



Vocabulary and Move Analysis of High School Essays from an EAP Writing Perspective

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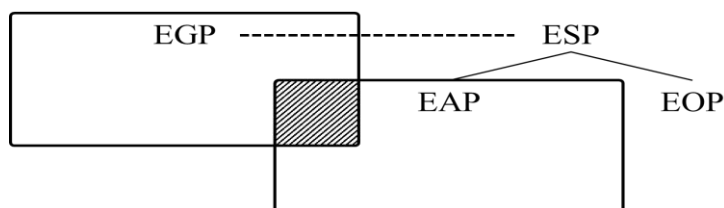
The importance of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in tertiary education has been widely recognized; however, practitioners have had difficulty helping learners transition from English for General Purposes (EGP) to EAP due to a lack of empirical research on prospective EAP learners in Japan. To fill this gap, the current study analyzed the vocabulary and rhetorical structures of 44 high school students' essays. The results indicated a large percentage of general vocabulary and a lack of academic vocabulary in high school students' essays, and the largest number of proper nouns in the Off List category. In terms of rhetorical structures, the moves that represent signposts and thesis were missing. This suggested that students often wrote without using transitional words and restating the thesis. Additionally, the move required to develop arguments using external sources was missing. Based on the study results, we discuss the pedagogical implications for students during the transition from EGP to EAP.

Keywords: English for general purposes, English for academic purposes, academic vocabulary, move analysis

Introduction

The importance of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has been widely recognized, and research on EAP education has attracted worldwide scholarly attention. Writing is essential for academic success because evaluation of the performance of students and researchers is generally based on the final written product. Numerous studies have been conducted on EAP writing. These include needs analysis of students in the classroom and their disciplines, lexico-grammatical analysis to identify vocabulary and grammatical features typically required to pursue academic endeavors, and move analysis of research articles to help students understand rhetorical structures of their disciplines (e.g., Hyland, 2008; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2011; Ward, 2009). In writing instruction, vocabulary and rhetorical structure are important aspects defining a genre (Hyland, 2007), which in turn is an essential concept in English for Specific Purposes (ESP). ESP is an umbrella category comprising EAP and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), that usually succeeds EGP in English education (see Figure 1).





Note. The dotted line indicates a continuum.

Figure 1. Classification and sequence of English from EGP to EAP.

Many studies have been conducted on ESP—independently in each discipline—to understand and formulate professional discourses that help learners become members of the target discourse community. However, there has been a lack of empirical research on the overlap between EGP and EAP. As shown in Figure 1, EGP and EAP form a continuum with supposedly overlapping linguistic features and pedagogy (Tajino & Suiko, 2005). Within EAP, this overlap is observed in English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), English common to all disciplines, as opposed to English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), English specific to particular disciplines. Only a few studies have investigated texts that are produced by L2 university students in first-year writing courses, who can be defined as novice EAP learners. For example, Staples and Reppen (2016) studied the phrasal and clausal features, Lee and Deakin (2016) studied the interpersonal meta-discourse, and Bychkovska and Lee (2017) evaluated lexical bundles in the writings of first-year L2 university students. Even fewer research exists on the written products of pre-university students (Cheung & Low, 2019). Therefore, there is insufficient knowledge on the linguistic and structural characteristics of end-stage EGP writing and introductory EAP writing. Based on this background, the study has tried to identify characteristics that are situated between EGP and EAP to suggest pedagogical frameworks that facilitate the transition from the former to the latter.

In Japanese tertiary education, the importance of EAP education has been recognized since the 2000s. However, difficulties have been reported in transitioning from high school general English to EAP in universities which is defined as “teaching English with the aim of facilitating learners’ study or research in that language” (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002, p. 2). English taught in Japanese high schools is considered EGP, and writing instruction has tended to center on producing grammatically correct sentences, in part to prepare students for university entrance examinations. Thus, although they are called writing exercises, they could in fact be considered grammar exercises. Another objective of writing instruction in high schools is improving communicative skills. Students are encouraged to express their feelings and opinions in correct English using a required and often limited number of words. In many first-year EAP writing classes in Japan, students begin by learning how to write academic paragraphs while considering the reader and applying critical thinking (Maswana et al., 2020; Watari & Maswana, 2017). EGP and EAP are supposedly linked in their linguistic features and teaching, but writing instruction in high school is quite different from EAP writing. Furthermore, providing materials and instructions that are appropriate to novice EAP learners in the Japanese context is challenging because empirical research on the writing of pre-university students is limited, and there is a paucity of available EAP resources with which teachers can plan effective teaching (Iijima et al., 2016). Therefore, this study has attempted to identify the connection, and the gap, between EGP and EAP (the overlap depicted in Figure 1) by analyzing the vocabulary and rhetorical structures in essays written by Japanese high school students—soon to be EAP learners. The findings are expected to encourage teachers to become aware of the overlap between EGP and EAP in EFL environments such as Japan.

