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Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback: A Multiperspective Study on Writing Performance and the Psychology of Writing

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(Doctoral Thesis)

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Çanakkale
February,2019

Declaration

I hereby declare that that Doctoral Thesis "Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback: A Multiperspective Study on Writing Performance and the Psychology of Writing", which was written by myself, has been prepared in accordance with the ethical scientific values, and all the sources which I have used are contained in the references.

01.02.2019

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Certification

We hereby certify that the report prepared by Kutay UZUN and presented to the committee in the thesis defense examination held on 1 February 2019 was found to be satisfactory and has been accepted as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Thesis Reference No: 10231541

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Acknowledgement

Abstract

Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback: A Multiperspective Study on Writing Performance and the Psychology of Writing

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This study aimed to find out if Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback improved the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, writing performance and the psychology of writing. Secondarily, the study aimed to discover if Genre-Focused Feedback, received as 'Hand-Holding' and 'Bridging', resulted in varying learning outcomes. The final aim of the study was to reveal learner and teacher perceptions regarding Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback.

An embedded mixed method design was utilized. Data were collected by means of a Genre-Based Literary Analysis Essay Scoring Rubric, context-adapted rating scales, guided reflection papers, face-to-face interviews, teacher diary entries and computational measurements of textual variables.

The participants were 78 2nd year undergraduate students of English Language Teaching in a public university in Turkey. The participants were given a 12-Week intervention consisting of Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback and during which they were asked to write 5 literary analysis essays. Each participant received Genre-Focused Feedback, in the form of 'Hand-Holding' or 'Bridging' and was asked to make revisions following the feedback. The measurements were taken upon the submission of the first essay as the pretest, the third essay as the midtest and the fifth essay as the posttest. At the end of the intervention, 20 participants were interviewed to reveal their retrospective perceptions.

Descriptive and inferential analyses were performed in the study. Essay scores, writing performance and writing psychology data were statistically compared to find out if there were differences among the pretest, midtest and posttest measurements. The interview data,

reflection papers and teacher diaries were analyzed qualitatively to contribute to the quantitative data.

The findings showed that Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback contributed positively to the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, writing performance and writing psychology except that the lexical complexity levels of the participants remained unchanged throughout in the intervention. However, it was found out that receiving Genre-Focused Feedback as 'Hand-Holding' or 'Bridging' did not make any difference in the level of development among the participants. Lastly, both the participants' and the teacher's perceptions were found to have changed towards the positive from the beginning of the intervention to its end. The study was concluded by confirming the positive effects of Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback, also acknowledging that the degree of explicitness in genre-focused feedback did not result in different rates of learning.

Keywords: Bridging, Genre-Based Instruction, Genre-Focused Feedback, Hand-Holding, L2 Writing

Özet

Tür Temelli Öğretim ve Tür Temelli Dönüt: Yazma Performansı ve Yazma Psikolojisi Üzerine Çok Yönlü Bir Çalışma

Kutay UZUN

Bu çalışma tür temelli öğretim ve tür temelli dönütün bir tür olarak edebi analiz kompozisyonu hakimiyeti, yazma performansı ve yazma psikolojisi üzerindeki olası etkilerini ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır. İkinci olarak, çalışma 'Elinden Tutma' ve 'Köprüleme' olmak üzere iki farklı tipte tür temelli dönütün belirtilen değişkenler üzerindeki olası etkilerini incelemektedir. Çalışmanın son amacı ise katılımcıların ve çalışma kapsamında ders veren öğretim elemanının tür temelli öğretim ve tür temelli dönüte ilişkin algılarını ortaya çıkarmaktır.

Araştırma deseni olarak çalışmanın amaçlarına uygunluğu bakımından gömülü karma desen kullanılmıştır. Veri toplama araçları Tür Temelli Edebi Analiz Kompozisyonu Puanlama Rubriği, bağlama uyarlanmış ölçekler, yansıtma yazıları, yüz yüze mülakatlar, öğretim elemanının günlük girdileri ve bilgisayımsal olarak belirlenen metinsel değişkenlerdir.

Çalışmanın katılımcıları Türkiye'de bir devlet üniversitesinde İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümü ikinci sınıfta öğrenim görmekte olan 78 lisans öğrencisidir. Katılımcılar tür temelli öğretim ve tür temelli dönüt içerikli 12 haftalık bir öğretim uygulamasına tabi tutulmuş ve bu süreçte kendilerinden, ders planındaki haftaya denk gelen eser hakkında, 5 adet edebi analiz kompozisyonu yazmaları istenmiştir. Her bir kompozisyon için 'Elinden Tutma' ya da 'Köprüleme' şeklinde Tür Temelli Dönüt araştırmacı tarafından verilmiş ve katılımcılara verilen dönüt ışığında değişiklik ya da düzeltme yapmaları için süre tanınmıştır. Ön Test ölçümleri birinci kompozisyonun, ara test ölçümleri üçüncü kompozisyonun, son test ölçümleri ise beşinci kompozisyonun yazıldığı haftalarda gerçekleştirilmiştir. Uygulama sonunda

katılımcıların bir bölümü ile yüz yüze mülakat yapılmış, bu sayede yapılan uygulamayla ilgili geriye dönük algılarının anlaşılması amaçlanmıştır.

Toplanan veri betimsel ve çıkarımsal yöntemlerle incelenmiştir. Kompozisyon puanları, yazma performansı ve yazma psikolojisi verisi ön test, ara test ve son test ölçümlerinde fark olup olmadığının belirlenmesi amacıyla istatistiksel olarak karşılaştırılmıştır. Mülakat verisi, yansıtma ve öğretim elemanı günlüğü verileri de kompozisyon puanları, yazma performansı ve yazma psikolojisi ile ilgili elde edilen nicel sonuçlara katkı sağlaması ve uygulamayla ilgili katılımcılar tarafından algılanan olumlu ve olumsuz durumların ortaya konması amacıyla nitel yöntemle analiz edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın bulguları tür temelli öğretim ve tür temelli dönütün bir tür olarak edebi analiz kompozisyonu hakimiyeti, yazma performansı ve yazma psikolojisi üzerinde olumlu etkiye sahip olduğunu, ancak sözcüksel karmaşıklık bakımından herhangi bir etkisi olmadığını göstermektedir. Bunun yanında, tür temelli dönütün 'Elinden Tutma' ya da 'Köprüleme' biçiminde sağlanmasının belirtilen değişkenler bakımından herhangi bir fark yaratmadığı saptanmıştır. Son olarak, öğretim uygulamasının başından sonuna hem katılımcılar hem de öğretim elemanı bakımından olumlu yönde algı değişiklikleri saptanmıştır. Çalışma tür temelli öğretim ve tür temelli dönütün olumlu etkilerini göstermiş, tür temelli dönüt'ün açıklık düzeyinin ise öğrenme bakımından farka neden olmadığını tespit etmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Elinden Tutma, Köprüleme, Tür Temelli Öğretim, Tür Temelli Dönüt, Yabancı Dilde Yazma

Table of Contents

Chapter I

Introduction

Chapter II

Literature Review

Chapter III

Methodology

Chapter IV
Findings

Chapter V
Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abbreviations

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

GBI: Genre-Based Instruction

GBLAESR: Genre-Based Literary Analysis Essay Scoring Rubric

L1: First / Native Language

L2: Second / Foreign Language

NRG: New Rhetorical Genre

SEWI: Self-Efficacy in Writing Inventory

SFL: Systemic Functional Linguistics

SLWAI: Second Language Writing Anxiety Scale

WAS: Writing Attitude Scale

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The first chapter begins with the statement of the research problem and then, the purposes of the study and research questions in relation to the purposes, the significance of the study, limitations, assumptions and relevant definitions are explained in detail. Afterwards, literature relevant to L2 writing skills is reviewed in order to identify possible solutions to the research problem as well as identifying the variables that may potentially interact with the research findings.

Research Problem

The problem to be dealt with in the present study is related to research on Genre-Based Instruction (GBI), which appears in the relevant literature to be an underresearched area. Mainly, the need to study GBI extensively arises out of the deficiencies of the precedent approaches to the teaching of L2 writing, name the product and process approaches. The former one of these approaches, the product approach, has been criticized for foregrounding textual product only, ignoring the processes involved in writing (Cribb, 2002), the reader (Matsuda & Silva, 2010), the learner's prior knowledge (Badger & White, 2000) and the social aspect of writing (Hyland, 2003). The process approach, on the other hand, has been denounced for disregarding grammar and syntax in writing (Reid, 2001), lacking variety in possible activities (Hyland, 2003) and not putting sufficient emphasis on the content and the reader (Badger & White, 2000; Johns, 1995). Considering what these approaches lack, GBI appears to provide a solution for the teaching of L2 writing both in EGP and EAP contexts as it is argued to take into account the lexicogrammatical conventions (Johns, 2002), varieties of English (Matsuda, 2003), the social aspect of writing and the conventions of different discourse communities (Rose & Martin, 2012; Swales, 1990). However, the constructs which can be developed among

learners through GBI, its possible psychological effects and assessment with particular respect to GBI still seem to require further research and this need forms of the basis of the research problem in the present study.

In the relevant literature, it is seen that most research on the teaching of writing through GBI focus on student performance through the analysis of text structure and linguistic resources such as connectives, voice or modalities employed by learners (Aull, 2015; Deng, Chen, & Zhang, 2014a, 2014b; Huang, 2014; Khatib & Mirzaii, 2016; Khotabandeh, Jafarigohar, Soleimani, & Hemmati, 2013; Lo, Liu, & Wang, 2014; Martin-Martin, 2013; Mahoney, 2014; Naghdipour & Koç, 2015; Ong, 2016; Park, 2015; Perez & Martin-Martin, 2016; Ramos, 2015; Salehpour & Saeidi, 2014; Ting, Campbell, Law, & Poh, 2013) with no reference to overall text quality or rhetorical competence. Besides, although genre knowledge also encompasses the lexical choices made by learners (Tardy, 2009), most research on the genre-based approach to teaching writing appear to be lacking in-depth lexical analyses with regards to the instructional procedures with a few exceptions such as Achugar and Colombi (2008), Brynes (2009), Colombi (2002) and Yasuda (2012), who conclude that GBI results in an increased level of lexical density in the texts produced by language learners.

Moreover, as also stated by Mahboob and Devrim (2013), most studies and practices related to teacher feedback in writing contexts deal primarily with syntactic and grammatical errors, which do not fully fit the purpose and goals of genre-based pedagogy, in which feedback should focus on how meaning is created beyond syntactic and grammatical issues. In this respect, a gap appears to exist in the literature related to GBI with reference to genre-focused feedback.

Lastly, it can be seen in the relevant literature that only a few studies take into account the psychological domain of writing with respect to the effect of GBI on writing attitude (Elashri&Ibrahim, 2013; Rashidi&Mazdayasna, 2016), writing self-efficacy (Early & De

Costa, 2011; Han & Hiver, 2018; Viriya, 2016) and writing anxiety (Han & Hiver, 2018). Moreover, to the researcher's knowledge, there is no study within the Turkish context which deals with the psychological effects of GBI in any level. Therefore, the extensive study of these variables appears to be necessary to come to more comprehensive conclusions concerning the psychological effects of GBI both within and beyond the context of the present study.

In sum, the recent literature on GBI is seen to be indicating several gaps related to the aforementioned psychological variables with respect to GBI along with the investigation of potential interactions between the procedure and lexical features as indicators of writing quality. Finally, studies on teacher feedback with specific reference to the genre to be produced also appears to be lacking in the literature relevant to GBI.

Aims of the Study

Taking the research problem into account, the first aim of the present study was to find out if GBI followed by genre-focused feedback improves writing performance, writing fluency and lexical choices of learners made in the production of literary analysis essays.

The second aim of the study was to discover if GBI has an impact on learner psychology limited to the domain of writing skill. To that end, writing anxiety, writing attitude and writing self-efficacy levels of learners as participants were investigated. With those measurements, it was aimed to see if GBI has any effect on the psychological variables related to writing.

The third aim of the study was to find out if different types of teacher feedback had an effect on the writing performance of the participants following GBI. In this part of the study, it was aimed to see if the participant groups receiving different types of feedback improved in similar or different rates.

The final aim of the study was to reveal the opinions of both learners and the teacher regarding GBI and its implementation along with the challenges they faced during the process.

By shedding a light upon both learner and teacher opinions, it was aimed to put forth how GBI was perceived by learners and teachers while also indicating potential gaps between learner and teacher perceptions with regards to the particular type of instruction.

The following research questions were formulated in order to meet the aims of the study:

1. Are there changes in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI?

2. Are there changes in writing performance among the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI?

3. Are there changes in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among the participants before, during and after GBI?

4. Are there differences in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?

5. Are there differences in the writing performance of the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?

6. Are there differences in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?

7. What are the opinions of learners who received GBI regarding the procedure?

8. How is the process of GBI procedure perceived by the teacher?

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to its own research context, which was the Turkish undergraduate ELT context and a compulsorily taken English Literature course. Secondly, the participants of the research had only the researcher as their teacher during the intervention study, which may

have affected the participants either positively or negatively in terms of their levels of motivation in learning and participation throughout the intervention. Also making the researcher an insider to the research site, data analysis might have also included subjective evaluations for the same reason. Likewise, the participants' responses may also have been influenced in that they may have attempted to focus on the responses which were thought to have been expected by the researcher. In addition, most of the findings acquired within the context of the study were limited to the perceptions of the participants, which may have been another delimiting factor. The genres utilized as the course materials of the study, namely poems and plays, may have also served as limitations since it is not known if the study would have produced the same results if the course material had consisted of other genres such as short stories or novels. Lastly, the intervention was limited to 12 weeks and it may have limited the development of certain constructs that may have had an effect on learning and performance. For these reasons, the results may not be generalized to each and every higher education context. However, it should be noted that the research ethics were strictly followed throughout the study.

The Significance of the Study

The study is significant in that it provides an extensive account of GBI together with genre-focused feedback, which both appear to be underresearched areas within language learning. It can be seen in the relevant literature that educational research focusing on the implementation and outcomes of GBI are quite few (Almacıoğlu, 2017; Almacıoğlu & Okan, 2018; Argıt & Özer-Griffin, 2015; Yaylı, 2011, 2012; Uzun, 2016) in the Turkish foreign language education context. For this reason, the study attempts to contribute to the literature by providing contextual information on the performance effects as well as the psychological effects of GBI and the potential effects of feedback type on genre-based writing performance. Moreover, to the researcher's knowledge, the written corrective feedback types proposed by Mahboob and Devrim (2013) as Hand-Holding, Bridging, Carrying and Base Jumping as an

alternative to more traditional types of feedback have never been empirically tested, therefore, the study is thought to bear potential to contribute to the L2 writing literature by comparing two of these recently proposed feedback types. Lastly, the documentation of teacher and student opinions regarding GBI is thought to bring about points to consider in the increasing of the effectiveness of writing instruction in general.

Assumptions

Within the context of the study, it was assumed that the responses of the participants to the scale items, reflective journals, interview questions and diaries reflected their true beliefs and opinions. It was also assumed that the data collection techniques were sufficient in terms of providing answers to the research questions and the last assumption of the study was that all participants were influenced by uncontrolled variables equally.

Definitions

Genre-Based Instruction.

In the writing context, GBI is considered to be a post-process approach which chronologically follows The Process Approach and places special emphasis of the social context of language along with the discourse communities using it (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Matsuda, 2003). Osman (2004) suggests that GBI include four consecutive stages, the identification of general purpose and rhetorical moves, modelling the genre, guided analysis of the rhetorical moves in the model, collaborative construction of the genre and independent construction of the genre. By working on sample texts and attempting to produce them from a rhetorical perspective, learning is expected to occur in GBI.

Genre-Focused Feedback

Taking into account Mahboob and Devrims's (2013) criticism that placing grammatical accuracy or syntax in the center of corrective feedback is rather limited in terms of scaffolding,

genre-focused feedback within the context of the study is defined as written corrective feedback which has a rhetorical focus and aims to guide learners towards understanding how language works as well as how knowledge is produced and transmitted in and among discourse communities (Devrim, 2014; Mahboob & Devrim, 2013).

Writing Fluency

In line with the studies of Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Wigglesworth and Storch (2009), writing fluency is defined as the mean length of t-units in a text, which is also related to the total number of words in the text (Abdel-Latif, 2013; Polio, 2001; Skehan, 2013).

Lexical Complexity

Within the context of the study, lexical complexity is defined as the division of the number of complex word types in a given text by the total number of word types (Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998).

Lexical Density

Accorting to Ure and Ellis (1977) the ratio of words carrying lexical value to those carrying grammatical value signals the lexical density of a text. ın this respect, lexical density within the context of the study is defined as the proportion of content words to function words in the texts of the participants (Halliday, 2004).

Writing Attitude

For the purposes of the study, writing attitude is defined as an affective state in connection with the way the author of a text feels within the range of negative to positive (Graham, Berninger, & Fan, 2007).

Writing Self-Efficacy

Having an intermediary effect on writing performance, writing self-efficacy is defined as the learners' self-evaluations regarding their own competence in fulfilling the requirements of a writing task (Pajares, 2006).

Writing Anxiety

A situation-specific type of anxiety that is experienced during writing in a second / foreign language (Bline, Lowe, Meixner, Nouri, & Pearce, 2001), writing anxiety within the scope of the present study is defined as the sum of emotions and behaviour which impedes the ability to initiate, carry on and complete a writing task that the individual otherwise has the ability to complete (Bloom, 1985).

Chapter Summary

The first chapter identified the background to and rationale for the study in terms of the research problem, aims, significance and limitations of the study along with the research questions and the definitions of the variables utilized in the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature review section of the study primarily attempts to establish the theoretical framework of the study as well as documenting the potential effects of related variables on the outcomes of the study. For this reason, the processes involved and individual differences in writing are reviewed along with the approaches to the teaching of writing and the issue of feedback in the teaching of writing, in the last one of which traditional and contemporary understandings of written corrective feedback are compared.

Approaches to Teaching L2 Writing

The teaching approach to follow and the method to select for teaching has sparked a number of debates within the language teaching/learning literature, and the teaching of L2 writing skills is no exception to those debates. Although various ways to teach writing skills to learners of second or foreign languages have been proposed, Nunan (2015) categorizes these ways as product and process-oriented approaches to the teaching of writing, which should be regarded complementary instead of competing. Matsuda and Silva (2010) put forth a more thorough list referring to the product-oriented approach in two subheadings as controlled composition and the paragraph pattern approach, then stating the process approach and the genre-based approach as the other approaches to the teaching of L2 writing proposed so far. The integration of process and genre-based approaches is also referred to in the relevant literature as a stand-alone approach to the teaching of writing as a result of Badger and White's (2002) and Hyland's (2003, 2004) argument that the processes that are involved in the act of writing should not be neglected while putting emphasis on the social context of writing as proposed by the genre-based approach. Taking this into account, the approaches to the teaching

of L2 writing can be categorized as the product, process, genre-based and process-genre approaches.

These approaches mentioned above are typically referred to within the domain of L2 writing but not in L1 due to the fact that L2 writing requires the activation of different processes such as deciphering new linguistic information related to the L2 while writing (Raimes, 1985). However, even though the frequencies, quality and the time allocated to the processes are known to differ, the processes themselves are known to be in parallel with L1 in L2 writing (Silva, 1993; Uzawa, 1996), therefore, it seems inevitable that L2 writing research draws on L1 writing research findings. For this reason, it is necessary to review how L1 writing processes work and which models are present in the relevant literature with respect to the processes involved in L1 writing.

Processes Involved in L1 Writing

The shift from behaviorism to cognitivism in terms of the dominant learning theory of the period also influenced L1 writing research in 1960's, resulting in a large number of writing process studies. Influential studies among those were the ones which proposed process models of writing that attempted to explain how ideas were converted into written texts. Below in Table 1, a chronology of the L1 process models that are considered influential are presented with their proponents and the stance they adopt in terms of learning theories.

Table 1

Process Models of L1 Writing

Model	Proposed by	Stance
Rohman and Wlecke's Process Model	Rohman and Wlecke (1964)	Cognitivist
Murray's Process Model	Murray in Sharp (2016)	Cognitivist – Interactionist
The Talk-Write Model	Zoellner (1969)	Behaviorist
Emig's Process Model	Emig (1971)	Cognitivist
Conception – Incubation – Production Model	Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod and Rosen (1975)	Cognitivist – Interactionist

Cognitive Process Model	Flower and Hayes (1981)	Cognitivist
Grave's Process Model	Graves (1983, 1994)	Cognitivist – Interactionist
Knowledge-Telling/Transforming Models	Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987)	Cognitivist
Hayes's Process Model	Hayes (1996)	Cognitivist – Social Constructivist
Kellog's Process Model	Kellogg (1996, 2001)	Cognitivist
Chenoweth and Hayes's Process Model	Chenoweth and Hayes's (2001)	Cognitivist – Social Constructivist
Knowledge-Constituting Model	Galbraith (1999, 2009a, 2009b)	Cognitivist

As seen in Table 1, one of the first process models of writing is developed and elaborated on by Rohman and Wlecke (1964) and Rohman (1965) with specific focus on pre-writing. pre-writing, which is essentially a stage of the discovery of a preferable combination of meaning and words, is the actual stage in the process of writing which empowers learners with a sense of self-actualization (Rohman, 1965). According to its proponents, writers get involved in discovery-thought processes which resemble cause and effect relationships very closely and result in quality writing. Taking this into account, it is recommended in the mentioned studies that learners of writing be provided with not only the knowledge of the standards of good writing but also a chance to experience the efforts or mental strategies that may result in good writing.

Distinct from Rohman and Wlecke's (1964) model in terms of recognizing the audience, their needs and the writer's individual need to solve his or her own problems related to writing, Murray (1968) in Sharp (2016), identifies the process of writing in 6 stages as discovering the topic, developing an awareness of the reader, searching for factual or ideological information, creating a mental outline to put ideas in order, drafting the order in the form of writing, reviewing the draft critically and the editing and rewriting process. During these stages, the writer may make use of senses such as a sense of the general, specific, history, language, self, audience, problems or solutions in order to develop a stance regarding the topic, collect

information, identify the appropriate form and create the script through the mentioned 6 stages (Murray, 1968 as cited in Sharp, 2016). Although Murray's process model of writing resembles that of Rohman and Wlecke's (1964) in terms of its cognitive aspects, it is notable especially for its period that the needs of both the writer and the reader are explicitly mentioned as an integral part of the process of writing, which incorporates a social aspect into the model.

Another model which puts heavy emphasis on the socio-behavioral aspect of the process of writing is the *Talk-Write Model* developed by Zoellner (1969). Adopting a behaviorist stance, Zoellner assumes that a vocal utterance, as well as the thought which is generated by that particular utterance, is symbolized by the flow of written words and thus the approach to writing which argues for thinking before writing is not functional. In this regard, he suggests taking scribal problems not as problems in preparation and thinking but as behavioral problems which are faulty and maladaptive. In his model, Zoellner states that the focus of the teaching of writing should be to provide concrete and behavioral specifications of good writing and individualize these specifications so that individual learning problems can be addressed. In a similar vein, he suggests a classroom environment which permits a variety of responses which serve as immediate reinforcement for student behavior and the exploitation of the existing verbal repertory of learners for pedagogical purposes with specific concentration on the act of writing over the written word. This way, Zoellner argues, learners are provided with numerous opportunities of student-teacher and student-student interaction and the advantage in this is that interaction provides a number of immediate reinforcement situations, also allowing the learners to learn from one another. The Talk-Write Model can be said to attempt to calibrate writing through talking unlike Rohman and Wlecke's (1964) and Murray's (1968 as cited in Sharp, 2016) models which put the initial emphasis on thinking.

One common feature of the models presented so far in this section is that each one of them treat the act of writing as having steps or stages which are followed by the writer one after

another in a linear and non-recursive fashion. The criticism to the non-recursiveness of these models comes from Emig (1967, 1971) who hypothesizes that the act of writing does not necessarily involve steps which the learner takes one after another and it may actually involve more or fewer than three components (planning, drafting, revising) through which the writer moves back and forth as deemed necessary by the writer's skills, attitude, ego and the mode of writing (Emig, 1967). In her model, Emig (1971) concludes that the process of composing consists of 10 dimensions as context, the nature of stimulus, prewriting, planning, starting, composing aloud, reformulation (rewriting and revisions), stopping, contemplation (self-evaluation) and lastly, teacher influence. It should be noted, however, that Emig (1971) presents the aforementioned stages in a recursive and circular structure, which is a distinct feature of the model in comparison to the preceding models.

A few years after Emig's (1971) process model of writing, Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod and Rosen (1975) developed the *Conception – Incubation – Production Model* of writing which professes the social nature of writing along with conceding the mental processes involved. In this model, conception is the first process that the writer goes through, during which she or he identifies what is to be done, what are expected and how to meet those expectations and necessities. It is argued that the incubation stage is parallel to the conception stage and the writer is involved in using the expressive language to explicate an issue to one's own self (Britton et al., 1975), to make decisions about the path to follow and the information to have so that the transition to the transactional or poetic language can be actualized. The final stage within the model is production, which is the conversion of ideas into written form with an awareness of the reader. According to the authors, the production stage cannot be realized unless the writer is involved in expressive writing or talking to understand the needs and necessities regarding the topic or the task of writing. A proficient writer in this model is one

that also takes into account the expectations of the intended audience of the script (Freisinger, 1982).

Considering the details of the model proposed by its proponents, the conception – incubation - production model of writing can be regarded as similar to the models of Rohman and Wlecke (1964), Murray (1968 as cited in Sharp, 2016) and Emig (1971) in terms of the attention it pays to the cognitive processes that writers go through in the process of writing. However, it can be said that the model differs from that of Rohman and Wlecke (1964) for also acknowledging the existence of the reader and Zoellner's (1969) model for putting more emphasis on the process rather than the observable product. It also differs from Emig's (1971) model in that the model presents a linear progression from thinking to writing, which is also denounced by Zoellner (1969), as opposed to the proposed recursive nature of the processes involved in writing.

The identification of writing processes as linear units of analysis, or clean-cut stages, progressing one after another is also criticized by Flower and Hayes (1981) along with the previous models' orientation on the written product and failure to recognize the writer's inner thinking processes. Building upon the assumptions that writing involves hierarchical processes which may be embedded within one another and are goal directed, Flower and Hayes (1981) propose the *Cognitive Process Model* of writing, which is marked by the suggested elements of writing as the task environment, text and writer's long-term memory and the recursive process of planning, translating and reviewing.

According to the Cognitive Process Model, planning, translating and reviewing are continuously monitored and the processes maybe reiterated any time by the writer depending on the goals of the act of writing. The model differs from all the preceding process models of writing in that the Cognitive Process Model is the first one which explicitly articulates the role of long-term memory in the realization of writing. However, it can be considered to be in the

same line with Emig (1971) and Britton et al.'s (1975) process models for focusing on the process and Emig's (1971) model for suggesting that the processes of writing do not follow a linear sequence but the entirety of the act of writing is a web of interwoven processes.

Graves's (1983, 1994) process model of writing is also among those which argue for a recursive nature of the processes involved in writing. Supporting the model with Vygotsky's (1986) opinions which suggest that mental processes such as planning or drafting along with one's inner speech are reflected in the written product, Graves (1983, 1994) argues that in writing conventions are considered before content unlike speaking. Criticizing the school context for neglecting learners' ego and taking the persona out of the written product, Graves (1994) concludes that writing consists of beginning and composing processes, which may overlap during writing and are not in a systematic, linear order to be followed by the writer. The beginning process involves rehearsing, topic choice through thinking as well as interaction and the reflection of voice through content and style while composing involves the selection of relevant information followed by the act of writing, reading and rewriting which may all be reiterated at certain points depending on the writer's need, necessitating a recursive nature for the model.

The mentioned recursive features of Graves's (1983, 1994) process model of writing show that the model draws upon similar notions to the models of Emig (1971) and Flower and Hayes (1981) with respect to the reiteration of the initial processes if needs be. However, there appears to be a major difference in Graves's (1983, 1994) model in that the rehearsing stage, which seems to be similar to what other models refer to as pre-writing or generating ideas, includes the intervention of social interaction with respect to the Vygotskian social learning theories.

The writing process models which have been reviewed so far has little or no consideration of how proficient the writers are. Based on this criticism and think-aloud protocol

data, observation and experimental research, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) develop two models of writing which takes into account the proficiency level in writing, namely *Knowledge-Telling* and *Knowledge-Transforming* models. According to the Knowledge-Telling Model, the writer with low proficiency in writing analyzes the task and produces the text for the purpose of task completion, reflecting the connection of ideas in the memory onto the text itself and these processes are usually reflected in the act of writing as local revisions on the text. The Knowledge-Transforming Model, on the other hand, suggests that, through a dynamic interaction between processes and the active status of problem solving, the text is produced by transforming the knowledge reflected as a higher frequency of global revisions on behalf of expert writers.

As seen in Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) models, proficiency level in writing may have a relationship with the cognitive processes executed by the writer as well as revision behavior, which appears to be the distinct contribution of knowledge-telling and knowledge-transforming models to the body of writing process literature. Apart from this particular contribution, both models have similar assumptions to the models of Emig (1971), Flower and Hayes (1981) and Graves (1983, 1994) in that all five models suggest that the processes in writing are influenced by one another. However, it should also be noted that, unlike Graves's (1983, 1994) process model, Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) models tend to be limited to the cognitive frame, not taking into account the context of writing which also involves the social context (Flower, 1994).

In line with Flower's (1994) criticism that social context is integrated in the act of writing and the attempts to re-unify psycholinguistics with theories of language and learning in the late 80's and early 90's with respect to the latest developments in both areas of research within these periods, Hayes (1996) develops a more thorough and refined process model of writing in comparison to the initial model developed by Flower and Hayes (1981).

Employing a complex web of processes proposed by Hayes (1996) as stated above, the production of the text in Hayes's model begins with retrieving the representations from the task environment to produce output which is an initial plan of sentence parts. If prior knowledge exists in the long-term memory regarding a particular sentence or sentence part, production is facilitated. The initial plan is then used to retrieve semantic content to be stored in the working memory. At this point, the articulatory buffer within the working memory is used as a temporary storage for the surface forms to express the semantic content. When the articulatory buffer reaches its storage limit, the sentence part is expressed to be followed by an evaluation. If the evaluation of the sentence part is positive, it is written down. If not, the process is repeated until a positive evaluation is made (Hayes, 1996).

Hayes's (1996) process model of writing differs from the previous Cognitive Process Model (Flower & Hayes, 1981) in that working memory serves a central role, both visual-spatial and linguistic representations are included in the model and the role of affect in the act of writing is recognized. Furthermore, Hayes's (1996) model reorganizes the cognitive processes proposed in the process model by replacing revision with reading and text interpretation, planning with reflection and translation with text production.

The role of working memory in the processes which realize the act of writing are further elaborated on by Kellogg (1996, 2001). In his model, Kellogg (1996) describes the process model of writing in relation to the visuo-spatial sketchpad, phonological loop and central executive components of working memory as formulation, execution and monitoring. In this model, formulation is the planning and translation of communicative goals into written text. Formulation is followed by execution, during which the writer is physically involved in the creation of the text as in writing by hand or typing into a word processor. Then comes the final process of monitoring, which involves the reading and evaluation of the written text with the purpose of editing and/or revising. Defining those processes as simultaneous rather than linear,

Kellogg (2001) states that working memory resources are competed for by the processes of planning, translation and revision during the act of writing.

As described above, Kellogg's (1996, 2001) process model of writing has certain similarities with the preceding models of writing in that it includes simultaneous process of planning, writing and revising. Moreover, like Hayes's (1996) model, Kellogg's (1996, 2001) process model takes into account and scrutinizes the use of working memory in the act of writing. However, one drawback of Kellogg's (1996, 2001) process model is the fact that the model does not touch upon the individual, or affective domain unlike Hayes's (1996) model, which may potentially influence the processes carried out within the working memory. Finally, the model proposed by Kellogg (1996, 2001) focuses solely on the mind of the writer, having little or no reference to the audience and how audience influences the text.

Bearing the limitations of the previous process models of writing in mind, Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) and Hayes (2009) propose a more thorough model of writing taking into account the memory, audience, processes and environment. In this model, the act of writing is described through three levels, namely resource, process and control (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001, 2003). Finally, the involvement of short-term and long-term memories along with the task environment is also included in the model (Hayes, 2009). In this model, the act of writing involves a resource level which includes the internal memories of the writer. Once the resources are activated, internal processes start working, which form the process level. Initially, a proposer begins producing ideas in prelinguistic form and a translator converts these ideas into language and stores the language strings in the articulatory buffer component of working memory. Following the translation, language strings in the articulatory buffer are evaluated and the content is translated into written language by a transcriber if it is positively evaluated. The process in also influenced by external factors such as the perceived audience of the text, the text itself and materials such as notes or dictionaries. Once the processes are complete, the control

level is initiated by evaluating the correspondence of the text with task goals and the interactions among processes. The authors also note that the process is not uni-directional and the output of each process is constantly evaluated. Moreover, the control level may differ according to the task or in L2 writing (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001).

In parallel with Emig's (1971), Flower and Hayes's (1981) and Graves's (1983, 1994) process models of writing, it is seen in Chenoweth and Hayes's (2001) model that the processes influence one another, rejecting a linear sequence of processes in the act of writing. Lastly, Chenoweth and Hayes's model can be considered to be in a similar vein with that of Hayes (1996) for taking into account both the social and physical environments related to writing.

The models reviewed so far, despite the differences, attempt to describe the process of writing thoroughly from the generation of ideas to the finalization of the text with the audience in mind. However, the processes that are undergone for the production of ideas do not appear to be investigated in these models. The exception to this is Galbraith's (1999, 2009a, 2009b) *Knowledge-Constituting Model*, which suggests that new ideas are produced by means of two processes, rhetorical planning and dispositional dialect. Rhetorical planning involves the evaluation and modification of ideas with the purpose of meeting rhetorical goals during which the writer undergoes the reorganization of extant ideas. The second process, dispositional dialect, involves the spontaneous articulation of thought which develops during the production of text, which is carried out more implicitly in comparison to rhetorical planning. The dispositional dialect of a writer serves as a source for new ideas, resulting in content generated with a developed understanding. In the case that a particular idea is acceptable to the writer, other ideas are repressed and in the opposite case, they are scrutinized. During this cyclical process, contradicting ideas are analyzed by the writer which results in a more thorough understanding of the subject and the task.

As a conclusion, it can be stated that the process research with respect to L1 writing follows a trend which begins with independent and linear sequence of processes such as planning, writing and revising and moves towards more extensive details regarding the cognitive domain such as the role of working memory and long-term memory in writing and how the affective domain and social environment interacts with the processes. In this respect, L1 process research can be said to provide the base knowledge for L2 process research by suggesting which factors might be in effect during the act of writing in L2.

Product and Process Approaches

As its name suggests, the *Product Approach* to teaching L2 writing focuses solely on the text as the final learner product which is supposed to adhere to a rhetorical style that is dictated by the teacher as well as the grammatical norms and follow conventions expected by the audience (Brown, 2000). To meet this aim, Brown (2000) adds, model texts are of primary importance because as Nunan (1999) explains, a Product Approach to teaching L2 writing expect learners to produce orderly and flawless texts which are copies or transformations of the models provided for the students. Silva (1990) states that what the Product Approach gives prominence to is form and syntax and Nystrand (2006) confirms Silva (1990) by pointing out that the basis of the Product Approach is grammar. Describing it as a bottom-up approach, Nunan (1991) notes that the Product Approach uses sentence-level writing as its basis. In short, the descriptions of the Product Approach focus on its being text-based, bottom-up and accuracy-focused having the teacher at the center of teaching and learning since error-free models are provided by the teacher (Brakus, 2003).

Badger and White (2000) identify four stages in the learning of writing within the framework of the Product Approach as familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing. As it can be inferred from the name, familiarization step aims to raise learner awareness regarding features of the text to be produced. The second stage, controlled writing,

targets the sentence-level practice of vocabulary and grammar items which are taught in the same lesson. Controlled writing is followed by guided writing, carrying the learner to the paragraph level practice of the same vocabulary and structures. Lastly, the learner is provided more freedom in the free writing stage, but a focus on accuracy remains as the teacher may provide corrective feedback in the case of inaccuracy in grammar and vocabulary (Badger and White, 2000). As seen in the description of the Product Approach, the learner in this particular approach is provided a model text and expected to imitate it under strict supervision of the teacher for accuracy.

Referring to controlled writing and guided writing as controlled composition and the paragraph pattern approach respectively, Matsuda and Silva (2010) describe the former in behavioristic terms stating that controlled composition aims at forming accurate habits in writing since it fosters speaking. In this respect, a linguistic analysis of model texts enables learners to imitate them on the sentence level and teacher takes on the role of an editor at this point. The paragraph pattern approach, on the other hand, views writing as a matter of organizing sentences into patterns with a principal concern of rhetorical style. The approach focuses on grammatical form and their logical arrangement as well as different elements on the paragraph level such as topic sentence or concluding sentence. While the learner is expected to recognize, assimilate and compose given patterns, the teacher evaluates the product and the evaluation is considered to be a reflection of conventions (Matsuda & Silva, 2010). Matsuda and Silva's categorization can be said to bear similarities to Badger and White's (2000) descriptions in that the controlled composition and paragraph pattern approaches to the teaching of writing focus on grammatical accuracy and have the teacher in their center.

Although the Product Approach appears to be a dated approach to the teaching of L2 writing, it is possible to come across with recent studies pointing to its benefits. For instance, Wingate (2012) argues that providing model texts to learners is a gainful practice in terms of

increasing textual knowledge and developing a critical perspective. In parallel to Wingate, Carlson (2009) notes that teaching learners the structures they are expected to produce is a strength of the Product Approach. Referring to proficiency levels, Tangpermpoon (2008) defends that a product-oriented approach is useful especially with low proficient learners since it underpins L2 writing skills by improving grammatical and syntactical accuracy and raising textual awareness. Bearing on the educational culture in different parts of the world, Ting (2010) indicates that learners in traditionally teacher-centered settings may benefit from the Product Approach. Lastly, Ting (2010) adds that the Product Approach results in higher exam results, which is another positive related to the Product Approach. To put it succinctly, studies show that the Product Approach may be a beneficial option for teachers in traditional learning settings, helping learners to comprehend grammatical and textual features as well as increasing their academic performance.

Nevertheless, the Product Approach is not without criticism. Criticizing the focal point of the approach, which is grammar and vocabulary, Zamel (1987) holds that generating and developing ideas is the actual objective of writing, however, the Product Approach pays attention solely to language in terms of form. Matsuda and Silva's (2010) criticism is in the same line with that of Zamel (1987), pointing at the focus on text over ideas and teaching only a set of lexical and syntactic patterns without any awareness of the reader. Regarding processes, Cribb (2002) states that the lack of focus on the processes involved in writing is a major drawback of the Product Approach. Furthermore, Badger and White (2000) criticize the approach for ignoring the prior knowledge and skills of the learners which may prove useful in learning settings. In terms of writing development, Hyland (2003) denounces the Product Approach since working on isolated units is not transferable to other domains and it may negatively affect writing development. Hyland also argues that the Product Approach ignores the social aspect of learning, which is also criticized by Mourssi (2013) who maintains that the

Product Approach foresees no communication with the purpose of learning. In sum, the Product Approach is criticized for its lack of focus on ideas, writing processes and learners' prior knowledge as well as neglecting social interaction in learning contexts.

In brief, the Product Approach is a behavioristic approach to the teaching of writing being teacher-centered, focusing on 'good' habits in writing and using model texts to be imitated by learners. Although it is considered to be useful in terms of providing the learners with numerous opportunities to practice what they are taught especially in traditional settings and with low proficiency learners, it also receives criticism in terms of ignoring the communicative and constructive aspects of learning. As a result, relevant criticism and the rise of cognitivism in 1970's pave the way for an increased focus on the processes involved in writing, culminating in the emergence of the Process Approach to the teaching of writing.

The second major approach to the teaching of writing, the *Process Approach*, has the processes involved in the act of writing as its focal point as opposed to the preceding approach which focused solely on the written text (Nunan, 1991). According to Hyland (2003), the Process Approach views the writer as a self-determining text producer while also concentrating on possible paths that teachers can follow in aiding learners to accomplish writing tasks. Describing the approach in detail, Graham and Perrin (2007) point out that the Process Approach puts emphasis on the recursive processes of planning, translating and reviewing with a consideration of audience, individual responsibility, interaction, collaboration and self-evaluation. Taking the scholarly descriptions into account, it can be stated that the Process Approach to teaching writing places its focus on the cognitive aspects of writing but at the same time, it does not ignore the social aspect of both writing and learning writing.

Initially focusing on how learners learn how to write through generating content and utilizing grammar (Graham, Harris & Mason, 2005), the Process Approach adds the developmental processes involved in writing to its focal area as well (Matsuda, 2003). Owing

to this expansion of the areas of interest, the Process Approach to writing has a considerable effect on deciphering how the act of writing is performed and how writing is taught (Hyland, 2003).

Nunan (1991) and Lee (2006) articulate that the stages involved in the process writing approach are pre-writing, composing-drafting, revising and editing, however, as Emig (1971) first put forth, these stages are dealt with considering the cyclical nature of processes instead of regarding them as occurring one after another. Through these stages, as Ferris and Hedgecock (2005) suggest, the Process Approach takes into account the individual identities of writers as well as their abilities in solving problems, discovering ideas, expressing them and revising as needed.

The nature of the Process Approach to writing is explained in detail by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) who state that the approach, which recognizes the recursive nature of writing, enables self-discovery and meaningful writing through contextualized and goal-oriented planning. Moreover, they maintain that the Process Approach allows for inventive attempts by the learners through multiple drafts accompanied by feedback from both peers and teachers, increasing reader awareness, which is also mentioned by Mol (1992). Lastly, placing emphasis on content and individual ways of expression, which may take the form of free writing, reduces the negative effects of writer's block (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Importance of the meaningfulness of writing within the context of the Process Approach is further supported by the notion that learners can become skillful writers only if they produce texts that are of personal value or appeal (Kroll, 2004).

Prioritizing the cognitive aspects of writing, the process writing teacher does not provide models or correct learner work in terms of grammar or vocabulary. Instead, the teacher is solely the facilitator or exchanging and negotiating ideas while also acting as the audience who is interested in the ideas expressed by the reader (Tribble, 1996). As Badger and White (2000)

note, the process writing teacher merely assist the learner through the act of writing as opposed to acting as the presenter of information. Therefore, teacher roles in the Process Approach shift from providing stimulus and reinforce correct habits to facilitating learning through aiding the learner through producing the written text.

The Process Approach to the teaching of writing finds support for various reasons. First of all, focusing on processes allows for an increased variety in classroom activities (Onozawa, 2010). Through activity variety, learners gain more opportunities to collaborate and cooperate (Nunan, 1991), which also results in more opportunities to regulate one's own writing (Brown, 2001). In addition, the provision of multiple drafts as suggested by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) improves writing development since more attention is typically paid to the feedback provided for earlier drafts in comparison to final drafts (Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Lastly, the inclusion of meta-analysis within the Process Approaches enhances development and increases the level of motivation among learners (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). In short, the proponents of the Process Approach indicate developmental, cognitive, psychological and social gains in using this particular approach.

Notwithstanding its positive aspects, the Process Approach is also criticized by some scholars. Hyland (2003), for example, disagrees with the argument of activity variety thanks to the Process Approach by stating the processes in writing and the product may conflict at times and this may obstruct the activities preferred in the classroom. Reid (2001) regards the exclusion of grammar and syntax accompanied by the lack of focus on the product is a major drawback of the Process Approach. On the topic, Triviño (2016) warns that learners with traditional learning habits may be negatively affected by the absence of mechanical correction opportunities. On the social level, Johns (1995) condemns the Process Approach for diminishing the influence of the audience by disregarding registers. Agreeing with Johns, Atkinson (2003) denounces the Process Approach for failing to take the social context of

writing into account, which is the classroom itself in most contexts. In line with Johns (1995) and Atkinson (2003), Badger and White (2000) arraign the rigid nature of the Process Approach stating that the approach is inflexible, treating the processes as identical negligent of content and audience. Taking the relevant literature into account, it can be concluded that the Process Approach is criticized for not paying sufficient attention to language and social context.

The Process Approach to the teaching of L2 writing can be said to be based on a large body of research which attempts to identify the processes involved particularly in L2 writing. For instance, observing the composition of expository essays by intermediate-level ESL students, Zamel (1983) finds out that planning, writing and revising continue throughout the act of writing. Moreover, Zamel's findings show that writing may be verbalized at times, rereading for evaluation is continuous and simultaneous with meaning making and the level of expertise is also one of the factors which have an effect on writing performance in that skilled writers are more aware of their errors and the recursive nature of writing processes.

Taking into account Zamel's (1983) conclusions that writing should not be considered as a linear or sequential activity and it involves problem-solving to a certain extent, it can be said that Zamel's findings with ESL learners corroborate the L1 models of Emig (1971), Flower and Hayes (1980), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), Hayes (1996), Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) and Garbraith (1999, 2009a, 2009b) in terms of the recurrence of the processes which do not necessarily take place one after another. On the other hand, paying much attention to linguistic accuracy especially on behalf of the unskilled writers in the study can be considered as a difference between L1 and L2 writing since accuracy in L1 does not require too much attention to be paid by the writer and focusing on ideas instead of language is thus easier in L1.

Although L1 and L2 composing processes may be similar, Raimes (1985) argues that since L2 learners are not native speakers or writers, they need to tackle new linguistics codes in L2 writing, which should be taken into account while proposing L2 writing models and

concludes that L2 writers keep the pre-writing or planning phase quite short and do not focus much on the audience for the text except for a single participant. Moreover, Raimes (1985) observes that most L2 writers are involved in rereading or reading back 2-3 sentences at once instead of the entire text or larger chunks such as paragraphs with the exception of the most proficient two participants not reading back as often as the other participants. In addition, she notes that verbalizing or trying out ideas is common among L2 writers and the process of revising the text goes on during the processing of ideas, not afterwards. Raimes's findings also reveal that L2 writers are not much preoccupied with editing since they may be aware that perfection in a foreign language may not be possible. However, Raimes also indicates that the findings may be affected by the narrative nature of the task and different processes can be utilized in an argumentative/expository task. Finally, she concludes that L2 writing involves the uncovering of language simultaneously with discovering ideas.

In Raimes's (1985) findings, the simultaneity of revision and resorting to linguistic resources along with the other processes in L2 writing appear to be in parallel with the L1 writing process models such as Emig (1971), Flower and Hayes (1980) or Garbraith (1999). One primary difference peculiar to L2 writing, however, seems to be that the participants do not get involved in editing too often since they believe that perfection in L2 writing is a distant goal to achieve. However, in a later study, Cumming (1989) concludes that writing expertise and second language proficiency level may influence the quality of L2 text, discourse organization, content and problem-solving decisions made by the writer. Although Raimes's (1985) study takes into account the proficiency levels of the participants, writing experience is one factor that is not mentioned and this can be considered as a delimiting factor in Raimes's (1985) study.

Silva (1993) undertakes a review of 72 research studies related to L1 and L2 writing processes, 41 of which compares ESL writing to native writing in English. Silva's review

findings show that planning, transcribing and reviewing are the major processes undergone in L2 writing, parallel to L1 writing models, with certain differences. The findings show that less planning exists at global and local levels in L2 writing with more attention to generating material and more time spent on understanding a given topic. Furthermore, goal-setting and organization is less frequently resorted to by L2 writers, making the act of writing in L2 more difficult than L1 writing. Transcribing, or the physical act of writing, is also reported to be more arduous for the L2 writers since more time is needed to refer back to the outline or essay prompt and consult dictionary, which indicates difficulty with vocabulary use. In addition, a slower rate of writing with more pauses and fewer words are observed among L2 writers, making L2 writing less productive and less fluent in comparison to L1 writing. Besides, L2 writers are less frequently involved in reviewing and rereading with an increased focus on grammatical accuracy. Finally, the quality, accuracy and fluency of the text appears to be reduced in L2 writing in comparison to L1 writing. In short, Silva (1993) concludes that although the patterns of writing process are similar in L1 and L2, the frequencies of the processes along with the quality can be essentially distinct.

Silva's (1993) conclusion that writing process patterns may be similar in L1 and L2 is also supported by Uzawa (1996), who compares the characteristics of L1 and L2 writing processes with 22 students in a Canadian post-secondary institution. Analyzing interview and think-aloud data, Uzawa discovers that ideas are predominantly generated before writing, however, although the participants mention words such as introduction, thesis statement or conclusion, they do not actually transform their ideas into these concepts for the organization and further development of a unified text before writing. Moreover, according to Uzawa's findings, metacognitive, discourse level, linguistic and personal attention levels of writers are quite similar in both L1 and L2. In terms of language use, the participants of Uzawa's study

demonstrate similar performances in L1 and L2, too. Uzawa's (1996) findings show that writing in L1 and L2 produces comparable patterns of processes and attention focus.

As Silva (1993) also indicates, the participants in L2 writing process studies are typically language learners with a relatively high level of proficiency. Criticizing this fact and adding to it the potential differences between professional and unprofessional L2 writers, Sasaki (2000) compares and contrasts the writing processes of professional, skilled and unskilled ESL writers to reach conclusions. The findings show that the professional ESL writers in the study are more fluent in writing than the other participants and they also score higher. Nonetheless, skilled and unskilled writers do not seem to be differing in terms of their levels of writing fluency and essay scores. Furthermore, the expert writers in the study demonstrate a more complex development of the text in comparison to skilled and unskilled writers, the latter being the least complex in terms of text development. However, writing metaknowledge instruction appears to help increase the level of complexity in text development, according to the findings. In terms of planning time, Sasaki's findings reveal that the longest time is taken by expert writers and the shortest by unskilled ones, instruction having an extending effect on planning time especially for the unskilled writers. Additionally, while expert writers get involved in global planning regarding the text, skilled and unskilled writers appear to be stopping and thinking following the completion of every chunk. At this point too, instruction seems to decrease the number of pauses among these writers. All groups of writers in Sasaki's study are also reported to be using writing strategies in similar frequencies, whose number decreases with writing metaknowledge instruction. Lastly, it is seen in the analysis of the processes that planning monitors and guides the act of writing and influences the decisions taken by the writers.

Adding to Sasaki's (2000) criticism that learners of different proficiency and writing skills levels should be included in L2 writing process research, Zimmerman (2000) argues that

formulating language as a process in the act of writing deserves more attention to be paid and process studies should be replicated with varying text genres. In order to identify the processes in L2 writing, sub-processes in formulating and L2-specific processes in writing, he analyses narrative texts written in L2, think-aloud data and informal retrospective conversations. As a result, he models L2 writing in 6 stages as preplan, plan (global and local), formulate, write, repair/reformulate and review, which are monitored by L2 problem solving skills and re-initiated in the case of the detection of a problem. In terms of formulating, Zimmermann identifies that utterances are initially created as L1 tentative forms which reflect what to write and how to write it in L2. With the intervention of L2 problem solving strategies, L1 reflections are expressed as L2 tentative forms and then they are evaluated, simplified, accepted and written down or rejected, in which case they may be repaired outside the formulating process. Zimmermann also notes that L1 tentative forms are not necessarily utilized as a source for translating into L2 since L2 tentative forms may not be preceded by L1 forms in all cases, thus uses the term 'reflections' instead of 'translation'. Finally, Zimmermann concludes that although L1 tentative forms, L2 problem solving strategies and simplification appear to be L2-specific processes, many of the processes utilized while writing are not different than those used in L1 writing.

Repeating his criticism that most L2 writing process studies do not focus on the potential differences between expert and novice writers and adding to this the heterogeneous educational backgrounds of participants in many of those studies, Sasaki (2002) attempts to build an empirical process model of L2 writing by drawing upon his previous model (Sasaki, 2000) with 34 EFL learners, 12 of whom are expert and 22 of whom are novice L2 writers. Using written texts produced by the participants together with videotapes focusing on hand/pencil and head/eye movements, Sasaki concludes that for both expert and novice L2 writers, the process of writing begins with global planning followed by local planning, translation from L1 to L2

and text output, which are stages that can occur recursively according to the conclusions drawn from monitoring the planning and output. However, expert L2 writing differs from novice L2 writing in that the former typically involves more time for global planning, which was also suggested by Sasaki (2000), and this particular type of planning also involves the assessment of the task characteristics by the writers and looking for ways to express the content effectively, which is a more detailed, thus time consuming, process in comparison to the planning done by novice writers. Moreover, expert writers tend to get involved in the rhetorical refining of L1 to L2 translations before outputting the text unlike novice writers who do not show any signs of rhetorical refining. According to Sasaki (2002), these differences in expert and novice L2 writing processes may be resulting from the differences in the levels of strategic competence and L2 proficiency between these groups.

As seen in the relevant literature, process models of writing shift their focus in time from considering the act of writing as a set of sequential stages to realizing that the process actually consists of stages which recur under one another's effect and is constantly monitored and evaluated by the writer. It is also seen in the L2-relevant writing process literature that writing in L1 and L2 may not be fundamentally different from one another with the exception that L2 proficiency and strategic competence levels and L2 problem-solving skills of writers may interfere with the processes as well as the quality of writing. Briefly, writing in both L1 and L2 appear to contain planning, writing and reviewing stages which are re-initiated during the process according to the immediate needs of the writer.

To sum up, the Process Approach is primarily a cognitive approach to the teaching of writing in terms of paying special attention to the processes recursively occurring during the act of writing. Allowing for an understanding of how writing is learned and actualized, it shifts the role of the writing teacher from a behavioral interventionist to a mental facilitator. Although the Process Approach appears to be beneficial in terms of providing the learner with a room to

plan, act and react, it is also censured for ignoring the language and the context while focusing on the mind of the learner. Such criticisms lead to an increased focus on the social aspect of writing, which results in the emergence of a genre-based approach to the teaching of writing.

Genre and Genre-Based Instruction

As mentioned above, The Product Approach to the teaching of L2 writing had the sole focus of production, avoiding the consideration of the complex structure that is called the human mind, and The Process Approach focused extensively on the human mind, underestimating the power of the social context in text production. However, with the advent of social constructivism and the cultural turn in 1980's, the situatedness of texts within contexts were argued for and the reflection of those arguments in the teaching/learning domain turned out to be genre-based pedagogy, whose background and instructional principles are reviewed below.

Definitions of and Background to Genre

In order to understand how genres function within the context of teaching L2 writing, an initial necessity is to understand what a genre is. A widely cited definition of genre is a type of communicative occurences, the constituents of which contribute to a group of communicative purposes (Swales, 1990). Regarding the communicative purposes, Swales (1990) further adds that they are acknowledged by their discourse communities providing the basis for what should be called a 'genre'. Mongomery (2007) also emphasizes the communicative purpose in the definition of genre, stating that the term can be defined as a distinct and identifiable disposition of discourse elements to reach a specific purpose that is shared, signified and consciously realized by a community. Being a process that is oriented towards reaching social goals (Rose & Martin, 2012), a genre represents the cumulative memory of a community as a means of transmitting collective knowledge (Wertsch, 2002). In

this respect, the term genre is defined through the social context in which members of discourse communities use language to reach particular communicative purposes.

The definitions provided above are the generic explications of the term genre. With specific reference to writing, Bhatia (1993) explains that a genre is comprised of fixed and established conventions of writing realized by discourse communities. Also referring to writing and writers, Hyland (2008) delineates genre as a social and cognitive notion which has its origins in discourse communities sharing a set of recurring experiences with text, thus allowing for the categorization of these texts with respect to the situations in which they occur. For instance, a master's thesis or a doctoral dissertation can be regarded as genres since they are situated within the academic context, the conventions of which are shared by the academic community (Paltridge, 2014). Hence, it can be stated that the generic definitions and writing-specific explications of genre resemble each other in that both explanations place their emphases on the social context in which texts, written or spoken, are produced.

A fundamental element integrated in the term genre is a 'rhetorical move' since a genre is situated not in the discourse form but the steps to attain a particular form (Miller, 1994). In this respect, a rhetorical move can be defined as a part of a text which serves a particular communicative function (Kanoksilapatham, 2007) or a piece of discourse in spoken or written mode which fulfils a specific intention (Henry & Rosenberry, 2001). According to Swales (1990), rhetorical moves are realized through systematic patterns of discourse which are communicated in an organized progression of sentences and they reflect how particular genres are systematically organized by their producers. Taking the definitions and explanations above into account, the integrity of rhetorical moves within the concept of genre appears to be evident.

When the definitions of genre and rhetorical move are considered, what it takes to know a genre is also seen to have been subject to several descriptions in the relevant literature. According to Beaufort (2007), genre knowledge can be defined as a mental schema which

frames a recently learned genre rhetorically and socially with the aid of its analysis by the learners. The social aspect of genre knowledge is also confirmed by Hyland (2009) who states that the particular type of knowledge also covers the expectations and conventional practices of discourse communities. The process is elaborated on by Tardy (2009), who states that genre knowledge is constituted by four types of knowledge regarding the lexicogrammatical conventions, processes in writing, rhetorical conventions and content within the context of a particular genre. According to Devitt (2004), genre knowledge can be used by learners to comprehend the rhetorical and social purposes of genres further even after they master it. Considering these descriptions, it can be concluded that knowing a genre enables the learner to set the rhetorical and social frame of the text through the use of lexicogrammatical, rhetorical, process and content knowledge related to a given genre.

Placing genres in the center of language education or writing instruction is called Genre-Based Instruction, which is considered to be a post-process approach that dismisses the pre-eminence of processes with a focus on interchange within particular discourse communities and a consideration of English varieties (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Matsuda, 2003). It is important to note, however, that although the definition of Genre-Based Instruction is more or less uniform, three different approaches to the concept of genre have been documented in the literature and these approaches bear distinct pedagogical implications (Belcher, 2006).

According to Hyon (1996), approaches to genre can be reviewed in three main titles, or approaches to the concept. The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach to Genre-Based Pedagogy, is of particular interest to the researchers who utilize genre as a teaching tool, especially in English for Academic Purposes writing contexts (Cheng, 2006). The ESP Approach defines genre as a set of communicative events employed by a specific discourse community for a shared purpose (Swales, 1990). According to Bhatia (1993), the ESP Approach to genre is in support of the view that it is possible to teach and learn genres explicitly. It is also

argued within the framework of the ESP approach that by raising learners' awareness on the specific features of a genre, it may be possible for them to produce the same moves in their own writing through the acquisition of conceptual knowledge they develop (Hyland, 2007). In short, working on rhetorical moves and attempting to reproduce them serves as the basis of the ESP approach to genre.

The second approach to genre is known as the Sydney School, which refers to genres as text types under 7 main classifications, recount, procedure, narrative, report, description, explanation and exposition (Hyland, 2007), drawing on the concept of Systemic Functional Grammar (Halliday, 1985). The Sydney School of genre has a special focus on real use of languages as opposed to the traditional grammar instruction, which does not reflect how languages are used in contexts (Halliday, 1985). The Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach to genre differs from the ESP approach because SFL focuses its attention on language by having recourse to functional grammar. On the other hand, the ESP approach positions genres in particular contexts with an emphasis on rhetorical awareness (Hyland, 2007). Nevertheless, two approaches also bear similarities in that both ESP and Sydney schools of genre can be said to have practical implications for language education as seen in the steps of deconstruction and independent construction of texts and the analysis of rhetorical moves for the creation of meaning (Flowerdew, 2002).

A third approach to genre is called New Rhetoric Genre (NRG) which could be considered as different from the ESP and Sydney Schools in that the NRG approach can be seen as a more post-structuralist and ethnographic one, attempting to unravel the political, ideological and cultural relationships between texts and contexts (Hyland, 2007; Freedman, 1999). From a pedagogical perspective, NRG approach to genre posits that a Genre-Based Approach to language education may result in a prescriptive approach that is too restrictive (Coe, 2002) and the organic development of genres over time may leave behind the methods of

teaching, which may invalidate these methods in time (Bakhtin, Holquist, & Emerson, 1986). Adopting a critical perspective, NRG does not seem to be bearing explicit pedagogical implications for classroom teaching due to the dynamic nature of genres.

Principles of Genre-Based Instruction

In terms of the application of genre-based writing instruction in classroom settings, Johns (2002) suggest an initial rhetorical and lexicogrammatical analysis by the teacher as the focal point of instruction since textual models accepted by a particular discourse community can serve as points of departure for developing self-sustaining skills of genre analysis. Furthermore, Johns states that an explicit focus on structures may also take place in the classroom since the learners may not be familiar with the particular genre being taught. Similar to Johns's suggestions, Osman (2004) proposes that Genre-Based Instruction start with the identification of purposes and rhetorical moves in a given genre and followed by introducing the genre to the learners using a model, providing guidance to the learners in the analysis of the model, collaboratively practicing the construction of the genre and having the learners construct the genre independently. Through these consecutive steps, Osman indicates that the learners can have a grasp of the specialist genre code, gain genre knowledge, develop genre awareness and exploit this knowledge and awareness by "becoming informed users of the discourse" (p. 22). Shortly, Genre-Based Instruction begins by providing a model for the learners to analyze and the learners eventually have sufficient knowledge which enables them to construct the genre on their own.

