are writing paragraphs in their L1 (Turkish) and L2 (English), the following for sections are dedicated to the discussion of the L1 and L2 writing skills of Turkish students and cause markers employed in their paragraphs.

2.2. Writing in Turkish: Instruction and Skills/Habits

When we investigate the issue of Turkish writing instruction, we can see that there have been a lot of research studies in the field. Some of the researchers focused on the problems/challenges in terms of teaching and learning the writing skills. According to Tağa and Ünlü (2013), even though the main responsibility of teaching writing skills are attached to the Turkish lessons, this course has not been adequate or successful in helping students to reach the competent level in written communication. In addition to this, Alyılmaz (2010) reports that both the governmental and private institutions are hiring their employees based on their scores in centralised exams and that there are not any exams testing the Turkish language skills, especially the writing skills of future teachers. Thus, we can interpret that the importance attached to the writing ability has been rather low. More specifically, Göçer (2010) provides the reader with the most common problems encountered in Turkish writing instruction:

- misinforming the students about the term '*composition*',
- students' lack of creative thinking skills,
- students' inability to handle the topics in a deep and detailed way,
- lack of supporting examples in students' written products,

- seeing the topic from a fixed perspective and ignoring the others,
- mismatch between the titles and the content of the writings,
- mistakes in sentence structures
- lack of variety in vocabulary use (daily language and even slang),
- spelling and punctuation mistakes (Ayyıldız & Bozkurt, 2006; as cited in Göçer, 2010, p.180).

As well as the studies focusing on the general difficulties, there have also been studies mentioning some specific groups of problems in teaching writing in Turkish: teacher (or teacher candidate) competencies in teaching writing (Bağcı, 2007; Çakmak, 2013; Demir & Ersöz, 2014; Lüle-Mert, 2012; Susar-Kırmızı & Akkaya, 2009; Temizkan, 2003), inadequacy of the time allocated to writing instruction (Aşılıoğlu & Özkan, 2013; Atay & Kurt, 2006), the effect of lack of reading skills on writing (Akbayır, 2006; Baş, 2012; Baş & Şahin, 2012;), the effects of the curriculum and the program on training on writing (Susar-Kırmızı & Akkaya, 2009), the impact of the tests and/or the multiple-choice test technique (Aşılıoğlu & Özkan, 2013; Zorbaz, 2005), lack of necessary vocabulary knowledge (Özbay, Büyükkiz & Uyar, 2011), and the lack of interest or knowledge about the topic the students are writing on (Arıcı & Ungan, 2008; Gökalp, 2001; Temizkan, 2003; Zorbaz, 2005).

Teachers of Turkish and the way they teach writing in Turkish is also a very important aspect of the L1 writing success and competency of Turkish students. Temizkan (2003) investigated this issue by giving questionnaires to 60 teachers from 20 different schools, and then, examined 400 student paragraphs from the classes of 18 teachers who were randomly chosen out of 60. The findings revealed some intriguing points:

- There was inconsistency between the claims of teachers indicating that they were taking the interests of the students into consideration while assigning

topics to write on and the actual tasks they assigned: in more than 53% of the contexts they gave the students a proverb to write about.

- The topics that were provided in the books were also found to be dull by the teachers and not good enough to guide the them.
- Almost half of the teachers were found to be not giving any planning instruction before the students started their writings, and around 20% of them were only explaining the organization strategies in two or three brief sentences. These resulted in student paragraphs with vague topic sentences.
- Paragraph writing was studied with the help of two main activities: 1. finding the main and supporting ideas in the paragraphs and 2. examining the introduction-body-conclusion paragraphs of the ‘compositions’.
- The students preferred writing in different types: almost 63% of them chose expository writing, around 12% of them preferred narrative writing, 9% of the students chose descriptive writing and around 3% of the students wrote argumentative texts.

As a result, it can be inferred that the topic that the students are writing about, the instruction of the organizational structures of the texts, and the activities and materials that the teachers are using in the classroom are of great importance in teaching writing. These important points will be asked to the participants of the current study and the results might tell us if there have been any differences related to these points in the last eleven years, since the above study was conducted.

In another study, Tepeli and Ertane-Baydar (2013) claim that Turkish students’ perspective of ‘*composition*’ has not changed much even though there had been many research studies on writing ability. Their study, conducted with Turkish participants (pretest=169 and posttest=150), revealed that the participants chose writing essays more than the other expression types such as narration, story, poem, etc. The writers’ explanation for why essay was the most popular among the participants was that they associated essays with Turkish ‘*composition*’ writing in which they had three basic paragraphs: introduction, body, and conclusion. However, the usual pattern in English is five-paragraph essay writing. This structure of

introduction-body-conclusion writing is so ingrained in Turkish students that even if they can plan the outer structure of their written products, they have difficulty in the inner text organization. The current study might provide consistent findings with these ones because the students are asked to write a paragraph in their native language, which is contradicting with the ingrained '*composition*' structure in their minds. The results will show if students have problems in adapting to writing in different text or expression types or not. When it comes to English, in the preparatory school where this study is conducted, the students have been taught how to produce one-paragraph long texts since their level is not high enough to produce longer texts such as essays.

Looking at the challenges and problems reported above, it is apparent that writing skill needs to be specifically handled in Turkish language teaching classes. The interviews that we will be conducted in the course of this study might also provide findings in line with the above mentioned problems and might help us add more to the list.

Turkish as a Foreign Language

Academic research on teaching and learning Turkish has been gaining popularity and Turkish is stated to be the fifth most commonly employed language (Göçer, Tabak & Coşkun, 2012). Therefore, examining how Turkish writing is being taught to the foreign learners may provide invaluable insights, and these could be compared and contrasted to the way it is being taught to the native speakers of Turkish.

Examining the difficulties that foreign students encounter while learning Turkish, Bakır, Biçer and Çoban (2014) interviewed five foreign students from a Turkish university on the problems about the following issues: the language itself, about provided instruction/materials and about environmental factors. The findings revealed that three out of the five foreign students reported facing difficulties while learning the writing skills in Turkish and the researchers concluded that this was the most problematic skill compared to the others, and it should be the one to focus on more while teaching writing in Turkish to the foreign students.

Selvikavak (2006) in her MA thesis worked with 23 students learning Turkish as a foreign language. After putting them into two different groups (i.e. experimental and control groups) randomly, the researcher had them write a paragraph on the positive and negative effects of the Internet. During the upcoming seven weeks, the participants in the experimental group were provided with three hours of writing instruction twice a week. At the end of the seventh week, the two groups were asked to write another paragraph on the advantages and disadvantages of TV. The researcher and the other raters evaluated the 46 paragraphs (the ones written before and after the instruction) based on criteria they had prepared before.

Selvikavak (2006) provided the readers with a weekly content of the instruction given to the participants, and a brief summary of these is below:

Week 1:

Introduction to paragraph writing, free writing and listing exercises

Week 2:

The technique of asking questions (brain storming) and clustering 1 and clustering 2 (mind mapping)

Week 3:

Teaching of what a paragraph is and what is included in it. Writing topic sentences and focusing on its components

Week 4:

Unity in paragraphs and exercises on irrelevancy

Week 5:

Cohesion in the paragraphs and linguistic devices of cohesion (such as conjunctions, sequence markers, linkers, signalling words)

Week 6:

Paragraph planning/structuring

The findings indicated that the paragraphs written by the experimental and control groups before the instruction period had no significant differences. When the first and the second paragraphs of the control group were compared and contrasted, again no significant difference was found. However, the comparison of the first and the second paragraphs of the experimental group revealed a difference showing that the participants noticeably improved their writing skills. Lastly, the second paragraphs of both groups were compared and contrasted, showing an important difference: experimental group's paragraphs were rated as being better than the others. The results of this study indicate the importance of instruction on the quality of the written products produced in Turkish. Therefore, even though that was the case for the foreign students learning how to write in Turkish, we need to examine the instruction and its content so that those could be compared to the instruction the participants in the current study had had before starting their university education.

2.3. English Writing in the Turkish Context, Instruction and Skills/Habits

Many studies have examined the English writing skills and habits of the Turkish learners so far. These various research studies focused on a wide range of different aspects of writing.

Some researchers examined the writing ability of Turkish students from a broader perspective. To start with, keeping the aim of identifying the challenges and assumptions of the graduate students about L1 and L2 writing in mind, Yağız, Yiğiter and Genç (2009) interviewed eight different participants and one of them stated that in Turkish the students were not taught styles or genres of writing, and that their writings evolved around the introduction-body-conclusion pattern which

the participant defined as being quite different from how they were constructing their texts in English. The findings of the current study could be quite related to this one with regard to seeing the effect of L1 writing experience on the L2 writing or vice versa.

Some others focused on specific features in L2 writing as well. Until the present day there have been a lot of outstanding research studies on many text types produced by the Turkish speakers of English. Işık-Taş (2008), in her PhD thesis, investigated the introduction parts of the theses written in the ELT departments of Turkish universities and the theses written by experts writers of English with regard to their discourse, rhetoric and lexico-grammatical features. Similarly, Kavanoz and Sağın-Şimşek (2013) compared and contrasted the articles of native speakers of Turkish with those of native speakers of English especially focusing on the discussion and conclusion parts. With a different text type, Karahan (2005) focused on the linguistic and non-linguistic elements in Turkish wedding invitations, and Akar (2002) studied written business texts to explore macro contextual factors used by Turkish business people.

Hedges, their uses and function in the written products are commonly studied, too. Doyuran (2009a) worked on 10 Turkish research articles from two different academic fields to investigate the uses of hedges. She also investigated the hedges used in the 43 Turkish daily newspaper articles (Doyuran, 2009b) to see if popular publications, as well as academic texts, employ hedges frequently. Algı (2012), on the other hand, focused on the Turkish students' argumentative paragraphs written in English to see their employment of hedges and boosters in the written products.

Discourse markers have also been frequently scrutinized as a topic by the researchers working on L2 writing. Stating the overall importance of lexical phrases (e.g. as a result) in written texts and the problematic use of them by the students, Li and Schmitt (2009) claim that students' employment of these structures is restricted to the well-known phrases repeatedly, which causes their texts to lack '*a native-like manner*' (p.85). The findings of the current study may be compared and contrasted

with this result in order to see whether the same pattern (repetition of the same structures) exists in the employment of the cause markers in the L2 paragraphs of Turkish students or not. According to their longitudinal case study with a participant, even if the number of the lexical phrases did not increase in the course of a year, their variety increased around 50% thanks to both explicit and implicit instruction, academic reading being the most influential one. Therefore, the conclusion to be drawn from their results is that even if the students have a tendency to use the same structures heavily, this might be changed in time with explicit and implicit instruction.

Investigating the same explicit and implicit acquisition of the discourse markers with five freshmen Turkish students and an Azerbaijani student from a university in Istanbul, Karaata, Çepik and Çetin (2012) reach the same results: a combination of implicit explicit acquisition of the discourse markers enhance the students' employment of more and varied discourse markers. According to them the overuse of a limited number of phrases especially by Turkish results from two main reasons:

- The students memorize list of discourse markers which are tested most frequently in the University Entrance Exam and use only those ones in their writings as if they were the only discourse markers in English, and
- Rote learning and having no contextualisation leads a 'simplistic and largely inappropriate' use of these structures by the students.

After analysing the cause markers, their uses and varieties in the students' written products, and the interviews with the participants, this thesis may provide findings in line with the ones presented by Li and Schmitt (2009) and Çepik et al. (2012).

Working with 72 second grade university students, Dülger (2007) investigated the use, frequency and varieties of discourse markers employed in Turkish students' paragraphs. His main aim was to see whether there were any significant differences

between the effects of product writing instruction and process writing instruction with regard to the use of discourse markers. His results showed that the students employed more than 50% more discourse markers after the process writing instruction, and the variety also increased by more than 50%. This thesis study was conducted with the participation of the students who had been practicing process writing since the beginning of their university instruction. Therefore, the number and variety of the cause markers might support Dülger's (2007) findings.

As it is clearly mentioned by Yağız and Yiğiter (2012) Turkish students do not appear “to have learned how to write systematically and gained adequate writing experiences except being instructed to be grammatically correct and writing in certain number of paragraphs” in their L2 until their university or graduate education (p.1262). The main problems and difficulties they list in their paper are ‘*discursive factors and difficulties*’, ‘*grammatical difficulties at sentence and paragraph levels*’, ‘*lexical difficulties and issue of formality*’, ‘*audience awareness*’, ‘*hedging in academic text*’, and ‘*connectedness*’. The current study is focusing on the last of these dimensions (i.e. connectedness) by examining the use of ‘explicit’ cause markers in Turkish students’ L1 and L2 paragraphs, and the results are expected to provide some concrete evidence in terms of the challenges Turkish students face while using linguistic devices to maintain connectedness in their cause paragraphs.

In addition to the studies above, the problem Kafes (2012) observes is that Turkish students even with a high level of proficiency in English have some difficulties in creating coherent pieces of writing in English. One possible reason is given as these students might have the same problem in writing in their native language as well. The current study is a comparative one since the participants are asked to write on parallel topics using their native language (Turkish) and their foreign language (English). Findings are hoped to provide insights about the effects of the L1 writing skills on L2 writing.

2.4. English Cause Paragraphs and Cause Markers

In almost every piece of writing, there needs to be a format of displaying information to help readers follow it easily (Swales & Feak, 2004). This ‘format’ is named differently by many authors, but throughout this study it will be referred to as ‘the organizational structure’ which is defined by Swales and Feak (2004) in their book as a ‘consideration’ as shown in figure 2.1:

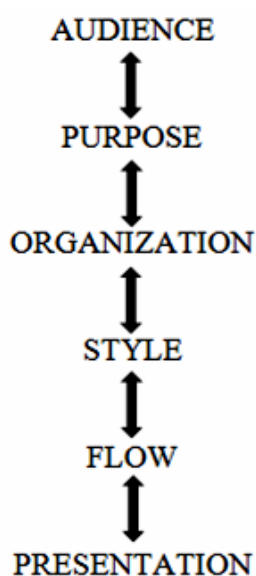


Figure 2.1 Considerations in academic Writing (Swales & Feak, 2004:7)

According to Silva (1990), ‘current-traditional rhetoric’ followed Kaplan’s groundbreaking contrastive rhetoric theory, and it gave attention to the paragraph: “not only to its elements (topic sentence, support sentences, concluding sentences, and transitions), but also to various options for its development (illustration, exemplification, comparison, contrast, partition, classification, definition, casual analysis, and so on)” (p.14).

All the above mentioned organizational patterns are taught in the writing classes of many preparatory programs, but research is concentrated mainly on the argumentative compositions (e.g. Can, 2006; Helms-Park & Stapleton, 2003; Hinkel, 2005; Hirose, 2003; Khiabani & Pourghassemian, 2009; Uysal, 2008).

In his article “Paragraphs for Freshmen”, Clark (1970) names the organizational patterns as ‘methods of development’ and classifies cause paragraphs and effect paragraphs as different types (p.70). Langacre (1980) also examines ‘reason’ and ‘result’ paragraphs separately claiming that they are sharing a common ground with some variations. To him, the employment of one of these two types is merely context-dependent. In line with these two researchers, the researcher of the present thesis study believes handling cause-effect paragraphs as two different paragraph types as ‘cause’ and ‘effect’ will be efficient in terms of the aims of this particular study since it is the way the students practice it in the institution where this study takes place. Therefore, cause paragraph type under the category of expository paragraphs is the main focus of the study.

In the field, in terms of the organizational types of writing by non-native speakers of English, argumentative writing (e.g. Alagözülü, 2007; Algı, 2012; Can, 2007; Carrell & Connor, 1991; Helms-Park & Stapleton, 2003; Hirose, 2003; Uysal, 2012), narrative writing (e.g. Demirtaş, 2010; Dikilitaş, 2012; Ishikawa, 1995; Kang, 2005) problem solution writing (e.g. Enginarlar, 1990; Flowerdew, 2003), and descriptive writing (e.g. Akıncılar, 2010; Carrell & Connor, 1991; Gorjian, Pazhakh & Parang, 2012; Lisa & Refnaldi, 2013) have been studied to date.

The main organizational type for this study is causal organization and the cause-markers employed in them; therefore, the studies about them are presented separately below.

Based on the organizational structure (e.g. cause, problem-solution, argumentation), a person needs to use appropriate structures and phrases in order to have a meaningful paragraph which is easy to read. Before comparing the structures used by the participants, the expected cause markers were identified by reviewing literature. For this reason some studies were reviewed.

In Langacre's (1980) organizational pattern for cause paragraphs, there are several '*linking devices*' and his main examples are '*in order to*', '*that's why*', and '*because*'. These linking words are named as 'signpost words' by McMillan and Weyers (2008). Similarly, Swales and Feak (2004) make it clear that for establishing clear relationships between the ideas there is a need for linking words and phrases such as '*because*', '*since*', '*because of*', '*due to*', '*as a result of*', etc.

However, the most comprehensive study focusing on the structures to be used in cause paragraphs is thought to be the one conducted by Flowerdew (1988).

Scrutinizing academic writing from a specific focus, Flowerdew (1998) studies cause markers by comparing student writings with the Greenpeace report on Global Warming written by 'expert writers'. She focuses on 34 causative devices (see: Appendix B) putting them into six main subcategories: *nouns*, *complex prepositions*, *prepositions*, *verbs* and *adjective phrases*. Since this is the most specific and detailed list of cause-markers used in English paragraphs in the literature, Flowerdew's (1998) categorization was adopted as the framework for the classification of the cause-markers in this study.

2.5. Turkish Cause Paragraphs and Cause Markers

As Karadağ (2003) states, in Turkish there are four main written expression styles: argumentation, explanation (expository), narration, description. When it comes to the aims of each type we can give the following table which was adapted from Akbayır's (2006) study:

Type	Aim
Argumentative	Proving your idea
Expository	Giving information
Narrative	Having the reader live the event
Descriptive	Giving impressions

Table 2.1: Aims of the different expressions types in Turkish (adapted from Akbayır 2006: 14)

Explanatory (expository) writing type is the one preferred by the students most frequently (Akbayır, 2006; Karadağ, 2003; Temzikan, 2003). Under this writing type we can list the cause paragraphs, problem-solution paragraphs, and compare-contrast paragraphs.

So far, many studies have been conducted about different types of writing and paragraphs in Turkish: narrative writing (e.g. Coşkun, 2005; Özkara, 2007; Sallabaş, 2008; Yılmaz, 2008), argumentative writing (e.g. Aldağ, 2005; Coşkun & Tiryaki, 2013; Çakmak, 2013; Çakmak & Civelek, 2013), problem-solution writing (Enginarlar, 1990), compare-contrast writing (Bozkurt, 2009), and expository writing (Koçbaşı, 2006; Oktar, 1991; Şentürk, 2009). However, as far as the researcher is aware, no studies in literature investigated the cause paragraphs and the cause markers employed in them by native Turkish speakers. This study is hoped to contribute to this lack in the field.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD OF RESEARCH

3.0. Presentation

In this chapter the research method used in the study is presented and discussed. First, the aims of the study and the research questions to be answered are introduced. Next, the participants of the study, the data collection tools, the setting, and the steps followed to collect the data are presented and discussed. Finally, the data analysis procedures are given.

3.1. Research Questions

This study aims to identify and analyse the frequencies and functions of the cause markers employed by native speakers of Turkish when writing cause paragraphs both in Turkish and English. It also examines whether the employment of the cause markers differs while writing in L1 and L2. The effect of teaching materials (input) on the written products of the participants (output) is also investigated. More specifically the study aims to answer the following research questions:

- a) What kinds of cause markers, how frequently and why are employed by native speakers of Turkish while writing cause paragraphs in Turkish?
- b) What kinds of cause markers are employed by native speakers of Turkish with pre- intermediate level of proficiency in English while writing cause paragraphs in English?

- c) What is the role of the provided teaching materials in the use of cause markers while writing cause paragraphs in English?
- d) What is the student perspective on cause paragraph writing and their preferences of using/ not using cause markers both in their L1 and L2?

3.2. The Setting and the Participants

3.2.1. The Setting

The participants of the study were preparatory class students at Middle East Technical University Northern Cyprus Campus (henceforth METU NCC). Since METU NCC is an English medium university, all registered students have to take the English language proficiency exam (henceforth EPE).

METU EPE

METU EPE is administered by the university itself for the students placed in the programs based on their centralised examination grades. It consists of two sessions which have to be taken on the same day with a lunch break of about 90 minutes in between. The grading is out of 100, and to be able to gain a right to start their undergraduate studies, students should get a minimum of 60.

All of the students enrolled at METU NCC should either take this exam or provide another English language exam certificate recognized by METU. The equivalence table presented in the official website is as follows:

METU EPE	TOEFL IBT	TOEFL PBT + TWE		IELTS
60	75	537	4	6.0

Table 3.1 Equivalency table for EPE, TOEFL and IELTS

In the first session, which is administered in the morning, there are two main sections: a) Listening Comprehension and b) Reading Comprehension. Both sections have 30 multiple-choice questions (one point each). In the listening section students are asked to listen to five different parts: statements, dialogues, mini-talks, an interview and mini-lecture. In the reading section there are four types of questions: sentence completion, paragraph completion, supporting idea and text comprehension. The first session takes around 120 minutes.

The second session is given in the afternoon and it lasts for 120 minutes. In it there are two main parts: a) Language Use and b) Note-taking and Writing. Language use has three components: cloze tests, response to the situation and dialogue completion (20 points in total). In the note-taking part, the examinees are asked to listen to a talk and take notes. Later, they are given a task sheet and required to answer the question on it in 3-5 sentences (5 points).

In the writing part, there is a writing prompt given to the students and they are asked to write an academic paragraph of 180-220 words about it. The prompts may be about the advantages or disadvantages of something, could be an argumentative topic, could ask for the causes or effects of something, or request the examinees to talk about a problem and its solutions. Test takers are told that they can make use of the notes they have taken during the note-taking section, and that they should pay attention to the content, organization and accuracy of their paragraphs since these are the three categories based on which their paragraphs will be graded. After a standardization process, the paragraphs are graded by two raters separately with the help of a rubric distributed to them. The grading is out of 15 points.

At the end, if examinees can get a minimum of 60 points, they gain the right to continue their undergraduate studies. If their grade is below 60, they are placed into different levels and given a year (or a semester) of intensive English language education.

3.2.2. The Participants

The participants of the study were 63 (40 males and 23 females) students from the School of Foreign Languages (henceforth SFL) at METU NCC. At the beginning of the academic term, these students took the placement exam administered by METU NCC SFL and they were placed into the elementary classes. However, at the time of the data collection, the participants had already finished their fourth month of intensive training in English in SFL. Keeping this fact in mind, they were classified as ‘pre-intermediate’ level students in the study.

It was decided to work with pre-intermediate students mainly because this is the level/stage at which the students are introduced to the cause paragraph writing rules and it was thought that it would be easier to intervene and correct errors at the beginning stages of the learning process before any unwanted habits are formed and/or fossilization takes place (Corder, 1981; Selinker, 1972).

The students started their courses in September and they had had four hours of instruction five days a week (i.e., total of 20 hours a week) until the data collection in January. Each class had two instructors, one teaching grammar and one teaching reading and writing skills.

In their writing courses, students were given writing handouts (henceforth WHO) which generally describe the specific conventions of writing different types of paragraphs (e.g. descriptive, process, cause, etc.). After the presentation of the rules, language structures and sample paragraphs, the students were asked to produce their own academic paragraphs in class. In METU NCC SFL, there is a process writing system (portfolio system), and the first copy, written in the classroom, is regarded as the first draft to be taken home and improved by the students. Their second drafts are

handed a few days later (the decision is made by the students and the instructors) and checked by the instructors who use a preset code system to identify the mistakes in the paragraphs. Then, the students correct their mistakes and submit the finalised version of their paragraphs to the instructors to be graded. The same drafting process explained above is repeated for each and every new WHO, which are generally given to the students every week.

The participants had been exposed to the cause paragraph discourse and the structures employed in it, and had practised writing their own cause paragraphs about two weeks before the data collection took place. This way, it was assumed that the students were aware of the expected structures and cause markers they should use while writing cause paragraphs in English.

Here is some more detailed information about the participants:

- There were 63 (40 males and 23 females) participants. The gender difference was not considered in the process of sampling because the differences between the genders in terms of use of cause markers are out of the scope of the current study.
- Their age range was 17-22,
- All of them were native speakers of Turkish (no bilinguals),
- None of the participants included in the analysis lived abroad for more than six months,
- When asked to indicate how long they had been learning English, it was realized that the period they had been learning English varied between 5 and 13 years. Figure 3.1 displays the difference between the years of instruction the participants had had by the time the data were collected.

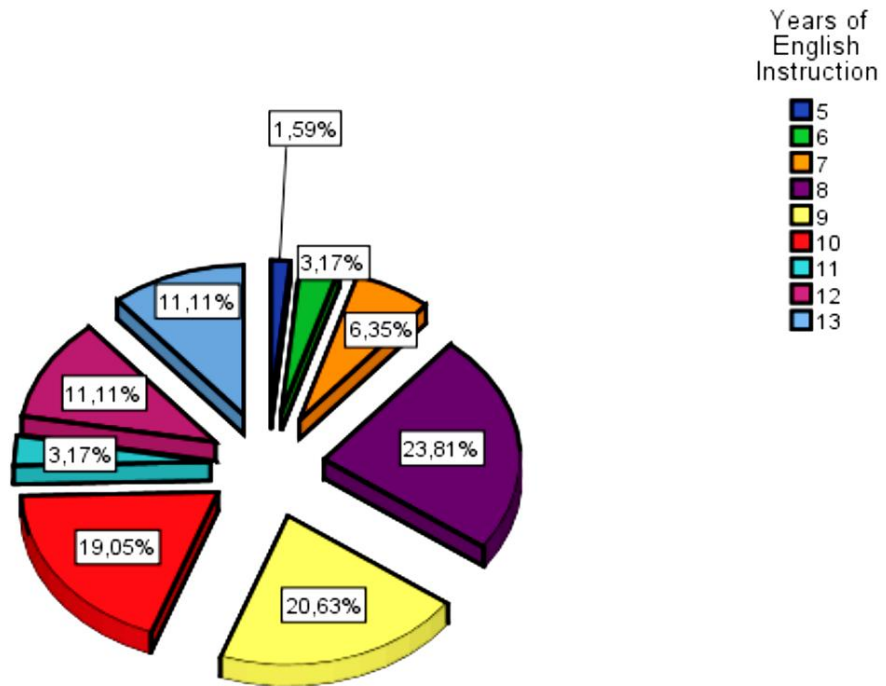


Figure 3.1 Years of English instruction given to the participants

Obviously, there is a significant difference in the period of English instruction the participants had had before starting their university education, and this difference most probably stems from the fact that in Turkey there are various types of schools:

First, in the primary level students can go to state schools (in which students start learning English in the 4th grade, a total of 5 years of English instruction until they graduate) or private schools (which provide students with English language courses right from the beginning (a total of 8 years of English instruction).

Second, there are also many different types of high schools such as general high schools, Anatolian high schools, technical high schools, vocational high schools, teacher training high schools, etc., and in their syllabi the time allocated to English language courses changes.

Finally, in some of these high schools there is an additional one-year long English preparatory program which also has an effect on this gap between the participants' (with respect to the years of English) instruction.