Literature Review

Importance of Academic Vocabulary

Considering the continuum between EGP and EAP, novice EAP students seem to have ample knowledge of general vocabulary, which is defined as “common vocabulary items that occur frequently across different texts” (Brezina & Gablasova, 2015, p. 1). These words constitute a huge part of the running words in both spoken and written texts, and thus students are likely to encounter them in all kinds of uses of the language (Nation, 2001). A number of scholars have developed the lists of general vocabulary, including West’s (1953) General Service List (GSL), Browne, Culligan, and Phillips’s (2013a) New General Service List (NGSL), and Brezina and Gablasova’s (2015) New General Service List (new-GSL). Following the above definition, these general vocabulary lists consist of similar number of words around 2,000. They can be used for vocabulary learning by EGP students, for the selection of teaching vocabulary by teachers and textbook writers, and for the development of specialized vocabulary lists by researchers, such as academic or technical vocabulary lists (Brezina & Gablasova, 2015).

Academic vocabulary refers to “items which are widespread in academic discourse, but not very frequent in general English ([for example] *establish, evidence*)” (Charles & Pecorari, 2016, p. 110). Based on this definition, some researchers have developed academic word lists, such as Coxhead’s (2000) Academic Word List (AWL), Gardner and Davies’s (2014) Academic Vocabulary List (AVL), and Browne, Culligan, and Phillips’s (2013b) New Academic Word List (NAWL). AWL comprises 570 word families that account for 10% of the vocabulary used in academic writing and is based on GSL, which contains 2,284 general high frequency words. AWL has been recognized as a representative academic word list and used in English language research and education for over a decade (Coxhead, 2011). Recently, use of the word families and age of the AWL corpus underwent careful scrutiny. Consequently, based on an updated corpus, AVL and NAWL were developed using lemmas instead of word families.

Learning academic vocabulary from these word lists plays an important role in students’ academic life. Since academic reading and writing are directly related to academic success, several studies have investigated the frequency of academic vocabulary’s occurrence in a variety of academic texts. Knowledge of academic vocabulary seems to be an indispensable component in reading academic texts across disciplines because research suggests that covering 98% of the words is necessary to sufficiently understand written texts (Nation, 2001). Research on an incoming batch of university students, whose L1 is English, revealed 6.74% use of AWL words in their essays (Douglas, 2013). Deveci (2015) analyzed the essays written by university students studying English in the UAE and revealed that 9.8% of the words used in the essays corresponded with the AWL. Additionally, the quality of academic writing may be influenced by the frequency of using academic vocabulary (Lavallée & McDonough, 2015). Research has also suggested that the frequency of using academic vocabulary may be higher as writers become more familiar with academic discourse (Chen & Baker, 2010).

It is important to conduct research on expert EGP students as well as novice EAP students to understand the continuum between EGP and EAP. As one of the few vocabulary studies on the link between EGP and EAP, Coxhead, Stevens, and Tinkle (2010) examined the coverage of academic vocabulary in textbooks. In secondary science textbooks, the coverage is 7.05%, which is about 2% lower than the coverage in university science textbooks. However, little research has examined the use of academic vocabulary in essays written by EGP writers. Therefore, one of the research questions in this study is: what is the frequency of occurrence of academic vocabulary in advanced EGP students’ writing?

Importance of Rhetorical Structures

Analysis of the rhetorical structure is often conducted in research on ESP/EAP genre writing for pedagogical purposes. In EAP writing, knowledge of the rhetorical structures is important to join the discourse community of a target genre because these structures are created and shared by community

members. In fact, writing according to the norms of the discourse community differentiates EAP writing from EGP writing. Writing instruction that attends to the distinctive textual patterns of a particular genre has proven effective in a range of writing classrooms around the world (Chen & Su, 2011; Cheng, 2008; Flowerdew, 2000; Lap & Truc, 2014).