On the positives regarding Genre-Based Instruction, Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) indicate that Genre-Based Instruction makes it possible for the learners to obtain knowledge about their writing tasks beforehand and use this knowledge to produce more competent texts. Another positive feature of the procedure is argued by Bruce (2011), who posit that Genre-Based Instruction is learner-centered in allowing the learner critically analyze, deconstruct,

synthesize and reconstruct texts effectively. The most comprehensive list of the positives regarding Genre-Based Instruction is provided by Hyland (2004), who maintain that Genre-Based Instruction is explicit, systematic, needs-based, supportive, empowering, critical and consciousness-raising. According to Hyland (2004), the approach takes learner needs as its basis and accordingly provides the learners with clear guidelines on what to learn in a systematic framework of language in context, which allows for individual analysis, including the challenge, of textual patterns and variations with numerous scaffolding opportunities. This way, both the teacher and the learner benefit from the increased level of consciousness in the production and provision of genres. Lastly, according to Cho and Choi (2018), when the rhetorical awareness of learners is increased through such instruction, a side gain is an increased level of reader awareness which allows them to adapt their writing style with respect to the needs and expectations of the audience even when the audience is not a reader of the text in a natural reading context. In brief, Genre-Based Instruction receives support for providing learners with the required knowledge for text production through analysis and synthesis with a learner-centered perspective.

Nonetheless, it is also possible to come across with criticisms of Genre-Based Instruction in the relevant literature. Freedman and Medway (1994) criticize the procedure for being "a recipe theory" (p. 46) and state that Genre-Based Instruction is too prescriptive and reduces writing pedagogy to pragmatic gains. Contrary to Hyland's (2004) empowerment argument, Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) assert that Genre-Based Instruction may result in the disempowerment of learners through the delimiting approach it adopts. Finally, Badger and White (2000) question using model texts as a part of Genre-Based Approach to writing instruction and criticize the approach for regarding learning as imitation and providing the learners with a passive learning environment where the skills to produce a written text are

underemphasized. Shortly, GBI has been subject to criticism for being prescriptive, delimiting and passive in terms of learning and text production.

Even though it has been criticized for the aforementioned reasons, numerous research studies point at the benefits of GBI in terms of genre awareness as well as reading and writing competence (Deng, Chen & Zhang, 2014c). On academic writing, it is suggested that GBI improves the knowledge required to write for publication purposes (Huang, 2014) and increase performance in journal paper (Lo et al., 2014) and research writing (Mahoney, 2014; Salehpour & Saeidi, 2014). Moreover, the instructional method has also been reported to improve performance in descriptive (Khatib & Mirzaii, 2016) and argumentative (Khotabandeh et al., 2013; Ramos, 2015) essays including the quality of argument, length of text and the use of conjunctions, modals, the passive voice (Park, 2015), including fluency (Yasuda, 2011; Yasunaga, 2017). In a similar fashion, Naghdipour and Koç (2015) find that GBI increases performance in paragraph and essay writing in terms of writing fluency and linguistic accuracy. With 64 university students who were subjected to web-based GBI for the production of source-based forms, exemplified by Braine (1995) as argumentative essays, research papers, reaction papers or essays as exam questions, Thienthong (2016) also conclude that GBI resulted in improvements in terms of academic writing abilities in general and rhetorical and lexicogrammatical textual features in particular. Studying a specific genre, Ong (2016) concludes that GBI increases the quality of literary criticism writing among undergraduate students in terms of rhetorical and lexicogrammatical conventions. In addition, Ong's findings indicate that the improvement was seen to have retained to a large extent in a delayed posttest in terms of conventional rhetorical moves and lexicogrammatical conventions such as using impersonal voice, hedging or reporting verbs as needed. On the lexical level, GBI has also been reported to increase lexical density (Achugar & Colombi, 2008; Colombi, 2002; Yasuda, 2012) and lexical complexity (Caplan, 2017). In psychological terms, GBI has been reported to

increase writing attitude among Iranian secondary school students (Elashri & Ibrahim, 2013) and undergraduate students (Rashidi & Mazdayasna, 2016) as well as 5th and 6th grade students in Australia (Ahn, 2012). Moreover, it has also been reported to increase writing self-efficacy among American secondary school students (Early & De Costa, 2011), Korean middle school students (Han & Hiver, 2018) and Thai undergraduate students (Viriya, 2016). However, it should also be reported that the same instructional method is also reported to increase writing anxiety levels among Korean middle school students (Han & Hiver, 2018). In brief, GBI appears to be a beneficial instructional methodology in terms of writing performance, writing quality and psychological variables like writing attitude and writing self-efficacy, however, more conclusive evidence is needed to reach conclusions about the psychological effects of GBI.

Research studies focusing on Genre-Based Instruction appear to be rather scarce within the Turkish higher education context. In one of these few studies, Yaylı (2011) investigates how Genre-Based Instruction influences the level of genre awareness among higher education students within an undergraduate ELT program. Her results show that Genre-Based Instruction is an effective means of increasing the learners' genre awareness and this awareness gained as a result of instruction can be transferred to other genres. Moreover, Yaylı reports that the participants in her study favor receiving Genre-Based Instruction as a means of learning writing and the learners have particularly positive attitudes towards practicing different genres and reflecting on their own performances. In another study, Yaylı (2012) examines the effect of self-annotation by undergraduate ELT students within the framework of Genre-Based Instruction through learners' narrative writing, self-annotations, surveys and interviews. The results of this study show that learners enhance their language awareness and Genre Awareness by working on rhetorical and lexicogrammatical features of texts through self-annotation, which also improves their text production skills. Similar to Yaylı's (2011) previous study, the

participants of this study reported positive experiences regarding self-annotation and Genre-Based Instruction. Studying learners of Turkish as a foreign language through their written assignments, Argıt and Özer-Griffin (2015) reveal that Genre-Based Instruction promotes writing development and increases socio-pragmatic knowledge young adult learners of Turkish as a foreign language. In a more recent study with 28 2nd year students of an English Language Teaching department who take compulsory English literature courses at a public university, Uzun (2016) concludes that Genre-Based Instruction increases the level of adherence to the conventions of the Literary Analysis Essay and the procedure is perceived mostly positively by undergraduate ELT students. In this study, it is reported that the participants perceive the improvements in genre awareness, error awareness, coherence and quality along with receiving immediate feedback positively while also perceiving the genre knowledge to be transferable to other domains of L2 writing. However, Uzun also notes that some learners may regard Genre-Based Instruction as delimiting their freedom in terms of the ways of expression. In a more recent study at another public university, Almacıoğlu (2017) enquires into the effects of Genre-Based Instruction in an undergraduate English Language and Literature program and drawing upon a number of data sources, she concludes that Genre-Based Instruction increases the levels of self-awareness, Genre Awareness, metacognitive awareness, motivation, student cohesiveness and course satisfaction along with writing performance and exam scores in writing courses. Taking relevant studies into account, Genre-Based Instruction has been shown and appears to have a potential to produce positive learning outcomes in terms of L2 writing within the Turkish higher education context.

Having considered the literature relevant to the Genre-Based Approach to writing, it can be seen that the main argument within the framework of the approach is that learning writing should be situated in the social context of the text unlike the Product Approach, which regards it as developing correct habits, or the Process Approach, which views writing predominantly

from the cognitive perspective. In this respect, conventions of written production in discourse communities and what is regarded as appropriate by those communities are taken as the basis of writing, which is also reflected in the teaching of writing. Being a more recent approach in the teaching of L2 writing in comparison with the product and Process Approaches, the Genre-Based Approach is still to be investigated in depth with respect to the variables which play a role in the learning of L2 writing.

Process-Genre Integration

All of the three major approaches in the teaching of writing, namely the process, product and Genre-Based Approaches are criticized respectively for being too mechanical (Mourssi, 2013), ignoring the social context (Atkinson, 2003) and being too prescriptive (Kay and Dudley-Evans, 1998). On the other hand, all these approaches have their own strengths. To name a few, the Product Approach is supported for developing critical textual awareness (Wingate, 2012). The Process Approach, on the other hand, is shown to develop self-regulating learning behavior (Brown, 2001). Lastly, the Genre-Based Approach is favored because of allowing the learners to analyze and synthesize texts for production purposes (Bruce, 2011). Considering the strengths and weaknesses of all three approaches, Badger and White (2000) conclude that these two approaches should be seen complementary instead of conflicting because the act of writing requires the writer to possess knowledge related not only to language and content, but also to the context and purpose of writing as well as the skills which enable the writer to actualize writing.

Taking the complementary nature of the major approaches to writing and the knowledge and skills required for writing, Badger and White (2000) propose the integration of process and Genre-Based Approaches to writing, referring to the integrated approach as the Process-Genre Approach. According to this understanding, writing development occurs when learner's potential is exploited for writing as in the Process Approach, however, input provision and

learner response to the input according to learners' needs are also integral to writing development as suggested in the Product and Genre-Based Approaches. In this respect, Badger and White propose that the process of writing be situated in the context and the purpose of writing, which helps the writer determine meaning to be conveyed. Following the decisions based on the purpose and context, the writer gets into the recursive stages of planning, drafting and publishing, which results in the production of the text. During and after the production, the context and the purpose may be revisited for possible revision opportunities, which may also take place in the drafting stage. In one or more of these stages, learners may require input depending on their contextual knowledge or knowledge about language and this required input is provided by the teacher, other learners or model texts (Badger & White, 2000). Judging by the inclusion of product, process and Genre-Based Approaches in the model, it can be said that the Process-Genre Approach takes into account not only the text produced by the writer, but also the processes and skills allowing for the production and the social context surrounding the text.

The interplay between the Process and Genre-Based Approaches is explained by Gupitasari (2013), who define the Process-Genre Approach as a combination of these approaches. In his explanation, Gupitasari state that the Process-Genre Approach recognizes both the recursive nature of writing processes such as pre-writing, drafting and revising and the situatedness of writing in social context, adopting the sensitivity for the purpose and textual qualities accepted within discourse communities, allowing the learner to develop an awareness of different genres (Macken-Horarik, 2002).

Adopting the Process-Genre Approach, Yan (2005) proposes that the teaching of writing should involve the stages of preparation, modeling, planning, joint construction, independent construction and revising. Gao (2012) presents a similar sequence of teaching, suggesting the analysis of model texts, group discussions, individual imitation of the model, independent

writing, teacher feedback, whole class feedback and final drafting / publication to follow one another for teaching and learning purposes. This way, according to Yan (2005) learners may improve their knowledge about the content, organization and skills while also progressing in the use of language and meaning making.

Also referred to by Hyland (2004) as a beneficial approach to complement the drawbacks of individual approaches, the Process-Genre Approach allows learners to learn how to write by studying contexts, purposes and forms with respect to discourse communities (Gao, 2007) by also utilizing the processes involved in writing such as prewriting, drafting, revising and editing, which improves the learner in terms of his/her knowledge about genres, textual features and composing processes (Deng et al., 2014b).

When the evolution of the approaches to teaching writing is taken into account, it can be concluded that the shifts in learning theories from behaviorism to cognitivism and from cognitivism to social constructivism lay the foundations for the emergence of the product, process and Genre-Based Approaches respectively. Bearing reactions to one another as the cornerstone of their emergence, the Process Approach emerges criticizing the absence of the mind factor in the Product Approach and the Genre-Based Approached emanates through the criticism of the absence of the social context in the Process Approach. Being influenced by what is referred to as the post-method era (Brown, 2002) of language teaching in general and the post-process period of teaching writing (Atkinson, 2003), the process-genre integration is proposed as a result of the eclectic attempts to individualize the learning of writing in and after the 1990's. Keeping this in mind, a useful outlook towards the approaches to the teaching of writing seems to be one that views them not as irreconcilable but harmoniously contributing to the learning of writing in accordance with learner needs.

Literary Analysis Essay as a Genre

Even though the structure of a literary analysis essay is not well-documented in the relevant literature, it is possible to approach this particular genre within the framework of expository/argumentative writing. By definition, expository writing is a genre which is used to put forward a point of view to support it with ideas and evidence (Schleppegrell, 2004). Expository texts concentrate on abstraction and ideas, thoughts and forms are portrayed by a general, objective and distant stance of discourse. The ideas during expository text production come from general world knowledge and scholarly learning, and content development requires commonality with a variety of sensible relations and logical gadgets with an open-ended schema. (Britton, 1994; Mosenthal, 1985). According to Bruner (1986), expository texts intend to be consistent and systematic without any contradiction and the mode of presentation involves hiearchical classifications, implications, statements and generalizations.

Taking into account the features of expository texts, learner productions of expository essays also include argumentative essays (Chandrasegaran, 2013) since stances are elaborated on or supported through arguments (Schriffin, 1985). Similarly, Martin (1989) defines the main judgment of an expository essay as the thesis and the supporting reasons as the arguments, each of which is usually in the form of a paragraph. In this respect, the purpose of an expository essay to provide pursuasive evidence that the thesis of the essay is properly formulated (Martin, 1989).

In line with the definitions of expository and argumentative essays, it could be said that literary analysis essays are within the same framework since the aim of a literary analysis essay is to discover the meanings of literary texts, through making a claim, providing evidence and elaborating on the relationship between the claim and the evidence (Headrick, 2014). During the analysis of how a text deals with a given theme, character or quotation, there would naturally be more than one way of explaining the meaning instead of a preset or built-in answer. For this

reason, the writer of a literary analysis essay typically selects a case related to the essay prompt and argues for or against that case with purposeful and relevant support from the text (Woolf, 2005). Naturally falling within the domain of disciplinary essays, the literary analysis essay can also be considered to be expected to demonstrate accuracy in content through making use of appropriate material, respond to a question equally accurately by representing a blend of sources and denote a good command of written conventions (Weston-Sementelli, Allen, & McNamara, 2016). Considering the literature on expository and argumentative essays, it can be said that a literary analysis essay can be classified as a form of expository or argumentative writing within the framework of disciplinary writing.

The rhetorical structure of a literary analysis essay in the undergraduate context is documented by Uzun (2016), who states that the genre consists of the following sections and rhetorical moves:

1. Introduction (Thesis)

    a. Stating background information (name, author, period, significance)

    b. Stating a thesis as a response to the essay prompt / question

2. Main Body (Argument)

    a. Presenting an argument taken from the thesis

    b. Supporting the argument presented in the previous move

    c. Summing up and/or closing the argument

3. Conclusion

    a. Consolidating the thesis

    b. Stating personal opinions

Similar to Uzun's (2016) list of rhetorical moves in a literary analysis essays, Ong (2016) also suggests that the rhetorical conventions of literary analysis essays are as follows:

1. Presentation of the literary theory and/or work

2. A short (one-sentence) summary of the literary work

3. Stating a thesis

4. Presenting a topic

5. Describing a relevant scene shortly

6. Emphasizing the important parts of the scene

7. Selecting an aspect of the literary theory related to the scene

8. Establishing the connection between this aspect and the scene

9. Stating personal opinion on the scene

10. Restating the thesis

11. Stating personal opinion on the literary work and/or theory

As argued above, both Uzun's (2016) and Ong's (2016) studies support the notion that literary analysis essays can be considered expository or argumentative genres as they are similar to those types of texts in terms of leaving the response to the essay prompt entirely to the author, who is expected to argue for a thesis and provide textual evidence to support it. Considering the limited literature on literary analysis essays, it can be concluded that literary analysis essay as a genre aims to prove a thesis related to a literary work by constructing arguments and supporting them with evidence. With these features, it resembles expository or argumentative modes of writing.

Feedback and L2 Writing

The teaching and learning of L2 writing are most often associated with giving/receiving feedback, which has been a debated issue for the last few decades. While it is argued that the feedback component of writing instruction, in deed, helps with language acquisition (Ellis, Loewen & Erlahm, 2006), it is also possible to come across with arguments which hold that feedback in writing instruction is irrelevant and lacks practical benefits in language use since

the effects of feedback are only traceable in the short term (Truscott, 2007). However, being a time-consuming task on behalf of both teachers and learners, the provision of feedback for written texts in instructional settings is yet a widespread application with pedagogical implications. For this reason, research on corrective feedback are both present and necessary.

Corrective Feedback in L2 Writing

Apart from the approaches to teaching, learners also need corrective feedback with respect to their L2 productions, which is a crucial aspect of their language development (Hyland, 2003). Ellis (2006) defines corrective feedback as the reaction to learners' erroneous expressions which is used by the learners to rework their interlanguage. Placing the term in a more general context, Russell and Spada (2006) define corrective feedback as giving information and showing evidence to the learner regarding the errors in language forms. Pointing to the function of corrective feedback like Ellis (2006), Sheen (2007) defines the term as a response move by the language teacher which allows the learners to take in consideration the grammatical accuracy of their expressions. Regardless of the differences in the definitions of corrective feedback, it appears that all definitions have one aspect in common to correct, which is 'an error'. However, depending on its aim and the way it is provided, corrective feedback may have different characteristics (Ellis, 2009).

According to Ellis (2009), corrective feedback can be characterized as positive or negative according to its focus. In this dichotomy, positive feedback signifies the error-free nature of an utterance, providing the learner with the information that that particular utterance is acceptable in accuracy. Negative feedback, on the other hand, places its focus on the error and informs the learner that the utterance produced by the learner has problems in accuracy. In other words, positive feedback approves the learner for producing an utterance that is sufficiently accurate while negative feedback calls for a reformulation. It should also be noted, however, that the positive/negative dichotomy of corrective feedback is criticized by Thurlings,

Vermeulen, Bastiaens and Stijnen (2013) for resembling the operant conditioning concept of behaviorism.

Describing feedback in interactional terms, Nassaji (2014) suggests that corrective feedback is realized in three steps which are learner initiation, teacher response and learner uptake, the last one of which may be optional. Taking these steps into account, Nassaji (2014) states that feedback is realized in the form of reformulation, which occurs through recasts or direct corrections, and elicitation, which may be the result of requests for clarification, repetition of the learner's utterance, providing metalinguistic clues or direct elicitation. Moreover, paralinguistic cues such as teacher's facial expressions or gestures may also serve as feedback which are triggered by learner initiation and followed by learner uptake (Ellis, 2009).

Similar to the classification provided by Nassaji, Mitchell, Myles and Marsden (2013) state that corrective feedback can be presented in the form of explicit correction, recast, clarification requests, elicitation or repetition. Basing their study on that of Lyster and Ranta (1997), Nassaji et al. explain that explicit correction is given by providing the learner with a correct form upon mentioning the existence of an error and recasts occur when the teacher rephrases the utterance of the learner without the error. Clarification requests involve a request to explicate the utterance without an error notification and elicitation aims to have the learner reformulate the problematic utterance. Lastly, repetition as a type of feedback is given when the teacher reproduces the learner utterance without correcting the error(s).

Taking into account the socio-cultural theory, Ellis (2009) states that language development occurs through social interaction. In line with Ellis's remark, Rassaei (2014) suggests that corrective feedback should foster problem-solving through scaffolding rather than providing explicit correction, which he refers to as 'scaffolded feedback'. According to Finn and Mecalfe (2010), scaffolded feedback enables learners to reflect on the problem through

providing clues or guidance which eventually leads to the solution of the problem. In this respect, this type of feedback may include several moves which may move from indirect towards direct (Nassaji, 2014). According to Nassaji and Swain (2000), scaffolded feedback considers the correction of errors within the social context which provides the learners with opportunities to collaborate and meaningfully interact.

Regardless of the underlying theory behind, corrective feedback appears to aim at having the learner correct errors, be it from a behavioral perspective reinforcing accurate language use or a socio-cognitive perspective which strives for helping the learner to develop knowledge and skills to solve a particular language problem. At this point, the concept of error and the question of which errors to correct gains importance to reach the desired outcomes.

With respect to the treatment of errors within the context of feedback, global vs local, treatable vs untreatable and mistake vs error dichotomies are proposed in the relevant literature. Burt (1975) and Burt and Kiparsky (1972) state that global errors are those which may hinder communication due to issues in understandability such as lexical or syntactical errors and local errors are marked by minor problems which do not interfere with the flow of communication. According to Hendrickson (1978), global errors should be treated by means of corrective feedback and local errors should be left untreated since the former may result in breakdowns in communication. Ferris (1999, 2002) distinguishes between treatable and untreatable errors by explaining that untreatable errors, such as lexical errors, are unidiomatic and specific while those which have a clear and systematic pattern such as article errors are treatable. Relying on her classification of errors, Ferris suggests that treatable errors are those to be targeted by corrective feedback. Apart from global vs local and treatable vs untreatable errors, Xie and Jing (2007) make a distinction between errors and mistakes. According to them, a mistake is a performance failure in making correct use of a familiar system while an error is a digression from the native-speaker norms which indicate deficiencies in the interlanguage of the learner.

Regarding this particular dichotomy, Bitchener and Ferris (2012) argue that mistakes can be corrected by the learner himself or herself effortlessly and thus, only errors should be treated by the teachers through corrective feedback. In short, the relevant literature shows that the errors which prevent communication, are systematic and indicate interlanguage deficiencies should be targeted through corrective feedback.

There are a number of studies regarding the benefits of corrective feedback in the language teaching and learning literature. For instance, Mackey and Goo (2007) conclude in their meta-analysis that intervention studies with respect to corrective feedback have a significant effect on language development. In a more detailed meta-analysis, Russel and Spada (2006) document that feedback treatments significantly contribute to language development with a very large effect in terms of oral and written accuracy. Moreover, Russel and Spada conclude that, although stronger effects of feedback treatments are observed in the short-term, the beneficial effects of corrective feedback are long-lasting. In another meta-analysis study, Li (2010) computes a medium effect size regarding the effectiveness of feedback treatments and concludes that the shorter the intervention is, the larger the effect size becomes. Furthermore, Li reveals that lab-based research settings are more effective than natural classroom settings in feedback interventions. In a study with a more limited focus, Ellis, Loewen and Erlahm (2006) find out that provision of explicit feedback has a positive effect on the acquisition of languages. Similarly, Long (2007) indicates that negative evidence aids in the acquisition of languages by having the learner notice the gaps in his or her knowledge. Finally, Bultena, Danielmeier, Bekkering and Lemhöfer (2017) use neurophysiological evidence to argue that repeated feedback results in an increased amount of error-monitoring and L1 interference is reduced thanks to feedback. Briefly, it can be stated that corrective feedback positively affects language development both in immediate and extended periods as shown in various studies.

Although numerous benefits of providing learners with corrective feedback are documented, it is possible to come across with studies which argue against feedback, too. For instance, Truscott (1996) defends that corrective feedback is detrimental, inefficient and the literature lacks research studies proving its effectiveness. In a later study, Truscott (2007) criticizes meta-analysis studies for being selective and conducts another meta-analysis study whose findings indicate that writing accuracy is negatively affected by corrective feedback and the positives of providing corrective feedback are rather limited even when confounding variables are not controlled for. In the same study, Truscott argues that corrective feedback primarily focuses on grammatical accuracy and a focus on accuracy is irrelevant in the teaching of L2 writing. Elaborating on this argument, Truscott also holds that corrective feedback has no positive effect on the real use of languages. In another study, Truscott (2008) concludes that the apparent gains in receiving corrective feedback are invalid in terms of language development since learners tend to repeat the same errors in tasks which are assigned after the feedback intervention. In other words, Truscott supports the notion that corrective feedback helps with grammatical accuracy, but he defends that grammatical accuracy does not explain language use and thus, corrective feedback does not improve language development.

To sum up, it is seen in the literature that corrective feedback refers to the direct or indirect attempts at correcting accuracy problems in learners' oral or written production in L2 and it may take the form of provision of the correct forms, reformulating learner utterances or eliciting the correct form from the learner through aiding him or her to solve the language problem being experienced. While proponents of corrective feedback defend its provision for both long and short-term effects, its critics appear to argue that grammatical corrections do not equal to language development. In either case, it seems difficult to come to a definitive conclusion regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback for language development, which makes it necessary to study the phenomenon further.

A more specific form of corrective feedback is referred to as written corrective feedback, which can be defined as actions which are taken to notify the learner about the veracity of a response to instruction, which provides both the teacher and the learner with knowledge regarding the instructional procedure (Lalande, 1982). Although the definition appears to make no distinction between oral and written corrective feedback, Sheen (2007) argues that written corrective feedback enacts a lower amount of cognitive load on one's memory in comparison to oral corrective feedback which is marked by immediate processing in the short-term memory. Moreover, Sheen states that written corrective feedback differs from oral corrective feedback in that the former places more emphasis on the quality and content of L2 production, placing only secondary importance to grammatical accuracy. On writing quality, Mory (2004) adds that the function of written corrective feedback is not limited to responding to errors in writing but it should also denote the strengths in the written work. To put it succinctly, written corrective feedback requires less cognitive load in the short-term memory than oral corrective feedback with an increased focus on writing quality that is not limited to errors in writing.

The main typology of written corrective feedback in the L2 writing literature is documented by Ellis (2009) who classifies written feedback as direct/indirect, focused/unfocused, metalinguistic, reformulation and electronic. A summary of this categorization is provided below in Table 2.

Table 2

Ellis's (2009) Categorization of Written Corrective Feedback

Feedback Type	Focus
Direct vs Indirect	Explicitness of the correct forms provided
Focused vs Unfocused	Feedback's being limited to a single aspect of language or not
Metalinguistic	Hints/Descriptions of language problems
Reformulation	A native speaker's reworking the text
Electronic	Indication of an error and provision of a hyperlink for correction

The first type of feedback in Ellis's (2009) typology is a dichotomous one, referred to as *direct and indirect types of feedback*. Ferris (2011) states that a piece of feedback can be labelled direct when a particular correct form is provided by the teacher for the learner and all the learner needs to do is to replace that correct form with the erroneous one in the text. On the contrary, Ferris explains, feedback becomes indirect when the teacher points out the error but leaves the issue of correction to the learner. According to Lee (2004), the pointing out of the error by the teacher can take the form of foregrounding the error through underlining, circling or coding it as an error. Studies supporting the usefulness of both types of feedback can be found in the literature.

Both feedback types having their supporters, direct feedback is argued for in terms of lessening the feeling of uncertainty among learners, allowing for the correction of complicated idiomatic and syntactical errors, providing a more rapid response to the hypotheses formulated by the learners (Chandler, 2003), allowing for language development to occur more promptly (Brown, 2007; Lee, 2003) and being more common than indirect feedback (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). On the other hand, indirect feedback is also favored above direct feedback as the latter feedback does not take into account the learner's individual cognitive processes, expects the learner to place a simple duplication of the teacher's suggestion into the text pressurizes the learner to use the teacher's version for a particular utterance instead of helping the learner formulate his or her own text (Ferris, 2011). Moreover, indirect feedback may enable the learner to learn from guidance, solve problems, improve noticing and attention which aids in language acquisition (Ferris & Roberts, 2001) and it also produces more long-lasting effects than its direct counterpart and increases grammatical accuracy in the long-term (Ferris, 2006) while making it possible for the learner to make use of learning guidance and problem-solving skills, supports reflection on prior knowledge and enables more complex processing, resulting in long-term positives in the acquisition of L2 target forms (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Since the

arguments in favor of both ways of providing feedback rely on empirical data, a safe conclusion would be that contextual differences might be accounting for the effectiveness of the level of explicitness in written corrective feedback.

The second type of written corrective feedback mentioned by Ellis (2009) is another dichotomy, namely *focused vs unfocused corrective feedback*. According to Sheen (2009), the first distinction between focused and unfocused feedback is made by Ellis, Sheen, Murakami and Takashima (2008), the former requiring the teacher to correct all the mistakes identified in the learner's work and the latter referring to specifying a particular type or a few types of error and correcting only those errors. Depending on contextual needs, the teacher may choose to focus on a single type of error or select a few types that would suit the purpose of providing the learners with corrective feedback (Ellis et al., 2008).

Similar to the direct and indirect types of feedback, focused and unfocused feedback both find approval for various reasons. For instance, Sheen (2007) argues that corrective feedback is generally ineffective due to its lack of focus, which overloads learners' processing capacity and focused feedback provides sufficient attentional focus to reach the target accuracy level and communication skills for the learner, which is retained in the long term (Ellis, 2009; Kao, 2013; Sheen, 2009). Moreover, Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) also argue for the efficiency of focused feedback over its unfocused counterpart since unfocused feedback is less coherent which results in inefficiency in the processing of feedback information among learners. Contrary to those arguments, however, Vanbeuningen, De Yong and Kuiken (2011) discover that unfocused feedback improves linguistic accuracy in general. Furthermore, Truscott and Hsu (2008) point at short-term language development through unfocused feedback, while warning that there is no long-term learning outcome in this particular type of feedback. Lastly, Frear and Chiu (2015) claim that focused and unfocused types of feedback may be equally effective in the teaching of weak verbs and the effects of both types of feedback,

actually, deteriorate over time. When those studies regarding focused vs unfocused feedback are considered, it can be stated that both types of feedback are found to be effective with warnings with respect to cognitive load and long-term effectiveness.

The third type of feedback documented by Ellis (2009) is called *metalinguistic feedback*, which is defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as remarks, facts or questions about the accuracy of an utterance produced by the learner. Similar to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition, Nassaji and Fotos (2011) define metalinguistic feedback as the type of feedback which provides information or opinion about the veracity of the language used in an utterance produced by a learner. According to Lyster (2002), receivers of this type of feedback are led to reconsider their existing knowledge with respect to a particular form, which allows for the restructuring of interlanguage. Being metalinguistic in nature as its name suggests, metalinguistic feedback notifies the learner in the case of an inaccurate use, encouraging the noticing and comprehension of accurate forms (Sheen, 2007) and it provides the learner with a metalinguistic explanation along with a correct form (direct metalinguistic feedback) or only the explanation without an explicit suggestion (indirect metalinguistic feedback) (Sheen, 2011). Adopting a different perspective, Bitchener and Knoch (2008) place metalinguistic feedback within the domain of direct feedback both in terms of written and oral corrective feedback.

Scholars who argue for the superiority of metalinguistic feedback over other types of feedback hold that direct metalinguistic feedback promotes not only noticing but also attention (Diab, 2015) and understanding since it includes both positive and negative types of evidence and thus, the learning of relatively difficult structures may be facilitated in the long term (Bitchener & Koch, 2010) by providing this particular type of feedback (Sheen, 2011). Nonetheless, Ellis (2008) criticizes the provision of metalinguistic feedback in L2 writing since metalinguistic explanations are provided mostly in the form of codes and learning about the codes can be both time-expensive and perplexing for learners. Moreover, the lack of sufficient

metalinguistic knowledge (Ellis, 2008) may pose a problem in the provision of metalinguistic feedback. Lastly, Loewen and Nabei (2007) and Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) conclude in their studies that metalinguistic feedback is not superior to other types of feedback. In conclusion, metalinguistic feedback may facilitate noticing, attention and understand but it may also be time-consuming and puzzling for both learners and teachers.

The fourth type of feedback stated by Ellis (2009) is *reformulation*, which intends to supply the learner with the solution of a particular problem but leaves the actual decision to correct the error to the learner himself or herself. Placing the responsibility of reformulating to a native speaker of the L2 being learned, Cohen (1989) states that reformulation aims maintain the writer's thoughts as much as possible but also communicating them in a native-like way. Following the reformulation of the native speaker, the learner is expected to rework the text and decide whether to accept or reject the readily provided expressions, which gives the learner the responsibility of detecting the differences between the learner-produced and native speaker-produced versions of the text. In this respect, reformulation is considered to extend the focus of written corrective feedback from grammatical accuracy to style and organization (Sachs & Polio, 2007).

In the relevant literature, several positives and negatives of reformulation as feedback have been reported. For instance, Sulistyo and Heriyawati (2017) confirm Sachs and Polio (2007) in that it allows the learner to detect the differences between current performance and target performance and improve performance in academic writing in general. Comparing the efficiency levels of reformulation and self-correction, Ibarrola (2013) concludes that learners who receive reformulation as feedback outperform those who are required to self-correct their texts. In terms of the negatives, Sachs and Polio (2007) reformulation is not a more efficient option in comparison to the correcting of errors by the teacher. Moreover, Ibarrola (2013) warns that reformulation may need to be adapted according to the contextual demands of particular

classrooms since limitations in time and the difficulty level of a given task may make it difficult to provide this kind of written corrective feedback. However, judging by the scarcity of studies scrutinizing reformulation, it can be concluded that this type of feedback is yet to be further studied with respect to its relative effects in comparison to other types of feedback.

The fifth and the last type of feedback listed by Ellis (2009) is *electronic feedback*, which is initially mentioned by Milton (2006) as a type of feedback that is provided by means of a computer software. Milton states that the software, namely Mark My Words, has a database of lexical, grammatical and stylistic errors whose number is close to 100 and each error within the database provides the learner with a short explanation and a hyperlink which is connected to examples of correct use for a given error. Upon the marking of the error with this software and sending the text back to the learner for revision, the learner studies the comments and examples and self-corrects the errors in his or her text. Also able to keep the records of individual errors, it is convenient with Mark My Words to track repetitive errors by both the teacher and the learner (Milton, 2006). Another approach to electronic feedback is simply using common search engines, according to Ellis (2009). Ellis suggests that the search results obtained following searching for a particular use of language may serve as examples of correct use and be used as a form of feedback. According to Ene and Upton (2014), MS Word documents can also be used to provide electronic feedback since it is also possible through them to provide the learners with explicit, orderly, needs-based and structured feedback.

In line with other types of feedback, electronic feedback has also been reported in the literature to have its own pros and cons. For instance, Ellis (2009) states that electronic feedback does not necessarily have to be limited to grammatical accuracy, which is a positive. Moreover, it promotes learner autonomy (Ellis, 2009) and going beyond the surface of the text, content and organization-level corrections (Ene & Upton, 2014). On the other hand, Budge (2011) finds that learners prefer handwritten forms of feedback as they feel this type of feedback allows for

a more humane type of contact with their teachers (Edeiken-Cooperman & Berenato, 2014). Considering these pros and cons, electronic feedback may, indeed, promote learner autonomy and deep-level corrections, however, it may conflict with learner preferences and interests, therefore, using electronic feedback as a complement to face-to-face or handwritten feedback might serve as a better option.

When all types of written corrective feedback provided by Ellis (2009) are taken into account, it can be concluded that each separate type of feedback has been found to be useful in some contexts while it has been shown to be ineffective in some others. Regardless of the findings with respect to the effectiveness of the type of feedback, the correction of grammatical errors appears to be the where each type of feedback intersects. However, the correction of grammatical errors, which is a surface-level endeavor, can only constitute a single aspect of learning L2 writing as it can be inferred from the process studies of writing. Moreover, from a systemic-functional linguistics perspective, none of these feedback types seem to contain any reference to the social aspect of text production, which can be considered as undermining the context of writing. For these reasons, the current understanding of written corrective feedback is scrutinized and criticized in detail from a genre pedagogy perspective by Mahboob and Devrim (2013), which has resulted in a different feedback typology than that of Ellis's (2009) taking the social function of writing into account.

A New Approach: Genre-Focused Feedback

Consistent with their criticism of the traditional understanding of written corrective feedback, Mahboob and Devrim (2013) maintain that feedback should aid learners in developing their awareness of both how language works and how knowledge is created and transferred within and among discourse communities. Moreover, Devrim (2014) holds that feedback can also serve as an instrument for mediation between learners and teachers. In addition, written corrective feedback itself can be considered as a genre due to its being

purpose-driven with its own norms including coherence and cohesion, which allows for constructive feedback including guidance on improving texts and resulting in a more thorough grasp of this knowledge to be transferred to varying contexts using the Sydney School of Genre as a basis (Mahboob, 2015). Namely, the social rather than cognitive nature of the Sydney School along with its prioritization of the functional theory of language (Hyland, 2007) are among the contributing ideas behind Genre-Focused Feedback.

Parallel to the suggestion that feedback itself is actually a goal-oriented genre, Mahboob (2015) studied a large database of electronically written corrective feedback and revealed that cohesive feedback involved three stages, namely purring and preview, feedback and feedback review. Mahboob's findings show that the first stage, purring and preview, begins by greeting the learner and positively reinforcing the learner by providing a brief summary of the major focus of the feedback. The purring and preview stages are followed by the feedback stage, in which particular issues related to the text are highlighted and the learner is supported for the betterment of these issues. In the last stage, feedback review, the teacher recaps on the issues highlighted briefly and re-articulates both the strengths and the weaknesses of the text. According to Dreyfus et al. (2016), the reinforcement and consolidation of the goals of the text is also realized in this final stage. Through these stages, feedback takes the form of a genre by itself including an introduction, a main body and a conclusion, which helps learners and teachers gradually create a shared metalanguage encircling feedback regardless of its type (Devrim, 2014).

Apart from the rhetorical moves to be considered in the provision of feedback, Mahboob and Devrim (2013) state that written corrective feedback may differ according to its explicitness and the statement of rationale for revision. While more explicit feedback tends to provide the learner with a few revision options to choose from the lessening of explicitness leaves these options to be discovered by the learner. Similarly, the degree of rationale within the feedback

determines how much information is provided for the learner as for what should be revised and why. Taking these features of feedback into account, Mahboob and Devrim suggest a Cartesian plane for the classification of written corrective feedback as follows in Figure 1:

Rationale +

Hand-Holding   Bridging

Explicitness + ←──────────────→ Explicitness -

Carrying   Base-Jumping

Rationale -
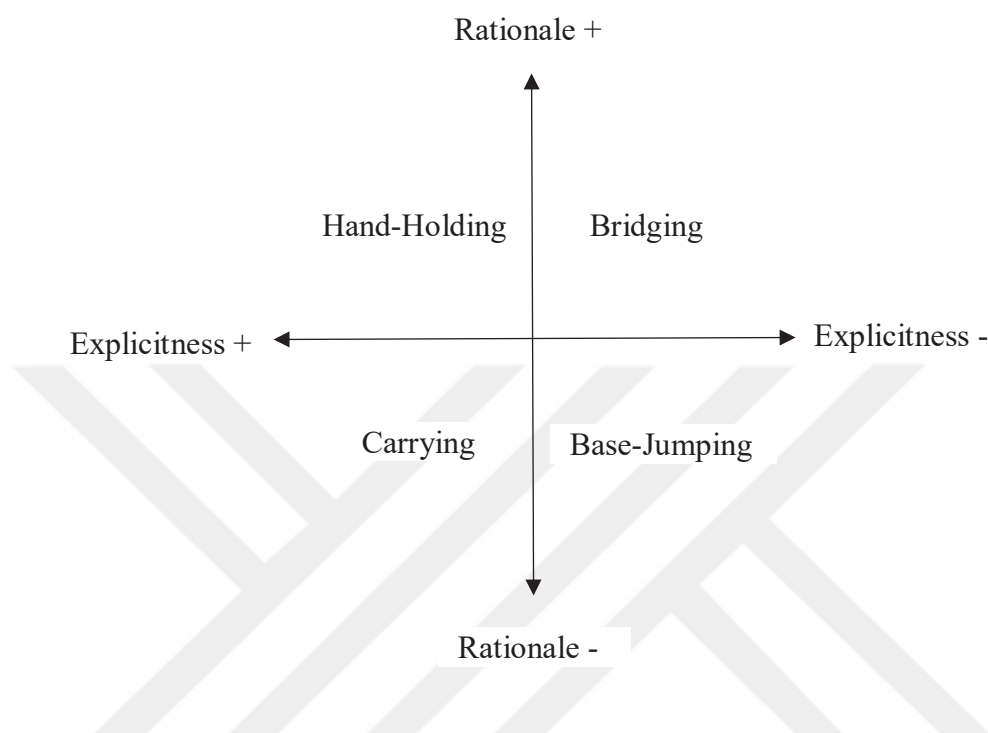
Figure 1. Mahboob and Devrim's (2013) Feedback Topology, Adapted from Mahboob and Devrim (2013, p. 113).

Handholding

According to this topology of Mahboob and Devrim's (2013), Hand-Holding is the feedback type which is the most explicit and provides the highest support by stating the rationale, too. This type of feedback is thought to work best with difficult tasks and low-proficient learners by helping them point out the issue and learn from it since it involves little or no elicitation from learners providing a few explicit revision options in the form of suggestions along with text-oriented metalanguage above surface level (Dreyfus et al., 2016). Using a family analogy, Devrim (2014) resembles Hand-Holding type of feedback to a parent

holding his or her child's hand due to the explicitness of feedback and its allowing to learner to make a choice.

Mahboob and Devrim (2013) provide the following extract as an example of Hand-Holding feedback:

In this essay, the importance of nominalization will be explained. {{Delete this sentence as you have added this information at the end of the paragraph, which is the appropriate place to add this.}} (p. 114)

As seen in the example, the teacher (commenting in curly brackets) explicitly provides an option for the learner, which is to delete the sentence and explains the learner why it is a better option to delete this particular sentence, which makes the feedback fall into the Hand-Holding category.

According to Mahboob and Devrim (2013) and Dreyfus et al. (2016), Hand-Holding as a type of feedback extends the Zone of Proximal Development by allowing the learner to perform at a higher level than what he or she can do without help through the identification of the problem, explanation of why it is a problem and suggestion of possible ways to fix the problem. In the case of recurring problems, Mahboob (2015) suggests that the level of explicitness can be gradually reduced, allowing the learner to attempt to transfer knowledge acquired by the initial explicit feedback to the later occurrences of the same type of problem.

Carrying

Mahboob and Devrim (2013) identify carrying as a type of feedback which is explicit in content but lacks rationale, and simply carries the learners to the appropriate revision without explaining what the problem is and why it is a problem. Keeping the distinction of errors and mistakes in mind, Mahboob and Devrim state that carrying as a type of feedback is especially useful for editing the text and the correction of mistakes due to the fact that the focus of

feedback in carrying is below the clause level, the learner is provided with only a single option for fixing the problem and there is no attempt to elicit a response or an attempt to self-correct from the learner. Devrim (2014) says that this type of feedback is similar to a parent carrying a baby without giving any information on where or why. The following extract as an example of carrying is provided by Mahboob and Devrim (2013):

> To express the same context, eleven words are used in the first sentence from Text A while only six words are used {{to express the same idea}} in that from {{Delete this.}} Text B when nominalization takes place. (p. 115)

As shown in the example, the learner in this extract is asked to add the phrase "to express the same idea" between "used" and "in" in the second line and to delete the phrase "in that form" in the same line without receiving an explanation why the first phrase needs to be added and the second one needs to be deleted. In other words, the teacher carries the learner to a desired level of appropriacy without telling the learner why it is more appropriate than what is produced by the learner.

Regarding carrying type of feedback, Mahboob and Devrim (2013) state that it may not result in language development since it does not extend the learner's Zone of Proximal Development by scaffolding, however, it may be used to support an initially provided Hand-Holding feedback in the case of a recurring problem, in which case it may help language development because in this case, according to Mahboob (2015), carrying feedback serves as an additional example of a possible way to fix a previous problem.

Bridging

Another type of feedback identified by Mahboob and Devrim (2013) is Bridging, which is marked by its low level of explicitness along with a high level of rationale. In this type of feedback, the teacher typically helps the learner notice the problem and explains the underlying

reason behind the problem but provides no explicit options for correction or ways to fix the problem. The explanations in Bridging may involve a description of the problem, some examples, hints or suggestions with the aim of eliciting the correct revision from the learner. With this nature of its, Bridging as a type of feedback can be given above the clause level or the opposite. Devrim (2014) states that Bridging type of feedback approximates to the construction of a bridge by a parent to let his or her child to cross, because what to do with the feedback is left to the learner. Mahboob and Devrim (2013) provide two examples of Bridging feedback:

> By changing the language through nominalization, it benefits in terms of information compaction, logically organizing information, making the style of writing more academic {{Try to nominalize the verbs in these clauses to sound more academic.}} and formal and the removal of pronouns from the texts. (p. 117)

In this example, the teacher (in curly brackets) asks the learner to use nominalization with the rationale of making the sentence more academic, however, how to apply nominalization to the sentence is entirely left to the learner. In this respect, the teacher can be said to be providing the rationale for the problem and a suggestion while avoiding explicit solutions.

The second example by Mahboob and Devrim (2013) also provides the rationale and a suggestion:

> Third, nominalization organizes the ideas in a more structural way. The meanings in clauses are organized into noun groups, and the noun groups become the focus of the topic sentences. {{Here is another chance for you to nominalize a verb. Can you begin your sentence with 'The organisation of

"............. ....." leads to ....'. This will give the sentence the more academic style that we have been talking about.}} (p. 117)

In this example, it can be seen that teacher requires the learner to nominalize a verb, provides a suggestion and explains why this revision may improve the learner's text. At this point, one important point to consider is that even if the learner accepts the teacher's revision suggestion, he or she has to form the sentence on his or her own, which reduces the explicitness of the feedback.

According to Mahboob and Devrim (2013), Bridging type of feedback assumes that learners are already sufficiently competent in L2 and thus they are already able to complete a given writing task. In this respect, Bridging is considered to extend the learner's Zone of Proximal Development by allowing the learner to use what is already known in different ways to meet the requirements of the feedback. Bridging type of feedback can be efficiently used to elicit responses from the learners in terms of text structure, organization and style (Mahboob, 2015).

Base-Jumping

The last type of feedback identified by Mahboob and Devrim (2013) is Base Jumping, which is also referred to as Free Climbing by Devrim (2014). Base Jumping as a type of feedback is low in both explicitness and the provision of rationale for a revision. In order to benefit from this type of feedback, learners need to be in possession of adequate knowledge about the L2 in order to comprehend what is there to revise, why it should be revised and how it can be revised because learners are expected to carry out the revision on their own and in the opposite case, feedback may be perceived to be too abstract producing negatives such as hindering learning (Dreyfus et al., 2016). Devrim (2014) resembles Base Jumping to a child going up a rock on his or her own without ropes since it is the learner's responsibility to detect,

understand and fix the problems in the text. Mahboob and Devrim (2013) provide the following example for Base Jumping:

> When a passage is nominalized, the organization of context will be more logical
>
> {{Another nice introduction sentence! But, for your next draft, why don't you
>
> try using more nominalization to convey these processes?}}. (p. 118)

As seen in the example, the teacher praises the learner-generated text and asks for more nominalization. However, he or she does not provide any information as for why to nominalize the verbs in that sentence or how to do so, leaving the revision task almost entirely to the learner. In this respect, feedback is quite low in explicitness and it does not include a rationale.

In terms of the extension of the Zone of Proximal Development, Base Jumping as a type of feedback may serve as scaffolding only if the learner is sufficiently competent in the L2 to understand what to do, why to do it and how to do it on his or her own, making the type of feedback better suited to be used with advanced learners (Mahboob and Devrim, 2013). In this respect, Base Jumping is a precarious type of feedback since it makes a lot of assumptions about the knowledge level of the learner, however, it may be useful for underlining the focal point of the feedback or re-attracting learner's attention to a recurring problem which is explained with its rationale in a previous part of the text (Mahboob, 2015).

Taking into account the criticism by Mahboob and Devrim (2013), Devrim (2014), Devrim (2015) and Dreyful et al. (2016) that the traditional ways of providing learners with written corrective feedback are outdated in terms of the language description they adopt, it becomes even more visible that contemporary ways of giving feedback which take into account the language description of systemic-functional linguistics and the situatedness of language in its social context are needed. In this respect, the feedback topology proposed by Mahboob and Devrim (2013) appears to be a viable one in terms of its well-formedness, flexibility and

suitability to genre pedagogy as suggested by its proponents. Although, to the researcher's knowledge, this particular topology of written corrective feedback has never been empirically tested, it could serve as a better option for both teachers and researchers who prefer to scaffold written language development beyond the surface level of learner language.

Individual Differences in L2 Writing

The role of individual differences has been well-documented in the language acquisition and language learning literature with a rather dated tradition of research on many aspects such as aptitude, age, anxiety or attitude (Dörnyei, 2008). An urge for the consideration of individual differences in language learning or acquisition becomes especially crucial when the divergent levels of success among language learners are taken into account (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). The importance of researching individual differences in language learning is also mentioned by Hummel (2014), who states that individual differences interact with language learning in multiple ways in different contexts, making it even more important to scrutinize them especially by avoiding the isolation of any of the factors.

L2 writing is no exception to the influence of individual differences in language learning. As Carroll (1993) puts forth, writing ability is not a unidimensional construct, but is affected by numerous other abilities that humans possess. Moreover, Flower and Hayes (1981), in their cognitive process theory of writing, refer to individual differences which might affect the processes involved in writing. Bitchener and Ferris (2012) also refer to individual differences as an important focal point to study within the context of L2 writing. For these reasons, the study of individual differences within the L2 writing context is an important task to explain the variability in L2 writers' levels of success.

Even though the present study deals only with psychological variables within the framework of individual differences, the scope of individual differences with respect to L2 writing is rather large, including age, aptitude, social-psychological factors, personality,

cognitive style, hemisphere specialization, memory, sex and self-efficacy, all of which have a role to play in L2 writing development or performance in different levels depending on many factors including research context.

In line with the Brain Plasticity (Penfield & Robers, 1959), Critical Period (Lenneberg, 1967) and Sensitive Periods Hypotheses (Oyama, 1976; Seliger, Krashen & Ladefoged, 1975), *age* is believed to have an effect on language acquisition in general and L2 writing skills in particular. On this issue, Doiz (2003) and Sanches (2004) find that communicative ability in written texts increase alongside age. Moreover, in the Barcelona Age Factor project, it is shown that older learners significantly outperform younger ones in writing fluency, writing accuracy along with lexical and syntactic complexity in the short, medium and long terms (Celaya, Torras & Pérez-Vidal, 2001; Muñoz, 2006; Navés, 2006; Pérez-Vidal, Torras & Celaya, 2000; Torras, Navés, Celaya & Pérez-Vidal, 2006). On the other hand, Navés, Torras and Celaya (2003) reveal that development in grammatical accuracy and syntactic complexity tend to come to a halt among older students although writing complexity in general continues to improve. These differences in favor of older students can be explained in Cummings's (1980) terms, who argues that L2 syntax, morphology and comprehension skills are move developed among older learners because of their cognitive maturity in comparison to younger learners. Briefly, age is shown to be an influential factor in L2 writing since cognitive maturity through aging is an important factor in a cognitively demanding task like writing (Celaya & Navés, 2009).

Biological sex has also been reported among the factors that have an effect on L2 writing achievement. In many studies, female writers are reported to outperform their male counterparts (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002) as they are typically more inclined to experiment with words and writing styles (Cameron, 1997), which contradicts Sirc's (1989) findings stating that male writers are less conventional in their texts. Moreover, studies such as those of Guobing's (2015), Green and Oxford's (1995) and Mokhtari and Reichard's (2002) reveal that female language

learners use a greater number of writing strategies than male language learners. On the other hand, it is also possible to come across with studies in the relevant literature which suggest that male writers are better strategy users (Al Asmari, 2013; Tran, 1988) and those which state that strategy use does not differ according to biological sex (Punithavalli, 2003; Vahdat, Shooshtari & Mehrdad, 2016). In terms of performance, several studies report that male writers outperform female ones (Alavinia & Hassanlou, 2014; Jebreil & Azizifar, 2015) and several others report the opposite (Awada & Gaith, 2014; Salehi, Kazemi & Aslikhosh, 2017). On the other hand, Hashemnejad, Zoghi and Amini (2014) and Woods (2016) conclude that writing performance does not differ according to sex. On writing psychology, male learners have been shown to demonstrate higher levels of writing anxiety (Liu & Ni, 2015) and writing self-efficacy (Kırmızı & Kırmızı, 2015) while disagreeing findings for the same constructs are reported by Hidi, Berndorf and Ainley (2002) and (Pajares, Britner & Valiante, 2000). Biological sex has also been reported to be an interfering factor in terms of perceived task value (Pajares & Valiante, 1999) and writing motivation (Troia, Harbaugh, Shankland, Wolbers & Lawrence, 2013). Even though all these studies confirm the effect of biological sex in various writing-related constructs, it should also be noted that sex differences are rendered insignificant when analyses are controlled for femininity/masculinity in behavior, the differences may be attributed to gender orientation instead of one's biological sex (Brosnan, 1998; Harter, Whitesell, & Kastelic, 1998; Karniol, Gabay, Ochion & Harari, 1998; Pajares & Valiante, 2001).

Another individual difference which is reported to have a say in L2 writing achievement is *hemisphere specialization*, based on the notion that order or disorder within one's thoughts, including the effects of brain damage (Birgitta, 1990), affects both speech and writing (Strange & Kebbel, 1984). Although the studies are rather scarce in this particular individual difference, it is possible to come across studies which state that left brain-dominant learners outperform their right brain-dominant counterparts (Oflaz, 2011) or the opposite case (Tendero, 2000). In

short, hemispheric dominance might have a potential to have an effect on L2 writing performance as there are several supportive studies with respect to the issue.

Even though it is mostly scrutinized in L1 writing, *working memory*, which is defined as the temporal storage are of information for its processing, elimination or transfer to long-term memory through a central executive, visuo-spatial sketchpad and phonological loop (Baddeley & Hitch, 1976; Engle & Convay, 1998) is also considered to be a contributing or hindering factor in L2 writing as it may limit the processes one gets involved in during writing (Hayes & Chenoweth, 2006) due to its capacity to perform attention and time allocation (Kormos, 2012) on the processes such as planning, transcribing or revising (Hayes, 1996). L2 writing is considered to require a high amount of working memory capacity (DeKeyser, 2007) because a larger working memory capacity (Abu-Rabia, 2003; Bergsleithner, 2010) and a longer phonological short-term memory span (Adams & Guillot, 2008; Dehn, 2008; Kormos & Sáfár, 2008) have been reported to be related to increased performance and syntactic processes in L2 writing (Yi & Ni, 2015).

Extensively studied in language acquisition settings due to their effect on second or foreign language achievement (Dryer & Oxford, 1996; Kyungsim & Leavell, 2006), *the use of learning strategies*, which are briefly defined as actions taken intentionally by the language learner to manage own learning (Griffiths, 2008, 2013; Oxford, 1990), are also counted among the individual differences which may have an effect on L2 writing achievement. Having different categorizations as cognitive, social, affective (Rivera-Mills & Plonsky, 2007), cognitive, metacognitive, social (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper & Russo, 1985), memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social (Oxford, 1990) or cognitive, affective, sociocultural-interactive and meta strategies (Oxford, 2011), the use of learning strategies have been reported in the literature to be related to genre knowledge, overall L2 proficiency (Gu, 2007; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Lu, 2010; Mohseniasl, 2014; Raoofi, Binandeh

& Rahmani, 2017) and L2 writing performance (He, 2005). In sum, language learning strategies regulate and improve the learning experience as well as compensating for the gaps in knowledge, resulting in a positive effect on language achievement including L2 writing skills.

Cognitive style, which refers to how learners process, intake and internalize information (Reid, 1995) and reflects preferences in information processing (Hummel, 2014), also have the potential to influence the acquisition of second or foreign languages including writing skills by regulating the way through which a learner absorbs and stores information (Brown, 2007). Categorized dichotomously as field dependent/field independent, reflexive/impulsive, aural/visual, analytic/gestalt and broad/narrow category width (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), different cognitive styles influence the way learners perform writing in an L2 (Creswell, 2007; Lee, 1994; Yoon, 2011) with the exception of Alkubaidi's (2014) study, which concludes that L2 writing performance does not differ according to the learners' cognitive styles. The teaching techniques preferred by teachers as well as performance in L2 writing might be influenced by the preferred individual cognitive styles of learners despite the fact that the findings related to the issue may pose variation depending on the context.

Among the individual differences in the learning of languages, which have been researched for the past few decades, is *language aptitude* (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Ellis, 1994) or the ability that is required to actualize the learning of an L2 including the ability to recognize unique sounds (phonemic coding ability), the ability to identify the grammatical functions of words (grammatical sensitivity), the ability to apply rote learning and the ability to figure out rules implicitly (Caroll, 1965 as cited in Skehan, 2002; Caroll, 1965 as cited in Osado, 2015; Ellis, 1997; Grigorenko, Elena, Sternberg & Ehrman, 2000). Although research on the potential interaction between L2 writing and language aptitude is quite few in number, such an interaction appears to exist (Kormos, 2012). For instance, Kormos and Sáfár (2008) reveal that an increase in the metalinguistic awareness component of language aptitude has a relationship

with writing performance and linguistic quality in writing. Another component of language aptitude, grammatical sensitivity, is also shown to influence the length of sentences produced in L2 writing (Kormos & Trebits, 2012). Mallahi, Amirian, Zareian and Adel (2016) also conclude that L2 writing competence can be predicted by the level of language learning aptitude. In a later study, Mallahi, Amirian, Zareian and Adel (2017) reveal that aptitude is strongly correlated with writing competence. In conclusion, language learning aptitude has been shown to have the potential to influence the process of second or foreign language learning and although relevant studies are scarce, it appears to affect writing in L2, too.

As also mentioned in the section dedicated to the process models of writing, L1-related variables influence L2 writing in various ways (Jin, 2017) and research also shows that *L1 writing skills* are transferable to L2 writing (Kecskes & Papp, 2000; Pae, 2017; Schoonen et al., 2003) including writing strategies (Wolfersberger, 2003), L1 reading skills (Granena, Muñoz & Tragant, 2015; Pae, 2017) genre knowledge and genre awareness (Gentil, 2011). As to the question of when, Woodall (2002) and Wang and Wen (2002) state that L2 learners with low proficiency levels tend to make use of L1 in the form of translation especially when the perceived task difficulty is high. In terms of writing performance, Sasaki and Hirose (1996) articulate that writing ability in L1 is a predictor of writing performance in L2 and tapa and Majid (2012) maintain that a better performance is achieved in L2 writing by learners when they make use of L1. Apparently, L1 and L2 writing skills are hand-in-hand when L2 writing performance is concerned.

As seen in the literature reviewed above, a large number of variables from one's biological state to L1 background influence the way and extent to which L2 writing is achieved. However, the affective or psychological domain of L2 writing is paid special attention to in the present study because, according to the Social-Cognitive Theory by Bandura (1977, 1978), humans have the capacity to self-influence themselves continuously and this act of influencing

one's self regulates behavior. In this respect, one's personality, motivation, attitude, anxiety and self-efficacy are also considered to be among the crucial individual differences influencing L2 writing achievement to a large extent, thus reviewed in detail.

As stated above, *the affective domain*, including self-esteem, extroversion, risk-taking, sensitivity to rejection, empathy, inhibition, tolerance of ambiguity, anxiety (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) and self-efficacy (Shelton, 1990), influences how humans learn languages (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2010; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003). For instance, Daly and Wilson (1983) and Hassan (2001) find out that learner self-esteem is negatively correlated with writing apprehension, which affects the learner's performance in writing. On the extroversion/introversion continuum, Laveghi (2011) reveals that extrovert learners underperform their introvert counterparts in content, form and overall writing performance. Boroujeni, Roohani and Hasanimanesh's (2015) findings are similar to those of Laveghi (2011) in that introvert students outperform extrovert ones in the content, language use mechanics and vocabulary components of their written texts. Regarding risk taking behavior, Carson (2001) suggests that low risk takers may actually be limiting their progress in writing due to getting involved in fewer attempts of trial and error. In respect of sensitivity to rejection, Arlandi (1999) points out that learners who are more sensitive to rejection may perceive teacher generated models in corrective feedback as unachievable, resulting in negative opinions. In terms of empathy, Hays and Brandt (1992) articulate that reader awareness, which is an integral part of writing according to Britton et al.'s (1975) conceptualization – incubation – production model of writing, requires empathy, which also helps produce a satisfactory and authentic essay (Pelias, 1999). With respect to inhibition, Schoonen, Snellings, Stevenson and Van Gelderen (2009) conclude that inhibition affects writing in the levels of both process and product and a higher level of inhibition results in less attention to be paid to the task and a poorly developed script. On ambiguity tolerance, Lee (1999) concludes that a higher level of tolerance takes place

parallel to a better performance in writing and the construct is especially important for low proficient L2 writers. Studying the relationship between writing performance and anxiety, Liu (2015) reveals a negative correlation between two constructs. Lastly, Chae (2011) identifies that self-efficacy predicts L2 writing performance. In summary, learner personality as a whole appears to exert direct or indirect influence on writing skills through interacting with the psychology of and performance in L2 writing.