A pilot study had been conducted with a different group of students in the same institution to anticipate and eliminate the problems that may occur in the actual study.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study for this research was conducted in April, 2013 with a different group of participants at the same institution (31 participants: 8 females and 23 males). In the pilot study the participants were enrolled in a special program which was called ‘*English Towards Proficiency*’ (ETP) and their level of proficiency was identified as upper-intermediate. Thanks to the pilot study, the researcher realized that upper-intermediate level classes were not the places where cause paragraph writing was introduced to the students, and their earlier education in the institution made it difficult to evaluate the effects of the teaching materials (i.e. WHO) on the paragraphs written by them.

In addition to this, the researcher noticed some methodological issues which needed to be considered before the data collection process of the thesis. First of all, in the background questionnaires the participants were asked to indicate for how long they had been learning English. Some of the participants thought that the question was only about their university education and they answered accordingly. However, the reason behind asking that question was to learn about their previous education including the primary and high school years. Therefore, the questionnaire was edited and the question was reworded so that there would not be any misunderstandings.

Secondly, it was found that participants had difficulties in categorizing cause markers in English and resorted to translation from Turkish most of the time. This caused them to make a lot of mistakes such as overusing ‘*for*’ as a preposition to talk about the causes/reasons of something. When the inaccurate usages were analysed, the findings revealed that the participants used ‘*for*’ in place of: *in order to*, *because*, and *because of*. Such results indicated the need to see the effect of L1 on L2 cause writing. In order to have a perspective of cause paragraphs and cause-markers in Turkish, in this thesis the participants were also asked to write Turkish paragraphs. In

this way it was planned to have a list of Turkish cause-markers, which provided the chance for a comparison between the target language and the native language structures.

Lastly, in the process of drawing conclusions from the findings, the researcher realized the need for the student perspective in the study because the reasons behind their choices could not be elaborated on effectively since there were only the assumptions of the researcher without any comments or explanations by the students themselves. Therefore, it was decided to have semi-structured interviews with stimulated recall sessions with the participants whose paragraphs were the most compatible with the expert user data and the ones whose paragraphs deviated the most.

3.3. Data Collection Tools and the Procedure

There were four different tools used to collect the data for this study:

1. a background questionnaire,
2. cause paragraphs generated by the participants both in Turkish (n=63) and English (n=63),
3. the writing hand-out which had been used as the teaching material in the classroom, and
4. short semi-structured interviews with stimulated recall sessions with 19 participants.

3.3.1. Background Questionnaire

At the beginning of the study, a questionnaire was given to the participants to be able to collect demographic information related to them (See Appendix A). Formal education and the writing schema in one's own culture are expected to play a role in the way that person writes in his native and target languages. Uysal (2008) also

argues that since “writing is a consciously learned skill through schooling that is often done according to each society’s needs, expectations, and desires for future generations, it is inextricably interrelated with education and in accord with larger cultural context” (p.183). Accordingly, one of the main motives behind giving the questionnaire was to get information about the participants’ writing instruction in their native language and in English.

In the questionnaire the participants were asked questions about their age, gender, family background, educational background, level of proficiency in English and any other languages, the countries they had visited and the length of their visits. The questionnaire had been prepared by the researcher in Turkish to eliminate any misunderstandings and the risk of loss of data.

At the time of the data collection, there were eleven English pre-intermediate classes at SFL, and 258 students were enrolled in them; each class had 23-24 students. Three of these classes consisted of repeat students (who had one year intensive English education in the same institution the year before) and international students registered at the beginning of the year. Those classes were eliminated, and the other seven classes (149 students) were given the background questionnaires. Out of those 149 students, 69 volunteered to participate in the study by writing two paragraphs. However, two of the students did not show up and out of 67 remaining students four were eliminated since three of them were bilinguals and one of them was a repeat student (i.e. repeating the preparatory program). The remaining 63 students wrote two paragraphs in two different sessions (see section 3.3.2.).

3.3.2. Compositions in Turkish and English

After they were collected from the participants, all questionnaires were examined by the researcher, and the participants to be asked to write paragraphs were listed purposively, i.e. the sampling was based on a number of criteria: the bilingual students, the ones who lived abroad for more than six months, and non-native speakers of Turkish were identified and excluded from the study. Since the

curriculum implemented in the schools and the educational background of the Cypriot Turkish students presented differences from the Turkish Turkish speakers, it was decided to exclude them from this study. All the remaining students were asked whether they would volunteer to take part in the study since the paragraph writing and interview sessions were planned to be conducted out of classroom hours, requiring the participants to meet the researcher after their lessons.

Next, the participants were asked to write one-paragraph cause composition of about 150-180 words each on a topic provided by the researcher in Turkish (See Appendix C). The time allocated for the task was fifty minutes because that was the amount of time allocated to these students to spend on the writing component in all their mid-term and proficiency examinations in the university they are currently studying at. In addition, the teachers and the researcher monitored the students during the session since they were expected to write their own paragraphs without getting any kind of secondary help (dictionaries, the internet, reference books, etc.).

The same procedure was repeated one week later, and this time the participants wrote a paragraph on a parallel topic in English (See Appendix D).

The writing prompts were purposively chosen as causes of environmental pollution (air pollution for the English and water pollution for the Turkish paragraphs) so that the results would be comparable to the structures found and categorized by Flowerdew (1998) whose categorisation of cause markers in English was adopted as the framework for the classification of the cause markers in the current study. In addition, as previous research (e.g. Biber, 2006; Swales, 2004) indicates, different genres and topics may require the employment of different structural patterns. To avoid this, the genre was the same and topics were similar in the study. The students were asked to write about the causes of water pollution in Turkish, and then, the causes of air pollution in English. The reason why we did not give exactly the same topic in both languages was to minimize the possibility of translation and transfer from one paragraph to the other (specifically considering the fact that the participants might feel the need to translate from their native language to the target language).

All of the participants had been presented the cause paragraphs and they had produced their own cause paragraphs in their writing classes before the study was conducted. They were familiar with the expected organizational and structural patterns (markers) to be used since the writing handout, covering all of these structures, had been presented to them two weeks before the data collection process.

After collecting the task sheets, the students were promised that they could get feedback from the researcher about their paragraphs if they wanted to.

The total number of Turkish (n=63) and English (n=63) paragraphs was 126.

3.3.3. The Writing Handout:

In METU NCC SFL, for each organizational pattern in writing (e.g. argumentative, cause, descriptive, effect, problem-solution, etc.) the students are provided with a related hand-out in which sample paragraphs and the structures to be employed in that particular pattern (phrases, conjunctions, signalling words, etc.) are presented. Since there is not a specific writing course book used in the classes, these WHOs, which are prepared by the university, are distributed to the students by the instructors.

To see if there was a (qualitative or quantitative) correlation between the cause markers the participants employed and the ones presented in the teaching materials, the cause paragraph writing hand-out (See Appendix E) given to the students was analysed.

3.3.4. Semi-structured Interviews with Stimulated Recall Sessions:

As this was a data-driven study, the participants were interviewed to uncover why they used certain structures or markers in their cause paragraphs. As it is mentioned by Genc, Yağız and Yiğiter (2009), interview is “a powerful tool to provide insights in educational issues through understanding the approaches and processes of the individual” (p.82). Moreover, during the semi-structured interviews,

the researchers have the opportunity of scrutinizing the answers of the interviewee's by asking spontaneous questions related to the main one:

“... Although there is a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner. In other words, the interviewer provides guidance and direction...” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136).

The interviews were expected to present the student perspective and to explain the reasons behind the similarities or differences between the L1 and the L2 paragraphs and the effect of the provided teaching materials on the produced texts. The 20 participants to be interviewed were selected based on the quality of the markers in their paragraphs (i.e. resemblance or deviation from the expert speakers' use) and/or to the quantity of the markers (the participants who employed the markers most frequently and the ones who used them the least frequently). The interviews were conducted one week after the participants had written their paragraphs since this time period was needed for the analysis of the paragraphs. One of the selected participants did not attend the interview session; therefore, 19 interviews of around 20-25 minutes were conducted.

Considering the competency of the participants in English, the interviews were conducted in Turkish to make them feel more comfortable and to elicit as much information as possible from them about the underlying processes determining the choice of certain cause markers. After each participant was provided with a copy of his/her reviewed paragraph (the cause markers were highlighted and each one was numbered), they were asked to explain why they had chosen to use those markers.

Dörnyei (2007) states that among researchers there is an agreement that if semi-structured interviews are the tools to collect data, it should be recorded because merely taking notes will not allow the interviewer “catch all the details of nuances of personal meaning” and he also adds that it would be disruptive for the

interviewee seeing the interviewer taking notes all the time (p.139). Therefore, the interviews were both video and audio-recorded as this was thought to be the best way to enable the researcher to examine the data again whenever needed.

Possible interview questions and the interview sheets prepared by the researcher are presented in Appendix F.

3.4. Data Analysis

All of the paragraphs were formatted and placed into CLAN CHILDES (which stands for Computerized Language Analysis Child Language Data Exchange System) program. CLAN CHILDES is a tool for computerizing and analysing the language transcripts. The program enables the researchers to search for specific words or word strings (COMBO), highlights them and counts how many times they are used in the data (FREQ). It is advantageous with regard to accuracy since it minimizes the chance of skipping any item.

The Turkish paragraphs and the English ones were stored in separate folders, where the data entry was done in the following way:

- Each composition was transcribed by the researcher, assigned a unique name, and saved in a separate folder,
- The data included only the original work of the participants,
- There were no error corrections or revision except for the spelling mistakes since they would have a significant effect on the results otherwise. In other words, since the researcher was focusing on a number of specific cause markers and their employment in the data, if there had been a spelling mistake in one of those markers, the program (i.e. CLAN CHILDES) would not have been able to identify that marker, which, in turn, would result in inaccuracy in the computations.

The COMBO and FREQ programs in CLAN CHILDES were used to identify the cause markers employed by the students and their functions in different contexts. If an example is to be presented, we can examine the use and function of the cause marker ‘generate’ in the student data:

When we run the FREQ program only, we will have the following window on the screen, stating that there is 1 occurrence of ‘generate’ in the data:

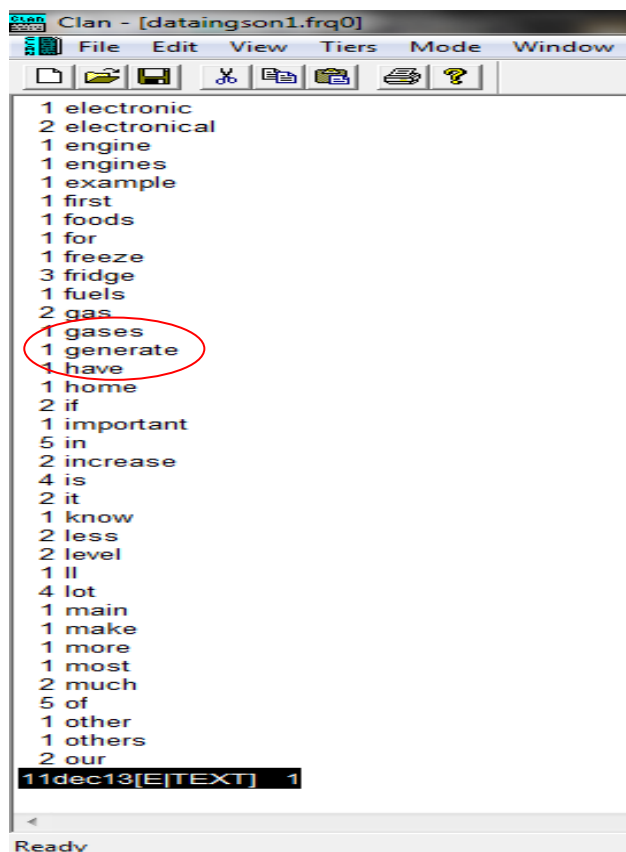


Figure 3.2 FREQ program in CLAN CHILDES

However, when we use the COMBO program to see the context of this specific word, we see the following window and realize that the verb ‘generate’ was not employed by the participant as a cause marker, it was used in its literal meaning:

```

> combo @ +sgenerate*
generate*
combo @ +sgenerate*
2014
combo (11-Dec-2013) is conducting analyses on:
  ALL speaker tiers
*****
From file <c:\TalkBank\dataingson1.>
-----
*** File "c:\TalkBank\dataingson1.": line 186.
*033: There are three main causes of air pollution . The first reason is that too much petrol using . For example , we use a lot of tr
Petrol burns in engine and it transform positionary gas. Moreover , engines produce a lot of CO2 . Every person want to use person
we'll use public transportation . Factory's chimney produce a lot of poisonery gas. As a result petrol and other fuels produce poisc
Secondly , we use a lot of electronical device and unquality aerosols . We use fridge and clima in our home . They produce CFC a
You know , we can't stop to use the fridge because so foods have to be in cold but we should less use the clima . Climas producc
climas are the most producer CFC in the world . We use unquality aerosol and it contains CFC too . Unquality aerosol is very dan
Consequently , we should less use electronical freeze device and we should use quality aerosols .The third reason is that cutting
Trees are very important because they (1)generate O2 and they make O2-CO2 balance in the world . If we cut trees , CO2 level wi
this balance will change . Furthermore , people and others can't aspirate . To sum up , too much petrol using , use electronic devi
without control trees are the reasons .

Strings matched 1 times
11dec13[E|TEXT] * 4

```

Figure 3.3 COMBO program in CLAN CHILDES

Therefore, the result with respect to the employment of this verb in the student data was indicated as being zero since the use above does not provide us with a causal relationship. Furthermore, only the correct uses of the cause-markers were counted in the student paragraphs so as to have two sets of comparable data, i.e. student data and expert user data.

In addition to the paragraphs written by the students, the WHO was also transcribed, put into the CLAN CHILDES program, and analysed in terms of the employed cause markers.

As the current thesis study would be the first one to identify the cause markers that could be employed in Turkish cause paragraphs, the English markers categorized by Flowerdew (1998) were taken as the first step, and the equivalents of the English cause markers were identified through the translation of each item in Turkish. As the student paragraphs were analysed, more Turkish cause markers were added to the list created by the researcher. Another English instructor from another university in Turkey was requested to follow the same steps and create a list of cause markers separately. The two lists were compared and contrasted in order to eliminate any mistakes, and so that the results would be reliable. At the end, a final list of Turkish cause markers was created.

The interviews were coded, translated, transcribed and the common topics in those were identified and examined by the researcher:

- Topics of student paragraphs,
- Difficulty in L1 writing and L2 writing,
- Background education on L1 writing,
- Background education on L2 writing,
- The writing handout,
- Repetition of the cause markers in student paragraphs.

The details of these interviews are presented in the Results and Discussions section.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0. Presentation

The findings of the study based on the data analysis are all presented in this chapter. Firstly, in section 4.1, the results of the Turkish cause paragraphs written by the participants are presented along with the frequency and uses of the identified Turkish cause markers to answer the first research question. In 4.2, the cause markers employed in the English paragraphs are examined, and the second research question is answered. Section 4.3 is dedicated to the discussion of the frequency and uses of the English markers presented in the teaching materials (i.e. Writing Handout), and to the comparison of these markers with the ones identified in the participants' writings, so that the third research question can be answered. Lastly, the results of the interviews with the participants are analysed in 4.4 to see the student perspective, that is, the reasons behind their choices in terms of the cause markers they used/not used in their paragraphs and to see the relationship between their L1 and L2 writing practices and habits.

4.1. The Cause Markers Employed in the Turkish Paragraphs

There were 63 Turkish paragraphs written by the participants who were native speakers of Turkish learning English as a foreign language at university level.

Total number of words	11.592
Total number of cause markers	557
Average number of words per paragraph	184
Tokens per 100 words	4.8

Table 4.1 Total and average number of words, and cause markers employed in the Turkish paragraphs

In total there were 11.592 words (an average of 184 words per paragraph), and the participants employed 557 cause markers (giving us an average of 4.8 cause markers per 100 words). Since the participants were writing on the causes of water pollution, the causal relationship should have been indicated by more cause markers; thus, this number of cause markers employed in the data might be considered as quite low.

In the students' Turkish paragraphs six main categories of cause markers were identified: *nouns*, *connectives*, *postpositions*, *verbs*, *suffixes*, and *adjectivals*.

When we examine the distribution of these six categories in the Turkish data (See: Figure 4.1.), it is apparent that *nouns* (around 43%.) is by far the most popular type to be used by the Turkish participants. Following the nouns, *verbs* were found to constitute one fourth of the cause markers employed in the data (25%). *Postpositions* and *suffixes* were employed almost in the same frequency: around 14% and 12% respectively. Finally, *connectives* were not very frequent throughout the data (6.3%), being the second least used cause marker type coming after *adjectivals* (0.2%).

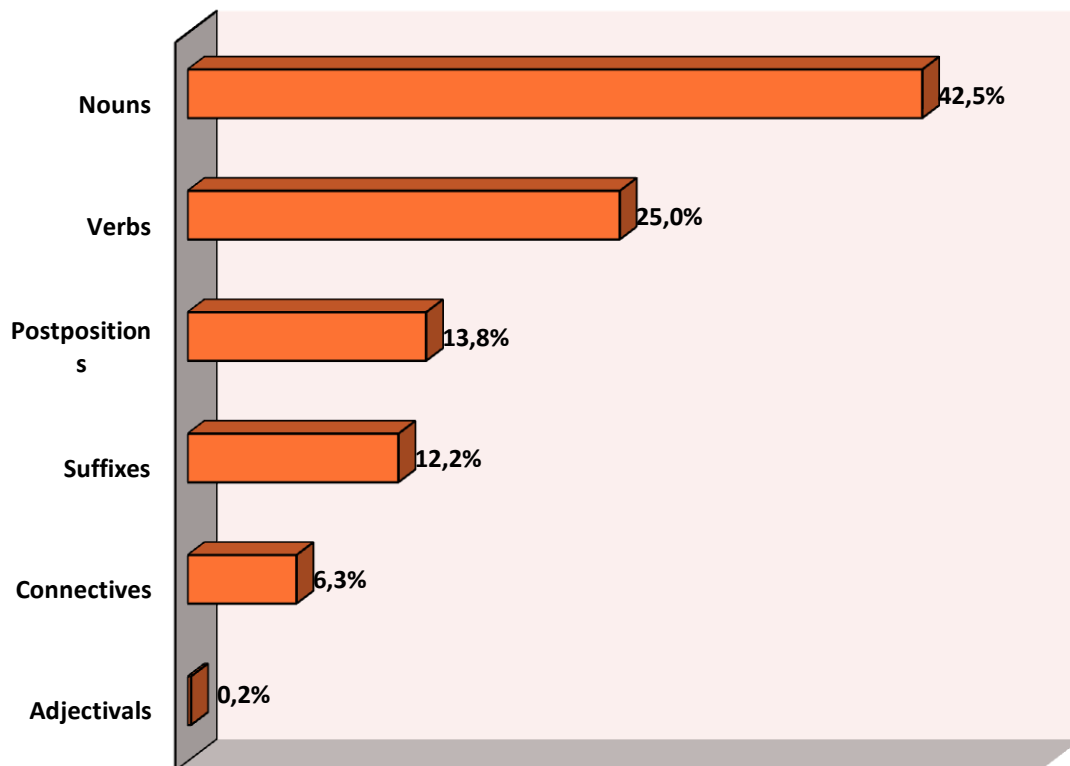


Figure 4.1 Types of Turkish cause-markers and their frequencies in student paragraphs

A more detailed analysis of causer marker types, every member employed under those titles and an example sentence for each one was presented below in Table 4.2:

TYPES	MARKERS	EXAMPLE SENTENCES
A. Nouns	<p>A1. <i>sebepe</i> A2. <i>neden</i> A3. <i>unsur</i> A4. <i>faktör</i> A5. <i>etmen</i> A6. <i>etken</i></p>	<p>A1. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>sebebidir</u>. A2. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>nedenidir</u>. A3. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>unsurudur</u>. A4. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>faktörüdür</u>. A5. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>etmenidir</u>. A6. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>etkenidir</u>.</p>
B. Connectives	<p>B1. <i>çünkü</i> B2. <i>dolayısıyla</i> B3. <i>bu yüzden</i> B4. <i>bu nedenle</i> B5. <i>bu sebeple / bu sebepten</i></p>	<p>B1. Evden çıkamadık <u>çünkü</u> şiddetli fırtına vardı. B2. Şiddetli fırtına vardı. <u>Dolayısıyla</u> evden çıkamadık. B3. Şiddetli fırtına vardı <u>bu yüzden</u> evden çıkamadık. B4. Şiddetli fırtına vardı <u>bu nedenle</u> evden çıkamadık. B5. Şiddetli fırtına vardı <u>bu sebeple/ bu sebepten</u> evden çıkamadık.</p>
C. Postpositions	<p>C1. <i>ile / -yla / -yle</i> C2. <i>için</i> C3. <i>yüzünden</i> C4. <i>-dan/ -den dolayı</i> C5. <i>-dan/ -den ötürü</i> C6. <i>sonucu</i> C7. <i>dolayısıyla</i> C8. <i>gereği</i></p>	<p>C1. Eve geç kalmasıyla <u>annesini</u> çok kızdırdı. C2. Eve geç kaldığı <u>için</u> annesini çok kızdırdı. C3. Eve geç kalması <u>yüzünden</u> annesini çok kızdırdı. C4. Eve geç kalmasından <u>dolayı</u> annesini çok kızdırdı. C5. Eve geç kalmasından <u>ötürü</u> annesini çok kızdırdı. C6. Eve geç kalması <u>sonucu</u> annesi çok kızdı. C7. Eve geç kalması <u>dolayısıyla</u> annesi çok kızdı. C8. Kanun <u>gereği</u> bu para cezasını ödemeliyiz. Doğası <u>gereği</u> insanoğlu hayatta kalma savaşı verir.</p>

<p>D. Verbs</p>	<p><i>D1. sebep olmak</i> <i>D2. neden olmak</i> <i>D3. sebebiyet vermek</i> <i>D4. sonucunu doğurmak</i> <i>D5. yol açmak</i> <i>D6. üretmek</i> <i>D7. yaratmak</i> <i>D8. oluşturmak</i> <i>D9. doğurmak</i> <i>D10. ortaya çıkar(t)mak</i> <i>D11. meydana getirmek</i> <i>D12. katkıda bulunmak /katkı yapmak</i> <i>D13. –den/-dan kaynaklanmak</i> <i>D14. –den/-dan ileri gelmek</i> <i>D15. (beraberinde) getirmek</i> <i>D16. tetiklemek</i> <i>D17. altında / temelinde/ merkezinde olmak/yatmak</i></p>	<p><i>D1. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kazaya <u>sebecp oldu</u>.</i> <i>D2. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kazaya <u>neden oldu</u>.</i> <i>D3. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kazaya <u>sebecpiyet verdi</u>.</i> <i>D4. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kaza <u>sonucunu doğurdu</u>.</i> <i>D5. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kazaya <u>yol açtı</u>.</i> <i>D6. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>üretir</u>.</i> <i>D7. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>yaratır</u>.</i> <i>D8. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>oluşturur</u>.</i> <i>D9. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>doğurur</u>.</i> <i>D10. Bu gereksinimler, üretimin yanında fazlasıyla atık <u>ortaya çıkarır</u>.</i> <i>D11. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirlilik <u>meydana getirir</u>.</i> <i>D12. Araçlarımızda kullandığımız yakıtlar da kirliliğe <u>katkıda bulunur</u>.</i> <i>D13. Bölgedeki birçok kaza şiddetli fırtınadan <u>kaynaklandı</u>.</i> <i>D14. Bölgedeki birçok kaza şiddetli fırtınadan <u>ileri geldi</u>.</i> <i>D15. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kazayı <u>beraberinde getirdi</u>.</i> <i>D16. Şiddetli fırtına bölgede birçok kazayı <u>tetikledi</u>.</i> <i>D17. Bölgedeki birçok kazanın <u>temelinde</u> şiddetli fırtına <u>yatıyor</u>. Bölgedeki birçok kazanın <u>altında/ merkezinde</u> fırtına <u>var</u>.</i></p>
<p>E. Suffixes</p>	<p><i>E1. –dan / -den</i> <i>E2. –ması / -mesi (-maları)</i></p>	<p><i>E1. Sizi çok sevdiğimden böyle davranıyorum.</i> <i>E2. Eve geç <u>kalması</u> annesini kızdırdı.</i></p>
<p>F. Adjectivals</p>	<p><i>F1. sorumlu(su)dur</i></p>	<p><i>F1. Bu olayın tek <u>sorumlusu</u> eğitimsizliktir. Bu olaydan yalnızca eğitimsizlik <u>sorumludur</u>.</i></p>

Table 4.2 The specific cause markers under each category and example sentences

4.1.1. Nouns

The category of Turkish nouns, the most common cause marker type in the student paragraphs, has six members: ‘*neden*’, ‘*sebe**p*’, ‘*unsur*’, ‘*faktör*’, ‘*etmen*’ and ‘*etken*’. Among these six items, as it can be studied in Figure 4.2, ‘*neden*’ comes forward as the most popular one with a frequency of 47.3%, standing for almost the half of the nouns employed as cause markers throughout the student data. In spite of the fact that it is less frequent when compared, ‘*sebe**p*’ is also a popular cause marker following ‘*neden*’ as the second ranking noun with a percentage of 31.2% of the time.

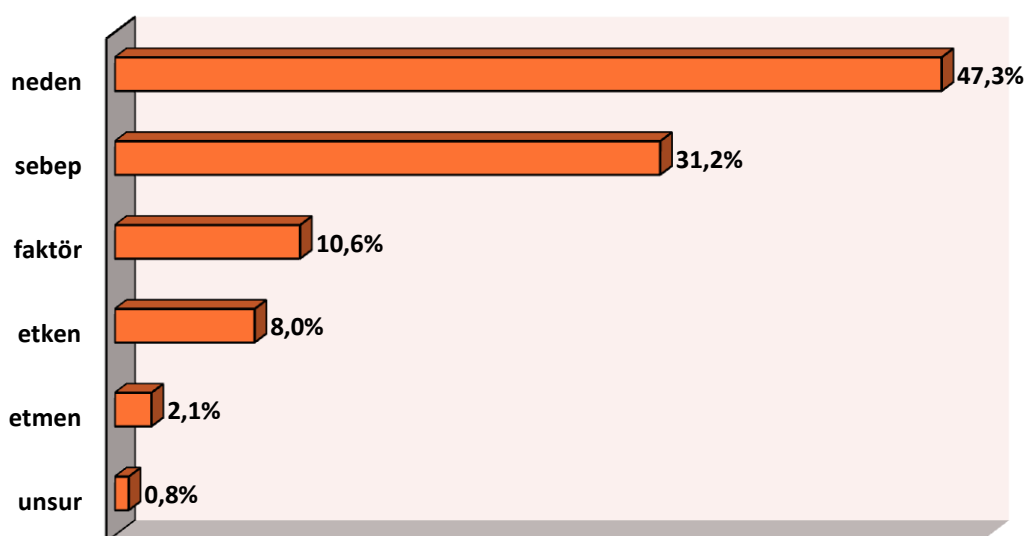


Figure 4.2 Distribution of the nouns used as cause markers in the Turkish data

The findings related to the use of nouns as cause markers also show us that ‘*faktör*’ (10.6%) and ‘*etken*’ (8%) are also preferred quite often while talking about the causes/reasons of something. By contrast, ‘*etmen*’ (2.1%) and ‘*unsur*’ (0.8%) were

not chosen to be used in the paragraphs even though they had very similar uses and meanings to '*faktör*' and '*etmen*'. Therefore, there is a need to look at the difference between those pairs of nouns to understand the rationale behind students' preference.