Previous genre-based researchers, including those mentioned in the previous section, referred to the communicative functional unit, proposed by Swales (1990), called a move to examine the sequencing of an academic text and deemed it useful for systematically describing and learning texts of different academic and professional genres. Moves are identified based on their communicative purposes and linguistic features, and a text is composed of a series of moves that students need to understand (Graff & Birkenstein, 2009; Swales, 1990). In a particular genre, discourse community members determine and share a move structure, but it is often not obvious enough for outsiders or even members to articulate. Genre analysts usually code sample genre texts manually to determine obligatory and optional moves and steps (a smaller segment that constitutes a move) using a manageable number of texts and multiple coders to verify the coding (Kanoksilapatham, 2005). Seminal examples include the move analyses of research article introductions by Swales (1990) and fundraising letters by Bhatia (1998). Swales (1990) proposed Create a Research Space (CARS) model that illustrates the conventional move structures of the introduction section. If a genre has an established move framework such as the CARS model, researchers use this as a coding framework and make necessary modifications based on the corpus used for the target study. In the genre-based approach to writing, many teachers explicitly teach a target genre's move structure prescriptively (Hyland, 2007) and try to improve students' genre awareness, including their understanding of why the particular move structure is used.

However, little research has been conducted in Japan that examines the rhetorical structure of essays written by high school students using the concept of move and an EAP perspective. Although high school essays themselves do not necessarily constitute a genre, essays are considered to have genres based on rhetorical patterns such as descriptive, narrative, and argumentative essay genres, which are usually written by secondary and tertiary school students. In writing research, argumentative essays are regarded as key essay genre texts in both EGP and EAP (e.g., Hyland, 1990; Lap & Truc, 2014; Schneer, 2014; Staples & Reppen, 2016). As in any other genre texts, rhetorical structure is a crucial component for determining the quality of argumentative essays (Vögelin et al., 2020). There is a generally agreed rhetorical structure for argumentative essays, consisting of three stages: thesis, argument, and conclusion, by writing researchers and academic writing textbooks (e.g., Hyland, 1990; Kamimura, 2000; Oshima & Hogue, 2014, 2017). L1 influence is also reported on the organization of argumentative essays, particularly for Asian learners, including Japanese EFL students. Some students tend to write inductively and do not place thesis statements at the beginning (Husin & Ariffin, 2012; Kubota, 1998).

Among the studies on argumentative essays, Hyland (1990) offers a comprehensive framework of rhetorical structure based on move analysis of highly rated essays written by secondary school students in Papua New Guinea. The 3-stage 12-move framework has also been employed in rhetorical analysis of argumentative essays written by university students (e.g., Osman, 2018; Pramoolsook & Qian, 2013). Advanced EGP students are potential EAP learners; therefore, analyzing the organization of the essays written by them would further the knowledge on transitioning from EGP to EAP. Thus, the other research question explored in this study is: what move structures are utilized in essays written by advanced EGP students in Japan?

Methods

Data Sources

To answer the abovementioned two research questions, we collected 44 essays that were submitted to a high school English essay contest in Japan between 2015 to 2019, held by the Institute for International Business Communication. We chose essays submitted to this contest that designated the topic of "familiar

cross-cultural experience that changed me.” Because we utilized essays the organization awarded for excellence, we can assume that the high school student writers of the essays possess relatively advanced English writing proficiency among the student population in Japan. The average length of the essays was 662.38 words ($SD = 50.44$).

Vocabulary Profiling

In this study, NAWL and NGSL were used as reference lists to analyze academic vocabulary coverage in students’ essays. NGSL was developed to revise GSL and expand the size of its corpus. NAWL and NGSL are complimentary lists with no overlaps or repeating words. To compare the results of this study to those conducted previously using GSL and AWL, all the words in NGSL, NAWL, and students’ essays were converted into word families corresponding with Nation’s (2012) BNC/COCA word family lists consisting of twenty-five 1,000-word-families from the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). These were then ranked based on their dispersion and frequency in the corpora. As a result, NGSL and NAWL have 2,367 and 701 word families, respectively. The present study used AntWordProfiler (Anthony, 2014) as a vocabulary profiling tool, which is capable of profiling target texts with any number of word lists. First, the students’ essays were profiled using NGSL and NAWL, and then using BNC/COCA to account for words that did not occur in NGSL and NAWL.