Defined by Gardner (1985) as the degree to which a person endeavours to learn a language due to an inclination and the contentment experienced as a result of learning, *motivation* is also among the psychological variables which influence the language learning experience (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) in terms of prompting behavior to reach a goal or avoid unwanted outcomes (Pessoa, 2009). In regards to L2 writing, Graham (2006), Gupta and Woldemariam (2011) and He (2005) suggest that an increased level of motivation to write has an enhancing effect on writing development along with other factors such as strategy use, self-regulation and knowledge. From an instructional perspective, Lam and Law (2007) reveal that L2 writing motivation has a mediating effect on the instruction of writing and more motivated learners are more likely to demonstrate a higher level of performance in L2 writing. In a like manner to Lam and Law (2007), Chae (2011) also conclude that both integrative and instrumental motivation orientations predict L2 writing performance. An L2 writing performance study from a self-determination perspective by Yeşilyurt (2008) also shows that knowledge, stimulation and accomplishment components of intrinsic motivation as well as the identified regulation component of extrinsic motivation are correlated with writing performance. In addition, amotivation is negatively correlated with performance in L2 writing. Yeşilyurt's (2008) findings also reveal that external and introjected regulation components of extrinsic motivation are not correlated with writing performance in L2. Judging by the relevant

research studies, it can be concluded that the construct of motivation is an influential one in L2 writing skills as well as language learning in general.

Although the relevant literature supports the notion that L2 writing is influenced by all the constructs within the context of learner personality and the affective domain, three of them, namely attitude, self-efficacy and anxiety, are of particular interest to the present study, thus reviewed in detail under the subheadings below.

Attitude and L2 Writing

One of the socio-psychological variables mentioned by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) within the context of language acquisition and learning is attitude. A widely researched area in language learning, attitude can be defined as individual beliefs about the outcome or nature of a particular behavior which is influenced by the value personally attributed to these outcomes or the behavior (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2008). Referring to one's emotions, Gardner (1980) defines attitude as an individual's natural drives, emotions, preconceptions and beliefs about a particular topic. Arguing that attitude as a psychological construct includes three components as behavioral, affective and cognitive, Wenden (1991) defines it through the beliefs and thoughts about a particular object, emotions related to that object and tendencies and actions taken regarding the object. The study of attitudes is considered an important and integral part of language learning research since attitudes have the capacity to predict one's future learning behavior as well as potential success or failure in learning languages (Nunan, 2000; Popham, 2011).

Studies in educational contexts support the involvement of attitudes in language learning. For example, Garder (1985) finds out that learning a language is influenced by one's attitudes towards the community speaking that particular language. Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) also conclude that negative attitude may affect the language learning process by acting as a psychological barrier. Emphasizing the unfavorable effects, Brown (2007) indicates that

negative attitudes may result in a lower level of motivation and achievement in language learning. Brown's (2007) remarks on attitudes and language learning are confirmed by Wesely (2012), who concludes that language learning motivation and attitudes towards the language being learned are correlated. Similarly, Huench and Thompson (2017) reveal that a learner's attitudes towards second language pronunciation is related to his/her perception of ideal self. In a more complex model including attitudes, Bernaus and Gardner (2008) identify that achievement in English as a foreign language can be predicted by attitudes towards the learning situation when it interacts with language learning motivation. According to Cochran, McCallum and Bell (2010), attitudes towards the foreign language predicts language aptitude which predicts success in foreign language learning. Research studies also show that attitudes have a role to play in listening (Chen, 2007), speaking (Merisuo-Storm, 2007), reading (Kaniuka, 2010) and writing skills (Pajares, 2003) in L2 contexts. In short, the literature relevant to attitudes and language learning demonstrate that attitudes are involved in the process by interacting with other individual variables and predicting achievement.

A more specific form of attitude, which is of particular interest to the present study, is attitudes towards writing. Although definitions of *writing attitude* are essentially similar to the generic definitions, they limit the construct to the specific domain of writing. For instance, Pennington (1996) defines attitudes towards writing as a learner's perception and conception of the act of writing. Providing a more detailed description, Graham, Berninger and Fan (2007) define attitudes within the writing context as "an affective disposition involving how the act of writing makes the author feel, ranging from happy to unhappy" (p. 518). In terms of language education, it is necessary to study what beliefs and thoughts the learners have within the context of L2 writing along with other aspects of language learning (Hyland, 2000) since individual perceptions have an effect on the learning and teaching of academic literacies (Johns, 1997).

Relevant literature suggests that attitudes towards writing may be influencing the processes involved in the act of writing. In terms of the processes, Petric (2002) articulates that writing behavior and development are affected by writing attitudes, which are formed throughout the writing experience. According to McKenna, Kear and Ellsworth (1995), the amount of cognitive engagement with the writing task is influenced by attitudes towards writing and lower engagement with the task may result in a poorer demonstration of writing ability and vice versa. Confirming McKenna et al.'s (1995) findings, Graham (2006) states that negative attitudes may affect the processes involved in writing by disrupting the use of cognitive resources and reducing the efficiency of their use. On the other hand, Graham, Berninger and Fan (2007) state that learners with positive attitudes towards writing demonstrate an increased level of engagement with the writing task showing more effort to complete the task. Lastly, Lee (2002) indicates that negative attitudes towards writing may result in writing block among learners, which hinders the processes involved in writing. Considering the findings of the mentioned empirical studies, it can be stated that cognitive processes which take place during the act of writing appear to be influenced by one's attitudes towards writing.

Writing attitude is shown to be interacting with other psychological variables involved in writing, too. On this matter, Hamilton, Nolen and Abbott (2013) conclude that positive attitude towards writing and writing motivation are positively correlated. On the other hand, they find out that negative writing attitude is positively correlated with writing avoidance behavior and writing ego orientations of learners. In addition, Cheng (2004) disclose that writing attitude, especially negative attitude towards writing, are strongly correlated with writing anxiety. Finally, Sarkhoush (2013) identifies that writing attitude is positively correlated with writing self-efficacy and negatively correlated with writing apprehension. In sum, research findings suggest that attitudes towards writing interact with other psychological constructs related to writing such as motivation, ego orientations and writing anxiety.

In addition to the processes and psychological variables, it can be seen in the relevant literature that writing attitude may also be related to writing performance. Knudson (1995), for example, concludes that a relatively small part of writing quality can be significantly accounted for by attitudes towards writing. In a similar vein, Pajares (2003) indicates that writing attitude predicts writing quality, which is also maintained by Graham, Berninger and Abbott (2012). Lastly, Hashemian and Heidari (2013) underscore that positive attitudes are correlated with writing performance while negative attitudes are not. On the whole, it can be said that the relationship between attitudes towards writing and writing performance seem to have been confirmed by empirical studies.

A few research studies can be found with respect to a potential interaction between writing attitude and GBI. Rashidi and Mazdayasna (2016) attempt to reveal the effects of GBI on letter writing skills and writing attitude with 34 undergraduate students of textile engineering in an ESP course. Their results show that GBI has a positive effect on the levels of writing attitude among their participants. In a different age group and using reports and essays as the genres in focus, Ahn (2012) also reaches similar findings, concluding that GBI positively affects the writing attitude levels of primary school students in their 5th and 6th years. Using the same genres, namely reports and essays, Elashi (2013) observes the attitudinal changes on secondary school students in two intact classes as a quasi-experimental design, and confirmed that GBI had a positive effect on writing attitude.

In conclusion, writing attitude appears to be an important affective variable in terms of L2 writing since this particular construct tends to have the potential to have an effect on learners' cognitive processes, psychological states and performance in writing. However, writing attitude studies in the literature are rather scarce (Graham, Berninger, & Fan, 2007) and further studies are needed to explore the construct in more depth.

Self-Efficacy and L2 Writing

Another well-documented construct which has the potential to influence language learning is self-efficacy. Bandura (1986, 1989) defines self-efficacy as one's beliefs regarding his/her ability to become competent in or perform skills to the extent required by the situation. Huang and Shanmao (1996) and Greenberg (2010) define the construct in a similar way, stating that self-efficacy is a set of beliefs regarding one's competence to complete tasks efficiently. Attempting to define the construct in the context of learning, Tsai, Lin, Chiu and Joe (2009) state that self-efficacy is a learner's beliefs with respect to his/her own capability to actualize the learning of a task, skill or content. Regardless of the context, all definitions of self-efficacy seem to be pointing at one's beliefs about internally or externally designated task.

Sources of self-efficacy might be external or internal according to the relevant literature. Bandura (1997) states that self-efficacy may emanate from individual background of mastery as in previous successes and failures, socially articulated attempts of persuasion which may result in one's encouragement or discouragement, learning from secondary sources through observation and physiological and psychological conditions including positive or negative emotions regarding a particular task. More specifically for language learning contexts, Zuo and Wang (2016) argue that self-efficacy may be caused by prior performance, peer and/or advisor effect, social-persuasive attempts, affective and physiological disposition, perceived language proficiency, experience and the perceived strenuousness of tasks and enthusiasm. Although the sources of self-efficacy are reported to be predominantly similar in both studies, it appears that perceived proficiency and task difficulty may interfere with the level of self-efficacy in the language learning context.

The development of self-efficacy beliefs may also be influenced by the culture by which one is surrounded. Oettingen (1995) elaborates on the effect of culture on self-efficacy by putting forth that members of different cultures may be exposed to self-efficacy sources in

varying levels and information with respect to self-efficacy beliefs may be conveyed in divergent forms in different cultures. Moreover, Oettingen (1995) argues that the perceived value of a particular source of self-efficacy may be dissimilar across cultures. Oettingen's (1995) argument regarding the interplay between culture and self-efficacy is also confirmed by Klassen (2004), who conclude that collectivistic and individualistic cultures have different perceptions of self-efficacy. In other words, the literature suggests that culture appears to have a role in how self-efficacy is perceived and communicated, also bearing potential to be defined separately for different contexts.

Numerous studies point to the influence of self-efficacy beliefs in terms of the cognitive and psychological aspects of language learning as well as achievement, as a higher level of self-efficacy triggers increased engagement in cognitive, motivational and behavioral processes involved in learning (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). For instance, Li and Wang (2010) show that learners with a higher level of self-efficacy are better self-regulators of their learning. Similarly, Anam and Stracke (2016) indicate that a higher self-efficacy among language learners result in better time management and goal setting as well as more efficient use of learning strategies. On the psychological level, Graham (2006), Hsieh and Shallert (2008) and Hsieh and Kang (2010) reveal that learners with a higher level of self-efficacy demonstrate a higher perceived control over the outcomes of learning. In addition, Mills, Pajares and Herron (2007) find out among a group of French learners that the level of perceived self-concept and value of French are influenced by the learners' level of self-efficacy. In a later study, Mills (2014) concludes that developing self-efficacy among language learners helps them develop confidence with respect to the acquisition of a foreign language. In the same study, Mills (2014) discovers that learners with a higher level of self-efficacy can cope more efficiently with language learning anxiety. Regarding achievement, Mills et al. (2007) portray that a higher level of achievement is observed among the learners with a high level of self-efficacy. Parallel

to Mills et al. (2007), Hsieh and Kang (2010) report that the level of self-efficacy predicts the level of task achievement among language learners. In regard to language skills, Naseri and Ghanbanchi (2014) and Shang (2011) state that a higher performance in reading is demonstrated by language learners with a higher level of self-efficacy. Chen (2007) and Kazemi, Khodabandehlou and Jahandar (2013) note that the level of self-efficacy is positively correlated with L2 listening skills. Speaking skills are also found to be positively correlated with the level of self-efficacy by Briggs (2016) and Aaker and Dehghannezhad (2015). With respect to writing skills, Chae (2013) reveals a positive correlation between self-efficacy and writing performance and Villalón, Mateos and Cuevas (2013) find that self-efficacy predicts L2 writing performance. Judging by the relevant literature, it can be said that self-efficacy beliefs of language learners may be taking part in the process of learning through cognitive, behavioral and psychological domains with a potential to influence the performance of learners.

A more specific form of self-efficacy, *writing self-efficacy* is one's belief in his/her ability to accomplish a writing task at a desired level (Shell, Murphy & Bruning, 1989). Pajares (2006) provides a similar definition, stating that writing self-efficacy is a learner's evaluation of his/her own ability complete a writing task reaching the required level of success. Expanding on previous definitions, Pajares, Johnson and Usher (2007) clarify the concept of writing self-efficacy as one's appraisal of self-confidence with respect to syntax, written production, language use, spelling and punctuation. Having definitions which do not substantially differ from one another in content, writing self-efficacy is thought to have a mediating effect on writing performance (Pajares, 2006).

Writing self-efficacy is a noteworthy construct to attend to in educational contexts in general and language learning contexts specifically since it may influence learning outcomes in multiple ways. On the cognitive and behavioral levels, a higher level of writing self-efficacy may result in a lower intensity of writing metacognition (Lavelle & Guarino, 2003). Contrary

to Lavalle and Guarino's (2003) findings, Schunk and Zimmermann (2007) reveal that the level of writing self-efficacy is positively correlated with learner self-regulation, manifesting itself as more efficient engagement in writing processes as well as strategy use and control over one's affect. Moreover, Schunk and Zimmermann (2007) conclude that learners with a higher level of writing self-efficacy get involved in writing processes such as planning, revising or evaluating more frequently. In another study, Lavelle (2006) finds out that more efficacious learners tend to consider writing as a challenge and thus, they are observed to put more effort in solving the problems encountered during writing. Blasco's (2016) findings are confirmative of those of Lavelle (2006) in terms of showing that more efficacious learners are less inclined to procrastinate, being more attentive towards the requirements of the given task. In relation to writing psychology, Pajares (2003), Cheng (2004) and Yavuz-Erkan and İflazoğlu-Saban (2011) report that writing self-efficacy is negatively correlated with writing apprehension and more efficacious learners tend to demonstrate more determination to complete the writing task. Regarding performance, Woodrow (2011) and Hang (2013) conclude that writing self-efficacy is a predictor of writing performance. On this matter, Pajares, Johnson and Usher (2007) add that the constructor continues to be a predictor of writing performance after controlling for prior writing performance and writing competence. In a more recent study, Chea and Shumow (2014) find out that writing self-efficacy is positively correlated with essay writing achievement. In a study with more specific focus, Hetthong and Teo (2013) note that writing self-efficacy is a predictor of paragraph writing and the subskills related to writing. In short, writing self-efficacy seems to be playing an important role in writing in cognitive, behavioral and performance levels, altering the processes that are used and emotions that are felt by learners.

Even though the number of studies investigating the interaction between writing self-efficacy and GBI are not too many in number, it is possible to come across with some studies in the relevant literature. For example, Early and De Costa (2011) implement GBI in order to

teach the genre features of college admission essays to 41 12th grade students in a quasi-experimental design and their findings indicate that GBI increased the level of writing self-efficacy among their participants. Similarly, Viriya (2016) tests the effects of genre-awareness instruction in a pre-experimental design with 27 undergraduate students who take an English course at a university in Thailand and conclude that genre-awareness instruction may increase the level of writing self-efficacy. In a more comprehensive study with 174 middle school students in a concurrent mixed methods design, Han and Hiver (2018) test the effectiveness of GBI for the teaching of personal recount as a genre, which is a common genre in middle school contexts. Their results show that the writing self-efficacy levels of their participants have increased as a result of the GBI intervention.

Considering all the studies reviewed, one's beliefs about his or her potential to complete a given task, referred to as self-efficacy, appears to play a role in language learning having perceived proficiency and task difficulty in addition to the sources that are common for general self-efficacy. Having cognitive, behavioral and performance-related manifestations which may interfere with processes, self-efficacy seems to be an important variable in producing a written text in a second or foreign language, too.

Anxiety and L2 Writing

A well-documented construct related to learner personality, which has been widely studied in both theoretical and applied domains and have been shown to interact with language learning processes is foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, 2000). Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) define foreign language anxiety as a system of emotions, behaviors, discernments and beliefs with respect to learning a language in the classroom. Placing focus on the language ability, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define the construct as the feeling of perturbation which a learner undergoes when there is a necessity to use a language with which the learner lacks full proficiency. Laying emphasis on the feelings experienced as a result of anxiety, Brown (2001)

specifies foreign language anxiety as experiencing disturbance, restlessness, apprehension, dubiousness, exasperation and tension in a second or foreign language context. Being a situation-specific type of anxiety (MacIntyre, 1998), foreign language anxiety is composed of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986).

According to Brown (2007), language anxiety may play facilitating or debilitating roles. Facilitative anxiety enables the learner complete a given task by providing the learner with an optimum level of tension that aids in engaging in that particular task, giving the learner energy to participate and evade avoidance behavior. Brown, Robson and Rosenkjar's (2001) findings are supportive of the existence of facilitative anxiety, showing that learners with a higher level of anxiety score higher in tests. On the other hand, Brown (2007) states that debilitative anxiety is linked to negative feelings and it has a potential to impede learning by causing avoidance behavior in language learning contexts. On the facilitative/debilitative functions of anxiety, Horwitz (1990) argue that foreign language anxiety has a primarily debilitating function and it may function facilitatively only in the completion of undemanding tasks.

The causes of anxiety are documented and summarized by Young (1991) as six factors associated with one another in terms of the learner, the teacher and the instruction. Young maintains that language anxiety is caused by personal and interpersonal anxiety, learners' and instructors' beliefs about learning languages, learner-teacher interaction, line of action in the classroom and testing. Zhang and Zhong (2012) adds a societal level to Young's (1991) classification, classifying the sources of anxiety as the learner, the classroom, the skill being learned/practiced and the society. Elaborating on their classification, Zhang and Zhong (2012) claim that anxiety may stem from the learners due to their imprecise beliefs, non-viable standards, perceived ineptness and uneasiness in the case of being evaluated. Classroom-related anxiety, on the other hand, may be rooted in the nature of interaction with instructors, other

learners or classroom procedures. Skill-specific anxiety might arise out of the skill being practiced or learned due to the learners' feelings of shame and hesitation because of his/her accent in speaking, lack of self-perceived competence in writing or facing an unknown culture in reading and listening. Lastly, a society which is in favor of identity construction, parental involvement or cultural implications may cause language anxiety (Zhang & Zhong, 2012). Although two classifications may look different, it should be noted that both of them include the learner, the teacher and the learning context as the sources of foreign language anxiety.

As to the effects of foreign language anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) put forth that physical, psychological, cognitive and behavioral effects can be observed. The physical effects of language anxiety may incorporate unwanted perspiration in palms and feet, the feeling of a dry mouth and an increased heart rate while the psychological effects may involve feelings of mortification and discomposure (Horwitz et al., 1986). With regards to the psychological effects, Clement, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) add that learners who experience language anxiety may also experience a decreased level of self-confidence and self-esteem. On the cognitive side, language anxiety may negatively affect the processing and comprehension of input as well as the production of output (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 1999). Lastly, behavioral effects of language anxiety may result in avoidance of the learning task completely or partially and disengagement from communication (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Regarding the behavioral effects of anxiety, Ely (1986) points out that a reduced amount of participation may be observed among the learners with a high level of language anxiety. From the literature relevant to the effects of anxiety, it can be inferred that a reducing the level of anxiety may result in highly positive learning outcomes.

In the case of L2 writing, it is possible to mention writing anxiety as a separate construct, which is a form of anxiety that is peculiarly experienced during writing in a second or foreign language (Bline, Lowe, Meixner, Nouri and Pearce, 2001). Defining the construct through its

visible outcomes, Thompson (1980) specifies that writing anxiety is manifested as an incapacity in writing and an inability to concentrate on the process of writing as a result of experiencing fear over the written product. Providing a more detailed definition, Bloom (1985) articulates that writing anxiety is "a label for one or a combination of feelings, beliefs, or behaviors that interfere with a person's ability to start, work on, or finish a given writing task that he or she is intellectually capable of doing" (p. 121). In all the definitions, it is possible to see that writing anxiety is specific for the skill of writing and experiencing it may result in unwanted outcomes which may negatively affect both the process and the product of the act of writing.

Several causes of writing anxiety have been reported in the literature. According to Heaton and Pray (1982), Writing Anxiety can be the result of delimitation in terms of the time for planning, writing and revising, lack of quality instruction, skills and practice in brainstorming, organizing ideas and mechanics or negative remarks of the teacher. Referring to the learner-centered sources of writing anxiety, Clark (2005) identifies fear of evaluation, negative self-perception as a writer, lacking knowledge or comprehension regarding the task and perceiving writing as a difficult task to accomplish. Abdel-Latif (2007) provides a more detailed list as to the sources of writing anxiety stating that it is negatively affected by low levels in one's linguistic knowledge, perceived writing development, self-esteem and writing self-efficacy as well as prior achievements in writing, the nature of instruction that is received, fear of evaluation and criticism. Abdel-Latif's (2007) prior achievement in writing argument is also supported by Houp (2009), who suggest that early L2 writing experiences may influence the level of writing anxiety. Related findings have been obtained by Cheng (2002) and Hyland (2003), who conclude that writing anxiety may stem from lack of one's self-confidence in L2 writing as well as the learner's capability to make use of English language appropriately to convey the intended message. Taking the relevant literature into account, it can be said that the causes of writing anxiety may be rooted in the learner, the teacher or the instruction received.

The effects of experiencing writing anxiety can be categorized as behavioral, psychological and performance-related. On the behavioral side, a widely reported effect is avoidance, which may take the form of failure to hand in assignments or complete tasks or simply avoiding participating in writing activities in the learning context (Daly & Miller, 1975; Kamaruddin, 2009; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2001; Rankin-Brown, 2006). According to Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2001), learners with a high level of writing anxiety demonstrate procrastination behavior and Wiltz (2006) states that procrastination may continue even after graduation when the learner is faced with tasks which include writing. According to Cheng (2002), avoidance behavior may manifest itself so severely that some learners may avoid majors which is thought to involve an extensive amount of writing. In terms of the psychological effects, Daly and Miller (1975) indicate that writing anxiety may cause a fear of negative evaluation, a finding also confirmed by Rankin-Brown (2006), and an expectation of failure. Lee and Krashen (1997) report that learners with a higher level of writing anxiety may feel discouraged to revise or edit texts. Kamaruddin (2009) points out that motivation regarding task completion might be negatively affected by high levels of writing anxiety. With regards to the performance-related effects of writing anxiety, Onwuegbuzi (1997) suggests that writing quality may be affected by the level of writing anxiety. Hassan (2001) confirms Onwuegbuzi (1997) by revealing that learners with a lower level of writing anxiety demonstrate a higher level of writing quality in their texts. Martinez, Kack and Cass (2011) state that higher education students' scores in their writing courses are negatively affected by their perceived levels of writing anxiety. In a similar context, Kim (2006) finds out that learners with a higher level of writing anxiety receive lower final grades. Investigating the textual manifestation of writing anxiety, Popovich and Masse (2005) conclude that learners with a higher level of anxiety tend to produce less complex structures in their writing. In a like manner, Onwuegbuzi and Collins (2001) note that shorter, more underdeveloped, ambiguous texts also lacking accuracy are

produced by learners with a high level of writing anxiety. In short, writing anxiety appears to induce avoidance behavior and emotions like fear and discomfort among learners, which also affect their writing performance in both formal educational settings and after graduation.

At this point, it is important to note that fear of (negative) evaluation is reported in the literature both as a cause and an effect of writing anxiety. However, this should not be taken as conflicting because, as Lee and Krashen (2002) suggest, variables related to L2 writing may not only be leading to one another but interacting with one another reciprocally. In other words, the seemingly conflicting findings regarding the fear of evaluation in the literature may be suggesting that there is a multi-way relationship among the constructs which take place during the act of writing.

To the researcher's knowledge, the only study which tests the effects of GBI on writing anxiety is that of Han and Hiver (2018), which attempts to find out if GBI is a useful method to teach the genre of personal recount to middle school students. In this study, the authors also find out that GBI increases the level of writing anxiety among middle school students as their participants.

As a conclusion, anxiety appears to be an influential factor in the language learning experience since it interacts with numerous variables partaking in the process and writing anxiety is no less important for learning L2 writing. Having behavioral, psychological and contextual causes, writing anxiety appears to be interfering with learner in the behavioral and psychological domains, which in turn influence the learner's performance. Both affecting and being affected by various variables, reducing writing anxiety might bring about positive outcomes in educational settings.

When all the individual differences are taken into account, L2 writing appears to be highly influenced by a number of factors which may be biological, cognitive or psychological.

Although contextual findings may conflict at times, all the factors reviewed as a part of individual differences seem to produce outcomes that may positively or negatively affect writing psychology and writing performance in a second or foreign language. Taking this into account, the study of individual differences within the context of L2 writing is likely to remain as a point of interest among researchers regardless of the findings obtained so far.

Measures of Writing Development

In addition to the processes, teaching and feedback approaches to writing and individual differences in regards to writing, Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) point to the need for identifying objective and comparable criteria to be utilized in the tracking of writing development, which is a large construct composed of many other constructs. Parallel to this, Drijbooms, Grown and Verhoeven (2017) state that making use of linguistic features such as structure, complexity and the amount of production in the assessment of writing quality is a commonly preferred method of tracking writing development. In this respect, Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) identify and suggest four valid, reliable, objective and measurable constructs within the domain of writing development, which are fluency, lexical complexity, linguistic accuracy and grammatical complexity.

Fluency in Writing

It is possible to encounter various definitions of writing fluency in the relevant literature. For instance, Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) define writing fluency as as the number of words or structures produced by a writer within a particular unit of time. Defining the construct through the learners' mastery over L2 knowledge, Housen and Kuiken (2009) state that writing fluency is manifested as the rate and facility of accessing L2-related information for communicative purposes. Putting special emphasis on the automaticity of production, Brand and Brand's (2006) definition maintains that the ability to complete tasks swiftly and accurately without expending abundant effort. The relevance of writing fluency with L2 writing is that a distinction between

skilled and unskilled L2 writers can be drawn thanks to the measure of writing fluency (Spellman-Miller, 2000). In other words, writing performance can be signaled by the fluency demonstrated by an L2 writer (McNamara, Crossley, Roscoe, 2013).

Several measures of writing fluency have been reported. Skehan (2003), for instance, defines writing fluency through the length of the text produced by the writer. Abdel-Latif (2013), on the other hand, divides the text into smaller units and proposes that the construct be measured through the length of t-units or sentences, which are also in direct connection with the number of words in a text. In a similar vein, Polio (2001) suggests that the amount of words, t-units or clauses can be used to measure writing fluency. Including the time differential in a similar measure, VanderMolen (2011) suggests that writing fluency can be computed through finding the total number of words or structures produced by the writer in a specific time period. In sum, it can be stated that the mean length of a selected unit or the total number of words in a text accounts for the fluency of the writer in writing while some of the measures also include time as a mediating variable.

Research studies on writing fluency with respect to GBI or the type of feedback are rather scarce. Yasuda (2011) studies the development of writing competence along with genre awareness with 70 Japanese undergraduate students in a 15-week genre-based writing course, in which formal e-mails were taught and written as pre and posttests. In this study, the results indicate that the writing course based on the Genre-Based Approach to writing had a positive effect in the level of writing fluency among the participants. Yasunaga (2017) has similar findings in a research study in which the aim was to track writing development among 7 Japanese undergraduate students who took a 14-week genre-based writing course which was implemented online. Having written 32 texts in sum, Yasunaga's (2017) participants demonstrate an increase in the levels of their writing fluency thanks to the intervention. Similarly, in an Iranian undergraduate English program, Naghdipour and Koç (2015) find that

GBI increases the level of writing fluency among the participants. However, there appears to be no study in the literature with particular respect to the effect of written corrective feedback on writing fluency.

In brief, writing fluency refers to the ease and speed of writing on behalf of the learner, which is thought to manifest L2 knowledge. However, it should also be kept in mind that, although writing fluency is acknowledged to be an indicator of development in writing, an isolated consideration of the construct for tracking development may be both inadequate and inaccurate due to the fact that it is always possible for a learner to hand in a written text which is solely the repetition of the same sentence, therefore, multiple measures should be taken into account for the monitoring of writing development (Fellner & Apple, 2006).

Lexical Complexity

Another measure with respect to writing development according to Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) is lexical complexity, which is advised to be encouraged among learners even more profoundly than linguistic accuracy (Polio & Shea, 2014). Unlike the other constructs mentioned in this chapter, lexical complexity is not a uniform construct and according to Johnson (2017), lexical complexity refers to two distinct but related constructs which are lexical sophistication, or the frequency of L2 learners' lexis in writing, and lexical density, the relative number of content words to the total number of words.

Lexical Density. Halliday (2004) argues that complexity in language is not a uniform construct since text types which are naturally complex such as technical texts cannot be evaluated in terms of their simplicity. For this reason, he proposes lexical density, which is the ratio between content words and function words to measure how much of the text is loaded with lexical items. Ure and Ellis (1977) adopt a similar definition of lexical density, stating the measure can be defined as the ratio of lexical words to grammatical words. A more recent definition by Johansson (2008) is also in line with that of Ure and Ellis's, indicating that lexical

density gives information regarding the relative number of lexical items to the text. Regarding the measure, Johansson (2008) adds that how much information is bundled within the text can be evaluated through a calculation of lexical density, denser texts containing more information and lighter texts containing less.

The definitions of lexical density also tend to contain the method of measurement in that the construct is defined through the proportion of content words to function words in the text (Halliday, 2007). However, Halliday also proposes that the number of lexemes in the clause indicates the lexical density, which may be a valid measure for all languages. Parallel to these measurements, Johansson (2008) suggests that lexical words should be divided by the number of orthographic words to reach the lexical density in the form of percentage. In brief, both the definitions and the proposed measurement methods of lexical density can be said to be pointing to the content word / function word ratio.

Like other constructs, lexical density is not prevalently studied with respect to GBI or the type of written corrective feedback. However, Brynes (2009) studies the effect of genre-based writing instruction in a college-level German writing program and observed the writing development of 14 participants over three consecutive courses in a mixed method study and the results indicate that the level of lexical density among the participants demonstrated an uphill trend over the course of three semesters. Similarly, Achugar and Colombi (2008) as well as Colombi (2002) also find out that the lexical density levels of undergraduate learners of Spanish in a composition course for 9 months through expository essays and concluded that a Genre-Based Approach to teaching writing improved lexical density along with writing skill. In addition, Achugar and Colombi (2008) investigate how a Genre-Based Approach to writing would influence undergraduate Spanish heritage language learners at a US university with different text types over 9 months and reveal that the approach has a positive effect on lexical density, resulting from the participants' desire to convey more information in their texts.

Moreover, Johansson (2008) states that the genre that is produced has a relationship with the level of lexical density in a text. Lastly, although there is no study with particular respect to feedback and lexical density, Robin (2016) puts forth that having the opportunity to revise a draft increases lexical density over time.

In sum, lexical density, which refers to the number of content words within a text relative to the number of function words and the measurement of the construct appears to be lying within the definition, which is a division of the number of content words by the number of function words. Being correlated with lexical sophistication but also a distinct construct (Šišková, 2012), lexical density should be separated from lexical sophistication within the domain of lexical complexity.

Lexical Sophistication. According to Crossley, Cobb and McNamara (2013), lexical sophistication refers to the frequency of words in a text with regards to a given reference-corpus and the increase in the use of low-frequency words in this corpus by the writer is considered to contribute positively to the lexical sophistication of the text. Kyle and Crossley (2015) confirm Crossley et al. (2013) by stating that the use of less frequent words make the text produced by the writer more sophisticated and vice versa. Both definitions can be said to bear emphasis on the frequency of the words and the use of lower-frequency words is considered to be a positive sign in terms of sophistication.

Keeping the definitions in mind, measures of lexical sophistication also focus on the frequency of the words relative to the total number of words. For instance, Laufer and Nation (1995) attempts to measure lexical sophistication through classifying words in four levels as the most frequent 1000 (K1), the second most frequent 1000 (K2), the Academic Word List by Coxhead (2000) and the rest of the words, which are considered to have the lowest frequency. In another study, Laufer (1995) proposes a combination of K1 and K2 lists, also labelling the rest of the words as beyond 2000 words, reducing lexical sophistication into two classes. Wolfe-

Quintero et al. (1998), on the other hand, suggests more formulaic computations of lexical sophistication and state that the construct can be measured through the number of sophisticated word types in the text divided by the total number of word types, which resembles Laufer and Nation's (1995) method, or the number of word types divided by the square root of two times the total number of words in a given text. Apparently, most measures of lexical sophistication consider the frequency of the words produced by the learner with respect to a reference corpus and the lower the frequency is, the higher the sophistication is. The only exception to this seems to be Wolfe-Quintero et al.'s (1998) formula which evaluates the sophistication using only the written text produced by the writer.

Lexical sophistication appears to be influenced by certain factors. According to Zheng (2012), lexical complexity develops at a rather slow pace and it is prone to plateauing once a certain proficiency level is reached by learners. Furthermore, Kalantari and Gholami (2017) argue that feedback with a lexical focus and the motivation to achieve a high stakes exam like TOEFL may boost lexical complexity development. Lastly, bilingual dictionaries may have a negative effect in the lexical choices of L2 writers along with their planning time (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008). In this respect, it can be said that time, lexically-oriented feedback and the use of bilingual dictionaries may affect the level of lexical sophistication.

Lexical sophistication is among the constructs that has not been studied in-depth with respect to GBI or feedback, however, it is possible to find a few related studies. For example, Caplan (2017) shows that the joint construction phase of GBI increases lexical sophistication among young adult learners of English in an intensive program with 119 young adults enrolled in an intensive English program through a quasi-experimental design. Moreover, Yıldız and Yeşilyurt (2017) find that text type and rhetorical mode influences the level of lexical sophistication. Lastly, the concepts of meaningfulness, concreteness and imageability of the

concepts related to a given task influence the level of lexical sophistication (Salsbury, Crossley & McNamara, 2011).

As a conclusion, lexical sophistication is an important measure of writing development indicating how many of sophisticated or less frequent words a writer uses in his or her text. Moreover, the construct also points to the number of lexical items which are general or context-specific within the learners' knowledge domain, which may make it possible to track writing development to a deeper extent (Kyle and Crossley, 2016). However, as mentioned earlier, lexical sophistication alone cannot account for the entirety of Lexical Complexity since a text may be high in sophistication but low in density, having more function words than content words. For this reason, lexical density should be separately investigated as a different form of Lexical Complexity (Halliday, 2004).

Linguistic Accuracy

Labelled as an easy construct to be defined (Polio, 2001), accuracy can be defined as the scarcity of errors in the language produced by a learner (Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998). or the absence of error in general (Foster & Skehan, 1996). The significance of linguistic accuracy lies in the fact that a researcher's cognizance of text production is increased through this particular measure since it extends beyond a few selected textual features and includes the analysis of error sources (Evans, Hartshorn, Cox, & de Jel, 2014). Considering the scope of linguistic accuracy into account, Polio and Shea (2014) identify linguistic accuracy as an integral part of writing quality.

Several methods of measurements in terms of linguistic accuracy can be found in the relevant literature. Polio (1997) suggests that computing the number of errors per words is a highly reliable method in the measurement of linguistic accuracy, but in a later study, she adds that holistic scales can also be used for the same purpose. Focusing on t-unit based measurements, Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) propose that linguistic accuracy be measured

through the calculation of error-free t-units per t-unit or the number of errors per t-unit. In a more recent study, Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum and Wolfersberger (2010) identify the methods of measuring linguistic accuracy as the number of error free t-units, the number of error-free clauses or the computation of weighted clause ratio which also takes into consideration the severity level of errors, whose decision is made with respect to the effect of the error on the comprehensibility of a structure (Wigglesworth & Foster, 2008). In line with its definitions, linguistic accuracy is suggested to be measured through the number of errors in the text including or excluding error severity.

Being an indicator of writing quality through the computation of variables regarding the errors in a particular text, Polio and Shea (2014) conclude that linguistic accuracy should be encouraged among learners even if intervention research findings may occasionally indicate an absence of development in accuracy since it may indirectly influence other constructs such as Lexical Complexity. In this respect, linguistic accuracy is considered to be an important measure of writing quality along with others.

Grammatical Complexity

Grammatical complexity can also be referred to as syntactic complexity (Chun, 1994; Dethorne, Johnson & Loeb, 2005; Struc and Wood, 2011). According to Lu (2011), this particular type of complexity denotes the sophisticatedness or diversity of forms in spoken or written production. Making an addition to Lu's definition, Yang, Lu and Weigle (2015) state that phrasal complexity is also an integral part of grammatical complexity because phrasal complexity can also signal syntactic maturity. Summarizing the definitions, Ortega (2015) indicates that syntactic complexity refers to both the scope and complicatedness of grammatical resources which are manifested in oral or written production. Ortega describes the construct further by adding that this particular type of complexity identifies the development of L2 with respect to the use of grammar for the fulfillment of the goals in communication. In this respect,

grammatical complexity seems to be an indicator of L2 development since development also encompasses the successful production of more uncommon features with a substantial diversity.

Similar to linguistic accuracy, multiple methods of measurement are proposed in the relevant literature for grammatical complexity. Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) suggests the computation of the number of clauses per t-unit or the number of dependent clauses per clause for the measurement of the construct. Reviewing the commonly preferred measures, Yang et al. (2015) refer to grammatical complexity as measured by the mean t-unit length, mean sentence length, mean clause length and the number of clauses per t-unit. Briefly, it can be seen in the literature that the grammatical complexity of a text can be measured through the number of clauses or the length of certain textual units.

Being a crucial component of writing quality, which also has the potential to predict later development of language among children (Nippold, 2007), grammatical complexity can be increased through contributing to the goal-orientedness among learners and encouraging them to inhibit hurried reactions to minor problems (Quinlan, Loncke, Leijten, & Van Waes, 2012). It should also be considered in terms of grammatical complexity that learners of varying L1 backgrounds may exhibit differences in their developmental patterns with high-proficient writers being more advantaged in the development of grammatical complexity (Lu, 2015). Since the construct appears to be an integral part of writing quality which may be affected by the L1 writing proficiency of the writer, grammatical complexity is considered to signal writing development among learners.

Measurements of linguistic accuracy, grammatical complexity, fluency and lexical complexity appear to cover a large extent of writing development in that a learner's ability to use language with sufficient syntactic variety and the rate of production including lexical richness appears to be contributors to overall writing quality. in the case of lexical complexity, however, it should be kept in mind that both lexical sophistication and lexical density have a

potential to signal development and it is also possible to use both variables together (Palfreyman & Karaki, 2017). Having several methods of measurement each, the objectivity and comparability of these constructs appear to have a potential to make possible the pursuit of writing development in L2.

Chapter Summary

In the second chapter of the study, the literature relevant to L2 writing was reviewed with respect to the processes involved and individual differences in L2 writing as well as the teaching of L2 writing and written corrective feedback in order to establish the variables that may interact with the outcomes of the research. While doing so, the section also addressed the gap in the literature with respect to the lack of empirical studies which deal with the performance-related and psychological effects of GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The methodology of the study is presented in the third chapter. Initially, details regarding the research design are given in relation to educational science and social science literature. The presentation of the research design is followed by the introduction of the participants of the study together with their features relevant to the study. Next, the data collection instruments of the study are explained in detail, including their adaptation processes, validity and reliability issues separately for each instrument under their dedicated subtitles. The introduction of the instruments precedes the procedures involved in the intervention of the study, which are presented one by one as the procedures of GBI and feedback. The final subsection of the methodology includes the analysis of the data. The results of the tests for the assumptions of parametric analyses are also presented in that subsection.

Research Design

An embedded mixed methods design was adopted to meet the purposes of the study. According to Creswell (2014), this particular type of design embeds one or more forms of data into a larger design such as an experiment. In embedded mixed methods design, qualitative data can be collected before, during and/or after an experiment, which typically aims to test the effects of an intervention or a program in a real-world context. This type of a design can be utilized when the researcher is interested in the interpretation of experimental results in the light of the perspectives of the participants and it helps the researcher understand their opinions related to and within the context of the intervention (Creswell, 2014). A graphical expression of the embedded mixed method design is given below in Figure 2.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Quantitative (or Qualitative)          │
│                                          │
│   Quantitative (or Qualitative)          │
│                                          │
│   Data Collection and Analysis (QUAN or  │
│ QUAL)                                     │
│   ┌──────────────────────────────┐       │
│   │   Qualitative (or Quantitative) │    │
│   │                                │      │
│   │   Data Collection and Analysis │      │
│   │                                │      │
│   │   (Before, during or after)(quan or qual) │
│   └──────────────────────────────┘       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
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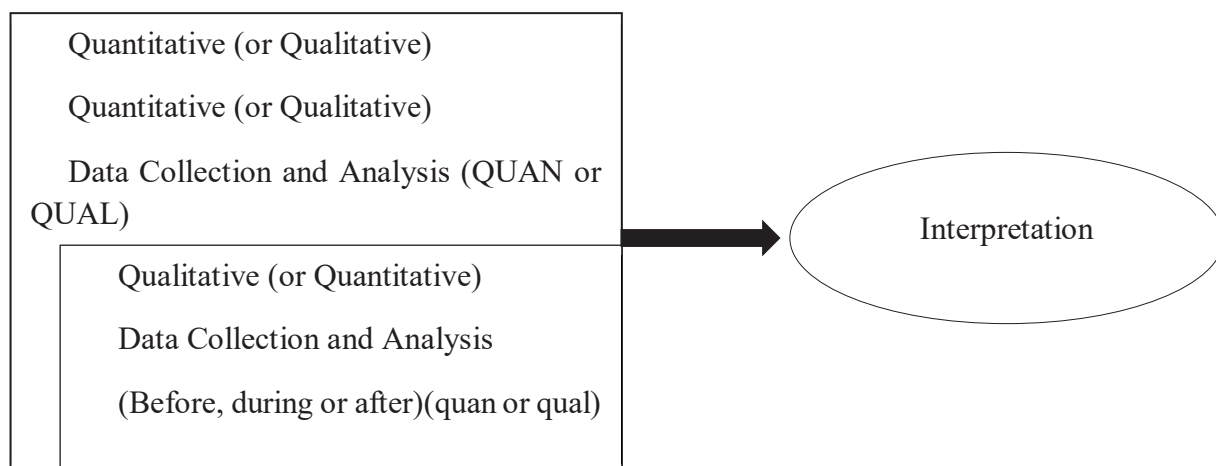
Figure 2. The Embedded Mixed Methods Design (Creswell, 2014, p. 272).

To make comparisons with respect to the variables of interest for the entire group of participants, a one-group repeated measures design was used since differences among the participants of a study over time are among the uses of repeated measures designs. In addition, repeated measures designs are more advantageous when the number of available participants is relatively low and they are also more sensitive to the effects of independent variables as the design utilizes identical groups for measurements over time, resulting is less variation within participants. Lastly, due to the fact that the independent variables are measured among the same participants in each measurement, no confounding effect of individual differences is possible with a repeated measures design, which contributes to internal validity to a large extent (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister and Zechmeister, 2012). In this respect, a quantitative one-group repeated measures design was utilized in order to find out if the GBI procedure has an effect on the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, writing attitude, writing self-efficacy, writing anxiety, writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density.

Another aim of the study was to find out if the type of feedback received as 'Hand-Holding' or 'Bridging' had an effect on the aforementioned variables, which necessitated a factorial design. According to Shaughnessy et al. (2012), factorial (complex) designs make use of the simultaneous investigation of two or more independent variables, which makes use of their combinations by pairing each level of an independent variable with each level of another

independent variable. An advantage of factorial designs is that they allow for the scrutiny of the effects of both individual independent variables and a combination of those effects (Shaughnessy, et al., 2012). Taking the descriptions into consideration, an experimental 2x3 factorial design: Feedback Type [Hand-Holding, Bridging] x Time [Pretest, Midtest, Posttest] with randomization in two feedback groups was developed to find out if the type of feedback as 'Hand-Holding' or 'Bridging' had an effect on the same variables over time.

The qualitative data collected within the context of the study was handled exploratorily and descriptively in order to disclose the teacher and participant reflections and opinions related to the procedure and the variables of the study with the aim of making sense of the quantitative findings with the aid of their quantitative counterparts as suggested by Creswell (2014) for Embedded Mixed Method Designs.

Research Context

The study took place in the English Language Teaching (ELT) department of Trakya University, Edirne, Turkey and the GBI procedure was implemented throughout the English Literature course, which was compulsory for all 2nd year ELT students in Turkey by the time the research study was conducted.

Within the English Language Teacher Education context in Turkey, English Literature I and English Literature involve an abundance of reading and writing by their nature based on learning about and interpreting previously written texts. Due to time restrictions and with the purpose of not overloading the students with the requirements of a single course, most writing within the English Literature course takes place in the form of argumentative/expository essays which require the students analyse a specific theme or character within a literary work and are not longer than a few pages. In those essays, it has been observed that many students have problems in the forming of a thesis statement, the organization of paragraphs and the nominalization of concepts and many students appear to have a tendency to write a summary

of the literary work to be analysed, in a way that resembles the narrative text type explicated by Halliday (1985) and contradicts with the "expository break from narrating events" (Mosenthal, 1985), no matter what the essay prompt is (Hinkel, 2002; Reppen, 1995; Uzun, 2016), although the prompts typically require the students to elaborate on how a theme, concept or the given features of a character are handled in a literary work. Moreover, narrating events instead of discussing how themes or characters are presented in a literary text results in problems in stating an idea related to the literary text and supporting that idea (Crowhurst, 1990) and recounting knowledge without stating it first to serve a rhetorical purpose (English, 1999) as the entire text, which is expected to have an interpretative purpose, eventually becomes the narration of a storyline. Taking these problems which have been documented in the literature into account, the 2nd year English Literature course within the ELT department of Trakya University was considered suitable for the purposes of the research and chosen as the research site.

Participants of the Pilot Study

A pilot study was initially conducted for the adaptation of the scales to be used in the main study. In this part, the participants were 153 undergraduate students who studied at the same department but were not going to participate in the main study. As the participants who were going to participate in the main study were in their first year of studies during the pilot study, only those who were in the second, third and fourth years of studies were included in the pilot study. Among those, 80 participants were in the second year, 41 were in the third year and 30 were in the fourth year of studies. The participants of the pilot study were between 19 and 33 years old with an average of 21.79 ($SD = 2.19$). 105 of the pilot study participants were female and 48 of them were male.

Participants of the Main Study

The participants of the quantitative part of the main study were 78 2nd year ELT students in Trakya University, Edirne, Turkey. They were aged between 18 and 36 with a mean age of

20.37 (*SD* = 2.37). 49 (62.82%) participants were female and 29 (37.18%) of them were male. The perceived language proficiency levels of the participants were also of a varying nature in that five participants (6.41%) reported their proficiency level as C2, 17 participants (21.79%) as C1, 44 participants (56.41%) as B2, 10 participants (12.82%) as B1 and two participants (2.56%) as A2. None of the participants reported A1 as his or her English proficiency level. The mean length of learning English at the onset of the study was 111.08 months (*SD* = 42.94) and they had an average GPA of 2.84/4.00 (*SD* = 0.41) in the same period. 29 participants had taken the English preparatory year in their first year and 49 had passed the B1 level exemption exam, qualifying to take the ELT courses from the first year of studies.

From the aforementioned 78 participants, two feedback groups for 'Hand-Holding' and 'Bridging' were formed by randomizing participants according to their pretest literary analysis essay scores. Preliminary analysis showed that the distribution of the pretest scores were normal (*SW* = .984, *df* = 78, *p* = .454). Following the test of normality, a t-test was run on the data to find out if there was a difference between the feedback groups according to their pretest scores. The results are shown below in Table 3.

Table 3

Comparison of the Pretest Essay Scores According to Feedback Type

Feedback Type	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Hand-Holding	40	29.53	15.21	-0.57	76	.57
Bridging	38	31.39	13.86			

According to the t-test results, the feedback groups were equal, having no statistically significant difference in terms of their pretest essay scores, which were 29.53 (*SD* = 15.21) for the Hand-Holding group and 31.39 (*SD* = 13.86) for the Bridging group (*t* = -0.57, *df* = 76, *p* > .05).

To participate in the semi-structured interviews, 20 of the 78 participants volunteered. Some of the features of those participants along with their participant codes are provided below in Table 4.

Table 4

Codes and Information Regarding the Interview Participants

Participant Code	Age	Gender	Feedback Group
P1	20	Female	Bridging
P2	21	Male	Handholding
P3	21	Female	Bridging
P4	20	Female	Bridging
P5	19	Female	Bridging
P6	19	Female	Handholding
P7	22	Male	Handholding
P8	21	Male	Bridging
P9	29	Male	Handholding
P10	19	Female	Handholding
P11	19	Female	Bridging
P12	20	Male	Handholding
P13	19	Female	Handholding
P14	19	Male	Bridging
P15	20	Female	Handholding
P16	21	Female	Bridging
P17	22	Male	Bridging
P18	26	Male	Bridging
P19	21	Male	Handholding
P20	21	Female	Bridging

As seen in Table 4, 11 participants were female and nine participants were male among the interview participants. In addition, nine participants among those received 'Hand-Holding' and 11 participants received 'Bridging' as the type of feedback throughout the study.

Data Collection

Since multiple variables were to be scrutinized within the context of the study, several data collection instruments were administered within the context of the study. In order to measure the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, the Genre-Based Literary Analysis

Essay Scoring Rubric (GBLAESR) was developed by the researcher and participants essays and their revised versions were collected on a weekly basis by means of Turnitin, which is a web-based plagiarism prevention software application. Writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety were measured by means of rating scales. The rating scales were given to the participants in the form of a hyperlink to be completed in the classroom on Google Forms via their mobile phones and internet connection. Lexical density, lexical complexity and writing fluency, on the other hand, were calculated using Lexical Complexity Analyzer (Ai & Lu, 2010; Lu, 2012), a web-based piece of software. Student perceptions were attempted to be revealed by means of one-to-one interviews and structured reflection papers, while the teacher perceptions were investigated through weekly entries in the teacher's diary. The collection of data is visualized and presented below in Figure 3.
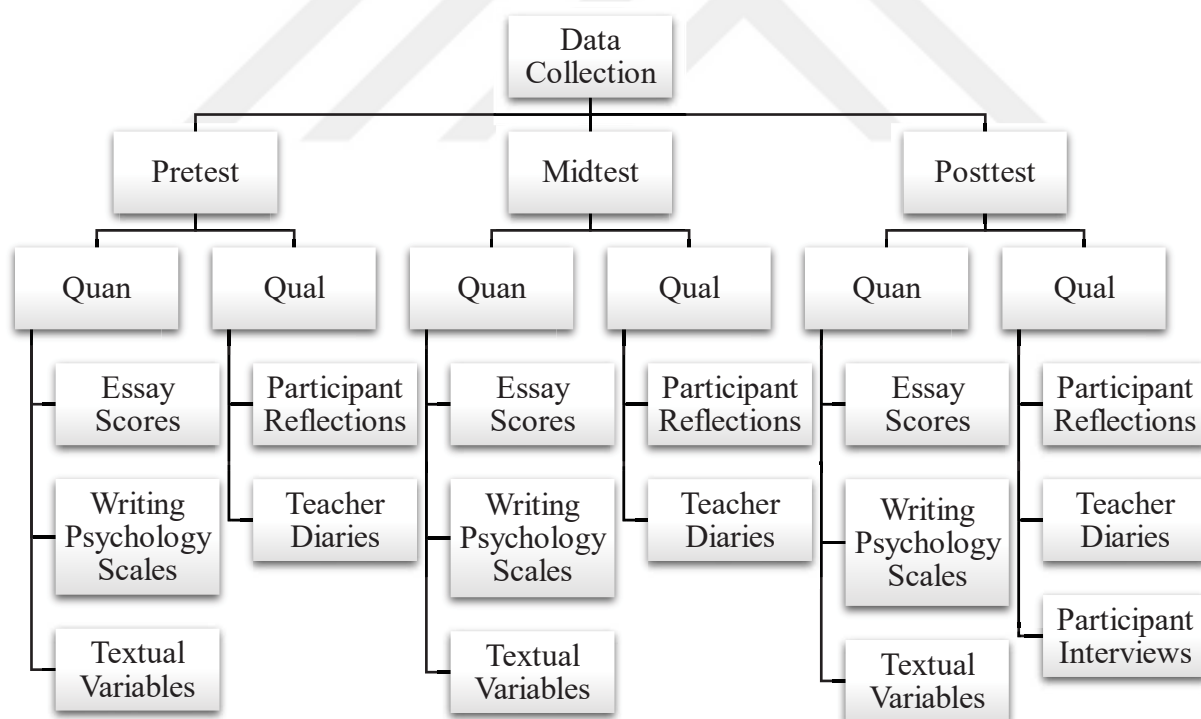
Figure 3. Data Collection Techniques and Tools.

Genre-Based Literary Analysis Essay Scoring Rubric

GBLAESR (APPENDIX A) was developed by the researcher in order to measure the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, since, to the researcher's knowledge, there was no such rubric available in the literature. In this respect, the rhetorical moves proposed by Uzun (2016) to be present in undergraduate literary analysis essays were taken as the basis of the rubric.

The criteria to assess performance through the rhetorical moves proposed by Uzun (2016) were formed by using the Delphi Technique for three rounds with four instructors of English who had experience in the teaching of writing skills within the same context from three to seven years. In the first round, the instructors were asked to describe the best and the worst performance for each rhetorical move in their own words and to state the percentage that each rhetorical move should constitute in the overall assessment of an essay.

Following the first round, the data collected from the instructors was qualitatively analysed along with the score weight percentage suggestions and re-delivered to the instructors for a second round in the form of a 4-point rating scale for the evaluation of each criteria in terms of their suitability for assessing a literary analysis essay. Moreover, the score weight distribution suggestions which were not equal were also re-submitted to the instructors, this time with the average of the suggestions made. In this round, the responses 1 and 2 were combined and coded as 'Unsuitable' while 3 and 4 were combined and coded as 'Suitable' to see the level of consensus. The criteria on which the instructors reached consensus were either kept or excluded from the performance descriptors depending on its code as 'Suitable' or 'Unsuitable'. However, due to the fact that there were a few criteria as well as score weight distributions on which consensus could not be reached, a third round was considered necessary by the researcher.

In the third round, only the score weight distributions and the performance criteria on which there was no consensus was delivered to each of the instructors with the second averages and they were asked to restate their opinion or make changes if they desired to do so. The third-round analyses revealed that consensus was reached both in terms of the score distributions and the performance criteria, which formed the best and worst performance descriptors.

In order to demonstrate additional levels of performance through rubric scores, three intermediary (2nd, 3rd and 4th) levels of performance descriptors were written by the researcher and their validity was sought for with 23 instructors of English who had 3 to 27 years of teaching experience. The instructors were given the context and the rhetorical moves in the order that they would occur in literary analysis essays. The performance descriptors, however, were given in a random order to be logically ordered by the instructors participating in the study. Agreement among the ordering responses were sought for using Fleiss' Kappa, which showed that the descriptors were ordered as intended with 94% agreement with a significant Kappa value ($K = .92$, $Z = .94.90$, $p < .001$).

Upon the completion of formatting GBLAESR for face validity on MS Word, a rater manual which included relevant information regarding the aim, content and scoring system of the rubric along with three anchor texts representing low, mediocre and high performance levels were prepared and given to another instructor of English, who had 28 years of teaching experience in the Turkish higher education context, together with 30 literary analysis essays written in the same context. A rater training session organized by the researcher which took approximately two hours was held with this instructor to familiarize him with both the literary analysis essay as a genre and GBLAESR. Subsequent to the second scoring of the 30 literary essays already scored by the researcher beforehand, the scores were compared with the following criteria for inter-rater reliability and the results are displayed below in Table 5.

Table 5

Interrater Reliability Coefficients

Item	Spearman's rho	Cronbach's α	Kendall's W	Robinson's A
Rubric Score	.84 ($p < .001$)	.94	.92 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 53.20$)	.94
Background Info	.84 ($p < .001$)	.88	.92 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 53.40$)	.89
Thesis Statement	.85 ($p < .001$)	.91	.92 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 53.60$)	.92
Presenting Arguments	.73 ($p < .001$)	.87	.86 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 50.10$)	.89
Supporting Arguments	.72 ($p < .001$)	.84	.86 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 49.90$)	.86
Concluding Arguments	.76 ($p < .001$)	.85	.88 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 50.90$)	.87
Consolidation	.79 ($p < .001$)	.85	.90 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 51.90$)	.87
Stating Opinions	.82 ($p < .001$)	.91	.91 ($p = .01$, $\chi^2 = 52.90$)	.91

As a result of the analyses whose results are presented in Table 5, it was concluded that GBLAESR was a valid and reliable rubric to measure genre-based literary analysis essay scoring performance.

To test the reliability of the data set which was produced in the intervention and used for analyses, an English teacher with an MA degree and five years of teaching experience was asked to score 30% of the essays randomly selected from within the pretest, midtest and posttest data. The same essays as scored by the researcher for the present study were also used to create a subset of data for reliability analyses. Preliminary analyses showed that both subsets of data were normally distributed with an *A* of .658 and a *p* of .082 for the researcher's subset and an *A* of .620 and a *p* of .103 for the second rater's subset, allowing for parametric reliability analyses, such as the computation of an Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC). The results indicated a good level of interrater reliability with a single measure ICC of .790 and a confidence interval of 95% from .690 to .861 ($F(77, 77) = 8.540$, $p < .001$).

Writing Attitude

Writing attitude among the participants was measured by means of the Writing Attitude Scale (WAS) developed by Erdoğan (2013) in the Turkish higher education context. WAS is a

5-point Likert scale in which responses are provided by the test takers as 1 (Completely Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Undecided), 4 (Agree) and 5 (Completely Agree). The scale measures a single construct, namely attitudes towards writing, with 18 items, 10 of which are worded positively and 8 of which are worded negatively. Erdoğan (2013) states that WAS is a valid and reliable tool for the measurement of writing attitudes with a Cronbah's Alpha coefficient of .92.

WAS was piloted and subjected to exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Initial maximum likelihood analyses on the data with Promax rotation revealed that items 15 and 16 were loaded on two factors with a difference that was less than .10, therefore, they were excluded one by one to repeat the analyses. Exclusion of those items resulted in a single-factor scale with 16 items (APPENDIX B), whose factor structure was confirmed as valid for its own context by means of a confirmatory factor analysis with a CMIN/DF of .969, P of .860, CMIN of 79.438, DF of 82, GFI of .940, NFI of .954, NNFI (TLI) of 1.002, CFI of 1.000, IFI of 1.002 and RMSEA of .000. The reliability of the scale was sought for by computing the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, resulting in .909 for the pretest, .924 for the midtest and .925 for the posttest, indicating excellent reliability for all measurements.

Writing Self-Efficacy

Writing self-efficacy levels of the participants was measured by using the Self-efficacy in Writing Inventory (SEWI), developed and validated within the Turkish context by Yavuz-Erkan (2004). SWEI is a 21-item rating scale to complete which participants rate statements as 1 (I cannot do it at all.), 2 (I can't do it well), 3 (I can do it) or 4 (I can do it very well). The scale has a five-factor structure which are named as 'Content' (α = .88), 'Design' (α = .80), 'Unity' (α = .77), 'Accuracy' (α = .74) and 'Punctuation' (α = .50). According to its author, SEWI is a valid and reliable measurement of Writing Self-Efficacy.

SEWI was also piloted within the context of the study. According to the results of maximum likelihood analyses with Varimax rotation as proposed by its developer, items 1, 3, 4, 5, 11, 13, 16, 18 and 20 either had a factor loading below .30 or loaded on two factors simultaneously with a difference in loadings that was smaller than .10, therefore, they were excluded from the scale. The adapted 12-item version of SEWI (APPENDIX C) produced a 3-factor structure which could be named as Content (Items 6, 9, 12, 21), Organization (Items 2, 8, 10, 17, 19) and Accuracy (7, 14, 15). Confirmatory factor analysis indicated acceptable results for the 12-item version of SEWI with a CMIN/DF of 1.381, P of .043, CMIN of 64.909, DF of 47, GFI of .937, NFI of .926, NNFI (TLI) of .969, CFI of .978, IFI of .978 and RMSEA of .050. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients confirmed the reliability of the scale with .877 for the pretest, .895 for the midtest and .926 for the posttest.

Writing Anxiety

For the measurement of writing anxiety, Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI), developed by Cheng (2004) was utilized. SLWAI is a 22-item 5-point Likert scale the responses to which range from 'Strongly Disagree' (1) to 'Strongly Agree' (5). The scale has three subscales, namely Somatic Anxiety, Avoidance Behavior and Cognitive Anxiety. According to Cheng (2004), SLWAI is a valid and reliable measurement of writing anxiety with a reliability coefficient of .91 for the scale, .88 for Somatic Anxiety, .88 for Avoidance Behavior and .83 for Cognitive Anxiety subscales. SLWAI is widely used also within the Turkish context, in which studies report reliable findings with Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of .89 (Kırmızı & Kırmızı, 2015), .84 (Yastıbaş & Yastıbaş, 2015), .84 (Kurt & Atay, 2007) and .89 (Öztürk & Saydam, 2014).