In a study conducted on the uses of foreign origin and Turkish origin words, Lüle-Mert (2012) suggests that according to the information presented by TDK Turkish dictionary '*etmen*' is the Turkish origin equivalent of '*factor*' which was borrowed from French. Here we can see the tendency to use a foreign origin word that might be substituted by a Turkish one, which might be seen as an effect of foreign languages on the native language.

'*Unsur*' is also given as a foreign origin (Arabic) word in Lüle-Mert's (2012) list. An important detail is that the equivalent of this word is given as '*öge*' in Turkish, and therefore, it mostly refers to a unit which has already been there rather than something starting or causing new things/conditions. This nuance might be the reason why it was not preferred very often by the students.

In the interviews, when we asked the participants why they had preferred '*neden*' and '*sebep*' more than the others, the following three common reasons were given by them:

- It was the effect of English since they translated the noun '*cause*' as '*neden*' or '*sebep*' in Turkish,
- The topic was '*su kirliliğinin ana nedenleri*', therefore they preferred '*neden*' most of the time,
and
- As they used '*neden*' and '*sebep*', they did not feel the need to use any other marker in the paragraphs.

Example 4.1. (Participant 07, Female, 18 years old)

Interviewer: *You have employed the word ‘sebep’ for four or five times throughout your paragraph. Why did you prefer the word ‘sebep’?*

P.07: *Actually, as I said, as I started writing Turkish paragraphs based on English paragraphs, I guess I thought ‘sebep’ is similar to ‘cause’.*

Interviewer: *What could be the reason for this? Turkish is your native language but you are taking English as the base and write your Turkish paragraph accordingly.*

P.07: *I think that is because I got writing instruction only in English.*

As a conclusion the over dependence on the two nouns in the Turkish paragraphs apparently results from the fact that the students felt insecure while writing in Turkish (see: 4.4.2 and 4.4.3 for more specific information on students’ earlier L1 writing instruction and experience) and tried to make use of their English knowledge as this was the language in which they had learnt how to write paragraphs.

4.1.2. Connectives

In order to identify the use and function of the members of this category, we need to define what a discourse connective mean clearly. According to Göksel and Kerslake (2005), discourse connectives are different from conjunctions in that while conjunctions are combining two or more items sharing the same syntactic feature, connectives are linking at least two sentences, showing the cohesive relationship between them (p. 440).

In the light of this definition, the category was named as ‘connectives’ rather than ‘conjunctions’, and the cause markers ‘çünkü’, ‘bu yüzden’, ‘bu nedenle’, ‘bu sebeple / bu sebepten’, and ‘dolayısıyla’ were put under this category.

Having been closely examined, ‘çünkü’ (45.7 %) was found to be the most common of these five connectives in the Turkish data (See Figure 4.3). This connective is borrowed from Persian and it has synonyms such as ‘zira’ and ‘lakin’, which are not nearly as frequent as ‘çünkü’ (Lewis, 2000). According to Göksel and Kerslake (2005), ‘çünkü’ might be used at the beginning or at the end of the second conjunct, giving the reason or emphasizing the meaning in the preceding sentence/conjunct.

However, although the participants in the current study employed this marker both at the beginning and in the middle of the two sentences, none of them employed it at the end of the second conjunct:

Example 4.2:

İnsanlara su kirliliğinin ne kadar önemli ve tehlikeli bir sorun olduğunu öğretecek kurumlar kurmalı, çünkü su kirliliği hem içinde yaşayan canlılara hem de sulardan faydalanan insanlara büyük ölçüde zarar veriyor. (Participant 5)

Example 4.3:

Bu sorunları tespit edip, çözümleri için elimizden geleni yapmalı eğer başarabilirsek başkalarına da yaptırmalıyız. Çünkü, bu tür kirlilikler başka sorunlarda neden olabilir. (Participant 19)

Therefore, we would not be mistaken to claim that the use of ‘*çünkü*’ at the end of the clause/sentence giving the reason is not as common as using it at the beginning or in the middle. In addition, one important difference between the use of ‘*çünkü*’ at the beginning of a separate sentence is explained by Göksel and Kerslake (2005) as follows:

The use of a separate sentence introduced by *çünkü* is preferred where (a) the reason is added as an afterthought, or (b) the reason is a fact not known to the hearer, to which the speaker wishes to give as much informational value as to the resultant event or state (p.452).

In the Turkish data, out of 16 occurrences of ‘*çünkü*’, eight were at the beginning of a separate sentence while the remaining eight were at the beginning of a conjunct. As a result, it might be claimed that the Turkish students are aware this usage and are capable of using it in both senses.

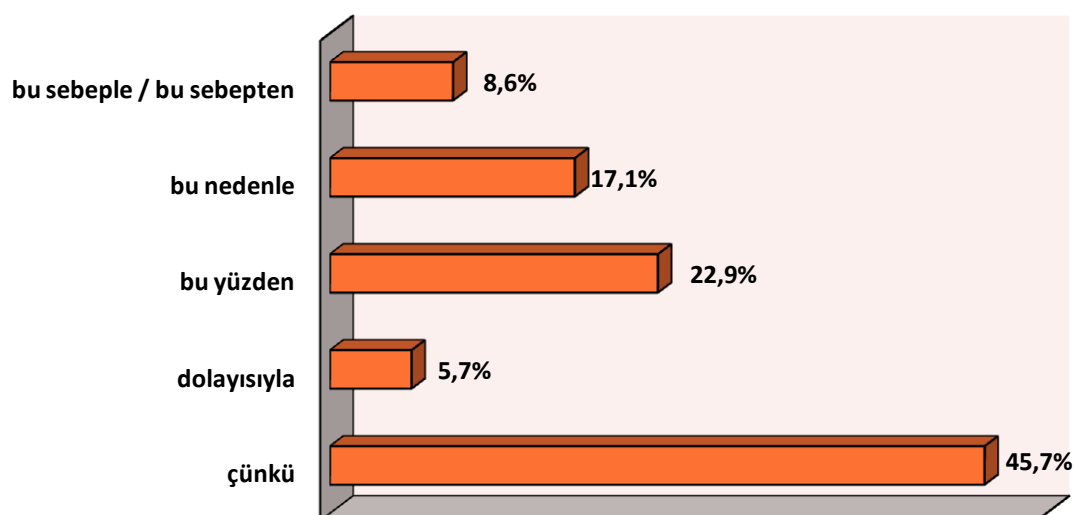


Figure 4.3 Distribution of the connectives used as cause markers in the Turkish data

Another interesting finding concerning the connectives is that even though they convey almost exactly the same meaning (i.e. *because of this* or *as a result*) ‘*bu yüzden*’ (22.9 %) was preferred more often, compared to ‘*bu nedenle*’ (17.1 %), ‘*bu sebeple / bu sebepten*’ (8.6 %), and ‘*dolayısıyla*’ (5.7 %).

The reason behind the fact that ‘*çünkü*’ was employed more than the other connectives might be explained by the findings that Biniş (1999) found in his study looking at the “cue phrases” used in Turkish for creating coherence: if we want to substitute ‘*çünkü*’ with ‘*bu nedenle*’, ‘*bu sebeple / bu sebepten*’, ‘*bu yüzden*’ or ‘*dolayısıyla*’, this would “require a rearrangement in the constituents” (p.14). This might be explained as the following diagram shows:

reason / cause.	<i>Bu nedenle,</i> <i>Bu yüzden,</i> <i>Bu sebeple / Bu sebepten,</i> <i>Dolayısıyla,</i>	result /effect.
result / effect	. <i>Çünkü</i> <i>çünkü</i>	reason / cause.

Figure 4.4 Comparison of the connectives in terms of their place in the sentence

To be more specific, their tendency to employ ‘*çünkü*’ while writing cause paragraphs implies that Turkish students, might be feeling more comfortable about giving the result/effect of something, and then, explaining the reason/cause behind it. However, when asked none of the students could give any specific reason for using ‘*çünkü*’ more than the other connectives. The only thing most of them mentioned

was that they were not aware of the fact that they were repeating this connective in their paragraphs.

4.1.3. Postpositions

In Turkish, “postpositions correspond to prepositions in English, though there are many fewer of them” (Zeyrek & Webber, 2008, p.66). Not being used alone, they go together with their noun complements, and form postpositional phrases that may be used in many different functions in a sentence as mentioned by Balpınar (2006). Eight postpositions that could be used as cause-markers were identified in the current study (see Figure 4.5).

Two of the postpositions, ‘-dan/-den dolayı’ and ‘için’, were used equally in the paragraphs written by the students (26% each). Starting with ‘için’, one can say that when used in a causal relation, the meaning it conveys in the sentence is ‘because’, ‘as’ or ‘since’. Therefore, its high frequency is not very surprising. However, ‘-dan/-den dolayı’ presents quite intriguing results because although it has the same function and the same meaning with ‘-dan/-den ötürü’, Figure 4.5 clearly demonstrates that the former was used five times as much as the latter. They are both postpositions in the ablative case and from the semantic perspective there is no difference between these two structures. Thus, there seems to be an exposure difference between these two markers. Apparently, the Turkish students participating in the study felt more comfortable using ‘dolayı’ rather than ‘ötürü’ in their pieces of writing.

‘Sonucu’ (around 17%) was found to be the fourth most popular postposition following another postposition: non-subordinating ‘ile’ and its subordinating correspondent ‘-yla/ -yle’, constituting around 18% of the all the postpositional cause markers in the Turkish paragraphs.

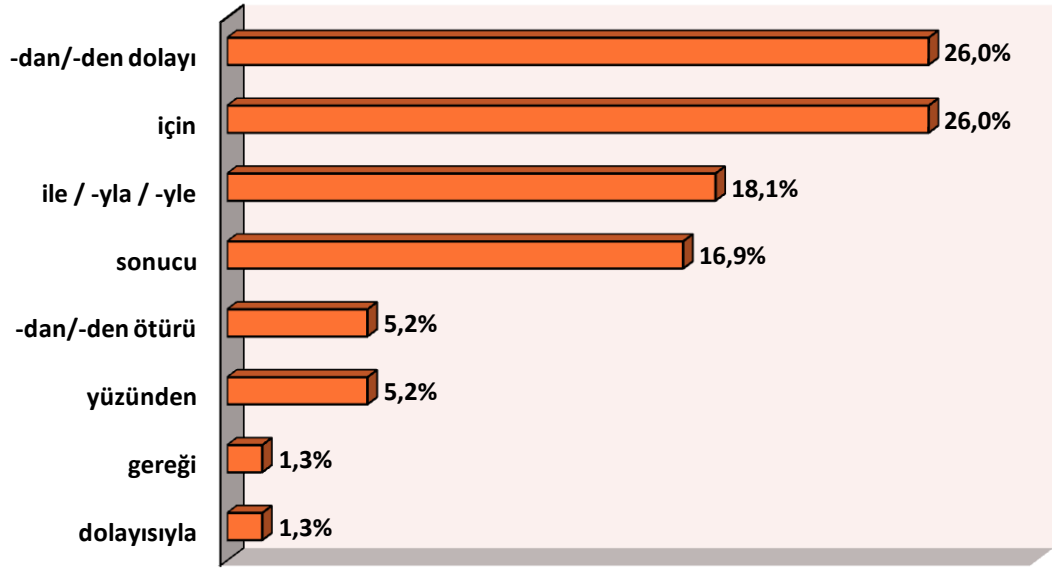


Figure 4.5 Distribution of the postpositions used as cause markers in the Turkish data

Lewis (2000) differentiates ‘*ila*’ (which is generally associated with ‘*ile*’ because of their similarity) and ‘*ile*’ from each other claiming that ‘*ila*’ is the only preposition in Turkish and it is used as a separate word especially while talking about numbers as in the following example:

Example 4.4:

Taşlar yarım ila bir metre arasında toprakla örtülür.

(the stones are covered with earth to a depth of a half to one meter) (p.92).

Therefore, ‘*ila*’ was not included in the study, not denoting a causal meaning.

Out of 14 instances, none of them were found to be the non-subordinating ‘ile’, so all of them were the subordinating ‘-yla / -yle’. The following are the examples from the student data:

Example 4.5:

... gemiler ve diğer deniz araçlarının atıklarını sulara boşaltmasıyla denizlerimiz kirlenir. (Participant 47)

Example 4.6:

Küresel ısınmanın etkisiyle sular aşırı derecede ısınır. (Participant 7)

Another postposition ‘yüzünden’ was rarely utilised in the data, being only around 5% of the time. Göksel and Kerslake (2005) clarifies that “in the expression of causality, ‘yüzünden’ is used only when speaking of causes that have undesirable results”; however, in spite of the fact that they were writing about the causes of water pollution (which definitely is an ‘undesirable result’), the students did not employ this postpositional cause marker as much as many others (p.227).

Finally, there was only one instance of ‘gereği’ and one of ‘dolayısıyla’ as postpositions in the paragraphs:

Example 4.7:

İnsan, yapısı gereği gözünün önünde olmayan şeyleri düşünmek istemez ve düşünmez. (Participant 54).

Example 4.8:

Filtreleme ve arıtma işinin maliyetleri dolayısıyla iş yeri sahipleri bu giderlerden kurtulmak için çeşitli yollar bulmaktalar. (Participant 57).

'*Dolayısıyla*' was categorized under two titles: postpositions and connectives. After the analysis of both categories, it is obvious that this cause marker was not preferred by the students: out of a total of 557 cause markers only three occurrences were detected (one as a postposition, two as connectives).

4.1.4. Verbs

Although it is not the most frequently employed type of cause markers, *verbs* is the richest one with its 16 members. The same situation that was prevalent in all the former categories, in this category there are some dominating members as well: '*neden olmak*', '*sebep olmak*', '*yol açmak*' and '*-dan / -den kaynaklanmak*'.

The top two verbs '*neden olmak*' (32.3%) and '*sebep olmak*' (25.8%) together constitute almost the 60% of the verbs used to express a causal relationship. As the instruction was asking the students to write about the causes of water pollution (çevre kirliliğinin nedenleri), it is an expected result that '*neden olmak*' would be used quite often.

On the other hand, an unexpected finding is that the students, despite writing in their native language, have not employed a variety of different verbs. Instead, they repeated the same verbs most of the time. As Figure 4.6 summarizes, '*yaratmak*' and '*oluşturmak*' were also used from time to time while the remaining ten verbs were not employed more than once or twice. As an exception '*üretmek*' was never used in the sense of a cause marker.

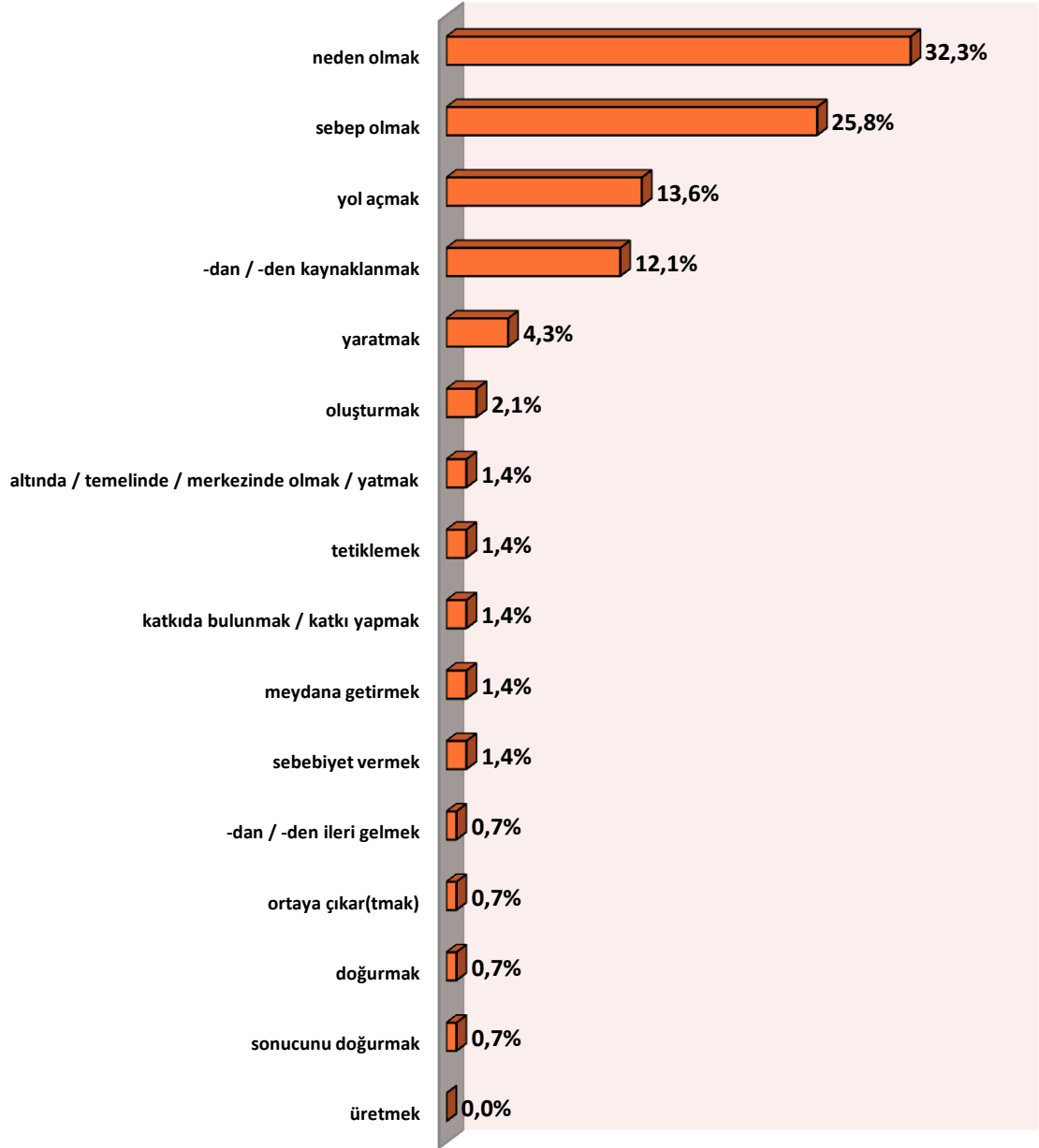


Figure 4.6 Distribution of the verbs used as cause markers in the Turkish data

4.1.5. Suffixes

Turkish is a language very rich in derivational affixes and it makes use of suffixes to create thousands of new words (Hengirmen, 2001). When the data collected from the students were examined, two suffixes that denote a causal relationship were identified: ‘-ması /-mesi /-maları’ and ‘-dan / -den’.

Göksel and Kerlake (2005) define ‘-ması /-mesi /-maları’ as “-mA with possessive suffixes” and explain that “-mA clauses deal with states and events in terms of description or evaluation, of causation processes in which they are involved, or of people’s attitudes towards them or attempts to bring them about”(p.363). They give the following example to show how this suffix is used to form a noun clause:

Example 4.9:

[Ayla'nın işten hep geç ve yorgun gelmesi] evde gerginlik yaratıyordu.

[The fact that Ayla always got back from work late and tired] was creating tension in the house.’ (p.364)

In the light of this information and based on the findings in Figure 4.7, we can summarize that Turkish students while writing cause paragraphs, employed ‘-ma’ with a possessive suffix (e.g. -sı, -ları, etc.) quite frequently (i.e. 85.3%) to indicate the causal relationship in their statements.

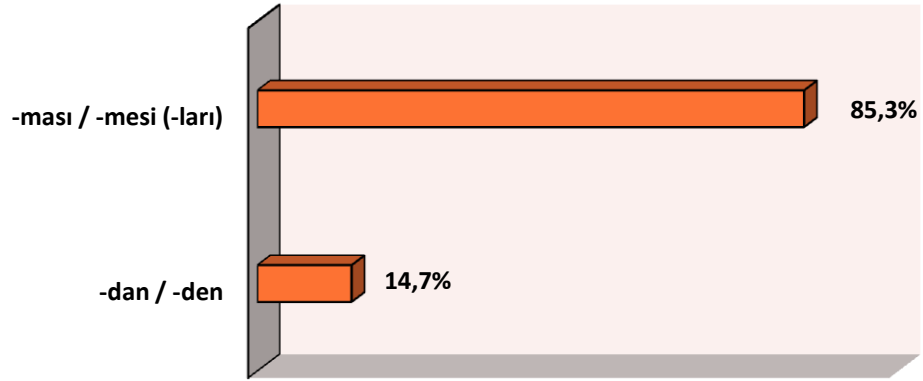


Figure 4.7 Distribution of the suffixes used as cause markers in the Turkish data

The second member of this category is ‘-dan/-den’, which actually is the ablative case marker but we are only interested in its causal use in the sentences. It was used ten times throughout the data and it stands for almost 15% of the *suffixes* and almost 2% of the all cause markers. The following examples demonstrate its use with nouns and verbs by the participants:

Example 4.10:

Belirli bir süre ısı ve ışık alamayacaklarından ölmeye başlarlar. (Participant 24)

Example 4.11:

... ve üretilen ürünün pazarlara ulaşımının kolay olması açısından deniz kenarlarına kurulmaktadır. (Participant 40)

4.1.6. Adjectivals

An adjectival is defined as “any linguistic structure that performs the function of an adjective” by Göksel and Kerslake (2005, p.470). The only cause marker placed under this type is ‘*sorumlu(su)dur*’. There was only one instance of it in the data:

Example 4.12:

Ayrıca bazı yük gemilerinin atıklarını denize bırakması da suların kirlenmesinden insanların sorumlu olduğunun bir göstergesidir. (Participant 56)

‘*Adjectivals*’ category which has only one member is the least popular group among Turkish students.

4.2. The Cause Markers Employed in the English Paragraphs

The number of English paragraphs written by the participants was 63 and in total there were 11.488 words in the data. Table 4.3 gives the general picture related to the use of cause markers in the data. As seen, the number of cause markers employed in the students’ English paragraph (henceforth SEP) was 483, which shows that the average number of cause markers per 100 words was around 4.2. When we consider the fact that the paragraphs written by the participants were 150-180 words, this number of markers used in them was significantly low. However, when compared to the L1 paragraphs of the participants (with 4.8 cause markers per paragraph), it might be said that there is not a meaningful difference between them in terms of quantity of the cause markers utilised in the data.

	ENGLISH DATA	TURKISH DATA
Total number of words	11.488	11.592
Total number of cause markers	483	557
Average number of words per paragraph	182	184
Tokens per 100 words	4.2	4.8

Table 4.3 Total and average number of the words and cause markers in English and Turkish paragraphs

When the six categories (*nouns, conjunctions, complex prepositions, prepositions, verbs, adjective phrases*) identified by Flowerdew (1998) were analysed, the category of *nouns* (53.6%) was found to be the favourite marker used by the students in the data (See Table 4.4). *Verbs* (20.5%) and *conjunctions* (13.7%) followed the *nouns* as the second and the third most popular types of cause markers respectively whereas the least frequently used category was adjective phrase as it was not employed by any of the participants in the study.

		SEP	
CATEGORY	TYPE	n	%
Cause /Reason	Nouns	259	53.6
	Conjunctions	66	13.7
	Complex Prepositions	41	8.5
	Prepositions	18	3.7
	Verbs	99	20.5
	Adjective Phrase	0	0
Total		483	100,0

Table 4.4 Types of cause-markers and their frequencies in SEP

4.3.1. Nouns

The findings regarding the employment of nouns to convey a causal relationship showed that Turkish participants used both of the nouns in this category rather frequently (*cause*= 54.8%, *reason*= 45.2%). Although ‘*cause*’ is more popular than ‘*reason*’ in the English paragraphs of the native Turkish participants, it can be concluded that the difference is not significant.

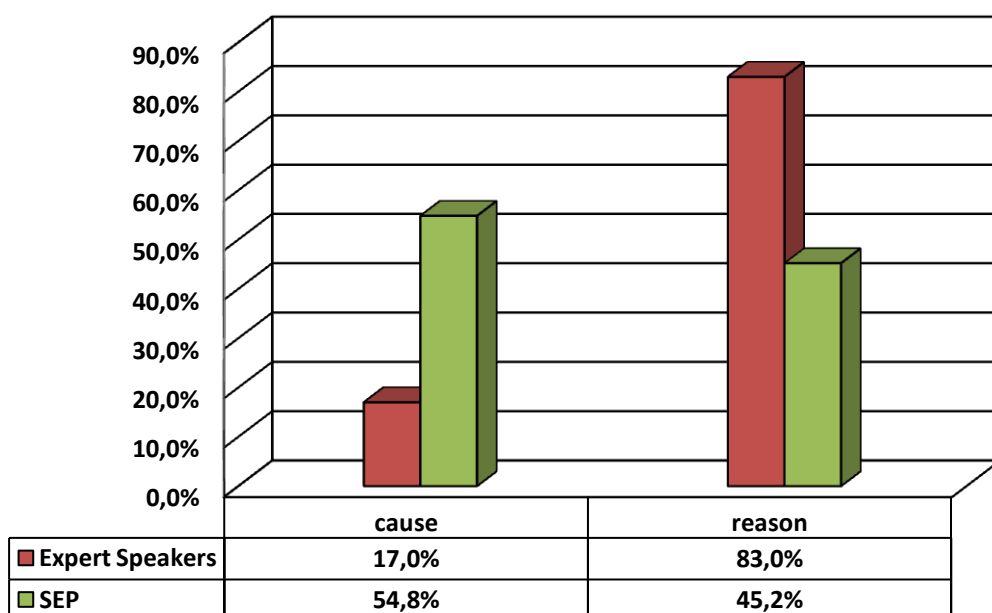


Figure 4.8 Comparison of the nouns used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus

However, when compared with the distribution of these two markers in the expert corpus, it is seen that ‘*reason*’ constitutes 83% of the nouns in the corpus whereas ‘*cause*’ forms only 17% of them, which represents a striking disparity between the two sets of data.

The participants were requested to tell the interviewer why they had used the noun 'cause' more than 'reason' and they responded that:

- They cared about the consistency and they told us that when they started the first major with the word 'cause', they wanted to continue with the same noun until the end to create a sense of unity, and
- The topic was asking them to write 'the main causes of air pollution'; thus, they preferred the word 'cause'.

Example 4.13: Participant 40, Male, 19 years old)

P.40: *I used 'cause' because of... I mean... after I said 'There are several causes of air pollution', I write 'the first cause of', 'the second cause of', 'the third or final cause of'... Because I used 'cause' in the topic sentence, I felt the need to use it in the others as well.*

Interviewer: *Is it to make it more systematic?*

P.40: *Yes.*

In conclusion, in addition to the effect of the topic, the idea to make the paragraph more coherent led the students to repeat the same nouns throughout their paragraph.

4.3.2. Conjunctions

It is interesting to note that out of 66 conjunctions 64 occurrences of ‘*because*’ (97.0%) were detected in the students paragraphs whereas in the expert corpus writers employed ‘*because*’ (47.5%) and ‘*since*’ (45%) almost equally. However, there was only one occurrence of ‘*since*’ (1.5%) in the student corpus. As a similarity, it is possible to conclude that the least popular conjunction was ‘*as*’ in both corpora (student corpus=1.5%; expert corpus=7.5%) although its frequency was lower in the student corpus.