Move Analysis

Following Swales (1990), we categorized the EGP essays into moves—units that have particular communicative functions—to conduct a rhetorical analysis. We found no move framework specifically made for essays that are not necessarily argumentative, as in this study. However, Hyland’s argumentative essay structure model (1990) seemed applicable with the first pilot coding. We conducted a second pilot coding to adapt Hyland’s framework to the essays in this study. Based on the second pilot coding, Move 3, which was the “positive gloss and brief support of proposition,” was eliminated from the original structure of the model because it was not found in any of the essays and was unlikely to be in other essays in the study. Using the modified 3-stage 12-move framework of the argumentative essay summarized in Table 1, 44 essays were coded into moves independently by the two authors. Following the process of coding, the coders discussed any discrepancies in coding and finalized the results.

TABLE 1
Move Framework for Essays (Adapted from Hyland, 1990, p. 69)

Move	Stage
1 Gambit: Attention grabber—controversial statement or dramatic illustration.	1. Thesis. Introduces the proposition to be argued.
2 Information: Presents background material for the contextualization of the topic.	
3 Proposition: Presents the proposition/thesis.	
4 Marker: Introduces and/or identifies a list.	
5 Marker: Signals the introduction of a claim and relates it to the text.	2. Argument. Discusses grounds for thesis.
6 Restatement: Rephrasing or repetition of the proposition.	
7 Claim: States reason for acceptance of the proposition. Typically based on a. Strength of perceived shared assumptions. b. A generalization based on data or evidence. c. Force of conviction.	
8 Support: States the grounds which underpin the claim. Typically, a. Explicating assumptions used to make claim. b. Providing data or citing references.	
9 Marker: Signals concluding boundary.	
10 Consolidation: Presents the significance of the argument stage to the proposition.	
11 Affirmation: Restates proposition.	3. Conclusion. Synthesizes discussion and affirms the validity of the thesis.
12 Close: Widens contexts or perspective of proposition.	

Results

Vocabulary Profile of Students' Essays

Profiling 44 essays resulted in a corpus of 29,145 running words. As reported in Table 2, on an average, 90.30% of each essay was covered by NGSL and 1.52% was covered by NAWL. The remaining 8.18% was not found on either NGSL or NAWL. The Off List category was even greater than NAWL.

TABLE 2
Percentage Coverage of NGSL, NAWL, and Off List

	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
NGSL	78.63	95.09	90.30	3.60
NAWL	0.00	3.26	1.52	0.81
Off List	3.55	19.85	8.18	3.38

As reported in Table 3, the Off List included 1,669 words, over half of which were excluded from the frequency analysis because they were regarded as proper nouns, Japanese alphabetizations, numbers, days and months, exclamations, and abbreviations. The remaining 46.02% of the words were divided into three categories from the perspective of frequency. According to Schmitt and Schmitt (2014), the 3,000 most frequent word families are defined as high-frequency words, while word families beyond the 9,000 frequency band are labeled as low-frequency words. Additionally, mid-frequency words are defined as the vocabulary between high- and low-frequency words. Of the words in Off List, 10.67% were classified as high-frequency words, 24.57% as mid-frequency words, and 10.78% as low-frequency words.

TABLE 3
Components of the Words in the Off List

Category	Example	Number of Words	%
Proper Noun	Japan, Marco	717	42.96
Japanese Alphabetization	Atarimae, Bonsai	99	5.93
Number	three, four	64	3.83
Day and Month	January, Monday	13	0.78
Exclamation	Ah, Oh	4	0.24
Abbreviation	MSG, P.E.	4	0.24
High-frequency Word	heritage, desperate	178	10.67
Mid-frequency Word	handicap, precious	410	24.57
Low-frequency Word	chopstick, jamboree	180	10.78
Total		1,669	100

Rhetorical Structures of Students' Essays

The results indicated an average move sequence of 7.20 (*SD* = 1.65). Table 4 summarizes all the move sequences found in the essays.