The pilot study, however, revealed a different factor structure in the context of the study. maximum likelihood analyses with Promax rotation showed that the items 1, 4, 6, 7, 11, 15, 18, 19, 21 and 22 did not distinguishably load on a single factor and as a result, they were excluded

from the scale. The adapted 12-item version of SLWAI (APPENDIX D) demonstrated a three-factor solution as Somatic Anxiety (Items 2, 3, 8, 9, 13), Avoidance Behavior (Items 5, 10, 12, 16) and Cognitive Anxiety (Items 14, 17, 20). In order to see if this factor structure fitted the model achieved, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. The results indicated that the factor structure of the 12-item version of SLWAI was valid with a CMIN/DF of 1.149, P of .220, CMIN of 56.306, DF of 49, GFI of .942, NFI of .909, NNFI (TLI) of .982, CFI of .987, IFI of .987 and RMSEA of .031. Reliability analyses indicated that the scale was reliable with Cronbach's Alpha values of .859 for the pretest, .895 for the midtest and .878 for the posttest.

Textual Variables

The variables which were based on the features of the texts produced by the participants, namely lexical density, lexical complexity and writing fluency were computed by means of the web based versions of the Lexical Complexity Analyzer (Ai & Lu, 2010; Lu, 2012) and L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer (Ai & Lu, 2013; Lu, 2010, 2011; Lu & Ai, 2015), which calculate lexical density as the ratio of lexical words to the total number of words, lexical complexity as the ratio of the most frequent 2000 words in English to the words beyond the most frequent 2000, and writing fluency as the number of words per t-unit within a text.

The reliability of L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer is confirmed by Lu's (2010) study, which proves that the software produces very high reliability in terms of text annotation and analysis as seen in the precision (.925 – 1.000), recall (.889 – 1.000) and F (.907 – 1.000) values calculated through the comparisons of the findings of the software against the findings of two human annotators.

Lexical Complexity Analyzer is also considered to be a reliable tool in conducting lexical analysis as the software uses the same part-of-speech tagger as L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer, which is the Stanford Tagger (Toutanova, Klein, Manning, & Singer, 2003) that produced very high reliability in L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer. In addition, the

lemmatization processes within the Lexical Complexity Analyzer are performed by MORPHA (Minnen, Carol, & Pearce, 2001), which is a morphological and orthographical analyser that was reported by its developer to have a type accuracy of 99.94% and a token accuracy of 99.93%.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Perceptions of the students regarding the implementation and its effects were sought for by conducting semi-structured interviews. According to Castillo-Montoya (2016), a well-structured interview has four phases of questions as introductory, transition, key and closing questions. Castillo-Montoya (2016) also adds that the introductory questions should be rather general and non-threatening, followed by transition questions which provide a link between introductory and key questions. Key questions, on the other hand, should be directly related to the aims of the study and the research questions. Lastly, closing questions may give a chance to the participants to add a few additional points and conclude the interview. Taking Castillo-Montoya's (2016) description into account, the interview for the present study followed a similar sequence, asking a total of 14 questions to each participant regarding their educational background, L2 writing experience, the variables of the present research and points to be added (APPENDIX E).

The interview data were considered trustworthy due to the fact that a prolonged engagement with the participants was achieved and a thick description of the context along with extracts from raw data was presented, in accordance the trustworthiness criteria of Lincoln and Guba (1985) with respect to qualitative data. To compute intercoder reliability, 30% of the coded quotations were coded by a second researcher and Cohen's Kappa for agreement was calculated. The results indicated excellent reliability for the coding of the interview data ($K = .983$, $p < .001$).

Guided Reflections

Apart from interviews, participants' perceptions regarding writing literary analysis essays as well as revising them after feedback were also attempted to be revealed by means of guided reflections which were written by the participants following the completion of each essay and revision. In order to guide the participants in their reflections structurally, Chau and Cheng's (2012, p. 20) "Four-stage Model for Guiding Students' Reflection", which proposes a description, analysis, understanding and planning of the experience to be reflected on was used as a basis and in accordance with the model, participants were asked to respond to four questions each week, which directed them to describe the process, the positives and the negatives of the process, the learning gains and the possible effects of the task on their future performance (APPENDIX F).

The trustworthiness of the reflection data was achieved through prolonged engagement and the provision of raw data extracts as proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985). In this set of data, reliability was sought for by means of having 30% of the coded quotations coded by a second researcher, producing a Cohen's Kappa Coefficient of 1.000 ($p < .001$) for intercoder reliability.

Teacher's Diary Entries

Along with the aforementioned means of data collection, the teacher-researcher also wrote diary entries upon the completion of each assignment, including the revision assignments. The entries were typically written after providing the last participant with feedback following the deadline of the first draft for each assignment and after reading each revision closely. The entries were of an unstructured nature to allow for emerging themes or topics throughout the intervention.

Course Design and Intervention Procedures

The English Literature I course was designed in a way that would include the socio-political history, the literary history and one major work of each period within the English Literature. In this respect, the theoretical content of the course began with the Old English Period and ended with the Restoration Period. Moreover, the procedures of the intervention study included the introduction of the study and the concept of genre to the participants, in-class Genre-Based Instruction for three weeks and take-home assignments in the form of literary analysis essays which were given regular feedback to be revised and resubmitted. Every week after the first week, the warm-up phase of the first lesson included a five-minute whole-class reflection of the previous week guideded by the teacher-researcher.

The details in regards to the course design and procedures are provided below in Table 6 in relation to the timing of data collection and the variables that were dealt with.

Table 6

Course Design and Intervention Procedures

Week	Course Content	Class Hours	In-Class GBI	Class Hours	Take-Home Assignments	Measurement	Data Source
1	Introduction to English Literature I	2	Introduction to the Intervention Study	1	-	-	-
2	Old English Period and Beowulf	2	The Concepts of Genre and Rhetorical Move	1	Essay 1	Pretest	Essay Scores, Writing Psychology Scales, Textual Variables, Participant Reflections, Teacher Diary
3	Middle English Period	2	Introduction in Literary Analysis Essays	1	Revision of Essay 1	-	-
4	The Canterbury Tales by Geoffrey Chaucer	2	Main Body in Literary Analysis Essays	1	Essay 2	-	-
5	Renaissance Period	2	Conclusion in Literary Analysis Essays	1	Revision of Essay 2	-	-
6	Hamlet by William Shakespeare	3	-	-	Essay 3	Midtest	Essay Scores, Writing Psychology Scales, Textual Variables, Participant Reflections, Teacher Diary
7 8	Midterm Exams						
9	Jacobean Period	3	-	-	Revision of Essay 3	-	-
10	Volpone by Ben Johnson	3	-	-	Essay 4	-	-
11	Restoration Period	3	-	-	Revision of Essay 4	-	-
12	The Country Wife by William Wycherly	3	-	-	Essay 5	Posttest	Essay Scores, Writing Psychology Scales, Textual Variables, Participant Reflections, Teacher Diary
13	Course Summary	3	-	-	-	-	-
14	Term Feedback and Self-Study	3	-	-	-	-	-

Genre-Based Instruction

For modelling purposes, four literary analysis essays written in the previous years was brought to the class by the teacher and those essays were used for analytical purposes as well. In the initial week of the implementation, participants were provided with information about the nature of genres and rhetorical moves. In line with Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan and Gerot (1992) and Osman (2004), GBI was carried out as follows with a focus on the literary analysis essay:

Week 3. Writing an Introduction paragraph for a literary analysis essay

a. Identification of the rhetorical moves in the introduction paragraph of the sample essays.

b. Comparison and contrast of the rhetorical moves within the introduction paragraph of each of the sample essays.

c. Construction of an introduction paragraph using the rhetorical moves in the sample essays on a selected topic. Collaboration with other participants as well the teacher is encouraged at this stage.

Week 4. Writing a main body paragraph for a literary analysis essay

a. Identification of the rhetorical moves in the main body paragraphs of the sample essays.

b. Comparison and contrast of the rhetorical moves belonging to the main body paragraphs of each of the sample essays.

c. Construction of a main body paragraph using the rhetorical moves in the sample essays, using the introduction paragraph they wrote in the previous week as the beginning. Collaboration with other participants as well the teacher is encouraged at this stage.

Week 5. Writing a conclusion paragraph for a literary analysis essay

    a. Identification of the rhetorical moves in the conclusion paragraph of the sample essays.

    b. Comparison and contrast of the rhetorical moves belonging to the conclusion paragraph of each of the sample essays.

    c. Construction of a conclusion paragraph using the rhetorical moves in the sample essays, concluding the essay they started as a part of the instruction procedure. Collaboration with other participants as well the teacher is encouraged at this stage.

For each week, the first two stages of the implementation were expected to allow participants to be exposed to the target genre and to analyse samples from that particular genre. The third stage, on the other hand, as planned to allow for the joint construction of the relevant part of the target genre, as suggested by Hammond et al. (1992) and Osman (2004).

During the semester, participants received five assignments in which they were required to write a literary analysis essay apart from the part-by-part construction of the target genre. Each essay received 'Hand-Holding' or 'Bridging' type of feedback according to the participant's group and in the following week, they submitted the revised versions of the essays in accordance with the feedback. The fifth assignment received no feedback and was constructed independently by each participant as it was the posttest assignment.

Feedback Procedures

As stated above, participants received five written assignments in one semester as a part of the English Literature course, to complete which they wrote literary analysis essays. The feedback cycle within the context of the study is provided below:
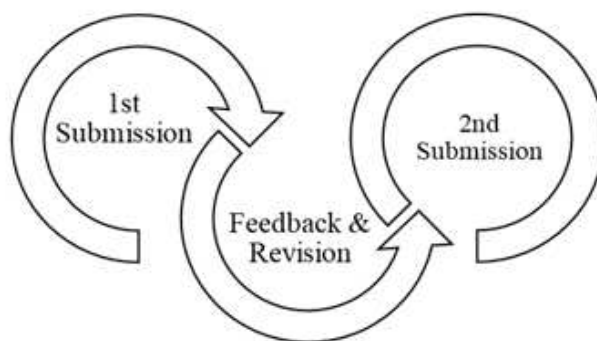
Figure 4. The Feedback Cycle for the Take-Home Assignments.

As seen in Figure 4, each take-home assignment within the study took two weeks to complete. During the first week, the participants were asked to draft their essays and submit them to the teacher for feedback (first submission). Following the first round of feedback, the participants had another week to make their revisions (feedback & revision) and submit their final drafts (second submission). Since the fifth written assignment of the course was the last one, it was scored as the posttest and was not included in the first submission – feedback & revision – second submission sequence.

The type of feedback given throughout the course differed according to participants' feedback groups. The first group received feedback in the type of 'Bridging' (APPENDIX G), that is, the part of the essay to be revised was underlined / highlighted by the teacher and an explanation was provided as for how to improve that particular part and why it needed to be improved, without providing any kind of explicit suggestions for correction or revision.

The second group, on the other hand, received 'Hand-Holding' (APPENDIX H) type of feedback, in which they were provided with both explicit suggestions for correction / revision and the rationale for the suggestion that is given by the teacher with respect to the highlighted / underlined part of the text which is thought to need revision.

To sum up, all participants attended the three-week GBI along with the weekly assignments and their revisions, however, the type of feedback that the participants received

differed according to the feedback group of which they were a member. The course syllabus can be seen in Appendix I.

Data Analysis

The data analysis methods suitable for the purposes of the study are presented below in Table 7.

Table 7

Data Analysis Chart of the Study

Research Question	Quantitative Data Collection	Quantitative Data Analysis	Qualitative Data Collection	Qualitative Data Analysis
1. Are there changes in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI?	GBLAESR	One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA	Interview	Content Analysis
2. Are there changes in writing performance among the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI?	WAS, SEWI, SLWAI	One-Way Repeated Measures of MANOVA	Interview	Content Analysis
3. Are there changes in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among the participants before, during and after GBI?	Writing Fluency, Lexical Complexity, Lexical Density	One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA (per variable)	Interview	Content Analysis
4. Are there differences in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?	GBLAESR	2x3 Factorial ANOVA	Interview	Content Analysis
5. Are there differences in the writing performance of the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?	WAS, SEWI, SLWAI	2x3 Factorial MANOVA	Interview	Content Analysis

6. Are there differences in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?	Writing Fluency, Lexical Complexity, Lexical Density	2x3 Factorial ANOVA (per variable)	Interview	Content Analysis
7. What are the opinions of learners who received GBI regarding the procedure?	-	-	Interview & Participant Reflections	Content Analysis
8. How is the process of GBI procedure perceived by the teacher?	-	-	Teacher Diaries	Content Analysis

Parametric analyses have certain assumptions, which can be summarized as normality of data distribution, homogeneity of variance and using interval type of data and independent observations (Field, 2009). The assumption of normality in the case of ANOVA models, however, concerns residuals instead of sampling distribution (Klimberg & McCullough, 2013; Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). In this respect, the data collected to meet the purposes of the study was initially tested for these assumptions. Taking into account that it is among the powerful significance tests for normality, the Anderson-Darling test, which takes the tails of the distribution into consideration (Ahmad & Sherwani, 2015; Razali & Wah, 2011; Yap & Sim, 2011), was run for the residuals of each variable and the results are provided below in Table 8.

Table 8

Results of Anderson-Darling Tests for Normality

Variable	Time	Skewness	Kurtosis	*A*	*p*
Essay Score	1	.22	-.44	.28	.65
	2	-.51	.29	.60	.12
	3	-.85	1.33	.75	.05
Writing Attitude	1	-.02	-.24	.43	.30
	2	-.09	-.09	.37	.41
	3	-.09	.11	.31	.54
Writing Self-Efficacy	1	.68	.31	1.50	**.00**
	2	.32	.11	.50	.21
	3	.09	.07	.57	.13
Writing Anxiety	1	-.04	-.63	.31	.55
	2	.46	.04	.54	.16
	3	.39	-.27	.40	.36
Lexical Density	1	.08	.93	.54	.17
	2	.41	.18	.66	.08
	3	-.30	.43	.66	.08
Lexical Complexity	1	.52	.11	.78	**.04**
	2	.13	.25	.36	.44
	3	-.05	-.50	.39	.38
Writing Fluency	1	1.67	3.97	2.13	**.00**
	2	1.11	2.32	1.01	**.01**
	3	.99	.87	1.88	**.00**

As seen in Table 2, the residuals of the essay score, writing attitude, writing self-efficacy, writing anxiety and lexical density variables did not produce statistically significant *A* values in any of the measurements, confirming the normality of distribution. However, the residuals of the pretest measurements of writing self-efficacy and lexical complexity as well as all three measurements of writing fluency produced significant *p* values, indicating deviations from normality. However, according to Oppong and Agbedra (2016), Q-Q plots and box plots as well as the skewness and kurtosis values should also be investigated to come to a judgement in terms of normality. Even though clear-cut values with respect to the limits of skewness and kurtosis values have not been proposed, simulation studies show that skewness values between

±2 (Curran, West & Finch, 1996) or ±3 (Kline, 2010) and kurtosis values between ±7 (Curran et al., 1996) and ±10 (Kline, 2010) do not indicate severe deviations from normality. Also taking into account the robustness of ANOVA models to minor deviations from normality (Schmider, Ziegler, Danay, Beyer & Bühner, 2010), Q-Q plots, histograms, skewness and kurtosis values along with their standard errors were investigated and it was concluded that the residuals for the pretest measurements of lexical complexity (skewness = .52, skewness *SE* = .27, kurtosis = -.11, kurtosis *SE* = .54) and writing self-efficacy (skewness = .68, skewness *SE* = .27, kurtosis = .31, kurtosis *SE* = .54) were normally distributed since both variables had skewness and kurtosis values between the range of ±2 and the Q-Q plots were close to a straight line as seen in Figure 5 and Figure 6.
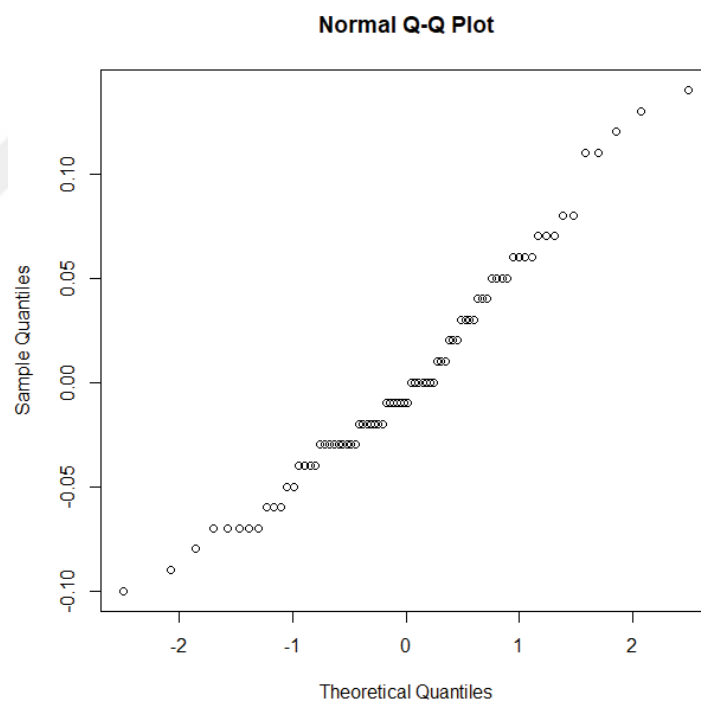
Figure 5. Q-Q Plot for Lexical Complexity Pretest Residuals.
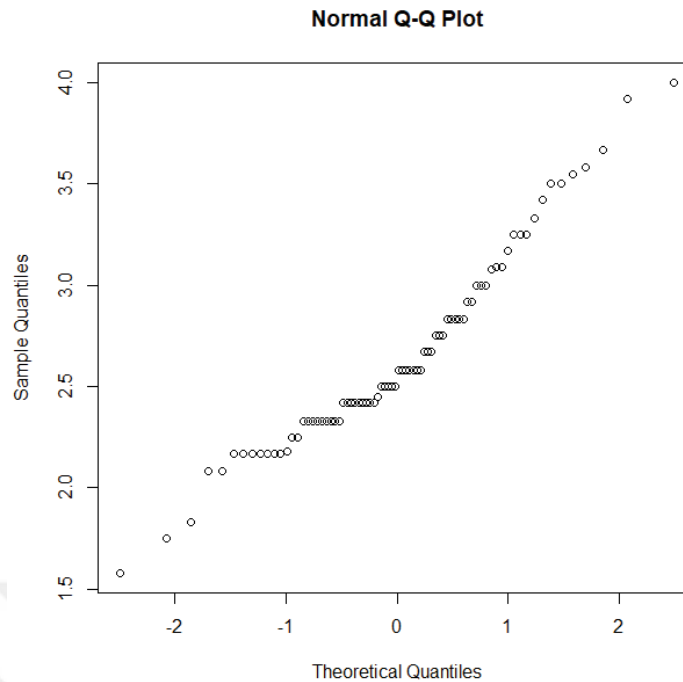
Normal Q-Q Plot

Figure 6. Q-Q Plot for Writing Self-Efficacy Pretest Residuals.

However, the residuals for all measurements of writing fluency were concluded to be non-normally distributed upon investigating the histograms, Q-Q plots and box plots as the deviations from normality were visually clear.

Since the psychological variables, namely writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety were to be subjected to multivariate analyses, a Henze-Zirkler's Multivariate Normality Test, which is among the multivariate normality tests (Zhou & Shao, 2014), was run on this data set, indicating that the data regarding these variables was multivariate normal ($HZ = .97$, $p > .05$).

The assumption of sphericity was also tested in order to be able to run repeated measures analyses for pretests, midtests and posttests. Mauchly's Tests of Sphericity showed that the essay scores ($W = .96$, $\chi^2 = 3.05$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$) lexical density ($W = .97$, $\chi^2 = 2.33$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$), lexical complexity ($W = .99$, $\chi^2 = .67$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$) and writing anxiety ($W = .96$, $\chi^2 = 3.14$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$) met the assumption of sphericity. On the contrary, writing attitude (W

= .721, χ^2 = 24.63, *df* = 2, *p* < .001, ε = .78) and writing self-efficacy (*W* = .79, χ^2 = 18.05, *df* = 2, *p* < .001, ε = .83) produced significant probability values, however, Greenhouse-Geisser corrections for both variables were closer to 1.00 than the lower-bound of .500, therefore, it was concluded that the deviation from sphericity was not substantial and parametric analyses for repeated measures could be run on the data.

Taking the assumptions or parametric analyses into account, one-way repeated measures analyses of variance were run in order to see if essay scores, lexical density and lexical complexity produced statistically significant differences in three measurements. To investigate if there were statistically significant differences among the measurements of writing fluency, on the other hand, a Friedman Test with multiple pairwise Wilcoxon-Signed Rank Tests with Bonferroni Correction (.05 / 3 = .02) as follow up was preferred. The psychological variables within the study, namely writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety, were tested by means of a One-Way MANOVA to find out if their levels differed over time. Univariate repeated measures analyses were followed by Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons and the multivariate comparison was followed by univariate comparisons and Bonferroni correction respectively.

To compare the effects of the type of feedback over three measurements on essay scores, lexical density and lexical complexity, the data format was converted from wide to long and 2x3 Factorial ANOVA's were run on each variable. The effects of the type of feedback over the measurements of writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety was tested by means of a 2x3 Factorial MANOVA. Since the residuals for writing fluency values were not normally distributed, writing fluency data were first subjected to Aligned Rank Transformation and then analysed for the possible interaction between measurements and the type of feedback. As a part of these comparisons, simple main effect analyses were also administered to find the sources of significant interactions (Shaughnessy et al., 2012).

Effect sizes were computed as partial eta squared (η^2_p) for repeated measures of ANOVA and MANOVA as well as the factorial analyses of variance. Cohen's *d* was calculated to measure the effect sizes for the Bonferroni Post-Hoc Analyses. For the Friedman Test, Cramer's *Phi* was computed as the analysis produced a Chi-Squared value. The effect sizes for the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were calculated by dividing the *Z* score by the square root of the number of observations to produce *r* values.

Qualitative data, on the other hand, was subjected to content analysis to discover the themes and topics mentioned by the participants. Each theme and topic were coded by the researcher. Frequency values were produced with respect to those themes to reveal how frequently each theme and topic was mentioned. The frequency values were also divided by feedback group for RQ4, RQ5 and RQ6 to compare the codes according to the type of feedback received as 'Hand-Holding' or 'Bridging'.

Chapter Summary

This chapter aimed to present the methodology of the study including the research design, research context, participants, data collection instruments, intervention procedures and data analysis. The validity and reliability arguments were presented separately under each data collection instrument and the results of the assumption tests were given under the data analysis subsection. In sum, the research framework was established in this chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study divided by research question. Where they are related, the quantitative and qualitative findings are presented under the same research question. In the research questions which have multiple constructs under scrutiny, the findings with respect to each construct are presented as a separate subsection.

Findings of RQ1. *Are there changes in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI?*

To find out if there were statistically significant differences among the measurements of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre which were taken before, during and after the GBI procedure, descriptive values such as means and standard deviations of the essay scores along with minimum and maximum scores were produced initially as seen in Table 9.

Table 9

Essay Scores Before, During and After GBI (N = 78)

Score	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Pretest	30.44	14.51	2	63
Midtest	53.49	16.55	8	91
Posttest	65.06	14.10	19	90

As seen the table, the pretest measurement of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre which was taken before the GBI procedure had started produced a mean essay score of 30.44 ($SD = 14.51$) with a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 63 out of 100. The midtest measurement, taken in the 7th week, produced a mean score of 53.49 ($SD = 16.55$) with a minimum score of 8 and a maximum of 91. The posttest measurement produced a mean score of 65.06 ($SD = 14.10$) with a minimum score of 19 and a maximum score of 90.

Following descriptive statistics, a One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA was administered to observe if there were any differences between the means obtained in each measurement. Bonferroni Post-Hoc Analyses were also run in order to find out which measurement means differed from one another. The findings were presented below in Table 10.

Table 10

Comparison of Mean Essay Scores across Measurements

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	Direction of Differences
Measurements	48477	2	24238.491	193.62	< .001	Posttest > Midtest, $p < .001$
Residual	19278	154	125.184			Posttest > Pretest, $p < .001$
						Midtest > Pretest, $p < .001$

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

The results of the One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA showed that time had a statistically significant effect on the mean literary analysis essay scores, $F(2, 154) = 193.62$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.72$, indicating a large effect. Bonferroni Post-hoc analyses indicated that the mean literary analysis essay score in the posttest was significantly higher than the mean score in the midtest ($t = 14.33$, $df = 77$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.62$) and the pretest ($t = 18.15$, $df = 77$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.06$), both resulting in a large effect. A statistically significant difference with a medium effect was also detected between the mean essay scores as measured in the pretest and midtest ($t = 6.28$, $df = 77$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.71$).

The participants who were interviewed at the end of the intervention ($n = 20$) were also asked if the intervention helped them improve their level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre and the qualitative findings obtained were coded and counted with respect to their themes and topics. These findings were presented below in Table 11.

Table 11

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Writing Performance (n = 20)

Main Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned
Increase	Increased Genre Awareness	10
	Increased Content Knowledge	5
	Easier to support ideas	3
	Integrated Literature and Writing	3
	Transferable to Other Domains	2
	TOTAL	23
Remain Stable	Focus only on Writing Skills	1
	TOTAL	1

As seen in the table, a majority of the participants perceived an increase in their level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre as a result of the GBI intervention. One participant, however, indicated that she had not observed any increase or decrease in her level of mastery of the genre.

Reading through the justifications of the participants regarding the increase in their level of mastery of the genre, it was seen that over half of the interview participants believed that their genre awareness and content knowledge increased, resulting in the increase in the level of mastery of the genre. Regarding genre awareness, P2 seemed to believe that the GBI intervention provided him with the knowledge to actualize the rhetorical moves typically present in a literary analysis essay, which resulted in a perceived increase in literary analysis essay writing performance through facilitating transition between paragraphs as he learned how different rhetorical moves should follow one another. The remarks of the participant can be seen in the following excerpt:

For instance, in our first essay… Between what I knew while writing my first essay and what I know now, there is a difference, I believe. I didn't really write the first essay with what I have in my mind now, be it intro, thesis statement, main body, conclusion and so

on… I only had the idea of providing an answer to the question in the first essay. It was different than now, lacking something, I think. Now it's become more complete. (P2)

Another participant, namely P18 emphasized the perceived increase in content knowledge attributing the increase to the analytical requirements of the essay questions which led to a better performance in writing literary analysis essays. His remarks were as follows:

You need to go deeper into the story. While going deeper, you realize a lot of things and when you are asked to write about it, you ponder and scrutinize it. So it just happens to have a more solid place in your mind and becomes permanent. For these reasons it has an increasing effect. (P18)

Among the other topic topics indicated as a means of justifying the perceived development in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, evaluating supporting ideas to be easier, the integration of literature and writing throughout the course and the knowledge's being perceived as transferable to other domains were counted.

Despite the fact that an overwhelming majority of the interview participants self-evaluated their literary analysis writing skills as having increased thanks to the GBI procedure, one participant stated that her level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre remained stable regardless of the instruction and feedback. When asked why she thought it neither improved nor deteriorated, P13 stated that he literature aspect of the literary analysis essay could have been pushed into the background for the sake of completing the essay with the following words:

I think the procedure improved only my writing performance. I don't think it's related to literature because I memorize things only to complete the essay and learn them for the essay. Then I forget everything, I mean, I don't really learn anything that is permanent, I mean, I can't learn, to put it in exact terms. (P13)

Taking both quantitative and qualitative findings into account, the GBI procedure within the framework of the present study seems to have improved the level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants of the study to a certain extent, consistently increasing their essay scores over time and also resulting in the perception of improvement in terms of producing the genre. Although the increase in the mean essay scores was numerically smaller between the midtest and the posttest in comparison to the increase in the mean essay scores between the pretest and the midtest, effect sizes indicated a larger effect in the increase between midtest and posttest in comparison to the increase between pretest and midtest. It was argued by the participants that the mentioned increase as measured in their essay scores could be accounted for their levels of genre awareness and content knowledge which had increased throughout the procedure, as well as finding it easier to support ideas, integrate literature and writing skills and transfer the acquired knowledge about the literary analysis essay to other domains. Although it was noted by one participant that there was no gain as a result of the procedure in terms of literary analysis essays, it was a noteworthy finding that none of the participants claimed to have experienced a decrease in their level of mastery of the literary analysis essays as a genre. In conclusion, the GBI procedure appears to have resulted in predominantly positive effects in terms of the participants' literary analysis essay writing performance as seen in both quantitative and qualitative findings.

Findings of RQ2. *Are there changes in writing performance among the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI?*

In order to see if there were statistically significant changes in the levels of writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density, each construct was compared separately in terms of three measurements by means of One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA's followed by Bonferroni Post-Hoc analyses. Since the residuals for the measurements of writing fluency

did not produce normal distributions both in neither raw nor transformed data, Friedman's Test as a non-parametric alternative followed by multiple pairwise Wilcoxon Signed Ranked Tests were run for the comparisons. Upon the completion of the intervention, 20 participants were also interviewed to find out if they perceived any change in their levels of writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density. Their perceptions were coded with respect to their responses and justifications. The qualitative findings were tabulated as frequency counts.

Writing Fluency

The descriptive findings and Friedman's Test results with respect to writing fluency were tabulated below in Table 12.

Table 12

Writing Fluency Levels Before, During and After GBI (N = 78)

Value	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	X^2	df	p	φ_c
Pretest	12.63	3.97	11.81	7.23	28.44				
Midtest	14.14	3.66	13.76	7.69	27.92	26.06	2	< .001	0.41
Posttest	13.70	3.13	12.84	8.82	23.42				

As the table demonstrates, the mean writing fluency values of the participants before, during and after the implementation of the GBI procedure. According to the results, the pretest measurement of writing fluency before the GBI produced a mean value of 12.63 (*SD* = 3.97) with a minimum of 7.23 and a maximum of 28.44. The midtest measurement of the same construct resulted in a mean value of 14.14 (*SD* = 3.66) with a minimum of 7.69 and maximum of 27.92. The posttest measurement, which was the last measurement, produced a mean value of 13.70 (*SD* = 3.13) with a minimum of 8.82 and a maximum of 23.42.

According to the Friedman's Test results, there was a significant main effect of measurements (X^2 = 26.06, *df* = 2, *p* < .001, φ_c = 0.41) with a medium effect. The comparison of the measurements by means of pairwise Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests revealed that the

midtest (*Mdn* = 13.76) measurement of writing fluency was significantly higher than that of the pretest (*Mdn* = 11.81) (*Z* = 4.31, *p* < .001, *r* = 0.35) with a medium effect. In addition, the posttest (*Mdn* = 12.84) measurement of the same construct was also revealed to be significantly higher than that of the pretest (*Mdn* = 11.81) (*Z* = 3.63, *p* < .001, *r* = 0.29) with a small effect. However, there was no statistically significant difference between the midtest (*Mdn* = 13.76) and posttest (*Mdn* = 12.84) measurements of writing fluency (*Z* = 1.51, *p* > .05, *r* = 0.12).

The qualitative findings related to the perceived effects of GBI on writing fluency were presented below in Table 13.

Table 13

Perceptions regarding GBI's Effect on Writing Fluency (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned
Increase	Motivation to use advanced language	9
	Improved Proficiency	8
	Feedback	7
	Increased Self-Efficacy	2
	Frequent Practice	1
	Reduced L1 Effect	1
	Motivation to Achieve the Task	1
	TOTAL	29
Remain Stable	Prior Focus on Fluency	2
	TOTAL	2
Decrease	Increased Lexical Quality	1
	TOTAL	1

As seen in the table, a majority of the interview participants believed that the intervention had had a positive effect on their levels of writing fluency, although a few participants stated that their levels of writing fluency had not been affected positively or negatively and P16 said that her level of writing fluency decreased because of the intervention.

Among the participants who stated that their level of writing fluency had increased thanks to the intervention, the most commonly stated reason was the increased motivation,

which appeared to be intrinsic, to produce higher-proficient language in the essay to make their texts look more academic. On this topic, P6 said:

Instead of simply using 'and', we've now started to use longer sentences with 'not only… but also…' so it [Writing Fluency] has been affected. Because we did literature throughout the course and I wanted to reflect this on my texts. It happened so because I wanted it to look better, more proper, more literary maybe. Academic words… For instance, I could have just said 'he did this' or 'he did that'. But instead, when I said 'he, who did this, did that', I had the chance to provide more information and write better sentences. (P6)

The second most common reason mentioned by the interview participants for the perceived increase in their levels of writing fluency was the improvement in their English proficiency levels. Attempting to explain the improvement in writing fluency, P11 commented that her writing style improved from the point of writing shorter sentences to the point of longer and more informative sentences with the following lines:

It [Writing Fluency] has improved because, when we look at our first few essays, while conveying [the meaning] with very shallow sentences in just two lines, the main idea, now we can convey it with complex sentences, new conjunctions and word groups in three, four or five lines. Now we can produce more complex sentences. (P11)

Another reason commonly stated among the interview participants who believed that their levels of writing fluency increased owing to the GBI intervention was the feedback provided throughout the procedure. On this topic, P9 reported more frequent use of relative clauses, which resulted in longer sentences:

Your suggestions… And those you gave throughout the course… For instance, I start a sentence to describe a character in the main body or the introduction. While describing

it, I used to say 'it is' and describe the guy. But now, I give the name of the guy and continue with [the relative pronoun] 'who' to describe the guy and continue with my main clause. (P9)

The interview participants also mentioned the increased level of self-efficacy, having the opportunity to practice writing frequently, a perceived reduction in the level of L1 interference and a perceived increase in the motivation to achieve a given task thanks to the intervention as factors which may have contributed to the increase in their writing fluency.

Analyses also revealed that there were a few participants who believed that the GBI intervention neither increased nor decreased their levels of writing fluency. Stating that prior focus was a determining factor in his / her stability of writing fluency, one participant said "*I don't think it has been affected in any way because in my previous education, too, I was supposed to use conjunctions or relative clauses to write long sentences. So, I am actually used to more difficult tasks*". These lines showed that the participant had already had writing instruction which also focused on the fluency of writing, and the GBI procedure did not add further development to the Writing Fluency level of the participant.

Among the participants, only P10 put forth that her level of writing fluency decreased as a result of the GBI, defending that the participant believed that her sentences were too long and disorganized in the beginning of the intervention, but they gradually became shorter and more relevant to the assignment.

As seen in the results, both quantitative and qualitative analyses confirmed that the GBI procedure within the context of the present study contributed to the writing fluency levels of the participants having small to medium effects in the differences between measurements. However, the results also suggested that there was no statistically significant difference in the levels of writing fluency in the midtest and posttest, during which the participants did not get

involved in in-class genre analysis but only received genre-focused feedback for their written assignments. Qualitative results revealed that a majority of interview participants perceived an increase in their levels of writing fluency, which could be explained primarily by their motivation to use advanced language, improved language proficiency levels through the course of the intervention and the feedback they had received. Although a few participants reported that their levels of writing fluency either remained stable or decreased, the results indicated that the intervention had had a positive effect on the overall writing fluency levels of the participants.

Lexical Complexity

The lexical complexity levels of the participants before, during and after the GBI procedure were shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Lexical Complexity Levels Before, During and After GBI (N = 78)

Value	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Pretest	.25	0.05	.15	.39
Midtest	.25	0.05	.13	.39
Posttest	.26	0.04	.19	.35

As presented in the table, the mean value for the pretest measurement of lexical complexity was .25 (*SD* = 0.05) with a minimum of .15 and a maximum of .39. Similarly, the midtest measurement of the same construct produced a mean of .25 (*SD* = 0.05) with a minimum of .13 and a maximum of .39. In the posttest, mean lexical complexity was measured to be .26 (*SD* = 0.04) with a minimum of .19 and a maximum of .35.

The mean lexical complexity values were compared by means of a One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA as tabulated in Table 15.

Table 15

Comparison of Mean Lexical Complexity Values across Measurements

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	η^2_p
Measurements	.007	2	.004	2.00	.14	.03
Residual	.283	154	.002			

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

The results of the ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant main effect of measurements on the mean lexical complexity values produced ($F(2, 154) = 2.00$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2_p = 0.03$).

The qualitative findings related to the effect of the intervention on lexical complexity were presented below in Table 16.

Table 16

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Lexical Complexity (n = 20)

Effect	Topic	Times Mentioned
Increase	Progress over time	5
	Frequent Practice	4
	Secondary Sources	4
	Motivation to avoid repetition	3
	Ideal Self	3
	Feedback Received	2
	Motivation to impress teacher	1
	TOTAL	22
Remain Stable	Using a dictionary	2
	Genre as the sole focus	1
	Lack of advanced level education	1
	Perceived Low Competence	1
	TOTAL	5

As seen in the table, an increase in lexical complexity levels were reported the most frequently by the interview participants. While a few participants reported that the intervention had had no effect on their levels of lexical complexity, no participants reported a negative effect.

Among the reasons for the perceived increase in Lexical Complexity, one's general progress over time was mentioned the most frequently. P5 explained her perceived improvement in terms lexical complexity with the following words, suggesting that the GBI intervention had provided opportunities to try and increase text quality:

Now, I believe I can use more diverse words. Since I have learned new words… Our vocabulary has improved a great deal since we write about what the author did or tried to do. Each week, I asked myself how I could make it better, what could be changed. When I thought like that, it naturally improved. (P5)

The second reason which was mentioned the most frequently by the interview participants as to the perceived increase in the levels of lexical complexity was the opportunity of frequent writing practice during the intervention. Regarding this particular reason, P2 openly stated, *"While writing, I was trying to avoid beginner level words and go for intermediate ones and higher. It's because of practicing. As I write more and more, I tend to have a desire to use words of higher levels."*, putting all the emphasis on regular practice and engagement with text production as the underlying reason behind the improvement in his level of lexical complexity.

Another reason which was mentioned equally frequently as frequent practice by the participants for the increase in the levels of lexical complexity was the use of secondary sources during the GBI intervention to complete the assignments. With respect to this, P9 said, *"While researching for our essay topics, we have, for sure, come across with many different words. They naturally affected the size of our vocabulary, too."*, professing that secondary reading had an effect on the increase in his / her level of lexical complexity.

The analyses also showed that a few interview participants reported their motivation to avoid repetition in writing, ideal self, the feedback component of the intervention and the

motivation to impress the teacher as the reasons why there was an increase in their perceived lexical complexity levels.

As seen in Table 16, qualitative analyses revealed that there were a few interview participants who considered the GBI ineffective in terms of increasing their levels of lexical complexity. Among them, P20 stated, *"Since I had a dictionary from the first essay, I don't think it [Lexical Complexity] increased, really. Because I was already comfortable with writing, because there was a dictionary. If it weren't for the dictionary, it might have increased."*, stressing the availability of a dictionary in the writing assignments encountered as a barring factor in lexical development.

Other factors reported by the participants as the reasons for the ineffectiveness of the intervention on lexical complexity were having the concept of genre as the sole focus of the intervention, the general education level's being unchallenging and a perceived low level of writing competence.

To sum up, the quantitative and qualitative analyses revealed a disagreement in terms of the findings related to the effect of GBI intervention on the lexical complexity levels of the participants in that while a majority of the interview participants held that their levels of lexical complexity increased, the comparison of the pretest, midtest and posttest results revealed no statistically significant difference among the mean lexical complexity values measured over time. It was seen in the qualitative findings that the participants who believed that their levels of lexical complexity increased thanks to the intervention accounted their progress over time, frequent writing practice and having the opportunity to use secondary sources for their improvement. It should also be noted that some participants thought at the time of the interview that the intervention did not affect their levels of lexical complexity positively or negatively due to dictionary availability, having genre as the only focus in text production, lack of advanced level education and perceived low competence. As a conclusion, while quantitative

analyses showed that GBI had had no effect on lexical complexity, most interview participants

reported that they benefitted from the procedure in that terms.

Lexical Density

The lexical density levels of the participants before, during and after the GBI procedure

were shown in Table 17.

Table 17

Lexical Density Levels Before, During and After GBI (N = 78)

Value	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Pretest	.51	0.04	.41	.63
Midtest	.52	0.03	.44	.62
Posttest	.54	0.03	.46	.62

As given in the table, the pretest measurement of lexical density produced a mean value

of .51 (*SD* = 0.04) with a minimum of .41 and a maximum of .63. The midtest measurement of

the same construct had a mean of .52 (*SD* = 0.03) with a minimum of .44 and a maximum of

.62. Lastly, the posttest measurement of Lexical Density produced a mean of .54 (*SD* = 0.03)

with a minimum of .46 and a maximum of .62.

The comparisons regarding the measurements of lexical density values by means of a

One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA and Bonferroni Post-Hoc Analyses were tabulated

below in Table 18.

Table 18

Comparison of Mean Lexical Density Values across Measurements

Factor	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	Direction of Differences
Measurements	.037	2	.019	26.78	< .001	Posttest > Pretest, *p* < .001
Residual	.107	154	.001			Posttest > Midtest, *p* < .001

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

Analyses revealed that a statistically significant main effect of time was present on the scores with a large effect (F(2, 154) = 26.78, p < .001, η^2_p = 0.26). Bonferroni post-hoc analyses showed that the midtest (M = .52, SD = 0.03) and pretest (M = .51, SD = 0.04) measurements of lexical density had no statistically significant difference according to the findings (t = 0.71, df = 77, p > .05, d = 0.08). However, the mean lexical density value for the posttest (M = .54, SD = 0.03) was significantly higher than the mean obtained in the midtest (M = .52, SD = 0.03) (t = 6.50, df = 77, p < .001, d = 0.74) and pretest (M = .51, SD = 0.04) (t = 6.33, df = 77, p < .001, d = 0.72), both indicating medium effects.

The qualitative findings in regards to the effect of GBI on lexical density were given below in Table 19.

Table 19

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Lexical Density (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned
Increase	Increased focus on meaning	5
	Motivation to use complex language	3
	Feedback Received	2
	Progress over time	2
	Increased Writing Fluency	1
	Motivation to demonstrate knowledge	1
	TOTAL	14
Remain Stable	Proportional Increase	3
	L1 Interference	1
	Perceived Low Competence	1
	Using the same chunks	1
	TOTAL	6
Decrease	Motivation to use complex language	4
	Easier to focus on grammar	1
	Feedback Received	1
	Perceived institutional focus on grammar	1
	TOTAL	7

According to the results, a majority of the participants reported that their levels of lexical density had increased thanks to the intervention. On the other hand, about a quarter of participants thought that the intervention had had no positive or negative effect on their lexical density levels. Lastly, some participants held that the lexical density levels in their written texts had decreased owing to the intervention.

Among the participants who reported an increase in lexical density, the most frequently mentioned reason as to the increase was the increased focus on meaning over form thanks to the intervention. P8 explained this by stating:

> *It [GBI] affected the level of Lexical Density because I used to go more focused on grammar… Wanted grammar to be appropriate… Now, I focus more on meaning… I want to convey the meaning… In the past I wanted to write more grammatical sentences. I am meaning-focused now, I prefer to write more lexical words.* (P8)

Another reason which was reported by participants for the improvement in lexical density was the participants' being motivated to use complex language. On this issue, P15 stated, *"I think the number of function words in my essays must have decreased and the number of content words must have increased. It must be because… In order to use better words and convey different ideas, I think"*, underscoring her motivation to produce language from a higher proficiency level.

The other reasons reported by the interview participants for the perceived increase in their lexical density were the feedback component of the intervention, the participants' overall progress over time, a perceived increase in writing fluency and their motivation to demonstrate knowledge.

According to the findings, a few of the interview participants reported that the GBI intervention had had no effect on their levels of lexical density since those participants

perceived the number of both content and function words increase proportionally. In an attempt to explain this, P19 pointed out, "*I believe I improved my use of both content and function words equally. Without changing their proportion… My grammatical performance and word choices are not really bad*", confirming a perceived improvement without an altered level of lexical density. Pointing at the need to improve in terms of both content and function words, P13 stated, "*I need grammatical words to connect long sentences but I also need content words more often so I can't really compare the proportion. Most probably, both of them improved equally*", indicating that there was an improvement, but not specifically in favor of either content or function words.

Apart from the proportional increase in the frequency of both content and function words as perceived by the participants, L1 interference, perceived low competence in writing and using the same chunks across assignments due to a lack of interest in writing were also reported to have been among the reasons why lexical density was perceived to have remained stable throughout the intervention.

According to the results of the qualitative analyses, there were several interview participants who reported a decrease in lexical density as a result of the GBI intervention, motivation to use complex language being the most common reason of the decrease. P17 elaborated on this by stating, "*I think I have more function words now because I use a lot of relative clauses. Because, to be frank, when my sentences are too short, I tend to make them longer by adding relative clauses and this affects it [Lexical Density], I believe*", indicating an inclination to increase the number of function words, especially in the case of producing sentences that were perceived to be short by the participant.

In addition to the participants' motivation, an easier focus on grammar, the feedback component of the intervention and a perceived institutional focus on grammar were among the reasons for the perceived decrease in lexical density.

As noted above, both quantitative and qualitative findings supported that the overall lexical density level of the participants experienced an increase with a large effect as a result of the GBI procedure. The quantitative findings further suggested that the posttest measurement of the construct was found to be significantly higher than both the pretest and the midtest with medium effects although there was no statistically significant increase in lexical density between the pretest and the midtest. According to the qualitative findings, a majority of the participants perceived an increase in their lexical density levels due to the increased focus on meaning, the motivation to use complex language and the feedback received as a part of the intervention. On the other hand, a few participants believed that their levels of lexical density did not change primarily because the number of both content and function words in their texts increased proportionally. Lastly, some students perceived a decrease in their levels of lexical density because of their motivation to use complex language in their texts, reducing the amount of content words in those texts. Regardless, it was concluded that the intervention had had a positive effect on lexical density since this particular conclusion was supported both by quantitative findings and a majority of interview participants.

Findings of RQ3. *Are there changes in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among the participants before, during and after GBI?*

To discover if there were changes in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety levels among the participants before, during and after GBI, mean and standard deviation values were produced for all three measurements. Since the data for neither of the constructs violated the assumptions of multivariate normality and sphericity, a One-Way Repeated Measures MANOVA was run to see if there were statistically significant differences among the measurements marked as pretest, midtest and posttest. Multivariate analyses were followed by univariate One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA's to reveal if there were statistically significant differences within each construct over time. After this point, Bonferroni Post-Hoc

analyses were run for each construct with the purpose of finding out which comparisons produced significant probability values. The qualitative analyses with respect to RQ3 involved 20 participants who were interviewed to uncover the perceived effects of the GBI intervention on the participants' levels of writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety.

The mean and standard deviation values for writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety divided by measurement were presented below in Table 20 along with the One-Way Repeated Measures of MANOVA comparisons of the findings.

Table 20

Writing Psychology Before, During and After GBI (N = 78)

Value	Writing Attitude		Writing Self-Efficacy		Writing Anxiety		F	p	η^2_p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Pretest	2.99	0.76	2.65	0.49	2.68	0.83	6.329	< .001	0.35
Midtest	3.23	0.73	2.80	0.49	2.40	0.83			
Posttest	3.37	0.73	2.86	0.54	2.23	0.73			

According to the results, writing attitude produced mean values of 2.99 ($SD = 0.76$) for the pretest, 3.23 ($SD = 0.73$) for the midtest and 3.37 ($SD = 0.73$) for the posttest. The second construct, writing self-efficacy, produced mean values of 2.65 ($SD = 0.49$) for the pretest, 2.80 ($SD = 0.49$) for the midtest and 2.86 ($SD = 0.54$) for the posttest. The last construct, writing anxiety, produced mean values of 2.68 ($SD = 0.83$) for the pretest, 2.40 ($SD = 0.83$) for the midtest and 2.23 ($SD = 0.73$) for the posttest.

One-Way Repeated Measures MANOVA results revealed that there was a statistically significant multivariate main effect of Time with a large effect on writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety ($F(3, 72) = 6.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.35$). For this reason, the analyses proceeded with One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA's and Bonferroni Post-Hoc tests to find out which constructs and which measurements differed significantly.

Writing Attitude

The results of the One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA and Bonferroni Post-Hoc tests to compare the mean writing attitude values across measurements were given below in Table 21.

Table 21

One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results for Writing Attitude (N = 78)

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	Direction of Differences
Measurements	5.619	2	2.809			Posttest > Midtest, $p = .03$
Residual	29.298	154	.19	14.77	< .001	Posttest > Pretest, $p < .001$ Midtest > Pretest, $p = .01$

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

As seen in the table, a statistically significant main effect of measurements with a large effect was present on writing attitude ($F(2, 154) = 14.77$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.16$). Bonferroni Post-Hoc Analyses indicated that the posttest mean for the construct ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 0.73$) was significantly higher than both midtest ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 0.73$) ($t = 2.72$, $df = 77$, $p = .03$, $d = 0.31$) and pretest ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 0.76$) ($t = 4.50$, $df = 77$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.51$) means, the former indicating a small effect and the latter a medium effect. Moreover, the midtest ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 0.73$) mean for the construct was found to be significantly higher than the pretest ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 0.76$) ($t = 3.32$, $df = 77$, $p = .01$, $d = 0.38$), indicating a small effect.

The interview findings regarding the effect of GBI on writing attitude were shown below in Table 22.

Table 22

Perceptions Regarding GBI's Effect on Writing Attitude (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned
Increase	Increased Self-Efficacy	7
	Decreased Anxiety	6
	Feedback Received	3
	Frequent Practice	1
	TOTAL	17
Remain Stable	Always Disliked	4
	Always Liked	4
	TOTAL	8

In the qualitative findings, it was seen that a majority of the interview participants perceived an increase in their writing attitude. However, there were also some participants who believed that the intervention did not have an effect on their levels of writing attitude. It should also be noted that there were no participants who claimed that the GBI procedure had a negative effect on their levels of writing attitude.

Among the participants who perceived a positive effect on the level of writing attitude thanks to the GBI intervention, the most commonly mentioned reason for the increase was the parallel increase in the perceived level of writing self-efficacy. P14 uncovered that he felt a stronger belief in his own ability to write thanks to the intervention, which led to the perceived increase in writing attitude, in the following lines:

As for why it [positive attitude] must have increased… Because… I mean, since now I believe I can actually write, I think I write more enthusiastically now. I am more confident now. I can't tell you the same about my grammar, but in general it [level of positive attitude] has increased. (P14)

The second most frequently mentioned reason for the increase in the level of positive attitude towards writing was related to the perceived decrease in another psychological

construct, which was writing anxiety. P9, who established this perceived relationship between two constructs, clarified the issue by emphasizing the decline in the somatic and cognitive effects of writing anxiety as follows:

I used to sweat a lot when I had to write. My favorite skill had always been reading before. Especially in exams, I used to get very confused and thought that I couldn't produce ideas. Now I'm having fun while writing, for some reason. Thinking about things, relating them… There has been a sharp increase [in positive attitude] from the first week to the last. (P9)

It was also seen in the qualitative findings that a few participants accounted the feedback given throughout the intervention and frequent writing practice opportunity for the perceived increase in their attitude towards writing.

Although a majority of the interview participants reported a perceived increase in the level of writing attitude, there were also some who evaluated that their attitude towards writing was not affected by the intervention since they had either always liked or always disliked writing. This is seen in the response of P17, indicating negative feelings towards writing both in L1 and L2:

I think it [attitude] is still the same. I still don't really like it. It's not about English, actually. I don't like writing in general. Neither in Turkish… It's about me really, not about what we did in the class. I, myself, don't like writing at all. It's not for me. (P17)

Another participant on the opposite side of the continuum commented, "*I have always liked writing, actually. I have always liked it, in every language, be it Greek, Turkish or English. I have always written. So, I have always liked it and I still like it.*", clarifying that his / her ever-existing positive attitude towards writing prevailed throughout the intervention, resulting in a stable and reportedly high level of positive attitude. In brief, the participants who reported a

stable level of writing attitude for the duration of the intervention perceived it to be so because of their previous attitudes towards writing.

To sum up, the quantitative and qualitative findings revealed that the intervention had had a positive effect in terms of increasing the participants' perceived levels of writing attitude with a large effect. The post-hoc analyses showed that the mean writing attitude gradually increased over time with statistically significant differences across measurements. Although some participants stated that their perceived levels of writing attitude remained stable over time through the course of the intervention, a majority of the participants reported a perceived increase, which confirmed the quantitative findings. The most commonly mentioned reasons for this perceived increase in the level of writing attitude were the increased level of perceived writing self-efficacy, the decreased level of perceived writing anxiety and the feedback received. In sum, the findings showed that the level of writing attitude among the participants of the study had been affected positively as a result of the intervention.

Writing Self-Efficacy

The univariate comparisons of the means across measurements with respect to writing self-efficacy were given below in Table 23.

Table 23

One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results for Writing Self-Efficacy (N = 78)

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	Direction of Differences
Measurements	1.857	2	.928	11.31	< .001	Posttest > Pretest, $p < .001$
Residual	12.635	154	.082			Midtest > Pretest, $p < .001$

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

According to the results, there was a statistically significant main effect of measurements with a medium effect on the level of writing self-efficacy (F(2, 154) = 11.31, p < .001, η^2_p = 0.13). Bonferroni Post-Hoc analyses revealed that both posttest (*M* = 2.86, *SD* =

0.54) ($t = 3.88$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.44$) and midtest ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 0.49$) ($t = 4.03$, $df = 77$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.46$) mean values for writing self-efficacy were significantly higher than that of pretest ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 0.49$) indicating small effects. On the other hand, the posttest ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 0.54$) and midtest ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 0.49$) means for the same construct were not significantly different according to the findings ($t = 1.46$, $df = 77$, $p > .05$, $d = 0.17$).

The qualitative findings with respect to the effect of the GBI intervention on writing self-efficacy as reported by the interview participants were tabulated in Table 24.

Table 24

Perceptions Regarding GBI's Effect on Writing Self-Efficacy (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned
Increase	Performance Realization	8
	Feedback Received	7
	Increased Genre Awareness	5
	Frequent Practice	2
	Improved Proficiency	2
	Decreased Anxiety	1
	TOTAL	25
Remain Stable	Always Efficacious	3
	TOTAL	3

According to the findings, a majority of the participants reported a perceived increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy thanks to the intervention. A few participants, on the other hand, stated that their levels of writing self-efficacy were not affected by the intervention positively or negatively. The last point to be noted regarding the qualitative findings was that there were no interview participants who believed that their levels of writing self-efficacy decreased as a result of the intervention.

Among the participants who reported an increase, the realization of one's own writing performance as a result of the GBI procedure was the most commonly mentioned reason.

Regarding the issue, P6 pointed at an increased amount of self-belief in her capability to produce texts in L2 when required with the following words:

I didn't really think that I could write in the beginning of the term. But thanks to these activities I saw that I could actually write. Write better… Now I say, 'I can do it'. Even if I don't want to, I can write. In the exam, for example, I will do it. Especially the classroom work we did in the initial weeks was very effective. (P6)

Attributing the increase in the level of writing self-efficacy to the positive effect on her lexical choices thanks to the intervention, P4 described that the intervention resulted in a positive effect on the perceived level of writing self-efficacy through activating prior knowledge and increasing diversity in the use of lexical items:

I used to think that I had forgotten English. It was like a few years of break after the [private] language course that I attended. I think I've got into it once again with this, these writings. I feel like my knowledge has been refreshed and I can use different words, more diverse words now. (P4)

The second most commonly mentioned reason as to the increase in the perceived level of writing self-efficacy was the feedback provided within the framework of the intervention. P1, who mentioned feedback as the reason behind the increase, explained the responses as follows:

I understood that I can actually do it. If it hadn't been for what you did, though, it wouldn't have improved really. If you hadn't provided me with feedback or asked for a revision, it would end there. I could have never seen what kind of a text I was producing or what it was missing. It was because of the feedback. Everything improved thanks to the feedback. (P1)

Increased genre awareness thanks to the intervention was also among the reasons reported by some of the interview participants with respect to the increase in their perceived levels of writing self-efficacy. On this issue, P10 was understood to have expressed that she had regarded the rhetorical moves present in the literary analysis essay as a template and she had been able to focus on the content more easily thanks to knowing about this template, increasing the perceived level of writing self-efficacy in the following lines:

Now I know the template. If the topic is suitable to me, I know that I can do it. While I was mainly concerned about how to do it before, now I know how to do it, so I only think about the topic and how to deal with the topic. (P10)

Among other reasons, there were also a few interview participants who attributed the perceived increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy to the frequent practice opportunity provided through the course of the intervention, improved language proficiency through the semester and a perceived decrease in the level of writing anxiety.

Although an overwhelming majority of the interview participants reported a perceived increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy, a few participants believed that it remained stable throughout the intervention as those participants had never had issues with writing self-efficacy throughout their life. On this issue, P18 remarked, "*Since I've always been confident already, it [GBI] didn't effect my self-efficacy much. It's probably because of my prior experience and fields of interest maybe. Because in general, I've always liked literature, and it's remained like this.*". This indicated that those with an ever-high level of writing self-efficacy might not have benefitted much from the intervention in terms of increasing it even further.

In summary, it was seen in both quantitative and qualitative findings that the average level of writing self-efficacy was affected positively by the intervention within the context of

the study. However, it should be noted that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean values for the midtest and the posttest although the mean writing self-efficacy significantly increased from the pretest to the midtest. It was also seen in the qualitative findings that the most commonly stated reasons for the perceived increase in the level of writing self-efficacy were the self-realization of performance, feedback received and increased genre awareness as a result of the intervention. Some participants also reported that they had maintained stability in terms of their levels of writing self-efficacy since it had always been at a high level. Lastly, none of the interview participants reported a decreased in their perceived levels of writing self-efficacy. All in all, the increase in the perceived level of writing self-efficacy as a result of the GBI intervention was confirmed by both quantitative and qualitative findings.

Writing Anxiety

The comparisons among the measurements of writing anxiety across measurements by means of a One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA were presented below in Table 25.

Table 25

One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results for Writing Anxiety

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	Direction of Differences
Measurements	8.314	2	4.157			Posttest < Pretest, $p < .001$
Residual	31.883	154	.207	20.08	< .001	Posttest < Midtest, $p < .001$
						Midtest < Pretest, $p = .04$

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

As seen in the table, there was a significant main effect of measurements on writing anxiety with a large effect ($F(2, 154) = 20.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.21$). In addition, Bonferroni Post-Hoc analyses revealed that the mean writing anxiety values for the posttest ($M = 2.23$, $SD = 0.73$) ($t = 5.77$, $df = 77$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.65$) and the midtest ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 0.83$) ($t = 2.56$, $df = 77$, $p = .04$, $d = 0.29$) were both significantly lower than the mean value for pretest ($M =$

2.68, *SD* = 0.83) with medium and small effects respectively. Post-hoc analyses also demonstrated that the posttest mean for writing anxiety (*M* = 2.23, *SD* = 0.73) was significantly lower than the mean value for midtest (*M* = 2.40, *SD* = 0.83), indicating a small effect (*t* = 3.97, *df* = 77, *p* < .001, *d* = 0.45).

The findings of the interview with regards to the effects of the GBI intervention on the perceived level of writing anxiety were presented in Table 26.

Table 26

Perceptions Regarding GBI's Effect on Writing Anxiety (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned
Increase	Perceived Low Performance	2
	Time Constraints	1
	TOTAL	3
Remain Stable	Always Low Anxiety	5
	Always High Anxiety	2
	TOTAL	7
Decrease	Increased Genre Awareness	8
	Feedback Received	5
	Frequent Practice	4
	Increased Self-Efficacy	4
	Increased Content Knowledge	1
	Less L1 interference	1
	TOTAL	23

As seen in the table, a large number of the interview participants reported that their perceived levels of writing anxiety decreased as a result of the intervention. On the other hand, there were some interview participants who stated that their perceived levels of writing anxiety remained stable regardless of the GBI procedure. It should also be noted that a few interview participants reported an increase in the perceived level of writing anxiety as a result of the intervention.

When asked why their level of writing anxiety might have increased within the context of the intervention, P15 reported to have felt distressed by her perceived lack of competence to complete the assignment, resulting in an increased amount of anxiety, which she explained as follows:

The problem was like… I've been doing this for a while… When there is something I can't manage… It goes like… I've been doing this for 3 months now, how can I not achieve it? Or if I do something wrong, maybe I get a feedback like… You've been doing this for 3 months, can you still not do it? Something like this happened, like stress… Or… Anxiety… (P15)

Another reason, which was the time constraints, was mentioned by a single participant through the course of the interviews. This participant commented, "*If I have time, my anxiety level decreases but when we put it within a time limit, when I face it in the exam, I mean, some things just fail because of that psychological tension.*". These remarks of the participant suggested that the having a deadline for the completion of the assignments throughout the intervention had been an anxiety-increasing factor.

Among the participants who claimed that the intervention had had no effect on their levels of writing anxiety, most participants indicated that they had always experienced writing anxiety at a relatively low level. Therefore, it is possible to say that the absence of writing anxiety as one's characteristic trait was perceived by some participants as a reason behind the ineffectiveness of the intervention on their levels of writing anxiety. However, there were also a few interview participants who claimed the opposite for the stability of their levels of writing anxiety throughout the GBI intervention, having always experienced writing anxiety in relatively high levels and thus, perceiving the intervention ineffective in terms of altering the level of writing anxiety.