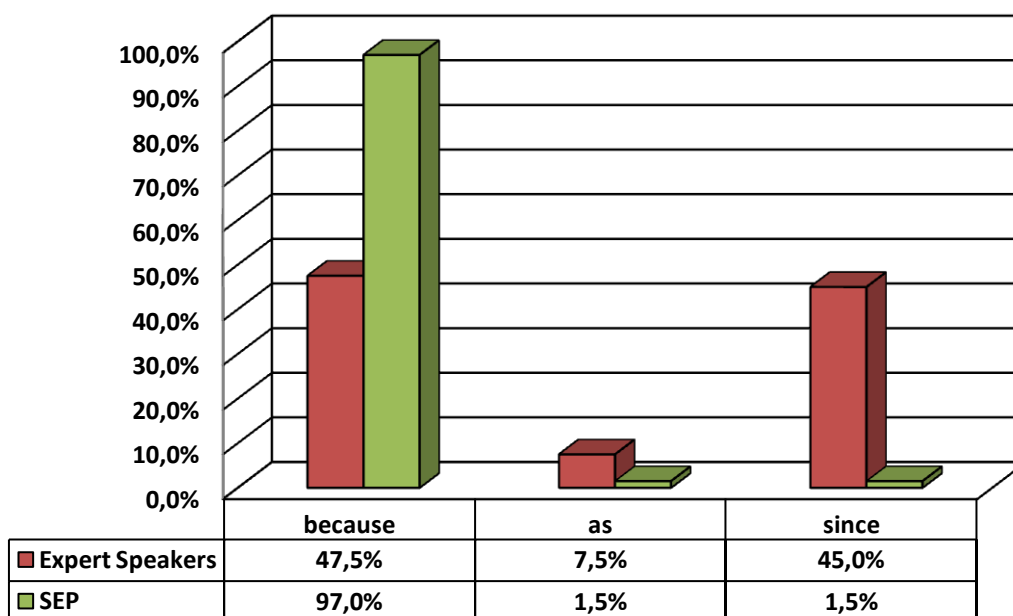


Figure 4.9 Comparison of the conjunctions used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus

There was an overuse of ‘*because*’ in the English paragraphs written by the participants and the difference was huge when the results were compared and contrasted with the expert user data. In order to see the reason behind this disparity

the students were requested to tell us why they always employed ‘*because*’ and did not consider using ‘*as*’ or ‘*since*’ to substitute it. The common answers indicated that

- they were more familiar with ‘*because*’ as a result of the fact that they had used it in their previous educational contexts (i.e. in the primary schools or high schools) whereas ‘*since*’ and ‘*as*’ were taught to them for the first time in their current educational setting, and
- they were afraid of making mistakes and believed that instead of risking the accuracy of their sentences by using the other two conjunctions, they chose ‘*because*’ which they consider as a hundred percent sure correct marker.

Example 4.14: (Participant 50, Male, 18 years old)

P.50: *I never thought about using them.*

Interviewer: *Why? Why do we more tend to use ‘because’?*

P.50: *We learn it in the primary school. First the teachers teach ‘hello’ and then, they teach ‘because’. For years... Because they do not use ‘as’ and ‘since’ either. There is always this imprint of using ‘because’ in our minds. All Turkish people use ‘because’.*

Interviewer: *Is it because you encountered this conjunction more and you used it more?*

P.50: *It is because of primary school and high school teachers. They do not use the others. They always use ‘because’. Everywhere...*

Moreover, one participant explained that he was avoiding using ‘*since*’ because he thought that it was difficult for him to differentiate it from the ‘*since*’ employed as the time marker.

To sum up, the popularity of ‘*because*’ is the result of the training given to the students in the primary and high school years. Since most of them had never used ‘*as*’ and ‘*since*’ before coming to the university, they did not feel comfortable employing them in their writings, and preferred to use the one (i.e. *because*) that they felt ‘safer’ with.

4.3.3. Complex Prepositions

In the category of complex prepositions, which has six members (i.e. *because of*, *due to*, *as a result of*, *in (the) light of*, *in view of* and *given*), participants of the present study overused ‘*because of*’ (87.8%), which was exactly the same situation as ‘*because*’, mentioned above. In contrast with this finding, ‘*because of*’ was the fourth ranking complex preposition as a cause marker in the expert user data (14.9 %). Out of 39 occurrences of ‘*because of*’, three were misused by the participants and therefore excluded from the analysis:

Example 4.15:

Scientists think cows are main cause of air pollution because of they produce metan. (Participant 07).

Example 4.16:

This gases are harmful for environment, because of we must decrease the car usage too unnecessary. (Participant 24)

Example 4.17:

Because of human effects. (Participant 52)

These example sentences reveal that the students had difficulty in differentiating the uses of ‘because’ and ‘because of’. In their sentences ‘because of’ was followed by clauses; however, they should have used nouns, noun phrases or noun clauses. It is obvious that although it was the most frequently employed cause marker in this category, it does not mean that the students are using it correctly all the time; they need more practice in using this cause marker. In this study only the correct uses were included in the data analysis.

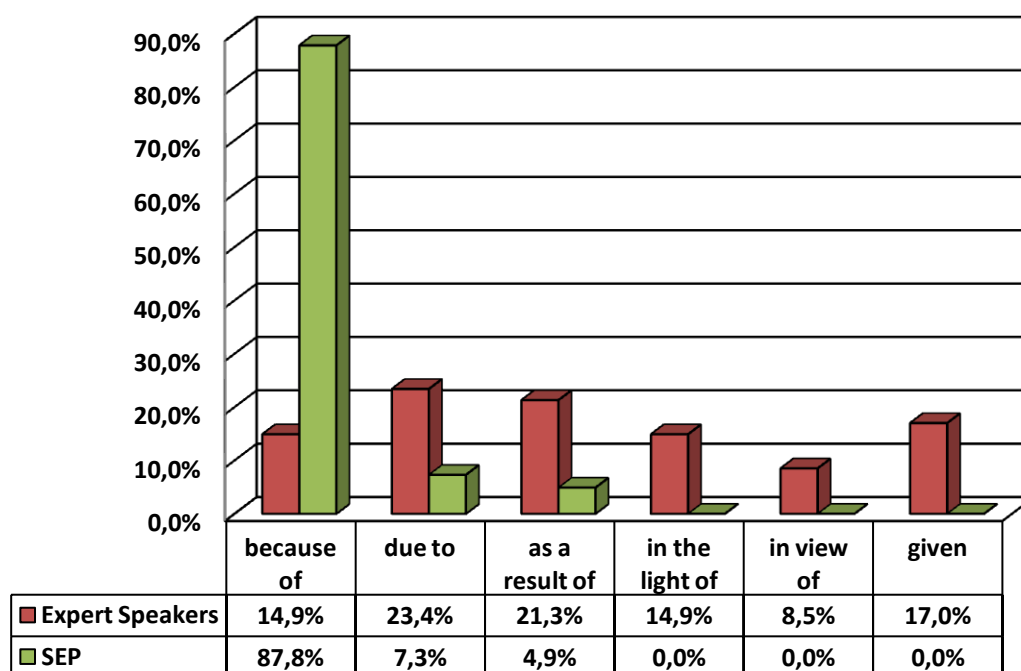


Figure 4.10 Comparison of the complex prepositions used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus

As ‘*because of*’ had a striking frequency in the student data, apparently, the participants did not feel the need to use the last three markers (i.e. *in the light of*, *in view of*, and *given*) even once. On the other hand, all those complex prepositions were employed by the expert speakers, and ‘*given*’ was even more frequent than ‘*because of*’ (17% and 14.9% respectively). This disparity, once again, indicates the need for the Turkish students to employ various cause markers in their pieces of writing instead of depending on just one of them all the time.

If we observe the uses of ‘*due to*’ and ‘*as a result of*’, it is easily noticed that within both sets of data these two markers were employed in similar measures although the frequencies are lower in the student paragraphs (7.3% and 4.9% respectively). One detail noticed in the use of ‘*due to*’ is that the students used it only at the beginning of the sentence as in the following example:

Example 4.18:

Due to the causes that I’ve mentioned above Air pollution is caused.
(Participant 50)

The main point to note with regard to this category of cause markers is as follows: Expert users seemed to use all types of complex prepositions with an almost even distribution with no significant difference. The participants of the present study, on the other hand, were not capable of employing a range of markers, and they tried to compensate this need by using one of the markers (i.e. *because of*) more frequently than expected.

Once again, the repetition of ‘*because of*’ was explained by the students in the interviews as being more familiar with this complex preposition and having the fear of using the others in a wrong way and making mistakes in their paragraphs.

Example 4.19: (Participant 13, Female, 18 years old)

P.13: *I could actually use them but I consider myself being ‘weak’ in using them. I cannot think of them while writing.*

Interviewer: *Why do you think ‘because of’ is easier?*

P.13: *It was a word that I had used before. As I had not practiced the newly learnt ones, I had such a trouble (referring the fact that she repeated ‘because of’ repeatedly in her paragraph).*

4.3.4. Prepositions

The category of ‘prepositions’ seem to be one of the categories that reflects more similarities than differences between the paragraphs of the expert users and the Turkish students. The use and frequencies of three (i.e. *with*, *by + noun*, and *by + ing*) out of six prepositions were compatible in both sets of data as it is clearly illustrated in Figure 4.11:

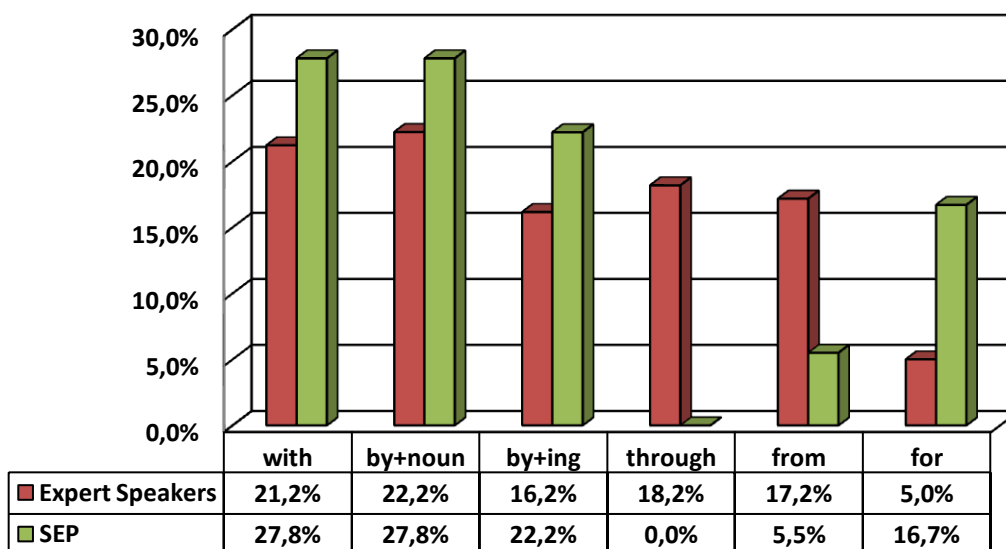


Figure 4.11 Comparison of the prepositions used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus

The main contrast attracting attention is related to the use of '*through*': In the expert speaker data, it appears as the third most recurrent preposition with a frequency of 18.2 % unlike the student data in which this preposition was not employed at all. In addition to this divergence, '*for*' was revealed to be a more popular preposition with the Turkish participants (16.7%) compared to the expert writers (5%).

4.3.5. Verbs

The category of verbs, having 16 different members, occurred as the top most frequent cause marker type in the expert user data, and as it is given in Table 4.5, the writers used almost all of the members of the category (except for *arouse*) in varying frequencies whereas in the Turkish students' English paragraphs only seven of them were employed. The remaining nine verbs, namely '*result in*', '*generate*', '*induce*', '*present*', '*pose*', '*account for*', '*arose*', '*underlie*' and '*trigger*', were not employed in the data even once. This could be noted as the most important difference between the data sets. As it was in the previous cause marker categories, the situation does not change in this category as well: Turkish students employed a limited number of verbs they knew instead of replacing them with some other items. This finding may imply that they did not know most of the members presented in this group or that the participants only used the markers that they feel safer with and did not attempt to use any other verbs to avoid making mistakes.

If we compare and contrast the specific distributions of each member, the first thing to notice is related to the use of '*cause*': In spite of being one of the top ranking items in both corpora, its frequency in the student data is five times as big as it is in the expert data. This clearly shows how much Turkish students depend on repetition in their paragraphs. The participants' answer to explain this dependency remains the same: not having been exposed to the other verbs as much as to '*cause*' and avoiding making mistakes by using only one verb that they are able to use best.

	SEP		EXPERT USER CORPUS	
	n	%	n	%
cause	80	80.9	18	16.1
result in	0	0	13	11.6
produce	1	1.0	14	12.5
lead to	7	7.1	19	17
contribute to	1	1.0	6	5.3
bring	2	2.0	4	3.6
generate	0	0	3	2.7
create	3	3.0	2	1.8
induce	0	0	4	3.6
present	0	0	5	4.4
pose	0	0	4	3.6
account for	0	0	5	4.4
arose	0	0	0	0
underlie	0	0	5	4.4
trigger	0	0	2	1.8
make (implicit)	5	5.0	8	7.2
Total	99	100,00	112	100,00

Table 4.5 Comparison of the verbs used as cause markers in SEP and in the Expert User Corpus

Distribution of the verb ‘*produce*’ is also significant because although its percentage is quite high in the expert user data, there is only one occurrence of it in the student corpus:

Example 4.20:

As a result, air pollution isn't produced only by human. (Participant 3)

The verb ‘*bring*’ was used twice in the data and only one participant used it. In both of the occurrences, this verb in the paragraph was followed by the preposition ‘*about*’ as in the following examples:

Example 4.21:

Not cleaning the chimney frequently bring about air pollution. (Participant 35)

Example 4.22:

To sum up, cutting trees, spraying perfume and odours, factory’s smogs and exhaust fume bring about air pollution. (Participant 35)

Lastly, ‘*contribute to*’, which was employed six times by the expert writers (i.e. 5.3%), was used once in the student data:

Example 4.23:

Furthermore, some natural disease such as water pollution contribute to air pollutions owing to some logical reasons. (Participant 38)

On the other hand, there are also some similarities between these two data sets. To start with, the second most frequent verb to be employed by the participants was ‘*lead to*’ (7.1%), which was also the most popular verb in the expert user data (17%).

Moreover, participants in the current study employed ‘*make*’ five times out of 99 markers like the expert users who used it eight times out of 112 cause markers. Finally, it is obvious that the verb ‘*arouse*’ was neither popular with the expert writers nor with the participants of the current study.

4.3.6. Adjective Phrases

‘*Responsible for*’ is the only adjective phrase that was identified as a cause-marker by previous research (i.e. Flowerdew, 1998). When the English paragraphs written by the participants were scrutinized, it was noticed that although this phrase (i.e. *responsible for*) was used by two participants (once each), they were not stating any causal relationship in the context and they were employed to talk about the ‘duty’ of somebody/something as the following example clarifies:

Example 4.24:

*People are responsible for everything whom live in environment.
(Participant 10).*

Therefore, this adjective phrase was not employed to show a causal relationship by any of the 63 participants, which is contradicting with the expert speaker data findings since the writers used it for seven times. Even though the percentage is low (i.e. 2.1%), the existence of this marker in the expert user corpus means that there were various ways to mention a cause/reason in the expert data, which was not the situation in the Turkish students’ paragraphs.

This result might have stemmed from the difficulty of learning adjective phrases as Leech and Svartvik (2002) state: “as a dictionary will tell you, a particular adjective usually requires a particular preposition” (p.227). Hence, being competent in using

adjective phrases improves with practice and it takes time until the learners of English as a foreign language can feel themselves comfortable enough to employ them.

4.4. A Comparison of the Cause Markers Employed in the Writing Handout, Expert Corpus and the English Paragraphs

4.4.1. Frequency and Use of English Cause Markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

Since in this study Flowerdew's (1998) categorization of English cause markers is adopted, the cause markers used in WHO are grouped and analysed under six categories: *nouns*, *conjunctions*, *complex prepositions*, *prepositions*, *verbs* and *adjective phrases*. After discussing the overall distribution of the cause marker categories based on their frequencies in the WHO, the distribution and functional use of each cause marker under these categories will be presented.

As seen in Table 4.6, in total there were 1820 words in the writing handout presented to the students in the classes, and throughout the handout 114 cause markers were employed.

Total number of words	1820
Total number of cause markers	114
Tokens per 100 words	6.3

Table 4.6 Total number of words, and of cause markers employed in the WHO

When the WHO data were examined in detail, it was found that the most frequently used cause marker type were the *nouns* (32.4%) (see Table 4.7). This category was followed by *verbs* (31.6%) and *complex prepositions* (18.4%) which were also employed rather frequently in the handout. Both the *conjunctions* (8.8%) and *prepositions* (8.8%) were used less frequently, and each of them was used 10 times in the WHO. Lastly, there was not any *adjective phrase* used as a cause marker in the examined WHO.

		WHO	
CATEGORY	TYPE	n	%
Cause /Reason	Nouns	37	32.4
	Conjunctions	10	8.8
	Complex Prepositions	21	18.5
	Prepositions	10	8.8
	Verbs	36	31.5
	Adjective Phrase	0	0
Total		114	100,0

Table 4.7 Types of cause-markers and their frequencies in the WHO

Comparison of the results of the current study with the ones reported by Flowerdew (1998) who analysed texts written by expert writers in English revealed some interesting differences and similarities.

There were three significant differences between the compared corpora. First, the category *nouns* (which was the most frequently used marker type in the WHO: 32.4%) was the second least frequently used one in the expert data (see Table 4.8). Only 7.1 % of the cause markers in Flowerdew's (1998) corpus were nouns. Second, as can be seen in Table 4.3, *prepositions* (30.2%) were used almost four times more

by expert writers in English than in the handout used as teaching material in the examined institution. Finally, even though rarely, adjective phrases were utilised by expert writers in English. No example was included, however, in the WHO scrutinised in this study.

CATEGORY	TYPE	WHO		EXPERT USER CORPUS	
		n	%	n	%
Cause /Reason	Nouns	37	32.4	23	7.0
	Conjunctions	10	8.8	40	12.2
	Complex Prepositions	21	18.5	47	14.3
	Prepositions	10	8.8	99	30.2
	Verbs	36	31.5	112	34.1
	Adjective Phrase	0	0	7	2.2
Total		114	100,00	238	100,00

Table 4.8 Comparison of the types of cause-markers and their frequencies in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

On the other hand, *verbs* were frequently employed and formed around one-third of the compared two corpora examined in the study (WHO= 31.6%; Expert writers in English= 34.1%). Moreover, *complex prepositions* category was the third most frequently utilised cause marker both in expert and WHO corpora.

As the next step of the analysis a detailed within category examination was done. The aims were to identify the members of each of the categories and to compare and contrast the use of the different cause markers in the WHO and expert corpus (see Table 4.9).

TYPES	WHO		EXPERT USER	
	n	%	n	%
A. <u>NOUNS</u>				
A1. reason	6	16.0%	19	83.0%
A2. cause	31	84.0%	4	17.0%
<i>Section total</i>	37	100,0	23	100,0
B. <u>CONJUNCTIONS</u>				
B1. because	3	30.0%	19	47.5%
B2. since	6	60.0%	18	45.0%
B3. as	1	10.0%	3	7.5%
<i>Section total</i>	10	100,0	40	100,0
C. <u>COMPLEX PREPOSITIONS</u>				
C1. due to	9	43.0%	11	23.4%
C2. because of	8	38.0%	7	14.9%
C3. as a result of	4	19.0%	10	21.3%
C4. in (the) light of	0	0%	7	14.9%
C5. in view of	0	0%	4	8.5%
C6. given	0	0%	8	17%
<i>Section total</i>	21	100,0	47	100,0
D. <u>PREPOSITIONS</u>				
D1. with	0	0%	21	21.2%
D2. by + noun	2	20%	22	22.2%
D3 by + ing	2	20%	16	16.2%
D4. through	1	10%	18	18.2%
D5. from	0	0%	17	17.2%
D6. for	5	50%	5	5.0%
<i>Section total</i>	10	100,0	99	100,0

<i>E. VERBS</i>				
E1. cause	13	36.2%	18	16.1%
E2. result in	4	11.1%	13	11.6%
E3. produce	1	2.8%	14	12.5%
E4. lead to	12	33.3%	19	17%
E5. contribute to	2	5.5%	6	5.3%
E6. bring	4	11.1%	4	3.6%
E7. generate	0	0%	3	2.7%
E8. create	0	0%	2	1.8%
E9. induce	0	0%	4	3.6%
E10. present	0	0%	5	4.4%
E11. pose	0	0%	4	3.6%
E12. account for	0	0%	5	4.4%
E13. arose	0	0%	0	0%
E14. underlie	0	0%	5	4.4%
E15. trigger	0	0%	2	1.8%
E16. make (implicit)	0	0%	8	7.2%
<i>Section total</i>	36	100,0	112	100,0
<i>F. ADJECTIVE PHRASE</i>				
F1. responsible for	0	0%	7	2.1%
<i>Section total</i>	0	100,0	7	100,0

Table 4.9 The frequencies of specific cause-markers in the two sets of data

4.3.1.1. Nouns

The representation of the nouns ‘*cause*’ and ‘*reason*’ in the WHO and expert corpus can be classified as opposite. In the WHO corpus ‘*cause*’ is used 31 times (84%) while it makes up only 17% (used only 4 times) in the expert corpus.

The same contrasting distribution is valid for the other member of this group (i.e., ‘*reason*’). It is used rather rarely in the WHO while it forms 83% of the cause markers in the expert data.

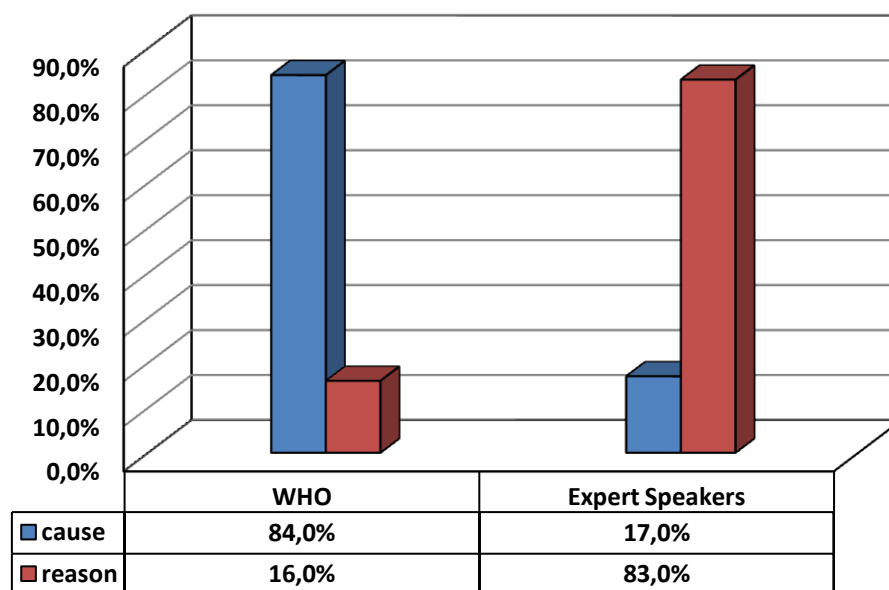


Figure 4.12 Comparison of the nouns used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

The reason for the disparities between the two corpora might be the different wording of the topics that the WHO and the expert user data present. Previous research (e.g. Biber, 2006; Swales, 2004) also indicates that different topics may require the employment of different structural patterns. In other words, the wording of a sentence changes based on the topic you are writing about. For instance, when you are writing about the causes of obesity, it is natural that the word ‘*cause*’ will be used frequently.

4.3.1.2. Conjunctions

When the uses of the conjunctions in the two corpora are examined interesting similarities and differences appear. It looks as if ‘*because*’ and ‘*since*’ fulfil parallel functions in the expert corpus. The writers used them with almost exactly the same frequency (‘*because*’ (47.5%) and ‘*since*’ (45%)). Even though the numbers are

small, it can be seen in Figure 4.13 that ‘since’ (60%) was employed twice as much as ‘because’ (30%) in the WHO. In both corpora, on the other hand, ‘as’ was the least preferred conjunction (WHO= 10%; Expert corpus= 7.5%).



Figure 4.13 Comparison of the conjunctions used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

4.3.1.3. Complex Prepositions

The category of *complex prepositions* includes six members: ‘due to’, ‘because of’, ‘as a result of’, ‘in the light of’, ‘in view of’ and ‘given’. The last three of those complex prepositions were not used at all in the WHO (but were employed by expert writers). Among the remaining three complex prepositions, ‘due to’ was the most frequently employed cause marker both in the WHO (43%) and in the expert user data (23.4%). The second most popular complex preposition in WHO was ‘because of’ while ‘as a result of’ was the least frequently used one.

The use of ‘*as a result of*’ displays a similarity (with regard to its frequency) to its use in the expert user data. On the other hand, when the Figure 4.14 is examined, it is clear that in the WHO ‘*due to*’ and ‘*because of*’ were overused. Because those two were employed so much, in the WHO we could not find any occurrence of the other three complex prepositions which were used quite frequently by the expert users: ‘*in the light of*’ (14.9%), ‘*in view of*’ (8.5%), and ‘*given*’ (17%).

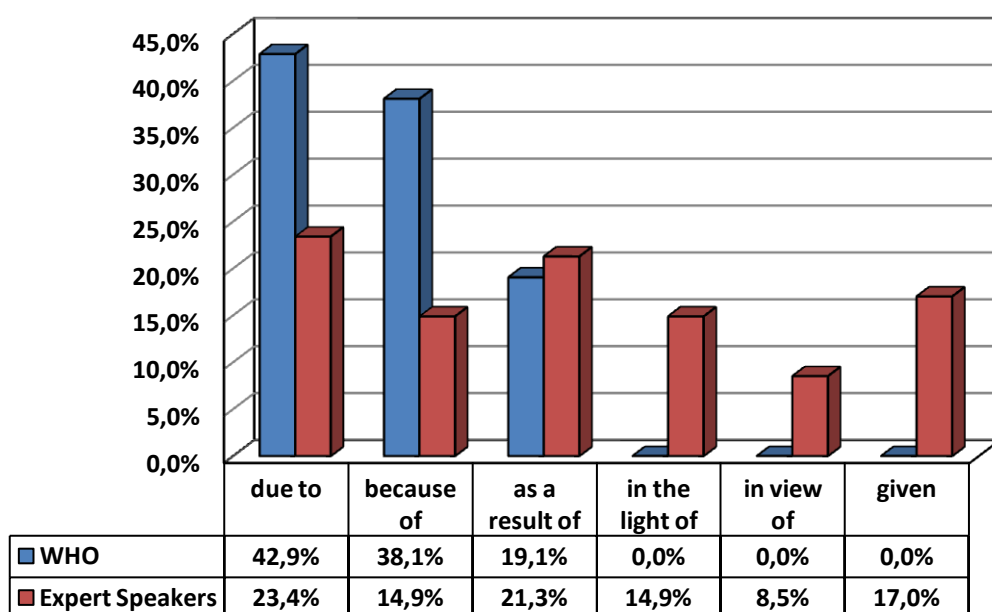


Figure 4.14 Comparison of the complex prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

As a result of all these findings, it can be concluded that although the complex prepositions constitute around the 18.4% of the total number of cause markers in the WHO, there are many repetitions of the same three complex prepositions whereas the other three were never used. Therefore, variety is needed in the process of preparing the WHO if we expect the students to employ the different cause markers in their paragraphs.