TABLE 4
Move Sequences of Each Essay

Essay No.	Move Sequence	Essay No.	Move Sequence
E1	1-2-3-5-7-10-12	E23	1-2-3-7-10-12
E2	1-3-7-5-7-10-12	E24	1-2-3-4-7-10-12
E3	1-2-3-7-10-12	E25	1-2-7-5-7-10-12
E4	2-1-3-7-10-12	E26	1-2-3-7-5-7-10-12
E5	1-2-7-5-7-10-12	E27	1-2-3-7-5-7-10-12
E6	1-2-3-7-10-12	E28	1-2-3-7-8-10-12
E7	1-2-3-7-5-7-5-7-10-12	E29	1-2-3-7-10-12
E8	1-2-3-7-5-7-10-12	E30	1-2-3-7-8-7-10-12
E9	1-2-3-5-7-5-7-10-12	E31	1-2-3-7-10-12
E10	1-2-3-7-5-7-10-12	E32	1-2-3-7-10-12-11
E11	1-2-7-3-7-10-12	E33	2-3-7-10-12
E12	1-2-3-7-10-12	E34	1-2-3-7-10-12
E13	1-2-3-7-10-12	E35	1-3-2-7-5-7-5-7-10-12
E14	1-2-3-7-5-7-10-12	E36	1-2-3-7-10-12
E15	1-3-7-10-12	E37	1-3-2-7-6-7-6-10-12
E16	2-7-10-12	E38	1-3-2-7-8-7-10-12
E17	2-7-5-7-10-12	E39	1-2-3-5-7-5-7-5-7-10-12
E18	1-3-4-5-7-5-7-5-7-10-12	E40	1-2-3-2-7-10-12
E19	1-7-3-7-10	E41	1-2-3-8-7-10-12
E20	1-2-3-7-5-7-9-10-12	E42	1-2-3-5-7-5-7-9-10-12
E21	1-3-4-7-10-12	E43	1-2-7-1-7-1-7-1-7
E22	1-2-3-4-7-10-12	E44	1-2-3-7-10

Table 5 depicts the range and frequency of each move in the essays. The results highlighted that Moves 1, 2, 3, 7, 10, and 12 were used in more than 89% of the essays, indicating that these six moves were obligatory for high school student essays.

TABLE 5
Range and Frequency of Each Move

Move	Range	Frequency	Average per Essay	SD
1	93%	44	1.00	0.53
2	89%	40	0.91	0.36
3	89%	39	0.89	0.32
4	9%	4	0.09	0.29
5	39%	25	0.57	0.85
6	2%	2	0.05	0.30
7	100%	72	1.64	0.75
8	9%	4	0.09	0.29
9	5%	2	0.05	0.21
10	98%	43	0.98	0.15
11	2%	1	0.02	0.15
12	93%	41	0.93	0.25

With the exception of Move 7 (used 1.6 times per essay), the frequency of these obligatory moves indicates that they are mostly used once per essay. Therefore, these six moves constitute the core of the rhetorical structure, along with a possible repetition of Move 7 and the use of other moves, like Move 5 (39% range). The most frequent move sequence is *Move 1-2-3-7-10-12*, which occurred in nine essays, followed by *Move 1-2-3-7-5-7-10-12* (repetition of Move 7 and addition of Move 5), which occurred in 5 essays. Only Move 5, among other nonobligatory moves, can qualify as an optional move for EGP high school essays. The rest (used less than 10%) can be deleted from the framework for EGP essay moves, particularly Moves 6 and 11 which were used in only one essay and thus can be considered particular to this writer.

In terms of stages, for Stage 1 (introduction), the typical move sequence used was *Move 1-2-3* (28 instances, 64%). Although the number of moves used in Stage 2 (argument) was limited, with Move 7

being the only obligatory move in the argument stage, a wider variety of move sequences was utilized for this stage compared to the other two stages, and no move sequence appeared in a majority of texts. The most frequent Stage 2 sequence was a single Move 7 (45%), followed by a repetition of Move 7 with Move 5 (36%). The repetition of Move 7 was realized as in *Move 7-5-7* (10 cases), and other sequences such as *Move 5-7-5-7* (2 cases) and *Move 7-5-7-5-7* (2 cases) were also observed. For Stage 3 (conclusion), *Move 10-12* was used in 41 essays (93%), indicating this stage has the most fixed structural sequence compared to the other two stages.

Discussion

Students' Use of Academic Vocabulary

Table 6 shows a comparison of vocabulary profiles revealed in this study with those produced by previous studies on L2 university students (Deveci, 2015) and L1 university students (Douglas, 2013). It indicates a gap between the vocabulary profiles of high school and university students.