As mentioned before, a majority of the interview participants reported a decrease in their perceived levels of writing anxiety. When asked to elaborate on the potential reasons of this decrease, the most common reason was mentioned to be the perceived increase in the level of genre awareness, resulting in a lower level of writing anxiety. On this issue, P1 commented as follows, implying that the intervention had allowed her to eliminate the question of 'how' in the processes of planning and producing the text and focus on the content instead:

My anxiety level has decreased, I think. Because now I know what to write, I know the technique to write the essay. If I don't know about the content, I used to sit at the table thinking I could never write it. But if I have adequate knowledge about the content, I can easily write without really feeling anxiety. In comparison to the beginning of the term, I am more relaxed now. (P1)

The interview data showed that there were also some participants who attributed the perceived decrease in their levels of writing anxiety to the feedback they had received through the course of the intervention. Commenting on the feedback component of the intervention, P11 maintained that the feedback given throughout the intervention had been of a positive tone which had helped the participants perceive a decreased amount of writing anxiety with the following words:

Before [the implementation], there was no feedback. We knew what we wrote was read, but there was nothing like you did this and that. Sometimes I may feel like I'm writing funny things and the teacher will laugh at it, but then, since you approach the texts very positively, it has helped me to a great extent. Now I'm much more relaxed and stress-free. It's because you approach it very constructively. It's not like you say 'this is wrong', 'that is wrong', 'you make mistakes and you always make mistakes'. It's not inhibitive at all. I am both more confident and less anxious thanks to this. (P11)

Other reasons which were reported by the participants to have decreased their levels of writing anxiety were found to have been having frequent writing practice opportunity, a perceived decrease in writing self-efficacy, a perceived increase in content knowledge and a decreased amount of L1 interference.

In summary, the decreasing effect of the GBI intervention on the perceived level of writing anxiety was confirmed by both quantitative and qualitative findings with a statistically significant main effect of time and most participants mentioning a perceived decrease. Post-hoc analyses also showed that the level of perceived writing anxiety gradually decreased among the study participants with each measurement being significantly lower than the previous one. Although some participants claimed that their levels of writing anxiety remained stable throughout the intervention and a few of them articulated an increase in the level of the construct, a majority of the participants reported a decrease in their levels of perceived writing anxiety because of an increased level of genre awareness, the feedback received within the framework of the intervention, the opportunity to practice writing frequently and the increased level of perceived writing self-efficacy. Briefly, both quantitative and qualitative findings confirmed that the intervention had had a positive effect among the participants in terms of reducing their perceived Writing Anxiety.

Having taken into account the findings with respect to each of the psychological constructs, the GBI intervention within the context of the present study was found to result in positive changes. Univariate analyses with respect to the changes in writing attitude showed that all measurements of the construct produced statistically significant differences with small effects between pretest and midtest as well as between midtest and posttest. The comparison of pretest and posttest means of the construct, on the other hand, produced a significant difference with a medium effect. The most common reasons mentioned by the interview participants as to

the perceived increase in their levels of writing attitude were the increased level of perceived writing self-efficacy, decreased level of writing anxiety and the feedback received.

Univariate analysis also showed that writing self-efficacy was positively affected by the GBI intervention with a medium effect. indicating significant differences between the pretest and midtest as well as pretest and posttest measurements of the construct with small effects, although midtest and posttest measurements did not produce any significant difference. The most commonly mentioned reasons for the perceived increase in the level of writing self-efficacy within the context of the intervention were the realization of self-performance, feedback received and the perceived increase in the level of genre awareness.

The last construct as a part of RQ3, writing anxiety, was also confirmed to have decreased with a large effect by both quantitative and qualitative findings with significant differences with small effects between pretest and midtest as well as between midtest and posttest and a difference with a medium effect between pretest and posttest. Qualitative findings indicated that the increased level of perceived genre awareness, feedback received, frequent practice and the increased level of perceived writing self-efficacy were the most common reasons behind the perceived decrease in the level of writing anxiety. All in all, it was seen in both quantitative and qualitative findings that the GBI intervention had positive effects on writing psychology.

Findings of RQ4. *Are there differences in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?*

To meet the aims of RQ4, the mean and standard deviation values with respect to the literary analysis essay scores of the participants were calculated divided by measurement and the type of feedback. Since the essay score data did not violate the assumptions of normality

and sphericity, the mean values were compared in terms of the main effect of measurements, the interactions among measurements and type of feedback and the effect of the type of feedback across measurements by means of a factorial repeated measures ANOVA. The descriptive findings were tabulated below in Table 27.

Table 27

Essay Scores divided by Type of Feedback (N = 78)

Time	Feedback	n	M	SD
Pretest	Hand-Holding	40	29.52	15.21
	Bridging	38	31.39	13.86
Midtest	Hand-Holding	40	50.08	17.07
	Bridging	38	57.08	15.39
Posttest	Hand-Holding	40	65.17	13.90
	Bridging	38	64.95	14.51

Pretest scoring of the literary analysis essays written by the participants produced means values of 29.52 (SD = 15.21) for the Hand-Holding group and 31.39 (SD = 13.86) for the Bridging group. In the results of the second scoring, it was seen that the mean values were increased to 50.08 (SD = 17.07) for the Hand-Holding group and 57.08 (SD = 15.39) for the Bridging group. The last scoring resulted in mean essay scores of 65.17 (SD = 13.90) for the Hand-Holding group and 64.95 (SD = 14.51) for the Bridging group.

The results of the factorial repeated measures ANOVA to find out if there were significant interactions among measurements and feedback type were presented below in Table 28.

Table 28

*The Interaction of Essay Scores with Measurement * Feedback Type*

Factor	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Measurements * Feedback	539.50	2	269.80	2.19	.12
Residual	18738.80	152	123.30		

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

Analyses revealed that the interaction among measurements and the type of feedback was not statistically significant ($F(2, 152) = 2.19$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2_p = 0.03$).

The qualitative data which was used in RQ4 were collected by means of an interview with 20 study participants. This set of data was coded as the perceived effect of the GBI intervention on the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre along with the underlying reasons behind the perceived effect. The effect of the GBI intervention on literary analysis essay score as perceived by the interview participants were given in Table 29, broken down into feedback groups.

Table 29

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Writing Performance divided by Feedback Groups (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Increased Genre Awareness	10	3	7
	Increased Content Knowledge	5	3	2
	Easier to support ideas	3	1	2
	Integrated Literature and Writing	3	1	2
	Transferable to Other Domains	2	1	1
	TOTAL	23	9	14
Remain Stable	Focus only on Writing Skills	1	1	0
	TOTAL	1	1	0

The results showed that the GBI intervention was mentioned to have increased the level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre 9 times by the participants in the Hand-

Holding group while it was mentioned 14 times by those in the Bridging group to have increased their level of mastery of the genre. Moreover, one participant, who stated that the level of mastery of the genre had not been affected as a result of the intervention belonged to the Hand-Holding group. In the findings, it was also seen that none of the interview participants reported a perceived decrease in the level of the mastery of the genre. Taking these numbers into account, it was seen that both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups predominantly perceived an improvement in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre as a result of the intervention.

It was also seen in the findings that both groups had mentioned the increased level of perceived genre awareness as the reason why the intervention had had a positive effect on their perceived levels of mastery of the genre, however, while the participants in the Bridging group mentioned this particular reason for 7 times, those in the Hand-Holding group mentioned it only 3 times. The other reasons mentioned for the perceived increase in the mastery of the genre such as an increased perceived level of content knowledge, finding it easier to support ideas thanks to the intervention, having had the chance to integrate literature and writing skills and the skills' being transferable to other domains were either very close or equal in each group in terms of frequency.

The participant who believed that the level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre remained stable regardless of the intervention suggested that the focus was solely on writing as a skill throughout the intervention, resulting in the stability in terms of literary analysis essays. This participant had been assigned to the Hand-Holding group in the beginning of the study and no participant reported a similar effect of the intervention from the Bridging group.

In brief, the qualitative findings revealed that both feedback groups mainly perceived an increase in their levels of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre. On the other

hand, a few differences in the perceptions of the interview participants in that a perceived increase in the level of genre awareness as a result of the intervention was mentioned at a higher frequency in the Bridging group than the Hand-Holding group. However, the other reasons mentioned by the participants as to the perceived increase in the level of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre were rather similar or equal in terms of frequency. The only participant who reported stability in terms of the level of the mastery of the genre was among the participants who received Hand-Holding type of feedback. Even so, it was seen in the qualitative findings that both groups in the interview primarily perceived an increase in their levels of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, so the main perception, which was an increase, was the same for both groups.

To conclude, the quantitative analyses indicated that the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging did not have a statistically significant interaction with the measurements. Parallel to the quantitative findings, qualitative findings confirmed that both feedback groups predominantly perceived the intervention as having increased their level of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, although there were slight differences in the frequency of the topics having been mentioned with the Bridging feedback group mentioning a perceived increase more frequently than the Hand-Holding group. In this respect, it was concluded that there was an agreement between the quantitative and qualitative findings in terms of the effect of the type of feedback.

Findings of RQ5. *Are there differences in the writing performance of the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?*

To find out if the GBI procedure had any effect on the levels of writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after the intervention according to the type of feedback, Factorial Repeated Measures of ANOVA's were run on the data for each construct.

Among the constructs, lexical complexity and lexical density violated neither the assumption of normality nor sphericity. Writing fluency, on the other hand, violated the assumption of normality. For this reason, Aligned Rank Transformation was applied on this data set to be able to proceed with a Non-Parametric Factorial Repeated Measures Of ANOVA.

Writing Fluency

The aligned rank transformed means and standard deviations of writing fluency across measurements, divided by the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding and Bridging were demonstrated below in Table 30.

Table 30

Writing Fluency Scores Divided by Feedback Type (N = 78)

Time	Feedback	n	M*	SD*
Pretest	Hand-Holding	40	94.8	77.85
	Bridging	38	100.37	63.26
Midtest	Hand-Holding	40	128.05	70.38
	Bridging	38	136.89	62.18
Posttest	Hand-Holding	40	119.78	65.39
	Bridging	38	125.63	58.61

*: Aligned Rank Transformed

According to the results, mean writing fluency value for pretest was 94.8 ($SD = 77.85$) for the Hand-Holding group and 100.37 ($SD = 63.26$) for the Bridging group. Midtest measurement of the same construct produced a mean value of 128.05 ($SD = 70.38$) for the Hand-Holding group and 136.89 ($SD = 62.18$) for the Bridging group. The last measurement of writing fluency resulted in a mean value of 119.78 ($SD = 65.39$) for the Hand-Holding group and 125.63 ($SD = 58.61$) for the Bridging group.

The results of the factorial repeated measures of ANOVA with regards to writing fluency were shown below in Table 31.

Table 31

*The Interaction of Writing Fluency Scores with Measurements * Feedback Type*

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p
Measurements * Feedback	128.3	2	64.13	0.04	.96
Residual	244731	152	1610.07		

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

The findings revealed that the interaction among measurements and the type of feedback was not statistically significant ($F(2, 152) = 0.04$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2_p = 0.00$).

The qualitative findings regarding the perceived effects of the GBI intervention on writing fluency were presented in Table 32.

Table 32

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Writing Fluency divided by Feedback Type (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Motivation to use complex language	9	4	5
	Improved Proficiency	8	4	4
	Feedback Received	7	4	3
	Increased Self-Efficacy	2	2	0
	Frequent Practice	1	0	1
	Less L1 Interference	1	1	0
	Motivation to achieve the task	1	1	0
	TOTAL	29	16	13
Stable	Prior Focus on Fluency	2	0	2
	TOTAL	2	0	2
Decrease	Increased Lexical Quality	1	1	0
	TOTAL	1	1	0

According to the findings, the total number of times that the intervention was reported to have increased the perceived level of writing fluency was 16 for the Hand-Holding group and 13 for the Bridging group. On the other hand, 2 participants in the Hand-Holding group reported that the intervention had had no effect in their perceived levels of writing fluency, while no participant in the Bridging group reported that their perceived writing fluency levels

remained stable throughout the intervention. Lastly, only 1 participant in the Hand-Holding group reported a perceived decrease in their levels of writing fluency, while no participant in the Bridging group reported a decrease.

The most frequently mentioned reasons for the perceived increase, namely the motivation to use complex language, perceived improvement in proficiency level and the feedback provided for the participants, were mentioned either equally or very similarly in frequency by the interview participants. On the other hand, a perceived increase in the level of writing self-efficacy was mentioned twice by the participants in the Hand-Holding group as the underlying reason behind the perceived increase in writing fluency, however, this particular reason was not mentioned by any participant in the Bridging group. While frequent practice was mentioned by only a single participant in the Bridging group, less L1 interference and motivation to achieve the task were each mentioned by a single participant in the Hand-Holding group. In sum, qualitative analyses showed that the participants in both groups primarily perceived an increase in their levels of writing fluency as a result of the intervention.

In the qualitative findings, it was seen that there were 2 participants in the Hand-Holding group who reported that the intervention had a neither positive nor negative effect on their levels of writing fluency because of their prior focus on writing fluency. Nonetheless, no participant in the Bridging group reported stability in terms of writing fluency throughout the intervention. This showed that the absence of an effect of the intervention was mentioned only by a few participants in the Hand-Holding group.

A decrease in the perceived level of writing fluency due to the perceived increase in lexical quality was also mentioned by a single participant in the Hand-Holding group. Nevertheless, none of the participants in the Bridging group reported a decreased in the perceived level of writing fluency.

In outline, the quantitative analyses with respect to the effect of the GBI intervention on writing fluency according to the type of feedback provided as Hand-Holding and Bridging pointed that the interaction between measurements and the type of feedback was not significant. Qualitative findings, on the other hand, indicated agreement between two feedback groups with respect to the perceived improvement in writing fluency and the most frequently stated reasons, which were the motivation to use complex language, perceived improvement in language proficiency and the feedback received, were either identical or very close in frequency. On the other hand, a few participants in the Bridging group reported a stable level of writing fluency throughout the intervention unlike the participants of the Hand-Holding group who did not report that their levels of writing fluency were unaffected by the intervention. However, one participant in the Hand-Holding group reported a perceived decrease in the level of writing fluency while no participant in the Bridging group reported the same effect. In conclusion, the quantitative findings indicated no difference in writing fluency according to the type of feedback over three time points and the qualitative findings seemed to be in agreement with these findings, indicating a perceived increase in writing fluency for both feedback groups.

Lexical Complexity

Mean lexical complexity scores over three tests divided by the type of feedback are presented in Table 33.

Table 33

Lexical Complexity Scores divided by Feedback Type (N = 78)

Time	Feedback	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Pretest	Hand-Holding	40	.25	0.05
	Bridging	38	.25	0.05
Midtest	Hand-Holding	40	.25	0.05
	Bridging	38	.25	0.05
Posttest	Hand-Holding	40	.27	0.04
	Bridging	38	.26	0.04

According to the results, the mean lexical complexity scores for the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups were identical in the pretest ($M = .25$, $SD = 0.05$). The midtest measurement of the construct produced the same results as the pretest with the mean lexical complexity score being .25 ($SD = 0.05$) for both groups. The posttest measurements of lexical complexity, on the other hand, produced mean scores of .27 ($SD = 0.04$) for the Hand-Holding group and .26 ($SD = 0.04$) for the Bridging group.

The results of the Factorial Repeated Measures of ANOVA were presented above in Table 34.

Table 34

*The Interaction of Lexical Complexity Scores with Measurement * Feedback Type*

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p
Measurement * Feedback	.000	2	.000	0.07	.93
Residual	.283	152	.002		

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

The interaction among measurements and type of feedback in terms of lexical complexity was not statistically significant according to the findings ($F(2, 152) = 0.07$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2_p = .00$).

The qualitative findings with respect to the perceived effect of the GBI intervention on lexical complexity divided by feedback groups were presented below in Table 35.

Table 35

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Lexical Complexity divided by Feedback Type (n = 20)

Effect	Topic	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Progress over time	5	1	4
	Frequent Practice	4	3	1
	Secondary Sources	4	2	2
	Motivation to avoid repetition	3	1	2
	Ideal Self	3	1	2
	Feedback Received	2	2	0
	Motivation to impress teacher	1	0	1
	TOTAL	22	10	12
Remain Stable	Using a dictionary	2	1	1
	Genre as the sole focus	1	0	1
	Lack of advanced level education	1	0	1
	Perceived Low Competence	1	1	0
	TOTAL	5	2	3

According to the findings, an increase in the perceived level of lexical complexity was reported 10 times by the interview participants within the Hand-Holding group and 12 times by the participants in the Bridging group. On the other hand, the construct was reported to have remained stable regardless of the intervention twice by the interview participants in the Hand-Holding group and 3 times by those in the Bridging group. In both groups, most interview participants appeared to have perceived an increase in their levels of lexical complexity and none of the participants reported a perceived decrease in their levels of lexical complexity throughout or as a result of the intervention.

When the reasons for the perceived increase in the level of lexical complexity were broken down into feedback groups, it was seen that the most commonly stated reason for the perceived increase differed according to the groups. While the most recurrently stated reason for the perceived increase in the level of lexical complexity was frequent writing practice in the

Hand-Holding group, progress over time was the most repeatedly reported reason within the Bridging group. The recurrence of frequent practice as the underlying reason behind the perceived increase in the level of lexical complexity was 3 against 1 in favor of the Hand-Holding group. On the other hand, progress over time was mentioned 4 times by the Bridging group and once by the Hand-Holding group as the reason for the perceived increase in lexical complexity.

Although the most frequently reported reasons for the perceived increase in lexical complexity over time were different for the groups divided by the type of feedback, there were several reasons mentioned by both groups either equally or very similarly in frequency. For instance, using secondary sources during the production of the texts for the assignments were mentioned twice by the participants of both groups. In addition, both the motivation to avoid repeating the same word in the assignments and ideal self as in choosing to be someone who used more sophisticated words appeared twice in the Bridging group and once in the Hand-Holding group. In short, using secondary sources, motivation to avoid repetition and ideal self were mentioned either equally frequently or in very close frequencies by both feedback groups.

In the data set regarding lexical complexity, there were also a few reasons stated only by the members of a particular feedback group. Being one of those reasons, the feedback received within the context of the intervention was reported by 2 participants in the Hand-Holding group while none of the participants in the Bridging group mentioned this particular topic as a reason behind the perceived increase in lexical complexity. One's motivation to impress the teacher, on the other hand, was mentioned as a reason only by a single participant in the Bridging group.

Among the reasons which were mentioned as to the perceived stability in lexical complexity throughout the GBI intervention, using a dictionary was the only one that was mentioned by the participants within both groups, having been mentioned once by each of them.

On the other hand, having genre as the sole focus of the intervention and the perceived lack of advanced level education were mentioned once each by only the Bridging group. Lastly, perceived lack of competence in L2 writing was mentioned once by a single participant in the Hand-Holding group.

In sum, the number of times that an increase in the perceived level of lexical complexity appeared to be very close in both Hand-Holding and Bridging feedback groups. Similarly, the number of times that the perceived level of lexical complexity was mentioned to be stable throughout the intervention was also similar in the groups divided by the type of feedback. Finally, none of the participants reported to have perceived a decrease in their levels of lexical complexity. As a conclusion, the perceptions regarding the effect of the intervention on lexical complexity appeared to be very similar in both feedback groups.

Having considered both qualitative and quantitative findings, it was observed that there was no difference between the Hand-Holding and Bridging feedback groups in terms of lexical complexity. Statistical analyses indicated insignificant probability values for the interaction of measurement and the type of feedback. Qualitative findings were also in agreement with the quantitative ones in that the reported effects and the perceived reasons for those effects were very similar in frequency in both feedback groups. Although the most frequently reported reasons for the perceived improvement in lexical complexity differed between groups as being frequent practice for the Hand-Holding group and progress over time for the Bridging group, equal or very similar frequencies were observed in using secondary sources, motivation to avoid repetition and ideal self as the reasons behind the perceived improvement. Moreover, the feedback received and the motivation to impress the teacher as the reasons for the perceived increase as well as having genre as the sole focus of the intervention, the lack of advanced level education and a perceived low competence in L2 writing as the reasons for the perceived stability were mentioned by the participants in either Hand-Holding or Bridging group only. To

sum up, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were suggestive of the finding that the effect of the intervention with respect to lexical complexity did not differ according to the type of feedback.

Lexical Density

Lexical density scores over time, divided by the type of feedback as Hand-Holding and Bridging, were given in Table 36.

Table 36

Lexical Density Scores divided by Feedback Type (N = 78)

Time	Feedback	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Pretest	Hand-Holding	40	.51	0.04
	Bridging	38	.51	0.04
Midtest	Hand-Holding	40	.51	0.03
	Bridging	38	.52	0.03
Posttest	Hand-Holding	40	.54	0.03
	Bridging	38	.54	0.03

According to the findings, the pretest measurement of lexical density produced a mean score of .51 ($SD = 0.04$), which was identical for both groups. The midtest measurement of the construct, on the other hand, resulted in mean scores of .51 ($SD = 0.03$) for the Hand-Holding group and .52 ($SD = 0.03$) for the Bridging group. The final measurement of lexical density produced a mean score of .54 ($SD = 0.03$) for the Hand-Holding group and a mean score of .54 ($SD = 0.03$) for the Bridging group.

The interaction of mean lexical density scores with measurements and feedback were presented below in Table 37.

Table 37

*The Interaction of Lexical Density Scores with Measurement * Feedback Type*

Factor	SS	df	MS	F	p
Measurement * Feedback	.001	2	.000	0.70	.50
Residual	.106	152	.001		

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

ANOVA results showed that the interaction among measurements and the type of feedback was not statistically significant ($F(2, 152) = 0.70$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2_p = 0.01$).

The qualitative findings regarding the perceived effects of the GBI intervention on lexical density were presented below in Table 38.

Table 38

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Lexical Density divided by Feedback Type (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Increased focus on meaning	5	4	1
	Motivation to use complex language	3	2	1
	Feedback Received	2	0	3
	Progress over time	2	1	1
	Increased Writing Fluency	1	0	1
	Motivation to demonstrate knowledge	1	1	0
	TOTAL	14	8	7
Remain Stable	Proportional Increase	3	1	2
	L1 Interference	1	0	1
	Perceived Low Competence	1	1	0
	Using the same chunks	1	1	0
	TOTAL	6	3	3
Decrease	Motivation to use complex language	3	2	1
	Easier focus on grammar	1	0	1
	Feedback Received	1	0	1
	Perceived institutional focus on grammar	1	0	1
	TOTAL	6	2	4

As seen in the table, a perceived increase was reported 8 times by the Hand-Holding group and 7 times by the Bridging group. On the other hand, the intervention was reported to have had no effect on lexical density 3 times by both groups. Lastly, a perceived decrease in the level of lexical density was reported twice by the Hand-Holding group and 4 times by the Bridging group. Briefly, both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups mainly reported an increase in their levels of lexical density as a result of the intervention.

Among the topics stated as the reasons behind the perceived increase in the level of lexical density, an increased focus on meaning was the most frequently stated one by the participants within the Hand-Holding group, having been mentioned 4 times. On the other hand, the feedback received within the context of the study was reported 3 times, making it the most frequently mentioned reason by the Bridging group.

The findings also showed that some of the reasons as to the perceived increase in lexical density had been mentioned either equally or very close to each other in both groups. For instance, the motivation to use complex language was mentioned twice by the Hand-Holding group and once by the Bridging group. Similarly, the perceived progress over time was mentioned once by both groups. A perceived increase in writing fluency and the motivation to demonstrate knowledge, on the other hand, were mentioned once by either group. According to the findings, these topics were not perceived differently by the groups divided by the type of feedback.

The least frequently mentioned reasons regarding the perceived increase in lexical density seemed to be rather diverse in the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups. For example, none of the participants in the Hand-Holding group mentioned a perceived increase in writing fluency or the feedback received as the reasons behind the perceived increase in Lexical Density, although the latter of these reasons was the most frequently mentioned one within the Bridging group. On the other hand, the motivation to demonstrate knowledge, which was

mentioned by a single participant in the Hand-Holding group, was reported by none of the participants in the Bridging group. Shortly, there seemed to have been differences between the feedback groups in terms of the least frequently mentioned reasons behind the perceived increase in lexical density.

Even though a perceived ineffectiveness of the intervention with respect to lexical density was reported in equal frequency by the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups, the reasons behind this perception varied according to the groups. For instance, while a proportional increase in the number of grammatical and function words was reported twice by the Bridging group, the same reason was reported only once by the Hand-Holding group. Furthermore, the participants in the Hand-Holding group mentioned both a perceived low competence and using the same chunks in texts over time as the reasons behind the perceived stability, while no participant in the Bridging group reported these reasons. Lastly, L1 interference was attributed to the perceived stability in lexical density once by the Bridging group, however, no participant in the Hand-Holding group reported the same reason. In brief, although the number of mentions in terms of the reasons behind the perceived stability in lexical density throughout the intervention was equal, the reasons put forth by the participants appeared to have varied in content.

When the responses which reported a perceived decrease in the level of lexical density were investigated, it was seen that the numbers were in favor of the Bridging group, the participants of which mentioned a perceived decrease in lexical density 4 times. Dissimilarly, the same number for the Hand-Holding group was 2. As for the reasons behind the perceived decrease in lexical density, the Hand-Holding group only reported the motivation to use complex language in the texts produced, which was mentioned by the Bridging group once. The other reasons, namely an easier focus on grammar, the feedback received and a perceived institutional focus on grammar, were mentioned once per reason only by the Bridging group.

In conclusion, there were more mentions of a perceived decrease in lexical density in the Bridging group in comparison to the Hand-Holding group.

In sum, the qualitative findings showed that a perceived increase in the level of lexical density as a result of the GBI intervention was mentioned by a majority of the interview participants in both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups. Similarly, a perceived ineffectiveness of the intervention with respect to lexical density was reported equally by both groups. Finally, a perceived decrease in lexical density as a result of the intervention was mentioned more frequently by the Bridging group than the Hand-Holding group.

As a conclusion, it was seen that the majority of the interview participants in both groups perceived an increase in their levels of lexical density even though the frequency of the topics which were used to justify the perceived effects of the GBI intervention had slight differences between feedback groups, indicating that the quantitative and qualitative findings were in agreement. Among the participants who perceived an increase, an increased focus on meaning was the most frequently stated reason behind the increase by the Hand-Holding group while the feedback received was reported to have been the most effective factor for the same effect. A perceived ineffectiveness of the intervention on lexical density, which was mentioned in equal frequency by both groups, was most commonly attributed to the proportional improvement in lexical density by the Bridging group, while a similar increase along with a perceived low competence and using the same chunks across the intervention were mentioned in equal frequency by the participants in the Hand-Holding group. Lastly, a perceived decrease in lexical density, which was mentioned more frequently by the Bridging group than the Hand-Holding group, was believed to have been accounted for the most commonly by the motivation to use complex language in both groups. In conclusion, the quantitative and qualitative findings seemed to be in agreement in terms of the effect of the type of feedback on lexical density since quantitative analyses indicated no significant difference and parallel to this, qualitative findings

revealed that the intervention had been perceived by both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups to have improved lexical density.

Findings of RQ6. *Are there differences in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?*

To find out if there were statistically significant differences among the measurements of writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety before, during and after the GBI intervention according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding and Bridging, mean and standard deviation values were initially computed for each measurement. Since the data were normally distributed and spherical, a Factorial Repeated Measures MANOVA was run in order to find out if there were statistically significant differences among the mean scores regarding the constructs across measurements.

The mean and standard deviation values for the variables in three tests divided by feedback groups were tabulated below in Table 39.

Table 39

Writing Psychology Before, During and After GBI divided by Feedback Type

Time	Construct	Feedback	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Pretest	Writing Attitude	Hand-Holding	40	2.98	0.77
		Bridging	38	3.01	0.76
	Writing Self-Efficacy	Hand-Holding	40	2.73	0.48
		Bridging	38	2.58	0.49
	Writing Anxiety	Hand-Holding	40	2.68	0.77
		Bridging	38	2.68	0.89
Midtest	Writing Attitude	Hand-Holding	40	3.20	0.70
		Bridging	38	3.27	0.76
	Writing Self-Efficacy	Hand-Holding	40	2.84	0.47
		Bridging	38	2.76	0.51
	Writing Anxiety	Hand-Holding	40	2.54	0.86
		Bridging	38	2.24	0.79
Posttest	Writing Attitude	Hand-Holding	40	3.33	0.67
		Bridging	38	3.41	0.80
	Writing Self-Efficacy	Hand-Holding	40	2.85	0.47
		Bridging	38	2.88	0.62
	Writing Anxiety	Hand-Holding	40	2.27	0.70
		Bridging	38	2.18	0.77

As shown in the table, the mean writing attitude value was 2.98 (*SD* = 0.77) in the pretest, 3.20 (*SD* = 0.70) in the midtest and 3.33 (*SD* = 0.67) in the posttest for the Hand-Holding group while it was 3.01 (*SD* = 0.76) in the pretest, 3.27 (*SD* = 0.76) in the midtest and 3.41 (*SD* = 0.80) in the posttest. The mean writing self-efficacy value for the Hand-Holding group was 2.73 (*SD* = 0.48) in the pretest, 2.84 (*SD* = 0.47) in the midtest and 2.85 (*SD* = 0.47) in the posttest while, for the Bridging group, it was 2.58 (*SD* = 0.48) in the pretest, 2.76 (*SD* = 0.51) in the midtest and 2.88 (*SD* = 0.62) in the posttest. Lastly, the mean writing anxiety value for the Hand-Holding group was 2.68 (*SD* = 0.77) in the pretest, 2.54 (*SD* = 0.86) in the midtest and 2.27 (*SD* = 0.70) in the posttest while the mean for the Bridging group was 2.68 (*SD* = 0.89) in the pretest, 2.24 (*SD* = 0.79) in the midtest and 2.18 (*SD* = 0.77) in the posttest.

The multivariate interaction of the variables with measurements and the type of feedback were displayed below in Table 40.

Table 40

*Multivariate Interaction of Writing Psychology Measurements * Feedback Type*

Factor	F	df	df_{error}	p
Measurements * Feedback	1.51	6	300	.17

The results showed that the interaction among measurements and the type of feedback was not statistically significant ($F(6, 300) = 1.51$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2_p = 0.03$).

The qualitative findings with respect to the aforementioned psychological variables were acquired by means of an interview with 20 participants of the study. The data were coded with regards to the perceived effects reported by the interview participants and the perceived reasons behind the reported effects. The effects and reasons which were stated by the participants were reported as the number of times they were mentioned.

Writing Attitude

The qualitative findings with respect to the perceived effects of the intervention on Writing Attitude were presented below in Table 41.

Table 41

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Writing Attitude divided by Feedback Type (n = 20)

Effect	Topic	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Increased Self-Efficacy	7	3	4
	Decreased Anxiety	6	3	3
	Feedback Received	3	1	2
	Frequent Practice	1	0	1
	TOTAL	17	7	10
Remain Stable	Always Disliked	4	2	2
	Always Liked	4	1	3
	TOTAL	8	3	5

The findings revealed that a perceived increase in writing attitude was reported in similar frequencies relative to the sizes of the feedback groups, having been mentioned 7 times by the Hand-Holding group and 10 times by the Bridging group. Similarly, a perceived ineffectiveness of the intervention was reported 3 times by the Hand-Holding group and 5 times by the Bridging group, being again close to each other in frequency relative to the group sizes. Lastly, none of the participants in either of the groups reported a perceived decrease in writing attitude as a result of the intervention. Analyses showed that the intervention was perceived to have increased the levels of writing attitude in both groups.

Among the reasons stated for the perceived increase in writing attitude, both groups were similar in that the most frequently stated reasons in each group were a perceived increase in writing self-efficacy and a perceived decrease in writing anxiety, the former of which was mentioned 3 times by the Hand-Holding group and 4 times by the Bridging group and the latter of which was mentioned 3 times by both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups. The least frequently mentioned topic by the Hand-Holding group, which was mentioned only once, was the feedback received while it was frequent writing practice for the Bridging group, having been mentioned only once. It should also be noted that frequent practice as a reason behind the perceived increase in writing attitude was not mentioned by any participants in the Hand-Holding group. In brief, the frequency of the mentions of a perceived increase was similar across groups along with the most frequently mentioned reasons, even though the least frequently mentioned reasons were not the same between the feedback groups.

The GBI intervention was reported to have been ineffective in a similar frequency in both groups when the group sizes are considered, having been mentioned 3 times by the Hand-Holding group and 5 times by the Bridging group. Regarding the issue, always disliking L2 writing was mentioned twice in both groups. Always being fond of L2 writing, on the other hand, was mentioned 3 times by the Bridging group while it was mentioned only once by the

Hand-Holding group. In essence, the number of times that the intervention was reported to have been ineffective was proportionally similar in both groups, although a larger number of mentions was present in the Bridging group with respect to having always been fond of L2 writing.

To sum up, the qualitative findings regarding the differences in the perceived effect of the intervention on writing attitude did not seem to be different when the findings were broken down into feedback groups as Hand-Holding and Bridging. Proportionally, both groups reported a perceived increase in writing attitude and the perceived ineffectiveness of the intervention on writing attitude in similar frequencies. Briefly, there seemed to have been no difference between the groups in terms of the perceived effect of GBI on writing attitude.

Writing Self-Efficacy

The perceived effects of the GBI intervention on Writing Self-Efficacy as reported by the interview participants were shown in Table 42.

Table 42

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Writing Self-Efficacy divided by Feedback Type (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Self-Performance Realization	8	5	3
	Feedback Received	7	4	3
	Increased Genre Awareness	5	2	3
	Frequent Practice	2	1	1
	Improved Proficiency	2	0	2
	Decreased Anxiety	1	1	0
	TOTAL	25	13	12
Remain	Always Efficacious	3	1	2
Stable	TOTAL	3	1	2

As seen in the Table, a perceived increase in the level of writing self-efficacy was mentioned slightly more frequently by the participants in the Hand-Holding group than the

participants in the Bridging group when the sizes of the groups are considered. However, it was also seen that a majority of the interview participants in both groups perceived an increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy. In addition, the number of times that the ineffectiveness of the intervention was mentioned by the participants was very close in both feedback groups. Finally, none of the interview participants reported a perceived decrease in the level of writing self-efficacy as a result of the intervention. According to the findings, both feedback groups perceived the intervention to have increased their levels of writing self-efficacy.

The most and the least frequently mentioned reasons as to the perceived increase in writing self-efficacy were the same in both groups. Realization of self-performance, the feedback received within the context of the study and a perceived increase in the level of genre awareness were the most frequently stated reasons in each group. On the other hand, frequent practice, a perceived improvement in proficiency and a perceived decrease in writing anxiety were the least frequently stated reasons behind the perceived increase in writing self-efficacy in both groups. Nevertheless, it was also observed in the findings that a perceived improvement in language proficiency was mentioned only by the Bridging group while a perceived decrease in writing anxiety was mentioned only by the Hand-Holding group. Even so, the most and the least recurrent reasons stated by the interview participants with respect to their perceived increase in writing self-efficacy were identical in both groups.

The reasons stated by the interview participants with respect to their perceived stability in writing self-efficacy throughout the intervention were also the same in both groups. On this issue, the qualitative analyses showed that the only reason mentioned by the participants for their perceived stability in terms of writing self-efficacy had been that they had always been efficacious with respect to L2 writing, therefore, their self-efficacy levels were not affected by the intervention positively or negatively. Briefly, the participants in both feedback groups, who

had always perceived their writing self-efficacy to be at a high level, thought that they had not been affected by the intervention in terms of writing self-efficacy.

In sum, it was seen that both feedback groups perceived the intervention to have increased their writing self-efficacy, therefore, they can be evaluated to be in agreement with the quantitative findings. On the other hand, the participants in both groups, who perceived the intervention as having had no effect on writing self-efficacy, stated the same reason for the mentioned stability in similar frequencies. Lastly, no participant stated a perceived decrease in writing self-efficacy as a result of the intervention. Taking these findings into account, it was concluded that there was no difference between the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups with respect to the perceived effects of the intervention on writing self-efficacy.

Writing Anxiety

The effects of the GBI intervention on writing anxiety as perceived by the interview participants were presented below in Table 43.

Table 43

Perceptions of GBI's Effect on Writing Anxiety divided by Feedback Type (n = 20)

Effect	Reason	Times Mentioned	Hand-Holding (n = 9)	Bridging (n = 11)
Increase	Perceived Low Performance	2	2	0
	Time Constraints	1	1	0
	TOTAL	3	3	0
Remain Stable	Always Low Anxiety	5	2	3
	Always High Anxiety	2	0	2
	TOTAL	7	2	5
Decrease	Increased Genre Awareness	8	4	4
	Feedback Received	5	3	2
	Frequent Practice	4	2	2
	Increased Self-Efficacy	4	3	1
	Increased Content Knowledge	1	0	1
	Less L1 interference	1	1	0
	TOTAL	23	13	10

Analyses showed that a perceived increase in writing anxiety was the least frequently stated perceived effect, stated only by the Hand-Holding group. The most frequently stated effect of the intervention, on the other hand, was a perceived decrease in writing anxiety, which was mentioned more frequently by the participants in the Hand-Holding group than those in the Bridging group. Lastly, a perceived stability in writing anxiety throughout the intervention was reported slightly more frequently by the participants in the Bridging group than those in the Hand-Holding group. Despite the slight differences in frequencies, both groups were predominantly seen to have reported a perceived decrease in writing anxiety as a result of the intervention.

As stated above, the GBI intervention was perceived to have increased writing anxiety only within the Hand-Holding group and two reasons were stated for this increase. The first and the most frequently stated reason for the increase was a perceived low competence in L2 writing. The second and the last reason, on the other hand, was the time constraints that were present for the completion of the assignments as a part of the intervention. These reasons, which were thought to have accounted for the perceived increase in writing anxiety, were reported only by a few participants who were in the Hand-Holding group.

The number of the mentions regarding a perceived stability in writing anxiety also differed slightly across the feedback groups, being 2 against 5 in favor of the Bridging group. However, the most frequently stated reason, which was always having a low level of writing anxiety, was reported in similar frequencies by both groups. On the other hand, always having a high level of writing anxiety was mentioned only by the participants in the Bridging group. Shortly, the findings with respect to a perceived stability in writing anxiety was in favor of the Bridging group in terms of the frequency of being reported.

According to the findings, the most frequently reported reasons for the increase were mainly similar in both groups although the Hand-Holding group mentioned a perceived

decrease in writing anxiety more frequently than the Bridging group. For this particular effect, a perceived increase in genre awareness and the feedback received were the most frequently stated reasons by both groups. On the other hand, frequent practice as a reason behind the perceived decrease was mentioned in equal frequency. Nevertheless, a perceived increase in writing self-efficacy as a reason behind the perceived decrease in writing anxiety was mentioned slightly more frequently by the Hand-Holding group than the Bridging group. Lastly, while a perceived increase in content knowledge was mentioned by a single participant in the Bridging group, a perceived decreased in L1 interference was mentioned by a single participant in the Hand-Holding group as a reason behind the perceived decrease in writing anxiety. In conclusion, the total number of mentions with respect to the perceived decrease in writing anxiety as a result of the intervention was larger within the Hand-Holding group than the Bridging group although the reasons behind the perceived increase along with the fact that a perceived decrease in writing anxiety was the commonest effect were rather similar in both groups.

To sum up, the qualitative findings with respect to the perceived effects of the intervention on writing anxiety revealed that both groups primarily perceived the intervention to have decreased their levels of writing anxiety although the Hand-Holding group reported a perceived decrease in writing anxiety more frequently than the Bridging group. In addition, the Bridging group mentioned a perceived stability in writing anxiety regardless of the intervention more frequently than the Hand-Holding group. Lastly, a perceived increase in writing anxiety as a result of the intervention was only mentioned by the participants within the Hand-Holding group. To sum up, the qualitative analyses indicated differences in terms of the perceived effects of the intervention on writing anxiety.

Having considered all the results, there seemed to have been an agreement between quantitative and qualitative findings in terms of having no difference between feedback groups

with regards to the effects of the GBI intervention on writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety since the interview participants in both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups perceived their Writing attitude and writing self-efficacy to have increased and writing anxiety to have decreased.

In terms of the reasons behind the perceived increase in writing attitude, both groups suggested an increased level of writing self-efficacy and a decreased level of writing anxiety. The reasons mentioned for the perceived stability in writing attitude as a result of the GBI were also similar in both groups, being having always disliked or been fond of L2 writing. The most commonly stated reasons for the perceived increase in writing self-efficacy owing to the intervention was also similar in both groups, being the realization of self-performance and the feedback received. In a similar vein, having been always efficacious in L2 writing was mentioned in similar frequencies by both groups as to the perceived stability in writing self-efficacy throughout the intervention. In terms of writing anxiety, a perceived increase was mentioned only by the Hand-Holding group due to the perceived low performance and time constraints, while a perceived stability in writing anxiety was reported more frequently by the Bridging group due to having either a high or a low level of writing anxiety regardless of the intervention. Lastly, the most commonly stated reasons for the perceived decrease in writing anxiety were the increased genre awareness and the feedback received in both groups.

In brief, the quantitative and qualitative findings were observed to have agreed with each other with respect to the absence of a difference between the Hand-Holding and Bridging feedback groups in terms of the effects of the intervention on writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety, indicating a perceived increase in the former two and a decrease in the latter for both feedback groups.

Findings of RQ7. *What are the opinions of learners who received GBI regarding the procedure?*

The provision of an answer to RQ7 involved two phases and the first phase utilized guided reflection papers while the second one relied on the responses of the participants to the face-to-face interview questions. In the guided reflection papers, the participants were asked to describe the processes that they had been through in the production of the text, the positive and negative aspects of the process, potential learning gains and perceived future influence of the process of text production on the upcoming assignments or future writing performance in the pretest, midtest and posttest assignments. The findings divided by assignments are given below.

Perceived Processes Undergone in the Production of Texts

The perceived processes undergone by the participants in text production were ordered by posttest findings and provided below in Table 44.

Table 44

Processes Perceived by the Participants throughout the GBI Intervention

Processes	Times Mentioned (Pretest)	Times Mentioned (Midtest)	Times Mentioned (Posttest)
Read Secondary Sources – Write	7	15	16
Read Secondary Sources - Plan – Write	8	9	12
Plan – Write	5	7	5
Write	3	0	5
Read Secondary Sources - Write in L1 - Translate	0	0	1
Revise Previous Feedback - Read Secondary Sources - Write	0	0	1
Watch Film - Read Secondary Sources - Write	6	5	0
Watch Film - Plan – Write	4	0	0
Plan – Write – Revise	4	0	0
Watch Film - Read Secondary Sources - Plan - Write	3	0	0
Watch Film – Write	2	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Watch Film - Take Notes - Plan - Write	1	0	0
Plan - Read Secondary Sources – Write	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Discuss with Friends - Write	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Plan - Write - Revise	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Take Notes - Plan - Write	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Write - Revise	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Plan – Write - Read Aloud - Revise	1	0	0
Watch Film - Write in L1 – Translate	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources - Revise Previous Feedback - Write	0	2	0
Revise Previous Feedback - Write	0	1	0
Watch Film - Read Secondary Sources - Take Notes - Plan - Write	0	1	0
TOTAL	50	40	40
Number of Different Processes	17	7	6

The analyses of the reported processes that were undergone by the participants in the pretest assignment showed that the number of different processes that were reported were rather high with 17 different processes, but most of them centered around reading secondary sources, watching the film adaptation of the literary work, planning and transcription. On the other hand, there were also a few participants who reported unique sequences to the data set such as reading aloud, taking notes or translation.

According to the findings, the most frequently mentioned sequences of the processes in the pretest were Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write, Read Secondary Sources – Write and Watch Film – Read Secondary Sources – Write. One participant described the Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write sequence by indicating, *"Firstly, I collected information about Beowulf (your slides, some web pages etc.), then determined the pieces and had a look at sample essays. Then, I wrote it in the form of an introduction, main body and conclusion."*, revealing that the participant underwent the processes of data collection, outlining and transcription. The second most frequently mentioned sequence, Read Secondary Sources – Write, was mentioned by a participant as *"I made a research about the epic at first and then I wrote the events respectively."*, indicating that secondary sources were used but transcription was performed without planning. Lastly, the third most frequently mentioned sequence, Watch Film – Read Secondary Sources – Write, was explained by a participant as *"First of all I watched the film. Then I made research about the poem. I read some essays and texts."*, showing that watching the cinema adaptation of the literary work preceded the reading of secondary sources and no planning was present before transcription. The most frequently stated processes by the participants with respect to the processes involved in the production of the pretest essay revealed that most participants resorted to secondary sources and the cinema adaptation of the literary work for the production of the text with some participants planning the text before transcription.

The least frequently mentioned sequences of the processes involved in the production of the pretest essay were Read Secondary Sources – Write – Revise, Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write - Read Aloud – Revise and Watch Film – Write in L1 – Translate, each of which was mentioned by one participant. These findings showed that some participants did not follow the frequently stated sequences of processes by going through additional processes such as revising, reading aloud for evaluative purposes or L1 to L2 translation.

The midtest analyses revealed that the number of process sequences reported by the participants decreased from 17 to 7 in the sixth week. Moreover, it was also seen that the most frequently mentioned processes such as reading secondary sources, watching a video of the literary work, planning and transcription were essentially similar to the most frequently stated processes that were reported in the pretest essay. However, the least frequently reported process sequences were seen to include a new process, revising previous feedback which was not reported in the reflections for the production of the first essay. In short, the midtest results showed that the processes that each participant underwent in the third assignment began to become more similar to one another in content and some of the participants started to resort to the genre-focused feedback that was received for their previous assignments as a means of outlining their texts.

The most frequently stated sequences of the processes involved in the production of the midtest essay were Read Secondary Sources – Write, Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write and Plan – Write. The Read Secondary Sources – Write, was explained by one participant as "*First, i read the summary of Hamlet in order to create an opinion in my mind then i started to write the essay.*", noting that the participant read one piece of secondary source and started writing without planning the text. The second most frequently stated sequence, Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write, was articulated as "*Before beginning to write, I collected information from different forums and paved the way.*", implying that there was planning in between reading

secondary sources and transcription. Lastly, Plan – Write, was clarified by one participant as "*First of all, I made a brief plan about the ideas that I wanted to mention and then I started writing my essay.*", indicating that planning and transcription were the only perceived processes that were undergone by the participant during text production. In sum, analyses showed that the processes which were perceived to have been undergone in the production of the midtest essay centered around reading secondary sources, planning and transcription, similar to processes that were withstood.

According to the findings, the least frequently reported sequences of the processes that were gone through in the production of the midtest essay were Read Secondary Sources – Revise Previous Feedback – Write, Revise Previous Feedback – Write and Watch Film – Read Secondary Sources – Take Notes – Plan – Write. It was seen in these findings that revising the previously received feedback emerged as a new process in the midtest essay although most processes that were scarcely reported by the participants for this essay were similar to the first one.

The decline in the diversity of the reported process sequences regarding the completion of the text seemed to have continued in the posttest assignment, too, although the decrease was rather slight with 6 different processes reported by the participants. In addition, the most commonly stated process sequences in the posttest assignment, which were reading secondary sources, planning and transcription, were found to resemble those in the pretest and midtest assignments. On the other hand, the least commonly stated sequences, which were revising previous feedback and translating from L1, appeared to have steadily remained in the reflections on the posttest assignment. However, watching the film adaptation of the literary work and taking notes as processes that were reported in the reflections on the pretest and midtest assignments were not present for the fifth assignment.

According to the findings, the most frequently mentioned process sequences for the production of the posttest essay were Read Secondary Sources – Write, Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write, Plan – Write and Write. Read Secondary Sources – Write sequence, which was the most frequently reported sequence, was mentioned by one participant as "*I read the summary and comments about the story and I wrote the essay.*", implying that the participant resorted to online sources to get analytical information and then produced the text. The Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write sequence was explained by one participant in the form of a list as "*I collected some background information. I set the thesis for the essay. I chose the supporting details. I wrote.*", indicating that the collection of background information from secondary sources led to the planning of the essay which was followed by the transcription of the text. The third most frequently reported sequence, Plan – Write, was articulated by a participant as "*Firstly, I organised my ideas and then I started writing my essay.*", showing that the participant did not utilize secondary sources or any other material for the completion of the assignment. Finally, the fourth most frequently stated process, Write, was mentioned by a participant as "*I applied the introduction – main body – conclusion rules to the essay.*", showing that the participant did not make use of any other processes than transcription by using prior knowledge. To conclude, the most frequently stated process sequences with respect to the completion of the posttest assignment appeared to have concentrated on reading secondary sources, planning and transcription parallel to the first and third assignments.

The least recurrently mentioned process sequences regarding the completion of the posttest assignment were Read Secondary Sources – Write in L1 – Translate and Revise Previous Feedback – Read Secondary Sources – Write, which were each mentioned by a single participant. In brief, the least frequently mentioned process sequences included the use of L1 and previous feedback along with secondary sources before transcription.

As a conclusion, the number of different process sequences reported by the participants gradually decreased throughout the intervention and they were mostly reduced down to reading secondary sources, planning and transcription in the last assignments. In the midtest assignment, it was seen that revising the previous feedback provided by the teacher emerged as a process and this process was reported in the posttest assignment, too. On the other hand, watching the film adaptation of the work and taking notes seemed to have disappeared in the posttest assignment. The findings seemed to have indicated a change in the processes that were undergone by the participants throughout the GBI intervention in that most participants appeared to have followed similar paths to the production of the text in the last assignment although there was a large diversity in the beginning.

Perceived Positive Aspects during the Production of Texts

The perceived positives experienced by the participants in text production throughout the GBI intervention were tabulated and ordered by posttest findings below in Table 45.

Table 45

Positive Aspects Perceived by the Participants throughout the GBI Intervention

Topic	Times Mentioned (Pretest)	Times Mentioned (Midtest)	Times Mentioned (Posttest)
Improving Essay Writing Skills	16	19	16
Learning content	2	16	10
Faster Completion of Assignment	0	4	7
Engaging Content	16	1	3
None	3	5	3
Increased Self-Confidence	0	0	2
Reduced Anxiety	0	0	2
Improving Vocabulary Knowledge	13	5	1
Challenging Task	0	0	1
Realize Own Performance	7	0	0
Process of Writing	4	0	0
Improving Grammatical Performance	2	0	0
Lowered Anxiety as Writing Proceeds	2	0	0
Help Warm Up for the Semester	1	0	0
Unchallenging Task	1	0	0
Refresh Previous Knowledge	1	0	0
Useful Previous Notes	1	0	0
Easy to Find Information	0	3	0
TOTAL	69	53	45
Number of Different Processes	13	7	9

As seen in the table, it was found out in the reflection findings of the pretest assignment that 13 different topics that had been perceived by the participants as positive were related to the content of the essay, participants' writing skills and writing performance, the processes that they had undergone and the psychology they were in during the production of the first text. The topics that were the most recurrently mentioned were the content's being appealing, helping improve writing skills and enhancing vocabulary. On the other hand, the topics that were the most repeatedly articulated were the task's being perceived as unchallenging, restoring previously acquired knowledge and finding lecture notes helpful in text production. Shortly, the topics perceived by the participants as positive were seen to pertain to writing skills, writing psychology and literary content.

The most frequently stated positive aspects of completing the pretest assignment were the content's being engaging, improving essay writing skills and enhancing vocabulary. Engaging content was articulated by a participant as "*I actually quite enjoyed it. Beowulf was a really interesting poem/story. Themes and the characters were really enjoable. The process was really positive for me.*", revealing that the storyline of the literary work to be analyzed was perceived as enjoyable. Improving writing skills, which was the second most frequently stated positive, was explained as "*I think that this was the first step of learning how to write an essay for my 'English Literature' lesson.*", indicating that having to write an essay from the beginning of the semester was perceived to be promising in terms of future writing performance. Lastly, improving vocabulary knowledge was mentioned as "*it has some advantage for students who should learn english.İ wrote it and now i learnt some new words while i was writing it.*", showing that the completion of the assignment resulted in the participant's perception of learning new words and phrases. Briefly, the pretest assignment appeared to have been perceived positively in terms of its pleasant content and potential to improve writing skills along with vocabulary.

The least frequently mentioned topics with respect to the positives as perceived by the participants in the pretest assignment were the task's being unchallenging, refreshing previously acquired knowledge and finding it useful to have notes that had been previously taken during class hours, each of which was mentioned by a single participant.

The analysis of the reflections on the midtest assignment revealed that the total number of positives mentioned by the participants decreased to 7 while the number of participants who reported no positives for the third assignment slightly increased. The most repeatedly reported positives in this assignment were the perceived improvements in writing skills, vocabulary and content knowledge and the least frequently reported positives were faster assignment completion, easier reach of information and finding the content engaging. The findings showed that engaging content as a topic that was perceived positively moved from the most frequently stated topics to the least frequently stated ones and restoring previously acquired knowledge, using lecture notes and finding the task unchallenging disappeared from among the positives in the midtest assignment.

According to the findings, the most frequently reported positives with respect to the completion of the midtest assignment were improving essay writing skills, learning the content and improving vocabulary knowledge. One participant reported the improvement in essay writing skills as "*As I write an essay, I starts to get use to how to write an actual essay.*", indicating that completing the assignment left the participant with a feeling of refinement in essay writing skills. The second most frequently mentioned positive, learning content, was mentioned as "*Positives: I learned why Hamlet used the concept of madness and how madness directed the play.*", implying that the content of the literary work that had been analyzed was perceived positively. The third most frequently mentioned positive, which was improving vocabulary knowledge, was explained as "*My vocabulary improved more than the others in this essay. This time, I was not too lazy to look up the words that I didn't know.*", revealing that the

experience of looking up and learning new words was the positive aspect of completing the assignment by that participant. In brief, the most frequently stated topic that were perceived as positive in the midtest assignment were related to the perceived improvements in writing skills, vocabulary and Content Knowledge.

According to the findings, the least recurrently reported positives in the completion of the midtest assignment were completing the assignment faster than before, finding it easy to reach information and the content's being engaging. However, these positives were mentioned by only a few participants.

The analysis of the reflections on the posttest assignment showed that the total number of positives mentioned by the participants was 9 while the number of participants who reported no positives for the third assignment slightly decreased. The most repeatedly reported positives in this assignment were the perceived improvements in writing skills, content knowledge and writing speed. On the other hand, the least frequently reported positives were faster assignment completion, easier reach of information and finding the content engaging. The findings showed that improving vocabulary knowledge as a topic that was perceived positively moved from the most frequently stated topics to the least frequently stated ones and ease of finding information disappeared from among the positives in the posttest assignment.

Among the topics mentioned as positives in the posttest assignment, improving essay writing skills, learning the content and completing the assignment faster were the most frequently mentioned ones. Among these, the perceived improvement in essay writing skills was mentioned as "*The positive was that I noticed that my writing has improved. So, I was able to combine the paragraphs.*", showing that the participant noticed some furtherance in his/her ability to consolidate paragraphs into a unified essay. The second most frequently mentioned positive, the learning of the content, was explained as "*The positive way was that I've learned about another play from the English Literature.*", indicating that the participant found it positive

to increase his/her level of Content Knowledge. The third most frequently stated topic, the faster completion of the assignment, was elaborated on as "*I wrote it in a shorter time, I spend about 1 hour. When I started in the first weeks, I had to spend 5 hours.*", showing a substantial perceived reduction in the length of time needed for the completion of the assignment. In outline, the most frequently reported positives for the posttest assignment were the perceived improvements in essay writing skills, content knowledge and writing fluency.

In the reflections on the posttest assignment, the least recurrently mentioned topics that were perceived as negative were a decreased level of writing anxiety, the task's being challenging and a perceived improvement in vocabulary knowledge. These topics mentioned by the participants indicated that a few of them enjoyed contemplating on the content and the completion of the task as well as perceiving an increased level of self-consciousness with respect to one's abilities in terms of completing the assignment.

In sum, the number of the topics perceived positively by the participants in the posttest assignment was only slightly fewer than the pretest and slightly more than the midtest assignments and the number of participants who perceived no positive in the completion of the assignment were identical with the pretest assignment and lightly fewer than the midtest assignment. The most repeatedly mentioned positives in the posttest assignment, which were a perceived enhancement in writing skills, writing fluency and content knowledge appeared to have increased in terms of frequency in comparison with the pretest and midtest assignments. The least frequently mentioned positives, a perceived decrease in writing anxiety, evaluating the task as challenging and learning new lexical items also had differences compared to the pretest and midtest assignments in that the perceived decrease in writing anxiety appeared in the pretest but not in the midtest assignment, evaluating the task as challenging was a completely new topic in the posttest assignment and a perceived enhancement in vocabulary knowledge was among the most frequently stated topics in the pretest and midtest assignments

but it was one of the least frequently mentioned topics in the posttest assignment. Lastly, the content's being perceived as engaging, which was among the most frequently stated positives in the pretest assignment and among the least frequently stated positives in the midtest assignment, seemed to have disappeared from among the positives mentioned by the participants. With respect to the topics that were perceived positively by the participants, the participants seemed to have followed a pattern that had gradually become more oriented towards learning the content and producing a relevant and well-structured text.

Perceived Negative Aspects during the Production of Texts

The perceived positives experienced by the participants in text production throughout the GBI intervention were tabulated and ordered by posttest findings below in Table 46.

Table 46

Negative Aspects Perceived by the Participants throughout the GBI Intervention

Topic	Times Mentioned (Pretest)	Times Mentioned (Midtest)	Times Mentioned (Posttest)
None	21	25	29
Perceived Low Performance	0	4	5
Challenging Task	7	7	4
Difficult to find information	0	2	2
Time-Taking Task	5	4	1
Negative Attitude Towards Writing	4	1	1
Difficult to find ideas	0	0	1
Outdated language in the play	0	0	1
Tedious Content	6	0	0
Experiencing Writing Anxiety	4	0	0
Difficulty in Coherence	2	0	0
Lack of Content Knowledge	2	0	0
Lack of Genre Knowledge	2	0	0
Narrow Essay Topic	2	0	0
Physical Challenge	2	0	0
Perceived Lack of Writing Self-Efficacy	1	0	0
Rushing in The Last Minute	1	2	0
Deadline	1	0	0
Going off-topic	0	1	0
TOTAL	60	46	44
Number of Different Processes	14	8	8

In the pretest assignment, the participants reported 14 topics related to the process of writing, the content of the essay, negative psychology, timing and the knowledge required as the negative aspects. The most frequently mentioned negatives were the challenging, monotonous and time-taking nature of the task and the least frequently mentioned negatives were the demanding nature of the task as well the deadline and the feelings involved in attempting to catch up with the deadline. The material to be dealt with and the timing of the task appeared to have been perceived as negatives in the pretest assignment.

The most frequently mentioned negatives by the participants for the pretest assignment were the task's being challenging, the content's being tedious and the presence of a time limit for the submission of the assignment. Regarding the task's being challenging, one participant said "*First, it was difficult for me keeping the story in my mind. Making good analyses, constructing connect between sentences was challenge for me.*", showing that the participant may have felt overwhelmed by the number of different processes such as remembering information, taking on an analytical stance and producing a coherent script in the pretest assignment. Another participant who reported to have perceived the content as tedious remarked, "*About the negatives, I think the content was not engaging enough for all students and this reduces the efficiency.*", stating that the low level of enjoyment may have caused poorer performance. The task's being time-taking was also mentioned by a participant as one of the negative aspects of the assignments as "*I think this assignment takes a lot of time, especially me.*", indicating that the time-taking nature of the assignment was perceived negatively. Briefly, the pretest assignment seemed to have been perceived negatively mostly due to its being exigent, uninspiring and time-consuming.

In the pretest assignment, the least repeatedly reported negatives with respect to the completion of the essay were a participant's self-perception of low self-efficacy, rushing for submission in the last minute and the presence of a deadline for submissions. In essence, the

least repeatedly reported negatives in the pretest assignment were the task's being demanding, a feeling of rushing for the deadline and the presence of a deadline for submissions.

Having analyzed the topics that were perceived negatively in the midtest assignment, it was seen that the number of different topics perceived negatively decreased almost by half with 8 topics, however, the majority of the reflections still indicated that there had been no negatives with respect to the completion of the assignment. Regarding this finding, it was also seen that the number of mentions indicating that the assignment had no negatives slightly increased in the midtest assignment.