4.3.1.4. Prepositions

The category of *prepositions* consists of six members: ‘with’, ‘by + noun’, ‘by + ing’, ‘for’, ‘from’ and ‘through’. Among these prepositions, ‘for’ was by far the most frequently used cause marker in the WHO with a percentage of about 50%, and as it can be seen in the Figure 4.15 this is the most significant difference between the WHO and the expert user corpus since it was the least frequent preposition in the latter (5%).

In the WHO, ‘for’ was followed by ‘by + noun’ and ‘by + ing’ both of which stood for 20%. However, ‘by + noun’ (22.2%) was used more than the other prepositions in the expert user data.

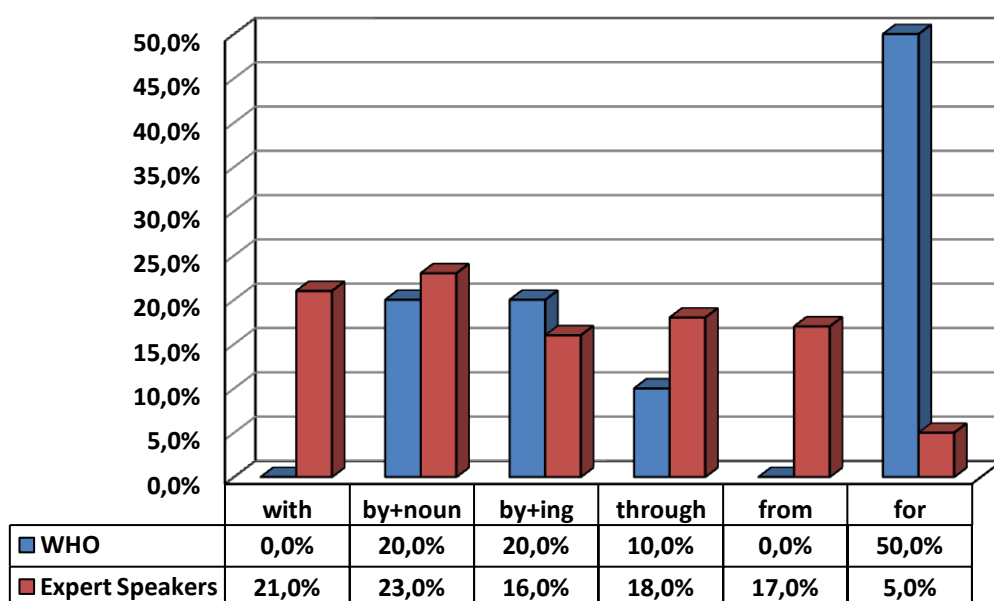


Figure 4.15 Comparison of the prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

Examining the use of '*with*' in the two sets of data, it is realized that it was not used in the WHO while it is the second most popular preposition in the expert user corpus. The same thing can be observed in the use of '*from*': while it was used rather frequently in the expert user data, there was not even one occurrence of it in the WHO.

In brief, prepositions were not frequently employed as cause markers in the WHO (8.8%) unlike the situation in the expert user data (30.2%). Moreover, half of that small percentage of prepositions was comprised of '*for*' itself. Obviously, there was a repetition of this preposition in the WHO even if there were other prepositions which may substitute it.

4.3.1.5. Verbs

In Flowerdew's (1998) study, *verbs* emerged as the richest and weightiest category including 16 members and making up 34.1% of the expert corpus. With respect to verbs, it may be claimed by looking at the results that the verbs '*lead to*' and '*cause*' were the two highest measures in both data sets. However; expert speakers in Flowerdew's (1998) study showed a variety in their preferences of verbs to explain the reason/causes. The verbs '*produce*' (12.6%) and '*result in*' (11.6%) were the structures employed nearly as much as '*lead to*' (16.9%) and '*cause*' (16%) by them. In addition, '*make*' (7.1%) and '*contribute to*' (5.3%) were also used rather frequently in the data.

	WHO		EXPERT USER CORPUS	
	n	%	n	%
cause	13	36.1	18	16.0
result in	4	11.1	13	11.6
produce	1	2.8	14	12.6
lead to	12	33.4	19	16.9
contibute to	2	5.5	6	5.3
bring	4	11.1	4	3.6
generate	0	0	3	2.6
create	0	0	2	1.8
induce	0	0	4	3.6
present	0	0	5	4.5
pose	0	0	4	3.6
account for	0	0	5	4.5
arose	0	0	0	0
underlie	0	0	5	4.5
trigger	0	0	2	1.8
make (implicit)	0	0	8	7.1
Total	36	100,00	112	100,00

Table 4.10 Comparison of the verbs used as cause markers in the WHO and in the Expert User Corpus

Although ‘cause’ and ‘lead to’ were the top verbs employed in the WHO, they are followed by ‘result in’ (11.1%) and ‘bring’ (11.1%). It is important to note here that in the WHO ‘bring’ was always used as a phrasal verb: ‘bring about’.

Despite the fact that ‘cause’ (36.1%) and ‘lead to’ (33.4%) were also employed frequently in the WHO, it can be inferred from Table 4.10 that there was an overuse of these two verbs, which seems to reduce the use of other verbs. Out of 16 different verbs in this category, the WHO used 6 different types whereas in the expert user

data 15 were employed in different quantities. Once again, in the WHO variety is limited and there is a tendency to use the same type of verbs instead of substituting them with some others.

4.3.1.6. Adjective Phrases

The only adjective phrase identified Flowerdew's (1998) study was '*responsible for*' and it was used seven times out of a total of 238 cause markers (which constitutes around 2.1%). In the WHO, on the other hand, this adjective phrase was not employed at all.

4.3.2. Comparison of the WHO, Expert Speaker Data and the Student English Paragraphs with Respect to English Cause Markers

In order to see the similarities and differences between the cause writings of expert users of English and Turkish students who are learning English as a foreign language, preferences and uses of cause markers of both groups were examined in the previous sections. Comparing and contrasting the WHO, expert speaker paragraphs and student paragraphs are of great importance in terms of analyzing:

- if the students were writing their paragraphs in a similar way to the expert speakers,
- whether the WHO differed from the expert user writings with regard to the cause markers employed in them, and
- most importantly if the WHO had any positive or negative effect on the participants' use of these markers in their paragraphs or not.

To this end, after presenting the overall distribution of the categories (i.e. *nouns*, *conjunctions*, *complex prepositions*, *prepositions*, *verbs*, and *adjective phrases*) in all three sets of data, each marker in within these six categories (i.e. a total of 34 individual markers) is compared and contrasted.

A more detailed scrutiny of the six main cause marker types indicates that frequencies of ‘*nouns*’ used in the WHO and student paragraph shows parallelism. However, this type is one of the least frequently employed markers by the expert writers. This finding might be received as an indication of the effects of the WHO on the students’ preference of cause markers to employ in their paragraphs.

When the use of ‘*conjunctions*’ and ‘*complex prepositions*’ are examined, it seems that their frequencies in both the student writings and the WHO reflect similarity to the frequencies in the expert user data. In both categories expert user frequencies are in the middle, and no great digression is present as Figure 4.16 displays.

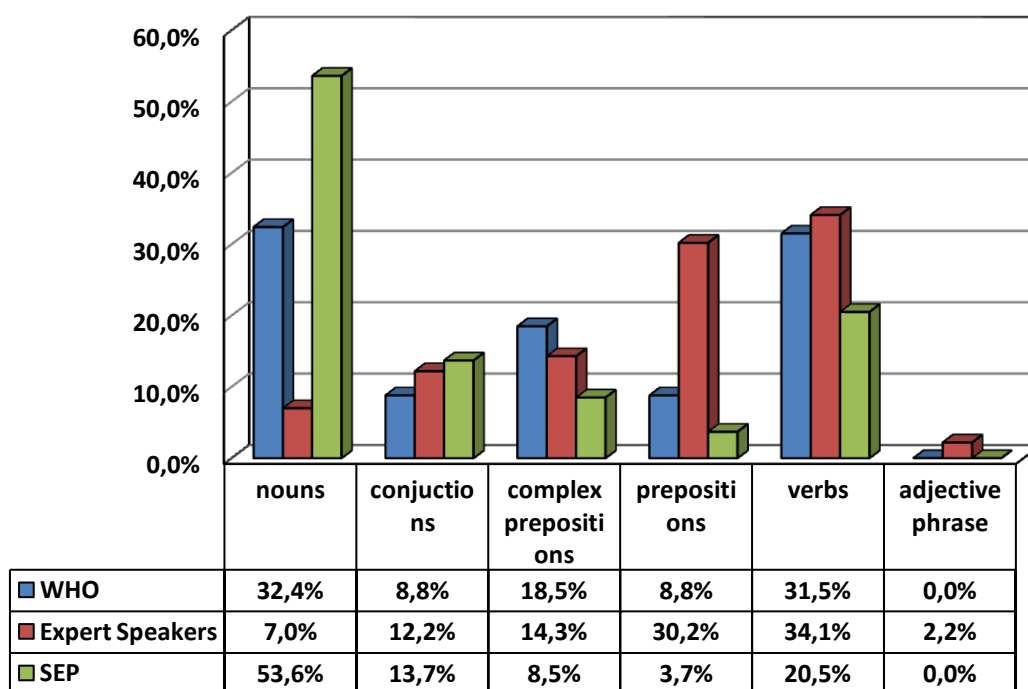


Figure 4.16 Types of cause-markers and their frequencies in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP

‘*Prepositions*’, on the other hand, is a category which reveals significant differences: in spite of the fact that it was as the second most popular category by the expert writers with a frequency of around 30%, in the WHO (8.8%) and in the student data

(3.7 %) ‘*prepositions*’ was not nearly as frequent. Once more, we detect a similarity between the WHO and the student paragraphs, which differs from the expert writers.

The conclusion with regard to the distribution of ‘*verbs*’ is quite different since this time WHO (31.5%) and expert user data (34.1%) show similarity while Turkish students seem to prefer using less verbs (20.5 %). This finding indicates that the use of cause markers by the participants of the study could have been affected by their primary and high school language education as well as by the materials (i.e. WHO) they are presented with at the university. The student perspective on this issue is presented in the section which is dedicated to the discussion of *verbs* (i.e. 4.3.2.5).

The last type, which is ‘*adjective phrases*’ reveals an exact similarity between the WHO (0%) and student paragraphs (0%) again, which is different from the expert data (2.2%) even though it is not a significant one.

In the following sections, each marker in the six main categories are compared and contrasted in terms of their employment in the three sets of corpora.

TYPES	SEP		EXPERT USER		WHO	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
A. <u>NOUNS</u>						
A1. reason	117	45.2%	19	83.0%	6	16.0%
A2. cause	142	54.8%	4	17.0%	31	84.0%
<i>Section total</i>	259	100,0	23	100,0	37	100,0
B. <u>CONJUNCTIONS</u>						
B1. because	64	97.0%	19	47.5%	3	30.0%
B2. since	1	1.5%	18	45.0%	6	60.0%
B3. as	1	1.5%	3	7.5%	1	10.0%
<i>Section total</i>	66	100,0	40	100,0	10	100,0
C. <u>COMPLEX PREPOSITIONS</u>						
C1. due to	3	7.3%	11	23.4%	9	43.0%

C2. because of	36	87.8%	7	14.9%	8	38.0%
C3. as a result of	2	4.9%	10	21.3%	4	19.0%
C4. in (the) light of	0	0%	7	14.9%	0	0%
C5. in view of	0	0%	4	8.5%	0	0%
C6. given	0	0%	8	17%	0	0%
<i>Section total</i>	41	100,0	47	100,0	21	100,0
<u>D. PREPOSITIONS</u>						
D1. with	5	27.8%	21	21.2%	0	0%
D2. by + noun	5	27.8%	22	22.2%	2	20.0%
D3 by + ing	4	22.2%	16	16.2%	2	20.0%
D4. through	0	0%	18	18.2%	1	10.0%
D5. from	1	5.5%	17	17.2%	0	0%
D6. for	3	16,7%	5	5.0%	5	50.0%
<i>Section total</i>	18	100,0	99	100,0	10	100,0
<u>E. VERBS</u>						
E1. cause	80	80.9%	18	16.1%	13	36.2%
E2. result in	0	0%	13	11.6%	4	11.1%
E3. produce	1	1%	14	12.5%	1	2.8%
E4. lead to	7	7.1%	19	17%	12	33.3%
E5. contribute to	1	1%	6	5.3%	2	5.5%
E6. bring	2	2%	4	3.6%	4	11.1%
E7. generate	0	0%	3	2.7%	0	0%
E8. create	3	3%	2	1.8%	0	0%
E9. induce	0	0%	4	3.6%	0	0%
E10. present	0	0%	5	4.4%	0	0%
E11. pose	0	0%	4	3.6%	0	0%
E12. account for	0	0%	5	4.4%	0	0%
E13. arose	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
E14. underlie	0	0%	5	4.4%	0	0%
E15. trigger	0	0%	2	1.8%	0	0%
E16. make (implicit)	5	5%	8	7.2%	0	0%
<i>Section total</i>	103	100,0	112	100,0	36	100,0
<u>F. ADJECTIVE PHRASE</u>						
F1. responsible for	0	0%	7	2.1%	0	0%
<i>Section total</i>	0	0%	7	100,0	0	100,0

Table 4.11 The frequencies of specific cause-markers in the three sets of data

4.3.2.1. Nouns

A comparison of the uses of two members of the category of nouns (i.e. *cause* and *reason*) reveals that all three corpora have different frequencies of these markers.

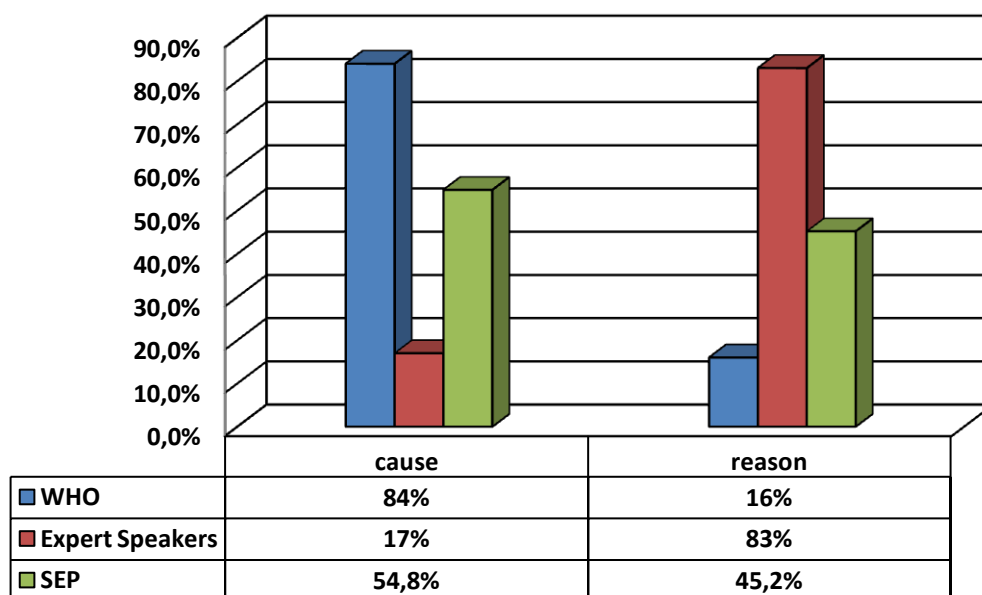


Figure 4.17 Comparison of the nouns used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP

Student paragraphs are different from the WHO in that ‘*cause*’ and ‘*reason*’ were used almost equally to mention a causal relationship in the student paragraphs whereas in the WHO ‘*reason*’ was not nearly as frequent as ‘*cause*’, which stands for 84% of the nouns.

Apart from these two, in the expert data ‘*reason*’ was the most frequently used noun while ‘*cause*’ constituted only 17% of the nouns. The conclusion here is that student paragraphs were not very similar to the expert data in terms of the use of nouns as cause markers. Moreover, they were not quite similar to the WHO since the participants employed ‘*reason*’ as much as they used ‘*cause*’.

4.3.2.2. Conjunctions

The frequencies of conjunctions in the student paragraphs and the WHO show interesting differences: in the student corpus ‘*because*’ is by far the most popular conjunction (i.e. 98%) while in the WHO it constitutes almost one third of them.

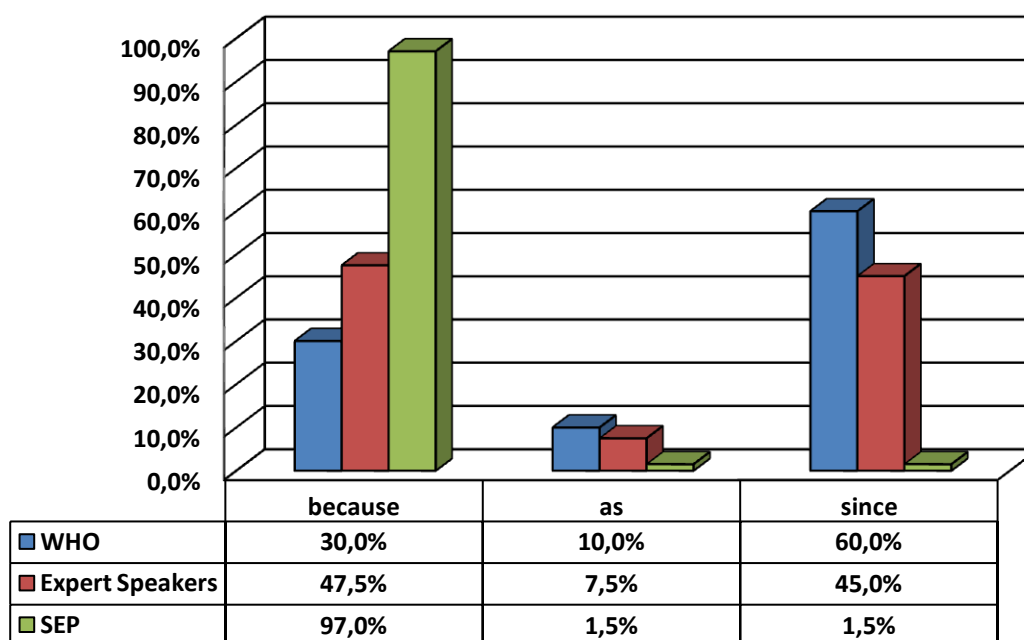


Figure 4.18 Comparison of the conjunctions used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP

The most frequent conjunction is ‘*since*’ which was used twice as much as ‘*because*’ in the WHO, but it was used only once in the students corpus. The only similarity between them is that ‘*as*’ was not used frequently, which is also valid for the expert corpus.

4.3.2.3. Complex Prepositions

The category of complex prepositions presents similarities and differences between the three sets of data this study examines. When the figure 4.19 is observed, two striking differences are obvious:

First, *'because of'* is not very frequent in the expert user data (14.9%), but in the WHO its frequency is almost three times higher (38%). In the student paragraphs, however, the frequency is even higher and it reaches to 87.8 percent, which is extremely high. One possible explanation here is that since the students were given a handout with many occurrences of *'because of'* in it, they might have over-generalized that they can use this complex preposition as much as they want in their paragraphs.

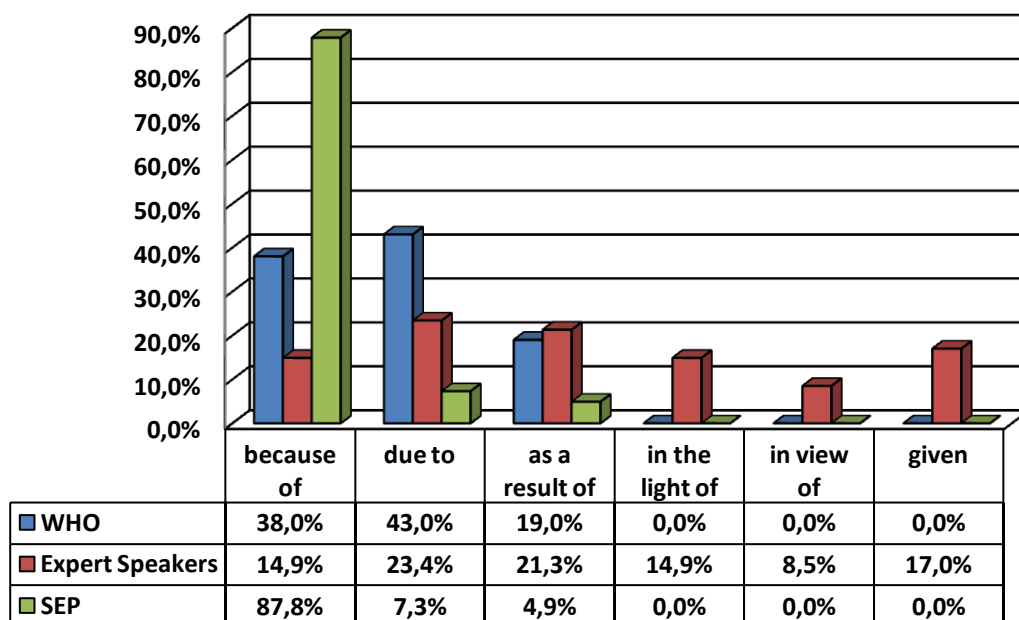


Figure 4.19 Comparison of the complex prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP

Second, all of the six different cause markers in this category were employed, in differing frequencies, by the writers in Flowerdew's (1998) study; however, three of them (i.e. in the light of, in view of, given) were not used neither in the WHO nor in the students' English paragraphs. This, apparently, quite a big disparity, and the reason why the students did not employ any of those three markers could result from the fact that they were not presented in the teaching material, and therefore, not taught in the classrooms.

4.3.2.4. Prepositions

A detailed analysis of the use and frequencies of the six prepositions conveying a causal relationship, revealed the following findings:

- Students and expert writers used '*with*' in their writings quite frequently (i.e. 27.8% and 21.2% respectively) whereas in the WHO there was no occurrence of this preposition. The same situation was also present in the use of another preposition: '*from*'. Even though it was not quite as popular as '*with*' in expert writer and student data (17.2% and 5.5% respectively), both the participants of the current study and the expert writers in Flowerdew's (1998) study employed it in their pieces of writing. Once again, we could not find any occurrence of '*from*' with a causal meaning through the WHO.

When we consider the fact that the participants were not given the use, meaning and function of these two items (i.e. with and from) in their WHO and that there was not even one occurrence of them to set an example, it is important to note that this result might stem from the effect of their previous English language education (in primary school and/or high school).

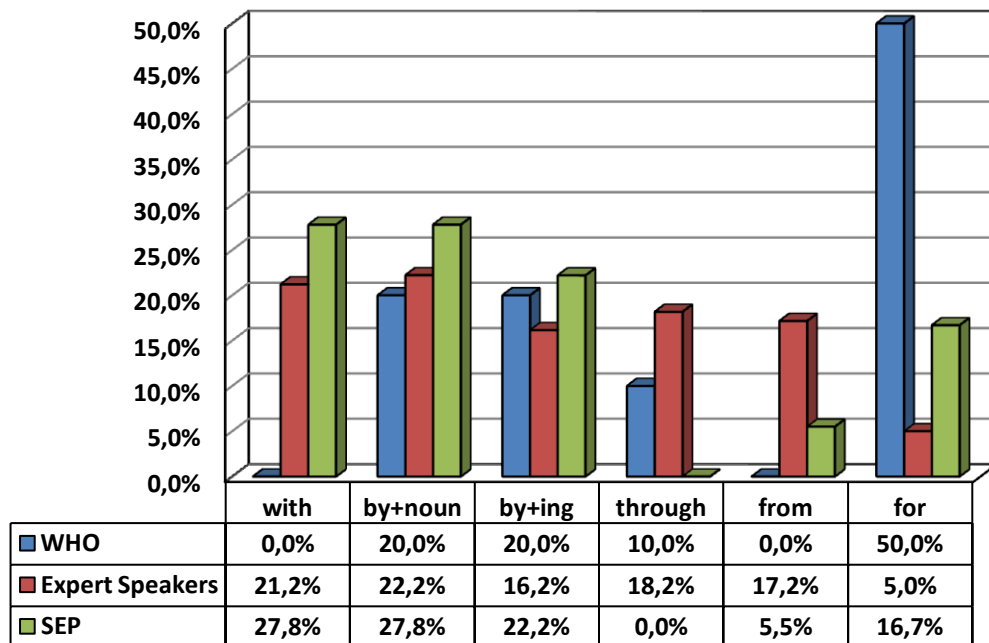


Figure 4.20 Comparison of the prepositions used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP

- Observing Figure 4.9, another important disparity becomes apparent: the frequency of the preposition ‘for’. Strikingly, its frequency in the WHO is ten times higher than it is in the expert data and three times higher than the frequency in the student paragraphs (WHO=50%, SEP=16.7%, and Expert writer data=5%).

This is a huge difference and one plausible explanation for this might be direct translation of the word into Turkish. ‘For’ corresponds to ‘için’ in Turkish, and this word can be used in place of ‘in order to’, ‘because/ because of’, and ‘for’.

When it comes to the students, below an example of this situation from the student data is presented:

Example 4.25:

We just use a cheap petrol for our financial but we even do not care how it hurts our world. (Participant 53)

Swan and Smith (2001) claim that Turkish learners experience difficulty when the word has a single Turkish equivalent. They explain “other groups of words which may have single Turkish equivalents (causing confusion in certain contexts in English) are: ... *because* and *in order to*.” (224). Therefore, we can conclude that since these conjunctions create confusion in Turkish learners, they substitute them with the preposition ‘*for*’, assuming that it gives the same meaning. This explanation may shed light on the result.

- The last difference between the three sets of data to mention is related to the use of ‘*through*’. This time, in contrast to ‘*with*’ and ‘*for*’, it is clear that ‘*through*’ was used in the WHO rather frequently (10%), and this is similar to the expert user data (18.2%) with regard to the frequency. However, none of the 63 participants of the study used this preposition in their paragraphs.

This result is interesting in that despite the fact that they had encountered the preposition (i.e. *through*) in the WHO before they wrote their paragraphs, the students did not employ it. This might have resulted from a lack of practice on the side of the students. If they had had a chance to employ this preposition to mention a causal relationship before, they could have used it in their paragraphs. Lack of enough practice has as much effect as lack of exposure since the students need the sense of familiarity and the feeling of competency before they use a structure in the target language.

Lastly, uses and frequencies of the remaining two prepositions, ‘*by + noun*’ and ‘*by + ing*’, are compatible in all three sets of data.

4.3.2.5. Verbs

With its 16 members, ‘*verbs*’ is the richest category of cause markers, and this range of verbs gives the writers a chance to avoid repetition and add variety to their paragraphs. Table 4.12 shows clearly that expert writers made use of almost all of the verbs presented in this category (except for *arose*) whereas the participants of the current study and the WHO tended to employ the same markers over and over again. In fact, we found that more than half of the verbs in this category, namely ‘*result in*’, ‘*generate*’, ‘*induce*’, ‘*present*’, ‘*pose*’, ‘*account for*’, ‘*arose*’, ‘*underlie*’ and ‘*trigger*’, were never used by the students throughout their paragraphs.

