

A Developmental Perspective on Academic Writing Instruction for Japanese EFL Students*

Taeko Kamimura

Senshu University, Japan

Kyoko Oi

Chiba University, Japan

Several past studies have pointed out that Japanese EFL students are not skilled in producing argumentative essays in English, a mode of discourse most often required in academic contexts. The present paper reports on a study conducted to explore the effects of a-year-long writing instruction method that was designed to facilitate Japanese college EFL students in making a successful transition from the “knowledge-telling” model to the “knowledge-transforming” model of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). It was found that the instruction method led the students to produce essays with both macro- and micro-level rhetorical and linguistic features that are considered to be characteristic of formal academic discourse. Specifically, after given the instruction, the students produced essays of better quality with clearer organization, logical consistency, and objective support. They also used more enumerators and logical connectors, and employed, as grammatical subjects, more third-person pronouns and inanimate nouns. It was also found that at least a year is required to ensure such improvements in the students’ academic writing. The paper exhibits a sample analysis of students’ actual essays and also provides examples of teaching materials used.

* An earlier version of this paper was presented at BAAL 2003 held in Reeds, September 5, 2003. The study was aided by a research grant for the 2005 academic year from Senshu University.

In the teaching of writing to college students who are studying English as a second or foreign language (ESL or EFL), concerns are increasingly being expressed about the need to teach academic writing (e.g., Hinkel, 2002; Horowitz, 1986; Johns, 1997; Shaw & Liu, 1998). The concerns arise because those students are studying writing primarily in their preparation for their academic work, such as writing a term paper or a research paper in their specialized field, or for publication in professional journals. As a recent trend, the importance of writing skills has been increasingly recognized across the disciplines, as the writing-across-the-curriculum (WAC) movement symbolizes. Yet what a conventional writing class provides is sometimes not sufficient to prepare ESL/EFL students in terms of academic English writing. Johns (1997), for example, cited many cases where graduate and undergraduate students who, after years of ESL training, failed to recognize and use appropriately the conventions of academic written discourse. Knowing that the students' ultimate goal is academic-paper writing after they finish ESL/EFL training, we should prepare the content of the coursework and the methodology to achieve this purpose. In order to do that, we first need to describe the nature of academic writing, i.e., how it is different from other types of conventional writing that are taught in usual writing classes. Then we need to consider what kinds of difficulties the students face in producing academic writing and what types of materials should be prepared to foster their skills in this genre. We also need to observe carefully how the students exhibit their development if proper instruction in this area is given.

Among the four types of genres specified by Alexander Bain in 1890, that is, narration, description, exposition, and argumentation, the genre most closely related to academic writing is argumentation (Scott, 1996), and according to Reed, Burton, and Kelly (1985), argumentation is the most difficult type of writing for the students to learn. Schultz (1991) states the distinctive difficulties of argumentative writing as follows:

The argumentative essay depends on higher-level cognitive skills than can be conceived of as a multi-dimensional network of conceptual constructs. In order to produce an argumentative essay, the writer must go through a

complex process which includes examining a problem, evaluating evidence, generating and testing hypotheses, and redefining them in accordance with new ideas and evidence. Ideas thus intertwine in a complex web of conceptual material. This material must, in turn, be sorted for organized presentation, not in a linear fashion (as in exposition or narration), where the coordination of ideas dominates, but rather such that the cumulative interdependencies of ideas become encoded in the writing. (p. 412)

Bereiter and Scardmalia (1987) propose the distinction between the “knowledge-telling” and “knowledge-transforming” models of writing. The “knowledge-telling” model of writing expects the writers to simply narrate what they already know. This is a strategy novice writers use, by which they plan and revise less often and less extensively than expert writers. This type of writing is the simplest type of writing, in that it requires the writers to retrieve information from their personal memories, experiences, or thoughts and does not require information processing outside this scope. The “knowledge-transforming” model of writing, on the other hand, requires the writers to analyze a problem and set goals. In this model, the writers reflect on the complexities of the task and resolve problems of content, form, audience, style, organization, etc., within a content space and a rhetorical space, so that there is continuous interactions between developing knowledge and text (Bereiter & Scardmalia, 1987, pp. 5-12). Thus, knowledge transforming is a process considerably more cognitively complex and harder to achieve than knowledge telling. Although the distinction between these two types of writing is very intriguing, these models were constructed on the basis of the authors’ study involving young L1 students, and their applicability to EFL college students is uncertain. There is no way of knowing how we might actually guide the EFL college students in the transition from the “knowledge-telling” model to the “knowledge-transforming” model, which is the style desired in academically oriented argumentative writing.

PREVIOUS STUDIES

There are several studies that report on the difficulties that non-native speakers of English face in producing argumentative essays. Hinkel (2002), for example, attempted a detailed analysis of texts produced by L1 English-speaking writers as contrasted with those produced by ESL student writers by drawing on the findings derived from past contrastive rhetoric research and the techniques developed in the field of corpus linguistics. Some of the rhetorical and linguistic features he found in the essays written by the latter group were: reliance on personal narratives, examples without elaboration, use of many vague and interpretive nouns, private and expecting verbs, and *be*-copula and predicative adjectives as clause predicate construction (pp. 257-58). All of these are, according to Biber (1988), typical features of informal and spoken discourse as opposed to academic written discourse. Although comprehensive, his study was conducted in an ESL context, and thus, the results might not be applicable to Japanese EFL students.

In studies specifically focusing on Japanese EFL student writers, Oi (1997, 1999) and Kamimura and Oi (1998) argue that those students tend to be less skilled in constructing a sustained argument. This tendency is due partly to the Japanese writing tradition that they have been exposed to up to the secondary level in their L1 writing. Most of the writing prompts they have received are those that require discovery of personal feeling or recounts of their memories or experience. In other words, they have been exposed to the “knowledge-telling” type of writing but not to the “knowledge-transforming” type of writing. Therefore, to start with, making an argument itself is a new challenge for them. In addition, inherently, the nature of the Japanese language is subjective, which contrasts with the objective nature of English. Morita (2002), for example, maintains that Japanese is a language that describes things from the speaker’s personal perspective. Because of this subjectivity, Japanese has various expressions that appeal to one’s feelings and senses, such as onomatopoeia (Ono, 1978). Moreover, Japanese has a smaller variety of the vocabulary, such as abstract nouns, that is necessary for

discussion and argument; the existent vocabulary of this type has a shorter history than its English counterpart (Kaganoi, 1999; Nakamura, 1964), and thus it has not yet become familiar enough for its users.

Having these educational, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds, it is not easy for Japanese college EFL students to produce English academic writing that is argumentative in nature. Several studies have been undertaken in the past to detect the problems that Japanese students face in composing academic discourse, and those problems identified include logical inconsistency (Oi, 1986), lack of clear awareness of paragraph/essay structure (Kobayashi, 1984; Oi, 1986; Nishigaki & Leishman, 2001), over-reliance on emotional appeals (Kamimura & Oi, 1998; Kamimura, 2003), frequent use of coordinate conjunctions rather than other types of transitions words (Oi, 1986; Nishigaki & Leishman, 2001), abundant use of the first-person pronoun "I" (Iribe, 1998; Isogai, 1998; Oi, 1999), insufficient use of synonyms and paraphrases (Oi, 1986), a tendency to state a main idea at the end (Kobayashi, 1984; Oi, 1986), and lower overall quality and less fluency (when compared with the same student writers' narrative writing) (Kamimura, 2003).

Although there are a number of reports on the differences between texts produced by native speakers of English and non-native student writers, and the difficulties that these latter writers face in composing academic writing, reports specifically on the progress the students have made through proper instruction in order to successfully develop their academic writing skills, are scarce. The study by Shaw and Liu (1998) is one of the rare ones that reveal the progress the students made in their ESL writing class. Their work is significant, in that they set up linguistic/rhetorical properties pertinent to academic writing, drawing largely on the discovery of Biber's (1988) work. They counted those features observable in the students' writing before and after the course, and they identified the improvement in the students' writing proficiency. The proficiency indicators in academic writing, according to Shaw and Liu (1998), were increase in impersonality, formality, and explicitness, and complex syntax and rich modification. As much as their findings are insightful, however, they do not include what instruction or what

materials were used in their teaching; they merely report the changes the students made according to the criteria that were set up. Indeed, we educators are inquisitive about the course content and the material used in successful teaching; in other words, we would like to know what explicit instruction was given in order to contribute to the better quality of student writing skills.

Much literature specifies the importance of explicit instruction, especially in the field of writing. Grabe and Kaplan (1996), for example, state that “writing--particularly the more complex composing skill valued in the academy--involves training, instruction, practice, experience, and purpose” (p. 6). Chang and Swales (1999) also claim the importance of explicit instruction, after they investigated highly advanced non-native learners of English, who reported that they had considerable difficulty in learning the rules of formal academic English and distinguishing formal and informal registers in writing. The authors thus conclude that explicit instruction in advanced academic writing is needed. Schmidt (1990) argues for the importance of explicit instruction, noting that in learning academic writing a high degree of awareness of discourse structure can lead to learners’ understanding of how formal written discourse is constructed. He highlights the value of noticing, attention, and awareness and contends that these mental processes are crucially important.

All this research supports explicit instruction as being necessary in order to foster writing abilities in academic writing. Keeping in mind these research findings, we developed the content of our year-long writing course. We taught these points explicitly, with carefully planned classroom instruction and teaching materials. The details of our instruction are presented in the following section.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the present study is twofold. The study will first delineate a- year-long explicit instruction we developed to help Japanese EFL students

improve their metacognitive abilities necessary for producing academic writing of better quality. Second, it will explore the effects of our writing instruction on the students' academic writing at the macro and micro levels. Specifically, the effects will be assessed by analyzing the students' essays in terms of such macro-level measures as overall quality, logical consistency, organization, and nature of support, as well as micro-level measures including word count, and types of transitions and grammatical subjects. In addition, the actual changes made across multiple drafts produced in accordance to our instruction will be carefully exhibited through sample analysis.

METHOD

Subjects

Thirty-eight Japanese college EFL students, freshmen majoring in English at a four-year university, participated in this study. Their English proficiency level was measured by a Level 3 version of a commercially available English proficiency test called *G-TELP (General Test of English Language Proficiency)*, which comprised three sections (listening, grammar and vocabulary, and reading) with a point total of 300. The subjects' average score was 211.13; thus, their English proficiency was considered to be at the intermediate level.

Data Collection

A total of three sessions were set up to collect data for pre-tests, mid-tests, and post-tests, each conducted at the beginning (April), middle (July), and end (January) of an entire academic year.¹ In all the three tests, the students

¹ In the Japanese school calendar, a one-year academic year starts in April and ends in March, and most Japanese universities adopt a two-semester system, in which the first semester lasts from April until July, and the second semester, from September until

were instructed to write an argumentative essay, with the following prompt:

Some people argue that it is better to live in the city. Others believe that it is better to live in the country. Which position do you support? Give specific reasons and examples to support your idea.

A total of 114 essays thus collected were subjected to macro- and micro-level data analysis.

Academic Writing Instruction

The students were given instruction in academic writing throughout an entire two-semester academic year. The instruction aimed at facilitating their development as academic EFL writers. The response to the preliminary survey conducted at the beginning of the first semester revealed that a majority of the students had little experience in EFL writing and that their experience was limited to Japanese-English translation and short paragraph writing. Thus, the focus of the instruction was placed on equipping the students with the ability and skills needed for producing the academic writing that is expected at the college level.

Our writing instruction included both process- and product-based approaches, because it was found that both process-based writing strategies and product-based knowledge are necessary to function as skilled academic writers in EFL (Kamimura, 2000). In doing so, it attempted not only to provide the students with necessary metacognitive/metalinguistic input but also to encourage them to produce actual writing as output to internalize what they have learned in the writing classroom (Swain, 1985). It also intended to promote the students' noticing or awareness of a particular instructional target (Schmidt, 1990) so that what should be learned would become clear.

Following the formal writing instruction introduced in Kamimura (1998, 2000), the students were given basic product-based knowledge, such as the

March.

organization of an English paragraph (consisting of a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a conclusion) as well as an essay (comprising a thesis statement, body, and a conclusion), as input. The notions of unity and coherence were explained, and then to help the students internalize each notion, several exercises were introduced in the classroom. For instance, exercises were provided in which the students were required to (1) eliminate a sentence(s) in a paragraph (to make them notice what constitutes the quality of unity in writing); (2) unscramble sentences to make a coherent paragraph (for the quality of coherence); and (3) insert transitions that would logically connect sentences in a paragraph (for coherence). The fourth exercise was more comprehensive in nature: the students were given two paragraphs, and they had to choose the paragraph they considered to be the better one and state the reason(s) for their judgment. The fifth exercise was designed to make the students aware of the inner-argumentation structure of an argumentative essay (Oi, 1986; Oi & Kamimura, 1999). It was designed to foster the students' ability to critically read and revise their own essay. In this exercise, the students were instructed to examine whether each sentence in their essay corresponded with the argumentative position they had taken at the outset of their essay. If any sentence did not coordinate with the position taken, it meant that the unity of the essay was not sustained. Finally, an exercise that instructed the students to change sentences starting with the first-person pronoun "I" into ones with inanimate subjects was given, so that they could write essays from a more objective perspective (Oi, 2002). Examples of instructional materials used are presented in Appendix A.

As for process-based approaches, several heuristic activities, as introduced in White and Arndt (1991), were adopted. To encourage their idea generation, the students were told to fill in an "invention worksheet" with a list of heuristic questions (Oi, 2002) and to make notes of their ideas as a less structured list or as a more structured mind-map. After they had written a draft, teacher feedback and peer feedback were given. The students were required to write multiple drafts by revising previous drafts by referring to the teacher comments and peer comments given in a peer-feedback

worksheet (for the use of peer feedback, see Kamimura, 2005). The invention worksheet and peer feedback worksheet used in the study are exhibited in Appendix B.

DATA ANALYSIS

Pilot Study

To establish analytical measures specifically targeted for the present data, a pilot study was conducted in advance (Kamimura, 2003), in which 18 Japanese college EFL students wrote an argumentative essay with the same prompt (city life vs. country life) as assigned in this study. The following is a typical example of the students' essays.

Sample A

I think that it is better to live in the country than in the city. I love clean air, river, blue sky, and beautiful mountain. I am from country—Iwate. I could see many natural things every day. So I love nature. But I also think I want to live in the city. It is very convenient for me to live in the city. There are many kind of store in the city—bookstore, CD shop, fast food shop. And there are many department stores too.

These are not in my town. Now I live in Kanagawa—big city. I can buy whatever I want. It is very useful for me. But sometimes I think I want to see many many stars, mountain. And I want to drink the natural water.

Two researchers in the present study carefully read the students' essays written in the pilot study and pointed out problems observed in the essays. It was found that some of the problems identified in previous studies, such as those discussed in the introduction in this paper, were also observable. Each problem will be explained below by referring to Sample A:

- 1) Lower overall quality: Sample A is rated low, lacking a variety of

necessary qualities for academic writing, as listed below.

- 2) No clear essay structure: In Sample A, there is no clear division of introduction, body, and conclusion. Obviously, there is no conclusion. The writer's thoughts simply ramble.
- 3) Logical inconsistency: The first five sentences argue for country life, while the following eight sentences argue for city life. However, the last two sentences abruptly support city life again.
- 4) Personal anecdote as support: The writer's arguments for country life and city life are both supported by the writer's personal anecdotes rather than by an objective account.
- 5) Lack of fluency: Sample A, which consists of only 15 sentences, is not long enough to adequately persuade the audience.
- 6) No effective use of transitions: The essay contains merely a list of short sentences that are not logically well connected. All the transition words used in the essay are coordinators ("and," "but," and "so"), which are considered to be markers of spoken discourse (Biber, 1988). All of these transition words are placed at the beginning of the sentences, thus failing to establish syntactic and logical complexity.
- 7) Abundant use of "I": The first-person pronoun "I" is used 13 times in the essay. Together with problem 4), this gives the entire essay a subjective quality.

Based on the observations derived from the pilot study, the students' pre-, mid-, and post-tests collected in the present study were examined in terms of the analytic measures prepared for the macro- as well as micro-level analysis, as discussed in the next section. The former analysis was conducted to observe the change in the quality of the overall discourse, whereas the latter was performed to examine the nature of sentence connections and sentence structures.

Measures for Macro-level Analysis

Holistic Scoring

To assess overall quality, each student's three compositions at three

different stages (pre, mid, and post) were holistically scored by two raters on a scale of nine points, with nine as the highest score. Both raters were experienced Japanese EFL university writing instructors who had a doctorate in English. The two raters first scored 10% of the papers to establish common criteria for scoring. Each of them rated the rest of the papers separately and then compared their scores. When any discrepancy in score was found, they discussed their scores thoroughly until they reached full agreement. These two writing instructors also analyzed the essays according to the following three analytical measures: logical consistency, organization, and nature of support.

Logical Consistency

Each essay was analyzed to see whether unity was achieved, that is, whether logical flow was properly maintained during the course of the essay (Oi, 1986). The writing prompt used in the present study told the students to argue for one position, either city life or country life. If one position was taken throughout an entire essay, that essay was classified as *uni-directional*; if the two positions fluctuated in the course of the essay, it was categorized as *bi-directional*.

Organization

The students' essays were also classified either as *structured* or *ramble-on*. The former type was an essay that had a clear organizational division of a thesis statement, body, and conclusion. The latter was a composition that had neither clear organization nor paragraph division.

Nature of Support

The support that each student used to develop his or her assertion was closely examined. First, the body of the composition was segmented into

different units of support. Resultant units were then categorized into three groups: *objective accounts*, *personal anecdotes*, and *combinations* of these two. Objective accounts were those that used rational appeals based on logical reasoning, whereas personal anecdotes were those that used the writers' subjective comments based on their own experiences. When a given unit of support included both an objective account and a personal anecdote, it was labeled as a combination. The following are examples of the three types of support:

Objective account: First, traffic transportation is developed around the city such as trains, subways, and buses, so the people who live in the city can go anywhere easily. Also, there is an international airport near the city. Therefore, people can go abroad easily.

Personal anecdote: I lived in the country for a long time. I was always bored. Then I began to live in the city. I am excited every day.

Combination: Second, anything in the city is more expensive than that in the country. For example, the land, the rent of apartment and so on. My room is smaller than my sister's room in the country, but the rent of my room is more expensive. (The first two sentences function as objective support for county life, whereas the rest of the sentences result in a personal anecdote.)

Sample Macro-level Analysis

Two essays actually written by the students in the present study are presented. The actual method of analysis undertaken will be exhibited below. All errors in grammar and mechanics are left intact.

Sample B

I think that it is better to live in the city. ^{(1)city-o} [There are many reasons. For example, living in the city is very convenient. We are easy to go shopping and many special events. I think that living in the country is very inconvenient.] ^{(2)country-o} [Of course living in the country and touch the nature is very important because we should learn its beauty and importance.] ^{(3)city-p} [But if I were in the country I wouldn't be patient. I have a friend who lives in Fukushima. She went

to school to take her bicycle for 40 minutes when she was a junior high school student. In Summer vacation, she had to go to school to see the rabbits everyday. I can't believe this! I went to my junior high school for 10 minute. I walked to there. I like the city. I like the convenience. I had used to living in the city.]^{(4)city-p}[And I hate bugs very much! When I traveled to Akita in Summer I saw many bugs which are grous.]^{(5)country-p}[But I like Namari [dialect] very much. My brother lives in Sendai Miyagi and he speaks very strange intonation. But I like it.] My favorite in the country is their intonation and it's nature only.

Note: (1)city-o indicates that the first unit of support argues for city life and objective in nature.

The writer starts this essay by stating that “it is better to live in the city.” To support this argument for city life, she offers “many reasons.” The first reason she points out (in the section marked by (1)city-o) is convenience in the city. Her second reason, however, supports country life; she maintains that “living in the country and touch the nature is very important” (in the sentence marked by (2)country-o). Then, again, she argues for city life by stressing inconvenient transportation in the country (as the third reason, indicated by (3)city-p) and uncomfortable bugs (as the fourth reason, indicated by (4)city-p). Suddenly, however, she starts to mention that she likes a local Miyagi dialect (in the sentences labeled as (5)country-p). Finally, the writer concludes the essay by stating that all she can appreciate in the country is a local dialect and nature. Sample B was classified as *bi-directional* because the writer's argumentative position fluctuates several times, as follows: city→country→city→country→city life. Sample B was also considered as an example of a *ramble-on* type of essay. The writer seems to keep writing whatever idea comes to her mind without having an overall essay structure in mind. The essay does not have clear organization and paragraph division. The reasons she offers to support her argument are not presented systematically. As mentioned before, some reasons are given to support city life, while the others are not; furthermore, the third reason is presented much more extensively, compared with the others. Among the five reasons the writer provides in the essay, two are categorized as *objective*,

whereas the other three are classified as *personal*. The first and second reasons are general and objective, in that the statements presented have an appeal to readers in general. On the other hand, as the third, fourth, and fifth reasons, she merely “tells” her likes (for a dialect) and dislikes (for inconvenient transport and bugs) based on her “personal knowledge” about her past experiences, basically in the form of personal anecdotes.

Sample C

It is better to live in the city than in the country. I have some reasons which support this idea.

^{(1)city-o}[First, living on the city is very convenient. For example, you can get almost everything which you need soon because there are many convenient stores. In addition, the city has very good traffic condition.]

^{(2)city-o}[Secondly, there are many chances to make new friends in the city. If you work active, you can get the chances because there are many groups which consist of people having some same hobbies regardless of schools and offices. So you could have friends not only at school or offices but also everywhere.]

^{(3)city-o}[Finally, you can catch up with the fashion by living in the city. This is very interesting and make you a more exciting person.]

As we have seen, living in the city is better than living in the country.

Sample C starts with the assertion that living in the city is better than in the country, and ends with the same assertion. The writer does not change this pro-city position throughout the entire essay; thus, the essay was judged as *uni-directional* in terms of logical consistency. As for organization, the essay was categorized as a *structured* one. It has clear organization: an introductory paragraph; three body paragraphs, each presenting an individual supporting reason; and a concluding paragraph. All the reasons presented in the body paragraphs (marked with *(1)city-o*, *(2)city-o*, and *(3)city-o*, respectively) support the writer’s assertion that city life is better than country life. The reasons were considered to be all *objective* in nature because they are not written in the form of personal anecdotes; instead, they are written with an intention to persuade the unknown audience in general.

Measures for Micro-level Analysis

Word Count

The number of words in each composition was counted to trace the change across the three writing tests. Following Hirano (1991) and Hirose and Sasaki (1994), we operationally defined writing fluency as the total number of words per composition written under the specified time.

Transitions

The types of transition words used to create coherence were examined. In the present study, all the transitions found in the essays were recorded and classified into three categories: *coordinators* (such as ‘and,’ ‘but,’ ‘so,’ and ‘or’), *logical connectors* (such as ‘moreover,’ ‘however,’ ‘therefore,’ ‘similarly,’ and ‘in conclusion’), and *enumerators* (such as ‘first,’ ‘second,’ ‘then,’ and ‘finally’). Several researchers report that, compared with experienced writers whose writing makes use of more logical connectors, L1 (e.g., Biber, 1988) and L2 inexperienced writers (Nishigaki & Leishman, 2001) tend to rely heavily on coordinators, which are earmarks of spoken as opposed to written English. Analysis was done to investigate whether such an observation would hold true for the subjects in the present study.

Grammatical Subjects

Several past studies point out that Japanese EFL students’ compositions are characterized by the underuse of inanimate subjects (Kojima, 1991) and the overuse of the first-person pronoun “I” as the subject of a sentence or a clause (Iribe, 1998; Oi, 1999). In the present study, all the subjects in the clauses were extracted and examined to see whether a given subject was either inanimate or animate, and if it was animate, whether it was the first-person (“I” and “we”), second-person (“you”), third-person pronoun (“he,”

“she,” and “they”), or a noun/noun phrase (“Yoko,” “my hometown,” etc.)

Statistical Analysis

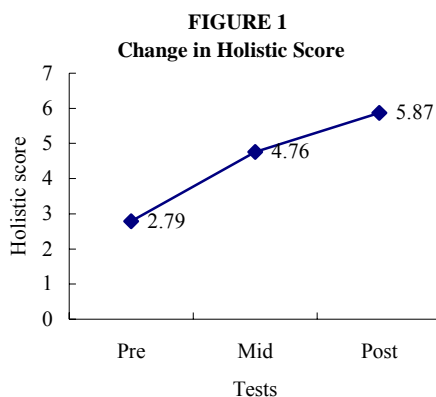
Statistical analysis was performed on the three groups of essays, each consisting of 38 samples produced as the pre-, mid-, and post-tests. A repeated one-way ANOVA was administered to discover if there was any significant difference in holistic score and word count across the three writing tests; furthermore, if any significant difference was observed, a subsequent post-hoc Dunnett test was performed to locate the difference. Chi-square tests were administered for the data on the other analytic measures: logical consistency, organization, nature of support, transitions, and grammatical subjects.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results of Macro-level Analysis

Holistic scoring

Figure 1 shows the change in holistic score across the three writing tests.



The results of a one-way ANOVA yielded a significant difference in holistic score ($F=38.05$, $d.f.=2$, $p<.01$), and a subsequent post-hoc Dunnett test located a significant level between the pre- and mid-test ($t=1.97$, $s.d.=.36$, $p<.01$) and also between the mid- and post-test ($t=1.97$, $s.d.=.36$, $p<.01$). This result suggests that the academic writing instruction helped the students to make a steadfast improvement in producing essays of better overall quality.

Logical Consistency

The result of a chi-square test revealed a significant difference in the ratio of logical patterns observed in the essays ($\chi^2=30.68$, $d.f.=2$, $p<.01$). As can be seen in Table 1, about 40% of the students wrote bi-directional essays in the pre-test, while only one student (2.63%) followed this pattern in the mid-test; in the post-essay, all the students produced essays of a uni-directional pattern. It seems that understanding the notion of unity is not so difficult for most of the students that they managed to internalize it by the end of the first semester.

TABLE 1
Types of Logical Patterns

| Tests | Logical patterns | |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|
| | Uni-directional | Bi-directional |
| Pre-test | 23 (60.53%) | 15 (39.47%) |
| Mid-test | 39 (97.37%) | 1 (2.63%) |
| Post-test | 38 (100%) | 0 (0 %) |

Organization

Table 2 shows the results of the analysis of organizational patterns observed in the three tests. A significant difference in the ratio of the structured versus ramble-on type of writing was observed among the three tests ($\chi^2=45.82$, $d.f.=2$, $p<.01$). When writing pre-tests, more than 80% of the

students produced unstructured essays without any clear organizational pattern. As the instruction proceeded, in the mid-test, the ratio of the students whose essays had a clear introduction, body, and conclusion increased (71.05%); however, there still existed approximately 30% of the students who rambled on with their subjective comments. In the post-test, almost all the students succeeded in composing well-organized essays. This suggests that one semester is not long enough for the Japanese students to develop the ability to produce well-organized essays in EFL.

TABLE 2
Types of Organization

| Tests | Types | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| | Structured | Ramble-on |
| Pre-test | 7 (18.42%) | 31 (81.58%) |
| Mid-test | 27 (71.05%) | 11 (28.95%) |
| Post-test | 35 (92.11%) | 3 (7.89%) |

Nature of Support

Table 3 illustrates the change in the students' use of different types of support in developing their arguments in the pre-, mid-, and post-tests. Again, a significant difference was found across the three tests ($\chi^2=45.82$, $d.f.=4$, $p<.01$). More than a quarter of the instances of support in the pre-test essays were subjective in nature. As the students received academic writing instruction, however, their use of subjective support decreased. In the post-test, more than 90% of the entire support was of the objective type. What is interesting is the change in the ratio for the combination type of support: the ratio increased in the mid-test (from 11.93% to 15%) and then decreased in the post-test (to 5.41%). Though the change is small, this might suggest that the students were not yet familiar enough with the use of objective support in their mid-test, thereby mixing objective and subjective support in developing their arguments.

TABLE 3
Types of Support

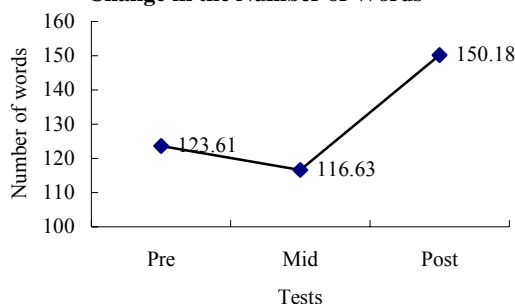
| Tests | Types | | |
|------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Objective | Personal | Combination |
| Pre-test | 65 (59.63%) | 31 (28.44%) | 13 (11.93%) |
| Mid-test | 77 (77%) | 8 (8%) | 15 (15 %) |
| Post -test | 103 (92.79%) | 2 (1.80%) | 6 (5.41%) |

Results of Micro-level Analysis

Word Count

The change in the students' writing fluency over the year is shown in Figure 5. The result of a one-way ANOVA revealed a difference at the significant level across the three tests ($F=16.40$, $df:=1$, $p<.01$), and a performed Dunnett test located a significant difference between the mid- and post-test ($t=33.55$, $p<.01$). There was no significant change between the pre- and mid-test ($t=6.97$, $p>.05$); actually, a drop in fluency, though small, was observed between the two tests (from 123.61 to 116.63 for the mean number of words). This suggests that the mid-test was performed at the transitional stage of students' growth as academic writers and that the students were still insecure in producing academic papers, and this insecurity might have affected their fluency in writing.

FIGURE 2
Change in the Number of Words



Transitions

A significant difference was found in the type of transitions used in the three essays ($\chi^2=375.50$, $d.f.=6$, $p<.01$).

TABLE 4
Types of Transition Words

| Tests | Types | | |
|-----------|--------------|--------------------|-------------|
| | Coordinators | Logical connectors | Enumerators |
| Pre-test | 110 (55.84%) | 70 (35.53%) | 17 (8.63%) |
| Mid-test | 48 (20.25%) | 116 (48.95%) | 73 (30.80%) |
| Post-test | 63 (19.44%) | 166 (51.23%) | 95 (29.32%) |

Table 4 illustrates what kinds of transition the students employed in each of the three writing tests. A meaningful change was observed between the students' writing performance in the pre- and mid-tests. While the type of transitions most available for the students in the pre-test was coordinators (55.84%), the transitions most widely used in the mid-test (48.95%) as well as post-test (51.28%) were logical connectors. Enumerators were also more extensively used in the mid-test (48.95%) than in the pre-test (35.53%). No conspicuous difference in the type of transitions used was found between the mid- and post-tests. This suggests that mastering the use of transitions might not be difficult for Japanese EFL students, and it seems that one semester is sufficient for the teaching in this area; thus, instruction in the use of transitions might be an attainable target for teaching the notion of coherence.

Grammatical Subjects

The use of different types of grammatical subjects is shown in Table 5, with the statistically significant difference revealed by the result of a chi-square test administered for the ratio of different types of grammatical subjects in the three writing tests ($\chi^2=562.82$, $d.f.=12$, $p<.01$).

TABLE 5
Types of Grammatical Subjects

| Tests | Types | | | | |
|-----------|--------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| | Animate 1st (I) | Animate 1st (we) | Animate 2nd (you) | Animate 3rd (they) | Inanimate |
| Pre-test | 186 (38.27%) | 42 (8.64%) | 25 (5.14%) | 39 (8.02%) | 194 (39.92%) |
| Mid-test | 120 (27.46%) | 40 (9.15%) | 23 (5.26%) | 24 (7.78%) | 220 (50.34%) |
| Post-test | 56 (10.98%) | 40 (7.84%) | 59 (11.57%) | 69 (13.53%) | 286 (56.08%) |

In the pre-test, about 60% of the grammatical subjects that the students used were animate subjects, and what is especially notable is that approximately 40% of the subjects used were the first-person pronoun “I.” However, the use of “I” dramatically declined in the succeeding two tests (27.46% in the mid-test and 10.98% in the posttest.) On the other hand, the students more often began their sentences/clauses with inanimate subjects in the mid-test (50.34%), and even more so in the post-test (56.08%).

Sample Analysis

This section presents sample essays to illustrate the actual change that cannot be captured by numerical analysis. The focus is placed on tracing the actual development of a Japanese EFL student writer who demonstrated significant improvement as an academic writer while receiving academic writing instruction over the year.

Pre-test

The following essay is bi-directional, lacking logical consistency. At the outset of the essay, the writer asserts that city life is preferable; in the second paragraph, however, she starts to explain the problem of the city; yet, in the third paragraph, she again points out several advantages of living in the city. This logical fluctuation is marked by the coordinate conjunction “but.” Besides “but,” all the transitions used in the essay are coordinators such as

“and,” and “so”; no logical connectors can be observed. The entire essay is characterized by the use of the first-person pronoun “I.” In arguing for her position, she relies on her personal experience of living in the city and visiting the country. The essay has a subjective quality, lacks clear organization, and simply states the ideas that have come to her mind. This is a typical sample of “knowledge-telling” mode of writing.

I think that living in the city is better. ^{(1)city-P}[I have lived in the city since I was born. My house locate Yotsuya and I can go Shinjuku, Aoyama and Harajuku by bicycle. I can go shopping there anytime that I want.]
^{(2)country-P}[But the problem is that my city is very crowded. I can see lots of people and cars everywhere. When I went to the country, they had clean air and beautiful mountains. My city has not them.
Living in the city have some like this problem.] ^{(3)city-O}[But the city has a lot of good points that we can not experience in the country. The city has amusement parks, big shopping mall, and so on. They are fun to live in.]
So I think that living in the city is better.
(Holistic score: 2 points, Word count: 132)

Mid-test

This mid-test is better structured, with a clearer division of introduction, body, and conclusion. The writer maintains her pro-city position throughout the entire essay, which makes the essay uni-directional. The two kinds of support she presents are both objective ones; the way in which she discusses the advantages of city life by using the pronoun “you” generalizes her argument. Except for the first sentence, all the others begin with the second-person pronouns or inanimate nouns. The essay makes use of enumerators (“first” and “second”) and logical connectors (“therefore” and “in brief”). Compared with her pre-test, this mid-test is shorter, which might show that the student is at the transitional stage, in which qualitative improvement precedes fluency, during the course of her development as an academic writer.

I prefer to live in the city. The city has a lot of amusement places. Therefore, to live in the city will never get bored.

(1)^{city-O}[First, you can choice what you do. If you are interested in the movies, you can go to the movie theater whenever you want. If you live in the country, you have to go there to take a long time.]

(2)^{city-O}[Second, you can find new things easily. New things and information make our enjoyable days.]

In brief, to live in the city make us interested in something easily. Therefore, our life will be enjoyable.

(Holistic score: 4 points, Word count: 99)

Post-test

It is better to live in the city. In Japan, she has some big cities. It is fun and convenient to live in the city.

(1)^{city-O}[First, you can do anything what you want. They have amusement parks, movie theaters, shopping centers in the city. When you get bored, you can go there easily. In the country, they have amusement parks, movie theaters, but they are not bigger and less fun than in the city.]

(2)^{city-O}[Second, you can go anywhere where you want. In the city they have a lot of tranaceptation. For example, trains, subways, buses. Besides, they have a lot of stations and bus stops. Therefore, we can get easily where we want to go. On the other hand, you would go by the car where you want to go, in the country. It is okay to go by the car if you have the drivers license, but it is not useful if you do not.]

In brief, to live in the city is better. It makes your life more fun and enjoyable.

(Holistic score: 7 points; Word count: 175)

The post-test is even better structured than the mid-test, both in terms of logical consistency and organization. The writer argues for city life throughout the essay, which has a clear organization of introduction, body, and conclusion. The second and third paragraphs support her assertion that city life is better. Furthermore, the topic sentence in each of these two paragraphs is developed by the sentences following it. The essay, therefore, shows a hierarchical structure. A variety of logical connectors (“for example,” “besides,” “therefore,”

“on the other hand,” and “in brief”) are used; the first-person pronoun “I” has disappeared, and instead, a wide range of grammatical subjects, including the second-person (“you”) and third-person pronouns (“it” and “they”), are employed. All these contribute an objective quality to the essay. Thus, we may be able to say that this sample embodies the “knowledge-transforming” mode of writing. This post-test shows that the writer achieved not only qualitative improvement but also fluency in writing. It seems that longer-term instruction is needed to ensure the EFL students’ development as academic writers.

CONCLUSION

The present study has attempted to explore the effects of academic writing instruction on Japanese EFL students’ writing performance. The instruction we developed aimed to facilitate the improvement in their academic writing skills. It integrated several research findings in the area of L2 acquisition and ESL/EFL teaching. Thus, we stressed the importance of explicit instruction, noticing and attention, and actual writing performance as output. We also included both process- and product-based approaches; that is, we taught the students formal aspects of paragraph/essay writing in English and introduced them to a variety of heuristic and revision activities.

The study has elucidated the actual progress the students have made, as follows:

- 1) After the instruction, the students produced essays of better quality with clearer organization, logical consistency, and objective support.
- 2) They used more enumerators and logical connectors instead of coordinators.
- 3) They also used, as grammatical subjects, more third-person pronouns and inanimate nouns, instead of first-person pronouns.
- 4) The students exhibited such improvement more clearly in the post-test than the mid-test.
- 5) The students’ writing fluency declined in the mid-test but increased in the post-test.

These changes suggest that the students have achieved the transition from the “knowledge-telling” mode of writing to the “knowledge-transforming” mode of writing. The present results have several pedagogical implications. First, explicit writing instruction was found to be effective to facilitate Japanese EFL students’ development as academic writers. Japanese students’ writing experiences are often limited to personal anecdotal compositions (Oi, 1997, 1999), and their native language is inherently more subjective as compared with English (Kaganoi, 1999; Morita, 2002; Nakamura, 1964). Educated in such a rhetorical and linguistic context, they tend to have difficulty sustaining logical arguments in an academic setting in a Western sense (Kamimura & Oi, 1998). Therefore, formal training targeted at objective academic writing as was conducted in the present study could be especially facilitative for Japanese EFL students.

Second, the students’ writing performance in the mid-test seemed to indicate their transitional stage in their progress as academic writers. In the mid-test, they made qualitative improvement but lacked fluency; however, in the post-test, they succeeded in achieving improvement both in quality and fluency. This suggests that one-semester instruction is not enough for the students’ growth as academic writers; instead, a longer period of time, at least a whole academic year, is necessary to ensure the progress that is required for the students to internalize what they have learned in the writing classroom.

Future studies are necessary to further examine the effects of academic writing instruction. The present study has explored the effects of an entire program of academic instruction that we provided; therefore, an attempt would have to be made to assess the values of individual units of instruction, such as teaching of transitions, logical consistency, and heuristic activities. Also this study did not consider the differences in English proficiency level. The proficiency level might affect the content and length of academic writing instruction needed for students’ growth and development.

The development of academic writing skills has been increasingly recognized as an essential component in ESL/EFL teaching. To help ESL/EFL students succeed in academic programs at the college level, we should continue to

develop and devise teaching materials that could be effectively used for explicit instruction in writing classrooms.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank the editors and anonymous reviewers of *The Journal of Asia TEFL* for their valuable comments and suggestions. We would also like to thank Mitali Das for her careful reading of the draft and helpful suggestions.

THE AUTHORS

Taeko Kamimura teaches applied linguistics and EFL writing at Senshu University in Japan. She received her Ph.D. from Indiana University of Pennsylvania in the USA. Kyoko Oi teaches at Chiba University. She received her B.A. from University of Tokyo, and M.A. and D.A. at SUNY–Stony Brook in the USA.

REFERENCES

- Bain, A. (1890). *English composition and rhetoric*. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1987). *The psychology of written composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Biber, D. (1988). *Variation across speech and writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chang, Yu-Y., & Swales, J. (1999). Informal elements in English academic writing: Threats or opportunities for advanced non-native speakers. In C. Candlin & K. Hyland (Eds.), *Writing texts, processes and practices* (pp. 145-167). London: Longman.
- Frydenberg, G., & Boardman, C. A. (1990). *You're in charge!: Writing to communicate*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory & practice of writing*. London: Longman.
- Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second language writers' text*. Mahwa: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Hirano, K. (1991). The effect of mode of discourse on objective measures of EFL proficiency in Japanese university students. *JACET Bulletin*, 22, 15-34.
- Hirose, K., & Sasaki, M. (1994). Explanatory variables for Japanese students' expository writing in English: An exploratory study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3, 203-229.
- Horowitz, D. (1986). What professors actually require: Academic tasks for the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(4), 445-462.
- Iribe, A. (1998). Kokusaika jidai ni tsuuyou suru ronriteki bunshou no kakikata [How to write logical compositions which can be accepted internationally]. *Nihongogaku*, 17(2), 14-21.
- Isogai, T. (1998). *Academic writing nyuumon* [Introduction to academic writing]. Tokyo: Keio University.
- Johns, A. (1997). *Text, role, and context: Developing academic literacies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kaganoi, S. (1999). *Nihongo no fukken* [Restoration of Japanese]. Tokyo: Kodansha.
- Kamimura, T. (1998). The effects of product-based formal writing instruction. *Senshu Journal of Foreign Language Education*, 26, 57-82.
- Kamimura, T., & Oi, K. (1998). Argumentative strategies in American and Japanese English. *World Englishes*, 17, 307-323.
- Kamimura, T. (2000). Integration of process and product orientations in EFL Writing instruction. *RELC Journal*, 31(2), 1-28.
- Kamimura, T., & Oi, K. (2004). Ego ronbun report no kakikata [How to write papers in English]. Tokyo: Kenkyuusha.
- Kamimura, T. (2006, in press). Effects of peer feedback on EFL student writers at different levels of English proficiency: A Japanese context. *TESL Canada Journal*.
- Kobayashi, H. (1984). Rhetorical patterns in English and Japanese. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18, 737-438.
- Kojima, Y. (1991). *Nihongo no imi eigo no imi* [Japanese meaning and English meaning]. Tokyo: Nanundo.
- Nakamura, H. (1964). *Ways of thinking of Eastern peoples: India, China, Tibet, Japan*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Nishigaki, C., & Leishman, S. (2001). Needs analysis, instruction, and improvement in writing class: Developing textual features in Japanese EFL college writing. *JACET Bulletin*, 34, 57-71.

- Morita, Y. (2002). *Nihongo bunpou no hasso* [Concepts behind Japanese grammar]. Tokyo: Hitsuji Shobo.
- Oi, K. (1986). Cross-cultural differences in rhetorical patterning: A study of Japanese and English. *JACET Bulletin*, 17, 23-48.
- Oi, K. (1999). A note on Japanese students' preference for the first person perspective in writing in English. *Writing in the English Language Classroom, Tokai University Foreign Language Center, Monograph Series Vol.*, 3, 37-47.
- Oi, K. (2002). *Eigo mode de writing* [Writing in an English mode]. Tokyo: Kodansha International.
- Oi, K. (2002). Writing instruction aiming to foster students' thinking faculty—From the point of view of EFL. *The Bulletin of the Faculty of Education, Chiba University*, 50, 245-260.
- Oi, K., & Kamimura, T. (1996). *Writing power*. Tokyo: Kenkyuusha.
- Oi, K., & Kamimura, T. (1997). A pedagogical application of research in contrastive rhetoric. *JACET Bulletin*, 28, 65-82.
- Ono, S. (1978). *Nihongo no bunpou wo kangaeru* [Thinking of Japanese grammar]. Tokyo: Iwanamishoten.
- Oshima, A., & Hogue, A. (1988). *Introduction to academic writing*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Reed, W. M., Burton, J. K., & Kelly, P. P. (1985). The effects of writing ability and mode of discourse on cognitive capacity engagement. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 19(3), 283-297.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-158.
- Schultz, J. M. (1991). Writing mode in the articulation of language and literature classes: Theory and practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 411-417.
- Scott, V. M. (1996). *Rethinking foreign language writing*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Shaw, P., & Liu, E. T. (1998). What develops in the development of second-language writing? *Applied Linguistics*, 19, 225-254.
- Spangler, M. S., & Werner, R. R. (1990). *Paragraph strategies*. Fort Worth, TX: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MS: Newbury House.
- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process writing*. London: Longman.

APPENDIX A

Examples of Teaching Materials Used in the Present Study

Exercise 1: Read the following paragraph and underline an irrelevant sentence. (Excerpted from Oshima & Hogue, 1991)

The convenience and economy of small cars account for their popularity. They are easy to park quickly and take smaller parking spaces. Small cars are also a means of conserving energy because they use less gas than big cars. Small cars are inconvenient and uncomfortable on long trips, however, because of their limited passenger and trunk space. They are also more economical to operate and maintain, and they cost less. Because of all these advantages, the demand for small cars remains high.

Exercise 2: The following sentences are in a scrambled order. Rearrange the sentences into a logical order. (Excerpted from Kamimura & Oi, 2004)

- ___ a. Tokyo has a network of trains and subways.
- ___ b. First, both cities are political centers of the countries.
- ___ c. For example, Tokyo has the Imperial Palace and many old temples.
- ___ d. Another similarity is that both Tokyo and London have an excellent transportation system.
- ___ e. The Japanese Prime Minister lives in Tokyo, while the British Prime Minister lives in London.
- ___ f. London also has frequent service of subways.
- ___ g. Finally, Tokyo has some historical sites, and London has some, too.
- ___ h. London, on the other hand, is famous for the Buckingham Palace and Westminster Abbey.
- ___ i. Thus, Tokyo and London are cities that have several things in common.
- ___ j. Tokyo and London are big cities which are similar in several ways.

Exercise 3: Fill in the blanks with appropriate transitions. (Excerpted from Spangler & Werner, 1990).

1. A puzzle is a group of pieces that fit together to create a unified picture. (), a paragraph is a group of sentences that work together to convey a single idea.
2. Some animals are frightened by sudden, loud noises. (), a dog jumps a fence or hides under the bed when it hears thunder.
3. The hotel accommodations in my small town were very poor; (), the facilities in the city where I now live are excellent.

Exercise 4: Which paragraph is better written? Give reasons for your choice. (adapted from Frydenbert & Boardman, 1990)

1. Alcohol is harmful for your health. It primarily damages the liver. A long period of alcohol abuse can cause cirrhosis of the liver, and it has recently been determined that even cancer of the liver can be caused by excessive drinking. Too much alcohol may also cause insomnia and loss of control of the body. In fact, it may permanently damage the nervous system. In many ways, alcohol brings a lot of bad effects on your body.
2. Alcohol primarily damages the liver. A long period of alcohol abuse can cause cirrhosis of the liver, and it has recently been determined that even cancer of the liver can be caused by excessive drinking. Too much alcohol may also cause insomnia and loss of control of the body. In fact, it may permanently damage the nervous system.

Exercise 5: Read carefully the following two essays written on the topic that asked: Do you think TV commercials should be banned totally? Analyze an inner-argumentation structure in each essay by examining individual sentences in relation to the topic assigned. If the sentence argues for TV commercials, write F(or); if it doesn't, write A(gainst); or if it takes a neutral position, write N(eutral). Then compare the two paragraphs in terms their inner-argumentation structures. (Excerpted from Oi & Kamimura, 1996).

Passage 1

⁽¹⁾TV commercials should be banned totally.

⁽²⁾Although they do serve a purpose, they are an intrusion. ⁽³⁾Forty-minutes of TV can be extended to an hour, thus dragging out the entire television schedule. ⁽⁴⁾Many times in an intense dramatic program, just as the crucial moment of action arrives, they play a commercial. ⁽⁵⁾This ruins the entire effect of the scene. ⁽⁶⁾It's aggravating to the TV viewers for a show to be interrupted so much by silly commercials.

⁽⁷⁾As any TV viewer knows and can see, most commercials are quite silly and annoying within themselves. ⁽⁸⁾And some of them are quite harmful, especially to small children who still cannot tell the truth from the false. ⁽⁹⁾Why do we have to put up with those silly commercials only to see the next scene of the program?

⁽¹⁰⁾Also, if TV were not based on ratings for advertising, the quality of shows seen on TV would be better. ⁽¹¹⁾Then maybe some shows that might not be very commercial but are of good quality and are educational might have a better chance to be seen on television.

⁽¹²⁾Banning TV commercials would probably have a very good overall effect on

television. ⁽¹³⁾Without commercials, the networks could worry more about showing quality programs than getting the highest ratings. ⁽¹⁴⁾And we, the general public will profit also by not influenced by the commercials on our judgment of purchasing commodities.

Passage 2

⁽¹⁾There are many commercials these days. ⁽²⁾We can say that each commodity has more than one commercial, so some people may feel it's too persistent, but I like commercials.

⁽³⁾Extremely saying, commercials are the symbol of the times because commercials sometimes make words that are going around and we can know what kind of things or persons were popular in each time. ⁽⁴⁾I often watch special programs which consist of old commercials and whenever I watch those I feel how well I recall the good old commercials.

⁽⁵⁾Of course I don't accept all the commercials now. ⁽⁶⁾Some are nonsense or only for the birds. ⁽⁷⁾However, many years later I may be going to miss those commercials.

⁽⁸⁾But when I watch the movies on television and I get excited, they interrupt the story, so it's disturbance.

⁽⁹⁾Thinking of these things it's the best way to build a broadcasting station only for commercials or to make a commercial period as a broadcast.

Exercise 6: Rewrite the following sentences by using grammatical subjects other than the first-person pronoun "I." (Excerpted from Oi, 2002)

1. I like soccer best
2. I am studying economics in college.
3. I cannot eat all this food.
4. I travel one and a half hours to my office every day.
5. I cannot do such a difficult task.

APPENDIX B

Writing Worksheets

1. Invention worksheet (Excerpted from Oi, 1999)

Begin to develop your claim by using some of the following invention strategies.

1. Freewrite.
2. Brainstorm using clustering, listing, and other techniques.
3. Ask heuristic questions about the issue. Write the questions and answer here.
Some of the questions may be:

- 1) What are the issues?
- 2) What must be established before the reader will believe my point?
- 3) What kind of evidence is needed in order to prove my point?
- 4) What counterarguments must be confronted or refuted?
- 5) What are the practical consequences of my claim?

2. Peer feedback worksheet (Excerpted from Kamimura, 2006)

Read your peer's composition carefully and respond to each question below.

1. Topic sentence

- 1) Is there any topic sentence? If so, write it down below:
- 2) Does the topic sentence clearly answer the assignment?
- 3) Does the writer take one position clearly in the topic sentence?

2. Paragraph development

- 1) Does the body of the paragraph give enough reasons to support the position that the writer has taken in the topic sentence?
- 2) Write down the major reasons that the writer gives in the body.
- 3) Is each reason fully explained?
- 4) Is there any part that is not related to the main idea expressed in the topic sentence?
- 5) Is there any part that is not logically ordered and need to be moved around?

3. Conclusion

- 1) Is there any conclusion? If so, copy it below.
- 2) Does the conclusion restate or summarize the topic sentence?

4. Grammar

Are there any major grammatical errors? If so, circle those errors in the draft.

5. Good points

Tell the writer at least one thing you really liked about his/her writing.

6. Suggestions for Draft 2

List your suggestions to improve his/her writing. Your suggestions should be as specific as possible.

- (1)
- (2)
- (3)