The most repeatedly mentioned topics for the negatives in the midtest assignment were the task's being challenging and time-consuming as well as the perceived low performance reported by some participants. On the demanding nature of the task, one participant noted "*Negative was that it was hard for me to comment on writer's technique.*", showing that the participant found it rather hard to fulfill the requirements of the midtest assignment. The time-consuming nature of the assignment, which was also among the most repeatedly stated negatives, was also complained about by a participant who said "*As a negative, it took 4 hours.*", implying that the completion of the task took too long. The last most repeated negative, perceived low performance, was the perceived low performance and it was remarked by a participant as "*I collected some information about the topic but I couldn't write them out again.*", showing that the participant had not been content with his/her own performance. In sum, it was seen in the midtest assignment that the most repeatedly mentioned negative issues were the task's being arduous and overlong along with the performance of some participants perceived as poor on their own behalf.

The least recurrently stated negative issues with respect to the midtest assignment were rushing for submission in the last minute, going off-topic and negative attitude towards writing. The least recurrently mentioned negative issues with respect to the completion of the midtest

assignment were the negative feeling as a result of leaving the submission to the last day, perceived irrelevance of the text with the task and a generic negative attitude towards writing.

When the most frequently reported negatives, which were the task's being challenging and time-consuming along with the perceived low performance on behalf of some participants, it was seen that the first two topics were present also in the reflections on the pretest assignment but the perceived low performance emerged in the third week as a new topic. Moreover, a topic which was among the most frequently reported negatives in the pretest assignment, that is, the content's being tedious, seemed to have disappeared in the midtest assignment. The least frequently stated negatives, which were rushing in the last minute, going off-topic and negative attitude towards writing, also had differences in comparison to the pretest assignment in that while rushing in the last minute was present also in the reflections on the midtest assignment, going off-topic emerged as a new topic and negative attitude towards writing was reported fewer times in comparison to the first week. In summary, although there were similarities in the most and the least frequently mentioned topics in the pretest and midtest assignments, it was seen that there were also a few topics which either appeared or disappeared in the midtest and the number of times that the assignment was mentioned to have had no negatives increased to a small degree.

The posttest findings showed that most of the participants perceived no negatives in the last essay of the intervention. Besides, it was seen that 8 different topics were mentioned by the participants as the negative aspects of completing the assignment and these topics were related to writing skills, the nature of the task, writing psychology and the content of the essay. Briefly, it was seen in the reflections on the posttest assignment that the number of different topics mentioned as negative was the same with the midtest assignment and the topics were also similar except for those related to the content of the essay, while the number of times that the

assignment was reported to have had no negatives slightly increased in the posttest assignment in comparison to the midtest assignment.

The most frequently mentioned topics that were perceived as negative in the posttest assignment was found to have been the perceived low performance, the task's being challenging and difficulty in finding information with respect to the essay topic. Regarding the perceived low performance reported as a negative, one participant explained, "*It is somewhat easier to avoid narration now. But when I try to explain the author's point of view, I still tend to narrate the story.*", showing that the participant was not content with his / her own performance in terms of producing an expository text. The second most frequently mentioned topic, the challenging nature of the task, was briefly pointed at by a participant who said "*It was difficult because there was little information and the play was complicated.*", indicating difficulty in writing the essay due to the limited availability of information and the literary work's being complex in nature. Lastly, difficulty in finding information was shortly mentioned by a participant as "*Sometimes it becomes quite difficult to find information.*", referring to a perceived perplexity in locating and choosing relevant secondary sources. In essence, the findings with respect to the completion of the posttest assignment showed that the most frequently mentioned negatives centered around perceiving own performance as low, the task as demanding and finding information as strenuous.

In the posttest assignment, the least frequently mentioned negatives were found to be the negative attitude towards writing, the literary work's language being outdated and the task's being time-taking.

In summary, the analyses of the reflections on the posttest assignment showed that the number of topics mentioned as negative was the same as the midtest and fewer than the pretest but the number of times that no negatives were mentioned had a slight increase in the posttest in comparison to the pretest and the midtest. The most recurrently mentioned negatives in the

posttest were the perceived low performance, the task's being challenging and the difficulty experienced in finding information about the topic of the assignment. Among these, the perceived low performance and the task's being challenging were also among the most frequently mentioned negatives in the midtest, nevertheless, difficulty in finding information was towards the middle in the list in terms of frequency in that test. Even so, it should be noted that the frequency of this particular topic was the same in the reflections on both assignments.

The least frequently mentioned negatives also resulted in several changes in the posttest in that going off-topic and rushing in the last minute disappeared as negatively perceived topics. Moreover, the language of the literary work which was analyzed was criticized for the first time in this assignment. The task's being time-consuming, on the other hand, was among the least frequently mentioned negatives in the posttest although it was among the most repeatedly mentioned negatives in the pretest and the midtest. Lastly, negative attitude towards writing remained among the least frequently mentioned negatives in the posttest similar to the midtest and different than the pretest assignment, in which the same topic was towards the upper side of the topics ranked by frequency.

All in all, changes were concluded to have been observed in the perceived negatives of the intervention across measurements in terms of the number of statements reporting the assignment has having had no negatives along with the most and the least recurrently mentioned negatives.

Perceived Learning Gains During the Production of Texts

The perceived learning gains experienced by the participants in text production throughout the GBI intervention were tabulated and ordered by posttest findings below in Table 47.

Table 47

Perceived Learning Gains throughout the GBI Intervention (N = 78)

Topic	Times Mentioned (Pretest)	Times Mentioned (Midtest)	Times Mentioned (Posttest)
Content	30	25	21
Producing the Genre	15	7	10
New Vocabulary	9	4	5
Own Performance Realization	3	3	3
New Structures	2	0	2
No Learning	2	3	2
Study Skills	0	1	2
Planning	2	2	1
Using Prior knowledge	3	0	0
Time Management	2	1	0
Punctuation	1	0	0
Comparing Concepts	0	1	0
Connectors	0	1	0
Taking on Author's Perspective	0	1	0
Writing Faster	1	0	0
TOTAL	70	49	46
Number of Different Processes	11	11	8

As given in the table, the participants' responses for the perceived learning gains in the pretest assignment were found to have been centered around the literary work's content, perceived performance level, writing skills and time management with 11 different topics, even though a few participants reported that no learning had occurred in that particular assignment. The most recurrently mentioned topics that had been perceived to have been learned were content, producing the genre and new vocabulary while the least recurrently mentioned ones were planning, managing one's time and punctuation accuracy. In short, learning was seen to have been perceived by the participants to have occurred in terms of the literary text itself, performance perception, writing skills and arranging one's time.

The most recurrently reported topics as for what had been learned in the pretest assignment were the literary work's content, how to produce the literary analysis essay as a genre and new vocabulary, according to the findings. Regarding the work's content, one participant said "*I have learned many things about the social life of the period when Beowulf was written. Such as the psychology of people, their kingdoms...*", revealing that perceived learning occurred within the first assignment in terms of the storyline of the literary work and the information deduced from the storyline. Producing the Literary Analysis Essay was also among the most recurrently mentioned topics in the third reflection question, having been mentioned as "*From this essay, i learnt how to write a character analysis.*", putting emphasis on the production of the genre. Lastly, learning new vocabulary, which was also among the most recurrently reported topics in the third question, was commented on as "*I learned some new words since I used a dictionary.*", indicating that the task encouraged the participant to use a dictionary to look up unknown words. Briefly, the most recurrently stated topics with respect to what had been learned in the pretest assignment were the literary work's content, writing a Literary Analysis Essay and new lexical items.

In the pretest, the least repeatedly mentioned topics that had reportedly been learned were planning, time management and punctuation. The participants who mentioned these topics indicated an increased level of awareness with respect to the necessity of outlining the text beforehand, a perceived development in time management and an increase in self-awareness in terms of the significance of accurate punctuation.

The scrutiny of the reflections on perceived learning in the midtest revealed that the number of topics including the mentions of the absence of learning was the same as the numbers computed in the pretest with 11 different topics. Exactly the same as the pretest assignment, the most recurrently mentioned topics with respect to perceived learning were the learning related to the content of the literary work, producing a literary analysis essay and unknown words and

phrases. On the other hand, the least frequently reported topics with respect to perceived learning in the midtest, which were the learning of study skills, taking on the author's perspective and time management, appeared to reflect changes in that the first two of these topics emerged in the midtest and punctuation as a learning item, which was present in the pretest, disappeared in the third one. Furthermore, planning, which was also present among the least repeated topics in the pretest, appeared to have moved a few ranks up in the midtest, however, the number of times it was mentioned remained the same. In brief, although the most frequently mentioned topics with regards to perceived learning were identical to the pretest in the third one, the least frequently mentioned topics indicated a few changes in terms of emerging and disappearing themes.

The most frequently mentioned topics with regards to what had been learned in the midtest assignment was the content of the literary work, the production of the genre and new vocabulary. Regarding the content of the work, one participant stated "*Frankly, I understood that Hamlet was a very nice work. I also had the chance to watch its film.*", implying that the content of the work was learned and it was a pleasing experience. The second most frequently reported learning item, producing the literary analysis essay, was reported by a participant who said "*I have learnt that what I would say in the first paragraph and the thesis statement would be the answer of the essay's question.*", emphasizing the rhetorical moves to be performed in the introduction paragraph of a literary analysis essay. The third most frequently mentioned learning item, new vocabulary, was only shortly mentioned by a participant as "*I've learned new words and their synonyms.*", indicating the perceived learning of new lexical items. In sum, the perceived learning as reported by the participants in the reflections on the midtest assignment most frequently included the learning of the content, the production of the genre and new words and phrases.

In the midtest assignment, the least frequently mentioned topics that had reportedly been learned were study skills, taking on the perspective of the author of the literary work and time management.

The posttest findings revealed that there were 8 different topics that were reportedly learned, matching the number of different topics in the midtest, and a few mentions of an absence of learning in the posttest assignment. Similar to the pretest and midtest, the topics which were mentioned in terms of having been learned in the posttest were related to the literary work's content, writing skills and perceived performance. The perceived learning items which were reported by the participants in the reflections on the posttest assignment appeared to have been quite similar to the pretest and midtest in terms of the number of topics and their content.

In the posttest assignment, the most repeatedly mentioned topics in terms of perceived learning on behalf of the participants were the content of the literary work, producing the Literary Analysis Essay as a genre and new vocabulary. In respect of content, a participant commented "*I've learned the Restoration Period and why they act like that and feudalism and capitalism also.*", focusing attention on the content of the literary work as for the perceived learning in the posttest. Concerning the production of the Literary Analysis Essay as a genre, a participant said "*I've understood the outline of a Literary Analysis Essay better.*", placing emphasis on the genre to be produced as the learning outcome of completing the assignment. On learning new vocabulary during the posttest assignment, one of the participants simply declared "*I learnt some words that I didn't know.*", highlighting the learning of new lexical items during the completion of the assignment. Briefly, the most repeatedly stated topics in regard to perceived learning in the posttest assignment foregrounded content, producing the genre and new words and phrases according to the findings.

The least recurrently reported topics in respect of perceived learning in the posttest assignment were study skills in terms of making use of lecture notes, planning and writing faster according to the findings.

As a conclusion, the findings revealed that the number of different topics with regards to perceived learning, along with the number of the mentions of an absence of learning, remained very similar in the pretest, midtest and posttest assignments. Furthermore, the most frequently reported topics with respect to perceived learning was found to have been the same in all three assignments. However, the reflections on the posttest assignment showed that taking on the author's perspective, which emerged in the midtest, and time management, which was present in both the pretest and midtest, had disappeared in the posttest and writing faster as a perceived learning outcome emerged in the same assignment. Planning and study skills, on the other hand, were observed to be in the list of topics in both the midtest and the posttest. In sum, the perceived learning on behalf of the participants appeared to be mainly similar throughout the intervention with a few changes in the least frequently mentioned topics from time to time.

Perceived Future Influence of the Production of Texts

The perceived learning gains experienced by the participants in text production throughout the GBI intervention were tabulated and ordered by posttest findings below in Table 48.

Table 48

Perceived Future Influence of the GBI Intervention throughout the Study

Topic	Times Mentioned (Pretest)	Times Mentioned (Midtest)	Times Mentioned (Posttest)
Write Better	25	25	24
Write Faster	7	7	7
Use Genre Knowledge	0	5	6
Make Fewer Mistakes	8	4	4
Increase Fluency	2	1	1
No Future Influence	1	0	1
Write Less Anxiously	0	0	1
Use the New Structures	3	0	0
Use the New Vocabulary	3	2	0
Unsure	2	0	0
Help Avoid Repetition	1	0	0
Increase Coherence	1	2	0
Increase Confidence	1	1	0
Increase Motivation	1	0	0
Read Secondary Sources	1	0	0
Manage Time Better	0	3	0
TOTAL	56	50	44
Number of Different Processes	13	9	7

The analyses of the topics pertaining to the perceived future influence of finalizing the first assignment revealed that 11 different topics, excluding 1 mention of being unsure and 1 mention of no perceived future influence, predominantly centered around performance in and speed and psychology of writing, even though there were a few participants who were unsure about the future influence of the assignment or believed that there would have been no future influence at all. Shortly, the pretest assignment appeared to have been perceived to influence writing performance, writing speed and writing psychology.

The most repeatedly mentioned topics with respect to the perceived future influence of completing the pretest assignment were writing better, making fewer mistakes and writing faster according to the findings. On writing better, one student commented, "*This essay was a*

kind of testing our knowledge and the next essays will be more better.", emphasizing that the first assignment enabled them to see their performance and the expectation was to get gradually better in writing. The second most repeatedly mentioned topic, making fewer mistakes, was explained by a participant as "*Of course influence my next essay because I will see my mistakes and working to don't them again.*", stating that the assignment would result in an awareness of mistakes and the participant would show effort to correct them in the upcoming assignments. The third most repeatedly mentioned topic, writing faster, was briefly mentioned by a participant as "*It could make my completion time shorter in the next one.*", suggesting that the pretest assignment was perceived to influence the participant's writing speed positively. In essence, the most repeatedly mentioned topics with regards to the perceived future influence of the pretest assignment appeared to have been connected to an increased writing performance and writing speed as well as a decreased number of mistakes.

The least recurrently reported topics in respect of the perceived future influence of completing the pretest assignment were an increase in confidence and motivation along with reading secondary sources.

In the midtest reflections, it was revealed that the number of different topics stated by the participants were quite close to each other with 9 topics, although the reports of being unsure about a future influence or believing in no future effect appeared to have disappeared from among the topics in the midtest. Furthermore, in both the pretest and the midtest, the topics mentioned by the participants were seen to have been related to writing performance, writing psychology and writing speed. In both assignments, the most frequently mentioned topics were the same in terms of writing better and making fewer mistakes as a future influence of completing the assignment, however, using the recently acquired genre knowledge emerged as a new topic in the midtest, pushing making fewer mistakes to the fourth place in rank. On the other hand, the least frequently mentioned topics regarding the perceived future influence of

the midtest assignment were found to have been different in comparison to those in the pretest in that while an increased level of confidence remained in the lower end of the list, an increased level of motivation, which was present in the pretest, disappeared from among the least frequently mentioned topics while an increased level of fluency and using new vocabulary, which were higher up in the pretest, turned out to be near the lower end of the list. As a conclusion, changes were observed in the midtest with reference to the perceived future influence of completing the assignment when compared to the responses of the participants in the pretest.

The topics with the highest frequency in respect of the perceived future influence of completing the midtest assignment were writing better, writing faster and using the recently acquired Genre Knowledge. One participant briefly explained writing better as a perceived future influence of the midtest assignment as "*Yes because as i mentioned the last essay i wrote, writing improves step by step and with these essays, our writing and thinking skills are improving every single week.*", implying that the assignment was perceived by that participant as writing practice and thus it was expected to influence future writing performance. Another participant commented on writing faster as a perceived future influence as "*I think it will be beneficial for my next assignment because it used to take a longer time to write before but the more I learn about the writing techniques I can complete the assignments faster.*", indicating that the assignments were expected to increase writing speed gradually. Lastly, using the Genre Knowledge recently acquired was briefly mentioned by a participant as "*Yes it will influence because ı know the rules and details of writing an essay.*", showing that the participant felt more confident in completing the upcoming assignments using the knowledge acquired thus far until the end of the midtest assignment. In sum, the most recurrently stated topics as to the perceived future influence of completing the midtest assignment were found to be an increased

performance and speed in writing as well as being able to use the Genre Knowledge that had been recently acquired by the time the midtest was completed.

The topics with the lowest frequency in respect of the perceived future influence of completing the midtest assignment were using the new vocabulary learned and increased levels of confidence and writing fluency. These participants were observed to expect to use the recently learned words and phrases in the later assignments, perceive their levels of confidence to have increased and be engaged in more fluent writing as a result of the intervention.

Completing the posttest assignment was perceived to affect the upcoming assignment in terms of 7 different topics and the belief that no future influence would be observed, which had been present in the pretest but had disappeared in the third one, was seen to have reemerged in the posttest. Identical to the pretest and the midtest, the topics mentioned in the posttest were found to have been related to the speed of and performance in writing along with writing psychology. In this test analyses showed that the number of different topics mentioned by the participants regarding the perceived future influence of the posttest assignment were slightly lower than the other assignments with no influence reemerging as a topic, however, the content of the topics remained essentially the same as the pretest and the midtest.

The topics with the highest frequency that were mentioned by the participants with reference to the perceived future influence of completing the posttest assignment were writing better, writing faster and using the Genre Knowledge acquired within the context of the study according to the findings. One participant explained the first one of these topics, writing better, as "*Yes I think the next essay of mine will be better. Because the more you try the better you get.*", emphasizing the opportunity to practice writing thanks to the assignment. The second most recurrently mentioned topic, writing faster, was commented on by a participant as "*I believe my writing speed has increased. Because of this, I will benefit from this in terms of speed in the next essay.*", indicating an expectation to carry on the perceived increase in writing

speed in the forthcoming assignments as well. Lastly, using the Genre Knowledge acquired within the context of the study was mentioned by a participant as "*Since I've learned the general rules of writing an essay, I don't think writing will be difficult anymore. It will also help me with things like theses in the future.*", stating that the knowledge acquired would be utilized in other forms of writing as well. Making use of the Genre Knowledge acquired within the study together with writing better and faster were the topics which were the most repeatedly reported by the participants in respect of the perceived future influence of completing the posttest assignment.

In the posttest, the topics that were reported by the participants regarding the perceived future influence of completing the assignment in the lowest frequency were found to have been making fewer mistakes, an increased level of writing fluency and a decreased level of writing anxiety. Thanks to the intervention, these participants were seen to adopt an expectation to avoid possible mistakes, increase the length of their texts and be more comfortable with writing emotionally.

All in all, analyses showed that the total number of topics mentioned regarding the perceived future influence of completing the posttest assignment was slightly lower than the midtest and almost half the number as the pretest, indicating a declining trend in the number of different topics across measurements. However, the content of the topics was observed to have been the same in all three assignments being associated with writing performance, writing psychology and writing speed. The most frequently reported topics in the posttest assignment were identical to those in the midtest but slightly different than the pretest as using the recently acquired genre knowledge was not present in the pretest. The emergence of this particular topic seemed to have pushed another frequently mentioned topic, making fewer mistakes, down in the ranking, placing it towards the middle of the list in the midtest and the end of the list in the posttest. Nonetheless, the number of mentions with regards to making fewer mistakes were

found to be the same in the midtest and the posttest. Another least frequently mentioned topic in the posttest, a perceived increase in writing fluency, were observed to have remained stable in terms of presence and frequency in all three assignments. A decreased level of writing anxiety, on the other hand, seemed to have emerged in the posttest among the least frequently mentioned topics. Among these, using the newly learned vocabulary and a perceived increase in the level of confidence, which were present in both the pretest and the midtest, was found to have disappeared. Therefore, it was concluded that the perceived future influence of completing the assignments within the context of the study had been subjected to changes throughout the intervention study.

The second phase of the analysis of the participants' perceptions included qualitative analysis of 20 participants' responses to the interview questions, which aimed at discovering the perceptions of the participants on the positives and negatives of the intervention overall.

Positives of the GBI Intervention

The findings regarding the positives of intervention as reported by the participants in the face-to-face interviews were presented below.

Table 49

Positives of GBI as Perceived by the Interview Participants (n = 20)

Topic	Times Mentioned
Increased Genre Awareness	20
Quality Feedback	6
Increased Proficiency	5
Increased Proficiency Awareness	4
Increased Coherence	4
Transferable to Other Domains	3
Decreased Anxiety	1
Learning the Content	1
No Score Focus	1
Sufficient Time	1
TOTAL	46

Analyses showed that there were 10 different topics that were stated to have been perceived positively at the end of the intervention. The topics were seen to be primarily related to writing skills, the feedback component of the intervention, perceived L2 writing proficiency, writing psychology and learning the content.

The most frequently mentioned positive in the interview was a perceived increase in the participants' genre awareness. Regarding this topic, P19 explained, "*I've improved in terms of the general rules of the [literary analysis] essay. Like introduction should have this, main body should have that... Or you need to restate your thesis in the conclusion part... I believe that I've learned them.*", drawing attention on the nature of rhetorical moves which was believed to have been learned thanks to the intervention. On the same issue, P5 elaborated:

I can say that I've learned how to write an essay in this course. Maybe not about vocabulary, but in terms of the technique and strategies to write... I mean, the introduction, main body and conclusion... Even if I don't know anything about the content now, I have a structure in my mind regarding an essay. First I'll write the intro, a thesis, the main body after that and a conclusion. I have this structure settled in my mind now. (P5)

With this quotation, the participant confirmed the previous quotation by reporting that the rhetorical moves utilized in a literary analysis could be repeated with any essay prompt requiring a literary analysis essay. In short, a perceived increase in genre knowledge was the topic that was the most commonly stated as a positive of the GBI intervention which was reported by the interview participants with reference to the learning of the rhetorical moves conventionally used in a literary analysis essay.

The genre-focused feedback component of the intervention was the second topic that was the most frequently mentioned by the interview participants. This particular component of

the intervention was praised by P1 as "*The feedback had lots of positives. So much that it was the most significant positive. Because we learned what the mistake was, where it was and how to correct it. It really contributed a lot.*", revealing that the feedback received as a part of the intervention was perceived to be the most efficient component of the intervention by that participant. P13 positively commented on the feedback component of the intervention by saying, "*I've really improved because of your feedback, it was very helpful. Sometimes I got too bored of trying out a thesis, sometimes I couldn't find one, but I was able to correct them thanks to your feedback.*", pointing at the effectiveness of the feedback received as a part of the intervention. Briefly, feedback received by the participants as a component within the intervention was the second most recurrently mentioned positive of the intervention in terms of allowing the participants to become aware of and correct their mistakes.

The third most recurrently mentioned positive of the intervention as reported by the participants was a perceived increase in overall L2 proficiency. This increase was explained by P15 as "*I've learned lots of words, also pronunciation. I think, I still have deficiencies in terms of grammar, but I believe I have improved it, too, at least a little bit.*", showing that the participant had had the perception of being more proficient in English thanks to the intervention by the time the interview was conducted. In sum, the third topic which was the most repeatedly mentioned as for the positives of the intervention was a perceived increase in L2 proficiency which was mentioned by the participants in terms of grammar and vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation and L2 writing skills.

The topics that were less frequently mentioned by the participants among the positives of the intervention were increased levels of proficiency awareness, coherence and content knowledge, the knowledge's being transferable to other domains, having sufficient time to complete assignments, the intervention's having no score focus and a decreased level of writing anxiety. Those participants stated that they had a better grasp of own strengths and weaknesses,

improved their perception of a text as a unified whole, experiencing more positive feelings while writing and enjoying writing without the stressed caused by the teacher's scoring the text.

As a conclusion, the interview data showed that the participants positively perceived the topics which were related to their perceived proficiency in L2 writing, writing psychology and content learning. According to the findings, the most commonly perceived positive in respect of the intervention was an increase in genre knowledge, which was thought to have manifested itself in the form of performing accurate rhetorical moves in text production. A second point of praise on behalf of most students was seen to be the feedback component of the intervention which was believed to have allowed them to identify and correct own mistakes. A third frequently mentioned positive was the perceived increase in L2 proficiency, which was thought to have had an effect on vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and writing skills in L2. Other topics that were perceived positively by the interview participants included a perceived increase in the levels of proficiency awareness and coherence, evaluating the knowledge acquired throughout the intervention as being transferable to other forms of writing, learning the content, the non-existence of a score focus, having adequate time to complete assignments and a perceived decrease in writing anxiety. In outline, the participants seemed to have positively perceived the developments in their L2 writing skills, writing psychology, timing and learning the course content.

Negatives of the GBI Intervention

The findings regarding the negatives of intervention as reported by the participants in the face-to-face interviews were presented below.

Table 50

Negatives of GBI as Perceived by the Interview Participants (n = 20)

Topic	Times Mentioned
Occasional Tedious Content	4
Absence Intolerant Content	2
Difficult Essay Questions	2
Limited Essay Questions	2
Time Consuming	2
Increased Anxiety due to Feedback	1
Rushing in the Last Minute	1
Skipping Pre-Class Readings	1
Too Few Assignments	1
Limited Time	1
TOTAL	17

According to the results, there were 10 different topics that were reported to have been perceived negatively at the end of the intervention. The topics were found to be predominantly related to the course content, essay questions, timing and writing psychology.

The most frequently mentioned negative in the interview regarding the intervention was the content's being occasionally tedious for the participants. This was explained by P7 as "*When the topic does not attract my attention, I find it difficult to write. But when I find the topic interesting, it is much easier. The only negative is this... The content...*", implying that the topic of the assignment may have a reducing effect on the participant's writing performance. P11 briefly mentions the tedium of the course content by stating, "*The negatives... I find the [literary] periods a bit dull.*", mentioning the content of the course as a source of negative feelings towards the intervention. This finding showed that the content of the course might have been perceived as uninteresting and thus counted among the negatives of the intervention.

In the qualitative analyses, it was also seen that there were 4 topics each of which mentioned by 2 participants as the negatives of the intervention, which were absence intolerant content, difficult essay questions, limited essay questions and time-consuming assignments. On

the content's being absence intolerant, P17 said "*I didn't really know what to write in those weeks that I hadn't attended the class. I didn't know anything about the topic so I couldn't write well.*", indicating that skipping classes was perceived to have been a hindering factor in the completion of assignments due to not receiving knowledge that was useful to complete them. The difficulty of the essay questions was exemplified by P20 who said "*The essay question was a bit too difficult in... It was The Canterbury Tales I think. It was excessively difficult for me.*", showing that some of the essay questions were perceived by the participants as too difficult to write a literary analysis essay on and this was perceived as a negative aspect of the intervention. The limited nature of the essay questions was criticized by P6 who remarked "*The topics were a bit... How to say... Because of the thesis, the main body parts were supposed to be a bit short and it felt weird. I had this feeling... Did I do it right or wrong?*", indicating the delimiting nature of the assignment topics among the negatives of the intervention. Lastly, the assignments' being time-consuming was denounced by P10 who commented "*Since we do something like this for the first time, it takes a bit too much time. I mean, we need to search for [secondary] sources, summarize the storyline and so on... So, it takes time.*", drawing attention on the amount of work and time required to complete each assignment. In sum, the negative topics which were mentioned by 2 participants each were found to be the difficulty experienced when a class is skipped, the arduousness, time-expensiveness and the delimiting nature of the assignments.

Among the topics mentioned as negatives in the interviews, 5 topics, namely increased anxiety due to feedback, rushing in the last minute, skipping pre-class readings, too few assignments and limited time, were found to have been mentioned by a single participant each. By mentioning these topics, the participants explained that they had a low level of mistake tolerance and receiving correction suggestions in the feedback had a negative effect on their levels of anxiety. Moreover, regularly submitting the assignments at a point that was too close

to the deadline was a source of negativity for a participant, too. Taking responsibility in the perceived demotivation with respect to the assignments, a participant believed that coming to the class unprepared was among the negatives that were experienced. The assignments' being too few in number was also criticized by a participant, indicating the lack of options regarding the weekly assignments was considered to have been a negative. Finally, the deadline of 7 days per assignment was disapproved of by a participant, stating that more time to complete the assignment was needed.

Considering all the topics which were reported as the perceived negative aspects of the intervention, it was seen that topics associated with the content of the English Literature I course, the nature of the essay questions, time-related issues and writing psychology were criticized by the participants in the face-to-face interviews. Primarily, the occasional tedium of the content was a point of criticism according to the findings. Secondarily, difficulty with respect to the time and labor required by the assignments along with their delimiting attributes and being absence intolerant were seen to have been points of disparagement. Lastly, negative feelings were reported in respect of the feedback component of the intervention, submitting assignments in the last minute to the deadline, the completion time's being limited and the number of assignment's being too few. In essence, the negative topics articulated by the participants with respect to the intervention were seen to be linked to the course content, essay questions, the time required to complete the assignment and the psychological experiences of the participants with respect to the act of writing and receiving feedback.

Having qualitatively analyzed the entire data set to discover how the participants perceived the GBI intervention, it was concluded that the perceptions of the participants pointed at the actualization of learning thanks to the intervention as indicated by the processes, positives, negatives, learning experiences and perceived future influence of completing

assignments as well as the positively and negatively perceived topics in the post-intervention interview.

Analyses of the processes as reported by the participants indicated that the large number of different processes which had been gone through in the completion of assignments were predominantly reduced down to reading secondary sources, planning and transcription for most participants. In addition, the positives reported by the participants immediately after completing the assignments revealed a gradual increase in the perception of improving writing skills as well as increased perceptions in learning the content and being able to produce well-structured texts. Parallel to this, the number of mentions with respect to the assignments having had no negatives at all was seen to have increased gradually along with the decrease in the mentions of negative attitude towards writing and the tasks' being time-consuming. Furthermore, learning the content, how to produce the genre and new words and phrases remained stable as the most commonly perceived learning gains of completing the assignments throughout the intervention. Moreover, using the recently acquired genre knowledge emerged as a perceived future influence after the in-class GBI and the expectation of making fewer mistakes in the upcoming assignments slowly decreased throughout the assignments. Lastly, although the post-intervention interviews revealed negatively perceived topics such as the content of the course, essay topics, writing psychology, feedback received and the time required to complete assignments, a majority of the interview participants were seen to have mentioned the same topics as the positives of the intervention.

In conclusion, the perceptions of the participants throughout and at the end of the intervention indicated that the intervention had had a predominantly positive effect on their learning and psychology with respect to writing Literary Analysis Essays.

Findings of RQ8. *How is the process of GBI procedure perceived by the teacher?*

In order to understand the perceptions of the teacher-researcher with respect to the process of GBI procedure, the diary entries of the teacher-researcher which overlapped the data collection weeks from the participants were qualitatively analyzed. As a result, analyses showed that the topics mentioned in the diary entries through the course of the intervention could be grouped under positives, negatives and decisions taken by the teacher researcher with respect to the actions to be taken in the following weeks.

Pretest Diary Entry

The findings obtained by means of the pretest diary entry written by the course instructor were tabulated below in Table 51.

Table 51

Findings of the Teacher's Pretest Diary Entry

Theme	Topic
Positives	High Motivation among Participants
	Potential for Peer Support
Negatives	Narrative Writing
	Similar Feedback to Many Participants
Decisions	Giving Specific Feedback for Each Rhetorical Move

Analysis of the diary entry of the first week, which overlapped with the pretests, revealed that the teacher-researcher perceived the high level of participant motivation and the potential to receive in-class aid from seemingly more competent participants as the positives. The observation of high participant motivation with respect to learning the literary analysis essay was briefly mentioned in the first entry as "*The positive side is that they seem to be very eager to learn how to make this right.*", showing that the participants were perceived by the teacher-researcher to have had the desired level of motivation to progress regarding the learning of literary analysis essays. The second positive, observing a potential to receive in-class aid

from seemingly more competent participants, was explained as *"...there are a few students who appear to know how to write an argumentative/expository essay, so I may require their help during the instruction since it is rather ardous to provide immediate feedback to every student in the class."*, signifying at least some concern on behalf of the teacher-researcher with respect to the class size and an expectation to receive help from some of the participants for the immediate feedback that was to be provided in the classroom during the GBI. As a result, positives of the first week as perceived by the teacher-researcher were found to have been the perception of high participant motivation and the possibility to receive help from several participants with the immediate feedback to be given in the classroom as the class size could have made the provision of in-class feedback somewhat difficult.

The negatives of the first week as perceived by the teacher-researcher according to the corresponding diary entry were the participant texts' being narrative in style and the genre-focused feedback's being too similar for each student since it was the first week and most participants had similar problems. The submitted essays' being narrative was problematized in the diary entry as follows:

"...almost all the submitted essays are only narrative pieces of writing although the essay prompt is in the form of a question to direct the thoughts of the students to focus on answering it. Moreover, I explicitly told them to write in the argumentative / expository style and check the conventions of this style online to remember."

This excerpt from the pretest entry showed that the essay question and preliminary instructions for the pretest did not produce satisfying outcomes for the teacher-researcher as the submitted essays were perceived to be narrative texts even though the requirement was to write an argumentative or expository essay. In this entry, the submission of narrative texts instead of argumentative / expository ones are further problematized by the teacher-researcher who stated:

I've been experiencing the same thing every year, no matter what kind of an essay prompt I provide for the students, they just identify the name of the literary work within the prompt and start narrating the storyline. It seems like they do not care about answering the question at all and only focus on the story to show that they know about the course content.

By referring to the repetitive nature of the problem, the teacher indicated that the problem of producing narrative texts had been an ongoing one for at least several years by the time the diary entry was written. The second negative mentioned in the first entry, the necessity to provide similar feedback for most students, was expressed as "*Most of the feedback I provide this week is quite similar in content, asking the student to follow a set of rhetorical moves one by one. I hope they won't be discouraged by the similarity when they talk about it.*", revealing the teacher-researcher's concern about possible demotivation on behalf of the participants due to the similarity of feedback for the first assignment. In sum, the first week's diary entry uncovered that the submission of narrative texts for the first assignment by the participants regardless of the instruction as well as having had to provide similar feedback to most participants were perceived as negative by the teacher-researcher in the first week.

The decision taken by the teacher-researcher in the first week in order to decrease the perceived negatives was found to have been providing feedback regarding each rhetorical move required to complete a literary analysis essay. This decision was explained as "*...almost all the essays are simply summaries, so I have to either mention every single rhetorical move implicitly or provide examples explicitly depending on the feedback group.*", indicating a perceived need to provide detailed feedback. This particular decision seemed to have been taken due to the fact that most of the texts, which had been expected to be expository or argumentative, were actually narrative accounts of the literary work being analysed.

Taking all the topics mentioned by the teacher-researcher in the first diary entry into consideration, it was seen that the participants were perceived to have had a high level of motivation to learn how to write a literary analysis essay and some participants appeared to have been promising in terms of providing assistance to the teacher during the in-class GBI when needed. However, most of the submissions made in the first week were perceived to have been narrative texts by the teacher, which seemed to have been a point of concern because this necessitated the provision of very similar feedback for each participant and the assignment had required the participants to write a literary analysis essay. In accordance with the negatives, it was also seen that the teacher-researcher had decided to keep the upcoming feedback detailed enough to include suggestions for every single rhetorical move conventionally present in a literary analysis essay. In short, the diary entry of the first week indicated sufficient motivation, several competent participants who could provide assistance while it also signalled a very low level of genre knowledge which the teacher-researcher seemed to have hoped to improve in time using detailed feedback.

Midtest Diary Entry

The findings obtained by means of the midtest diary entry written by the course instructor were tabulated below in Table 52.

Table 52

Findings of the Teacher's Midtest Diary Entry

Theme	Topic
Positives	Increased Genre Knowledge among Participants
	Stronger Thesis Statements
	Longer Texts
	Showing Support for the Research Study
Negatives	Missing the Focus of the Essay Topic
	Weak Concluding Sentences
	Some Narrative Texts
	Poor Performance among Transfer Students
Decisions	Strengthening Feedback Focus on Supporting and
	Concluding Sentences

Analysis of the diary entry of the midtest revealed that the positives of the assignment of the week were perceived by the teacher-researcher to have been an increased level of genre knowledge, stronger thesis statements, participant reports of producing longer texts than before and remarks indicating support for the research itself. The perceived increase in the level of Genre Knowledge among the participants were mentioned as:

... the essays that they submitted contain most of the rhetorical moves that I had them analyze in the sample essays. This is especially important because they were able to do it before receiving my feedback, which means their revisions will be even better.

As understood from the quotation, the teacher-researcher was able to observe the rhetorical moves required in a literary analysis essay more frequently than before in the midtest. Stronger thesis statements in the week's assignments was also added to this positive as follows:

... stating a thesis is no longer an issue for the majority of students. I find this very significant in terms of their writing development because the stronger their thesis statements are, the better they defend their ideas since it helps them to write an essay which is very well focused, which was a big problem in their initial assignments.

In this excerpt, it was also seen that the teacher drew attention to the thesis statement's being the most critical part of a literary analysis essay since it carried the main idea of the text. Reports of producing longer texts by the participants were also welcomed in the midtest week by the teacher-researcher who mentioned the topic by saying "*Moreover, some students told me today they thanks to their development, they can write much longer essays now, which may be signalling a possible improvement in their writing fluency.*", indicating an expected increase in the participants' level of writing fluency judging by their self-reports. Finally, the participants' demonstrating support to the teacher-researcher for the research was verbalized as:

> *I like their attitude because almost every week they praise me for undertaking this research study, which they find huge, and they never complain about being subjects to an experiment since they see by their own eyes how much they have developed in such a short time as 1.5 months. It's very much motivating for me to continue the research with participants so eager to be involved.*

At this point, the teacher-researcher also signalled a high level of motivation and cooperation on behalf of both the participants and himself. In sum, the positives in the midtest week as perceived by the teacher-researcher were an increased level of adherence to the rhetorical conventions of the literary analysis essay, more developed thesis statements in the texts produced by the participants, participants' perception of increased writing fluency and the perceived motivation and combined effort among the participants and the researcher.

The negatives in the midtest entry as reported by the teacher-researcher were found to have been digressions from the focus of the essay topic, improper concluding sentences within paragraphs, occasional narrative texts as submissions and the poor performance demonstrated by several participants who were transfer students for whom it had been the first semester in

the university in which the research was carried out. Digressions from the focus of the essay topic was mentioned by the teacher-researcher as:

> *Apparently, the most difficult thing for the students this time was to keep the essay answering the essay question throughout. ...Many essays actually seem to have focused on characters' actions and decisions without a clear focus on the author's decisions and preferences. ...they need to re-word most of their arguments to shift their focus from a fictional character's decisions to the playwright's decisions.*

From this excerpt, it was understood that the teacher-researcher was critical of some submissions as they did not have the essay question in their focus. The concluding sentences for paragraph conclusions in some submissions were also disapproved of by the teacher-researcher who reported "*...there are still some essays which lack concluding sentences, although fewer now, and there are also some which attempt to manipulate genre knowledge by adding a concluding sentence which does not actually conclude an argument / paragraph.*", signalling that there had still been some problematic concluding sentences in the paragraphs produced by the participants although the number of problematic concluding sentences had been in a declining trend. The teacher-researcher also mentioned the existence of narrative texts among the submissions in the midtest week as a negative by saying:

> *I feel that a few students are struggling to avoid narrating the entire story no matter how irrelevant narration may be, since those ones tend to support their arguments with the narration of an entire act. It's like they're waiting till they present their arguments and then they're set free for story-telling.*

As seen in the excerpt, even though there were lots of positives in the midtest as perceived by the teacher-researcher, there was still the presence of irrelevant narrations in the texts of some participants although a large amount of narration was not needed in any of the

assignments. The poor performance demonstrated by a few transfer students as participants was also reported as a concerning factor by the teacher-researcher who exemplified the situation by saying:

> *Even though they seem to know that the Literary Analysis Essay should include a thesis statement which provides an answer to the essay question, they keep submitting assignments which lack proper thesis statements and even after the feedback, they seem to revise irrelevant parts, sometimes making those parts even more irrelevant, skipping the thesis statement altogether.*

Here, the teacher appeared to have put emphasis on the lack of thesis statements and extraneous revision attempts in the texts of those participants regardless of the instruction and feedback they had received. To sum up, the negatively perceived topics which were included in the midtest entry were the deviations from the essay topic, inappropriate or missing concluding sentences, submission of highly narrative texts and the performance of transfer students which had been below the desired level.

Keeping the negatives of the midtest week as perceived by the teacher-researcher in mind, the decisions mentioned in the midtest entry were seen to have been the continuation of feedback provision with respect to concluding sentences and narrative parts of texts which had not been needed. The decision to continue providing feedback with reference to concluding sentences was stated by the teacher-researcher as "*I think, I'll take this as a positive sign since they've finally started to attempt to conclude their paragraphs properly. Some more feedback will improve this part I think.*", indicating the teacher-researcher's belief that further improvement would be observed throughout ongoing feedback provision. In addition, the feedback planned for the undesired narrative sections in the texts was explained as "*For those who can't stop narrating entire acts, it seems I need to treat each supporting sentence one by*

one and comment on their levels of relevancy.", signalling a decision on behalf of the teacher-researcher to justify correction suggestions on the basis of relevancy. In the midtest week, the teacher-researcher seemed to have decided to adopt additional focus on the supporting and concluding sentences of the paragraphs produced by the participants as they appeared to have needed to be improved in terms of coherence.

Having dealt with all the topics mentioned by the teacher-researcher in the midtest diary entry, it was seen that the positives in the midtest week indicated improved rhetorical adherence to the literary analysis essay along with a high level of motivation. The negatives, on the other hand, appeared to have centred around poor concluding sentences, excessive narration in supporting sentences and poor performance on behalf of transfer students as participants. In this respect, the midtest entry revealed that the teacher-researcher had decided to provide ongoing focus in feedback with respect to those problematic areas. As a conclusion, the midtest entry indicated the teacher-researcher's perception that the participants had shown some improvement from the pretest week to the midtest in terms of demonstrating an increased level of genre knowledge, which was reported to have been a severe problem in the pretest entry, and an ever-high level of motivation, which was also among the positives of the pretest entry. On the other hand, the lack of perceived improvement on behalf of the transfer students as participants emerged as a new problem in the midtest entry.

Posttest Diary Entry

The findings obtained by means of the posttest diary entry written by the course instructor were tabulated below in Table 53.

Table 53

Findings of the Teacher's Posttest Diary Entry

Theme	Topic
Positives	Predominantly Problem-Free Essays
	Thesis Statements in Transfer Students' Essays
Negatives	Weak Supporting Sentences
	Poor Performance among Transfer Students
Decisions	Refer to Supporting Sentences as 'Proof'
	More Revision Time for Transfer Students Next Semester

Analysis of the diary entry of the posttest disclosed that the positives of the assignment of the week were perceived by the teacher-researcher to have been mostly problem-free essays and the transfer students' having thesis statements in their texts. The satisfying performance demonstrated in the final week's essays was explained by the teacher-researcher as:

In this last one, I see that an ever-growing number of students have no problem with the rhetorical structure of the literary analysis essay. Although the quality appears to vary, a majority of students now begin their essay by providing background info followed by a thesis statement which answers a question and constitutes the main idea. Then, the presentation of their points, support from the text and concluding each paragraph seems to be in order again in a majority of the essays. That paragraph conclusion part has been one of the difficult problems to solve, but apparently, they have almost no problems with this now. And finally, most students consolidate their theses in the final paragraph and follow this part by stating a personal remark about the topic.

In this excerpt, it was seen that there were signals of a perceived improvement in the level of genre knowledge on behalf of the participants as the teacher had reported to have evaluated the texts of the posttest week to be almost in full adherence to the rhetorical

conventions of the literary analysis essay. The other positive, transfer students' having made the move of stating the thesis, was praised by the teacher-researcher as:

Another positive is that 2 out of 3 [transfer] students have a thesis statement now, even though the quality is questionable. However, the existence of a thesis is a significant improvement with these students, and it gives me the impression that they're open to improve their writing.

Through these words, the teacher seemed to have implied that there had still been quality issues but the fact that those texts had included a thesis statement was perceived as a significant improvement. The positives of the final week according to the teacher-researcher appeared to have been centred around overall participant performance and particularly the transfer students' performance, which were both perceived to have been higher than the previous weeks.

The negative topics reported by the teacher-researcher in the posttest week were the general weakness in the supporting sentences written by the participants in the main body paragraphs of their texts and the unsatisfactory performance of the transfer students despite some visible improvement in their texts. The teacher-researcher explained this by stating, "*...many students keep on arguing for things in this part without explicitly referring to the text, which are actually accurate but looks too subjective due to the lack of these references.*", implying that the participants might have needed further instruction regarding the supporting sentences as they had kept presenting additional arguments in that part without providing textual proof. The performance of the transfer students was also a point of concern, yet again, in the posttest week, which was articulated by the teacher-researcher as "*...those essays are still full of irrelevant information as well as grammatical and lexical errors, one of which being rather difficult to understand overall.*", showing that despite the improvement mentioned among the positives, those participants were still lagging behind their peers in terms of their

performance in producing literary analysis essays. Overall, the negatives mentioned by the teacher-researcher in the posttest appeared to have focused on the supporting sentences in the main body paragraphs and the transfer students' still needing support for the construction of a literary analysis essay.

According to the content of the posttest diary entry, the decisions taken by the teacher-researcher to reduce the negatives observed in the posttest week were changing the wording of genre-related instructions and providing additional revision opportunities for the transfer students in the following semester, as the intervention had come to an end by the time the posttest entry was written. Changing the wording of genre-related instruction with respect to the supporting sentences was briefly explained by the teacher-researcher as "*Next semester, I'm planning to refer to this part as "proof" instead of "support" and provide feedback accordingly.*", indicating that the teacher-researcher had planned to emphasize the necessity that the supporting sentences in a main body paragraph should have functioned as textual proof for the argument preceding them. Furthermore, the action plan to increase the transfer students' performance, which was to provide them with secondary revision opportunities, was mentioned as "*I'm planning to give them unfocused feedback on rhetorical structure, lexis and grammar and give them multiple chances to revise their essays until they can receive an acceptable score.*", also signalling a planned change in the type of feedback provided for those participants in order to increase their level of linguistic proficiency along with their genre-knowledge. In sum, the decisions taken by the teacher-researcher in the posttest diary entry, which were out of the scope of the intervention, seemed to have been alterations in the wording of several parts regarding the literary analysis essay and giving the transfer students more chances to make revisions on their texts following a more detailed provision of feedback.

Having considered all the topics mentioned by the teacher-researcher in the posttest entry, it was observed that the positives of the posttest week were predominantly satisfactory

submissions by the participants along with the slight improvements in the transfer students' performance. On the other hand, supporting sentences in the main body parts as well as the overall performance of the transfer students were found to have been points of concern on behalf of the teacher-researcher, which made him take extra decisions out of the scope of the research such as being more explanatory in GBI and allowing the transfer students to revise their texts multiple times.

To conclude, the posttest entry showed that the improvement perceived by the teacher-researcher in the midtest continued until the posttest. Apparently, the genre knowledge of the participants, along with their ability to demonstrate that particular type of knowledge in their texts improved from the beginning of the intervention until the end, producing mostly problem-free texts as reported by the teacher-researcher. The transfer students who had demonstrated rather poor performance in the midtest were also seen to have improved to some extent, but their overall performance was still far from satisfactory in the posttest according to the teacher-researcher. Despite the negatives mentioned, the teacher appeared to have perceived an increasing trend without interval in the level of adherence to the genre conventions of the literary analysis essay among the participants throughout the intervention.

Chapter Summary

This chapter present the findings of the study with reference to the research questions. Each research question was dealt with in relation to the quantitative and qualitative findings that provided an answer to it. The findings of the questions which investigated more than a single construct were divided into subsections.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings in respect of the aims of the study along with the conclusions and implications drawn taking the discussed issues as a basis. Following the discussion of the findings, conclusions and implications drawn, suggestions for further research are also presented to address the gaps in the present study.

Summary and Discussion of RQ1. *Are there changes in the Mastery of the Literary Analysis Essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI?*

To answer the first research question, findings obtained through GBLAESR as well as the interviews were used. In addition to the comparisons of the mean scores, perceptions of the participants with respect to their development in writing literary analysis essays were also investigated.

The findings indicated that the literary analysis essay scores of the participants revealed a consistently increasing trend throughout the study with mean scores of 30.44 ($SD = 14.51$) in the pretest, 53.49 ($SD = 16.55$) in the midtest and 65.06 ($SD = 14.10$) in the posttest with statistically significant differences among each one of the means. It was also seen in the mean comparisons that the Partial Eta-Squared values, computed as the sizes of the effects, were 0.71 for the comparison of pretest and midtest, 1.62 for the comparison of midtest and posttest and 2.06 for the comparison of pretest and posttest.

Even though similar studies are rather scarce in the relevant literature, it can be seen that the findings of the present study are in line with several studies. The findings are line with those of Ong's (2016), in that both studies confirmed an increase in the literary analysis essay writing performance among undergraduate students of ELT as a result of GBI. In addition, Uzun's

(2016) findings in a very similar context, which suggest that GBI increases the level of adherence to the rhetorical conventions of the literary analysis essay, are parallel to the findings of the present study even though no regular feedback was provided for take-home assignments and the study had a one-group pretest-posttest design. Thienthong's (2016) findings also corroborate those of the present study in that they indicate an increase in the academic writing abilities of undergraduate students as a result of a web-based form of GBI. Lastly, the findings can be considered to be parallel to those of Khotabandeh et al. (2013) and Ramos (2015) as they also identified improvements in the quality of argumentative writing among learners thanks to GBI. Taking these studies into account, the findings of the present study appeared to be in parallel with the other studies adopting a similar instructional methodology.

Another noteworthy finding was that the size of the effect for the statistical significance obtained through the comparison of the midtest and posttest was larger than that of the pretest and midtest. In other words, there was a larger difference between the midtest and posttest than the difference between the pretest and midtest, although the latter had a more intensive implementation content than the former having both in-class instruction and feedback provision. This finding can be explained through the fact that the pretest-midtest period welcomed participants as total novices in producing literary analysis essays and it was also a period during which the participants had to encounter new information or rhetorical skills almost every week through in-class instruction and feedback. Taking into account the requirements of time and at least several attempts for the construction of knowledge (Regan, 2007), it can be stated that the participants needed time to learn the new rhetorical and lexicogrammatical structure through instruction and feedback and also to feel more competent and efficacious in producing the genre, which was also confirmed by the improvements in writing psychology as measured and stated by the participants in RQ3. Considering that genre knowledge can be used for comprehension even after the mastery of a particular genre (Devitt,

2004), the participants of the present study may have furthered their genre knowledge at a faster pace in the midtest-posttest period than the pretest-midtest period due to the intensity of dealing both with new knowledge and possible psychological insecurities, however, they may have managed to increase the pace of their learning once they had completed the first phase.

The qualitative findings were also supportive of the quantitative ones with a majority of the participants reporting a perceived improvement in terms of their mastery of the literary analysis essay. Among the topics mentioned as the sources of the perceived increase, an increased level of genre knowledge and content knowledge thanks to the intervention were the most frequently mentioned ones, while a few participants also reported that the knowledge acquired during the intervention were transferable to other domains of writing, too. Although there was one participant who claimed that the intervention had had neither a positive nor negative effect since the participant's individual focus was merely on writing skills, there was no participant who perceived a decrease in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre.

As also reported by the participants in the interview, the development in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre can be attributed to the increased amount of genre knowledge and content knowledge acquired throughout the study, which might have enabled the participants to present and support their ideas more orderly and adherent to the requirements of the genre. According to Beaufort (2007), genre knowledge helps writers set the frame of a given text. In this respect, the participants of the study may have increased their performance in time thanks to learning how to frame their minds within the rhetorical and social limits of the literary analysis essay as a genre, resulting in a stronger grasp of lexicogrammatical, process, rhetorical and content knowledge as suggested by Tardy (2009), which were also backed by consistent Genre-Focused Feedback within the context of the study. As genre knowledge also encompasses the expectations and practices of discourse communities, an increased genre knowledge on behalf of the participants may have contributed to their writing quality (Hyland,

2009) and this may have had a triggering effect on the participants' literary analysis essay scores.

Content knowledge is also considered to be among the requirements of successful disciplinary writing including literary criticism and it requires the reading, description, summarization and integration of multiple texts. Weston-Sementelli et al. (2016) suggest that disciplinary essays are expected to demonstrate accuracy in content. Furthermore, according to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), their 'Knowledge-Transforming Model' takes into account the constant interaction between rhetorical knowledge and content knowledge and this necessitates the extension of content knowledge to solve a larger amount of writing-related problems (Hayes, 1996). Also mentioned by Tardy (2009) among the components of genre knowledge, the content knowledge acquired through the course of the study, during which participants received lectures and read secondary sources on various literary works, may have had a positive effect in the participants' literary analysis essay scores, as it was also among the topics mentioned in the interviews as a source of the perceived development in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre.

The measured and perceived increase in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre throughout the intervention can also be attributed to an increased reader awareness. Considering Cho and Choi's (2018) findings that rhetorical awareness and reader awareness are related constructs, the participants may have adopted a sense of meeting the expectations of the audience, or the teacher-researcher thanks to the increased rhetorical awareness during both the in-class GBI and the scrutiny of feedback by the participants and this may have contributed to the gradual increase in their writing performance.

In conclusion, the quantitative and qualitative analyses regarding RQ1 revealed that the GBI intervention may have had a consistent positive effect on the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre throughout the intervention and the increase can be attributed to the

increased levels of genre knowledge, content knowledge and reader awareness. The larger effect of increase observed in the second phase of the intervention in comparison to the first phase indicated that the participants started to feel more competent with respect to their level of genre knowledge, which allowed them to investigate and understand the literary analysis essay in a more in-depth fashion. Considering that the findings were also in line with other studies adopting the Genre-Based Approach to the teaching of literary analysis essays or other types of source-based essays, the positive effect of GBI on the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre can be said to have been confirmed in the present study.

Summary and Discussion of RQ2. *Are there changes in writing performance among the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI?*

The writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density values of the texts produced by the participants in the pretest, midtest and posttest weeks were investigated in order to answer the second research question. The perceptions of the participants as obtained in the interviews in respect of the perceived effects of the intervention were also scrutinized.

Writing Fluency

The quantitative findings regarding the effect of the intervention on writing fluency indicated that the mean writing fluency values were 12.63 ($SD = 3.97$), 14.14 ($SD = 3.66$) and 13.70 ($SD = 3.13$) for the pretest, midtest and posttest respectively. Analyses showed that the difference was significant between the mean values of pretest-midtest and pretest-posttest, however, the mean values of midtest and posttest were not found to have differed significantly. The effect sizes for the pretest-midtest and pretest-posttest comparisons were computed as .35 and .29 respectively, indicating a declining trend in the size of the effect over time.

These findings appear to be in line with those of Yasuda (2011) and Yasunaga (2017) in that both of these studies identify an increase in the level of writing fluency among undergraduate students thanks to a genre-based approach to the teaching of disciplinary writing.

Genre awareness and the planning ability thanks to possessing the rhetorical knowledge, which is a part of genre knowledge (Tardy, 2009) may explain why writing fluency increased from the pretest to the midtest but not from the midtest to the posttest. As reported by most of them in various parts of the interview, the participants had the perception that they had known what to do in a literary analysis essay before starting to write thanks to the intervention. These remarks on behalf of the participants hint the existence of a pre-task plan, be it mental or written, which eases the load on the working memory and allows extra capacity to the translation of ideas into script, increasing both the quality and fluency in writing (Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Kellogg, 1996). Due to the fact that the participants were introduced to such a ready-made plan in the form of in-class GBI between the pretest and midtest, the significant increase might have been seen only in this period as opposed to the midtest – posttest period during which the participants had to use what was explicitly taught in the former period. As writing is considered to be highly demanding in terms attention span (Torrance & Galbraith, 2006), the preset plan provided during the in-class GBI between the pretest and the posttest may have reduced the attentional load of writing, making room for improved transcription-related processing in the working memory and this may have helped the participants increase their writing fluency (Skehan & Foster, 2001) in the pretest-midtest period only.

Another explanation to the fact that the level of writing fluency significantly increased in the pretest-midtest period but not in the midtest-posttest period can be related to writing self-efficacy, which is among the predictors of complexity, accuracy and fluency in writing (Zabihi, 2018). In the findings of the present study, it is seen that the changes in the writing self-efficacy levels of the participants throughout the intervention are exactly the same as the changes in their

writing fluency levels, being significantly different in the comparison of the pretest and the midtest and having no difference between the midtest and the posttest. In this regard and judging by Zabihi's (2018) findings, writing fluency and writing self-efficacy might have interacted with one another resulting in the same variance in terms of writing fluency in the texts produced by the participants.

The quantitative measurements which indicated an increase between pretest and midtest but no change between midtest and posttest were in contradiction with Chenoweth and Hayes (2001). In their study, Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) concluded that the level of writing fluency increased alongside the experience a writer had in writing. However, in the present study, the increase was observed only between the pretest and midtest and although the participants continued to add to their experience, no further increase in their writing fluency was measured after the midtest.

The qualitative findings relating to the effect of the intervention on writing fluency appeared to have supported the quantitative ones in that most participants stated a perceived increase in their level of writing fluency thanks to the intervention. In the interviews, the participants were primarily found to have attributed the perceived increase in their level of writing fluency to their motivation to use advanced language, improved proficiency in English through the course of the intervention and the feedback component of the study. It should also be noted that, however, the interview findings revealed that a few participants had perceived no change in their writing fluency due to the intervention and one participant perceived a decrease.

As a final point, a particular finding obtained in the present study seemed to have been in contradiction with a finding in the same study. In the interviews, the participants claimed that the perceived increase in their levels of writing fluency could have been attributed to their motivation to produce advanced-level texts. However, when the negative correlation between L2 writing motivation and writing anxiety (Cheng, 2004) and that attitude is a state of

motivation within the affective domain (Anderman & Wolters, 2006) are taken into account, it can be concluded that the L2 writing motivation levels of the participants must have increased throughout the study as writing attitude was found to have been in a constant increase and writing anxiety to have been in a steady decrease within the present study. Nevertheless, writing fluency was found to have increased only between the pretest and midtest and it was slightly lower than the midtest in the posttest, which may be indicating that the inferred increase in the motivation levels of the participants was not in line with their levels of writing fluency. In this respect, motivation might not have been one of the reasons why the midtest and posttest measures of writing fluency resulted in significantly higher values than the pretest.

As a conclusion, both quantitative and qualitative findings within the context of the present study were supportive of an increase in the levels of writing fluency among the participants thanks to GBI. However, it should be noted that the statistically significant differences in the pretest, midtest and posttest measurements were limited to the difference between the mean writing fluency values measured in the pretest and midtest, which indicated that the in-class GBI implementation was the source of the change in writing fluency since no difference was observed between the midtest and the posttest. Therefore, the results were explained through the positive effect of pre-task planning, which is one of the inferred outcomes of the in-class GBI, on the fluency of writing and the predictive relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing fluency. In brief, the participants appear to have learned how to plan their literary analysis essays properly during the in-class GBI and their level of writing self-efficacy may also have interacted with their level of writing fluency, resulting in the aforementioned improvement in the pretest-midtest period.

Lexical Complexity

Within the context of the study, the quantitative findings regarding Lexical Complexity showed that the mean Lexical Complexity scores were .25 (*SD* = 0.05), .25 (*SD* = 0.05) and

.26 (*SD* = 0.04) in the pretest, midtest and posttest respectively. In the comparisons, it was seen that the mean pretest, midtest and posttest scores were not significantly different and the computation of the effect size produced a partial eta-squared value of 0.03, indicating no effect.

Although the number of studies with respect to the effect of GBI on lexical complexity appears to be very limited in the literature, Caplan's (2017) falls within the same frame, also having a parallel finding to the present study as it concludes that the joint construction phase of GBI improves lexical complexity.

The quantitative finding which indicated that the participants experienced no development throughout the intervention can be explained through the prolongment of lexical complexity development (Zheng, 2012), the absence of lexically oriented feedback (Kalantari & Gholami, 2017), an exam-related motivation on behalf of the participants and the ever-availability of a dictionary during the completion of the assignments (Leki et al., 2008). When the length of the intervention study is considered, it may be concluded that its duration was not sufficient for the initiation of lexical complexity development. Furthermore, lexically-oriented feedback was absent in the present study as the feedback was focused on the rhetorical structure of the literary analysis essay and there was no exam-oriented focus throughout the study. Lastly, as also mentioned by a participant, a dictionary was always available to the participants during the intervention, which may have hindered development in lexical complexity. In short, the stability of lexical complexity among the participants regardless of in-class instruction and feedback may have stemmed from the easy access to bilingual dictionaries, the time required and the absence of lexis-focused feedback and the motivation to achieve an exam.

Contrary to the quantitative findings, qualitative findings with reference to lexical complexity revealed that a majority of the participants perceived GBI as having increased their levels of lexical complexity due to their perceived progress in writing over time, frequent practice opportunity thanks to the intervention and the development of vocabulary due to

utilizing secondary sources. A few participants, on the other hand, perceived the intervention to have had no effect on lexical complexity since a dictionary was available at all times and the production of the genre was the only focus during the intervention. In this part of the study, no participants were found to have stated that the intervention had had a negative effect on lexical complexity.