In order to see if there is a relationship between this result and the provided material (i.e. the WHO); we examined the use and frequencies of these verbs in the WHO. It is crucial to note that almost the same situation was noticed: 10 out of 16 verbs were not employed even for once in the WHO. These verbs were ‘*generate*’, ‘*create*’, ‘*induce*’, ‘*present*’, ‘*pose*’, ‘*account for*’, ‘*arose*’, ‘*underlie*’, ‘*trigger*’, and ‘*make*’. Hence, we would not be mistaken to conclude that there is a direct effect of the teaching material on the work produced by the students. Since they had not been provided with the functions of these verbs, or any examples of how to use them in a sentence, they did not use those items in their paragraphs. Lack of exposure, once more, seems to be the reason why Turkish students repeated the same verbs in their cause paragraphs.

	SEP		EXPERT USER CORPUS		WHO	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
cause	80	80.9	18	16.1	13	36.2
result in	0	0	13	11.6	4	11.1
produce	1	1.0	14	12.5	1	2.8
lead to	8	7.1	19	17	12	33.3
contribute to	1	1.0	6	5.3	2	5.5
bring	2	2.0	4	3.6	4	11.1
generate	0	0	3	2.7	0	0
create	3	3.0	2	1.8	0	0
induce	0	0	4	3.6	0	0
present	0	0	5	4.4	0	0
pose	0	0	4	3.6	0	0
account for	0	0	5	4.4	0	0
arose	0	0	0	0	0	0
underlie	0	0	5	4.4	0	0
trigger	0	0	2	1.8	0	0
make (implicit)	6	5.0	8	7.2	0	0
Total	99	100,00	112	100,00	36	100,00

Table 4.12 Comparison of the verbs used as cause markers in the WHO, Expert User Corpus and in SEP

The frequency of the verb ‘cause’ shows a different distribution for each set of corpus: in the expert writer corpus it constitutes only around 16% of the verbs used. On the other hand, in the WHO (around 36.2%) it was employed more than twice as much as it is in the expert user data. Lastly, as a more striking finding, students

employed this verb more than twice as much as the WHO and almost five times more than the expert user data.

Apparently, future action must be taken to develop students' competency in using verbs other than '*cause*' to express reason since this was the case with the native speakers. This reveals a necessity to change the teaching materials according to the use of markers in native speakers' data to get the students produce more natural and comprehensible products in their target language.

4.3.2.6. Adjective Phrases

With regard to the employment of adjective phrases as cause markers, WHO and student paragraphs revealed a similarity in that there was not even one occurrence of '*responsible for*' in them. If we compare this result with the expert data, it can be claimed that even though adjective phrases were the least frequently used markers in the corpus, '*responsible for*' was still employed for a couple of times which shows an awareness of its function as a cause-marker as well as adding variety to the pieces of writing created by them.

This result might indicate a direct effect of the teaching material on the students as the students did not show any sign of knowing how to use this marker to imply a causal relationship. If it had been given in the WHO, we could have commented on the student preference or choice. However, as it had not been mentioned in the WHO even once, the participants might have been unaware of this is a cause-marker that they may employ while writing a cause paragraph. As a result, the findings mentioned might have stemmed from a lack of exposure.

4.4. Interview Results: Student Perspective Concerning their L1 and L2 Writing Practices and Habits

4.4.1. Topics

The first question that was asked each of the 19 participants was whether they found writing about the topics (i.e. causes of air pollution and causes of water pollution) provided them during the data collection process and why/ why not. Ten out of 19 students reported that they had no difficulty in writing on these topics, and gave the following reasons: they could come up with ideas since the topics were up-to-date and related to daily life (7/19), they had written about a similar topic before (2/19), and those were objective topics which did not require them to state much of their subjective view (1/19).

The number of the students who answered that the topics were ‘neither easy nor difficult’ was five and the reasons they gave were as follows: they needed time to think of the main ‘causes’ (3/5), and the topics were ‘scientific’ and they did not have much knowledge on them (2/5). Lastly, four students mentioned finding the topics difficult. They told the researcher that since they did not have any interest in those topics, they did not know the basic terms related to the topics, they felt the need to do some research. As they did not have a chance to do so, one interviewee reported that she felt as if she was turning around the same ‘cliché’ causes all the time.

As a conclusion, only four of the participants found the topics difficult but when asked none of them marked it as very difficult. These findings indicate that the given topics were not very challenging for the participants; and therefore, we could claim they did not have a significant effect on the employment of the cause markers in the paragraphs.

4.4.2. Comparison of difficulty in L1 writing and L2 writing

In the second question, the students were asked if they had more difficulty in writing the English paragraph or the Turkish one. Analysis of the answers revealed an interesting finding: 11 out of 19 participants stated that writing in Turkish (i.e. in their native language) was more difficult for them compared to writing in English (i.e. in their foreign language). The reasons behind this were not put into numbers because each participant generally gave more than one reason. These were (from the most common to the least):

- the organizational pattern of English paragraphs was more to the point and they felt comfortable using it whereas Turkish did not seem to have a pattern other than from ‘starting with the general issues and narrowing the topic down’,
- their previous (primary and high school) education on L1 writing was not informative enough, and
- they spent a lot of time writing in English lately, so they could not remember the rules and focus on how to write in Turkish.

Based on these common themes in their answers, some example extracts from the interviews are presented below:

Example 4.26: (Participant 50, Male, 18 years old)

P.50: *Actually, as I have not written Turkish paragraphs for a while... It has been a long time... since primary school. Therefore, I had difficulty. I wrote what I thought but... I do not know how to write a Turkish paragraph indeed.*

Interviewer: *You don't?*

P.50: *They taught some things in the primary school but I cannot say that they were really helpful.*

Example 4.27: (Participant 01, Female, 20 years old)

P.01: *I had difficulty in the Turkish one because I have been writing about this (showing the English paragraph) for five months now. And I realized that I had not written any Turkish paragraphs since my first year in high school. Even while writing a Turkish paragraph, I have started to organize them as the first reason, the second reason, etc. I have noticed this.*

Interviewer: *You mean, you have started to do it like you do while writing in English?*

P.01: *Exactly.*

Interviewer: *But why? Is it only about time?*

P.01: *That is because I do not write many Turkish paragraphs. Because we continuously write saying 'the first reason', 'the second reason'...*

Interviewer: *So, do you mean your foreign language has affected your native language?*

P.01: *It has affected the way I write paragraphs a lot. It has affected writing a lot.*

Four participants mentioned that they were equally comfortable writing in English and in Turkish while the remaining four said that writing in English was more challenging for them since they did not know the terms and vocabulary items to use while writing about the given topic (3/4) and they had not had any instruction on how to write English paragraphs before coming to the university (1/4):

Example 4.28: (Participant 23, Male, 18 years old)

Interviewer: *Which one of the paragraphs was more difficult for you to write?*

P.23: *The English one.*

Interviewer: *What could be the reason?*

P.23: *I know less vocabulary. Therefore, I experience difficulty while expressing myself.*

4.4.3. Background education on L1 writing

The purpose of asking questions number three and four was to learn more about the students' background education (i.e. primary school and high school) on both L1 and L2 writing. When we asked the participants to describe their Turkish writing education the following results were found:

- there is a confusion in terms of what a paragraph is and what a 'composition' is, and the participants stated that in Turkish writing 'compositions' is more common and they have three main parts or paragraphs in it: introduction, body and conclusion.

Example 4.29: (Participant 56, Male, 18 years old)

Interviewer: *What is a composition? What is the difference between a composition and a paragraph?*

P.56: *A composition is the combination of paragraphs. Not one. The topic is again the same, about live topics. The only difference is that it is not one paragraph but multiple. It has introduction, body, and conclusion parts. There are more exemplifications.*

Example 4.30: (Participant 01, Female, 20 years old)

Interviewer: *What is a composition? What is the difference between a composition and a paragraph?*

P.01: *I think composition is more like a whole. A composition on the main reasons of water pollution can be written of course, but I believe if there will be a composition topic, that should be water pollution, not the main reasons. It is about the topics that we can write about in a broader perspective. But this (showing the paragraph) is more specific.*

- When asked if they had writing training in Turkish the students told us that they had not had separate writing courses and this skill had been covered in their Turkish classes or literature classes. The only thing they could remember about the instruction was that they had learnt ‘introduction-body-conclusion’ pattern. A deeper definition of these parts, and what they include were described by the participants more or less the same way as Participant 58 below:

Example 4.31: (Participant 58, Female, 18 years old)

P.58: *In the introduction part, you are giving information about the topic you are going to explain. In the body, you are explaining it in a clear and more detailed way, and in the conclusion you are wrapping up everything you wrote before. However, since it is handled as a general title, the technique behind it is not known. How you should do it is not explained exactly. A general topic is given and you are struggling with it... therefore, when we write it, sometimes the paragraph does not look like a paragraph.*

- The participants were also requested to tell us if they had learnt any paragraph organization styles (e.g. cause, effect, etc.) in Turkish. Ten of the 19 participant reported not having been taught any paragraph types during their previous education. Four of them claimed that they have learnt them but only two of them were able to give examples, saying that they were quite similar to the ones in English like advantage, disadvantage, cause, and effect paragraphs. The other two participants could not remember what the types were. The remaining five participants said that they had not studied any paragraph types, instead they had seen writing types such as subjective/objective writing, scientific writing, critical writing, descriptive writing, essays, newspaper column writing, etc.

Example 4.32: *(Participant 37, Female, 18 years old)*

P.37: *We had learnt it like this: informative paragraph, supporting paragraph, cause paragraph, etc.*

Example 4.33: *(Participant 50, Male, 18 years old)*

P.50: *It could be scientific paragraph... It has been a long time. There was not any in the high school. In the primary school we had, I remember it clearly. But not in this way (showing the English paragraph). I must be in three different parts (referring to introduction-body-conclusion).*

Interviewer: *Why did not you do so in your Turkish paragraph?*

P.50: *We have learnt how to do it in English here. Even if I had tried to do as it is in Turkish, I would not have been able to... I could not understand why I wrote it like this. It has been a very long time (he refers to his primary school education).*

With regard to the structures (linkers, markers, conjunctions etc.) to be employed in different paragraph types, 16/19 students stated that they had not learnt any of those in their schools but that could use them because it is their native language and because of the fact that they were used in the daily language. One participant could not remember if those had been taught or not, and the remaining two students reported that they learnt some of them in the primary and high school classes.

Since most of the students claimed that they had not had a proper writing education in their native language, it was important to see whether they had been tested on writing. When they were interrogated about this issue, 14 students indicated that they had had writing parts in their exams. The other five students did not provide any information about the exams. The ones reporting that they had had a part dedicated to writing in their exams were also asked for the topics and question types given in those exams. Below their answers and how many times they were mentioned are categorized:

- live topics from daily life such as pollution, family life, etc. (7)
- story or summary of a story (2)
- verses from poems, idioms, or proverbs to be explained (3)
- an important person's life, such as Atatürk's (3)
- historical events such as the Independence War (1)
- future plans and dreams (1)
- whatever the students want (1)

Looking at the topics, we may easily conclude that the students were not writing on academic topics most of the time. One crucial detail is that some of the students told the interviewer that the most important things they were focusing on the exams were grammar and 'introduction-body-conclusion' structure if they wanted to get a good grade, and that the topics or the relevancy was not questioned often by the teachers:

Example 4.34: (Participant 16, Female, 18 years old)

P.16: *Grammar was the most important thing. Are there any mistakes in the language, any ambiguity or fragments... Honestly, if everything was related to the topic or not was not a big concern. Generally, they (referring to the teachers) were interested in the grammar rules.*

In the light of these findings, it is clear that Turkish students do not seem to be feeling very comfortable about how to construct texts in their native language. Their primary school and high school writing education is based on a method which might be called as ‘try and learn’ since most of them are asked to produce pieces of written texts without being provided with any training. The only thing that they mention strongly and confidently is that in Turkish for every piece of writing there is the pattern of ‘introduction-body-conclusion’.

Furthermore, the topics that they are given to write about in schools are more likely to be free writing topics rather than academic ones and the focus is mostly on grammar rules when it comes to evaluation. Lastly, there does not seem to be a shared writing instruction practice in the schools since the students interviewed in the study came from different regions and cities and had different experiences in terms of the writing instruction they had had before coming to the university.

4.4.4. Background education on L2 writing

Following the questions concerning their native language writing instruction, some questions related to their English writing instruction were asked to the participants. They were requested to describe how paragraph writing, paragraphs types (i.e. argumentative, descriptive, cause, etc.), and the language structures (linkers, markers, etc) to be employed in them were taught in their primary school and high school education. The most striking result is that six out of 19 participants reported that they had never written an English paragraph until the time they started university. 12 of them said that they wrote some paragraphs or ‘pieces’ but they had

never been instructed on how to write a paragraph in English, and no rule or pattern had been provided. Only one student told us that at school he had learnt how to write paragraphs in English before coming to the university.

Surprised at the responses given by the participants we felt the need to question the reason behind these and realised that there were three main themes mentioned:

- the quality of the schools or the language teachers (4)
- the immense importance given to the grammar teaching (4)
- the fact that different departments in the high schools prize different subjects and do not value language classes (3)

Example 4.35: *(Participant 34, Male, 18 years old)*

P.34: *... Until I came here, I had never written a paragraph in English. I was in a high school of science. We had two different foreign languages but they were not thought to be important. We had covered almost nothing.*

Example 4.36: *(participant 13, Female, 18 years old)*

P. 13: *There was not a specific writing class. The focus was mainly on grammar and speaking. Sometimes, we could write about some topics but there were not any limitations. You wrote them as you liked...*

Another question under this title was if the participants were asked to write any paragraphs in their language exams in their primary school and high school years, and seven students stated that they had a writing part in their exams even though some of them said that it was only once or twice. Eight students, on the other hand, responded that they had not had a writing part in the exams and they added that the exams focused on grammar with multiple choice questions, fill-in-the blank type of questions, or a few open-ended questions:

Example 4.37: (Participant 59, Female, 19 years old)

Interviewer: ... *Did you have writing parts in your exams?*

P.59: *No. Fill in the blank questions, multiple choice questions and a few open-ended questions only.*

Example 4.38: (Participant 34, Male, 18 years old)

Interviewer: ... *Did you have writing parts in your exams?*

P.34: *No. They were asking grammar only.*

On the other hand, the participants who stated that they had had writing parts in the exams were asked to provide some examples of the topics they were given in the exams and in the classroom. Their responses are listed below:

- Except one of the participants, all the remaining agreed that the topics they were given to write about either in the exams or in the class were more general than they are given now (e.g. water pollution vs. the reasons of water pollution).
- The topics they reported were: describe a place/ yourself/someone else (4), what did you do last summer (3), your future plans (2), global warming (1), an important person's life (1), your fears (1), live topics (1), and whatever we want (1).

In order to see if the participants were aware of the fact that there are different organizational styles in English paragraphs (argumentative, descriptive, cause, effect, etc.) or not, we asked the students whether they had had any training on those. One of the participants reported having learnt the paragraph types at school and the remaining participants all answered that they had not learnt any of them and that there were only broad topics which anyone can easily comment on and write about.

When the cause markers to be employed in the paragraphs were investigated, it was clear from their responses that most of the participants (16) had not been provided with such an instruction. Only one of them had learnt them in his/her writing classes, and two participants told the interviewer that they learnt some structures and linkers in their grammar lessons, not writing.

Example 4.39: (*Participant 40, Male, 19*)

P.40: ... *But we handed them in after writing like 'I did this, I went to this place' by using only one tense but they were not graded and there was no teaching.*

The main conclusion to be drawn looking at these findings is that, in Turkish educational system, English language courses and the writing skill instruction do not seem to follow a shared practice, and it changes from school to school and even from teacher to teacher. The majority of the students practice writing a proper paragraph in English for the first time when they start to higher education, which is quite late. The exams in the primary and high schools in Turkey do not include a writing section most of the time. Moreover, English courses are not regarded as ‘important’ as the other courses especially in the departments focusing on different subjects such as mathematics because of the fact that in the university entrance exam those students will not be answering any questions in English (except for the students studying in foreign language departments of high schools), and even if English is given a lot of importance, the major focus remains on teaching grammar rather than the skills.

4.4.5. The WHO

In addition to their background writing education, the students were also interviewed about the teaching material (i.e. WHO) they were provided with in their current learning environment (i.e. METU NCC SFL). The first question was whether they had any difficulty in learning the cause markers presented them in WHO at the university. More than half of the participants (11/19) expressed that they found learning cause-markers difficult at the beginning because

- they were not familiar with some of them, and this was the first time those markers were presented, (3)
- they knew the meanings but they did not know how to use them in a sentence, (3)
- their lack of L1 writing skills affected their learning process, (2)
- they needed regular practice not to forget their uses, (2)
- and
- they were thinking in Turkish while using the cause markers. (1)

Example 4.40: (Participant 05, Female, 18 years old)

P.05: *I had a great deal of difficulty at the beginning... because of the things that I had not known.*

Interviewer: *Why could it be?*

P. 05: *Because you do not know what to use where and you do not know how to use them. Is it correct or not?.. At the beginning I did not even use nouns indeed. I was writing sentences. Then, our teacher corrected me and gradually I started to learn that after 'because of' we have nouns, and I learnt what to use after 'for', etc.*

Example 4.41: (Participant 45, Male, 18 years old)

Interviewer: *Why do you think you had difficulty?*

P.45: *Well, they say there is something like this... if you do not know Turkish very well, you cannot do it well in English. I mean, there could be two possibilities; either I was not able to remember cause-effect in Turkish, or learning causes markers, which were not presented to us in our previous high school education, for the first time here was difficult.*

Interviewer: *Alright then, would you be able to write more easily if you had written cause paragraphs in Turkish before?*

P.45: *Yes.*

Whether the students found the WHO (presented to them before they produced a cause paragraph for the first time) useful or not was the second question related to the WHO. The answers demonstrated that the students were quite satisfied with the material that had been given to them before they started to write cause paragraph. Only two students claimed that they did not consider the WHO as a very useful material and that it had limitations. Both of them were unhappy about the exercises

which, according to them, were too mechanic and controlled, and did not give enough freedom to the students. On the other hand, the ones who stated that the WHO was an informative resource and was efficient liked that

- there were plenty of exercises,
- it was following a sequence of presentation, practice and then production,
- there were mind-maps and reflection parts, and that
- it included tables showing the structures to be used in the paragraphs and examples for each of them.

Another question asked to the interviewees was what they would want to include in the WHO if they had a chance to do so. Of all 19 interviewees, only four suggested some changes in the WHO. One student said that he would feel better if they could start with shorter paragraphs and then continue with the long ones (180-220) words is the limit most of the time). Another participant suggested that the topic should not be restrictive and they should give students the chance to comment. Yet another one said that she would really like to have some exercise which would keep the students more engaged. She claimed that it was generally the teacher who was active in the presentation phase. Finally, the last participant reported that it could be better if they were presented with more model paragraphs before creating their own paragraphs.

Example 4.42: (Participant 18, 18 years old)

Interviewer: *What else would you like to have or change in the WHO?*

P. 18: *Well, to give an example, in the paragraphs our first sentences were always the same. I was really tired of writing that one.. Topics could be like... more easy to comment on. We were repeatedly writing things like 'if you do this, this will happen'.. We did not have much about our own comments.*

Example 4.43: (Participant 58, Female, 18 years old)

P.58: *I think it could have been more effective if there had been more activities keeping students actively engaged rather than giving examples and making students read them.*

Interviewer: *So, you want activities on which students can work more instead of the examples?*

P.58: *For instance, I do not know the other students but, I am a person who can learn by trying things and doing activities.*

Lastly, whether the WHO had model paragraphs in it or not was questioned and the students were asked if they tried to copy the model paragraph in their own cause paragraphs. 18 participants indicated that they had model paragraphs in the WHO, but one student could not remember if there were any.

Later, when asked if the model paragraphs set an example for them and if they were referring to those model paragraphs while writing their own paragraphs, out of those 18 participants 13 claimed that they were referring to the model paragraph before or while writing their own paragraphs. Four students said that they made use of the model paragraphs provided in the WHOs from time to time and especially at the beginning of a new paragraph. One participant asserted that he did not see the model paragraphs as a resource to be referred since, according to him, there was always a hurry to start and finish writing their paragraphs because of the hectic program:

Example 4.44: (Participant 40, 19 years old)

P.40: *... I think they are not very efficient. In the classroom, both for the teacher and the students, there is always this atmosphere of like 'we should be done with this WHO today, we should start writing the second draft right*

away'. Therefore, after looking at them for a few minutes and checking them without focusing on too much and without any warning like 'this is used in this way and be careful about this one', we start writing the first draft. Thus, that is not quite efficient.

Interviewer: *They might set an example if enough time is given?*

P.40: *Yes if we cover them in detail and also if there could be more examples.*

With the purpose of seeing what they were looking for in the model paragraphs and its influence, the students were requested to tell the things that they were referring most in the model paragraphs. As mentioned above 17 students responded that they were making use of the model paragraphs and below a list of the commonalities in their answers are given:

- the functions and uses of structures (markers, linkers, etc.) (11)
- overall organization of the paragraph (introduction, conclusion, etc.) (4)
- punctuation (2)

As a conclusion, what most of the participants reported clearly indicates how students at METU perceive the writing WHO as the only resource they encounter in their all writing education since most of them had not had any writing instruction at all. Therefore, the writing skill instruction materials should be prepared with utmost care, considering that their effect will be incomparable on students' written products.

4.4.6. Repetition of the cause-markers in student paragraphs

Having realised that the students generally repeated some of the different types of cause markers in both their Turkish and English paragraphs, in order to see their perception about repetition in writing, we asked the students if it was better to employ different cause markers in the paragraphs and whether repetition had a negative effect on paragraphs. Interestingly, even though they used repetition overwhelmingly in their own paragraphs, all of the students agreed that using different cause markers would be better because:

- paragraphs would be more informative,
- they would save their paragraphs from being boring,
- they would ease the job of the reader,
and
- they would create a harmony and flow in the paragraphs.

It was apparent that they were well aware of the fact that they needed to use a range of markers if they wanted to create a well-written paragraph.

Furthermore, after examining their paragraphs with the interviewer most of the participants indicated that the repetitions were disturbing them while rereading their own paragraphs and that if they had had the chance to write their paragraphs again, they would not have repeated the same words and added variety to the cause-markers they had used.

The conclusion is that it is not their lack of awareness but lack of exposure, lack of practice and lack of encouragement that prevent students from employing a wide range of different cause markers in their paragraphs.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

5.0. Presentation

This chapter starts with a brief summary of the study design in the first section, and continues with the summary of the results in the second one. Next, the implications and suggestions for the writing courses and teaching materials in the light of these results are presented. Finally, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are listed.

5.1. Summary of the Study Design

This thesis study investigated the uses and functions of the cause markers in the cause paragraphs of the native speakers of Turkish both in their L1 (Turkish) and L2 (English), and the effects of the teaching materials on the written products of the students. The numbers of the Turkish paragraphs (n=63) and the English paragraphs (n=63) examined were equal and 19 participants took part in the semi-structured interviews.

The study was conducted in the Middle East Technical University Northern Cyprus Campus (METU NCC), which is an English-medium university requiring all of the students to document their proficiency in English to be able to carry on their studies in their respective departments. The participants of the study were 63 pre-intermediate level learners of English in the preparatory school who were randomly selected among the volunteering students. The data for the study were collected in four stages: First, all of the students in the pre-intermediate level classes were given a background questionnaire to fill in. The rationale behind having such a tool was to

ensure that in the sample there were no ‘exceptional cases’ (i.e., students who were bilinguals, who had been in a foreign country for more than six months, or who were in their second year in the same program) Since the effects of the teaching material (i.e. the WHO) were also examined in this study, students with ‘exceptional characteristics’ were not included in the participant group.

After analysing the background questionnaires, all students with the desired characteristics were asked whether they would like to participate in the study. Sixty-three volunteers were all selected for the study. The selected students were first asked to write a paragraph in Turkish about the causes of water pollution in 50 minutes in class. The students were not allowed to use any resources (e.g. dictionaries, the internet, etc.) while writing their paragraphs. One week later, they were given an English writing task, asking them to write a paragraph on the causes of air pollution. Again they had to write their English paragraphs without the help of extra resources and in 50 minutes.

All of the paragraphs (n=126) were transcribed and put into the CLAN CHILDES program. Furthermore, the WHO (i.e., the teaching material used in the English classroom) was also put into the program in order to uncover its effect on the students’ English paragraphs. By using the framework presented in Flowerdew’s (1998) study, the cause markers in the English paragraphs, and the WHO were identified and analysed. Since there was not a study showing the structures that might be employed in Turkish cause paragraphs, all of the Turkish paragraphs were thoroughly examined and the list of the cause markers used in Turkish paragraphs was created for the first time.

After the analysis of the student paragraphs, the researcher identified 20 participants to be interviewed based on the quality (i.e. resemblance or deviation from the expert speakers’ use) and the quantity (the participants who employed the markers most frequently and the ones who used them the least frequently) of the cause-markers in their paragraphs. One of the students selected did not arrive for the interview; therefore, 19 interviews were conducted. During the interviews, the participants were asked questions about their previous training in writing in Turkish and English, their current instruction in English at the university level,

the quality of the WHO they had been presented with, and, most specifically, about the cause markers they employed or did not employ in their paragraphs. Before the interviews, the researcher analysed the Turkish and English paragraphs, and highlighted and numbered the cause markers in them. The participants were given analysed copies of their paragraphs before the interviews so that they could easily see the places of the cause markers in their paragraphs and answer the questions the researcher would ask about their specific uses.

5.2. Summary of the Results

The analysis of the data revealed the following results:

Research Question 1: *What kinds of cause markers, how frequently and why are employed by native speakers of Turkish while writing cause paragraphs in Turkish?*

Markers conveying causality in Turkish were placed in six main categories: *nouns*, *connectives*, *postpositions*, *verbs*, *suffixes*, and *adjectivals*. It was found that Turkish students tended to use *nouns* more than any other type of markers (almost half of the all cause markers) to indicate a causal relationship between their ideas. This overdependence on nouns resulted in a lack of different cause markers in student paragraphs, and led to repetition. The second and third most frequently employed cause markers were *verbs* (25%) and *postpositions* (13.8%). The *suffixes* (12.2%) followed as the fourth one while the least frequent cause marker types were the *adjectivals* (6.3%) and *connectives* (0.2%) respectively.

It is quite obvious that when Turkish students consider one of the cause markers as “easier” to use, they do not try to substitute it with another one from the same category. As a result of this, their paragraphs are full of repetition of the same cause markers. Therefore, there is a need to teach students the variety of cause/reason

markers that exist in Turkish and to encourage them to employ those in the appropriate contexts so that they are able to express their ideas more effectively while talking about the causes/reasons of something.

Research Question 2: *What kinds of cause markers are employed by native speakers of Turkish with pre- intermediate level of proficiency in English while writing cause paragraphs in English?*

In English there are six categories of cause markers identified by Flowerdew (1998): *nouns, conjunctions, complex prepositions, prepositions, verbs, and adjective phrases*. Similarly to the paragraphs in Turkish, in the English paragraphs, the most frequently utilised cause marker by Turkish students was the *nouns*, which constituted half of all cause markers in the data. On the other hand, adjective phrases and prepositions were not employed as much as expected. Once more, the students tended to overuse one of the markers from each category while they ignored the others which led to repetitious paragraphs.