TABLE 6
Comparison of the Results of This Study with Previous Studies

	Deveci (2015)	Douglas (2013)	This Study
General Vocabulary	83.6 (GSL)	87.65 (GSL)	90.30 (NGSL)
Academic Vocabulary	9.8 (AWL)	6.74 (AWL)	1.52 (NAWL)
Off List	6.6	5.61	8.18

Because the two previous studies used the 2,000 most frequent words in GSL and all AWL words in calculating the coverage of the texts, they cannot be simply compared to the results of the present study. However, it can be said that the high school students in the present study used general vocabulary more frequently and academic vocabulary less frequently than university students in previous studies. One possible reason for this gap could be that the Course of Study guidelines in Japan influence students' vocabulary use. Until 2019, the guidelines had set a total of 3,000 words as the standard for vocabulary to be compulsorily studied in high school. Since all the textbooks used in Japanese schools follow the guidelines, it is likely that the students do not learn words that go beyond the 3,000 frequency band. Most students submitted their essays after having corrected them based on their teachers' feedback, who may encourage them to use the textbook vocabulary. Therefore, this could be another reason explaining the frequent use of general vocabulary instead of academic vocabulary.

Also, the students used more Off List items than academic vocabulary. Especially, analysis of the Off List suggests that they used proper nouns more frequently (42.96%) than any other component of the words in the Off List. This was followed by mid-frequency words (24.57%). Using proper nouns might just be a reflection of the fact that proper nouns represent a growing area of the lexicon in general (Hanks, 2013). Similar to academic vocabulary, mid-frequency words are essential for reading authentic academic texts (Vilkaitė-Lozdienė & Schmitt, 2020). However, mid-frequency words have not been addressed well in classrooms, which utilize textbooks that do not deal with mid-frequency words systematically, and where teachers do not consciously use them in their lectures (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014). Therefore, the students in this study would not have had enough opportunity and training to learn how to use mid-frequency words.

Students' Use of Move Structures

The results indicate that the typical move structure utilized in EGP high school essays is *Move 1-2-3-7-10-12*. Based on a comparison of this with the typical essay structure, described in introductory EAP writing textbooks (e.g., Oshima & Hogue, 2017; Zemach & Ghulldu, 2011) and the original framework (Hyland, 1990) used for move coding, four major characteristics of EGP essays can be discussed.

First, most of them (93%) include Move 1, i.e., “attention grabbers such as controversial statements or dramatic illustrations.” Academic writing also recommends the use of this move to start an essay, although it is optional. Oshima and Hogue (2017), for example, mentioned several introductory paragraph styles, only one of which is an attention-getting introduction that includes a dramatic story, surprising facts, and historical background (p. 80). In the essays examined in this study, not only were attention grabbers used but also they were often in the form of questions or dramatic illustrations, for example,

Have you ever asked for gift-wrapping when you buy a souvenir abroad? (E6)

I did not know who in the world I was. It is because everyone says that different cultures are important, but in my case, I myself am what is called a different culture. (E22)

Second, moves that serve as signposts are nonobligatory. Move 3 which introduces the thesis statement, is a critical component in any essay, and 89% of the essays in this study included this move. Moves 6 and 11 are restatements of the thesis in the argument and conclusion stages, respectively; however, they were used in only one essay. Therefore, it can be assumed that restating the thesis is not emphasized in EGP essay writing. Compared to previous studies (Hirose, 2003; Kubota, 1998) on Japanese university students' position of thesis statements in their writing, this study's EGP essays employed three-stage English-style essays that included the thesis statement at the end of the introduction. However, the students did not restate the thesis to enable the reader to follow the essays easily, as is often expected in academic writing. Further, the limited use (9% and 5%) of stage markers (Moves 4 and 9, thesis and conclusion), indicates that the clear demarcation of stages, or reaffirmation of the author's thesis, is not emphasized in such essays. The exception seems to be the beginning of the argument section, which is sometimes (39%) signaled using Move 5, for example,

However, it turned out that all of my classmates, including the teacher, were against whaling. (E26)

Even within the markers corresponding with Move 5, numerical signals (e.g., First, Second, ...) that are often idiomatic in academic writings were used in only two essays. Therefore, the absence of restating the thesis and signaling words indicates that the reader of EGP essays—often teachers—focus more on understanding the students' opinions rather than assessing their conformity to an essay structure. These nonobligatory move features signify the discrepancy between EGP and introductory EAP writing, particularly because the average essay length in this study was even longer than or comparable to essay lengths in introductory EAP courses in Japan.

Third, although arguments based solely on personal experiences are accepted in the type of essays used in this study, 9% of the essays included arguments from external sources to support the writers' claims (Move 8). Using objective data obtained from external sources to justify claims is a key characteristic of academic writing and an obligatory element in the original framework.

Fourth, the conclusion comprised Moves 10 and 12, highlighting the student's main claim and opinion. In the essays, Move 7 (describing the cross-cultural experience that changed them) was followed by Move 10, whereas in the core structure of the original framework, Move 8 is the obligatory move following Move 7. Move 10 is followed by Move 12, where the students talk about the application of their experience in the future, for example,

<move:10>¹ But from my experience, I felt most strongly that there was sense of prejudice and discrimination among us that all foreigners are like this. [...] After all, their children may be crying at school because they do not understand the pages of textbook. </move:10> <mv:12>In the future, I want to be a teacher. I hope to be able to take care of many foreign children at that time. [...] This experience has made me decide to become an educator who will lead foreign children to a better

¹ <move:x> denotes the beginning of a move, and </mv:x> denotes the end.

direction and future, and I want to continue to study and work towards my dream from now on. (E30)

Despite the suggestion by the organization (conducting the essay contest) to include how they would utilize their experience in the future, we found most EGP essays summarized important emotional claims toward the end. The findings are not sufficient to indicate any L1 influence, but among the multiple strategies they could have used to close the essay, the student writers heavily employed personal statements such as what they want to do, as in the example.

Conclusion

The findings of this study provide some implications for students who transition from EGP to EAP. First, it is essential to teach academic vocabulary to advanced high school students in a specific way. Several studies have investigated the effective teaching of academic vocabulary at the university level and revealed that reading authentic academic texts, such as journal articles, enables students to understand the usage of academic vocabulary and develop lexical competence in academic contexts (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Storch & Tapper, 2009). However, this type of teaching assumes a certain level of lexical knowledge among students, and requires scaffolding to be applied to high school education. For example, given that advanced high school students know general high-frequency vocabulary, tasks that require them to convert these words into academic vocabulary, for example *gather-accumulate* and *but-nonetheless*, could be effective. Such tasks would facilitate the improvement of students' academic vocabulary, ability to read authentic academic texts, and lexical competence in an academic context. These tasks would be even more effective if we could accurately assess students' vocabulary profile before the task (e.g., whether they have knowledge of academic vocabulary but lack the ability to use it in context or they have little knowledge of academic vocabulary).

Analysis of the results has indicated that although the essays follow the three-stage essay structure, the specific rhetorical structure that is essential to follow in academic writing is not considered as a priority in EGP writing. It is neither an English version of a typical Japanese essay nor an essay that follows the typical move structure of an English essay. Therefore, it is important to teach introductory academic writing to novice EAP learners, explaining that it is the writer's responsibility to guide the reader through the essay/article by using proper signposts and restatements of the thesis. Including transitional markers to facilitate the conscious engagement of readers with the text would be the first step for novice EAP learners. The notion of the "move register," the lexico-grammatical feature of a particular move (Henry & Roseberry, 2009), can be introduced to learners to increase their awareness of the use of a set of moves typically employed in academic essays, as well as with the frequent and varied use of expressions in a particular genre. It is also important to instruct students to use external objective sources to support their opinion in academic writing. This could be realized through critical reading activities and language exercises, such as summarizing and paraphrasing the sources and critically commenting on such sources. Lastly, EAP teachers should be reflective of the differences in EGP and EAP students' writings during instruction and evaluation.

This study examined the vocabulary and rhetorical structures of high school EGP essays. Future studies on this research topic should include a larger sample. The writing samples collected for this research might not be characteristic of regular high school students in Japan because they were collected from well-written essays submitted for an essay contest. Writing samples from a wide range of students in classroom settings are important to make the research findings readily acceptable for our ultimate goal of bridging EGP in high school and EAP at the university level in Japan. A larger sample will also facilitate comprehensive and detailed analyses focusing on lexico-grammatical aspects, such as the simple syntactic and lexical constructions Hinkel (2003) used to compare L1 and L2 university students' essays and MacIntyre's (2019) use of personal pronouns to analyze longitudinal essay data on Japanese university students. In addition,

larger samples should include essays on argumentative topics, which would show more of the moves expected for a typical essay consisting of three stages. Although the number and range of essays examined in this study was limited, the results have provided important pedagogical implications that can be incorporated into the first stage of EAP writing courses in EFL contexts.

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