The mismatch between the qualitative and quantitative findings as observed in the findings may have occurred during the overall psychological changes among the participants towards the positive and the possible existence of response bias. The positive changes with respect to writing psychology, such as increased levels of attitude and self-efficacy and a decreased level of anxiety, may have resulted in the perception that lexical indicators demonstrated development throughout the intervention. On the other hand, response bias, which can be defined as responding to a survey or interview question in the way that is perceived to be expected by the researcher for various reasons such as being favored by the researcher, wanting to be a good experiment subject or to avoid a negative answer (Wetzel, Böhnke, & Brown, 2016) may have interacted with the actual perceptions of the participants with respect to their development in lexical complexity. To sum up, the change towards the positive in writing psychology or response bias may have resulted in the discrepancy between the quantitative and qualitative findings.

Taking into account all the findings with respect to the effect of GBI on lexical complexity, it was seen the quantitative findings indicated no effect while their qualitative counterparts signaled a perceived improvement on behalf of the participants. However, since the texts that were produced by the participants did not demonstrate this perceived improvement probably due to the usage of bilingual dictionaries, the slow development of lexical complexity and the lack of lexis-oriented feedback and exam-oriented motivation, the increased level of positive writing psychology and possible response bias were accounted for the mismatch

between the quantitative and qualitative findings. In conclusion, no effect of GBI on lexical complexity was found in the present study due to the nature of the construct as well as the absence of lexical focus.

Lexical Density

The quantitative findings regarding lexical density in the present study revealed that the mean lexical density scores were .51 (SD = 0.04), .52 (SD = 0.03) and .54 (SD = 0.03) in the pretest, midtest and posttest respectively. Analyses for the comparison of the mean scores showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and the posttest as well as the midtest and the posttest, however, no significant difference was observed between the mean lexical density scores measured in the pretest and the midtest. The effect size of the significant difference between the mean scores of the midtest and the posttest was calculated to be 0.74 and of the pretest and the posttest to be 0.72, both indicating medium effects. In short, although lexical density did not demonstrate any development from the pretest to the midtest, it seemed to have developed from the midtest to the posttest.

Parallel to the other variables of the present study, the number of studies which deal with the effect on GBI on lexical density appears to be somewhat scarce as well, however, it is possible to come across with several studies scrutinizing the issue and reaching similar findings. For example, Brynes's (2009) findings show that a Genre-Based Approach to the teaching of writing results in a long-term increasing trend in lexical density. Similarly, Colombi (2002) concludes that GBI improves lexical density in expository essays. In addition, Achugar and Colombi (2008) identify improvements in lexical density in different text types thanks to GBI. In sum, several studies in the literature appear to be in support of the findings of the present study in that GBI positively affects Lexical Density.

The finding that the level of lexical density was stable from the pretest to the midtest can be explained through the time needed by the participants to learn how to deal with the

literary analysis essay and to shift focus from the traditional perspective of writing to the perspective of genre as well as the possible development in syntactic complexity, which may have increased the amount of function words in participants' texts. In casual conversations with the participants, it was learned by the teacher-researcher that a focus on genre as in the present study was a first for all of them, they had barely received feedback for their texts before the intervention and when they had received feedback, it was mainly focused on grammatical accuracy. Having a focus on genre in their texts during the intervention both in-class and in the feedback, the participants may have required several weeks until they could focus on producing the genre appropriately, including the lexical conventions, instead of writing solely a grammatically accurate text. In addition, considering that using more participle phrases, ellipses or subordinate clauses in the text may reduce the proportion of content words against function words (Laufer & Nation, 1995), this traditional focus on grammatical accuracy may have increased the number of function words in the participants' texts through the use of more complex patterns in syntactical terms, preventing the overall improvement of lexical density as it is a proportion-based measure. To conclude, the lexical density levels between the pretest and midtest may have remained stable due to the time needed to construct recently acquired genre knowledge (Regan, 2007) and a possible increase in the syntactic complexity in the texts of the participants.

After the midtest until the posttest, however, the participants may have improved their lexical density due to the change in their focus from accuracy to genre-based appropriacy, more successful attempts at conveying the literary meaning and the opportunity for frequent revision during the intervention, as stated both in the relevant literature and the qualitative findings. As mentioned above, the participants may have needed time to shift their focus from the traditional understandings of writing to a genre-based perspective, and once they had managed to achieve this focus, they may have attempted to convey more complex or denser meaning with respect

to the analysis of the literary work through flattening more of the author's preferences and ideas into their sentences (Yasuda, 2012). Moreover, while shifting their focus from grammar-based strategies to genre-based ones, they may have naturally focused on conveying an increased amount of meaning in their texts (Colombi, 2002). Also having regular opportunities to revise each text that they had written during the intervention, their levels of lexical density may have been positively affected by the intervention (Robin, 2016). These explanations from the literature are also backed by the participants' statements in the interview, which centered around the increased focus on meaning, motivation to use complex language and the feedback received and the parallel between the qualitative findings and the relevant literature appears to be explaining the increase in lexical density between the midtest and the posttest.

Although there were participants stating otherwise, a majority of the participants confirmed the quantitative findings in the face-to-face interviews, reporting that their perceived level of lexical density had increased thanks to GBI due to their increased focus on meaning, motivation to use complex language and the feedback that was received as a part of the study. Those who argued that their level of lexical density remained stable throughout the intervention did so mostly due to the perceived proportional increase in the amount of content and function words in their texts. The participants who perceived a decrease in the level of lexical density, on the other hand, attributed the decrease to their motivation to use complex language. In short, while some participants claimed stability or decline in the perceived level of lexical density, a larger part of them perceived an increase in the construct, supporting the quantitative findings.

When the findings of the present study are taken into account, it is seen that GBI may have a positive effect on lexical density, which may manifest itself after a certain period of time since learners appear to be needing it to shift their focus from traditional beliefs about L2 writing to a Genre-Based Approach and to feel confident enough to have the motivation to convey a larger amount of meaning. The fact that the participants of the study believe that their

levels of lexical density was positively affected due to the focus on meaning, their motivation and the feedback component of the intervention also seem to be in line with the relevant literature. After a certain amount of trial and error passes, GBI appears to increase the level of lexical density among learners.

All in all, RQ2 indicate that GBI has a positive effect on Writing fluency and lexical density while it has no effect on lexical complexity. Writing fluency and lexical density appear to have increased because, as indicated in the relevant literature and revealed in the present study, GBI may be improving the pre-task planning skills, increasing writing self-efficacy, shifting learners' focus towards a genre-based understanding of L2 writing and making learners more eager to convey added amounts of meanings in their texts. On the other hand, lexical complexity may be unaffected by the intervention due to its slowly-increasing nature and the absence of lexis-focused feedback in the intervention. In sum, GBI seems to have the potential to improve learners' writing in terms of fluency and lexical density.

Summary and Discussion of RQ3. *Are there changes in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among the participants before, during and after GBI?*

The writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety values of the texts produced by the participants in the pretest, midtest and posttest weeks were analyzed in order to answer the third research question. Regarding these variables, multivariate analyses indicated a statistically significant main effect of time with a large effect. In addition to the Likert-type scales, participant perceptions with respect to each psychological construct were extracted and investigated through interviews in this question.

Writing Attitude

The quantitative findings of writing attitude in the study showed that the mean writing attitude was 2.99 ($SD = 0.76$) in the pretest, 3.23 ($SD = 0.73$) in the midtest and 3.37 ($SD =$

0.73) in the posttest. The comparisons of the mean writing attitude values indicated statistically significant differences between pretest and midtest, midtest and posttest and pretest and posttest. The effect sizes of the significant differences, which were observed in all comparisons, were computed as 0.38 for the pretest-midtest comparison, 0.31 for the midtest-posttest comparison and 0.51 for the pretest-posttest comparison. Briefly, quantitative findings indicated that writing attitude followed an increasing trend throughout the intervention with small to medium effects.

The findings of the present study which indicated that GBI positively affected writing attitude are in parallel with those of Rashidi and Mazdayasna (2016), Ahn (2012) and Elashi (2013), who also conclude in undergraduate, primary school and secondary school contexts that GBI has a positive effect on learners' attitude towards writing in an L2.

As also reported by the participants in the interviews, the overall increase in the level of writing attitude among the participants can be attributed to psychological factors which may have been backed by the nature of feedback provided within the context of the study. The measurements of writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety in the present study indicate an increase in the former and a decrease in the latter over time. In addition, the literature suggests that increasing self-efficacy and decreasing anxiety results in an augmented level of motivation, which is correlated with attitude (Anderman & Wolters, 2006, Yavuz-Erkan & Saban, 2011). In this respect, the elevated level of writing attitude as a result of the intervention may have stemmed from the increased level of writing self-efficacy and the decreased level of writing anxiety. These changes in writing psychology, which were confirmed both in the qualitative and quantitative findings, may have been contributed to by the Genre-Focused Feedback given within the context of the study because as Truscott (1996) suggests, avoiding grammar correction in the written products of learners' results in higher levels of writing attitude and text quality. Having only the rhetorical aspects of the texts as the focus of their feedback, the

participants may have felt more secure, relaxed and confident during the production of their texts, which may have increased their writing attitude over time.

The qualitative analyses were also supportive of their quantitative counterparts in that a majority of the interview participants reported a perceived improvement in their writing attitude even though there were several participants claiming to have had a stable level of writing attitude throughout the intervention. It was also seen in this part that no participants reported a lower level of writing attitude due to the intervention. Among the participants who believed the intervention to have increased their writing attitude, a majority reported that the perceived increase was due to the increased level of writing self-efficacy, decreased level of writing anxiety and the feedback component of the intervention. By those who stated stability in writing attitude, the reasons were reported as having always liked or disliked the act of L2 writing. In conclusion, the qualitative findings were in line with the quantitative ones, both indicating an increase in the level of writing attitude.

Taking into account the findings of the present study and similar studies, it can be concluded that GBI may have a positive effect on writing attitude. The reasons behind the increase in the Writing attitude levels of the participants may be an increased level of writing self-efficacy and a decreased level of writing anxiety, which were confirmed both by the relevant literature and the findings of this study. Briefly, the overall writing attitude levels of the participants demonstrated an increasing trend throughout the GBI intervention.

Writing Self-Efficacy

Quantitative analyses showed that the mean writing self-efficacy values measured within the context of the study were 2.65 ($SD = 0.49$) for the pretest, 2.80 ($SD = 0.49$) for the midtest and 2.86 ($SD = 0.54$) for the posttest. Comparisons of the mean values obtained indicated that the mean writing self-efficacy measured in the midtest was significantly higher than the pretest, indicating a medium effect. Moreover, the posttest measurement of the

construct produced a mean value that was significantly higher than the pretest, indicating a medium effect, too. On the other hand, the comparison of the mean writing self-efficacy in the midtest against the posttest measurement of the construct produced no statistically significant difference. In other words, the level of writing self-efficacy was measured to have increased from the pretest to the midtest and have stabilized from the midtest to the posttest.

The findings of the present study in regard to the positive effect of GBI on writing self-efficacy is in parallel to similar findings in different context such as those of Early and De Costa (2011), Viriya (2016) and Han and Hiver (2018), which all reveal that GBI has a positive effect on writing self-efficacy as does the present study.

The increase in writing self-efficacy as observed in the results of the analyses can be ascribed to multiple psychological, social and performance-related factors. Considering the effects of previous performance, affective state, the influence of the peers and advisor along with the levels of experience and motivation on the construct (Zuo & Wang, 2016), the writing self-efficacy levels of the participants of the present study may have undergone an increase from the pretest to the midtest since they might have evaluated the peer support during the in-class joint construction phase of GBI and the teacher support in the form of in-class instruction and feedback as positive, the latter one of which was also mentioned in the interviews. As a result, their motivation levels together with their writing self-efficacy levels may have increased. Being negatively correlated with writing self-efficacy (Pajares, 2003), the decrease in their writing anxiety levels may also have contributed to the increase in their writing self-efficacy. In addition, as writing self-efficacy is positively correlated with the frequency of undergoing processes such as planning, revising and evaluating one's text (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007), the increased level of genre awareness may have contributed to the increased level of writing self-efficacy among the participants. Related to this, an increased amount of self-evaluation with respect to one's writing performance, and the teacher-

researcher's evaluation through feedback, may have had an increasing effect on the level of writing self-efficacy since the construct is correlated with writing performance (Chea & Shumov, 2014; Pajares, 2006). Having interacted with peer collaboration, feedback, anxiety and self-evaluation, writing self-efficacy among the participants may have increased.

Even though the level of writing self-efficacy was measured to have increased from the pretest to the midtest, it was also seen that no significant difference was observed between the mean writing self-efficacy values as measured in the midtest and the posttest. This may be indicating that the in-class GBI given by the teacher-researcher between the pretest and the midtest may have been more effective than the period between the midtest and the posttest, during which the participants only received feedback for the revision of their assignments. From this finding, it can be inferred that the teacher-researcher's support alone may not have been sufficient in terms of helping the participants increase their level of writing self-efficacy further than the period between the pretest and the midtest, during which they had multiple opportunities to discuss the rhetorical structure of literary analysis essays with their peers and the teacher-researcher while also analyzing previously written essays. In short, the modelling, analysis and joint construction phases of GBI may have contributed to writing self-efficacy more than the independent construction, receiving feedback and revision phases according to the findings.

The qualitative findings regarding the changes in writing self-efficacy confirmed the quantitative ones in that most interview participants reported a perceived increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy, even though a few participants pointed at the stability of the construct over time. Among the interview participants who reportedly perceived an increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy, the most frequently stated reasons were found to have been realizing one's own performance, the feedback received throughout the intervention and an increased level of genre awareness. On the other hand, those who reported a perceived stability in the

level of writing self-efficacy mentioned having always been efficacious in L2 writing as to the reason why it had remained stable. In the qualitative findings, it was also seen that none of the interview participants perceived a decrease in the level of writing self-efficacy.

In conclusion, the findings with regards to writing self-efficacy indicate that GBI may have had an overall positive effect on the construct. However, it should also be noted that the period between the midtest and posttest revealed no significant change in the level of writing self-efficacy as opposed to the one between the pretest and the midtest during which the participants were subjected to a larger diversity of support from previous essays as models, peer support and the teacher-researcher's feedback. In this respect, it may also be concluded that allowing the learners to use previous models and collaborate with others within a GBI context may have a positive effect on writing self-efficacy while solely constructing the genre, receiving feedback and revising may not be equally effective. In brief, the in-class instruction component of the intervention appears to have increased the writing self-efficacy levels among the participants.

Writing Anxiety

The quantitative findings of writing anxiety indicated a mean value of 2.68 ($SD = 0.83$) in the pretest, 2.40 ($SD = 0.83$) in the midtest and 2.23 ($SD = 0.73$) in the posttest. When the means were compared, it was seen that there was a statistically significant main effect of time on writing anxiety and the mean value for the construct significantly decreased in each measurement, making the pretest mean the highest and the posttest mean the lowest. The effect sizes were measured to have been 0.29, 0.45 and 0.65 for the significant differences between the pretest and the midtest, the midtest and the posttest and the pretest and the posttest respectively, indicating small to medium effects.

To the researcher's knowledge, there is no study in the relevant literature suggesting a positive effect of GBI on writing anxiety and the only study related to the issue, that of Han and

Hiver's (2018), states that GBI has an increasing effect on the construct, which contradicts the findings of the present study. The reason behind the difference can be best explained through the contextual differences between two studies, Han and Hiver's (2018) study being a Korean middle school context. Having 4 different phases which may be too intensive for middle school children in cognitive terms, GBI may have resulted in the increase in writing anxiety among Han and Hiver's (2018) participants. Moreover, requiring a certain degree of abstract processes such as understanding and identifying rhetorical moves, Han and Hiver's (2018) participants may have lacked the cognitive development level necessary to feel comfortable in a GBI environment due to their young ages. On the other hand, the participants of the present study, who were young adults, may have benefitted from the GBI intervention due to their cognitive readiness and being able to process abstract concepts.

The gradual but significant decrease in the participants' levels of writing anxiety can be attributed to individual, social and learning-related factors. Individually, the reception of feedback for the learners' written production is among the factors which may reduce writing anxiety (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). Moreover, an increase in one's writing self-efficacy may result in a decreased level of writing anxiety (Pajares, 2003). In this respect, the fact that all the literary analysis essays produced by the participants received individual feedback throughout the present study may have contributed to the decreased level of writing anxiety. Moreover, the fact that an increase in writing self-efficacy was both measured and reported by the participants within the context of the study may have contributed to the decrease in Writing Anxiety, too. In social terms, collaboration with both teacher and peers as well as the provision of peer feedback are known to have reductive effects on writing anxiety (Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Yastıbaş & Yastıbaş, 2015). With respect to this, the provision of peer feedback in the joint construction phase of the GBI during the in-class instruction as well as the opportunity to collaborate with the teacher-research throughout the study may have served as a decreasing

factor in terms of the participants' writing anxiety. Lastly, discovery learning during the modelling and analysis phases of the in-class GBI, which is known to alleviate the level of writing anxiety (Wynne, 2014), together with the opportunity to practice the genre frequently and an increased level of genre awareness as both reported by the participants and measured in the genre-based writing performance, may have helped decrease the level of writing anxiety among the participants of the study. In sum, the interaction among the participants and the teacher-researcher, peer and teacher feedback, increased levels of writing self-efficacy and genre awareness and discovery learning during the in-class GBI appears to have reduced the Writing Anxiety levels of the participants.

The finding which indicated that the effect size of the difference between the midtest and the posttest was larger than the effect size between the pretest and the midtest in terms of writing anxiety can be explained through the time needed by the participants for the internalization of knowledge as well as the reduced strength of the interference of negative psychology with the working memory over time. According to Regan (2007) learners require an adequate amount of time in order to internalize recently acquired knowledge. Taking this into account, it can be said that the participants were still gaining confidence in pretest-midtest period within the study, during most of which they were undergoing the process of learning the literary analysis essay as a genre. For this reason, the reduction of writing anxiety may have been actualized in a slower pace than the midtest-posttest period of the study. This explanation can also be confirmed by the other findings of this study which indicated that writing self-efficacy increased from the pretest to the midtest and stabilized after the midtest. At this point, the case may be that once the participants had reached to a more secure writing self-efficacy level as a result of the in-class GBI, their levels of writing anxiety, which is correlated with writing self-efficacy (Pajares, 2003), started to decrease at a faster pace and the level of the interference of negative psychology with the working memory also decreased. In accordance

with these changes, the end result may have been more efficient engagement with the processes involved in the act of writing (Kellogg, 1996; Ellis & Yuan, 2004), increased genre awareness and realization of own performance in more objective terms, allowing the participants to focus on the positives of their performance more easily. In conclusion, the increase in the level of writing self-efficacy, taking sufficient time to internalize knowledge and utilizing working memory resources more efficiently may have resulted in the larger effect between the midtest and the posttest than the pretest and the midtest.

The qualitative findings regarding writing anxiety were also in line with the quantitative ones, indicating that most interview participants perceived a decrease in their level of writing anxiety throughout the intervention while some participants perceived it to have remained stable and a few of them perceived an increase. By the participants who perceived a decrease in their levels writing anxiety, increased genre awareness, the feedback received, frequent practice opportunities and increased self-efficacy were predominantly reported as the underlying reasons behind the perceived decrease. Those who perceived their writing anxiety to have remained stable over time during the intervention appeared to believe so due to the fact that they had always perceived their levels of writing anxiety as either high or low regardless of the intervention. The participants who perceived an increase in their levels of writing anxiety reported to have believed so due to perceiving their own performance as low or the time constraints of the written assignments. Briefly, most interview participants seemed to have perceived a decrease in their levels of writing anxiety, which confirmed the quantitative findings of the study.

As a conclusion, GBI implemented within the context of the present study appears to have resulted in a decreased level of writing anxiety as confirmed by both quantitative and qualitative findings. In addition, it was also seen in the findings that the decreasing effect was larger after the midtest in comparison to the period until the midtest. The decrease in writing

anxiety as a result of the intervention is thought to have stemmed from the interaction opportunities during the intervention, peer feedback, discovery learning and the changes in other psychological constructs towards the positive. Furthermore, the larger effect of the decrease after the midtest appears to have resulted from the participants' taking the time to internalize their new genre knowledge and more efficient use of their working memory due to the reduced amount of negative psychological interference. In short, the GBI intervention within the context of the study seems to have had a reductive effect on writing anxiety.

Having considered the findings of the study with respect to all the psychological constructs of interest, namely writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety, it can be concluded that GBI may be an efficient tool in terms of promoting positive writing psychology, allowing learners to feel fonder of, more confident in and less nervous in the act of L2 writing. Moreover, the promotion of positive psychology during the GBI may be fostering more efficient working memory use, allowing for quality engagement with the processes involved in writing thanks to a decreased amount of the interference of negative feelings with the working memory. In conclusion, GBI appears to demonstrate a potential to develop positive feelings towards L2 writing, which, in turn, may foster creative thinking and analytical skills, improving performance in writing.

Summary and Discussion of RQ4. *Are there differences in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?*

In order to answer the fourth research question, the essay scores of the participants were compared with respect to their pretest, midtest and posttest scores in groups divided by the type of feedback received. Furthermore, the perceptions of the participants regarding their writing development were divided by feedback groups and compared in order to contribute to the answer of the research question from an interpretivist perspective.

The quantitative analyses of the pretest, midtest and posttest scores according to the type of feedback received by the participants showed that the Hand-holding group demonstrated mean literary analysis essay scores of 29.52 (SD = 15.21) in the pretest, 50.08 (SD = 17.07) in the midtest and 65.17 (SD = 13.90) in the posttest. The Bridging group, on the other hand, was found to have mean literary analysis essay scores of 31.39 (SD = 13.86) in the pretest, 57.08 (SD = 15.39) in the midtest and 64.95 (SD = 14.51) in the posttest. The comparisons with respect to the mean values and their corresponding tests revealed that there were no statistically significant differences among the mean essay scores according to the type of feedback received.

In order to understand the absence of a significant difference between the mean Literary Analysis Essay scores of the Hand-holding and Bridging groups in the pretest, midtest and the posttest, it may be useful to compare and contrast two types of feedback. The main difference between Hand-holding and Bridging as types of feedback is the level of explicitness as both feedback types consist of what, why and how a particular point should be revised (Mahboob & Devrim, 2013). Considering this, the absence of a difference in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre according to the type of feedback received as Hand-holding and Bridging can be explained with reference to the traditional topology of written corrective feedback and the extension of the Zone of Proximal Development in both types of feedback.

As seen in the descriptions, both Hand-holding and Bridging as types of feedback within the context of the present study contain elements that belong to different traditional feedback types such as focused, metalinguistic and indirect types of feedback since both types of feedback in this study focused on the production of rhetorical moves, included metalinguistic cues and were indirect in nature except for the part that required explicit suggestions in Hand-holding. Taking into account that focused feedback also focuses the learner and allows him / her to notice knowledge gaps (Ellis, 2009), and also that metalinguistic feedback aids the learner in reconsidering own knowledge and restructuring interlanguage (Lyster, 2002), the learners

may have benefitted from both types of feedback equally, since both groups had focused feedback which included metalinguistic cues. By becoming gradually able to notice knowledge gaps and restructuring their interlanguage, the learners may have progressively developed their ability to attend to errors (Diab, 2015) and improved their performance. As a further matter, the indirect components of the feedback given in the study may have contributed to both groups as the indirectness of written corrective feedback is known to enable learners to make use of guidance, allowing them to solve problems, notice gaps and attend to errors (Roberts, 2001). Moreover, such feedback typically leads to more complex cognitive processing on behalf of the learners, resulting in learning (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Considering that both Hand-holding and Bridging groups received feedback that consisted of indirect components, guidance and more complex cognitive processing may have helped them improve their performance regardless of their groups. All in all, the focused, metalinguistic and indirect nature of the majority of the feedback provided to both groups may have resulted in stronger positive effects than explicit suggestions, causing the absence of a significant difference in terms of writing performance between the groups divided by feedback.

The arguments of guidance and helping learners to notice gaps in their knowledge as included in both Hand-holding and Bridging types of feedback can be further explained through the concept of scaffolded feedback that allows learners to reflect on their writing-related problems and performance, resulting in an enhanced perception in problem solving (Finn & Mecalfe, 2010). Mahboob and Devrim (2013) argue that both Hand-holding and Bridging types of feedback extend the Zone of Proximal Development through scaffolding, which relates their argument to that of Finn and Mecalfe (2010). Considering this relationship, it can also be concluded that both Hand-holding and Bridging types of feedback within the context of the present study allowed for the extension of the Zone of Proximal Development on behalf of the

participants through scaffolding, enabling them to improve their problem-solving skills and allowing learning to occur.

The qualitative data analyses appeared to be in agreement with the quantitative findings with respect to the group differences in terms of the literary analysis essay scores assigned to the participants' essays over time. The results showed that both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups predominantly perceived an improvement in their mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre. The most frequently mentioned reasons behind the increase, which were increased levels of genre awareness and content knowledge, were the same for both groups. Therefore, it was concluded that both groups were in agreement in terms of perceiving an increase in the level of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre.

Taking into account the results of both quantitative and qualitative findings, it can be concluded that the type of feedback received as Hand-holding or Bridging does not result in a significant difference with regards to the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre as none of the quantitative comparisons produced statistically significant differences and the qualitative findings were in agreement with their quantitative counterparts. As also reported by the interview participants, the increase in the levels of genre knowledge and content knowledge on behalf of the participants seems to have affected both groups equally, extending the Zone of Proximal Development to a similar extent in both groups, resulting in an indistinguishable level of mastery in terms of the literary analysis essay throughout the intervention. In conclusion, the type of feedback as Hand-holding or Bridging appears to affect learning to a similar extent.

Summary and Discussion of RQ5. *Are there differences in the writing performance of the participants as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?*

To answer the fifth research question, the pretest, midtest and posttest scores with respect to writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical sophistication were compared according to the type of feedback received. The perceptions of the participants regarding their writing performance were also divided by feedback groups and compared qualitatively.

Writing Fluency

Since the residuals of writing fluency data were non-normally distributed, Aligned Rank Transformation was applied and calculations were made using the transformed data. Quantitative analyses showed that the mean writing fluency values among the participants who had received Hand-Holding type of feedback were 94.8 ($SD = 77.85$) in the pretest, 128.95 ($SD = 70.38$) in the midtest and 119.78 ($SD = 65.39$) in the posttest. On the other hand, the group which had received Bridging type of feedback demonstrated mean writing fluency values of 100.37 ($SD = 63.26$) in the pretest, 136.89 ($SD = 62.18$) in the midtest and 125.63 ($SD = 58.61$) in the posttest. Comparative analyses revealed that there was no statistically significant difference among the mean writing fluency values in any of the tests according to the type of feedback received by the participants.

The lack of difference between feedback groups in terms of writing fluency can be attributed to the commonalities between two types of feedback received within the context of the study. As mentioned earlier, both Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback were genre-focused within the study, which may have improved the participants' ability to notice the gaps in their knowledge regardless of the type of feedback. Furthermore, both types of feedback have metalinguistic and indirect components and are considered to extend the ZPD (Mahboob & Devrim, 2013). Considering that metalinguistic feedback helps learners restructure their interlanguage (Lyster, 2002) and indirect feedback aids in solving problems, paying attention to errors and undergoing more complex processing in writing (Roberts, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2006), the extension of ZPD with respect to writing development may have occurred

in similar levels for both feedback groups, resulting in the lack of difference in terms of writing fluency according to the type of feedback received. In short, the common features of Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback, which were focused, metalinguistic and indirect components, may have outweighed the effects of the differences between them, resulting in the absence of a difference between feedback groups regarding writing fluency.

As also confirmed in the analyses disregarding the type of feedback for the second research question, the in-class GBI appeared to have had an effect in terms of writing fluency and since both feedback groups received the same in-class instruction, the explicit nature of GBI (Hyland, 2003) may have resulted in an overall increase in writing fluency regardless of the type of feedback received. As also previously argued, the explicit nature of GBI may increase pre-task planning efficiency, which has a positive effect on writing fluency (Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Kellogg, 1996). Moreover, explicit writing instruction enables learners to increase their attention to monitoring and focus on the correct formation of structures (Johnson, 2017) along with promoting lexicogrammatical awareness (Harman, 2013), which is a component of genre knowledge (Tardy, 2009). In this regard, the fact that both feedback groups were exposed to the aforementioned positive effects of explicit writing instruction equally may have resulted in an increase in writing fluency in both groups from the pretest to the midtest. At this point, it can also be concluded that the type of feedback alone results in neither an increase nor a difference in terms of writing fluency as no increase or difference was noted after the midtest with respect to the construct.

The absence of a significant difference in regards to writing fluency according to the type of feedback received can also be explained by means of other findings of the present study, in which no difference was discovered in terms of genre-based writing performance or the most repeatedly-reported reasons behind the perceived increase in writing fluency. In the previous analyses, it was seen that the literary analysis essay scores did not differ according to the type

of feedback received. Considering that writing fluency is a component of writing development and the quality of writing (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998), the finding that the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre was not affected by the type of feedback received appears to confirm that both types of feedback contributed to writing development equally, resulting in similar performance levels for both groups.

The qualitative findings with respect to the effect of the intervention on Writing Fluency according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging were also found to be in agreement with their quantitative counterparts, revealing that both feedback groups primarily perceived an increase in the level of Writing Fluency as a result of the intervention. The most recurrently mentioned reasons for the perceived increase, which were the motivation to use complex language, perceived improvement in language proficiency over time and the feedback received as a part of the intervention, were identified to be the same for both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups. In brief, both feedback groups were seen to have a similar perception in regards to the effect of the GBI intervention on Writing Fluency, believing that the intervention had had a positive effect.

The absence of a difference in terms of the perceived effect of GBI on writing fluency between the feedback groups shows that, even though the type of feedback received by each group was dissimilar, both groups perceived similar effects of the intervention on writing fluency regardless of the feedback received and the similarity in the pattern of development regarding the level of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre was supportive of the absence of a significant difference between feedback groups in terms of writing fluency.

Having considered both quantitative and qualitative findings, a viable conclusion appears to be that the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not have an effect on writing fluency since quantitative comparisons indicated no statistically significant difference and the qualitative findings show that both groups predominantly reported a

perceived increase in their levels of writing fluency as a result of the intervention. As both groups had the same focus in their feedback along with similar metalinguistic and indirect cues, the absence of the difference may have resulted from these features in both types of feedback, which outweighed the explicit suggestions in the Hand-Holding type of feedback. Moreover, the fact that both groups were exposed to the explicit nature of in-class GBI appears to be the reason behind the lack of a significant difference between the feedback groups in terms of writing fluency. In conclusion, receiving feedback in the form of Hand-Holding or Bridging does not appear to make a difference in writing fluency within the context of the study.

Lexical Complexity

According to the results of the quantitative analyses, the Hand-Holding group had a mean lexical complexity of .25 (*SD* = 0.05) in the pretest, .25 (*SD* = 0.05) in the midtest and .27 (*SD* = 0.04) in the posttest. The Bridging group, on the other hand, had a mean lexical complexity of .25 (*SD* = 0.05) in the pretest, .25 (*SD* = 0.05) in the midtest and .26 (*SD* = 0.04) in the posttest. The comparisons of the mean lexical complexity scores across groups showed that the type of feedback did not result in any statistically significant difference in terms of lexical complexity.

The absence of a significant difference between two feedback groups regarding lexical complexity can be attributed to the text type, focus of the intervention, available resources and perceived competence in writing. As suggested by Yıldız and Yeşilyurt (2017), lexical complexity is influenced by the rhetorical mode, or the type of the text as narrative, expository or argumentative etc. moreover, the imageability, concreteness and meaningfulness of words to be used also influence lexical complexity according to Salsbury et al. (2011). Taking into account that the participants of the study were asked to produce texts that were of the same rhetorical mode throughout the intervention, the imageability, concreteness and meaningfulness of the words to be utilized in the texts remained the same throughout the intervention equally

for both groups, resulting in the lack of difference in lexical complexity. Moreover, as also mentioned by a few interview participants who reported a stable level of lexical complexity throughout the interview, both groups had a dictionary available during the completion of their assignments throughout, therefore, reaching sophisticated vocabulary and using them in the texts must not have been difficult for the participants from the first week to the last. In addition, the focus of the intervention, which was the production of the literary analysis essay as a genre, may have resulted in a reduced focus on lexical features for both groups. Lastly, as reported by both an interview participant and Baba (2009), low proficiency or competence in writing may have hindered development in regards to lexical complexity for both groups equally. In sum, the rhetorical mode's, focus' and available resources' being the same for both feedback groups and the perceived lack of writing competence may have accounted for the absence of a significant difference between Hand-Holding and Bridging groups in regards to lexical complexity.

The qualitative findings regarding lexical complexity were in agreement for both groups, even though these findings did not match the quantitative ones as lexical complexity was found to have been perceived to have increased by both groups with a few participants in both groups having perceived the construct to have remained stable throughout the intervention. There were also a few differences in the reasons behind the perceived increase in lexical complexity as reported by the participants. Among the interview participants in the Hand-Holding group, the most frequently mentioned reasons behind the perceived increase in lexical complexity were frequent practice, using secondary sources and the feedback received. Among those in the Bridging group, the most repeatedly mentioned reasons for the perceived increase in the construct were generic progress over time, using secondary sources, motivation to avoid repetition and ideal self. In short, the qualitative findings with respect to the effect of the GBI intervention on lexical complexity showed that both feedback groups agreed on a positive

effect, which mismatched the quantitative findings, although a few differences as to the reasons behind the perceived increase existed between groups.

Taking into account both quantitative and qualitative findings, it can be said that the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not have an effect on lexical complexity, which is confirmed by the lack of a statistically significant difference between two groups and the qualitative findings being very similar for both groups. As both groups were subjected to the same rhetorical mode, instructional focus and feedback focus, their lexical complexity levels do not appear to have been affected different than one another. In conclusion, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not seem to result in different levels of lexical complexity within the context of the study.

Lexical Density

Quantitative analyses revealed that the group which received Hand-Holding type of feedback had a mean lexical density of .51 ($SD = 0.04$) in the pretest, .51 ($SD = 0.03$) in the midtest and .54 ($SD = 0.03$) in the posttest. On the other hand, the group which received Bridging type of feedback demonstrated mean lexical density values of .51 ($SD = 0.04$) in the pretest, .52 ($SD = 0.03$) in the midtest and .54 ($SD = 0.03$) in the posttest. Comparisons indicated that the type of feedback made no statistically significant difference in the level of lexical density.

The fact that no difference was observed between the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups in terms of lexical density throughout the intervention suggests that the similarities between two groups in terms of the genre at hand, revision opportunities and the similar features of the feedback received. Considering that the genre to be produced is among the factors which affect lexical density (Johansson, 2008) and the participants were required to produce a single genre throughout the intervention, it can be stated that both groups had similar gains in terms of lexical density since they dealt with the same genre. Furthermore, the fact that both feedback

groups had equal revision opportunities, which is a factor affecting lexical density (Robin, 2016), may have contributed to the equality in lexical density development in both groups. In addition, both Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback are thought to extend one's ZPD thanks to their focused, metalinguistic and indirect features (Mahboob & Devrim, 2013), which may also have resulted in the absence of a significant difference between two groups regarding lexical density. When these factors are combined, the participants of both groups may have conveyed an increased amount of meaning (Colombi, 2012), author's preferences and ideas in their texts (Yasuda, 2012), resulting in similar levels of lexical density development. In brief and as also reported by the interview participants, the similarity the increased focus on meaning and the features of the feedback received may have caused the insignificant difference between the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups.

The qualitative findings in regards to lexical density appeared to be parallel to their quantitative counterparts in that the majority of the interview participants in both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups reported a perceived increase in lexical density, indicating no difference between two groups, even though the variation among the responses to the question about lexical density was higher than the other constructs. It was also seen that some participants were seen to have perceived a decrease in their levels of lexical density while a few others reported that no change had occurred in lexical density throughout the intervention. The most frequently repeated reasons for the perceived increase in lexical density were the increased focus on meaning throughout the intervention, the feedback received and motivation to use complex language for both groups. Those who reported a perceived stability in lexical density throughout the intervention justified their responses through a proportional increase in the use of content and function words throughout the intervention. The participants who perceived a decrease in their levels of lexical density put forth their motivation to use complex language as the reason behind the decrease. Briefly, most interview participants in both groups perceived an increase

in their levels of lexical density regardless of the type of feedback they had received, however, the responses were more imbalanced than other constructs since some participants perceived stability while others perceived a decrease in lexical density.

Having considered the entirety of the findings, it is seen that the type of feedback received has Hand-Holding or Bridging does not make any change in the level of lexical density since both groups are observed to develop without any difference whatsoever both in quantitative and qualitative terms. Due to the fact that both groups were exposed to very similar variables such as the literary analysis essay as a genre and equal revision opportunities as well as benefitting from the ZPD-extending natures of both types of feedback, lexical density appears to have developed equally in both feedback groups throughout in the intervention. As a conclusion, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not show any sign of making a difference with respect to the development of lexical density.

As a conclusion, RQ5 reveals that the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not have any effect on the development of writing performance as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density, indicating an equal amount of development for both feedback groups. The similarities in the variables that the participants were exposed to, namely the literary analysis essay as a genre, in-class GBI, equal practice and revision opportunities and the ZPD-extending features of both types of feedback, appear to be contributing to the development of writing performance more strongly than the differences between two types of feedback, which is limited to including or excluding explicit suggestions for correction/revision. To sum up, Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback seem to be contributing equally to the development of literary analysis essay writing performance as present in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density.

Summary and Discussion of RQ6. *Are there differences in writing attitudes, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety among the participants before, during and after GBI according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging?*

In RQ6, the pretest, midtest and posttest measurements of writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety were compared against one another according to feedback groups and the perceptions of the participants with respect to the constructs were also divided by feedback groups for comparison purposes.

Writing Attitude

Quantitative findings regarding writing attitude revealed that the Hand-Holding group had mean writing attitude values of 2.98 ($SD = 0.77$) in the pretest, 3.20 ($SD = 0.70$) in the midtest and 3.33 ($SD = 0.67$) in the posttest. The Bridging group, on the other hand, had mean writing attitude values of 3.01 ($SD = 0.76$) in the pretest, 3.27 ($SD = 0.76$) in the midtest and 3.41 ($SD = 0.80$) in the posttest. Inferential statistics indicated no difference among the mean writing attitude values according to the type of feedback received by the participants throughout the intervention.

The absence of a significant difference in terms of writing attitude according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging seems to be a plausible one when the responses of the participants in the interview are considered. For both groups, the most recurrent responses as to the reason behind the perceived increase were a perceived increase in writing self-efficacy and a perceived decrease in writing anxiety. According to Anderman and Wolters (2006) and Yavuz-Erkan and Saban (2011), increasing the level of writing self-efficacy and decreasing the level of writing anxiety among learners increase writing motivation, which is correlated with writing attitude. As also confirmed by the other findings of the present research question, the participants of the present study experienced an increase in their writing self-efficacy and a decrease in their writing anxiety regardless of the type of feedback they had

received. This may have increased their level of writing motivation no matter what type of feedback they had taken, which may, in turn, have increased their levels of writing attitude. In other words, general improvement in the positive aspects of writing psychology among the participants throughout the intervention may have resulted in the increased level of writing attitude for both feedback groups, resulting in the absence of a significant difference according to the type of feedback.

The focus of the feedback for groups as well as the reflective writing practice may have also contributed equally to writing attitude for both groups, as both groups had the same focus and opportunity for reflection. According to Truscott (1996), the avoidance of grammar correction in written corrective feedback results in a higher level of writing attitude among learners. Moreover, Abbas (2016) states that reflection following the production of written texts increases the attitudes of learners towards writing. In this respect, the fact that the content of the feedback for both Hand-Holding and Bridging group had the production of rhetorical moves as its focus may have eliminated the negative feelings of the participants. In addition, giving learners the chance to reflect on their text production in a structured fashion may have resulted in more positive attitude towards writing in both groups by contributing to self-awareness equally within both feedback groups. The genre focus in both types of feedback possibly contributed more to meaning-making than grammar-focused feedback along with fostering self-awareness through reflection regardless of the type of feedback. These may have been the underlying reasons behind the similar levels of increase in writing attitude in both feedback groups.

The qualitative findings in regards to the effect of the intervention on writing attitude according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging were found to be parallel to the quantitative findings in that both feedback groups primarily reported a perceived increase in their levels of writing attitude as a result of the intervention. The most recurrently

mentioned reasons behind the perceived increase in writing attitude were a perceived increase in writing self-efficacy, a perceived decrease in writing anxiety and the feedback received in both groups. Briefly, both feedback groups were identified to have perceived an increase in writing attitude thanks to the intervention without a difference, which confirmed the quantitative findings.

The qualitative and quantitative findings with respect to the effect of the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging confirm one another in that both types of feedback equally lead to improvements in writing attitude. It appears that the positive alterations in other psychological constructs such as writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety interact with writing motivation, resulting in increased levels of writing attitude irrespective of the type of feedback received. The similarity in the effect of two types of feedback on writing attitude appears to stem from the absence of grammatical focus in both types of feedback as well as the equal opportunity for reflection provided to the participants throughout the intervention. In sum, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not seem to make a difference in writing attitude, both types having a positive effect on the construct.

Writing Self-Efficacy

According to the quantitative findings regarding writing self-efficacy, the Hand-Holding group had mean writing self-efficacy values of 2.73 ($SD = 0.48$) in the pretest, 2.84 ($SD = 0.47$) in the midtest and 2.85 ($SD = 0.47$) in the posttest. The Bridging group demonstrated mean values of 2.58 ($SD = 0.49$) in the pretest, 2.76 ($SD = 0.51$) in the midtest and 2.88 ($SD = 0.62$) in the posttest. Comparative analysis revealed that the mean writing self-efficacy values did not have any statistically significance difference according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging.

In order to explain the lack of a significant difference between the feedback groups in terms of writing self-efficacy, it can be useful to refer to the previous findings of the present

study which indicated that writing self-efficacy demonstrated an increase from the pretest to the midtest but the construct stabilized after the midtest, revealing no significant difference between the midtest and the posttest. In the previous section, these findings were interpreted to have been indicative of the effect of the in-class GBI component of the intervention on writing self-efficacy, which was not present after the midtest or the period during which the participants did not receive instruction in the classroom.

The absence of a significant difference in writing self-efficacy after the midtest when the type of feedback given to the participants is disregarded can explain the absence of a significant difference according to type of feedback, too. During the period from the pretest to the midtest, the participants received the same GBI irrespective of their feedback group and thus, they benefitted from the instruction in terms of an increased level of writing self-efficacy equally. During the modelling, analysis and joint construction phases of the GBI, they were subject to equal opportunities to benefit from peer and advisor influence, which influence the level of writing self-efficacy (Zuo & Wang, 2016), and therefore, their levels of writing self-efficacy may have been affected equally by the instruction negligent of the type of feedback they had received. In this respect, it can be said that the in-class instruction, not the feedback, may have helped the participants increase their levels of writing self-efficacy and on that account, the type of feedback may not have made a difference in the level of writing self-efficacy.

The psychological alterations among the participants throughout the intervention along with the general increase in writing performance, which also did not differ according to the type of feedback received by the participants, may also have resulted in the lack of a significant difference in writing self-efficacy between the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups. The findings of the present study, as can be seen in other sections, suggest that the level of mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre increased among the participants irrespective of the type

of feedback received. Moreover, the level of writing anxiety within the entire group decreased throughout the intervention without any effect of the type of feedback. Considering that both writing performance (Chea & Shumov, 2014) and writing anxiety (Pajares, 2003) are correlated with writing self-efficacy, the changes in these constructs, which were not affected by the type of feedback received by the participants, may have resulted in the equal changes in the writing self-efficacy levels of the participants. As also reported by the participants in the interview sessions, the increased writing performance may have resulted in the realization of own performance and an increased level of genre awareness for both feedback groups, causing an overall increase in writing self-efficacy for both groups without a difference. The psychological and performance-related changes among the participants, which were not affected by the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging, may have resulted in the absence of a significant difference in writing self-efficacy according to the type of feedback, too.

The qualitative findings regarding the effect of the type of feedback on writing self-efficacy were also found to be in agreement with the quantitative findings in that the interview participants in both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups perceived an increase in their levels of writing self-efficacy as a result of the intervention. The most frequently stated reasons behind the perceived increase in writing self-efficacy were also identical for both groups, being the realization of own performance, the feedback received as a part of the intervention and a perceived increase in the level of genre awareness. In short, there seemed to have been no difference in the perceptions of the interview participants according to the type of feedback they had received, both groups reporting an increase in the level of writing self-efficacy.

Regarding the effect of the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging on writing self-efficacy, the qualitative and quantitative findings were in agreement, both suggesting the absence of an effect. The findings suggest that the in-class GBI, to which both feedback groups participated, may have had a positive effect on writing self-efficacy, however,

receiving the feedback as Hand-Holding or Bridging made no difference on that effect. Apparently, the positive changes in the levels of writing anxiety and the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, which did not differ according to the type of feedback received, along with how they are perceived by the participants positively affected the level of writing self-efficacy among the participants regardless of the type of feedback they had received. As a conclusion, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not appear to result in any variation in the level of writing self-efficacy among the participants.

Writing Anxiety

The quantitative findings in regards to writing anxiety revealed that the Hand-Holding group had mean writing anxiety values of 2.68 ($SD = 0.77$) in the pretest, 2.54 ($SD = 0.86$) in the midtest and 2.27 ($SD = 0.70$) in the posttest. For the same construct, the Bridging group had mean values of 2.68 ($SD = 0.89$) in the pretest, 2.24 ($SD = 0.79$) in the midtest and 2.18 ($SD = 0.77$) in the posttest. Comparisons indicated that the mean writing anxiety values belonging to the feedback groups were not significant according to the type of feedback.

As can be concluded from both the relevant literature and the findings of the present study, the psychological changes among the participants, the in-class GBI and the feedback component of the intervention may have resulted in the absence of a difference between the feedback groups in terms of writing anxiety. According to Pajares (2003), an increased level of writing self-efficacy results in a decreased level of writing anxiety. Considering the other findings of the present study along with the responses of the participants in the interview sessions, the writing self-efficacy levels of the participants increased as a result of the in-class GBI regardless of their feedback group. For this reason, the increase in the writing self-efficacy levels of the participants of both feedback groups may have resulted in the absence of a significant difference in terms of writing anxiety according to the type of feedback received. During the in-class GBI, the participants had the opportunity to be engaged in discovery

learning and collaborate with their peers and teacher-researcher, which has anxiety-reducing effects on learners (Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Yastıbaş & Yastıbaş, 2015; Wynne, 2014). Since all participants, regardless of their feedback group, received the same in-class GBI, they may have benefitted from the anxiety-reducing effects of the instruction equally, resulting in the lack of a significant difference in writing anxiety levels. In addition, according to Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009), receiving feedback by itself has an anxiety-reducing effect in learning contexts. Considering that both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups received feedback during the intervention even though there were differences in the content of the feedback, it can be concluded that the lack of a significant difference in terms of writing anxiety between feedback groups may have stemmed from the existence of a type of feedback for both groups. As also reported in the interview sessions by the participants, the supportive environment provided to the participants through feedback may have reduced their levels of anxiety equally (Oxford, 2016) irrespective of the type of feedback they had received. As also mentioned by the participants in the interviews, the increased level of genre awareness thanks to instruction and feedback may have equally increased their levels of familiarity with the genre at hand, reducing the level of writing anxiety equally in both groups (Csizér & Tankó, 2017). To sum up, the positive effects induced by the in-class GBI in addition to the feedback component of the intervention may have affected the participants in both Hand-Holding and Bridging group equally, causing the absence of a significant difference in writing anxiety according to the type of feedback.

Regarding the effect of the type of feedback writing anxiety, qualitative findings were in agreement with their quantitative counterparts, indicating a perceived decrease in writing anxiety in both Hand-Holding and Bridging groups. The most repeatedly reported reasons behind the perceived decrease in writing anxiety were also the same for both groups, being a perceived increase in the level of genre awareness and the feedback component of the

intervention for both groups. Briefly, the qualitative findings with respect to the effect of the type of feedback on writing anxiety indicated no difference between the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups.

The quantitative and qualitative findings with respect to the effect of the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging were parallel to one another, indicating the absence of an effect. It can be seen in the findings that the increase in writing self-efficacy, the in-class GBI and the feedback component of the intervention may have positively affected all participants equally, outweighing the effects that may have arisen out of the differences in Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback. It appears that the collaboration opportunities, supportive environment and receiving feedback no matter what type it is, which were present for all participants regardless of their feedback group, contribute more to reducing writing anxiety than the explicit features of Hand-Holding type of feedback or the implicit features of Bridging type of feedback. To conclude, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not seem to make a difference in the level of writing anxiety.

Having considered all the findings within the context of the present study with respect to the psychology of writing, RQ6 shows that the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not have any effect on improving writing psychology measured as writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety since both feedback groups equally developed in regards to these constructs. The parts of the intervention common to both feedback groups, namely the in-class GBI, feedback, focus on genre, frequent practice and revision seem to contribute to bettering writing psychology more efficiently than the difference between Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback, whose main difference is the implicitness / explicitness of revision suggestions. As a conclusion, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not appear to cause differences in the psychological constructs specific to L2 writing.

Summary and Discussion of RQ7. *What are the opinions of learners who received GBI regarding the procedure?*

To meet the aims of the research question, the responses of the participants to the structured reflection questions which aimed to reveal how the participants perceived the processes involved, positives, negatives, perceived learning and future influence of the production of the texts in the weeks corresponding to the pretest, midtest and posttest were initially analyzed. Secondarily, the responses of the interview participants as to the perceived positives and negatives of the intervention were investigated to find out how it had been perceived as a whole.

Perceived Processes Undergone in the Production of Texts

The most frequently reported process sequences during the production of texts by the participants were found to be Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write, Read Secondary Sources – Write and Watch Film – Read Secondary Sources – Write in the pretest, for which there were 17 different sequences reported by the participants. In the midtest, this number was found to have reduced to 7 different sequences, the most frequent ones being Read Secondary Sources – Write, Read Secondary Sources – Plan – Write and Plan – Write. Furthermore, revising the previous feedback emerged as a new process in the midtest. In the posttest, the number of different process sequences reported by the participants reduced to 6, the most recurrent ones being the same as the midtest. In addition, it was observed that watching the film adaptation of a given literary work and taking notes to be used in the production of the text had disappeared from the reported process sequences in the posttest. In short, qualitative findings suggested changes in the perceived processes undergone by the participants during the production of Literary Analysis Essays in that the number of different process sequences reported by the participants demonstrated a declining trend over time, the responses having been clustered around reading secondary sources, planning for writing and transcription.

The clustering of participant responses with respect to the processes that were gone through during text production was found to have been much more visible between the pretest and the midtest as opposed to the period between the midtest and posttest where it was less obvious, suggesting that the in-class GBI had a stronger effect on the regulation of the processes undergone by the participants during the production of their texts. As also suggested by Csizér & Tankó (2017), the Genre-Based Approach to the teaching of writing, when the processes are also taken into account, leads to an increased familiarization with the genre and to knowledge transformation, improving the processes involved in the act of writing. This transformation of knowledge enables the learner-writer to process relevant content and discourse, resulting in the detection of content knowledge gaps and the identification of appropriate ways to express that particular content with the consideration of goals and audience (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). Since the participants were informed about how to approach the literary text during the in-class GBI, the largely visible clustering around reading secondary sources and planning may have occurred as a result of the GBI-induced awareness-raising regarding how to process the content and the discourse. Having discovered how to process relevant content and discourse, the participants may have started to follow more similar paths after the in-class GBI as opposed to the pretest where the number of different process sequences were more than twice as much as the midtest.

The clustering of the perceived processes of the participants around reading secondary sources and planning can also be explained in the light of L2 process research in terms of the importance of the stages of writing which precede transcription. According to Uzawa (1996), ideas for L2 writing are mostly generated before the transcription phase and Silva (1993) states that generating ideas and understanding the topic are the most time-consuming processes in L2 writing, which come before transcribing the actual text. On the same issue, Zimmermann (2000) suggests that preplanning, global and local planning and formulating are the processes that lead

up to transcription in L2 and Sasaki (2002) say that global planning is the initial process in L2 writing. When the fact that all these process studies confirm the precursory nature of idea-generation and planning in L2 writing and Sasaki's (2000) claim that skilled writers require more time to plan to actualize writing in L2 are considered, it appears to be a plausible explanation that the participants of the study, lacking the content and discourse knowledge on writing a literary analysis essay, were provided with the blueprint of the literary analysis essay as a genre through the in-class GBI and this resulted in their identification of the need to regulate the processes to be undergone in text production. The identification of this need allowed them to detect the gaps in their content and discourse knowledge, resulting in the reading of secondary sources and engaging in planning by a larger number of participants to close the knowledge gap and proceed to the transcription stage of writing. In short, the in-class GBI may have provided the participants with the necessary preplanning and planning skills, mostly on the global scale, for the realization of the literary analysis essay as a genre, resulting in the larger number of participants' being engaged in utilizing secondary sources and planning over time.

Taking into account the responses of the participants to the structured reflection question on writing processes in the pretest, midtest and the posttest in the light of process research on L2 writing, it can be concluded that the in-class GBI component of the intervention had a strong effect on the preplanning and planning skills of the participants, as the number of different process sequences reported in the pretest reduced by more than half after the in-class GBI and clustered around reading secondary sources and planning, which appears to have stemmed from the identification of the needs regarding content and discourse for the production of a literary text with rhetorical appropriacy. It appears that the modelling, analyses and joint construction steps of GBI have a large effect on the initiation of knowledge transformation for writing

purposes on behalf of the learners. In conclusion, GBI seems to be fostering preplanning and planning in L2 writing, which are essential steps for the actual transcription of a text in L2.

Perceived Positive Aspects during the Production of Texts

The topics which were the most recurrently perceived as positive by the participants in the pretest, for which 12 different topics as positives were reported, were found to be engaging content, improving essay writing skills and improving vocabulary knowledge. In the midtest, the participants reported 6 different topics as positive, the most repeated ones being improving essay writing skills, learning content and improving vocabulary knowledge. In the midtest, it was seen that faster completion of assignment emerged as a new topic and finding the content engaging moved down to the least frequently reported positives. In addition, restoring previously acquired knowledge, using lecture notes and finding the task unchallenging, which were present in the pretest, disappeared from the perceived positives in the midtest. In the posttest, which resulted in 8 different topics perceived as positive, the most frequently mentioned positives were subject to changes again, being improving essay writing skills, learning content and faster completion of assignment, which all increased in frequency in comparison to the pretest and the midtest. In this final test, faster completion of the assignment, which was among the least frequently mentioned topics in the midtest, moved up to the most frequently mentioned ones and improving vocabulary knowledge experienced the opposite effect, moving down to the least frequently mentioned positives unlike the pretest and the posttest. Finding the content engaging, which was among the most frequently mentioned topics in the pretest and the least frequently mentioned topics in the midtest, completely disappeared in the posttest according to the findings. Overall, the participants seemed to have developed a tendency over time to perceive their learning experience as positive with a focus on producing the literary analysis essay as a genre and simultaneously learning the content.

In the findings, improving essay writing skills is seen to be the most frequent positive in all three tests. In other words, the participants seem to have perceived an increase in their writing performance in each test. Indeed, both source-based writing tasks and frequent writing practice help learners improve their writing ability in a foreign language (Gholami & Alinasab, 2017). The source-based nature of the literary analysis essay, that is, the requirement to make use of additional sources (e.g. the literary text, secondary sources...) may have resulted in the perception of learning when combined with the fact that the participants had either a text production or a text revision assignment each week. Having to read and analyze various texts along with synthesizing them into a single essay may have resulted in the perception of improving essay writing skills from the first week to the last.

It is also seen in the findings that the participants tend to perceive learning the content and writing faster as the positives of the midtest and the posttest unlike the pretest in which they reported finding the content engaging and learning new words and phrases as the positives. It appears that as time progressed and the participants matured regarding their perceptions of the literary analysis essay and the English Literature course in general, the focus of their perceptions had become more refined in that they were more oriented towards perceiving the content focus of their essays and their speed in writing literary analysis essays more positively. Apparently, the intervention provided the participants with a clearer focus than they had in the pretest, which resulted in the increased positive perceptions in terms of writing better essays in a timely manner while learning the content of the week.

As a conclusion, changes were observed in the topics perceived as positive by the participants throughout the intervention except for perceiving the completion of assignments to improve essay writing skills, which was the most frequently mentioned positive in all tests. Other than this particular topic, it was seen that the participants tended to perceive learning the content and writing faster more positively than other topics over time and learning new

vocabulary tended to lose importance in the list. The source-based nature of the tasks, having recurring opportunities to practice and a gradual refinement in the perceptions regarding the intervention appears to be accounting for the changes in the perceptions of the participants with respect to the positives in completing the assignments. Due to those reasons, the participants seem to have shifted their focus in their perception of positive topics towards a more learning and production-oriented path.

Perceived Negative Aspects during the Production of Texts

The topics that were the most repeatedly perceived as negative by the participants in the pretest, which produced 13 different topics perceived negatively, were discovered to be the task's being challenging and time-consuming as well as the content's being tedious.

In the midtest, the number of different topics perceived negatively by the participants declined to 7 with the most recurrent topics being the task's being challenging and time-consuming along with a perceived low performance in the completion of the task, the last one of which emerged as a new topic in the midtest along with going off-topic as a negative in the midtest. Moreover, the content's being perceived as tedious seemed to have disappeared from among the negatives in the midtest.

In the posttest, 7 different topics as negatives were reported by the participants and the most frequent ones among them were a perceived low performance, the task's being challenging and having difficulty in finding information, which had the same frequency with the midtest but ranked higher in the posttest. In this last test, going off-topic and rushing for submission in the last minute as perceived negatives disappeared from the list and the task's being time-consuming shrank in number to a large extent.

Regarding the negatives, it was also seen that the number of participants who claimed to have experienced nothing negative during the production of texts gradually increased. In

sum, changes were observed in the negatives perceived by the participants during the production of texts in that perceiving the task as time-consuming reduced in number while evaluating own performance as insufficient and experiencing difficulty in finding relevant information started to be perceived as negatives more commonly along with the perception of experiencing no negatives during text production.

A noteworthy detail among the findings with respect to the perceived negatives during the production of the texts is that perceiving the task as a challenging one is the among most recurrently perceived topics in all three tests with a reducing number from the pretest to the posttest. However, this particular detail can be interpreted in a positive light from a Vygotskian perspective signaling the occurrence of learning. According to Vygotsky (1978), ZPD refers to the gap between the current and potential developmental levels of a learner and for learning to occur, learners should be assisted through the ZPD to their potential developmental level by means of tasks that are slightly above their level and guidance from a more knowledgeable peer or teacher. In this respect, the tasks' being perceived as challenging in all three tests may be signifying that they were suitable to push learners to their potential developmental level through their ZPD since scaffolding by the teacher was already to be provided in the form of Hand-Holding or Bridging types of feedback for the actualization of learning. Since learning itself is a pleasurable activity (Reynolds, 2006) and the participants of the present study reported learning writing along with the content in previous questions, the reduction in the frequency of mentioning the task's being challenging and the gradual increase in the number of participants who reported no negatives in the production of texts may be interpreted as supportive of the occurrence of learning through the participants' being carried up to their potential developmental level with every task within the context of the study. Taking into account the concept of ZPD proposed by Vygotsky (1978), it can be concluded that perceiving the task as challenging signifies the tasks' being in a suitable level for learning to occur.

Another important finding within the scope of the negatives perceived by the participants during text production was that the number of participants who claimed to have experienced no negatives during text production seemed to have gradually increased throughout the intervention. It was shown in the RQ3 of the present study that the level of writing anxiety slowly decreased among the participants throughout the course of the intervention. Even though Deweale and MacIntyre (2014) state that anxiety and enjoyment in language learning are separate constructs, Boudreau, MacIntyre and Dewaele (2018) argue that the two constructs may converge at times and Uzun (2017) finds that they are moderately and negatively correlated within the Turkish higher education context. In this respect, the reducing anxiety levels of the participants throughout the intervention may have resulted in augmented levels of enjoyment, resulting in fewer participants reporting negatives experienced during text production. Also confirmed by the positives reported by the participants, the negatives perceived by the participants during text production may have gradually declined due to their decreasing levels of anxiety and increasing levels of enjoyment.

The last change in the perceived negatives of text production within the context of the interview, which can be interpreted from a positive perspective, is that the number of participants who perceived the essay tasks to be time-consuming gradually reduced across tests. When these particular findings are read in combination with the reports of writing faster by the participants, which was found to have been an increasingly mentioned positive for the previous reflection question, it can be inferred that there was a perceived increase in writing fluency throughout the course of the intervention. Even though time as an intermediary variable is proposed in some of the definitions of writing fluency (VanderMolen, 2011) but it was not included in the present study like the studies of Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) due to the source-based nature of the tasks and the already-existing nature of time constraints in untimed writing conditions in higher education (Banerjee, Yan, Chapman, &

Elliott, 2015), the reports from the participants were supportive of an increase in writing fluency when time differential is considered as well. Apparently, the increasing level of mastery in the literary analysis essay as a genre among the participants led to a decreased amount of time required to complete assignments, resulting in improvements in writing fluency as also confirmed by the quantitative findings of the present study.

When the changes in the negatives reported by the participants regarding the production of texts are considered, it is seen that findings the tasks challenging keeps its place in the first three most frequent topics across tests while perceiving the tasks as time-consuming declines and perceiving no negatives increases. From a Vygotskian perspective, perceiving the tasks challenging is thought to be pointing at the potential developmental level of the participants, which was to be reached by means of scaffolding through Hand-Holding or Bridging types of feedback. The reduction in the perception of the time-consuming nature of the task, on the other hand, appears to be signaling the increase in the participants' levels of writing fluency when investigated with reference to the perception of writing faster, which was one of the most frequently stated positives in the former reflection question. Lastly, the increase in the number of participants who claimed to have experienced no negatives during text production seemed to have signified the reduction in the level of anxiety, which, in turn, appears to have increased the level of enjoyment. To sum up, the negatives as perceived by the participants during the production of the texts seem to be signaling an increase in the positive feelings towards their assignments and the occurrence of learning.

Perceived Learning Gains During the Production of Texts

The most recurrently mentioned topics with respect to the perceived learning gains during text production in the pretest were content, producing the genre and new vocabulary, producing a sum of 9 different topics. In the midtest, the number of different topics regarding perceived learning gains increased very lightly to 10, the most repeated ones being content,

producing the genre and new vocabulary like the pretest. In this test, learning study skills and taking on author's perspective while writing emerged as new themes and punctuation disappeared from the list. Lastly, the posttest reflections resulted in the same topics as the most frequently mentioned ones, being content, producing the genre and new vocabulary. In this final test, writing faster emerged as a new theme while taking on author's perspective and time management disappeared from the list. The analyses of the participant reflections as to the perceived learning during text production resulted in little or no change, centering mostly around learning content, how to produce the literary analysis essay as a genre and new vocabulary.

The most commonly perceived learning gain as reported by the participants in all three tests, namely the content of the literary work, can be explained through a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) perspective since proponents of CLIL argue that content and language can be simultaneously learned (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Wolff, 2005). Since the literary analysis essay is a source-based and academic genre which requires the use of literary texts and secondary sources for the successful production of the text, the participants had to go through lots of reading material to complete each of their assignments and therefore, content learning may have been fostered. As also suggested by García (2008), the learning of the literary analysis as a genre may have gone hand in hand with the scrutiny of the content for increased writing quality, resulting in the consistent perception of learning the content across tests.

Learning the literary analysis essay as a genre, reported by the participants to have occurred in all three tests, also seems to be a plausible effect of text production as the approach to the text in the intervention, which was genre-based, is known to result in learning how to analyze as well as to produce a given genre. A Genre-Based Approach to writing results in increased levels of metacognitive genre awareness (Negretti & Kuteeva, 2011) and rhetorical awareness (Cheng, 2008; Pang, 2002) and those types of awareness are considered as

requirements for the successful training of writing skill (Swales, 1990). For this reason, it can be said that each text that the participants of this study produced resulted in learning how to produce the genre or improving what was already known and because of this, the production of the genre was among the most frequently mentioned topics regarding the perceived learning gains.

Learning new words and phrases, as reported by the participants within the topics of perceived learning in each test, can be attributed to the practice opportunities provided to the participants in the form of text production or text revision every week during the intervention. According to Astika (2015), providing learners with frequent writing practice opportunities results in the retention of new vocabulary. Considering the source-based nature of the participants' tasks and their having to go through various sources to complete their assignments, the act of writing the literary analysis essay may have, indeed, result in the lexical development of the participants. This perception of the participants is also confirmed by the quantitative findings of the present study which suggest that the learners started to use more content words than function words in their texts as a result of the intervention, signaling that more meaning was started to be conveyed in their texts. In this regard, the participants may have also felt this change in their texts, resulting in the perception of learning new vocabulary during text production.

The findings with respect to learning gains as perceived by the participants during the production of the literary analysis essay resulted only in minor changes across the pretest, midtest and the posttest, having the content, production of the genre and new vocabulary as the most frequently mentioned learning items in all three tests. The learning of the content throughout the intervention appears to have stemmed from the participants' active engagement with the production of essays, which required reading and working on additional texts for the successful completion of assignments. Learning how to produce the genre in all three tests

seems to have resulted from the increased metacognitive awareness and genre awareness as an outcome of the Genre-Based Approach to writing the students were asked and taught to adopt. The perception of learning new vocabulary, on the other hand, may have been the result of frequent practice opportunities provided throughout the course of the intervention. As a conclusion, the participants appear to have perceived learning the content, producing the genre and new words and phrases consistently throughout the intervention without any major change in their perceptions.

Perceived Future Influence of the Production of Texts

The most repeatedly mentioned topics regarding the perceived future influence of text production in the pretest were writing better, making fewer mistakes and writing faster with a sum of 11 different topics reported by the participants. The midtest produced 9 different topics in regards to the same issue, having writing better, writing faster and using the recently acquired genre knowledge as the most commonly mentioned topics. In the midtest, using genre knowledge emerged as a new topic of perceived future influence while an increased level of fluency and using the recently learned vocabulary, which were two topics towards the middle of the list ranked by frequency, moved down to the lower end of the list. In the posttest, the participants reported 6 different topics with respect to the perceived future influence of completing the assignments, the most recurrent ones being writing better, writing faster and using the recently acquired genre knowledge, same as the midtest. Briefly, the most frequently mentioned topics regarding the perceived future influence of completing the assignments in all three tests were centered around writing performance and writing fluency, however, making use of the genre knowledge which had recently been acquired emerged in the midtest and mentioned in the posttest, too.

As a matter of fact, the findings with respect to the perceived future influence of completing the literary analysis essay assignments are in parallel with both the quantitative and

qualitative findings of the present study as presented in different sections. The expected influence of writing better and using the genre knowledge acquired in the in-class GBI, for instance, was confirmed in RQ1 of the present study, in which the participants' writing performance, as measured by a genre-based rubric, was confirmed to have developed throughout the intervention. Since the assessment instrument was a genre-based one, it can also be stated that the expectation of the participants to use the genre knowledge acquired within the context of the study was fulfilled as demonstrated in their consistently-increasing genre-based writing scores from the pretest to the posttest. Genre-based instruction is a consciousness-raising method of teaching writing (Hyland, 2004) which allows learners to learn textual features along with the processes involved in the act of writing (Deng, Chen & Zhang, 2014) through the analysis, deconstruction, synthesis and reconstruction of texts efficiently (Bruce, 2011). Also paving the way to have knowledge about tasks beforehand and resulting in the production of texts with higher quality (Kay & Dudley – Evans, 1998), the GBI intervention seems to have positively affected the participants in terms of writing quality through the use of the genre knowledge regarding the literary analysis essay, which was provided within the context of the study, and these developments appear to have been accurately perceived by the participants as understood by their responses to the reflection question on the perceived future influence of completing the assignments.

The findings regarding the perceived future influence of completing the tasks are also supportive of the increase in the writing fluency levels of the participants. As mentioned before, time as a mediating variable was not considered within the context of writing fluency in the present study due to the constant time pressure undergraduate students are subjected to (Banerjee, Yan, Chapman, & Elliott, 2015) and the source-based nature of the literary analysis essay which, by nature, does not allow for the free flow of writing in independent writing tasks since multiple sources constantly need to be considered and revisited to complete this type of

an essay. However, as seen in the participants' responses to the reflection questions, they expected completing their literary analysis essay assignments to influence their writing speed positively and they also perceived completing those assignments to have increased their writing speed. Even though the quantitative comparisons within the context of the present study did not take into account the time differential in the production of texts, they were still suggestive of an increase in writing fluency over time thanks to the intervention. Adding to this the qualitative reports of the participants which pointed at an increase in the rate of writing, too, it can be concluded that the amount of texts which the participants were able to produce in a given period of time may have increased along with the length of the t-units they produced, as confirmed in the quantitative findings of the present study. In sum, the perceived future influence of writing faster due to the completion of assignments actually appears to be confirmative of an increase in the writing speed of the participants, which support the increase in writing fluency as quantitatively revealed in the present study.

Having considered all the topics mentioned by the participants within the scope of the perceived future influence of producing the assigned texts, it can be concluded that the most frequent expectations seem to be related to performance and fluency in writing. When the relevant literature and the quantitative findings of the present study are taken into account, it can be stated that the participants were accurate in their perceptions of the future influence of producing the genre at hand since their expectations of writing better and more fluently were confirmed both in the present study and in other studies within the relevant literature. In general, the expectations of the participants with respect to the future influence of writing the texts does not seem to have changed throughout the intervention, but these expectations and other findings of the study appear to be parallel, confirming one another.

Positives of the GBI Intervention

The overall positives of the intervention were asked to a portion of the participants in the post-intervention interviews. The findings showed that an overwhelming majority of the interview participants reported a perceived increase in their level of genre awareness as a positive. Apart from this, receiving quality feedback, increased proficiency and proficiency awareness, increased coherence in writing and the genre knowledge's being transferable to other domains were reported among the negatives by some participants. Lastly, decreased writing anxiety, content learning, the absence of a score-focus and having sufficient time to complete the assignments were reported among the positives of the intervention by one interview participant each. In general, the topics mentioned by the interview participants among the positives of the intervention were seen to have been related to L2 writing skills, receiving feedback, perceived writing proficiency, the psychology of writing and learning the content surrounding the writing tasks.

The positives mentioned by the participants regarding the GBI intervention appear to be in line with other studies that sought for the learner perceptions regarding the genre-based teaching of writing. Such as Yaylı's (2011), Uzun's (2016) and Almacıoğlu and Okan's (2018) studies, in which the positives regarding GBI were reported to be showing progress in writing, being able to practice difference genres, having the opportunity to reflect as well as perceiving improvements in writing psychology, genre awareness, error awareness, coherence and quality and receiving feedback. As also reported in the present study, learners within the Turkish undergraduate context appear to perceive similar topics positively within the context of GBI such as increased genre awareness, improved writing quality and more positive L2 writing psychology.

Apart from the context-relevant literature, the responses to the structured reflection question throughout the intervention and the quantitative findings of the study confirm one

another with respect to the perceived positives by the interview participants. The responses to the reflection questions appear to indicate a change towards the positive among the participants regarding their perceived writing proficiency, genre awareness, writing fluency and psychology related to L2 writing. Furthermore, the quantitative findings point at increasing levels of genre-based writing performance, writing fluency, lexical density, writing attitude and writing self-efficacy along with a decreasing level of writing anxiety. When all these findings are taken into account, it can be said that the topics reported to have been perceived positively by the participants in the post-intervention interview are confirmed by the other sources of data within the study.

When the findings regarding the positively perceived topics by the interview participants are considered, it is seen that issues related to writing performance, writing proficiency, genre awareness and writing psychology were among the list of positively perceived topics. As a whole, the topics regarding the GBI intervention, which were positively perceived by the interview participants, seem to be in line with both the context-relevant literature and various sources of data within the scope of the present study. According to the stakeholders on the receiving end of the GBI, a Genre-Based Approach to writing appears to be beneficial in terms of performance, proficiency, awareness-related issues and psychology in L2 writing.

Negatives of the GBI Intervention

In the interviews, the participants were also asked to comment on the overall negatives of the GBI intervention. The findings indicated that the number of the mentions regarding negative issues was less than a half of the number of mentions of positively perceived topics. According to the qualitative findings, a few participants reported the content's being occasionally tedious and absence intolerant, the essay questions' being difficult and over-limited and the tasks' being time-consuming. Apart from these, an increase in the perceived

anxiety level due to the feedback received, rushing for submission in the last minute, skipping pre-class readings, receiving too few assignments and having limited time to complete the assignments were mentioned as the negative issues within the scope of the intervention by one interview participant each. In other words, the negatives of the intervention, which were reported much less frequently than the positives, concentrated on the content surrounding the writing tasks, essay questions, timing issues and the psychology of L2 writing.

The negatives reported by the interview participants of the present study appear to be different than the findings of other studies within the Turkish higher education context, which attempted to put forth the negatives of GBI as perceived by learners. For example, the participants of Yaylı's (2011) study focus on the prescriptive nature of GBI, needing teacher guidance and a feeling of delimitation due to the rhetorical conventions. Uzun's (2016) study also revealed a few issues negatively perceived by learners, which can be summarized as perceiving a non-unified treatment of the literary analysis essay, feeling one's self delimited due to the limitations set in the form of a rhetorical structure to be followed and experiencing difficulty in using transition words and phrases. Indeed, GBI has been criticized for being too prescriptive (Medway, 1994) and too delimiting (Kay & Dudley – Evans, 1998) together with placing the learners in a passive position where they only imitate samples to actualize learning (Badger & White, 2000). Nonetheless, the topics that were perceived negatively by the participants in the present study did not touch upon the prescriptive nature of GBI or the delimiting effect imposed by GBI. Instead, they were rather focused on the content surrounding the writing tasks, the level of the essay questions and the time differential in regards to the completion of the tasks.

The differences in the perceived negatives regarding GBI by the participants of the present study and those of Yaylı's (2011) and Uzun's (2016) can be attributed to contextual differences such as the course GBI was integrated in, the size of the sample, the length and

components of implementation. The major differences of the present study and Yaylı's (2011) study is the course GBI was integrated in and the sizes of the samples in both studies. Yaylı's (2011) study had a sample of 6 participants in a first-year advanced reading course while the present study had 78 participants receiving GBI integrated into a compulsory English Literature course. In this respect, the number of the participants who expressed their opinions on GBI may have caused a difference in the topics mentioned as the negatives of the implementation. Moreover, the fact that most negatives reported by the interview participants within the present study were related to the course content, essay questions, timing and secondary readings can be interpreted as the interaction of motivation to pass / avoid failing the English Literature course with the perceptions regarding the implementation of GBI. Even though the interview questions intended to reveal the perceptions of the participants with respect to the in-class GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback, the participants may have been affected by their concern for succeeding the course while responding to the questions. Veritably, Uzun (2016) findings regarding the negatives of the GBI are essentially different than the findings of the present study since the negatives reported in his study appear to be more focused on the in-class GBI while the negatives center around the content surrounding the GBI in the present study. This difference can be attributed to the varying lengths of intervention in both studies as Uzun's (2016) intervention lasted for 4 weeks while it was 12 weeks in the present study. The shorter duration of intervention in Uzun's (2016) may have made it easier for the participants to focus on the intervention only, while spending an entire semester with the intervention in the present study, combined with the aforementioned motivation to pass or avoid failing the English Literature course, may have resulted in identifying the intervention with the course itself, causing the focal points in the responses to be more related to the course than the specifics of the intervention. In sum, contextual differences such as the number of participants, the course GBI was integrated

in and the length of the intervention may have resulted in the differences in terms of the negatively perceived topics regarding GBI in three studies.

When the findings with respect to the negatively perceived topics regarding GBI are investigated, it can be seen that the negative issues as perceived by the interview participants centered around the content and questions of the essays along with timing and L2 writing psychology. Comparison of these findings with other studies reveals differences in that while the negatives reported by learners in other studies focus on the implementation of GBI, the negatives in the present study have a stronger content focus which can be attributed to differences in sampling, context and length of intervention. In brief, the participants of the present study seem to have occasionally perceived the course content and time constraints negatively and no visible problem with the in-class GBI and feedback components was experienced throughout the intervention.

Summary and Discussion of RQ8. *How is the process of GBI procedure perceived by the teacher?*

To answer RQ8, unstructured teacher diaries, written every week after the provision of feedback to each student from the pretest to the posttest, were used. For qualitative analyses, the entries which corresponded to the pretest (Diary Entry 1), the midtest (Diary Entry 5) and the posttest (Diary Entry 9) were utilized. Overall, the findings were suggestive of changes towards the positive in the perceptions of the teacher-researcher in regards to the intervention and the performance of the participants.

The positives in the first entry (pretest) as perceived by the teacher researcher were the seemingly high level of motivation among the participants and some participants' being competent enough to provide aid to their peers. On the other hand, most of the pretest essays' being only narrative accounts which did not have any analytical content was among the

negatives of the pretest week according to the teacher. On this matter, the teacher-researcher was seen to decide to provide detailed feedback to each student regarding every single rhetorical move to be performed in the Literary Analysis Essay.

In the fifth diary entry (midtest), it was seen that the issues perceived positively by the teacher-researcher were a high level of motivation among the participants like the first week and a visible increase in the level of adherence to the rhetorical conventions of the literary analysis essay, indicating some improvement on behalf of the participants that was visible to the teacher-researcher. However, there were still issues in the fifth entry that were perceived negatively by the teacher-researcher such as weak concluding sentences in main body paragraphs, irrelevant narration in supporting sentences and low performance demonstrated by a few transfer students as participants. Even so, there were no reports in the fifth entry by the teacher-researcher unlike the first week indicating that some of the texts were pure narrations, which can be interpreted as a sign of improvement in terms of adhering to the genre conventions of the literary analysis essay on behalf of the participants. The decision taken by the teacher-researcher as presented in the fifth entry was to provide continuous support with respect to the problematic areas identified in the midtest week.

In the ninth entry which corresponded to the posttest, the topics that were positively perceived by the teacher-researcher were seen to have been the submissions' being primarily satisfactory in content and structure together with a light improvement in the performance of the transfer students as participants. On the other hand, supporting sentences in main body paragraphs and the general performance of the transfer students as participants were seen to have been issues that were perceived negatively by the teacher-researcher in the last diary entry. Even though the intervention study was not to continue after that week, the teacher-researcher was observed to have decided to provide additional explanations on supporting sentences for

the entire group of participants and an increased amount of revision opportunities for the transfer students as participants in the following semesters.

Overall, the perceptions of the teacher-researcher with respect to the intervention showed an increasing pattern in terms of the genre knowledge of the participants as manifested in their performance levels and a decreasing amount of undesired narration in their essays. Moreover, the transfer students as participants of the study, who were observed by the teacher-researcher to develop at a slower pace than their peers, were also perceived to have made some progress, even though it was far from sufficient in the last week of the intervention. The negatively perceived topics were also seen to have shrunk from the global level (submissions of the wrong text type) to the local (weak supporting sentences) signifying the occurrence of learning the literary analysis essay as a genre on behalf of the participants in the eyes of the teacher-researcher. In sum, the diary entries of the teacher-researcher appeared to have demonstrated the observation of the participants' learning the genre in focus.

To the researcher's knowledge, the only study which made use of teacher perceptions in a GBI context is that of Almacıoğlu and Okan's (2018), whose findings are line with those of the present study. In their study, the teacher who gave the GBI to the participants was found to have perceived improvements among the participants in terms of self-awareness, genre awareness, writing competence and genre knowledge. Similarly, the findings of the present study which made use of the teacher-researcher's perceptions showed that the participants increased their writing performance, genre awareness and genre knowledge. In this respect, it can be said that two studies produced parallel findings regarding the effect of GBI on learners from the eyes of teachers.

The perceptions of the teacher-researcher with respect to the intervention throughout appears to signal learning on behalf of the participants in terms of genre awareness, genre knowledge and writing performance. Moreover, the size of the negativities seems to be getting

smaller across tests, beginning with global problems like submitting the wrong genre and ending with more local problems such as submitting literary analysis essay with weak supporting sentences, which also signals the perception of learning in the eyes of the teacher-researcher. Also corresponding to the relevant literature, the teacher-researcher appears to have perceived the intervention to have improved the participants in terms of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre and writing performance.

Conclusions of the Study

The present study aimed to reveal the effects of GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback on the level of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, L2 writing performance as manifested in writing fluency, lexical complexity and lexical density and L2 writing psychology as measured in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety. Secondarily, the study attempted to find out if Genre-Focused Feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging resulted in differences with respect to the constructs investigated in the primary aim of the study. Based on the findings and limited to the context of the study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback improve the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre.

- In-class components of GBI increase writing fluency.

- GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback have no effect on lexical complexity.

- GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback increase lexical density over time.

- GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback increase positive attitude towards writing.

- In-class components of GBI increase writing self-efficacy.

- GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback decrease writing anxiety.

- Genre-Focused Feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging makes no difference in the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre.

- Genre-Focused Feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging makes no difference in writing fluency, lexical density or lexical complexity.

- Genre-Focused Feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging makes no difference in writing attitude, writing self-efficacy or writing anxiety.

- GBI is perceived by the learners to result in improvements in terms of pretask planning, planning, reading secondary sources, generic essay writing skills, learning course content, genre knowledge, vocabulary learning, writing performance and writing fluency.

- Improvements in writing performance, writing proficiency level, genre awareness and writing psychology thanks to GBI are perceived positively by learners.

- Content surrounding the writing tasks along with their limitations and difficulty levels and time constraints within the context of GBI are perceived negatively by learners.

- Development in genre awareness, genre knowledge and writing performance thanks to GBI are also confirmed by the diary entries of the teacher-researcher.

The study indicated an overall improvement in the mastery of the literary analysis as a genre as a result of the GBI intervention. The increased levels of genre knowledge and content knowledge may have resulted in more informed rhetorical and lexicogrammatical choices, resulting in the gradually increasing scores taken by the participants as a part of the intervention. Apparently, the modelling, analysis, joint construction and independent construction stages of GBI, when combined with consistent feedback with particular focus on genre contributed to level of the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre among learners.

In terms of writing fluency, the presence of an improvement until the midtest was observed, however, there was no improvement after the midtest. For this reason, it was

concluded that the in-class GBI was the source of the effect on writing fluency where students improved their pretask planning skills, which improved their levels of writing fluency. The fact that the writing self-efficacy levels of the participants, which is known to be a predictor of writing fluency, also stabilized after the midtest also confirmed the initial increase and later stabilization of the construct due to the cessation of the in-class GBI after the midtest. In sum, the in-class GBI was concluded to have had an augmenting effect on the writing fluency levels of the participants while Genre-Focused Feedback by itself did not have an effect on the construct.

On lexical complexity, the findings indicate no change throughout the intervention even though the participants stated otherwise. The absence of lexis-oriented feedback and exam-oriented motivation during the intervention along with the presence of a dictionary whenever the learners needed were concluded to have resulted in the stability of lexical complexity among the participants throughout the intervention. As a result, GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback were concluded to have been ineffective in terms of improving lexical complexity among the participants.

Lexical density was seen to have increased only after the midtest in the findings of the study. The absence of a significant change in lexical density until the midtest and the presence of it after the midtest was interpreted as indicative of the time required to internalize and construct the recently acquired genre knowledge and to shift the traditional focus of writing to a genre-based one among the participants. In conclusion, lexical density levels of the participants were concluded have increased as a result of the intervention. Nevertheless, processing the recently acquired genre knowledge for use and a potentially slow increase in syntactic complexity, which should also be investigated, may have slowed down the mentioned increase.

GBI was also found to have increased writing attitude among the participants by increasing writing self-efficacy and decreasing writing anxiety along with its feedback component. In the light of the findings and relevant literature, it was concluded that the psychological improvements among the participants due to the in-class GBI and feedback resulted in increased levels of writing attitude among the participants.

Since the significant increase in writing self-efficacy was limited to the period until the midtest, it was concluded that the in-class GBI was more effective than Genre-Focused Feedback in terms of contributing to writing self-efficacy among the participants due to its components, such as peer support, teacher support and immediate feedback which may have positively affected the motivation and anxiety levels of the participants, resulting in the increased level of writing self-efficacy. In addition, the increased level of genre awareness among the participants may have improved their regulation of the writing processes, resulting in improved self-evaluation and increased scores, and eventually, writing self-efficacy. To sum up, the in-class GBI component of the intervention was found to have been more effective on writing self-efficacy than Genre-Focused Feedback due to the former's nature which includes more collaboration and opportunity to raise consciousness.

The intervention was also seen to have resulted in a decrease in writing anxiety in both measurements due to an increased level of writing self-efficacy and genre awareness, frequent practice opportunities and receiving feedback. By all accounts, both in-class GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback appeared to have contributed to the reduction of writing anxiety among the participants through collaboration, revision and discovery learning opportunities provided in the intervention.

Analyses showed that the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre for the duration of the intervention was not affected by the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging as both groups appeared to have perceived similar levels of improvement in their

genre awareness and content knowledge. The absence of a significant difference according to the type of feedback was concluded to have resulted from both types' having potential to extend the learners' ZPD due to their focused, metalinguistic and indirect components and the effect of the direct suggestions involved in the Hand-Holding type of feedback was outweighed by these components.

The findings indicated that the writing fluency levels of the participants in the pretest, midtest and posttest did not significantly differ according to the type of feedback received as both groups of participants reported motivation to use complex language, perceived improvement in language proficiency and receiving feedback. As the in-class GBI component of the intervention was previously concluded to have increased writing fluency within the context of the study, both groups were concluded to have benefitted from the instruction in terms of developing their monitoring skills and levels of lexicogrammatical awareness since they received the same in-class instruction regardless of their feedback group, resulting in the internalization and manifestation of genre knowledge equally in both groups.

In regards to lexical complexity, analyses indicated no difference across tests according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging. Considering that the overall intervention had no effect on lexical complexity among the participants, working on the same genre, receiving the same in-class instruction, having the same focus in feedback and making use of similar sources during the completion of assignments may have resulted in the absence of a significant difference between feedback groups.

Concerning lexical density, no difference over time was found with respect to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging since both groups equally reported to have experienced a perceived increase in the focus on meaning, motivation to use complex language and receiving feedback. Referring back to the finding that the intervention resulted in an increase in the overall level of lexical density only after the midtest to the posttest, it was

concluded that producing the same genre and having equal opportunities for revision along with the similar focused, metalinguistic and indirect features in both Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback overrode the difference in two types of feedback which was limited to the degree of explicitness.

The findings with respect to writing attitude indicated no difference according to the type of feedback due to the increase in writing self-efficacy, decrease in writing anxiety and receiving feedback as perceived by both groups. These positive changes in the psychological constructs regardless of the feedback group, therefore, were interpreted to have been the reason behind the absence of a significant difference in writing attitude according to the type of the feedback together with the reflective practice, included in the study for both feedback groups, and similar focal, metalinguistic and indirect points which were the features of both types of feedback.

With respect to writing self-efficacy, the findings revealed no difference over time between the Hand-Holding and Bridging groups due to both groups' realizing their own performance levels, perceiving an increased level of genre awareness and receiving feedback. In the conclusions of RQ3, it was seen that the improvement in writing self-efficacy among the participants regardless of their feedback groups was limited to the pretest-midtest period, which accounted the in-class GBI for the increase in the level of writing self-efficacy. Since both groups received in-class GBI without any structural or implementational difference, having equal opportunities to receive support from peers and the teacher-researcher may have been the basis of the absence of a significant difference in writing self-efficacy between two feedback groups. All in all, receiving the same instruction and undergoing the same psychological as well as performance-related changes may have resulted in the absence of a significant difference in writing self-efficacy according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging.

Regarding writing anxiety, the findings revealed no difference over time according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging due to an increased level of genre awareness and receiving feedback. When the other findings of the study, which indicated no difference in terms of writing attitude or writing performance, were considered, it was concluded that the participants in both feedback groups benefitted equally from the in-class GBI component of the intervention, which affected them indistinguishably in terms of alleviating writing anxiety through collaboration and awareness raising. Furthermore, the similarities in the focal, metalinguistic and indirect features of the Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback may have superseded the potential effects of the degree of explicitness, which is the major difference between two types of feedback. In sum, the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging was not found to have resulted in a significant difference in writing anxiety over time due to the participants' having been exposed to similar psychological and performance-related effects in the classroom instruction and while receiving the different types of feedback.

The findings of the structured reflections indicated changes in the perceived processes, positive issues, negative issues and future influence in the completion of each assignment while perceived learning items were subjected to only minor changes over time. Regarding the processes, it was seen that the intervention resulted in an increase in the number of participants getting involved in preplanning and planning while writing as well as in reading secondary sources as a result of identifying the knowledge transformation needs through the course of the intervention. In terms of the positively perceived issues during the text production, improving essay writing skills remained as the most frequently mentioned topic in all three tests, however, learning the content surrounding the literary analysis essays together with writing faster started to be mentioned more recurrently over time. When the negatively perceived issues during text production were analyzed, it was seen that finding the task challenging was in the first place in

all three tests. Nonetheless, it was also seen that perceiving the tasks as time-consuming decreased over time while perceiving no negative issues increased in frequency. Most frequently mentioned perceived learning items remained the same throughout the intervention, being the content, production of the genre and new vocabulary in all three tests. The perceived future influence of writing the essays was also subject to changes, having using the recently acquired genre knowledge as an emerging topic in the midtest and writing better and faster increasing in frequency over time. The findings acquired through the analysis of the responses to the structured reflections signaled perceived improvement in writing performance, genre knowledge, writing psychology and writing fluency on behalf of the participants.

The interview findings regarding the positively perceived issues showed that the participants perceived the improvements in their levels of writing performance, writing proficiency, genre awareness and writing psychology positively. On the other hand, issues related to the content surrounding the writing tasks, the limitations and difficulty of the essay questions along with the limitations in time were perceived negatively by the participants. In essence, the participants were found to have perceived the improvements in certain performance-related or psychological constructs positively, while the negatively perceived issues seemed to have centered around the literary content, essay questions and timing issues.

The findings obtained from the teacher-researcher's diary entries showed that the teacher-researcher perceived the participants to have been improving in terms of genre awareness, genre knowledge and writing performance. Moreover, the problems in the texts produced by the participants reduced from the global to the local level in the eyes of the teacher. However, the insufficient performance demonstrated by the transfer students as perceived by the teacher-researcher remained stable throughout the intervention despite a little improvement.

Having considered the conclusions reached in each research question, it appears to be a plausible general conclusion that GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback have enhancing effects on

the mastery of the literary analysis essay as a genre, L2 writing performance and the psychology of L2 writing. On the other hand, providing feedback as Hand-Holding or Bridging does not seem to boost or impair those enhancing effects imposed by GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback. Improving learners in terms of genre knowledge, writing fluency, lexical density, writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety according to the findings of the present study, GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback appear to be an applicable solution for the teaching of writing, which can be integrated into virtually any course due to the socially-embedded nature of the Genre Approach.

Implications

The present study revealed that GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback were efficient in terms of improving learners in regards to Genre Knowledge, Writing Fluency, Lexical Density, Writing Attitude, Writing Self-Efficacy, Writing Anxiety and that the degree of explicitness in written corrective feedback did not result in elevated or reduced amounts of learning when the learners were directed towards which part of the text needs to be revised, why that particular part needs to be revised and how it can be revised. Based on the findings of the study, implications with respect to the lacking components in the prior learning experience of the participants, the applicability of GBI in content-based courses and teachers' workload in writing-heavy courses for program developers as well as the strengths and weaknesses of GBI and positive psychology in L2 writing contexts for teachers can be drawn.

Implications for Program Developers

In the pretests, the participants of the study were seen to have been lacking satisfactory levels of fluency in writing, rhetorical knowledge regarding academic essays and process knowledge concerning the act of writing, which may be signaling deficiencies in the content and/or practice of the compulsory Advanced Reading and Writing course taken in the 1st year of ELT studies and the Writing Skills course in the Prep School. Taking into account the fact

that GBI combined with Genre-Focused Feedback within the context of the study was found to be an efficient means of developing fluency and rhetorical awareness as well as having potential to improve preplanning and planning processes, adopting the Genre Approach in those compulsory courses may prove useful especially when their lengths, which are twice the length of the intervention in this study, are considered. In addition, considering that most of the writing in the undergraduate ELT context is expository, argumentative or argumentative-expository, focusing especially on these genres may contribute to the academic success of the learners as intended in the mentioned courses. Briefly, the possible knowledge gaps among learners with respect to the commonly used genres in the academic writing context can be prevented by placing a genre-based focus on those genres in the compulsory writing courses taken in the first few years of studies.

Another implication that can be drawn from the study is the easy applicability of GBI in content-based courses, such as a compulsory English Literature course which was the context of the present study. Since genres cannot be stripped off of their social context and the implementation of GBI in content-based courses can be interpreted from a CLIL perspective, integrating Genre-Focused Feedback into the feedback provided for written student assignments, which are already there in a given content-based course, do not seem to pose any additional difficulties for teachers. As for the in-class GBI aiming at modelling the genre, the analysis of sample texts by learners, joint construction and independent construction, allocating a few hours of class time as in the present study appears to be sufficient. Due to the fact that most of the writing in the academic context in source-based, adopting a Genre Approach in content courses can serve not only the language-learning but also the content-learning needs of the participants by helping them make use of various sources and synthesizing them into their texts, allowing for improved thinking, organization and evaluation skills and eventually leading to enhancements in learning. In sum, GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback as implemented in the

present study appears to bear potential to be integrated into any content-based course to improve learning.

Regarding teachers' workload, the absence of significant differences in genre knowledge, writing performance and writing psychology according to the type of feedback received as Hand-Holding or Bridging may indicate certain positives. Taking into account that the primary difference between two types of feedback is the degree of explicitness, it can be inferred that teachers do not need to take the time to provide explicit suggestions for each and every revisable part of learner script as it does not make any difference in terms of sustaining learning. When the arduousness of trying and finding phrases and/or sentences that would fit each of the revisable parts for each essay of each learner is considered, being exempt from having to provide those explicit suggestions to prolong learning may save a large amount of time on behalf of teachers, reducing their workload to some extent. In short, as long as the provider of the feedback identifies the problematic part, rationalizes why that particular part is problematic and briefly explains how it can be improved, explicit suggestions for correction or revision does not make any difference, therefore, they can be eliminated to reduce workload.

Implications for Teachers

The strengths and weaknesses of GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback are also visible in the findings of the study which indicate that GBI contributes to genre knowledge, L2 writing performance and L2 writing psychology but does not result in any change in lexical complexity. Even though the gains in utilizing GBI in learning contexts are substantial, lexical complexity, which is among the components of the development of L2 writing skills, seems to need further intervention to be improved. For this reason, the Genre-Focused Feedback provided during the present study can be expanded to include a fraction of lexis-oriented feedback, which may provide learners the scaffolding required to develop in terms of lexical complexity. Considering that the Hand-Holding and Bridging types of feedback provided in this study are quite flexible

in nature, lexis-oriented feedback can be provided to the learners in a similar way that includes which word should be replaced with a higher-level word, why it needs to be replaced and where replacement options can be found. This way, the aforementioned substantial gains in implementing GBI can be preserved while scaffolding learners into higher levels of lexical complexity.

A final implication that can be drawn from the findings of the study, which is even more vital to sustainable learning, is that GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback promote positive psychology as seen in the increasing levels of writing attitude and writing self-efficacy and the decreasing level of writing anxiety among the participants. From a Broaden-and-Build perspective as suggested by Conway, Tugade and Fredrickson (2013), positive feelings promote learning by igniting the creative thinking skills of learners, resulting in enhanced learning as opposed to anxiety-provoking environments which lead to fight or flight responses. As an L2 writing instructor would not desire learners to fight or flee writing tasks, promoting positive psychology in the writing class becomes crucial for maintaining learning. Consequently, a Genre-Based Approach to the teaching of writing as in the present study can help learners develop positive feelings in and towards writing classes.

Taking all the implications drawn from the findings of the present study into account, it seems possible to state that GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback can be utilized in order to prepare learners for further academic learning, foster lexical development with the addition of lexis-oriented feedback, promote positive psychology to sustain learning, reduce teachers' workload and enhance learning in content-based courses. The adoption of the Genre Approach to the teaching of writing appears to bear potential that would be beneficial for learners, teachers and learning. For this reason, GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback can be integrated into any given course with ease to improve the learning context.

Suggestions for Further Research

In the previous section, the implications based on the findings of the study were centered around the implementation of GBI earlier than the 2nd year of studies as in the present study, the addition of lexis-oriented feedback for complementary purposes, implementing GBI as a means of promoting positive psychology, providing Bridging type of feedback to reduce workload and the implementation of GBI in any given content-based course. Within themselves, these implications bear suggestions for further research with respect to their potential effectiveness.

As mentioned above, the intervention study was carried out in the 2nd year of the participants' studies and it produced highly satisfactory results regarding their learning. Also considering that writing performance is a construct related to academic success, whether the implementation of GBI earlier than the 2nd year of studies carries learners higher up in terms of academic success should be investigated to reach practical conclusions regarding GBI and its potential effects on academic success.

In the findings, it was seen that the lexical complexity levels of the participants were not affected in any way by the intervention. For this reason, whether or not adding a lexis-oriented component to the Bridging type of feedback improves lexical complexity should be investigated. An experimental design in which the experimental group receives Genre-Focused Bridging + Lexis-Oriented Feedback and the control group receives Genre-Focused Bridging type of feedback only may lead to useful insights with respect to the matter.

One of the conclusions of the study was that GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback promoted positive psychology, however, the conclusion was inferably reached based on the increasing levels of writing attitude and writing self-efficacy along with the decreasing level of writing anxiety among the participants. For this reason, foreign language enjoyment as a construct that might serve as a more direct indicator of positive psychology can be investigated

in respect of how it interacts with GBI and Genre-Focused Feedback in foreign language contexts.

An argument developed in this study was that Bridging as a type of feedback could serve as a means of reducing the workload of teachers as it did not have an explicit suggestion component unlike Hand-Holding. Adding to this the currently ongoing debate on whether learners or teachers should be giving feedback for better learning, the provision of Genre-Focused Feedback can be compared in conditions where learners and teachers provide it. This may not only contribute to the feedback literature but also provide an efficient means of reducing the workload of teachers regarding giving feedback for the assignments of learners.

Since the intervention was integrated into a compulsory English Literature course in the present study, it was suggested that the same approach could be adopted in other content-based courses as well. This suggestion can be empirically tested in various content-based courses to see if adopting a Genre Approach to the written assignments of other courses provides benefits for learners.

Utilizing experimental or quasi-experimental designs, earlier implementation of GBI, possible ways to improve Lexical Complexity through GBI, potential effect of GBI on enjoyment, the efficiency of Genre-Focused Feedback when given by learners and the potential of GBI in terms of fostering learning in different content-based courses can be investigated in the search of plausible outcomes for learning contexts. Such an endeavor may not only contribute to the scientific literature but also teaching practices by producing knowledge of practical use.

Chapter Summary

This chapter consisted of the discussion, conclusion, implications and suggestions sections. In the discussion subsection, the findings were explained and elaborated on in the light

of the relevant literature. In relation to the discussed issues, conclusions were drawn and those conclusions were used to come up with practical implications for education and educational research contexts. Finally, suggestions for further research were made in order to address the gaps in the study and the research potential of the implications.

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APPENDIX A Genre-Based Literary Analysis Essay Scoring Rubric

PART I. THESIS (Introduction)

	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-15
Background Information (name, author, period and significance of the literary work)	Inaccurate and incomplete information in a single sentence. No contribution to paragraph development. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary, linking&transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no background information is present.	Largely incomplete or inaccurate information. Presented in a single sentence. Hardly contributes to paragraph development. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Fairly complete and accurate information mainly in separate sentences which fairly contribute paragraph development. Occasional incoherent points. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Largely complete and accurate information in separate sentences which somewhat contribute to paragraph development. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Complete and accurate information in separate sentences which contribute to paragraph development. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.

	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-15
Thesis Statement	Does not suggest the direction of the essay. Lacks points to develop arguments from and connection with the rest of the essay. Neither answers the essay question nor grabs reader's attention by providing a summary of the main idea. Either too general or too specific. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary, linking & transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no thesis statement is present.	Only slightly suggests the direction of the essay. Largely lacks points to develop arguments from and connection with the rest of the essay. Only marginally answers the essay question and grabs the attention of the reader by providing an incomplete summary of the main idea. Largely general or specific. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Fairly suggests the direction of the essay. May partially lack points to develop arguments from or connection with the rest of the essay. Answers the essay question with moderate relevance and sufficiency. Slightly too general or too specific. Grabs reader's attention in part by providing a partially complete summary of the main idea. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Largely suggests the direction of the essay with a few points to develop arguments from. Generally connected to the rest of the essay. Answers the essay question mostly relevantly and sufficiently. Mainly not too general or too specific. Somewhat grabs reader's attention by providing a largely complete summary of the main idea. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Clearly suggests the direction of the essay with a few points to develop arguments from. Connected to the rest of the essay. Answers the essay question relevantly and sufficiently. Neither too general nor too specific. Grabs reader's attention by summarizing the main idea. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.

PART II. ARGUMENT (Main Body)

	0-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10
Presenting Arguments	None of the arguments serve to answer the essay question or use the points mentioned in the thesis statement, failing to signal initial outlining. Arguments are presented in the same paragraph in an over-general way. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary linking&transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no argument is presented.	Arguments only slightly serve to answer the essay question, are largely general and seldom use the points mentioned in the thesis statement, mostly failing to signal initial outlining. Most arguments are not properly organized into paragraphs. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Arguments fairly serve to answer the essay question and moderately use the points mentioned in the thesis statement, partially signalling initial outlining. Some of the arguments may not be organized into separate paragraphs. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Arguments largely serve to answer the essay question and mainly use the points mentioned in the thesis statement, signalling initial outlining. Most arguments are organized into separate paragraphs. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Arguments serve to answer the essay question and use the points mentioned in the thesis statement, signalling initial outlining. Each argument is organized into a separate paragraph. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.

	0-4	5-8	9-12	13-16	17-20
Supporting Arguments	Supporting sentences do not justify a related argument, presenting only a single perspective through examples which add new ideas or subjective thoughts to the paragraph. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary, linking&transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no supporting sentence is present.	Supporting sentences only slightly justify their related arguments. Only a single perspective is presented through examples. May add new ideas or subjective thoughts to the paragraph. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Supporting sentences fairly justify their related arguments and partially present multiple perspectives through examples. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Supporting sentences largely justify their related arguments and generally present multiple perspectives through examples. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Supporting sentences justify their related arguments and present multiple perspectives through examples. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.
	0-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10
Concluding Arguments	Concluding sentences do not sum up, conclude or close their related arguments relevantly, being exact repetitions of the arguments or adding new ideas or subjective thoughts. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary linking&transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no concluding sentence is present.	Concluding sentences largely fail to sum up, conclude or close their related arguments relevantly. May be too similar to the arguments or add new ideas or subjective thoughts. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Concluding sentences sum up, conclude or close their related arguments fairly relevantly, avoiding the exact repetition of the argument or adding new ideas or subjective thoughts. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Concluding sentences largely sum up, conclude and close their related arguments generally relevantly, avoiding the exact repetition of the argument. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Concluding sentences sum up, conclude and close their related arguments relevantly, avoiding the exact repetition of the argument. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.

PART III. CONCLUSION

	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-15
Consolidation	Exact repetition of the thesis statement or a new idea is presented. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary linking&transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no consolidation is present.	Too similar to the thesis statement or largely wanders off the main idea by adding new ideas or subjective thoughts. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Provides a fairly relevant summary of the main idea, generally rephrasing the thesis and only slightly wandering off of it. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Provides a brief and generally complete summary of the main idea by rephrasing the thesis statement. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Provides a brief and complete summary of the main idea by rephrasing the thesis statement. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.
	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-15
Stating Opinions	Fails to give a sense of closing the essay. Has no relationship with the main idea, failing to help the reader reconsider it. Leaves the essay incomplete or unfinished. Confusing, obscure and informal style. Very weak use of vocabulary linking&transition words and recurrent errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation OR no opinion is stated.	Largely fails to give a sense of closing the essay. Only slightly related to the main idea, largely failing to help the reader reconsider it. Leaves the essay generally incomplete or unfinished. Predominantly confusing, obscure and informal style. Mostly weak and erronous use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words, spelling and punctuation.	Gives a fair sense of closing the essay through personal opinion, suggestion, recommentation or prediction, somewhat helping the reader reconsider the main idea. Moderately clear, brief and formal style. Moderate accuracy and appropriacy in the use of vocabulary, grammar, linking & transition words spelling and punctuation.	Gives a general sense of closing the essay through personal opinion, suggestion, recommendation or prediction, mostly helping the reader reconsider the main idea. Mainly clear, brief and formal style. Mostly appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with several errors.	Gives a clear sense of closing the essay through personal opinion, suggestion, recommendation or prediction, helping the reader reconsider the main idea. Clear, brief and formal style. Appropriate use of advanced vocabulary, grammar, linking&transition words, spelling and punctuation with almost no errors.

APPENDIX B Learner Profile and Writing Psychology Scales

Learner Profile and Writing Psychology Scales

Dear student,

The following form and scales aim to collect data regarding student profiles and writing psychology with respect to writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety as a part of the doctoral thesis study entitled "Genre-Based Instruction And Genre-Focused Feedback: A Multiperspective Study On Writing Performance And The Psychology Of Writing".

Throughout the semester, you will be required to fill in this form 3 times, in the beginning, middle and end of the semester to keep track of your attitudes and emotions regarding the process of writing in English. Thanks to this data, you will receive individualized feedback about your progress at the end of the semester.

The data collected will be used for tracking your progress throughout the English Literature I course and also as the data set of the research study mentioned above. However, your personal information WILL NEVER BE shared with third parties.

Thank you for your time and participation,
Inst. Kutay UZUN

* Required

1. *
   Check all that apply.

   ☐ I confirm that I have understood the statement above and I participate in the study voluntarily.

Learner Profile

2. **Full Name**

   _____

3. **Section (Şube)**
   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ A
   ◯ B
   ◯ C

4. **Working E-mail Address**

   _____

5. **Age**

   _____

6. **Gender**
   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ Female
   ◯ Male
   ◯ Other: _____

7. **Preferred Hand in Writing**
Mark only one oval.

- ( ) Left
- ( ) Right
- ( ) Both hands

8. **What do you think your language proficiency level is? (C2 is the highest)**
Mark only one oval.

- ( ) A1
- ( ) A2
- ( ) B1
- ( ) B2
- ( ) C1
- ( ) C2

9. **How long have you been learning English?**
   (Please state years and months)

   _____

10. **Current Grade Point Average (GPA)**

    _____

11. **Did you take "the prep year" in your first year at this university?**
Mark only one oval.

- ( ) Yes
- ( ) No

Writing Attitude Scale

12. **1. I am not interested in writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

13. **2. I feel relaxed while writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

14. **3. I can express myself well through writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

15. **4. I write in my spare time.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

16. **5. I like writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

17. **6. I am afraid of writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

18. **7. I feel unhappy while writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

19. **8. Writing is a boring activity.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

20. **9. I do not write if it is not obligatory.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Completely agree

21. **10. I like participating in writing activities.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

22. **11. I could not write well despite my attempts.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

23. **12. Writing is joyful for me.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

24. **13. I like writing different genres.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

25. **14. It is joyful for me to write.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

26. **15. It is interesting for me to write.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

27. **16. I have difficulty in writing.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Completely agree

Writing Self-Efficacy Scale

28. **1. I can use punctuation correctly.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

29. **2. I can use nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives in the right position in the right way.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

30. **3. I can locate and use suitable sources of information for my topic.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

31. **4. I can think of ideas easily when given a topic to write about.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

32. **5. I can write unified paragraphs.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

33. **6. I can write grammatically correct sentences in my compositions.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

34. **7. I can easily match style with topic. (E.g. If I am asked to write an essay, I can use the appropriate conventions to write a good piece of essay. When asked to write a story, I can write according to the conventions story writing.)**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

35. **8. I can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

36. **9. I can use appropriate style to the task.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

37. **10. I can rapidly start writing on a given topic.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

38. **11. I can write coherent compositions.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

39. **12. I can easily start writing on a given topic.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
I cannot do it at all.	◯	◯	◯	◯	I can do it very well.

Writing Anxiety Scale

40. **1. I'm afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample to be discussed in class.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

41. **2. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

42. **3. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

43. **4. Unless I have no choice, I would not use English to write composition.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

44. **5. I often feel panic when I write English compositions under time constraint.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

45. **6. I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

46. **7. I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

47. **8. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

48. **9. I don't worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

49. **10. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

50. **11. I'm afraid that other students would deride my English composition if they read it.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

51. **12. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

APPENDIX C Face-to-Face Interview Consent Form

Dear participant,

The face-to-face interview you are about to participate in aims to collect data for a part of the doctoral thesis study entitled "Genre-Based Instruction and Genre-Focused Feedback: A Multiperspective Study on Writing Performance and the Psychology of Writing". For this reason:

1. The interview will be recorded and transcribed.

2. The transcription will be analysed for research purposes.

3. The findings will be presented in the doctoral thesis mentioned above.

4. Quotations may be presented verbatim on condition that they are anonymized.

Signing this paper certifies that you agree with the conditions given above and participate in the interview component of the thesis study voluntarily. Your personal information will never be shared with third parties.

Thank you for your time and participation,

Researcher: Inst. Kutay UZUN

Participant's Name:

Participant's Signature:

APPENDIX D Post-Intervention Interview Protocol

Age:
Gender: M / F
Feedback group: Handholding / Bridging

A. Background Questions
1. What type of a high school did you attend?
2. Did you take the prep year at this or another university?
B. Transition Questions
1. How many writing courses did you take until your second year at the university, including high school?
2. Do you think they helped you improve your English writing skills? If yes, in what ways?
C. Key Questions
   a. Intervention
      1. How would you describe your experience in the writing module within the English Literature course throughout the semester?
         • Positives
         • Negatives
   b. Literary analysis essay writing performance
      1. Do you think the writing module affected your overall Literary Analysis Essay writing performance?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on your performance?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect your performance?
   c. Writing psychology
      1. Do you think the writing module affected your thoughts and feelings towards writing in English?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on your thoughts and feelings towards writing in English?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect your thoughts and feelings towards writing in English?
      2. Do you think the writing module affected your beliefs in your capability to write in English?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on your beliefs in your capability to write in English?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect your beliefs in your capability?
      3. Do you think the writing module affected the level of worry or unease you may be experiencing while writing in English?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on your level of worry or unease while writing in English?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect your level of worry or unease?
   d. Linguistic Measures
      1. Do you think the writing module affected the level of the words that you use in your English texts?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on the level of the words in your texts?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect the level of the words in your texts?
      2. Do you think the writing module affected your use of meaningful words (nouns, adjectives...) compared to grammatical words (prepositions, auxiliary verbs...)?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on your use of meaningful words compared to grammatical words?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect your use of meaningful words compared to grammatical words?
      3. Do you think the writing module affected the length of sentences that you produce?
         • YES → How would you explain its effect on the length of your sentences?
         • NO → Why do you think it did not affect the length of your sentences?
D. Closing Questions
      1. Is there any other point you'd like to make regarding the writing module in which you participated, which we have not had the chance to discuss?

APPENDIX E Structured Reflection Questions

1. Describe the processes you've been through while writing/revising this essay.

2. What were the positives and negatives of writing/revising this essay?

3. What have you learned from writing/revising this essay?

4. Do you think what you have learned from writing/revising this essay will influence the next essay that you write? If yes, how? If not, why not?

APPENDIX F Feedback Sample (Bridging)

Prioress In Conterbury Tales

The most important work of Chaucer in the 1390s was The Canterbury Tales ("Canterbury Stories"). Chaucer designed this verse from a total of 120 stories that would tell each other about 30 volumes from London to see St. Thomas Becket's tomb in Canterbury to have a good time on the road. This work that Chaucer has created with a realism, humor and tolerance that transcends the age is both entertaining and educational. Prioress satirized and handled in two direction in his novel.

One of two direction is prioress is a coy and falsely moderate. Actually they must be conservative. Because we expect that they be like this. Prioress do not married never because they are against to sexuality. But this novel handled in that prioress is a attractive. Prioress even has a jewellery with Amor vincit omnia that is mean she may have a romantic love, not God's.

The other direction is fed dogs roasted flesh and fine food while people starving. In this story, prioress generally addict to their religion. So, while people starving , we supposed to them that they help to people for their starvation. But she loves fed the dogs except poor people.

Consequently, we can say that the prioress's behaviour does not suitable in this story. Maybe the writer wanted to handled in satirizely and mordaciously.

Final remarks

Commented [a1]: Hi ▇▇▇ Hope you're fine. Here's this week's feedback. In this one, I'd like you to focus on giving explicit references to the essay question in the presentation of your arguments and ending paragraphs with concluding sentences. Please read along.

Commented [a2]: Nice presentation of background. However, please make sure you include the name, author, type, period, significance and plot of the work in this part to give a clearer picture.

Moreover, you need a thesis statement here which is a direct answer to the essay question. Your thesis statement should include a few clear points to develop arguments from in the main body.

Commented [a3]: That's a good argument presentation. Just make sure that you make an explicit reference to the fact that this a point used by the author to criticize the character.

Commented [a4]: Nice support for your argument. But please avoid using pronouns like "I" or "we" and vague expressions like "like this" and use adjectives and nouns instead. This will give your text a more academic look.

Moreover, you should end every main body sentence with a concluding sentence which sums up and closes your paragraph, focusing on the essay question again. This will give your paragraph a more organized look.

Commented [a5]: Please refer to the criticism aspect as I explained in your previous paragraph.

Commented [a6]: Again nice support. But you need a concluding sentence as explained above.

Commented [a7]: This is a good presentation of your personal opinion, however, firstly you need to restate your thesis to consolidate your main idea and wrap the main body within the main idea. Then you can continue with your opinions.

Commented [a8]: As you see, we need to refer to the essay question at all costs to make sure we stay on topic and also end our paragraphs with paragraph-level conclusions. Good luck. 😊

APPENDIX G Feedback Sample (Hand-Holding)

Madness in Hamlet

Hamlet is a tragedy which was written in the early seventeeth century by William Shakespear. Shakespeare's language is Early Modern English and the uniqueness of the psychological complexity make it more important other tragedies. Two typical madness' were used in this tragedy. The first madness is Hamlet's unreal madness and second is Ophelia's real madness.

Firstly, His intelligent questions and his intelligent plans show us he is not a mad. Hamlet suffers from depression because as soon as his father died his mother married to his uncle. Actually he is not a real mad but his depressional behaviours look like madness symptom. Thinking Both his father's death and his mother's marriage make him hysteric.His uncle becomes king so Hamlet is full of hatred to his uncle. Hamlet makes plan to kill him and he acts like a mad because he hides his treacherous plans.

Secondly, If someone has not got normal psychology,some events can be factor for madness. The author does not mention about much behaviors of ophelia's but when Ophelia learns her father's death,she jumps in the river and dies.So this situation shows her mental balance is not normal.Normal people suffer, do not commit suicide.

To sum up, I think that psychological problems can turn into chaos like both Hamlet's and Ophelia behaviours. Hamlet moves away from his life because of depression but Ophelia's mental balance is not normal.If hamlet was a mad,he would kill himself like Ophelia.

Final Remark

Commented [Y1]: Hi ▓▓▓ Hope you're fine. In this feedback, please focus on the essay question above everything else and make your revision keeping nothing but the essay question mind. Please read along for details.

Commented [Y2]: Very nice introduction. Just make sure you include the name of the period, Renaissance, somewhere in this part.

Commented [Y3]: Sufficient thesis statement. However, please increase the fluency of this part by combining these sentences and producing a single sentence instead of two.

Commented [Y4]: Nice argument, however, please make sure your argument answers the question. The question is "how Shakespeare uses madness", so you need an answer, which is taken from your thesis statement, such as "Firstly, Shakespeare makes use of fake madness to reveal the truth about Hamlet's father's murder". This way, your argument will be directly connected to the essay topic.

Commented [Y5]: Nice support, but the paragraph lacks a concluding sentence. Please try something like "These events confirm that Shakespeare wanted to reveal the truth through the use of madness" to make sure you close your argument (not the events) properly.

Commented [Y6]: "The second way through which Shakespeare uses madness is by presenting it as 'genuine madness' to make the audience experience the consequences of death." – to connect it to the essay topic directly.

Commented [Y7]: Nice support, maybe you can add a few more words to thoroughly describe her feelings here.

Commented [Y8]: Nice try for a concluding sentence. However, you need to conclude an argument directly related to the essay topic. So once you revise the argument for this paragraph, you'll need something like "In short, Shakespeare uses death also to show the audience the devastating effects of death".

Commented [Y9]: You need to paraphrase your thesis satement and write it here so that you wrap the main body inside the main idea. Therefore, you need to stay on focus in terms of the essay question as you need to do it for your thesis statement, too.

Commented [Y10]: Nice statement of opinion, no problem here.

Commented [Y11]: As you see, our aim in writing this essay is to answer a question, therefore, our thesis, arguments and consolidation needs to be in direct relationship with the essay question. Good luck. ☺

APPENDIX H Institutional Permisson to Use Course Content for Research Purposes

T.C.
TRAKYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı

Sayı : 14108762-199   -E.279934   21/11/2018
Konu : Eğitim-Öğretimle İlgili Diğer İşler

YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜM BAŞKANLIĞINA

İlgi   : 20/11/2018 tarihli ve 279446 sayılı yazı,

　　　Bölümünüz İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında "İngiliz Edebiyatı I" dersini veren Öğr. Gör. Kutay UZUN'un, 2017-2018 akademik yılı Güz dönemi boyunca öğrencilerine vermiş olduğu dersle ilgili ödevleri, doktora tez çalışmasında kullanması Dekanlığımızca uygun görülmüştür.
　　　Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Sevinç SAKARYA MADEN
Dekan

APPENDIX I English Literature I (ING 301)– Syllabus

1. Aim of the Course

The aim of the course is to have general knowledge on the cultural and political history of Britain as well as the literary works written in English, literary terms, major genres and styles in literature, movements and periods in literature, the content and style of various literary texts such as poem and representing different periods and genres of English literature.

The secondary aim of the course is to teach the students how to write a short literary analysis essay (LAE) in the argumentative / expository style enabling them to analyse themes or characters in literary texts with respect to the periods in which they were written.

2. Assessment

1. Mid-term Exam: 30%
2. Final Exam: 70%
3. Written assignments and their revised versions: 20% of both mid-term and final exams.

Apart from the mid-term and final exams, each student will be assigned to write **5 short literary analysis essays** during the semester. Upon submission, each student will receive feedback which suits the student's individual writing needs. A student who has received his/her feedback must then **revise** the essay and **resubmit** in accordance with the feedback within **one week**.

The first three essays (including the revised versions) constitute **20% of the mid-term exam** and the last two essays (including the revised versions) constitute **20% of the final exam**.

The submissions will be collected through "**turnitin**", which is a web-based plagiarism checking sofware.

3. Attendance

By the regulations in effect in Trakya University, 80% attendance is compulsory. More than 20% absence in one semester results in DZ.

4. Course Material

a. Lecture slides (can be downloaded on http://personel.trakya.edu.tr/kutayuzun/)
b. Original texts
c. Literary web sites such as Spark Notes, Grade Saver, Cliff's Notes...
d. Additional resources such as articles, chapters, books...

COURSE CONTENT

Week	Content	Content 2	Turnitin Assignment
1	Introduction		
2	Old English Period and Beowulf (n. d.)	The concept of Genre and Rhetorical Moves	Essay 1
3	Middle English Period	Introduction in LAE	Revised Essay 1
4	The Canterbury Tales – Geoffrey Chaucer	Main Body in LAE	Essay 2
5	Renaissance Period	Conclusion in LAE	Revised Essay 2
6	Hamlet - Shakespeare		Essay 3
7	MIDTERMS		
8	MIDTERMS		
9	Jacobean Period		Revised Essay 3
10	Volpone – Ben Johnson		Essay 4
11	Restoration Period		Revised Essay 4
12	The Country Wife – William Wycherley		Essay 5
13	Summary and Revision of Periods		Revised Essay 5
14	One-to-one Feedback Sessions		

5. Student Reflections on Essays

At the end of each essay, every student is required to briefly answer the following questions to reflect on his or her learning:

1. Describe the processes you've been through while writing/revising this essay.

2. What were the positives and negatives of writing/revising this essay?

3. What have you learned from writing/revising this essay?

4. Do you think what you have learned from writing/revising this essay will influence the next essay that you write? If yes, how? If not, why not?

6. Tracking Student Progress

Each student's progress will be recorded and tracked by the teacher throughout the semester. An individual progress record includes the essay portfolio (5x2 essays with the revised versions) for each student as well as the student's level of writing attitude, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety. Attitude, self-efficacy and anxiety will be measured in the beginning, the middle and at the end of the semester to see if any change occurs. Essay porfolios will include reflective comments of the students about their learning progress.