When we examine all types of the cause-markers, it is apparent that the students' use of cause-markers shows great differences compared to the expert users' in Flowerdew's (1998) study in terms of the frequencies and distributions. As a result, we cannot say that the students are producing cause paragraphs with structures similar to the ones produced by the expert users of English.

Research Question 3: *What is the role of the provided teaching materials in the use of cause markers while writing cause paragraphs in English?*

The results revealed significant similarities between the cause markers used in the English paragraphs written by the students and the ones that were included in the teaching materials presented to them in the classroom. This could be interpreted as an indication of the fact that the students perceive the WHO as the guide to writing good paragraphs and as a model to resort to whenever they need to check the use and form of the cause markers that they are planning to use in their own paragraphs.

Research Question 4: *What is the student perspective on cause paragraph writing and their preferences of using/ not using cause markers both in their L1 and L2?*

During the interviews, the participants reported that they believed using a variety of different cause markers would be better with regard to creating a harmony of meaning in the paragraphs, and making the text more informative and easy to read.

When asked, they explained the reason behind the popularity of nouns in their Turkish paragraphs as the effect of translation from English to Turkish. It was interesting to find out that the students' writing habits in their L2 affected the way they were writing in their native language Turkish.

According to the participants, this sizeable effect of L2 on L1 was due to a lack of a proper writing instruction in L1 in their previous education (i.e., primary, secondary and high school). Therefore, while they were writing in Turkish they depended on what they had learnt in their English writing classes at the university; and this in turn, led to the creation of paragraphs which did not fit in neither Turkish nor English paragraph standards (See: Section 4.4).

When it comes to the training in writing English paragraphs, the data showed that most of the students had had no writing instruction before coming to the university, and they were only familiar with some of the most frequently used cause markers, and learnt the bulk of them in their writing classes in METU NCC SLF. The conclusion is, in addition to the the inadequacy of L1 writing instruction, L2 writing training in the primary schools and high schools was also found to be inadequate and ineffective.

5.3. Conclusions and Implications for the Language Teaching Field

The results of the current study may provide some implications for teaching writing in Turkish (both for L1 and L2 learners) and writing in English as a second language.

Based on the findings of the current study the following conclusions could be formulated:

1. Turkish students experience notable problems while writing in Turkish, their native language. The students lack knowledge related to paragraph writing rules, types of writing, or the structures that should be/could be employed while discussing/presenting the causal relationships in Turkish. The only rule that they seem to know about writing in their L1 is that in Turkish writing there is the pattern of '*introduction-body-conclusion*'.
2. The lack of knowledge related to writing cause paragraphs in L1 lead the participants in this study to copy and utilise the writing patterns they learnt in their L2 classes while writing in the mother tongue.

3. There is a need for change in the writing instruction given to the students in the earlier years of education, (i.e., in the primary schools and high schools) in their Turkish classes. The Turkish writing lessons should provide detailed information related to the writing conventions to be followed while writing (cause) paragraphs in Turkish. More time should be devoted to the development of this skill in Turkish lessons and if possible, writing should be one of the skills tested in various centralised exams (e.g., high school and university entrance exams) so that the students see the importance of communicating their ideas in a written way. One of the main conclusions is that more time should be devoted to the writing component of the Turkish lessons.
4. Data also revealed that most of the students who participated in the study had not been given any chance to produce written texts beyond sentence-level in their English classes. Therefore, there is an urgent need to change the way writing skill is perceived and taught in English classes in Turkey. Keeping in mind that learning to write in L2 is a long and tedious process, then the suggestion is that the responsibility for training students should be distributed among the different levels of education. Native speakers of Turkish learning English should be presented with the paragraph types and the expected structures in each type in their writing classes in secondary and high schools. When this is not done, then we are faced with busy, overloaded university English preparatory programs which struggle under the responsibility to teach students everything about academic writing in L2 in a very short period of time. The instruction on writing should begin earlier as it requires a gradual progress through experiences.
5. In order to teach students how to write effective cause paragraphs, the cause markers to be employed in them and how to use each of them should be taught in class. Before starting to write their own texts, the learners must be given enough opportunity to practice all of the newly learnt structures. Furthermore, because the students feel insecure with the unfamiliar cause

markers, they tend to overuse the ones they already learnt. The education provided in writing classes should encourage students to use new markers without being afraid of making mistakes. The significance of adding variety and avoiding repetition must be emphasized in language classes so that the student might be able to write appropriate and more natural paragraphs in their second language.

6. As this study has been the first one to scrutinize the cause markers employed in the Turkish cause paragraphs, the findings may provide invaluable empirical data and guidelines for material writers preparing tools aiming to teach writing in Turkish both as L1 and L2.
7. The findings of this thesis may have an implication in materials development and in developing instructional methodologies in the second language writing training as the research provides a clear picture of what Turkish students need to improve in order to produce more accurate and native-like cause paragraphs while writing cause paragraphs in English. Exploring what is missing and what needs to be practiced more by the students, will have an impact on developing writing skills in the second language. The study provides evidence of the impact of the teaching material on the student performance; thus, this should be considered in the process of preparing materials to be used in L2 writing classes.
8. Data coming from the interviews revealed that in high school English lesson is usually perceived as less important compared to the other courses (e.g. maths, chemistry, etc.) because of the matriculation examination system in place in Turkey at the moment.

5.4. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

There are also some limitations to the study. First, the participants in the study were studying in the same program of the same university, forming a group with very specific characteristics. Therefore, conducting research with different groups of students going through an intense program related to writing cause paragraphs may provide a deeper understanding of the cause paragraphs written by Turkish students in Turkish and in English.

Another limitation was that the students had been studying in the preparatory program for almost 4 months, and during this period they had not taken any Turkish courses and had not written any texts in Turkish. Thus, they seemed forget about the conventions and rules of writing in their native language. In other words, the intensive training on writing in English had remarkable effects on their L1 writing skills. Therefore, having a different group of participants, who do not study in an intensive English preparatory class might provide another perspective on the use of cause markers in Turkish paragraphs without having the transfer possibility from L2.

Still another limitation is about the treatment of errors or mistakes in student paragraphs. “Although L2 writing and SLA researchers often examine similar phenomena in similar ways, they do not necessarily ask the same questions” (Ferris, 2010, p. 181). According to Carson (2001) while SLA focuses on describing the competence of the L2 learners, second language writing perspective deals with the learner performance, and models to teach and learn writing in the target language (p.191). In the SLA perspective errors are considered as a result of learner competence whereas in second language writing they could be a result of performance (mistakes). When we consider the use of the cause markers in this study, and how they were analysed, it is possible to conclude that since each of the participants in the study produced only one cause paragraph in English, it is not an easy task to identify errors or mistakes. Focusing on several cause paragraphs written by the same participants might provide some broader knowledge in terms of the employment of cause markers and the errors or mistakes in the student paragraphs.

The last limitation is about the prompt used to elicit data from the participants. Since the task asked for ‘the causes of air pollution’, and ‘su kirliliğinin nedenleri’, this might have led the students to use more of these two cause markers in the data.

REFERENCES

Acar, K. (2004). Globalization and language: English in Turkey. *Sosyal Bilimler*, 2(1), 1-10.

Retrieved from <http://sbe.cbu.edu.tr/dergi3/GlobalizationAndLanguage.pdf>

Akar, D. (2002). The macro contextual factors shaping business discourse: The Turkish case. *IRAL*, 40, 305-322. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/iral.2002.015>

Akbayır, S. (2006). *Yazılı anlatım biçimlerinin yazma becerisi edinimindeki işlevleri* (Master's thesis). Ondokuz Mayıs University, Samsun, Turkey.

Akincılar, V. (2010). *The effect of "PLEASE" strategy training through the self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) model on fifth grade EFL students' descriptive writing: strategy training on planning* (Master's thesis). Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.

Akyel, A. (1994). First language use in EFL writing: planning in Turkish vs. planning in English. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 169-184. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.1994.tb00062.x>

Alagözlü, N. (2007). Critical Thinking and Voice in EFL Writing. *The Asian EFL Journal*, Volume 9(3), 118-136.

Aldağ, H. (2005). *Düşünme aracı olarak metinsel ve metinsel-grafiksel tartışma yazılımının tartışma becerilerinin geliştirilmesine etkisi*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey.

Algı, S. (2012). *Hedges and boosters In L1 and L2 argumentative paragraphs: implications for teaching L2 academic writing* (Master's thesis). Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.

Retrieved from <http://etd.lib.metu.edu.tr /upload/12614579/index.pdf>

- Alyılmaz, C. (2010). Turkish Studies International Periodical For the Languages, *Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 5(3), 728-749.
- Arıcı, A. F. & Ungan, S. (2008). Konu seçiminin yazma becerisine etkisi. (The effect of selecting topics on writing skills). *Çağdaş Eğitim Dergisi*, 33(357), 19-24.
- Aşılıoğlu, B., & Özkan, E. (2013). Ortaokul öğrencilerinin yazma kaygılarının bazı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi: Diyarbakir örneği. (Investigating secondary school students' writing anxiety in terms of some variables: the case of Diyarbakir). *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies*. 6(6), 83-111. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.9761/JASSS1527>
- Atay, D. & Kurt, G. (2006). Prospective Teachers and L2 Writing Anxiety. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8(4), 100-118.
- Bağcı, H. (2007). *Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının yazılı anlatım derslerine yönelik tutumları ile yazma becerileri üzerine bir araştırma*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Bakır, S., Biçer, N. & Çoban, İ. (2014). The problems faced by the foreign students learning Turkish: Ataturk University case. *The journal of international social research*, 7(29). ISSN: 1307-9581
- Balpmar, Z. (2011). *Turkish phonology, morphology and syntax* (Master's thesis). Anadolu University. Eskisehir, Turkey.
- Barnet, S., Bellanca, P. & Stubbs, M. (2010). *A short guide to college writing*. USA: Pearson Education.
- Baş, G. (2012). Correlation between elementary students' reading attitudes and their writing dispositions. *IJGE: International Journal of Global Education*, 1(2).
- Baş, G. & Şahin, C. (2012). İlköğretim 6. 7. ve 8. sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma tutumları ve yazma eğilimleri ile türkçe dersindeki akademik başarıları arasındaki ilişki. (Correlation amongst reading attitudes, writing dispositions and academic success of elementary 6th, 7th and 8th grade students in Turkish course). *Turkish*

Studies - International Periodical For The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic, 7(3), 555-572.

Bayat, N. (2009). Türkçe ve İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının akademik yazılarında yapısal özellikler. (Structural features in academic writing of Turkish and English teacher learners). *Dil Dergisi*, 145, 48-64.

doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1501/Dilder0000000115>

Becker, A. L. (1965). A Tagmemic Approach to Paragraph Analysis. *College Composition and Communication*, 16(5), 237-242.

Berman, R. (1994). Learners' Transfer of Writing Skills Between Languages. *ESL Canada Journal*, 12(1), 29-46.

Biber, D. (2006). *University language: A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company.

Biniş, H. (1999). A Study on Coherence Relations and Their Linguistic Markers in Turkish. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1.1.30.4378&rep=rep1&type=pdf>

Bozkurt, S. (2009). *Karşılaştırmalı metin türünde yazma edimi*. (Master's thesis). Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara, Turkey.

Can, H. (2007). *An analysis of freshman year university students' argumentative essays* (Master's thesis). Boğaziçi University, Turkey.

Carrell, P. L. (1984). The effects of rhetorical organization on ESL readers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(3), 441-469. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3586714>

Carrell, P.L. & Connor, U. (1991). Reading and Writing Descriptive and Persuasive Texts. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(3), 314-324. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1991.tb05361.x>

Carson, J. G. (). Second language writing and second language acquisition. In Silva, T. & Matsuda, P. K. (Ed.), *On Second Language Writing* (pp. 191-199).

- Clark, J. R. (1970). Paragraphs for Freshmen. *College English*, 32(1), 66-72. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/374281>
- Cohen, R. F. & Miller, J. L. (2003). *Reason to write intermediate: strategies for success in academic writing*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Connor, U. (1999). *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Connor, U. (2002). New Directions in Contrastive Rhetoric. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 493–510. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588238>
- Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Coşkun, A. (2011). *Evaluation of the writing component of an English language teaching program at a public university: A case study* (Master's thesis). Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Coşkun, E. (2005). *İlköğretim öğrencilerinin öyküleyici anlatımlarında bağdaşıklık, tutarlılık ve metin elementleri* (Doctoral dissertation). Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Coşkun E. & Tiryaki, E. N. (2013). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Tartışmacı Metin Yazma Becerileri. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi (H. U. Journal of Education)* 28(2), 102-115.
- Cumming, A. (1989). Writing Expertise and Second-Language Proficiency. *Language Learning*, 39(1), 81–135. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1989.tb00592.x>
- Çakmak, E. (2013). Metin yapısı öğretiminin öğretmen adaylarının tartışmacı yazma becerilerine etkisi (The effect of teaching argumentative writing on teacher candidates' argumentative writing skills). *Eğitimde Kuram ve Uygulama (Journal of Theory and Practice in Education)*, 9(4), 379-389.

- Çakmak, E. & Civelek, F. (2013). Tartışmacı Yazma Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarının Eleştirel Düşünme Eğilimleri ve Yazma Kaygılarına Etkisi. (The Effect of Argumentative Writing Instruction on Critical Thinking Tendency and Writing Anxiety of Pre-Service Teachers). *GEFAD / GUJGEF* 33(2), 355-371.
- Demir, O. & Ersöz, Y. (2014). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin Türkçe dersinde kullandıkları yöntem ve tekniklerin aktif eğitim anlayışı bakımından değerlendirilmesi. *EBED İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 1(1), 1-11.
- Demirtaş, A.D. (2010). Motion Event Descriptions in English by Turkish EFL Instructors. *Proceedings of the Sixth Cambridge Postgraduate Conference in Language Research*, Cambridge Institute of Language Research (CILR), 43-57.
- Dikilitaş, K. (2013). The effect of some learner variables and the use of cohesive devices on Turkish non-native writers' writing quality. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 8(1), 3-19. ISSN: 1304-9496
- Dobao, A. F. (2012). Collaborative writing tasks in the L2 classroom: Comparing group, pair, and individual work. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(1), 40–58. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.12.002>
- Doyuran, Z. (2009a). Conciliation of Knowledge through Hedging in Turkish Scientific Articles. *Journal of Faculty of Letters*, 26(1), 85-99.
- Doyuran, Z. (2009b). Communicative Functions of Hedging Devices in Turkish Newspaper Articles. *Türkbilig*, 17, 56-68.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dülger, O. (2007). Discourse markers in writing. *Selcuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 258-270.
- Retrieved from: <http://eds.a.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=4240fc34-6494-4d6f-8635cec33f6ca2ae%40sessionmgr4002&vid=1&hid=4111>

- Enginarlar, H. (1990). *A contrastive analysis of writing in Turkish and English of Turkish high school students* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Enginarlar, H. (1993). Student response to teacher feedback in EFL writing. *System*, 21(2), 193–204. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-252X\(93\)90041-E](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-252X(93)90041-E)
- Ferris, D. R. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA: Intersections and practical applications. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, 181–201.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990490>
- Ferris, D., Brown, J., Liu, H. S. & Stine, M. E. A. (2011). Responding to L2 Students in College Writing Classes: Teacher Perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(2), 207–234. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5054/tq.2011.247706>
- Flowerdew, L. (1998). Integrating expert and learner computer corpora findings on causality: discoveries for teachers and students. *English for Specific Purposes*, 17(4), 329–345. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906\(97\)00014-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(97)00014-8)
- Flowerdew, L. (2003). A Combined Corpus and Systemic-Functional Analysis of the Problem-Solution Pattern in a Student and Professional Corpus of Technical Writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(3), 489–511.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588401>
- Folse, K. S., Solomon, E. V. & Clabeaux, D. (2010). *Great writing 3: From great paragraphs to great essays*. Boston: Heinle Cengage Learning.
- Ghoorchaie, B.; Tavakoli, M. & Ansari, D. N. (2010). The Impact Of Portfolio Assessment On Iranian EFL Students' Essay Writing: A Process-Oriented Approach. *Journal of Language Studies*, 10(3), 35-51.
- Gorjian, B., Pazhakh, A. & Parang, K. (2012). An investigation on the effect of Critical Thinking (CT) instructions on Iranian EFL learners' descriptive writing: A case of gender study. *Advances in Asian Social Science*, 1(1), 114-118.

- Göçer, A. (2010). Writing education in Turkish teaching. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 3(12), 178-195.
- Göçer, A., Tabak, G. & Coşkun, A. (2012). A Bibliography of Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language. *TÜBAR-XXXII*.
- Gökalp-Arpaşlan, G. (2001). Derslikten günlük yaşama edebiyat eğitimi. *Türkbilig I Türkoloji Araştırmaları*, 185-202.
- Göksel, A. & Kerslake, C. (2005). *Turkish: a comprehensive grammar*. New York: Routledge. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9780203340769>
- Hall, C. (1990). Managing the Complexity of Revising Across Languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(1), 43–60. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3586851>
- Helms-Park, R. & Stapleton, P. (2003). Questioning the importance of individualized voice in undergraduate L2 argumentative writing: An empirical study with pedagogical implications. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(3), 245-265. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2003.08.001>
- Hengirmen, M. (2001). *Turkish grammar for foreign students*. Ankara: Engin Yayın Evi.
- Henry, D. J. (2011). *Writing for life: sentences and paragraphs*. USA: Pearson Education.
- Hinkel, E. (2003). Simplicity without elegance: features of sentences in LI and L2 academic texts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(2), 275–301. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588505>
- Hinkel, E. (2005) Hedging, inflating, and persuading in L2 academic writing. *Applied Language Learning*, 15(1&2), 29-53.
- Retrieved from <http://www.dliflc.edu/archive/documents/ALL15-1.pdf#page=33>

- Hirose, K. (2003). Comparing L1 and L2 organizational patterns in the argumentative writing of Japanese EFL students. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(2), 181–209. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(03\)00015-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(03)00015-8)
- Hochstetler, S. (2007). The Preparation of Pre-service Secondary English Teachers in Writing Instruction: A Case Study of Three California Colleges' Education Programs. *Action in Teacher Education*, 29(2), 70-79. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01626620.2007.10463450>
- Hyland, K. (1997). Persuasion and context: The pragmatics of academic metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 30(4), 437-455.
doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166\(98\)00009-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(98)00009-5)
- Ishikawa, S. (1995). Objective measurement of low-proficiency EFL narrative writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 4(1), 51-69. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743\(95\)90023-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(95)90023-3)
- Işık-Taş, E.E. (2008) *A corpus-based analysis of genre specific discourse of research: The phd thesis and the research article in ELT* (Doctoral dissertation). Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Kachru, B. B. (1986). *The alchemy of English: the spread, functions, and models of non-native Englishes*. Oxford: Pergamon Institute of English.
- Kafes, H. (2012). Lexical Cohesion: An issue only in the foreign language? *English Language Teaching*, 5(3), 83-74.
- Kang, J. Y. (2005). Written narratives as an index of L2 competence in Korean EFL learners. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(4), 259-279. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2005.10.002>
- Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning*, 16, 1-20.

- Karaata, C., Çepik, Ş. & Çetin, Y. (2012). Enhancing the use of discourse markers in academic writing: the combination of incidental acquisition and explicit instruction. (Enhancing the use of discourse markers in academic writing: the combination of incidental acquisition and explicit instruction). *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi (Electronic Journal of Social Sciences)*, 11(40), 11-29.
- Karadağ, Ö. (2003). Türkçe eğitiminde anlatım tarzları. *TÜBAR-XIII*, 79-92.
- Karahan, F. (2005). Tür Çözümlemesi Yönünden Düşün Davetiyelerine Yönelik Bir inceleme. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, 22(2), 105-133.
- Kavanoz, S. & Sağın-Şimşek, Ç. (2013). A genre-based approach to research articles in educational sciences: comparative analysis. *International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 8(12), 693-710.
- Khiabani, M. N. & Pourghassemian, H. (2009) Transfer of L1 organizational patterns in argumentative writings of Iranian EFL students: implications for contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Literature*, 1(4), 23-38.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English-medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 101-122.
- Koçbaş, B.D. (2006). *Expository writing in Turkish: a rhetorical approach to coherence and cohesion* (Master's thesis). Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Turkey.
- Kubota, R. (1998). An investigation of L1–L2 transfer in writing among Japanese university students: Implications for contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Second Language Learning*, 7(1), 69-100.
- doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S10603743\(98\)90006-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S10603743(98)90006-6)
- Langacre, R. E. (1980). An apparatus for the identification of paragraph types: Summer Institute of Linguistics. *Notes on Translation*, 15, 5-22.

- Lee, I. (2008). Understanding teachers' written feedback practices in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17(2), 69–85. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.10.001>
- Lee, I. (2009). Ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and written feedback practice. *ELT Journal*, 63(1), 13-22. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn010>
- Lee, I. (2010). Writing teacher education and teacher learning: Testimonies of four EFL teachers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(3), 143–157.
- Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (2002). *A communicative grammar of English*. (3rd Ed.) Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Levy, C. M. & Ransdell, S. (1995). Is writing as difficult as it seems? *Memory & Cognition*, 23(6), 767-779. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3758/BF03200928>
- Lewis, G. (2000). *Turkish grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Li, J. & Schmitt, N. (2009). The acquisition of lexical phrases in academic writing: A longitudinal case study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18, 85–102. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2009.02.001>
- Liza, M., & Refnaldi, R. (2013). Using PLEASE strategy in teaching writing a descriptive text. *Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(2), 436-444.
- Llosa, L., Beck, S. W., & Zhao, C. G. (2011). An investigation of academic writing in secondary schools to inform the development of diagnostic classroom assessments. *Assessing Writing*, 16(4), 256-273.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2011.07.001>
- Lüle-Mert, E. (2012). Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının yabancı kökenli sözcük kullanımlarına ilişkin bir inceleme. *Turkish Studies-International Periodical For The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 7(4), 2357-2369.
- McCool, M. (2009). *Writing around the world: A guide to writing across cultures*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

- McEnery, T. & Wilson, A. (1996). *Corpus Linguistics: An Introduction*. Edinburgh University Press, Edinburgh.
- McMillan, K. & Weyers, J. (2008). *How to write essays & assignments*. England: Pearson Education.
- Metalene, C. (1985). Contrastive Rhetoric: An American Writing Teacher in China. *College English*, 47(8), 789-808.
- Meyers, A. (2009). *Writing with confidence: writing effective sentences and paragraphs*. USA: Pearson Education.
- Mitchell, R., Myles, F., & Marsden, E. (2013). *Second Language Learning Theories* (3rd Ed.). Routledge, USA and Canada.
- Oktar, L. (1991). *Contrastive analysis of specific rhetorical relations in English and Turkish expository paragraph writing* (Doctoral dissertation). Ege University, Izmir, Turkey.
- Özbay, M, Büyükikiz, K. K. & Uyar, M., (2011). İlköğretim yedinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yazılı anlatımlarındaki kelime hazineleri üzerine bir inceleme. (An investigation on the elementary 7th grade students' vocabulary in writing). *Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*. 8(15), 149 – 173.
- Özbek, N. (1995). Integrating grammar into the teaching of paragraph-level composition. *Forum*, 33(1), 43-46.
- Retrieved from <http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/1995/docs/95-33-1-q.pdf>
- Özkara, Y. (2007). *6+1 analitik yazma ve değerlendirme modelinin 5. Sınıf öğrencilerinin hikâye edici metin yazma becerilerini geliştirmeye etkisi* (Doctoral dissertation). Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.

- Pennington, M. C. & So, S. (1993). Comparing writing process and product across two languages: A study of 6 Singaporean university student writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 2(1), 41–63. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743\(93\)90005-N](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(93)90005-N)
- Powell, B. B. (2009). *Writing: theory and history of the technology of civilization*. UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Raphael, T. E., Kirschner, B. W., Englert, C. S. (1988). *Acquisition of expository writing skills*. (Report No. 421). Urbana, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.
- Saint-Dizier, P. (Ed.) (2006). *Syntax and Semantics of Prepositions*. Netherlands: Springer.
- Sallabaş, M. E. (2008). “İlköğretim 6. Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Öyküleyici Yazılı Anlatımlarında Metin Öğelerine Yer Verme Düzeyleri. *Gazi Türkiyat Türklük Bilimi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 2, 175-184.
- Scollon, R. (1997). Contrastive rhetoric, contrastive poetics, or perhaps something else? *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 352–358.
- Selinker, L. 1972. Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 10(1-4), 209-231.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209>
- Selvikavak, E. (2006). *An application on the development of advanced level students' paragraph writing on teaching Turkish as a foreign language* (Master's thesis). Ankara University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Shehadeh, A. (2001). Effects and student perceptions of collaborative writing in L2. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(4), 286–305. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.05.010>

- Silva, T. (1990). *Second language composition instruction: developments, issues, and directions in ESL*. In B. Kroll (Eds.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom* (pp. 11-23).
- Silva, T., Matsuda, P. K. (Ed.). (2001). *On second language learning*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Song, B. & August, B. Using portfolios to assess the writing of ESL students: a powerful alternative? *Journal of Second Language Writing* Volume 11(1), 149–72. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(02\)00053-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(02)00053-X)
- Steinman, L. (2003). Cultural Collisions in L2 Academic Writing. *Tesl Canada Journal*, 20(2), 80-91.
- Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(3), 153–173.
- Susar-Kırmızı, F. & Akkaya, N. (2009). Türkçe Öğretimi Programında Yaşanan Sorunlara İlişkin Öğretmen Görüşleri (Opinions of Teachers about the Problems in the Implementation of New Turkish Teaching Program). *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 1(25), 42-54.
- Süngü, H. and Türkmen, S. (2012, May). *English teaching policies in Turkey: An evaluation from a native English teacher*. Paper presented at 2nd International Conference on Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (FLTAL'12), Sarajevo. Abstract retrieved from <http://eprints.ibu.edu.ba/855/>
- Swales, J. M. & Feak, C. B. (2004). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential Tasks and Skills*. USA: University of Michigan Press.
- Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research Genres: Exploration and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Swan, M. & Smith, B. (2001). *Learner English. A teacher's guide to interference and other problems*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Şentürk, N. (2009). *Planli yazma ve değerlendirme modelinin 8. sınıf öğrencilerinin bilgilendirici metin yazma becerilerini geliştirmeye etkisi* (Master's thesis). Abant İzzet Baysal University, Turkey.
- Tağa, T. & Ünlü, S. (2013). Yazma eğitiminde karşılaşılan sorunlar üzerine bir inceleme. *Turkish Studies - International Periodical for The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 8(8), 1285-1299.
- Temizkan, M. (2003). *An evaluation of Turkish teachers' applications on the written comprehension activities in elementary schools*. Mustafa Kemal University, Hatay, Turkey.
- Tepeli, Y. & Ertane-Baydar, A.S. (2013). Yazılı anlatım becerisi kazandırma çalışmalarında anlatım türlerinin önemi. *A. Ü. Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi [TAED]*, 50, 319-326.
- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "The Case Against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes": A response to Ferris. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(2), 111-122.
- Uccelli, P., Dobbs, C. L., Scott, J. (2013). Mastering academic language organization and stance in the persuasive writing of high school students. *Written Communication*, 30(1), 36-62. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0741088312469013>
- Uysal, H. H. (2008). Tracing the culture behind writing: Rhetorical patterns and bidirectional transfer in L1 and L2 essays of Turkish writers in relation to educational context. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17(3), 183-207. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.11.003>
- Uysal, H. H. (2012). Argumentation across L1 and L2 writing: exploring cultural influences and transfer issues. *Vial Vigo International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 9, 151-182.
- Wang, W. & Wen, Q. (2002). L1 use in the L2 composing process: An exploratory study of 16 Chinese EFL writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11(3), 225-246. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(02\)00084-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(02)00084-X)

- Williams, J. P., Nubla-Kung, A. M., Pollini, S., Stafford, K. B., Garcia, A. & Snyder, A. E. (2007). Teaching cause-effect text structure through social studies content to at-risk second graders. *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 40(2), 111-120. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00222194070400020201>
- Yağız, O. & Yiğiter, K. (2012). Academic Writing Difficulties and Challenges in Advanced Academic Literacy. *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies*, 5(8), 1261-1272.
- Yagiz, O., Yigiter, K. & Genc, G. (2009) *Academic Writing in English: Approaches, Processes and Challenges in Higher Education*. In: 1st International Symposium on Sustainable Development, June 9-10, 2009, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- Yancey, K. B. Looking Back as We Look Forward: Historicizing Writing Assessment. *College Composition and Communication*, 50(3), 483-503.
- Yangın, B. (2005). İlköğretim Türkçe dersi öğretim programı ve kılavuzunun değerlendirilmesi. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, 5(2).
- Yaylı, D. (2011). From genre awareness to cross-genre awareness: A study in an EFL context. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(3), 121-129. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.02.001>
- Yılmaz, S. K. (2008). *İlköğretim altıncı sınıf öğrencilerinin öyküleyici metin yazma becerileri* (Master's thesis). Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Yiğitoğlu, N. & Reichelt, M. (2012) Teaching Turkish and Turkish-Language writing in the U.S.: A descriptive report. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(1), 71-75.
- Yiğitoğlu, N. & Reichelt, M. (2014). Using a genre-based approach for writing instruction in a less-commonly taught language. *Language Awareness*, 23(3), 187-202. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2012.742906>
- Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: The Process of Discovering Meaning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(2), 195–209. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3586792>

Zeyrek, D. & Webber, B. (2008). A discourse resource for Turkish: annotating discourse connectives in the METU corpus. *The 6th Workshop on Asian Language Resources*, 65-71.

Zorbaz, K. Z. (2005). *İlköğretim Okulları İkinci Kademe Türkçe Öğretmenlerinin Ölçme ve Değerlendirmeye İlişkin Görüşleri ve Yazılı Anlatım Sınavlarında Sordukları Sorular Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme* (Master's Thesis). Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi, Hatay, Turkey.

Zimmermann, R. (2000). L2 writing: subprocesses, a model of formulating and empirical findings. *Learning and Instruction*, 10, 73-99. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0959-4752\(99\)00019-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0959-4752(99)00019-5)

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Neden/Sebeup Paragrafı Yazımında Kullanılan Yapılar

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu çalışma anadili Türkçe olan öğrencilerin Türkçe’de ve İngilizce’de neden paragrafı yazarken kullandıkları yapıları araştırmak amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve sizden elde edilen veriler yalnızca bilimsel çalışmalarda kullanılacak olup isminiz gizli tutulacaktır. Çalışmanın verimli olabilmesi için soruları dürüstlikle cevaplamamız önemlidir. Katılımınız için çok teşekkürler. 😊

1. İsim Soyisim :	
2. Yaş :	3. Cinsiyet: Kadın <input type="checkbox"/> Erkek <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Doğum Yeri :	5. Anadil(ler):
6.İlkokul:	
7.Lise:	8.Lise Mezuniyet Ortalaması:
9.Babanızın eğitim düzeyi nedir? (Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)	
<input type="checkbox"/> Hiçbir eğitim almadı <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Orta Okul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite	
10. Annenizin eğitim düzeyi nedir? (Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)	
<input type="checkbox"/> Hiçbir eğitim almadı <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Orta Okul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite	
11. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğrenmektesiniz (Tüm eğitim hayatınız boyunca)?	
12.İngilizce Yeterlilik seviyeniz nedir?: (Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)	
Çok iyi : Hem yazılı hem de sözlü olarak mükemmel bir şekilde iletişim kurabiliyorum.	
İyi : İngilizce kullanarak iletişim kurmakta sıkıntı çekmiyorum.	
Orta : İngilizce kullanarak iletişim kurmakta bazen zorlanıyorum.	
Kötü : İngilizce iletişim kurmakta ciddi sorunlarım var.	
<input type="checkbox"/> Çok iyi <input type="checkbox"/> İyi <input type="checkbox"/> Orta <input type="checkbox"/> Kötü	

13.Yurt dışında 6 aydan fazla yaşadığınız oldu mu? : Evet Hayır

Eğer cevabınız "Evet" ise lütfen yaşadığınız ülkeleri, ne kadar süre orada kaldığınızı ve gitme sebebinizi belirtiniz.

Ülke	Bulduğunuz Süre	Bulunma sebebiniz
a. _____	_____	_____
b. _____	_____	_____
c. _____	_____	_____

APPENDIX B

Types	MicroConcord corpus (MCC) Tokens
	<i>Nouns</i>
reason	19
cause	4
	<i>Conjunctions</i>
because	19
since	18
as	3
	<i>Complex prepositions</i>
due to	11
because of	7
as a result of	10
in (the) light of	7
in view of	4
given	8
	<i>Prepositions</i>
with	21
by+noun	22
by+ing	16
through	18
from	17
for	5
	<i>Verbs</i>
cause	18
result in	13
produce	14
lead to	19
contribute to	6
bring	4
generate	3
create	2
induce	4
present	5
pose	4
account for	5
arouse	0
underlie	5
trigger	2
make (implicit)	8
	<i>Adjective phrase</i>
responsible for	7
Total number of tokens for cause/reason:	328

APPENDIX D

Name Surname : _____

Time: 50 min.

Date : _____

Question: In your opinion, what are the main causes of air pollution?



Please write a paragraph of 180-220 words. Use specific details and examples to support your ideas.

APPENDIX E

METU NCC

December 2013

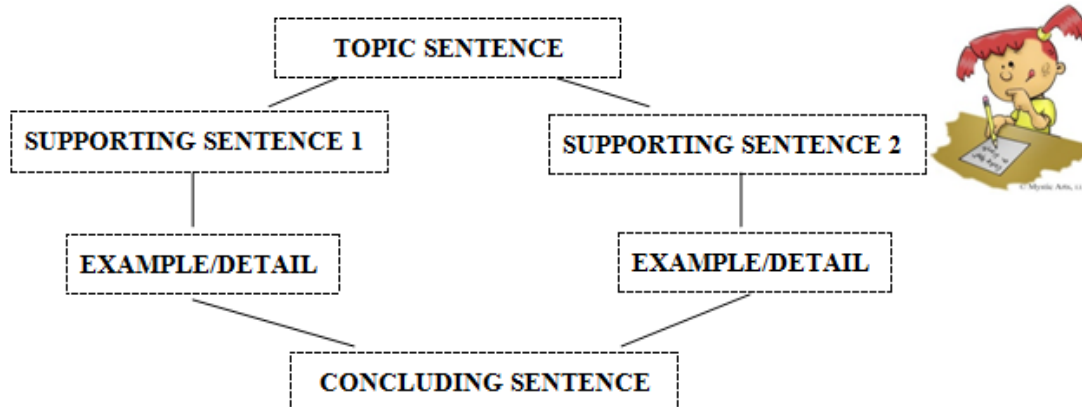
SFL

WHO 7

ELEMENTARY GROUP (Instructor's Copy)

A. REVISION

In the first span, you studied how to write a good academic paragraph. Remember that a good academic paragraph consists of three basic parts. Here is a simple diagram for writing a paragraph with its basic parts.



The topic sentence tells the reader what the paragraph will be about. **The supporting sentences** give specific details about the main idea. **The concluding sentence** is the summary or the repetition of the main idea. In addition to these, a good paragraph should also include ideas that flow smoothly from one sentence to the next sentence, and all the ideas should be relevant to one another.

In the previous handouts (WHO6 and WHO7), you practiced how to analyze **reasons** in a paragraph, and you wrote about why everyone should learn a foreign language and why people prefer a nighttime/daytime job.

B. INPUT

When you need to talk about factors that lead to a particular result, you may have to write about the causes and/or effects of something. Writing about causes/effects is an important part of academic life. A **cause** is a factor which **produces an effect**, while an **effect** is **the result of the cause**. Many things usually have more than one cause. For example, a person may become ill because of *too much stress, lack of sleep, poor nutrition* and *exposure to a virus*. Similarly, many things can have more than one effect. For instance, a violent storm may *destroy trees, flood streets, and blow down power lines*.



Please note that for some topics the term **cause/effect** is not suitable and **reason/result** is more appropriate. That's why, in certain contexts, cause/effect relationship is referred to as reason/result.

e.g. The reasons for cheating on exams (NOT the causes of cheating on exams)

It may sometimes be difficult to distinguish between **causes** and **effects**.

* To determine causes, you may ask "Why did this happen?"

* To identify effects, you can ask "What happened because of this?"

TASK 1. Underline the causes and effects and write "C" under the cause and "E" under the effect.

Example: Serious family problems can *cause* depression.

C

E

1. Many car accidents happen *because of* careless driving and bad weather conditions.

E

C

2. Doctors tell us that smoking cigarettes often *leads to* cancer.

C

E

3. Many fires in homes are *due to* careless smokers.

E

C

4. Exceeding the absenteeism limit *leads students to* get medical reports through illegal means.

C

E

5. Many people suffer from heart disease *as a result of* being overweight.

E

C

6. Eating uncooked meat can *result in* certain illnesses.

C

E

7. Genetic factors *contribute to* diabetes.

C

E

8. The increase in the number of obese people *results from* unhealthy eating habits.

E

C

9. Air pollution *is caused by* gases from cars and smoke from factories and houses.

E

C

10. Not getting enough exercise *brings about* weight gain.

C

E

11. Most teenagers do not want to be seen as children. Therefore, they imitate adult behavior.

C

E

12. Lack of self-discipline and lack of good planning are the two causes of academic failure.

C

E

13. Hair loss, high blood pressure and skin problems are the three physical effects of stress.

E

C

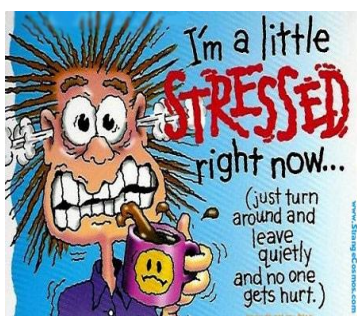
TASK 2. (aim: to help students understand and organize the major and minor supporting ideas.)

A. (aim: lead in) **Do you sometimes feel stressed as a university student? Why / Why not? Discuss with a friend.**

B. (aim: to help students organize the major and minor supporting ideas) **Read the gapped text and complete it with the sentences given below. Are your ideas from Part A mentioned in these sentences?**

There are three possible causes of stress in the lives of university students. The major cause is their heavy workload. Because of challenging classes and difficult tests, students find themselves studying hard for long hours. They have to meet deadlines to submit their assignments, and if they lack time management skills, they may get stressed out. **(c) They also have to work very hard to compete with their classmates for grades.** All these academic requirements may be a source of stress for students. **(b) Parental pressure is another cause of stress for university students.** Parents want their children to succeed in school, and they want their children to get good grades all the time. Due to their parents' high expectations of their school performance, students may suffer from great amounts of stress. Finally, stress is sometimes caused by social challenges. **(a) Since students have to create a new social network and deal with being away from home for the first time, most**

of them face social stress. Finding and living with a roommate, balancing friends with school work and dating or failing to date can all be difficult, and these challenges can lead to significant stress. To sum up, university students may be under stress due to their academic studies, their families' high expectations and social challenges.



- a. Since students have to create a new social network and deal with being away from home for the first time, most of them face social stress.
- b. Parental pressure is another cause of stress for university students.
- c. They also have to work very hard to compete with their classmates for grades.

TASK 3. (aim: to help students become aware of the organization of a cause analysis paragraph, and also familiarize them with the use of certain verbs and structures used in these paragraphs.)

Read the text again and fill in the missing parts in the table below.

ORGANIZATION		CONTENT	LANGUAGE
		(writer's explanation of the possible causes of stress in university students)	(e.g. transitions, patterns, etc)
TOPIC SENTENCE		There are three possible causes of stress in the lives of university students.	... three (possible) causes of...
	MAJOR 1	<u>heavy workload</u>	The major cause (of ...) is ...

1st support	Minors	a) challenging classes + difficult tests → studying hard for long hours b) <u>having to meet deadlines (to submit their assignments)</u> c) competing with their classmates for grades	<u>Because of</u> and also
2nd support	MAJOR 2	parental pressure	... is another/also a cause of ...
	Minors	<u>want their children to succeed in school and get good grades all the time</u> + high expectations → students suffer from stress	<u>Due to</u>
3rd Support	MAJOR 3	social challenges	<u>Finally, ... is caused by ...</u>
	Minors	a) having to create a new social network + <u>dealing with being away from home</u> b) finding and living with a roommate + balancing friends with school work +	<u>since</u> lead to

		dating or failing to date	
CONCLUSION		To sum up, university students may be under stress due to their academic studies, their families' high expectations and social challenges.	<u>To sum up, ...</u>

In addition to the structures and expressions that you have put in the table, you can use other structures to talk about cause/effect relationship in a paragraph. Below is a list of tables that show you alternative structures to be used in your paragraph.

CAUSE		EFFECT
Noun Noun phrase Ving	cause (s) lead(s) to result(s) in bring(s) about contribute(s) to	Noun Noun Phrase Ving
<i>e.g.</i> Eating too much fast food leads to obesity.		

EFFECT		CAUSE
Noun Noun Phrase Ving	result(s) from is/are due to is/are caused by is/are the result of is/are the effect of	Noun Noun Phrase Ving
<i>e.g.</i> Obesity is caused by eating too much fast food.		

CAUSE		EFFECT
Independent clause	./; As a result, ./; Therefore, ./; Consequently, ./; For this reason, ./; Because of this, , so	independent (main) clause.
<i>e.g.</i> There are economic problems in the country; therefore , the citizens cannot have a high standard of living.		

	CAUSE	EFFECT
Because As Since	dependent clause,	independent (main) clause.
<i>e.g. Because children watch too much TV, they lose creativity. e.g. He was accepted to Oxford University since his grades were high.</i>		



	CAUSE	EFFECT
As a consequence of As a result of Because of Due to Thanks to **	Noun, Noun Phrase, Ving,	independent (main) clause.
<i>e.g. Due to watching too much TV, children lose creativity. e.g. There are a lot of car accidents in the city because of drunk driving.</i>		

** *'Thanks to' is used to explain why something good has happened.*

***Because of** the dramatic increase in world population, many people suffer from unemployment.*

***Thanks to** the precautions taken by the government, people have started to find jobs.*



The verbs CAUSE and LEAD can also be used with somebody to do.

<u>Smoking</u> may cause	cause lead	the person to <u>develop cancer</u> . effect
-----------------------------	-----------------------------	---

TASK 4. Rewrite the following sentences without changing the meaning and using the prompts in parentheses.

1. Drunk people get angry easily because alcohol increases levels of anxiety and aggression.

Alcohol increases levels of anxiety and aggression; therefore, drunk people get angry easily.

(therefore)

2. Loss of motivation among students usually results from getting low grades.

Getting low grades usually brings about loss of motivation among students.

(bring about)

Students usually lose motivation as a result of getting low grades.

(as a result of)

Getting low grades usually causes students to lose their motivation.

(cause sb. to do sth.)

3. Many parents have negative ideas about watching TV. As a result, they don't let their children watch TV for long hours.

Many parents don't let their children watch TV for long hours since they have negative ideas about watching TV. (since)

Many parents don't let their children watch TV for long hours due to their negative ideas about watching TV. (due to)

4. Unemployment may cause a rise in the number of criminal acts.

The number of criminal acts may rise as a consequence of unemployment.

(as a consequence of)

A rise in the number of criminal acts may result from unemployment.

(result from)

5. People gain weight when they take in more calories than the body consumes.

Taking in more calories than the body consumes results in weight gain.

(result in)

Weight gain **is caused by taking in more calories than the body consumes.**

(cause)

Taking in more calories than the body consumes leads people to gain weight.

(lead sb. to do sth.)

C. WRITING TASK.

PART A. PREPARATION FOR THE WRITING TASK

TASK 5. (*aim: lead-in*) Discuss the following questions with your partner.

1. What is a goal?
2. Is it important to set goals in life? Why/Why not?
3. Do you think goals help us to become successful in life? How?

TASK 6. (*aim: to help students activate schemata by talking about a topic that is related to the writing task.*)

Below is a list of steps that may help students to become successful at school. Read them and put them in order of importance with your partner.

KEYS TO SUCCESS:

- _____ having determination and motivation to study
- _____ setting clear goals for your career
- _____ family support
- _____ having regular study habits
- _____ having time management skills
- _____ having a good academic background
- _____ being aware of your own learning styles
- _____ having hobbies and allocating time for them
- _____ studying with qualified teachers
- _____ getting private tutoring
- _____



PART B. WRITING TASK

In the previous tasks, you have come up with different ideas about the factors that lead to success at school. Now, using the ideas in these tasks, analyze the *possible causes of student failure* in a paragraph of 180-220 words.

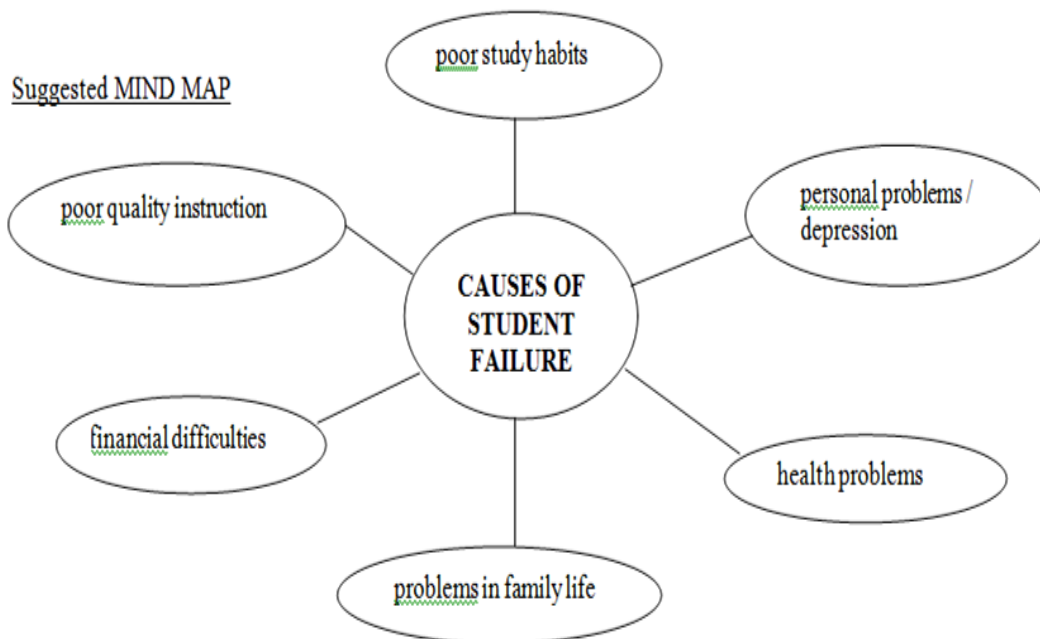
I. PRE-WRITING

You are going to write about the *possible causes of student failure*. First, you may want to plan your writing.

A. BRAINSTORMING: Brainstorm your ideas for an outline. You may want to put your ideas in a list or a mind map.

Suggested LIST

- poor study habits
- personal problems / depression
- poor quality instruction
- financial difficulties
- problems in family life
- health problems



B. PLANNING AND OUTLINING: Go over each item in the list/mind map. Decide which ones you can easily support with examples and explanations. Choose 2 or 3 of the ideas and group them in the following table.

I. poor quality instruction	II. financial difficulties	III. poor study habits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • crowded classes → little opportunity for students to receive individual attention → → become demotivated → students perform poorly • lack of facilities → (laboratories, equipment, etc.) → little opportunity for students to put theory into practice → difficulty in understanding the purpose and use of the content covered → failure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • students cannot find financial means to pursue their education → need to work → miss classes + too tired to concentrate on their studies → failure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • study little / take no notes in class /uninterested → lose motivation and interest in lesson → failure • lack of time management skills → unable to follow the deadlines → not being ready for exams / not doing homework on time → failure

Now, outline what you will write. Please note down your ideas in the table below and try to explain them by giving reasons, results, facts, and examples.

Topic Sentence: _____.	
Major Support 1: _____	
Minor support (clarification/examples):	- _____ - _____
Major Support 2: _____	
Minor support (clarification/examples):	- _____ - _____
Major Support 3: _____	
Minor support (clarification/examples):	- _____ - _____
Concluding Sentence: _____.	

II. FIRST DRAFT

Now, develop your notes and write a paragraph about the *possible causes of student failure*. Don't forget to provide reasons in your supports.

III. SELF-CHECKLIST

Before you write the second draft, use the checklist below to go over your work. Put a tick (✓) in the relevant box.

WRITING OUTPUT:	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have written about the <i>causes of student failure</i> .
Mechanics:	
<input type="checkbox"/>	All the words are spelled correctly .
<input type="checkbox"/>	All the sentences are punctuated correctly .
<input type="checkbox"/>	There are no capitalization mistakes .
<input type="checkbox"/>	All the sentences have a subject and a verb .
<input type="checkbox"/>	There are no fragments or run-on sentences .
Grammar and Vocabulary:	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have made use of some of the related vocabulary in this handout, and three of them are: _____, _____, _____.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have used the following verbs and structures to talk about causes correctly. _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____.
Organization:	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have written one complete paragraph .
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have made use of the pre-writing activities. (<i>brainstorming</i> and <i>outlining</i>)
<input type="checkbox"/>	The paragraph is within the sentence limit. (180-220 words)
<input type="checkbox"/>	My paragraph has a well-developed topic sentence .
<input type="checkbox"/>	My paragraph has well-developed major and minor supporting sentences .
<input type="checkbox"/>	My paragraph has a concluding sentence .

IV. SECOND DRAFT

Correct your work according to the checklist. Then, re-write and hand it in to your instructor. Your instructor will provide feedback on the content of your work.

V. NOTES FOR SELF REFLECTION ASSIGNMENT

Look at the checklist and take notes in the table so that you can recognize your strengths and weaknesses to improve your writing and help you reflect on your performance.

YOUR WORK & EFFORT	THE HANDOUT & ITS CONTENT	OVERALL EVALUATION
<p>Did you allocate sufficient time and energy for the tasks?</p>	<p><u>ONE</u> thing that you believe you <i>learned</i> and <i>put into practice well</i>:</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>Are you satisfied with your writing outcome?</p>
<p>Did you make use of the self-checklist?</p> <p>If yes, <i>how</i>?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>If no, <i>why</i>?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p><u>ONE</u> thing that you need to <i>work on</i> and <i>improve</i>:</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>Did you notice any improvements in your writing?</p> <p>If yes, <i>what</i>?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>If no, <i>why</i>?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>

VI. FINAL DRAFT

Write your final draft and put it in your portfolio.

References:

DBE Materials Archive, METU.

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW SHEET FOR THE STUDY

DATE:	TIME:

Participant Number:	Name-Surname:	Gender:
		F M

INTRODUCTION
<p>Merhaba, ben Çiğdem Özyavru. Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Kuzey Kıbrıs Kampüsü'nde İngilizce okutmanı olarak çalışıyorum ve aynı zamanda İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümü master öğrencisiyim.</p> <p>Anadili Türkçe olan öğrencilerin neden/sebepe paragrafı yazarken kullandıkları yapıları araştırmak için bu çalışmayı sürdürmekteyim. Araştırma sonuçlarının doğruluğu açısından katılımınız ve görüşleriniz çok büyük önem taşımaktadır.</p> <p>Görüşmemizin daha hızlı ve daha rahat geçmesi için video kaydı yapılacaktır. Görüşmenin tamamı yalnızca tarafımdan görülecek olup, isminiz ve şahis bilgileriniz tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Verdiğiniz bilgiler yalnızca bilimsel çalışmalarda kullanılacaktır.</p> <p>Sorularına başlamadan önce herhangi bir durumda rahatsızlık duyar ve görüşmeyi sonlandırmak ya da kaydı durdurmak isterseniz söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır. Görüşmemizin yaklaşık 20-30 dakika süreceğini tahmin ediyor ve eğer sormak istediğiniz bir şey yoksa, yazmış olduğunuz paragrafların gözden geçirilmiş halini size verip, sorularına başlamak istiyorum.</p>

1) Çevre kirliliği konusunda iki farklı paragraf yazmanız istendi. Bu konular hakkında yazarken kendiniz rahat hissettiniz mi?

2) Bu konular ile ilgili paragraf yazmayı nasıl tanımladınız? Niçin?

a) Çok Kolay b) Kolay c) Ne zor ne kolay d) Zor e) Çok zor

3) Türkçe paragraf yazmak mı yoksa İngilizce olanı mı daha zordu? Zorlanmanızın sebebi ne olabilir?

4) Hangi dilde yazdığınız paragrafı daha çok beğendiğiniz? Niçin?

5) Üniversiteye gelmeden önceki öğretim hayatınızda her iki dilde de paragraf yazımı ve çeşitleri ile ilgili aldığınız eğitimi anlatır mısınız? Önce Türkçe ile başlayalım.

6) İngilizce'de neden/sebep paragrafı yazarken kullanacağınız yapıları öğrenirken zorluk yaşadınız mı? Anlatır mısınız?

7) Türkçe neden/sebep paragrafı yazarken kullanmanız gereken yapıları ne zaman ve nasıl öğrendiniz?

8) Bu kurumda konu hakkında verilen kaynakları yeterli ve/ve ya faydalı buldunuz mu?

9) Size verilen kaynaklardaki model paragrafları örnek almaya çalışıyor musunuz? Sizce bu paragraflar kimler tarafından yazılıyor?

10) Türkçe ve İngilizce kullanarak benzer konularda paragraf yazdınız? Peki paragrafta kullandığınız yapılar benzer mi?

11) Paragraftaki X numaralı yapıyı niçin kullandınız? Yerine kullanabileceğiniz başka bir yapı var mıydı?

12) Numarası Y olan yapı yerine Z yapısını kullanmak sizce anlamı nasıl değiştirirdi?

13) Paragrafı tekrar yazmanız gerekseydi, değiştirmek istediğiniz bir yapı var mı?

CLOSING and COMMENTS

Benim sormak istediklerim bu kadar. Sizin eklemek istediğiniz herhangi bir şey var mı?

APPENDIX: G

TEZ İZİN FORMU

PROGRAM

SEES

PSIR

ELT

YAZARIN

Soyadı :

Adı :

Bölümü :

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) :

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans

Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınmaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: