Korea TESOL Journal

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KOTESOL

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal: Call for Papers

The Korea TESOL Journal (KTJ), a refereed journal, welcomes previously unpublished practical and theoretical articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. The manuscript may be on an experimental analysis, a new proposal, or a critique of theories and/or practices in the field. Areas of interest include:

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Because the Korean TESOL Journal is committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to bridging theory and practice in our profession, submissions reporting must be relevant and address implications and applications of this research to teaching.

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The Korea TESOL Journal prefers that all submissions be written so that their content is accessible to a broad readership, including those individuals who may not have familiarity with the subject matter addressed. The Korea TESOL Journal is an international journal, welcoming submissions from English language learning contexts around the world, particularly those focusing upon learners from northeast Asia.

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Manuscripts are accepted for review with the understanding that the same work has not been submitted elsewhere, or previously published. It is important to include in your submission a statement indicating that the submission is neither currently being reviewed by another publication nor will be submitted for review by another publication at the same time the manuscript is being considered by Korea TESOL Journal.

The Korea TESOL Journal invites submissions in two categories: 1) Full-length articles, and 2) Brief reports and summaries. **Full-length articles** should not exceed 25 double-spaced pages (in accordance with the KTJ Specification for Manuscripts) or 8,500 words (including references, notes, and tables). **Brief reports and summaries** are short reports (less than 1,200 words) that either present preliminary findings or focus on some aspect of a larger study. Papers written in pursuit of advanced studies are appropriate for summarizations.

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Korea TESOL Journal

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About KOTESOL

Korea TESOL, Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of ELT in Korea. KOTESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an affiliate of TESOL Inc., an international education association of almost 14,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as IATEFL, an international education association of over 3,500 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE). Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals Korea TESOL shall cooperate with other groups having similar concerns.

Korea TESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL Inc. and IATEFL, but also the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), Thailand TESOL (ThaiTESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Association of the Republic of China/Taiwan), TESL Canada, Far East English Language Teachers Association (FEELTA, Russia), and most recently with the English Language and Literature Teachers Association of Singaore (ELL TAS).

The membership of Korea TESOL includes elementary, middle and high school, and university level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, material writers, curriculum developers and other interested individuals. Approximately 30% of the members are Korean.

Korea TESOL has ten chapters: Seoul, Suwon-Gyeonggi, Daejeon-Chungcheong, Daegu-Gyeongbuk, Gangwon, Jeju, Busan-Gyeongnam, Gwangju-Jeonnam, Jeonju-North Jeolla, Yongin-Gyeonggi, as well as International members. Members of Korea TESOL are from all over Korea and the globe, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a multi-cultural membership.

Visit www.kotesol.org for membership information.

Articles of Association of Revived Publication:
The Korea TESOL Journal

(대한영어교육학회 학술지*The Korea TESOL Journal* 복간 규정)

1. The Korea TESOL Journal, with this volume, declares that the official journal publication of Korea TESOL shall be revived as of April, 2011 (last publication of KTJ Volume 9 in 2007).

2. The official name of the journal shall be *The Korea TESOL Journal*, and will continue with KTJ Volume 10, Summer Issue.

3. The Korea TESOL Journal plans to publish three editions in 2011: May, September, and December, and four issues thereafter.

4. The KTJ Volume 10, Summer Issue, contains papers submitted between 2007 and 2010. The KTJ Volume 10 Autumn Issue will contain articles submitted from a Call for Papers starting from the KTJ Volume 10, Summer Issue.

Korea TESOL Journal

Korea TESOL Journal is the official scholarly journal of Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) (a membership organization) and is distributed free of charge as a service to the members of KOTESOL.

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Price: Free to Members; 10,000 won (US $10.00) to nonmembers.

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Editor's Note

Welcome to the revived publication of the Korea TESOL Journal (KTJ), Volume 10, Summer Issue. The last volume of the KTJ was published in 2006, with Volume 9, Number 1. With the encouragement and support of the current KOTESOL National President, Robert Capriles, and the National Executive Council, the KTJ Editorial Board has worked to continue the tradition of excellence pioneered by Thomas Farrell, the Editor-in-Chief of KTJ Volume 1, during the KOTESOL Presidency of Carl Dustimer. We hope that the KTJ will continue to contribute to the professional development and academic research enhancement of English teachers in and outside Korea.

The National Research Foundation (NRF) standards for awarding status-accreditation to Korean academic journals have become more demanding in recent years. The KTJ editorial board is planning to reestablish accreditation with the NRF by 2014. The KTJ is also seeking to establish a presence with the KCI (Korea Citation Index), an important criteria set by the NRF for the accreditation process. Thus, we ask the membership to join us in these efforts of enhancing the quality of KTJ. We hope that you will find this issue informative and enjoyable.

The first article is an example of Action Research where the author Deron Walker having taught at Handong Global University in Korea, extended his research to include East-Asian students (China, Japan and Korea) in this contrastive rhetoric research. This feature article finds that the scaffold instruction of Vygotskian concept helps student-centered contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction between the first language and the target language composing process.

In the second article, authored by Adcharawan Buripakdi, supports and asserts the idea of a comfort zone in composition classrooms by proposing three steps to harmonize personal writing and academic writing styles: first by promoting prejudice-free zones, second, by dispelling the low recognition of "personal writing", and third, by writing with a new view that personal writing is beautiful.

The third article, written by Su-Hie Ting, examines the difficulty with the forms and functions of English passive voice in news report encouraged by L2 learners of English. It finds the need of explicit teaching of passives in the context of relevant text-types to develop awareness of how passives are used to achieve a variety of communicative purposes.

In the fourth article, Junaidi Mistar explores the taxonomy of English learning strategies used by Indonesian senior high school students, measures the extent of use of each strategy category scales the inter-relationship of the use of the strategy taxonomy, and examines the effect of learning strategy use on English proficiency.

The fifth article is an example of the article whose authors, Massoud Yaghoubi-Notash and Shahabaddin Behtary, focus on length constraints in terms of lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy and find statistically significant variations across the two performances with regard to lexical density and lexical diversity but not grammatical accuracy.

In the sixth article, Akbar Azizifar in Iran examines the relationship sentence structure awareness and reading comprehension. He weighs the possibility that knowledge of text structure may create connections among the disciplines that could enhance understanding of content and promote thinking and reading comprehension abilities.

Finally, in the seventh article Hyonsuk Cho finds how to write coherently, to prevent plagiarism and to prevent pragmatic failure with her teaching academic writing workshops to international students at a university in the States.

Mijae Lee, Editor-in-Chief
Mee-Wha Baek, Publication Committee Chair
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New Directions for Contrastive Rhetoric Research: Three Models of Classroom Application Involving East-Asian Students

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ABSTRACT

This paper, titled "New Directions for Contrastive Rhetoric Research: Three Models of Classroom Application Involving East-Asian Students," is offered in response to a glaring problem in the field of intercultural rhetorical studies. While contrastive rhetoric has gained significant theoretical breadth, it has often been criticized for lacking practical, pedagogical relevance and specificity both in research methodology and teaching techniques, which has limited the inclusion of contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) composition classrooms. This paper examines three different studies that have facilitated contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing discussion in English composition classrooms in East-Asia (China, Japan, and Korea) or with East-Asian students: the first emphasizes ethnography in an ESL setting; the second focuses on the delivery of contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction in the native language; and, finally, the third provides an ethnographic approach to contrastive rhetoric writing instruction that reinforces the pedagogy with teacher conferencing and peer response activities. The result will be to synthesize what we know about the pedagogical application of contrastive rhetoric-oriented composition pedagogy and make specific suggestions for more cross-culturally effective writing instruction, especially applicable with East-Asian EFL university students.

INTRODUCTION

More than forty years ago, Kaplan (1966) introduced the field of contrastive rhetoric with his seminal work, "Cultural Though Patterns in Intercultural Education." After analyzing 600 essays, Kaplan identified general rhetorical patterns used in academic writing for five different culture groups. Kaplan

concluded, further, that Asian writers, whom he labeled "Oriental," tended to write academic essays in an indirect pattern. English rhetoric, according to Kaplan, followed a direct pattern that he called "linear." While Kaplan's categorizations shed a certain amount of light on cross-cultural rhetorical differences, many questions raised by Kaplan's work remained very controversial but largely unanswered.

While Kaplan's term "Oriental" was clumsy and over-generalized, subsequent research in EFL writing has supported the finding that East-Asian writers in China (Chu, Swaffar, and Charnay, 2002; Matalene, 1985; Shen, 1989) Japan (Hinds, 1983, 1987, 1990; Mok, 1993; Yoshimura, 2002), and Korea (Eggington, 1987; Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006; Yang, 2004) do frequently write academic essays in rhetorical patterns that western audiences find excessively indirect. This problem has been exacerbated in Korea (Eggington, 1987) and Japan (Yoshimura, 2002) due to a lack of explicit rhetorical instruction in both the native and foreign language writing pedagogy of these two countries. In Japan, it is further argued that students are seldom taught to write directly in English, but traditional English composition courses focus more on translating Japanese into English (Okada, Okumura, Hirota, & Tokioka, 1995; Yoshimura, 2002).

Since rhetoric is typically not taught in either Japanese or English for either L1 or L2 writing, Japanese students may struggle with basic features of English rhetoric such as thesis placement (much earlier in English than Japanese---See Appendix). Eggington (1987) noted the same phenomenon in Korea, namely a lack of rhetorical instruction, even in Korean writing classes at the secondary and tertiary levels. Eggington (1987) wrote that the lack of rhetorical instruction in Korea hurts students in their abilities to write effective academic prose in both Korean and English.

Korean students who study overseas often suffer tremendous criticism from their English teachers concerning the rhetorical features of their writing. Without explicit instruction in rhetoric, those international students may eventually implicitly acquire and internalize the rhetorical features of English. According to Eggington (1987), this becomes a problem when students return to Korea, write in an English rhetorical style in Korean, and suffer criticism for not writing well in Korean. Raising awareness of such differences has been observed to have the potential for improving English academic writing ability to a significant degree in both Korea (Eggington, 1987; Walker, 2004; 2005, 2006; Yang, 2004) and Japan (Yoshimura, 2002).

Despite the clumsy over-generalizations found in Kaplan's (1966) pioneering article in the field of contrastive rhetoric, his original goal was pedagogically valuable. As Kaplan (1966, p. 4) put it, the academic English compositions of second language writers, even those writers of advanced English proficiency, "often seem out of focus" when first language (L1) rhetorical patterns are transferred into their English writing. Kaplan (1966), then, despite the endless controversies surrounding contrastive rhetoric, was primarily concerned with enabling second language writers to overcome negative transfer issues of rhetorical patterns that seem awkward to the English reader of academic English writing. Unfortunately, Kaplan has spent much of the last forty years defending his original position. Over twenty years after the original article, Kaplan (1988) stated in his own words:

> *What was being sought…was some clear-cut unambiguous difference between English and any other given language, the notion being that any such clear-cut difference might provide the basis for pedagogical approaches that would solve —within the normative academic space of one or two semesters —the writing problems of speakers of other languages trying to learn to function in written English in the peculiar constraints of tertiary-level education in the United States.* (p. 278)

The implications, then, of Kaplan's work are clear. Contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction could have the potential to empower international students studying in the United States to write rhetorically improved English academic essays. By delineating patterns of rhetoric, Kaplan also hoped to overcome the stigmatizing assumptions that American educators typically make about the cognitive abilities of students who fail to meet their expectations.

Moving forward, it might be said that the 1980s represented a golden era of contrastive rhetoric where Kaplan's theories of rhetorical differences were generally supported in China (Matalene, 1985), Japan (Hinds, 1983, 1987, 1990) and Korea (Eggington, 1987). Nevertheless, in the 1990s the pendulum swung back the other way with a countercurrent of criticism. Many ESL writing researchers in the United States began to raise legitimate concerns that contrastive rhetoric might be misused to label, stereotype, or stigmatize students. If misused, contrastive rhetoric could be distorted to make over-generalized assumptions about students' L1 languages and cultures and ignore their individual differences (Kubota, 1997; 1998; Spack, 1997). These have been the most serious and valid

concerns about contrastive rhetoric in my opinion. Nevertheless, linguist Deborah Tannen (1985) has noted that some people object to any research that delineates cross-cultural differences since it may be viewed as stereotyping. Notwithstanding, Tannen (1985) argued that ignoring cultural differences leads to miscommunication and misunderstanding and to "discrimination of another sort." (p. 212)

I have spent many years teaching English composition and writing intensive content courses at four different public and private universities and colleges in the United States and two more universities in South Korea. Everywhere I have traveled, I have encountered the same rhetorical dilemmas among East-Asian students, often Koreans, who seem to be experiencing the types of negative transfer effects cited by Kaplan (1966). Likewise, in the absence of contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction, I have frequently observed the same stereotypical, speculative responses that unduly stigmatize international students as being cognitively deficient and incapable of critical thinking when these students fail to meet their instructors' rhetorical expectations in English, as they often do. My own in-depth investigation of criticisms of contrastive rhetoric led me to the conclusion that most of the more vocal and extreme versions of criticisms were somewhat biased by romantic western notions of expressivism, individualism and postmodern-based thinking (Walker, 2008) or by misapplication of Said-style postcolonial criticism to contrastive rhetoric theory and research (Walker, 2010). I have further concluded that more moderate critiques of contrastive rhetoric have proved helpful in refining the theory and method of the field while hypercriticism has merely polarized scholars and inhibited the field's development, especially in terms of developing pedagogically-oriented studies that would allow for contrastive rhetoric to find a home in the writing curriculum and classroom. This inhibition has been most unfortunate as the study of intercultural rhetoric, as it is now being termed, would appear to hold great potential for raising awareness among both second language writers and instructors concerning cross-cultural rhetorical issues applicable to second language writing.

Whatever limitations and disappointments people may attribute to contrastive rhetoric, I believe that part of the problem is that the expectations for contrastive rhetoric have been too high. Many critics seem to be searching for the perfect method of teaching second language writing, the holy-grail. I would contend that as with whole language reading instruction, which is also widely misunderstood in

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its application, it would be more helpful to think of contrastive rhetoric as an approach and not a specific method. As Casanave (2004) reported in her chapter on the subject, not all of the tenets of the field are testable. Contrastive rhetoric has always been a "descriptive project" (Casanave, 2004, p. 33). Grabe and Kaplan (1996) explained:

> *What is clear is that there are rhetorical differences in the written discourses of several languages, and that those differences need to be brought to consciousness before a writer can begin to understand what he or she must do in order to write in a more native-like manner (or in a manner that is more acceptable to native speakers of the target language).* (p. 198)

While I share the legitimate concerns of my colleagues about stereotyping, I concur with Yoshimura (2002) that writing instruction that follows a contrastive rhetoric-orientation need not be a negative experience for students or make them feel bad about their L1 backgrounds. I have reached the same conclusion as Eggington (1987) and Yoshimura (2002) have about English composition in Korea and Japan, respectively. Rhetorical style is bidirectional, neither superior nor inferior, and must focus on audience expectations (Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006). Thus, an American writing in Korean or Japanese would need to write in a Korean or Japanese style of rhetoric in order to be an effective writer in that language. Reading theorists inform us that rhetorical style of academic writing is not only a preference (Hinds, 1983) but also a factor that powerfully impacts reading comprehension (Chu, Swaffar, and Charnay, 2002; Eggington, 1987).

I also agree with Yoshimura (2002) that contrastive rhetoric instruction may be more important in EFL settings where students have far fewer chances to practice the language and immerse themselves in the target culture. Moreover, teachers in ESL settings often have too many students from divergent backgrounds and might find it too difficult to deliver contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction effectively. Nevertheless, in the following paper I will present three models of contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction that have produced promising results: one ESL and two EFL.

New Directions: Classroom Applications

Both Connor (2002, 2004) and Atkinson (2004) have recently asserted that contrastive rhetoric research needs to be more context sensitive, go beyond text

analysis, and include increasingly complex and dynamic definitions of culture. Notwithstanding, neither of these leading scholars provides much in the way of specific direction for teaching contrastive rhetoric-oriented academic essay writing, especially in East-Asian contexts. Connor (2004) stated, "EAP classes teach other types of writing besides the student essay writing required in college classes" (p. 293). Connor (2004) focused more on specialized English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses such as business letter writing and grant proposal writing. Connor's interests in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing contexts are also quite advanced as well (composing research articles and reports). While it is laudatory that Connor suggests approaches beyond those basic writing courses that teach English academic essay writing, many English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, at least in EFL settings such as Korea, China, and Japan, are in fact concerned with teaching students to do the kind of academic, expository writing required in college essays. Those are very important classes and should not be overlooked.

Atkinson's work (2004, p.278) was, in his own words, "unapologetically theoretical" and made no attempt to situate contrastive rhetoric in practical pedagogical terms. Because of the previously cited paucity of practical, pedagogically-applicable, contrastive rhetoric-oriented research in EFL settings for academic, expository writing classes, this article will be "unapologetically pedagogical." Nevertheless, both of the aforementioned researchers have offered some broad methodological guidelines that are helpful. Atkinson (2004) and Connor (2004) both remind us of the complexity of culture and caution us against adopting a received view of culture that focuses only on "big" culture (national/ethnic).

Atkinson (2004) echoed Matsuda (1997) and spelled out the need for adopting a more dynamic concept of culture, reminding us of the many cultural influences affecting an individual's complex identity: youth culture, professional culture, and classroom culture, in addition to national culture. Nevertheless, Connor (2004) offered more in terms of practical methodological guidelines for research in contrastive rhetoric that may have pragmatic application in composition classrooms. Specifically, Connor (2004) recommended both quantitative and qualitative methods be used. Indeed, naturalistic/ethnographic approaches seem well suited to exploring the complexity of cross-cultural communication, taking a dynamic approach to culture, and remaining context sensitive. Liebman (1988) conducted such a naturalistic study, in which she turned her students into

ethnographers as they responded directly to Kaplan's (1966) original assertions about rhetorical differences among culture groups with impressive results which were balanced and insightful.

In the following section, I will introduce three models of pedagogically-based research that have successfully employed contrastive rhetoric in classroom situations. The first model involves an ESL setting but could be applied anywhere. The latter two discuss different EFL settings in East-Asia.

THREE CLASSROOM RESEARCH MODELS

Liebman's ESL Use of Ethnography

Connor's (2004) call for ethnographic study was not an original idea. It echoes the work of Liebman (1988), who turned her students into ethnographers in revisiting and critiquing Kaplan's original article in contrastive rhetoric more than twenty years ago. Liebman (1988) was both researcher and participant in her naturalistic inquiry in which she turned two freshman writing classes, one native English Speaking (NES) and one English as a Second language (ESL), into researcher-participants as well. Liebman's classes explored "whether different communities have different rhetorics, and if so, how they differed" (1988, p. 7) by doing five formal writing assignments on intercultural communication that included a summary of Kaplan's (1966) article and a second paper either supporting or critiquing his views.

The student ethnographers in this study reached mixed conclusions which neither confirmed nor denied the tenets of contrastive rhetoric conclusively, but seemed to enlarge all participants' vision of it, even Liebman's (1988). In fact, many students were supportive of Kaplan's (1966) ideas. Most notably, it is interesting that all three Japanese students in Liebman's (1988) study confirmed the indirectness of Japanese rhetoric. All three students indicated that indirectness was taught in Japanese, attaching it to Japanese notions of politeness. One student, Junko Tanaka, elaborated, "[The Japanese] prefer to be modest and polite, what we call the old-fashioned way" (Liebman, 1988, p. 10). These cultural and historical explanations of Japanese academic writing conventions were consistent with what researchers have said about Chinese (Matalene, 1985; Shen, 1989), Japanese (Hinds, 1983, 1987, 1990; Yoshimura, 2002), and Korean (Eggington,

1987, Walker, 2005, 2006) compared to American English conventions of academic rhetoric. Nevertheless, students were not unequivocal in their support of Kaplan's work (1966) but expressed many feelings of ambivalence about Kaplan's conclusions. One student, Kazumi Mase, summed up the complexity of the topic well:

> *My first idea [when reading Kaplan] about linguistics was that a person that doesn't speak a language can never understand the structure of that language. However, as I've done my research I understand that my idea about the language was wrong. Although I've been speaking Japanese more than twenty years, I had never noticed that Japanese was such an indirect language until I researched it by myself.* (Liebman, 1988, p. 11)

This is the type of response that I have often heard over the years whenever discussing the topic of intercultural rhetoric. Students or educators often become angry if they believe their languages or cultures are being criticized or stereotyped as one might expect. Notwithstanding, if engaged in lengthy, thought-provoking student-centered study, students will often acknowledge, even appreciate that important differences do exist among various rhetorical communities (Walker, 2005, 2006). These rhetorical differences not only hold implications for our audience preferences for writing styles but the variations in audience rhetorical expectation often leads to interference in reading comprehension as well (Chu, Swaffar, and Charnay, 2002; Eggington, 1987). Interestingly, many Arabic students agreed with Kaplan that their rhetoric was full of parallel structure as Kaplan (1966) had suggested of the Middle East, using the Bible as an example. One of Liebman's (1988) Arabic students attributed this parallelism and coordination of ideas to the influence of the *Quran* on his writing.

Conversely, many students voiced at least some disagreement with Kaplan (1966): half of the ESL students and two-thirds of NES students dissented. Liebman (1988) indicated that many of these students basically agreed with Kaplan but took exception to some of his methods and ideas. Largely, the students' criticisms are similar to those voiced by Kaplan's (1966) scholarly critics contending that his original ideas concerning contrastive rhetoric were over-generalized, too simplistic, product-centered, and more focused on ideal standards rather than actual manifestations of student writing.

It also seems noteworthy that significantly more NES students were critical of Kaplan (1966) than ESL students. This is often the case among educators, too. It is

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often the ESL teachers who are most skeptical and critical of contrastive rhetoric theory (Walker, 2005, 2006; Yoshimura, 2002). ESL teacher skepticism and the NES student skepticism in Liebman's (1988) study may derive from being exposed to many different language and culture backgrounds in the same class so that L1 rhetorical patterns are difficult to identify and even harder to try to comprehend. Such skepticism may also be attributable at least in part to American ideologically ethnocentric thinking that has made some of the more adamant critics of contrastive rhetoric such as Spack (1997) and Zamel (1997) prone to "fall back on the romantic notion of the individual," according to Xiaoming Li (2008, p. 14). Americans have often been described as overestimating individualism in themselves and others (Kohls, 1995; Li, 2008; Walker, 2008, 2010). Furthermore, criticism of contrastive rhetoric has also been recently attributed to a heavy influence of postmodernist thinking (Atkinson 2004; Connor, 2004; Walker, 2008) that treats generalizations of culture with great suspicion.

At last, although the results are mixed, Liebman (1988) stated that even though she began the ethnography with a "negative view toward contrastive rhetoric" (p.16) she concluded the study with the ability to see contrastive rhetoric as "a powerful and informative concept" (p. 16). Despite allowing her "own perspective [to] creep in, for so many of the papers do reflect [her] opinion" (p. 16) Liebman (1988) concluded that the students in her classes had benefited substantially from this ethnographic approach to their writing classes and the further sharing of their ideas in teacher conferences. Liebman's method of employing ethnography and teacher conferencing would significantly influence my own quasi-experimental classroom study of contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction sixteen years later (Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006). Notwithstanding, even after all of these years, comparatively few pedagogical studies in intercultural rhetoric exist using ethnography or any other method though this trend may be changing.

Yoshimura's Use of L1 in Japan

One of a few fairly recent pedagogically relevant studies of contrastive rhetoric in East-Asia was conducted by a Japanese researcher named Toshiko Yoshimura (2002) at a private university with non-English majors. The researcher divided the subjects into three groups: one control and two experimental. One of the experimental groups wrote directly in Japanese and translated their compositions into English (J>E). The other treatment group wrote directly in English(E>E).

Interestingly, Yoshimura (2002) believed that contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction would best be delivered in Japanese. Thus, the author made sure both experimental groups received explicit instruction concerning the differences between Japanese and English rhetorical patterns and audience expectations in their native language.

Yoshimura (2002) studied 105 subjects, 74 male and 31 female, from a variety of majors studying in required general English courses at Kyoto Sangyo University, a private university in Kyoto, Japan. The researcher provided contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction in Japanese to both treatment groups. One group then wrote in Japanese and translated their essays into English (J>E). The other experimental group wrote directly in English (E>E) after receiving contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction in Japanese. The control group received no contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction and simply translated their essays from Japanese into English.

The treatment consisted of regular, formal, explicit instruction in contrastive rhetoric and the employment of an intercultural, rhetorically-based conscious-raising activity as reinforcement. Typically, in the conscious-raising activities, "good quality" American English essays were compared directly to Japanese student essays. Students, then, were to "find the gap" building on Schmidt's (1993) work, which was primarily concerned with such awareness in oral language. Yoshimura's study (2002) applied Schmidt's techniques to conscious-raising in terms of rhetorical awareness, a concept first ventured by Sengupta (1999). This teaching treatment of contrastive rhetoric was further reinforced by writing practice.

After one semester of instruction, all students were tested. The results were that both experimental groups improved their writing fluency, measured by total word production. Yoshimura (2002) found further that both treatment groups made significant improvements in their writing quality. The experimental groups improved in rhetorical proficiency and discourse level accuracy as rated by three judges. The researcher concluded that the findings reported here supported previous research in the Japanese EFL setting (Mizuno, 1995; Otaki, 1996, 1999) that "indicate the beneficial effects of explicit classroom instruction in contrastive rhetoric." (Yoshimura, 2002, p. 120)

According to Yoshimura (2002), the treatment group that wrote directly in Japanese and then translated into English (J>E) made the most significant gains qualitatively in coherence. This finding supported the work of Kobayashi and

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Rinnert (1992) who found that a higher level of writing production is achieved when low proficiency learners employ their L1 in the composition process. Nevertheless, the experimental group that wrote directly in English (E>E) made the greatest improvement in fluency. In certain areas such as coherence and fluency, the treatment group that started writing in Japanese improved more than the one that wrote directly English. Thus, Yoshimura (2002) found that the first language could facilitate positive as well as negative transfer with contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction as other researchers have also observed (Friedlander, 1990; Walker, 2005, 2006). As Yoshimura (2002) explained:

> *The use of the L1 apparently allowed the J>E group to more easily assess their own work for the rhetorical features that had been taught by their teacher.....Although the E>E group received the same instruction in contrastive rhetoric as the J>E group, the E>E group seemed to have more difficulty in applying this knowledge.* (p. 122)

Yoshimura (2002) attributed the E>E group's inability to apply contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction as well as the J>E treatment group, in a qualitative sense, to their being so distracted by vocabulary and grammar development that they could not focus on rhetorical issues. Furthermore, the researcher noted that the final English output of the J>E treatment group was only slightly behind the experimental group that wrote directly in English (E>E). Yoshimura (2002) further deduced that this result stemmed from the fact that the J>E treatment group spent their first 30 minutes translating and suggested, "their rate of writing English, once they got started, was considerably higher" (p. 123). After all, the J>E treatment group, due to the translation process, had only half as much time to write in English as the E>E experimental group (30 minutes). Yoshimura (2002) elaborated that fluency, while important, was not the main goal of the study.

In a survey at the end of the study, Yoshimura's subjects indicated that contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction helped them to write more easily, start earlier, and produce more English of a higher quality. Yoshimura (2002) expressed the belief that this result may be attributable, at least in part, to the lowering of the students' affective filters (Krashen, 1982). The researcher explained that at the beginning of the study students' affective filters had been high due to their inexperience in L2 writing (Okada et al., 1995) and their previous "form-focused" instruction, which had heightened their anxieties about making

errors. It seems that contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction gave the students more confidence when writing in English, and, as a result, helped them to relax and write more effectively.

The implications of Yoshimura's (2002) study are clear and important. As other researchers have suggested (Connor, 1996, Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006), contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction can enable students to improve their writing effectiveness, their awareness of audience expectations in the target language, and their ability to avoid negative transfer from the L1 to the L2. The other equally important implication of Yoshimura's work is that writing instructors should not prohibit students from using their first language in their writing classes, as they often do. The researcher pointed out that for low-proficiency learners, especially, the L1 could be a significant source of both comfort and assistance in tackling the enormously complex task of brainstorming, organizing, developing, and revising a composition in a second language. Thus, Yoshimura (2002) has significantly added to what we know about the potential for contrastive rhetoric-oriented composition pedagogy to be a powerful force in the EFL writing classroom in East-Asia.

Walker's Use of Teacher Conferencing and Peer Response in Korea

Sixteen years after Liebman (1988), I conducted a quantitative study of 65 university level students in six English Grammar and Composition courses at Handong Global University in South Korea (Walker, 2004, 2006). This study employed the ethnographic approach---not by studying artifacts---but by holding interactive, contrastive rhetoric-oriented discussions in teacher conferences and peer response sessions to reinforce contrastive rhetoric-oriented classroom writing instruction. This study found that contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction when reinforced in teacher conferences and peer response groups (teaching treatment) helped lower-level (<3.5 average essay ratings on 7 point scale) Korean university writers make significantly better improvements in the rhetorical quality of their English academic essay writing as compared to their control group peers, who only received contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction through classroom lectures, discussions, and written feedback on essays. While lower-level students from both the aforementioned experimental and control groups improved their essay ratings (by three judges) from pretest to post-test, the improvement in

essay ratings for those in the experimental group, who had received contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction reinforced in teacher conferences and peer response groups, measured statistically significantly higher than the more modest gains of their control group peers, who had received contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction that was delivered in classroom instruction and written feedback on essays but not reinforced in their teacher conferences and peer response sessions. This study of contrastive rhetoric teaching methods for EFL university students established that 1) contrastive rhetoric instruction, taught even through the traditional composition methods of lecture and written feedback on essays (control group), can help students write more rhetorically effective English academic essays; 2) contrastive rhetoric-oriented instruction using teacher conferencing and peer response activities in tandem can significantly increase the rhetorical quality of students' English academic essay writing, especially for lower-level English composition students (Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006).

This study's main contribution to contrastive rhetoric-oriented composition pedagogy may be the finding that contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction can be an integral part of a writing curriculum, especially when traditional lecture and written feedback are reinforced with innovative teaching techniques such as teacher conferencing and peer response. It is important to note that this effect holds substantial significance since it was the low-level students, those with the greatest need for improvement, who benefitted most from the teaching treatment. The implication of this finding is even more noteworthy because a vast majority of ESL/EFL university level writing students may indeed enter their undergraduate writing courses as low level writers, as was true in this study (41 of 65 subjects). Succinctly stated, contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction reinforced by teacher conferencing and peer response activities could be helpful to a majority of second language writing students in many contexts (Walker, 2004, 2006).

Research on teacher conferencing informs us that teacher conferences make great forums for facilitating student higher order thinking, building struggling students' confidence, and reinforcing principles of English rhetoric taught in the classroom (Carnicelli, 1980; Jacobs & Karliner, 1977; Oye, 1993; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006). Whether it is the native English speaking (NES) college freshman (Bartholomae, 1985) or the second language writer who has difficulty adjusting to the culture of American-style college education, one-on-one, "non-direct" discussions (Rogers, 1994) with students about their writing in teacher conferences can help students to internalize writing

principles and apply them to their own writing through social interaction (Newkirk, 1995; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, the forum of teacher conferencing is an ideal place for students to receive sound, individualized attention and advice about their papers and also learn to make their own rhetorical decisions regarding what would be the best way to present their ideas to a given audience.

A substantial portion of existing research in contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966; Liebman, 1988; Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006) multiculturalism (Dunn, 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Ravitch, 1990), and cooperative learning (Kagan, 1992; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Slavin, 1987) suggests that the types of small group discussions found in peer response activities on multicultural topics, in this case intercultural rhetoric, may increase the writer's awareness of audience and cross-cultural sensitivity. It stands to reason, then, that such increased awareness of audience and sensitivity toward cross-cultural issues would enhance students' proficiency in making sound rhetorical choices. Better rhetorical decision-making would then lead to improved academic writing, perhaps both in the first and second language. Notwithstanding, while there is a wide consensus in the field of composition among researchers and practitioners concerning the merits of teacher conferencing, the issue of peer response, especially in ESL/EFL writing, seems much more complicated and controversial.

Some scholars have been quite positive about the potential advantages of peer response (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994; Mittan, 1989); others have been more cautionary (Carson & Nelson, 1994, 1996; Connor & Asenavage, 1994). The Mendonca and Johnson study (1994), however, involved graduate students, not the typical undergraduate composition students who are of the greatest concern in this article. Connor and Asenavage (1994) noted in their own study that peer response had minimal impact on the revisions of the essays of the college freshmen they examined. Of even greater concern to ESL/ EFL writing instructors, especially those working with East-Asian students, is the finding that student responses to peer response activities in collectivist cultures such as Chinese, Japanese and Korean has, in many cases, ranged from lukewarm to hostile (Carson & Nelson, 1994, 1996).

Notwithstanding, the incorporation of peer response activities into the writing curriculum has become increasingly more popular in recent years, even in East-Asia. The underlying theoretical justification for this growing trend seems to be based on the Vygotskian concept that social interaction helps the student to

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internalize knowledge. In composition, for instance, this Vygotskian notion has found manifestation in Bruffee's (1986, p. 774) assertion that "new ideas are constructs generated by like-minded peers." In other words, the Vygotskian idea that social interaction helps students to internalize knowledge fits well with the composition instructor's goal to increase audience awareness among student-writers through the creation of authentic discourse communities discussing and internalizing appropriate standards of academic writing. When peer response activities work well, they offer students more opportunities to explore ideas and exercise higher order thinking skills, take a more active role in their learning, and become more adept at negotiating and expressing their ideas (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994). Peer response activities may also enable students to gain a greater sense of audience through peer feedback, hone critical thinking skills needed to analyze and revise writing, and gain greater confidence in their own work by observing, first-hand, the difficulties that other students are having with their own writing.

On the other hand, Carson and Nelson (1994, 1996) have found that students from collectivist cultures may respond differently, seeing peer response activities as either unhelpful or even intimidating. In collectivist cultures, it has been often observed that students may tend to give only positive feedback in order to keep harmony in the group and avoid embarrassing a group member, especially one senior in status. Another limitation found in peer response activities is that students who are unsure of what they are doing tend to make only surface corrections to the papers they review and offer few, if any, helpful suggestions regarding rhetoric or content (Leki, 1990). This conclusion concurs with Connor and Asenavage's (1994) disappointing finding that little revision came from peer comments (5%) in their study.

In my own experience, peer response sometimes works well, and at other times it does not (Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006). I have found in my own classes that peer response works much better when a lot of time and energy is taken to set it up. Students respond better when instructors thoroughly explain the expectations of the peer response activity; inform students of the benefits of doing peer response; outline the role of students as friendly coaches giving advice (not as overbearing teachers); explain why both positive and corrective comments are helpful to their peers; admonish peer reviewers to go beyond making surface corrections; help students be immersed into the activity by teaching them to prioritize feedback; and provide students checklists that explicitly state clear criteria for good writing. It

also helps to allow students to be introduced to peer response by initially working on neutral papers, ones that do not come from their peers. This allows students to gradually adjust to the idea of critiquing more easily.

Pedagogical Principles for Classroom Implementation

What do these studies tell us about implementing intercultural rhetorical instruction in our second language writing classrooms? These studies illustrate many principles and techniques that we can use to help raise students' awareness of cross-cultural aspects of written communication in particular. Employing intercultural rhetorically-oriented writing instruction with the help of these techniques can enable students to better comprehend how rhetorical styles vary among writers from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and how these differences impact clear communication in writing. While lecturing about and discussing these differences in writing classes may be helpful, clearly, more in-depth writing instruction is necessary for students to reinforce and internalize contrastive rhetoric principles and the variance of rhetorical preferences across cultures so that they can compose rhetorically smoother English essays, as was the case in the three studies discussed in this article (Liebman, 1988; Walker, 2006; Yoshimura, 2002).

This intercultural rhetorically-oriented writing instruction should begin in a student-centered manner. One could begin as Liebman (1988) did by turning students into ethnographers to reexamine and analyze the findings of other scholars in intercultural rhetoric such as Kaplan (1966) or someone more recent. Students could compare the claims of previous contrastive rhetoric researchers with their own essay papers and writing instruction that they had growing up and synthesize their results into a research paper. In addition to learning about intercultural rhetoric, students would learn very valuable critical thinking and research skills. Students could discover the similarities and differences of rhetorical styles on their own, with gentle guidance from their instructors, which would help them to internalize cross-cultural conventions of academic writing.

This ethnographic study can be reinforced in a variety of ways. Teacher conferencing and peer response seem like fruitful ways to facilitate the student-ethnographic self-discovery process with gentle mentoring and non-direct instruction to promote the independent learning of the student. As Liebman's (1988) and Walker's (2006) studies have suggested, students respond better to

intercultural rhetoric if they are allowed to make discoveries for themselves. Instructors may simply act as sounding boards and facilitate discussion with intercultural rhetorically-oriented questions, perhaps from a checklist. For instance, if the student's thesis or essay organization does not follow a "linear" type of English style, the student might be asked if s/he was using the kind of writing style that s/he commonly uses when writing in Korean. That is, some of the outstanding features of student writing might be purposefully discussed contrastively during peer response and teacher conferencing sessions with the help of checklists, rubrics or guided questions.

As discussed earlier, teacher conferences make great forums for facilitating student higher order thinking, building struggling students' confidence, and reinforcing principles of English rhetoric taught in the classroom (Carnicelli, 1980; Jacobs & Karliner, 1977; Oye, 1993; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006). Whether it is the native English speaking (NES) college freshman (Bartholomae, 1985) or the second language writer who has difficulty adjusting to the culture of American-style college education, one-on-one, "non-direct" discussions (Rogers, 1994) with students about their writing in teacher conferences can help students to internalize writing principles and apply them to their own writing through social interaction (Newkirk, 1995; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978). Research on the value of teacher conferencing, conducted through non-direct instruction, speaks with a virtual consensus as to the value of teacher conferencing to facilitate higher order critical thinking and discovery learning. My experience as a practitioner has been very consistent with these findings.

Succinctly stated, peer response has also demonstrated great potential as it was an important part of Walker's (2006) intercultural rhetorically-focused teaching treatment in South Korea. This effect can be enhanced by tapping into the first language skills as in Yoshimura's (2002) study. One problem that I have found with peer response in EFL settings is that often students do not have sufficient oral English communication skills to discuss the complex ideas in their writing in the target language (L2). Thus, while students could be encouraged to do their best to discuss ideas in English, they might be permitted to use the L1 when necessary, even code-switching back to the first language (L1) as needed. A bilingual instructor could be most helpful, especially with low-level English learners in basic or intermediate English writing courses. I personally taught such courses as mandatory curriculum for students at Handong Global University in 2004-2005

and saw the potential of using the first language in the writing class with bilingual instructors first-hand. Even a native English speaking instructor could allow the students in peer response the freedom and trust to communicate in their native language. Groups could be monitored with a bilingual assistant or even better an instructor with even rudimentary skills in the student's first language should be able to tell if students are on task or not, even if their ability to assist students could be more limited.

Using the first language (L1) orally could build a bridge in peer response to writing in the second language and thus could ease some of the stress students have with the activity if their speaking skills in English are limited. Moreover, as in Yoshimura's (2002) study, students might be allowed to write a first draft of their essay (especially at beginner and intermediate levels) or at least their prewriting invention exercises (e.g. brainstorming, freewrites, etc.) in their native language so that they get their ideas on paper quickly and easily. The relative ease of putting ideas on the paper in the early stages of writing should facilitate an easier and more comfortable drafting process which may provide a student with more time and energy for drafting and revising the paper in English. Plus, bilingual tutors in a writing center would, then, be better able to help the student to write or revise successfully as the L1 prewrite could help bilingual tutors or peer reviewers to better understand what idea the student-writer was trying to communicate in the essay.

CONCLUSION

In summary, student-centered contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction using ethnography, where students become investigators, or even a more traditional intercultural rhetorically-oriented approach to writing instruction, reinforced by teacher conferencing and peer response, perhaps using some inclusion of students' L1, can help scaffold instruction between the first language and the target language composing process. Such writing instruction can help students feel empowered in English academic writing courses to be able to bridge the gap between the rhetorical conventions of their first language and culture with the expectations of the target audience when writing in English (Liebman, 1988; Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006; Yoshimura, 2002). While a student-centered implementation of contrastive rhetorical-oriented instruction with the

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aforementioned techniques requires some sophistication on the part of the practitioner, these three studies demonstrated that it can be effectively performed by reasonably qualified personnel. More pedagogically-focused study should be done in implementing contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction at the university level, but this article should make a valuable contribution in that direction.

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APPENDIX

Contrastive Rhetoric Features: Some Observed Differences between East-Asian and American English Expository Academic Essay Writing

1. "Delayed entry of purpose"
2. Defining the thesis by what it is NOT
3. Insertion of seemingly unrelated sub-themes (without transitions)
4. Lack of connection between points
5. Excessive indirectness or specific to general development: Conclusions not specific, explicit, no closure---too open-ended
6. Expository writing more "artistic" or "poetic" than "functional"
7. Insufficient supporting evidence, consideration of multiple points of view; relies heavily on author experience
8. Reader friendly or writer-typology?
9. Writing that gives more deference to the distant past and authority

(Chu, Swaffar, & Charnay, 2002; Eggington, 1987; Hinds, 1983, 1987, 1990; Kaplan,1966; Kobayashi, 1984; Matalene, 1985; Shen, 1989; Walker, 2004, 2005, 2006)

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A Comfort Zone in Composition Classrooms: Harmonizing Personal Writing with an Academic Writing Approach

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ABSTRACT

Personal writing is essential and fundamental for learners of any age. Personal writing is a bridge to help students grow in academic settings. The purpose of this paper is to propose a comfort zone in teaching writing in both L1 and L2 composition classrooms. The goal of this paper is to oppose the impulse to separate personal discourse from academic discourse and to support the notion that personal writing is a crucial tool for speaker's growth in writing and learning for both native and non-native English speakers. This paper proposes three steps to create a comfort zone in composition classrooms,: First, to promote prejudice-free zones; second, to dispel the thought that "personal writing makes students suckers" (Bartholomae, 1997); and third, to write with a new view that personal writing is beautiful. In this way, teachers will harmonize personal writing with academic writing styles.

Key words: personal writing, expressive writing, composition, academic writing

INTRODUCTION

This paper aims to propose a comfort zone in teaching writing in both L1 and L2 composition classrooms. A comfort zone in composition classrooms is one in which prejudice toward personal writing no longer prevails, where tension from writing is free, where a democratic classroom exists. A comfort zone is one in which students write for writing, where political issues are put aside and where peace in writings is cherished. That is, they write to liberate their soul or to express their inner voices freely. Pronouns namely 'You', 'I' or 'We' are free to be used in this zone.

Most importantly, this paper attempts to address the controversial debate of separating personal discourse from academic discourse in composition classrooms. The paper proposes that a comfort zone in personal writing requires three central elements: First, promote prejudice free zones; second, dispel the thought that "personal writing makes students suckers"; and third, write with a new view that personal writing is beautiful. In this comfort zone, teachers should harmonize personal writing with academic writing styles. Ultimately, the result of my investigation will underscore the importance of the strengths and possible benefits of a comfort zone in harmonizing personal writing in academic settings. The paper concludes with a supportive argument that personal writing is a strong students' tool for growth in writing and learning for both native and non-native English speakers.

Promote Prejudice-Free Zones

A suggestion for a prejudice-free zone seems utopian. Yet the notion of personal writing is too crucial to be disregarded. Literature review supports that this agenda itself is worthwhile; nonetheless, personal writing has been debated and attacked because the term carries negative connotations, a view which has been discussed by various composition theorists particularly, James Berlin. Many negative connotations have arisen from misunderstandings of romantic and progressive underpinnings of this genre. That is, personal writing is almost always placed in opposition to academic writing. Defined in this way, the term personal thus denotes the non-academic. As Elbow (1991) claims, "I hate the term expressivism. It tends to be used only by people who think it's a bad thing." (p.10)

Besides, personal writing is sometimes treated like a taboo subject, not often mentioned by composition scholars. Little research exists about students' personal uses of writing, except by expressivists who see personal writing as a way to break away from dry academic prose. If asked what a good essay is, students invariably say one with logical organization and clear thesis statements. Students seem to have been trained to do what might be called academic writing, but not to consider their own lives and experiences as valid material.

To be recognized in academic settings, personal writing has fought a long battle over prejudice against the use of personal narratives. For decades, personal writing has been stereotyped as resistant practice to anything not directly related to academic activities. In light of this, schools have shaped negative attitudes toward

personal writing. Some students have learned that academic writing seldom requires one to respond personally or even emotionally, and so they are in some danger of thinking of the writing they can do well as merely academic. Students are so used to thinking of school writing as a prescribed formula: the five paragraph essay with a thesis statement and four paragraphs. Most incoming university students, in particular basic writers, believe that college writing should be objective and dispassionate in its subject matter and approach, unwavering in its sentiments and suppositions, impersonal and scholarly in its language and tone (Hindman, 1993). In essence, these writers are convinced that academic writing has nothing to do with their real lives or emotions. They rarely imagine that writing, as a way to resolve what, according to Hindman, hurts or troubles them.

In addition, some teachers mistakenly assume that students write only under academic demands and, even then, only to the assignment's specifications. However, students are, in fact, highly literate. Their reading and writing, as any ethnographic study would show, are woven throughout our students' lives (Rose, 1989). Their literacy is not limited only to academic writing. Furthermore, teachers misrepresent school writing when they say there is a hierarchy that begins with the personal or expressive and builds to the analytical. Instead of a hierarchy, teachers might find the composition classroom different if they regard this genre as a site or what Emig (1971) referred to as a lovely interplay. As she contends, "There's no reason why good argumentative writing cannot use narrative or story for its support, that personal reflection cannot use exposition or critical analysis— and so on." (p. 30). In sum, teachers and students should come up with a new attitude toward personal writing and re-conceptualize or reconsider the idea that personal writing makes students 'suckers'.

Dispel the Thought 'Personal Writing Makes Students Suckers'

In response to Peter Elbow's argument related to personal versus academic writing, Bartholomae (1997) contends that "academic writing is the real work of the academy." (p. 480). He asserts that if our goal is to make a writer aware of the forces at play in the production of knowledge, we need to highlight the classroom as a substation—as a real space, not as an idealized utopian space (p. 483). In his view, there is no better way to investigate the transmission of power, tradition and authority than by asking students to do what academics do.

Moreover, Bartholomae critiques the limitation of personal writing and its potential for disempowering a student. His contention is that it is wrong to teach late adolescents that writing is an expression of individual thoughts and feeling. He asserts, "It makes them suckers and, I think, powerless, at least to the degree that it makes them blind to tradition, power and authority as they are present in language and culture." (p.128-9). Bartholomae sees the self-authorizing aspect of personal writing as its major feature and its major shortcoming within the context of writing's role in a discipline and in the classroom, as defined and authorized by history and tradition.

Elbow (1997) argues in the debate with Bartholomae that his role as a writer is someone who gets "deep satisfaction from discovering meanings by writing-figuring what I think and feel through putting down words" (p. 489). He states that "Life is long and college is short." (Elbow, 1991, p. 93). In this respect, he believes that very few students will have a chance to write academic discourse after college. Students, in his view, should write about their life experiences in language that will last them a life time. In other words, they should not be trained to "ventriloquize language they don't understand and won't use." (p. 93) Further, personal writing encourages students to write for their own pleasure. In this way, students will discover an alternative approach to solving problems and gaining new insight. Essentially, for Elbow, discourse that renders experiences and mirrors back to writers a sense of their own experience is "equal in value to expository discourse" (p. 136-7), although he argues that it serves a different purpose. Hence, by learning how to translate their learning into their own language and experience, students will gradually develop the skills necessary to write good academic discourse.

In addition, work in deconstruction, feminism, and narratology is creating a space for the personal in the academy (Elbow, 1991). In this sense, personal writing provides a space from which women can speak themselves. Besides, by learning how to translate learning into their own language, students will develop the skills necessary to write good academic discourse. Academic discourse alone does not allow for this emphasis on rendering experience because it is more about abstracting experience. In effect, Elbow further elaborates that the use of academic discourse is complicated and problematic in a sense that it "often masks a lack of genuine understanding of one's experience" (p. 137).

Therefore, far from isolating students from one another and making them 'suckers' by depriving them of the chance to learn academic discourse, Fishman

and McCarthy (1992) reported that that Fishman's commitment to student language led to close listening and intimacy within the class and at the same time helped students to master disciplinary methods and texts. In a similar vein, Paley (2001) applied the personal writing approach by urging students to write about topics that mattered not only to them but also to the gender, economic class, family and ethic group from which they emerged. (p. 9). According to Britton et al (1975), a personal writing approach is a bridge between the language and culture of home and of school. In this respect, teachers should nurture the so called "speech of the home and neighborhood" (p. 23) by helping students express themselves through a story, poetry or play. In this way, students can "communicate the spirit of the subculture to a multicultural audience" (p. 23).

In brief, to make the comfort zone possible in writing classrooms, teachers should promote prejudice-free zones and a new view of personal writing. That is to say, there is always a benefit of this genre waiting for writers to discover.

Write with a New View; Personal Writing is Beautiful

Personal writing in L1 pedagogy

Even if some have argued that personal writing cannot be classified as academic discourse because it is not subject to the same conventions or expectations (Harris, 1997), there are many advocates besides Peter Elbow of using personal writing in the L1 classroom. These scholars emphasize the power and the beauty of writing from personal feelings and experiences. In *Uptaught* (1971)*,* Ken Macrorie urges teachers to help students break away from *Engfish*—the language that prevents students from working towards truths (p. 4). Unlike Bartholomae, Macrorie, echoing Elbow's idea, advocates a personal writing approach by encouraging students to speak with their own voice. In essence, Macrorie argues that by getting rid of *Engfish* through personal writing, students will gain power and authority.

Along with this, verification of the role of emotion in learning is another benefit of encouraged in personal writing. bell hooks (1989) regards personal writing as a powerful way of healing. She claims that writing enables us "to be more fully alive only if it is not a terrain where in we leave the self" (p. 76). In a similar vein, Newkirk (1991) contends that expression comes from self and that all forms of self-expression are forms of performativity. According to Newkirk, there

was a time when religion and ethnicity were not acceptable topics, but personal writing changed that. That is, personal writing increases awareness of student feelings and in spite of the risks personal writing poses in a classroom, positive changes begin with expression. Permitting self-expression in the classroom is an authentic practice (p. 86).

Further, Murray (1985), who values writing as self-expression, believes that all writing is an act of faith—to believe in self, the subject, its form, and its voice. In his view, schools need to recognize how hard it is to maintain faith-and how essential to grow faith within the student. Additionally, James Britton and his collaborators (1975) demonstrated, in *The Development of Writing Abilities (11-18),* that bypassing expressive language for communicative language cuts off from writing those intimate voices and images that rise to the surface and become available primarily in and through the writer's expressive language (p. 11).

As a vital part of personal writing pedagogy, voice gets much attention from many scholars. Harris (1997) emphasizes that the task of the student is no longer simply to write clear and acceptable prose but to find her own voice and speak in it rather than in one imposed by her job or school or field of study. At this point, I believe that writing should be for writing and that students should be encouraged to use any kind of form of writing to express their voice. Schools are a place where students should have freedom in expressing their voice in writing classrooms. They should not be taught to restrict themselves to only one particular type of writing- academic writing. Elbow and Murray argue that when we write honestly, each of our voices will be ours—it is unique and recognizable.

Like Moffett (1968), who stresses the importance of teaching writing in context, Macrorie (1980) emphasizes that students should be able to tell truths that "count for them rather than merely regurgitating their perception of the official language" (p. 3). Through personal writing, Macrorie's use of voice, then, stems from his criticism of a writing pedagogy that does not view the students as possessing significant knowledge. Rather than teaching writing as a disembodied, objective exercise, teachers should focus on how voice makes a case for valuing the writer in the writing. Macrorie presents this view of personal writing through his books. Both *Uptaught (1971)* and *A Vulnerable teacher (1974)* tremendously influenced pedagogical and philosophical orientations of composition classrooms. In particular, *Telling Writing (1980)* was the most widely influential on both secondary and college writing teachers. Its effect outlines what seemed at the time a radical pedagogy based on free writing, journals, telling facts and fabulous

realities. In line with these literatures, Freire (1970, 1987) also links the notion of voice with personal writing and dialogue. He contends that when students' problems become the focal point of discourse, then students' voices become legitimized because their problems become the object of reflection for both the educator and the student.

Through the notion of voice, students will be able "to articulate and understand experience" (Calkins, 1986, p. 8). Accounts of personal experience like literacy autobiography or a personal journal often have the ring of authenticity. In essence, they bring the listeners to the process of understanding and allow them "to enter the living space of another" (Rosen, 1988, p. 81). In light of this, Brodkey (1996) discusses in her literacy autobiography, *Writing on the Bias,* how she came to make writing interesting for herself and how through this interest, she came to critical awareness. Along the same line, Bridwell-Bowles (1995) makes a persuasive case for cultivating students' personal voices and experiences. It is impossible to discuss this issue without referring to Peter Elbow's claims. In *Writing with Power (1981)*, he argues that teachers are in a good position to help students become less helpless personally and politically by enabling them to take control of their discourse. In his view, power comes from the words that students are free to use. In *Embracing Contraries (1986)*, Elbow also addresses the power of personal writing by saying, "If I want power, I've got to use my voice." (p. 202)

At this point, I would like to use critical pedagogy to support my arguments that we should not separate personal discourse from academic discourse. Instead, we would do better to harmonize personal writing in academic disciplines. In light of this issue, an understanding of one's culture enables individuals to name their lived experience and eventually to name or critique their oppressors (Freire, 1987). In Freire's view, when individuals interpret their own culture through their language, their words become a means of personal and social transformation. Rather than setting a strict form of writing, schools should encourage students to become the primary interpreters of their experience by using words from their specific culture. In short, personal writing approach plays a significant role in helping students to express their own voices.

Personal writing in ESL pedagogy

A number of research support using personal writing in ESL contexts. For instance, personal writing increases writing fluency and confidence and develops

ideas in writing. For example, Lucas (1990), through her case studies of nine ESL students, reports that students who had done personal journal writing had benefited from the experience, since these students gained confidence in their writing ability, and discovered new insights into themselves. Zamel (1982, 1983) has written extensively on the meaning-making processes of L2 writers. In her study of six skilled L2 writers, she found that the participants engaged in a process that helped them to discover ideas and ultimately to construct a framework to best present their ideas (Zamel, 1983, p.180). Mlynaczyk (1998) examined the journal writing experience of five students enrolled in her ESL writing course at a large urban public university in the United States. She found that connecting students' personal experiences with academic material was an important part of the reflective process. That is, there is often a personal element in reflection when students bring their own experiences to interact with academic materials in school.

Peyton (1990) reported the positive impact of dialogue journal writing on ESL students in promoting their acquisition of English grammatical morphology. Knepler (1984) introduced an informal experimental writing mode, called "impromptu writing," to ESL college level students which encouraged students to write as much as possible within a limited time. Soucy (1991) recommended free writing as a tool for learning and written language development for ESL students, particularly for those students who were preparing for the academic community.

Furthermore, journals provide a place to practice personal writing and keep a record of an educational experience and intellectual growth (Dickerson, 1987). Students develop their confidence as writers through personal journals as they get used to recording their life on paper (Vanett & Jurich, 1990). Research on various type of journal writing has been published to date in both L1 and L2 (Gannett, 1992; North, 1987; Persi-Haines, 1991; Peyton, 1990; Soucy, 1994; Sternglass, 1988). Allen's study (2001) reflects that ESL learners benefit from personal writing practice. These students benefit most from expressive writing pedagogy and often make stunning breakthroughs. From his classroom-based research, Allen (2000) found that most students felt relieved from tension and trauma associated with writing. They attribute the change to intensive experience with writing, increased confidence and better knowledge about the writing process, especially editing.

CONCLUSION

If writing is an art and a discovery, as Murray (1985) claims, we composition teachers should set student writers free. Rather than teaching only an academic style, we should allow students to write to serve both institutional and personal agendas. Writers need to be heard, to bring a piece of their lives and culture to the world using words they feel most comfortable with. As presented above, the paper has demonstrated that personal writing suffers from many negative labels. We should find ways to confront such negativity with a positive mindset. As described, prejudice and stereotypes are barriers of constructing the comfort zone in composition classrooms. Like language, the stereotype against the use of the personal writing approach comes, goes and grows within us subconsciously. Teachers can overcome this stereotype if we make more effort. Most significantly, we need strong will, commitment, and new viewpoints in dealing with this issue.

To help young learners write critically in the academy is to invite their personal experience into the public sphere of academic discourse. Teachers should not regard personal writing and academics as separate entities. To conclude, the paper proposes the use of personal writing as a means to help smooth students' transition from personal or nonacademic discourse to academic discourse. Simply put, we should promote personal writing by encouraging students to expand their personal writing into academic writing. Composition teachers will find their classroom in a different position if they make their class look less daunting for writers but filled with a pleasant writing activity. In short, the writing classroom ideally should be a place of opportunity for students to learn to write and to write to learn. As Shafer (1999) put it:

Do we define a liberatory education as shaping our students to be like us or do we celebrate a mosaic of new styles and voices radiating from our classrooms- voice and style that are troubling and difficult because they are not part of education? (p. 223) In light of this quote, teachers might wish to see Peter Elbow's books W*riting without Teachers* and *Writing with Power* become a real phenomenon in their academic writing settings, where the comfort zone starts.

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Difficulty with English Passive Voice in a News Report: A Case Study of Malaysian Trainee Teachers

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ABSTRACT

This study examines difficulty with the forms and functions of English passive voice in news report encountered by L2 learners of English. The participants were 80 trainee teachers in an undergraduate Teaching of English as a Second Language degree program at a Malaysian university. The participants were asked to identify the passive voice constructions in a brief news report, and reformulate the sentence using the active voice. They were also asked to state the author's purpose in using passives in the news report. The results show that only 25% of the trainee teachers were able to identify the passive forms correctly and subsequently transform the passive construction into an active sentence. The points of confusion seemed to be the regular past tense form (-ed) of the verbs and the use of the reported speech in news reports. Awareness of the functions of passive voice is mainly restricted to the focus on the action and object of action at a sentence level. The findings suggest a need for teaching of passives in the context of relevant text-types to develop awareness of how passives are used to achieve a variety of communicative purposes.

INTRODUCTION

Studies on the use of passives in academic written discourse have indicated the difficulty of the passive form. Using a grammaticality judgment task and a controlled production task, Balcom (1997) found more frequent use of grammatically inappropriate passive morphology in Chinese L1 learners of English than native speakers in the form of an overgeneralization of the "be" + *en* form. Mastery of English passives seems to be linked to general English proficiency, as indicated by Chou's (2008) study of two Taiwanese Chinese college learners over a span of 6 months. The proficient learner produced well-formed and target-like passives whereas the learner with low English proficiency

tended to create malformed passives. The difficulty with passives extends to learners from other language backgrounds. Hinkel's (2004) analysis of academic essays written by 746 speakers of seven languages (English, Chinese, Japanease, Korean, Indonesian, Vietnamese and Arabic) in four US universities show that even after many years of L2 learning and use, advanced nonnative speaker students may have difficulty with the conventionalized uses of tenses, aspects and the passive voice in written academic discourse.

Even grammar books present passives as a difficult structure to learn. For instance, Lane and Lange's (1999) editing guide lists passive voice in the category of global errors, distinguished from local errors which include subject-verb agreement, article use and singular-plural noun use. Byrd (1997) states that in a large community college ESL program in the US, the passive voice is reserved for Level 4 courses. Byrd points out that the notion of grammatical difficulty lacks clarity and argues that it makes better sense to design curricula based on text-types. Byrd quotes discourse analysts such as Bardovi-Harlig (1996), MacDonald (1992) and Pica (1983) who have shown how different grammatical structures are used for different discourse purposes. On this basis, Byrd recommends that students at all proficiency levels are able to work with narrative, informational texts and conversational interactions, at different levels of complexity. Along this line, common passive phrases can be taught even to beginners. As certain verbs such as *considered*, *done*, *found*, *given*, *made, shown* or *used* are commonly used in passive constructions and predominantly in the present tense (Swales & Feak, 1994, 2000) teaching them together may make the passive structure easier to learn.

On a text level, passives are used for different purposes in various text-types. For instance, in scientific explanations of natural phenomena, some passives are necessary to focus attention on the action (Derewianka, 1990). The lower frequency of passive voice use compared to active voice in science texts is supported by Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette and Icke (1998). In their analysis of astrophysics journal papers, the passive voice was found to be selectively used to describe established procedures, to contrast other research with their own (which is written in the active voice), and to describe their future work. In academic writing, Hinkel (1997) found that the passive voice, among others, was used in greater frequencies by the nonnative speaker students than the native speaker students as an indirectness device and marker. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) posit that the least number of passives per number of words are found in

conversation and fiction, slightly more in journalistic writing and the most in scientific writing.

In the context of journalistic writing, the preference for active and passive voice in news reports depends on whether it is the lead or the content. From a content analysis of more than 1,000 stories from 126 U.S. newspapers, Stone (2000) found that 70% were active-voice leads. In the leads, the active voice saves words and helps the verb maintain its power (Kessler & McDonald, 2000) but in the content, Henley, Miller and Beazley (1995) found that news media often report violence against women in passive-verb format and this leads readers to be more acceptable of the violence than reports using the active voice. Henley et al. also revealed that the use of the passive voice hides the perpetrators of the abuse, rape and killing, attributes less harm to the victims, and in fact blames the victims for the crime. Similarly, in an experimental study on psychological mechanisms in attribution of causality, Knobloh-Westerwick and Taylor (2009) found that when active voice was used to describe a party's actions relative to an event, that party was more seen as cause of that event than when passive voice was used.

Passive voice is also used to reassign agency in news reports. Tom Vanderbilt, author of *New York Times* bestselling book, "*Traffic: Why We Drive the Way We Do (and What It Says About Us)*", commented that the 28 March 2009 New York Times story made the car responsible for the accident rather than the driver:

> *A 28-year-old pregnant woman was killed and a second woman was seriously injured on Friday afternoon when a driver, apparently intoxicated and following the women as they walked down a Midtown Manhattan street, lost control of a supermarket maintenance van, which jumped onto the sidewalk and slammed into them, the police and witnesses said.*

Vanderbilt's reconstructed opening line, "An apparently intoxicated driver killed a 28-year-old pregnant woman and seriously injured a second when he lost control of his van and slammed into them, the police and witnesses said", shows the driver as the one with legal responsibility for the death and injury of the women. Sometimes a reporter may lean on the passive voice in trying to cover himself or herself against libel or to claim ignorance about the identity of the agent, thus obscuring responsibility for negative action. From Blanco-Gómez's (2002) comparative analysis of English and Spanish newspaper articles, it was found that the 52,782-word English corpus contained 598 agentless periphrastic passives and 129 full passives (those with an explicit agent). For the English corpus, Blanco-

Gómez reported that more full passives are used in international news reports which do not affect either Britain or Spain in an immediate and direct way (e.g., the 2001 U.S. presidential election) but the highest occurrence of passives is in national news report on local, national and political issues appearing in conservative newspapers – but agent defocusing is evident by placing it at the end of the sentence.

This review of the use of passives in news reports has shown deliberate and manipulative use of the passive voice to influence the perception of readers. The choice between active or passive voice goes beyond the surface structure of directing more attention to the action or the agent, and the sentences may not appear in typical forms of passive sentences taught in grammar classes. In this respect, passives in news reports pose more difficulty than authentic texts adapted for teaching purposes.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study examines difficulty with the English passive voice in news reports encountered by L2 learners of English at a Malaysian university. The specific objectives of the study are to:

1. identify the learners' ability to recognize passive sentences in a given text;
2. ascertain the learners' ability to transform the passive sentence into an active sentence; and
3. determine awareness of the function of the passive structure at a sentence- and text-level .

METHOD

The participants of the study were 80 third-year trainees in an undergraduate Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL) degree program at a Malaysian university. They were from different ethnic backgrounds: Chinese, Malay and several indigenous people groups. As the study was on the difficulty with passives rather than the role of L1 transfer, the participants were not stratified according to their L1. At the time of the study, the participants were enrolled in a methodology course for teaching grammar. The course included topics on the

evolution in approaches and methods of teaching grammar as well as some instruction to enhance their declarative knowledge of grammar. English was the instructional language used for lectures, assignments and assessments. The TESL trainees were selected instead of undergraduates in other degree programs because the former were assumed to have a better mastery of the grammar of English. Identification of problems with the passive structure, if any, can be assumed to apply to other undergraduates with medium to low levels of English proficiency. Furthermore, the TESL trainees were expected to have metalingual knowledge of grammar whereas other undergraduates were only expected to use English correctly without the need to understand sentence patterns or to explicitly spell out reasons for using the passive or active structure.

The data on the participants' knowledge of forms and functions of the passive structure came from a part of an assessment on their grammatical knowledge in the grammar methodology course. To assess their familiarity with the form of the passive structure, the participants were asked to underline the passive sentences in a brief news report:

> *Astronaut charged with kidnap attempt*
> *By MIKE SCHNEIDER, Associated Press Writer 1 hour, 15 minutes ago*
>
> *ORLANDO, Fla. – An astronaut drove 900 miles and donned a disguise to confront a woman she believed was her rival for the affections of a space shuttle pilot, police said. She was <u>arrested</u> Monday and <u>charged</u> with attempted kidnapping and other counts.* (Taken from http://www.washingtonpost.com)

They were also asked to reformulate it as an active sentence. To find out their awareness of the functions of the passive voice in the news report, the participants were asked to state the author's purpose in using passive structure on a sentence level and in the context of the news report.

For the data analysis, the passive voice construction was taken to include all passive verb phrases (with or without the *by*-phrase for showing the agent), as marked by the presence of the auxiliary *be* in all tenses (with or without contractions). The two verbs written in the passive voice are underlined in "She *was* <u>arrested</u> Monday and <u>charged</u> with attempted kidnapping and other counts". There was a third use of passive in the lead, "Astronaut <u>charged</u> with kidnap attempt". All the uses of passives are the standard construction (e.g., our car/got broken into) rather than the more complex causative construction (e.g., we had/got

our car repaired). In addition to counting the number of correctly identified passive verbs, the wrongly underlined words were analyzed to obtain insight into the forms of verbs that could be mistaken for the passive structure. Following this, the rewriting of the identified passive sentence as an active sentence was checked to determine ability to identify doer and object of action as well as the use of the passive construction: a form of the verb "be" plus the past participle form of a verb.

In the analysis of the participants' knowledge of the functions of the passives in the context of the sentence and news report, mention of emphasis on actions done to the astronaut in disguise or a de-emphasis of the agent was considered correct. Vague explanations such as "it is to show that the news had happened" were considered inadequate knowledge of the functions of the passives.

The study was designed to identify the difficulty with passives but does not seek to identify possible causes of the difficulties using an experimental design -- whether the lack of recognition of the passive structure is due to a lack of understanding of passives, inadequate English language proficiency, L1 transfer, previous exposure to teaching of passives, or a problem of metalingual knowledge. However, the patterns of the results reveal commonalities in the difficulties with passives which have relevant classroom implications in the teaching of passives, as will be explained next. The participants are abbreviated as P1 to P80 in the results section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Identification of the passive structure in a news report

Table 1 shows that only 25% of 80 participants correctly identified both verbs written in the passive voice in the content of the news report, "She was arrested Monday and charged with attempted kidnapping and other counts". However, none of the participants noticed the use of the passive in the headline (Astronaut charged with kidnap attempt).

TABLE 1: Identification of Passive Structure in a News Report

Number of verbs correctly identified	Total	Percentage
Two correct	20	25.00
One correct	2	2.50
None correct	43	53.75
Underlined all sentences in text	15	18.75
Total	80	100

An overwhelming 75% of the participants were unsure of the form of the passive. Further analysis of the words that were wrongly underlined in the news report revealed that the participants included verbs such as *drove*, *believed* and *said*. In fact, three participants (P11, P12, P19) also underlined the adjective in "attempted kidnapping". These results indicate that participants might have been misled by the –ed suffix as regular verbs have the same past tense and participle form. In addition, the past tense form of the *be*-verb was also mistaken for the form of the passive structure. Five participants underlined *was* in "... to confront a woman she believed was her rival ..." (P60, P63, P66, P69, P75). These mistakes indicate that a majority of the participants faced problems with the recognition of the passive form. These problems are not unique to the participants in this study as research has even explored textual enhancement to get learners to notice the form of passives.

Lee's (2007) study on the use of textual enhancement of Korean EFL students' learning of the passive form is relevant to this discussion. In Lee's study, the comprehension texts were prepared with words containing the target forms placed in larger, boldfaced letters in different fonts, for example, "When Koreans are invited to the 'dol feast' ...' and 'The hwan-gap, or 60th birthday, has been considered especially important" (p. 117). Lee's use of textual enhancement follows a long tradition of research on this technique employed with different variations of supplementary instructional elements. The technique is simple enough to be incorporated into language lessons and it allows integration of "grammar instruction without hindering the aims of meaning-oriented instruction" (Lee, 2007, p. 88). Lee also drew upon the fundamental assumptions of focus on form advocated by Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998) that learners' attention can be allocated to the learning of form as well as content.

Transformation of passive to active voice

Only 28.75% of the participants were able to correctly rewrite the passive sentence as an active sentence (Table 2). Another 28.75% merely provided an explanation, making it not possible to gauge whether they were able to transform passive to active voice. The remaining 42.5% made mistakes that allow analysis of difficulties with passives.

TABLE 2: Responses in Task of Transforming Passive to Active Voice

Responses to transformation task	Frequency	Percentage
Correctly transformed passive into active sentence	23	28.75
Explanation only, no sentences written	23	28.75
Reported speech	20	25.00
Rewrote the first sentence already in the active voice	10	12.50
Wrote a sentence in passive voice	1	1.25
Changed the tense of the passive sentence	3	3.75
Total	80	100

Among the mistakes made in transforming the passive to active voice, the most common by far is producing a variation of the reported speech given in the text (25%) and this is not a passive sentence to start with. The participants' rewriting of the direct and indirect reported speech are as follows:

The police said, "The astronaut drove 900 miles and donned a disguise to confront the woman she believed was her rival." (P29, P43, P46, P70, P74, P77)

Police said the astronaut drove 900 miles and donned a disguise to confront a woman she believed was her rival for the affections of a space shuttle pilot. (P8, P10, P32, P38, P41, P48, P49, P57, P62, P78)

According to the police/ As told by the police/ The police has commented, an astronaut drove 900 miles and donned a disguise to confront a woman she believed was her rival for the affections of a space shuttle pilot. (P23, P35, P56, P72)

Some participants introduced variations of reported speech prefaced by phrases such as "According to the police" and "As told by the police". The finding that so many of the participants mistakenly produced reported speech instead of making the passive to active voice transformation is a matter of concern. These participants tended to be those who were not able to identify the passive structure in the first part of the task. They had underlined the first sentence which was already written in the active voice and produced a variation of the reported speech. Another 10 (12.5%) participants made minor adjustments in the wording of the sentence. Taken together, these results suggest that 38.75% of the participants had mistaken passive voice for reported speech. The response of Participant 7 on the functions of passives in news reports shed light on the intricable link between passive voice and reported speech in the minds of these participants. In Participant 7's words, "reported speech is used in writing the news report and passive voice must be used for reported speech". The results suggest that this misconceived connection needs to be delinked in the teaching of passives.

Three of the participants worked on the second sentence for the transformation task. They had correctly identified the passive sentence needed to be converted to active voice but they merely changed the tense, for example,

> A [sic] police said, that an astronaut <u>had drove</u> [sic] 900 miles to confront a woman which [sic] was believed [sic] affections a space shuttle pilot. (p. 41)

The verb originally written as *drove* was changed to *had drove*. A similar change from past to past participle was made by Participant 79 (*was arrested* to *had arrested*). Participant 11 reformulated *was arrested* as *being arrested*. It seemed that these participants thought that the transformation of passive to active voice required a different tense of the verb only, and neglected paying attention to the subject and object of action in the restructuring of the sentence. The transformation task, initially thought to be simple in nature, turned out to be more difficult than expected.

Awareness of functions of the passive voice

To gauge understanding of the functions of passive voice, participants were asked to explain why the author used the passive voice for the sentence "She was arrested Monday and charged with attempted kidnapping and other counts", and

the importance of the passive voice in news reports. Table 3 shows that only 20 out of 80 participants provided acceptable explanations of the functions of the passive voice in the two contexts.

TABLE 3: Explanation of Functions of Passive Voice

Context for use of passive voice	Correct explanation	Incorrect Explanation
Passive in the context of the sentence	12	68
Passive in the context of news report	8	72
Total	20	140

In the context of the sentence on the arrest of the astronaut, the focus on the astronaut was given as the main reason for the author to use the passive voice for the given sentence. For example, "To highlight the object (the astronaut) and the actions taken upon her rather than the subject (the police themselves who are less important)" (P4). Besides the object, the participants also noted the use of the passive voice to "highlight the action taken by the police" (P64), referring particularly to the arrest of the woman (P79). Hiding the agent was also given as a reason for the use of passive voice: "to omit police as a subject" (P2), "rather than reveal any other people involved" (P16) and "less direct in reporting" (P18).

At the level of the text, one participant demonstrated a good understanding of the value of the passive voice in news reports. Participant 2 stated that the passive structure worked "to prevent readers [from] putting blame on subjects". Participant 18 saw the use of passive voice as useful for presenting neutrality "so that the news report will not be too offensive and give bad impression". The other six participants explained that passives are used in the news report to highlight the woman, her actions and the actions done to her – similar to the explanation provided for the use of the passive voice at the sentence level. The majority of the participants were even less aware of the significance of passives in the news report, evident in vague explanations such as "to show that the news had happened" and "it is the language feature of news reports". As explained in the Introduction section, reporters use passives in news reports to impersonalize social and political issues, push blame from the perpetrator to the victim and even to protect themselves against libel. However, the participants might have been more familiar with the simplified accounts for the use of the passive voice given by teachers or grammar books over the years. In developing an electronic grammar database for

teachers in Hong Kong, Lock and Tsui (2000) found that the functions of the passive voice are usually explained as follows:

'We use passive voice when we are more interested in the person or thing affected by the action rather than by the doer of the action' or 'We often prefer passive voice when it is not so important who or what did the action' or 'We use passive when we are more interested in the action than the person who does it'. (p. 24)

Lock and Tsui went on to give a number of single sentence examples such as "This restaurant was built in 1958" and "My letter has been opened" to show that the agent in these passive clauses had been omitted when this is the new information that the readers would be more interested in. The problem of simplified unauthentic examples used in grammar books to illustrate the form and use of passives needs to be addressed if learners are to be pushed beyond the ability to complete form-focused grammar tasks to meaningful use of the taught grammatical structures in oral or written discourse.

CONCLUSION

This study on difficulties with passives in a news report as encountered by Malaysian L2 learners of English shows that only about one-quarter of the participants demonstrate good knowledge of the forms and functions of the passive voice. In terms of the form of the passive structure, the problems for the majority lie in the inability to identify the passive structure, "subject + verb to be + past participle of transitive verb" and to make the transformation to the active voice. The study reveals that the use of the past tense –ed suffix and reported speech are mistaken for the passive voice. The mistakes with the verb tense made by the Malaysian trainee teachers in the Teaching of English as a Second Language programme support Yoon (2004) on the necessity to teach the past participle in the structure of "have/get + object + past participle". In terms of the functions of the passive voice, there is awareness of the selective focus on the action and the object of the action, but there is inadequate awareness of the powerful use of the passive voice in news reports to sway the readers. In this respect, a pedagogical implication of the findings is that passives need to be taught in the context of text-types to allow passives and other lexicogrammatical structures to be seen as a tool for making a variety of intended meanings. The

study has indicated difficulties with passives that need attention in the grammar instruction of L2 learners as the participants of this study are deemed to have a higher level of proficiency in English than the average undergraduate and yet encounter difficulties with the use of passives. Nevertheless, as the study made use of a minimal number of tasks to elicit participants' awareness of the forms and functions of passives using a short passage and one genre (news report), the findings are indicative rather than definitive. Classroom practice in the teaching of passives would benefit from further investigations of the specific difficulties with the passive structure and the passive-active voice transformation using a larger range of sample texts and passive sentences.

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Learning Strategies by Indonesian Senior High School EFL Learners

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ABSTRACT

The research addresses four objectives: 1) exploring the taxonomy of English learning strategies used by Indonesian senior high school students, 2) measuring the extent of use of each strategy category, 3) measuring the inter-relationship of the use of the strategy taxonomy, and 4) examining the effect of learning strategy use on English proficiency. As such, descriptive and correlation designs were used. The subjects of the study, who were selected on the basis of accessibility, were 146 third year students from three government senior high schools in East Java Indonesia. They were asked to complete a 60-item strategy questionnaire. The factor analysis with the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) method revealed the presence of eight components or factors with initial eigenvalues greater than 1.5 explaining a cumulative variance of learning strategies of 50.6%. The component matrix was rotated using the Varimax with Keiser Normalisation Method and the resulting factors were then treated as posteriori strategy categories. They were named to be communicating, cognitive processing, metacognitive processing, form-focusing, memorizing, evaluating, meaning-focusing, and affective developing strategies. Moreover, it was also found that out of the eight strategy categories, six of them (communicating, cognitive processing, metacognitive processing, memorizing, and evaluating, and affective developing strategies) were used at the moderate level and two (form-focusing and meaning focusing strategies) were used at the high level. Another finding shows that the use of these eight strategy categories was inter-related. Finally, it was found that the use of learning strategies significantly affected listening and the mastery of structure and written expression, but not reading comprehension when measured by TOEFL.

INTRODUCTION

Second/foreign language learning strategies are defined as specific actions or techniques that learners use to assist the development of their second/foreign

language skills (Oxford, 1990). Research on such matters was probably initiated by Stern (1975) who attempted to make a list of characteristics of learners who were considered to be good language learners. A similar attempt was carried out by Rubin (1975). In subsequent stages, the studies were directed at finding the effect of learning strategies on success in learning as measured by either achievement or proficiency by covering both good and less good language learners. Bialystok and Fröhlich (1978), for example, tried to correlate learning strategies and classroom achievement of 157 learners of French as a Second Language in Toronto. The study found that learning strategy use correlated significantly with three out of four measures of achievement. In this case, the students who reported using learning strategies frequently tended to have high achievement in reading, listening, and grammar, but not writing.

Politzer and McGroarty (1985), however, came up with contradictory findings. In their study, they correlated three types of learning behaviors, including individual study behaviors, classroom behaviors, and interaction behaviors with four proficiency measures. Out of the twelve correlation coefficients (3 behavior scales times 4 proficiency measures), only one – the correlation between interaction behaviors and Global Communicative Competence – was significant at .05 level, suggesting that the confidence level of the correlation was 95%. The rest were not significant. Both individual study behaviors and classroom behaviors were even negatively correlated with gains in the Comprehensive English Language Test.

This type of study, which correlated learning strategies and measures of success in language learning, became even more popular with a more sophisticated classification of learning strategies in the early 1990s. More projects in the field were carried out, leading Skehan (1991) to claim that the period was characterized by "a near-explosion of activity" (p. 285). Like Politzer and McGroarty, however, Oxford and Ehrman (1995) surprisingly came up with findings different from what were expected. They asked 268 students at the Foreign Service Institute, United States to complete the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990). One of the questions to be answered was whether the strategy use correlated significantly with proficiency ratings. The proficiency assessments of speaking and reading were conducted at the end of the training sessions that lasted 3 to 44 weeks. The analysis unexpectedly came to a conclusion that only cognitive strategies correlated significantly with both speaking and reading proficiency. Nisbet, Tindall, and Arroyo's study (2005) with

168 Chinese university students majoring in English also came up with a finding of no significant correlation between learning strategy use, measured by Oxford's (1990) SILL and English proficiency, measured by TOEFL. A recent study by Yabukoshi and Takeuchi (2009) also found no significant relationship between strategy use and English proficiency among Japanese lower secondary school learners of English.

Meanwhile, findings of studies with students in Korea and Taiwan suggest that learning strategies correlate with English proficiency. In a study with 332 students in two Korean universities Park (1997) collected data on learning strategies by means of the SILL and data on students' proficiency by means of TOEFL. Using a regression analysis, an analysis to measure how well a set of variables can predict an outcome (Pallant, 2005), the study found that the linear combination of the six strategy categories of the SILL – memeory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies – correlated significantly with proficiency. In this case, cognitive and social strategies were the best predictors of proficiency. Likewise, in their research project involving 1,110 students from middle school, high school, and university levels in Korea, Lee and Oxford (2008) found that students who rate their English proficiency as high employed learning strategies more frequently than those who rate their English proficiency as low. The significant differences occur in the six types of strategies as measured by the SILL. This finding agrees with Yang's (2007) study with 451 junior college students in Taiwan. The study found that more proficient students reported using strategies more often than less proficient students.

Another trend in the study of learning strategies is the use of experimental designs. Song (1998), for example, carried out strategy training for reading in a Korean university. The subjects consisted of 68 first year students who engaged in a 42-hour-long-training program over a period of fourteen weeks. A reading proficiency test was administered prior to the training and after the training. The results of the two administrations were compared and the gains were compared across students of low, intermediate, and high level. The findings suggest that reading strategy training significantly improved students' reading ability. The effect was greatest among students with low initial reading ability, followed by those with moderate initial reading ability.

Despite the fact that learning strategy has been an issue investigated extensively, especially in western countries, since the 1970s, it had not been very much studied among learners of English as a foreign language in Indonesia until

the late 1990s. One of the Indonesian researchers is Lengkanawati (1997), who investigated the predictability of proficiency from learning strategies of 114 students at the English Education Department, Institute of Teacher Training and Education, Bandung. The data on learning strategies were collected by means of the SILL (Oxford, 1990). The data on proficiency, on the other hand, were measured by means of TOEFL. In general, when the students' total TOEFL scores were regressed against the six categories of learning strategies, the analysis found that the independent variable and the dependent variables shared a common variance of only 5%. Moreover, Djiwandono (1998) investigated the predictability of oral communication proficiency from learning strategies and degree of extroversion. Using 50 students at the Widya Karya University, Malang, Indonesia, as the subjects, the study found that diversity – one out of three dimensions of strategy use – and expressiveness – one out of seven indicators of extroversion – turned out to be the best predictors of oral communication proficiency. These two predictors explained 48% of the total variance of the dependent variable. While Djowandono used learning strategy as a predictor of English proficiency, Huda (1998) treated learning strategy as the dependent variable and speaking proficiency as the independent variable. The subjects of Huda's study consisted of 30 students of the English Education Department, Institute of Teacher Training and Education at Malang, Indonesia. He found that learners with good speaking proficiency used fewer strategies than their fellow learners with fair speaking proficiency did. This finding contradicts a claim that more proficient learners use more varieties of strategies (Oxford, 1993). Then, in a study with Indonesian learners of English at three universities in Malang, Mistar (2001) reported a finding that motivational factors influence the learners' use of learning strategies more significantly than personality traits and language aptitude. In another study (Mistar, 2006) it was found that the use of learning strategies significantly affects the learners' perceived proficiency attainment.

As reviewed above, although few studies failed to show the significant contribution of learning strategies, most of them revealed that learning strategies affect learning achievement or learning proficiency. Possibly, it is the inappropriate learning strategy use that stands as one of the causes of the unsuccessful English teaching in Indonesian senior high schools. Sadtono (1995) predicts, "they, learners, do not realize that learning a foreign language requires perseverance, discipline, knowledge of techniques of assimilating new habits, self-

evaluation, a great deal of practice and that the whole business takes a long time" (p.25).

Based on the preceeding literature it can bee seen that studies of how Indonesian senior high school EFL learners learn English are required. In detail, the present study was carried out to find the answers to the following questions:

1. What learning strategies are used by Indonesian senior high school EFL learners?
2. To what extent do they use English learning strategies?
3. Does their use of learning strategies correlate with one another? In other words, do students who use a certain category of learning strategies intensively tend to use the other categories of learning strategies intensively too?
4. Does their use of learning strategies affect their English proficiency attainment?

RESEARCH METHOD

Design

Referring to the four research problems above, the present study employed the quantitative method with descriptive and correlation designs. The descriptive design was used to present the profile of learning strategies that Indonesian Senior High School EFL learners employed (problems 1 and 2). Moreover, the correlation design was used to investigate the inter-relationship among the strategy types and the influence of learning strategies on proficiency attainment (problems 3 and 4).

Subjects of the Study

The study was at first participated in by 150 third year students of the Science department from three government senior high schools in East Java. The students were allowed to withdraw from the research by not completing the research instruments. When the students' work was collected and analyzed, four papers were found to be not properly completed; thus they were dropped from the study, resulting in 146 students to be considered as the subjects of the study.

Since the data collection was carried out when the students were still in the beginning of their third year schooling in the senior high level, it can be said that they had been learning English for five years (three years at junior high and two years at senior high schools) with a frequency of four hours a week. The aim of the English teaching is to train the students to be able to communicate in English. As such, the four macro-skills of English – speaking, listening, reading, and writing – are covered equally.

Instruments

Two research instruments were employed to collect the required data. Data of the students' learning strategies were measured by using a Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LSQ) developed on the basis of strategy taxonomies proposed by Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990). The questionnaire originally consisted of 90 items. However, when it was piloted with 42 first-year students at English Department of the Islamic University of Malang and the construct validity of each item was analyzed, it turned out that 30 items did not significantly contribute to the measurement of learning strategies. Thus, 60 items were used in the final version of the instrument. An analysis of the reliability measure of the LSQ using Cronbach's alpha method (Pallant, 2005) found a reliability index of .943, suggesting that the data of students' learning strategies were very highly reliable. Data of the students' English proficiency, moreover, were collected by means of a paper-based TOEFL test consisting of Listening, Structure and Written Expression, and Reading Comprehension (Philips, 2001).

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection was carried out in July and August 2009. Assisted by the local English teachers, the researcher invited the subjects to complete the Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LSQ) and to do the TOEFL test. In each school the two sets of instruments were completed in two and a half hours.

The subjects' work was then scored so that each subject had a score for learning strategy use and TOEFL test. Data of learning strategy use were analyzed by using the posteriori classification of strategies, instead of the a priori taxonomy. This means that new classifications of strategies were to be made based on the results of the analysis. Thus, the underlying factors of the 60 strategy items were

firstly discerned by using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The component matrix was rotated using the Varimax with Keiser Normalisation Method and the resulting factors were then treated as posteriori strategy categories. Thus, prior to the factor analysis, the factorability of the data was inspected by examining three criteria. They were that (1) the correlation matrix should contain any one or more coefficient of .3 or above, (2) the Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant, and (3) the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value should be at least .6 (Pallant, 2005). The identified factors were then named to represent strategy categories.

Next, the average score of the use of each strategy category was analyzed to find the patterns of the intensity of use. The intensity of use is interpreted as being high if the mean score of use is between 3.45 and 5.00, medium if it is between 2.45 and 3.44, and low if it is between 1.00 and 2.44 (Oxford, 1990). Then, correlation analyses were performed to investigate the inter-relationship of the use of each strategy category. Finally, the identified strategy categories were regressed against the scores of TOEFL test to investigate their predictability. All these statistical computations were carried out using computer statistical package SPSS Version 17.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

The results are presented in the order of the questions addressed in this study. As mentioned earlier, four questions were addressed and the answers to each of them are described below.

Question One: What learning strategies are used by Indonesian senior high school EFL learners?

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) revealed the presence of eight components or factors with an initial eigen-value greater than 1.5, explaining a cumulative variance of 50.6% (see Table 1). Out of the eight factors, five factors explain variances more than 3% and the other three factors explain less than 3%.

Of the five factors in the first category, the most dominant one accounted for 25% of the total variance of learning strategies. This factor obtained high loadings (more than .3) from twelve strategy items that chiefly deal with the practice of using the language for enhancing language skills. These include strategies for searching and creating more opportunities to learn to speak, read, listen, and write in English as well as asking questions in English. Strategies of having special friends for practicing English and encouraging oneself to speak English are two others in this category. Thus, this factor was described as a factor of active use of English in communication (communicating strategies). Factor 2, moreover, accounted for 5.1% of the variance. There were also twelve strategy items that provided high loadings to this factor and they mainly dealt with cognitive processing of the language such as imaging words, associating words with context of use, predicting what others are to say, avoiding word-for-word translation, findings similarities in the first language, making summaries when reading, and making conclusions when reading. Thus, this factor was described as factor of cognitive processing strategies. Factor 3, which explained 4.5% of the variance in learning strategies, obtained high loadings from five strategy items. The strategies mainly deal with metacognitive processes in the forms of planning and monitoring learning plans, such as planning activities to have more time to learn English, planning English learning activities, implementing the learning plans consistently, and monitoring the effectiveness of the learning plans. Thus, this factor is named metacognitive processing strategies. Factor 4, explaining 3.6% of the learning strategy variance, is described as form-focusing strategies as this factor obtains high loadings from nine strategy items that deal with analyzing grammatical rules of English and use them in practice. Finding English rules, checking correctness of grammar when speaking and writing, and paying attention to grammatical problems of other's speech are examples of strategies within this category. And, factor 5 explaining 3.5% of the variance obtains high loadings from eight strategy items that are mainly concerned with strategy to memorize the language, like associating the sound of English with the sound in the native language, repeating others' speeches, acting out words, and practicing English sounds. Thus, this factor is described as memorizing strategies.

TABLE 1: The Resulting Factors and Thier Variance

No.	Strategy Category	Variance
1.	Meaning-focusing Strategies	25.0%
2.	Form-focusing Strategies	5.1%
3.	Affective Developing Strategies	4.5%
4.	Evaluating Strategies	3.6%
5.	Communicating Strategies	3.5%
6.	Cognitive Processing Strategies	2.9%
7.	Memorizing Strategies	2.8%
8.	Metacognitive Processing Strategies	2.6%
	Cummulative Variance	50.6%

The other three factors explain less than 3% of the variance each. Factor 6, for example, explains 2.9% of learning strategy variance and it obtains high loadings from five strategy items that deal with the learners' actions in evaluating their learning progress, such as thinking of strategies that suit best, evaluating the effectiveness of the strategies, and evaluating the achievement in learning. Thus, this factor is named evaluating strategies. Factor 7, moreover, explains 2.8% of strategy variance and it gets high loadings from meaning-focused strategy items, such as trying to get the main ideas when listening and reading, finding synonyms when having problems with English words, and directing to familiar topics when speaking. Thus, this factor is named as meaning-focusing strategies. Finally, the last factor (Factor 8), which explains 2.6% of strategy variance, gets high loadings from four strategy items that mainly deal with affective aspects of learning, such as self-encouragement, self-reward, and lowering anxiety. Thus, this factor is called affective developing strategies. The complete presentation of the strategies that provide high loadings to each factor is presented in Appendix 1.

Question Two: To what extent do the learners use English learning strategies?

The data of the learners' intensity of use of learning strategies as analyzed in terms of each strategy category as well as overall strategies are presented in Table 2. The table shows that the overall use of learning strategies by Indonesian senior high school learners of English was at the moderate level. As far as the strategy categories were concerned, two categories were used at the high level, while the other six categories were used at the moderate level. The strategies that were

found to be used at the high level were meaning-focusing and form-focusing strategies. This suggests that in English learning the learners focus on both the meaning and the form of the language. The most intensively used strategies were meaning-focusing strategies with a mean score of use being 3.92 and the least intensively used strategies were metacognitive processing strategies with a mean score of use being 2.55.

TABLE 2: Intensity of Use of Learning Strategies

Strategy Category	Mean	Intensity of Use	Rank of Use
Meaning-focusing Strategies	3.92	High	1
Form-focusing Strategies	3.50	High	2
Affective Developing Strategies	3.39	Moderate	3
Evaluating Strategies	3.14	Moderate	4
Communicating Strategies	3.05	Moderate	5
Cognitive Processing Strategies	2.98	Moderate	6
Memorizing Strategies	2.81	Moderate	7
Metacognitive Processing Strategies	2.55	Moderate	8
Overall Strategies	3.17	Moderate	

Question Three: Does the learners' use of learning strategies correlate with one another? In other words, do students who use a certain category of learning strategeis at a high level tend to use the other categories at a high level too?

Although learners were found to use the eight categories of learning strategies at different frequencies as reported in the earlier section, analyses of the interrelationship of the use of these strategy categories revealed that they are correlated with one another. Table 3 shows that the highest correlation coefficient is between communicating strategies (Factor 1) and evaluating strategies (Factor 6) ($r=.673$, $p<.01$) and the lowest is between planning strategies (Factor 3) and affective developing strategies (Factor 8) ($r=.232$, $p<.01$). Interpreted in terms of the strength of relationship, out of twenty-eight coefficients, three coefficients were found to indicate strong correlation ($.60<r<.80$), seventeen coefficients

indicate moderate correlation (.40<r<.60), and eight coefficients indicate weak correlation (.20<r<.40). The strong correlations were found in the pairs of categories of communicating and evaluating, metacognitive processing and evaluating, and form-focusing and evaluating strategies. The moderate correlations were found in the pairs of categories of communicating and cognitive processing, communicating and metacognitive processing, communicating and form-focusing, communicating and memorizing, communicating and meaning-focusing, communicating and affective developing, cognitive processing and metacognitive processing, cognitive processing and form-focusing, cognitive processing and memorizing, cognitive processing and evaluating, metacognitive processing and form-focusing, metacognitive processing and memorizing, memorizing and form-focusing, memorizing and evaluating, evaluating and affective developing, meaning-focusing and form-focusing, and affective developing and form-focusing strategies. Finally, the weak correlations were found in the pairs of strategy categories of cognitive processing and meaning-focusing, cognitive processing and affective developing, metacognitive processing and meaning-focusing, metacognitive processing and affective developing, memorizing and meaning-focusing, memorizing and affective developing, evaluating and meaning-focusing, and meaning focusing and affective developing strategies.

TABLE 3: Inter-Relationship among the Eight Strategy Categories

Strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1.000							
2	.537**	1.000						
3	.549**	.458**	1.000					
4	.599**	.517**	.494**	1.000				
5	.600**	.535**	.549**	.520**	1.000			
6	.673**	.537**	.657**	.619**	.557**	1.000		
7	.421**	.381**	.341**	.516**	.360**	.392**	1.000	
8	.482**	.394**	.232**	.415**	.336**	.446**	.306**	1.000

** $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

Note: 1 Communicating Strategies, 2 Cognitive Processing Strategies, 3 Metacognitive Processing Strategies, 4 Form-Focusing Strategies, 5 Memorizing Strategies, 6 Evaluating Strategies, 7 Meaning-Focusing Strategies, 8 Affective Developing Strategies

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It should be noted here that although the correlation coefficients fell within different ranges of correlation strength, all of the coefficients indicated positive significance at .01 level (2-tailed test), suggesting 99% confidence level of correlation. This suggests that an increase in the use of a particular strategy category tends to be associated with a similar increase in the use of the other seven strategy categories.

Question Four: Does the learners' use of learning strategies affect their English proficiency attainment?

To assess the effect of learning strategies on proficiency attainment, a standard regression analysis was performed. The results of the analysis as summarized in Table 4 show that the combination of the eight identified factors of learning strategies was found to affect Section 1 of the TOEFL test (Listening) with an F-value 2.556 (p<.013) and Section 2 (Structure and Written Expression) with an F-value 2.473 (p<.016). However, the factors did not affect Section 3 (Reading Comprehension) significantly as the F-value is only .642 (p<.742). The total variance of the proficiency measures predicted by the eight strategy factors were 13% and 12.6% for Listening and Structure and Written Expression sections respectively. Meanwhile, only 3.4% variance of the Reading section was explained by the eight categories of learning strategies.

TABLE 4: Regression Analysis of the Predictability of English Proficiency from Learning Strategies

Dependent Variable: Listening					
Multiple R	.360	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.130		d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.079	Regression	8	672.560	84.070
Standard Error	5.735	Residual	137	4505.693	32.888
		Total	145	5178.253	
		F = 2.556	Significance F = .013		
Dependent Variable: Structure and Written Expression					
Multiple R	.355	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.126		d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.075	Regression	8	555.337	69.417
Standard Error	5.298	Residual	137	3845.786	28.071

	Total	145	4401.123

| | F = 2.473 | Significance F = .016 |

Dependent Variable: Reading

Multiple R	.190	Analysis of Variance		
R Square	.036		d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.020	Regression	8	222.864	27.858
Standard Error	6.589	Residual	137	5947.471	43.412
		Total	145	6170.336	

| | F = .642 | Significance F = .742 |

Discussion

The discussion explores the position of the present findings relative to the findings of previous studies as well as their possible implications. The discussion is presented in line with the problems addressed in the study.

Posteriori Taxonomy of Learning Strategies by Indonesian Senior High School EFL Learners

The factor analysis employed in the present study revealed the presence of eight factors (strategy categories), which together explain 50.5% cumulative variance of learning strategies. This finding suggests that about a half of the learners' total learning strategy use is assessed in this study.

Out of the eight underlying factors of learning strategies, the most important factor is strategies for communication, which by itself explains 25.4% of the variance. This suggests that in their learning process the students tend to favor strategies that require them to use the language actively. Thus, using words in different ways, looking for people to talk to, and practicing English with other students are used extensively by the learners. As such, their ultimate goal of language learning focuses more on the attainment of proficiency in using the language for both spoken and written communication than merely on getting good grades. Nyikos and Oxford (1993) assert that learners in communicative competence oriented contexts prefer strategies that involve active use of the target language, while learners in grade oriented contexts exhibit more strategies that deal with formal, rule-related processing. In the present study, the latter strategies

are manifested in form-focusing strategies (Factor 4), which explains 3.6% of strategy variance.

Senior high school students in Indonesia also prefer cognitive processing strategies (Factor 2) and metacognitive processing strategies (Factor 3) as these two factors explain 9.5% of the variance. This suggests that the students to an extent seem to have been aware of the importance of processing the target language as well as of coordinating their learning process, such as by making learning plans and evaluating their progress. Stern (1975) mentions that good language learners are critical of the progress they make in learning a new language.

Intensity of Use of Learning Strategies

The study found learners of English as a foreign language in Indonesian senior high schools are moderate users of the identified learning strategies. This finding complements the similar findings of several studies on learning strategies carried out around the world. LoCastro (1994) found an average use of learning strategies of 2.94, suggesting a medium level of use, by Japanese learners of English with means of the six strategy categories ranging from 2.55 to 3.27. Park (1997) also reported a medium frequency level of use with means between 2.91 and 3.50 by Korean university students learning English. Lee and Oxford (2008) also reported a medium frequency of use of learning strategies by students of middle school, high school, and university in Korea. Indian college students in Singapore were also found to use English learning strategies with high to moderate frequency (Sheorey, 1999). A high frequency of use was found from students at Adult Migrant Education Service (AMES), Australia, who learn English as a second language, with social strategies being the highest (mean=3.82) and memory strategies being the lowest (mean=3.12) (Lunt, 2000). In a context of learning a foreign language other than English, Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito and Sumrall (1993) found that the use of learning strategies by American students learning Japanese through satellite programs was at the moderate level. In this study the frequencies of use were found to range between 2.54 for memory strategies and 3.02 for cognitive strategies. Learners of Japanese and French in a Singaporean university were also found to use strategies at the moderate frequency range with a mean of 2.93 (Wharton, 2000).

When viewed in terms of intensity of use of each strategy category, the study found that meaning-focusing strategies were used the most intensively, while

metacognitive processing strategies were used the least intensively. This suggests that when the learners are learning and communicating in English they focus their attention more on the meaning than on any other aspects, such as accuracy of grammar or pronunciation. Moreover, it also indicates that trainings on how to plan and monitor learning activities are required since the learners were found to employ such strategies at the lowest intensity.

Inter-correlation of Strategy Categories

The study found that the use of the eight categories of learning strategies significantly correlated with one another, suggesting that a change in the intensity of use of one type of strategy carries a change in the intensity of use of the other types of learning strategies. Oxford and Ehrman (1995), Park (1997) and Mistar (2001) also reported a similar result. This finding has an important implication for strategy training. The program administrators may expect that a training program focusing on a particular type of learning strategy may also result in an increase in the use of the other strategy types. Ultimately, if learners are able to execute all learning strategy types effectively, they will become autonomous learners, i.e. those who can take charge of their own learning (Holec, 1981).

The close relation between learning strategies and learner autonomy has been emphasized by Wenden and Rubin (1987), who state that one of the goals of the research on foreign language learning strategies is to promote learner autonomy. Little (1997) as cited by Harris (1997, p. 9) also stresses the relationship between learning strategies and learning autonomy as he says, "If the pursuit of learner autonomy requires that we focus explicitly on the strategic component of language learning and language use, the reverse should also be the case: focus on strategies should lead us to learner autonomy."

The Effect of Learning Strategies on English Proficiency Attainment

With regard to the impact of strategies on proficiency attainment, broadly speaking the finding supports the generally accepted notion that the learners' choice of learning strategies both in type and quantity determines learning outcomes, which may be measured in terms of learning rate, levels of achievement or proficiency (Ellis, 1994). In this study the combination of the eight factors of learning strategies accounted for 13% and 12.6% of the variance in Listening and

Structure and Written Expression. This finding is also in line with the findings of the majority of studies correlating learning strategies and proficiency. In addition to studies already reviewed in the previous section, Green and Oxford (1995), for example, found a significant relationship between overall strategy use and proficiency. Wharton (2000) in a study with Singaporean learners of Japanese and French came up with a similar finding that learning strategy use tends to go with higher proficiency. In a study with 194 high school students and 184 university students in Palestine, Khalil (2005) found that learners' proficiency level has a major effect on overall strategy use. Moreover, Wu (2008) also found differences in the use of learning strategies by high proficiency and low proficiency learners in Taiwan. The findings of the present study as well as those cited above imply that in order that the students attain high proficiency in English, it is justifiable that they have to employ learning strategies intensively.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion

This study examined the factors that underlie the sixty strategy items, which were found to be eight factors (strategy categories) that accounted for 50.6% of strategy variance. These factors include meaning-focusing strategies, form-focusing strategies, affective developing strategies, evaluating strategies, communicating strategies, cognitive processing strategies, memorizing strategies, and metacognitive processing strategies, with communicating strategies being the most explaining factor (25.4%) and metacognitive processing strategies being the least (2.6%). In general these strategy categories were used at the moderate level since only two learning categories, meaning-focusing strategies and form-focusing strategies, are used at the high level. Moreover, the use of these types of learning strategies is found to be inter-correlated, suggesting that an increase in the use of one strategy type tends to be followed by a similar increase in the use of the other types of learning strategies. Finally, it is found that the use of learning strategies significantly affects the attainment of proficiencies in listening and structure and written expression, but not in reading comprehension.

Recommendations

The findings of the present study carry at least two implications to be suggested to classroom teachers. One is that ample opportunities to practice using English in real communicative interactions should be provided both inside and outside the classroom. This is so because the students have turned out to be in favor of such strategies that require active use of English. Thus, consistent use of English during the teaching-learning process is essential. Moreover, such teaching activities that promote high use of English as group work, information gaps, and games are highly recommended to be applied in the classrooms. Then, establishing conversation groups, reading groups, discussion groups and the like are a few examples of forums to be created for out of classroom activities. Demanding the students to use English when communicating with the teachers outside the classrooms is also a way of providing wider opportunities for them to improve their English.

The other one is that the students should be made aware of the necessity of employing a wide range of strategies in their learning because the strategies have been found to significantly influence their proficiency attainment. The more strategies they use, the better their English proficiency will be. Thus, strategies that might not be familiar to the students need to be introduced and instruction in the use of appropriate strategies is needed. Integrated strategy training is perhaps the best approach to strategy instruction, in which explicit instruction in the use of the intended strategies is deliberately integrated into regular classroom activities.

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APPENDIX 1: Classification of Learning Strategies based on Factor Analysis

Factor 1: Communicating Strategies
1. I watch TV shows and listen to radio broadcasts in English.
2. I learn from others' mistakes in speaking and writing English.
3. I set up my target in learning English.
4. I look for as much opportunities as possible to invite others to speak English.
5. I look for as much opportunities as possible to read texts in English.
6. I look for as much opportunities as possible to listen to English.
7. I look for as much opportunities as possible to write in English.
8. I evaluate my progress in learning English.
9. I encourage myself to speak English even though I am afraid of making mistakes.
10. I have special friends to practice English.
11. In English forums, I ask questions to be active in them.
12. I try to learn the culture of English native speakers.

Factor 2: Cognitive Processing Strategies
13. I associate the sound of English words with images or pictures so that I can remember them.
14. I combine sounds and pictures to remember English words.
15. I memorize new English words by thinking of where they may be used.
16. I look for words in Indonesian or my local language that are similar with English words.
17. When I do not understand an English word that I read or listen, I try to predict based on available clues.
18. When talking in English, I guess what others say based what they say before.
19. I use gestures to overcome my vocabulary problems when I am conversing in English.
20. I look for similarities and differences between English words and Indonesian words.
21. I try not to translate word-for-word from Indonesian into English or vice versa.
22. I make summaries of what I have read or listened in English.
23. I construct my own conclusion of English grammatical patterns, even though sometimes not quite correct.
24. I create my own words when I do not know in English.

Factor 3: Metacognitive-Processing Strategies
25.   I write notes, messages, letters, and reports in English.
26.   I plan my activities, so that I have more time to learn English.
27.   I make plans of my English learning.
28.   I apply my English learning plans consistently.
29.   I monitor the effectiveness of my English learning plans.

Factor 4: Form-focusing Strategies
30.   I revise what I write in English to improve my writing skill.
31.   I use English words that I already know to make new sentences.
32.   I look for patterns of English.
33.   I apply the patterns of English to understand spoken and written texts.
34.   I apply the patterns of English in new situations.
35.   I write my notes of English lessons to identify important points.
36.   When speaking or writing, I check whether my English is correct or not.
37.   I pay attention to my mistakes in using English and think of why they are wrong.
38.   I learn my mistakes in using English.

Factor 5: Memorizing Strategies
39.   I use my new English words in sentences so that I can remember them.
40.   I associate the sounds of new English words with the sound of English words I already know.
41.   I act out my new English words.
42.   I imitate the way native speakers of English speak.
43.   I practice the sounds of English.
44.   I try to think in English.
45.   I attend to outside classroom activities where English is used.
46.   I read English texts in my leisure time.

Factor 6: Evaluating Strategies
47.   I scan my English lessons to know the coverage and arrangement of them.
48.   I try to find learning strategies that suit me best.
49.   I evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies that I use.
50.   I arrange my learning environment so that I can learn English well.
51.   I assess the attainment of learning target that I set up beforehand.

Factor 7: Meaning-Focusing Strategies

52.   When listening to a conversation or news in English, I try to get the meaning, even though I do not know every word.

53.   When I do not know a word in English, I use synonyms.

54.   When involved in a conversation, I direct the topic to which I already know the words.

55.   When someone speaks English with me, I deliberately pay attention to what he/she says.

56.   When I find someone talk in English, I pay attention to him/her.

Factor 8: Affective Developing Strategies

57.   I read stories or dialogues several times till I understand the content.

58.   I praise myself in learning English so that I keep being highly motivated to learn.

59.   I give myself a reward when I do well in English learning.

60.   I reduce my learning anxiety by self-talk in English.

Length Constraint as Task Demand: Exploring L2 Oral Performance Variability

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ABSTRACT

Variation in EFL performance has been assigned to factors which claim learners' attentional resources. They fall under the major labelling of task difficulty/complexity. A number of factors have been argued to bring about task complexity,which lead correspondingly to variations in L2 performance. One crucial condition responsible for variability is planning. The present experimental study investigates length constraint as an instance of planning and answers the following research question: Does length planning as task condition bring about any L2 speech variations in terms of lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy. This paper specifically focuses on 34 EFL learners' performance on length-constrained versus non-length-constrained oral reproduction tasks that were recorded and coded for lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy. Results indicate statistically significant variations across the two performances with regard to lexical density and lexical diversity, but not grammatical accuracy.

INTRODUCTION

As a giant pedagogical step towards language in its real-life-like use, task appears to have inspired a wealth of literature in SLA. Various lines of research have been developed in accounting for dimensions of task-elicited performance. Cognitive approach as a major theoretical and research approach draws upon cognitive psychology, Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis, functional linguistics (Givon, 1985), and limited short-term memory capacity (Ellis, 2003). The latter approach as a pivotal background of theorizing assumes that for cognitive

processing to occur noticing is essential. Noticing, in turn, necessitates attentional resources which engage the short-term memory. Since the short-term memory is limited, task performance would mean a competitive and therefore differential access to interlanguage. Cognitive complexity of tasks brings about variability in the learner's performance which is realized in terms of the complexity, fluency, and accuracy in the learner's performance.

Cognitive complexity of tasks leading to variability has been characterized by some authors. Skehan (1998) illustrates everything related to task difficulty in a more or less neat triple categorization with some subcategories. Major categories in Skehan's terms that result in task difficulty include *code complexity*, *cognitive complexity* and *communicative stress*. Cognitive complexity divides further into cognitive processing, and cognitive familiarity. He attributes communicative stress to "a group of factors unrelated explicitly to code or meaning, but which have an impact upon the pressure of communication" (Skehan 1998, p. 52) which include a) *time pressure*, b) *modality*, c) *scale* (e.g. the number of tasks, or the number of the relationships), d) *stakes* (i.e. the degree to which both task performance and correct performance are critical, and d) *control* (i.e. how much control can the learner have on task performance). Ellis (2003) presents a slightly more detailed characterization than that of Skehan:

TABLE 1: Criteria for Grading Tasks (Ellis 2003: 75)

Criterion	Easy →	Difficult
A. Input		
1. Medium	Pictorial → written	→ oral
2. Code complexity	High-frequency vocabulary/short and simple sentences	Low frequency vocabulary/ complex sentences structure
3. Cognitive complexity		
a. Information type	Static → dynamic	→ abstract
b. Amount of information	Few elements/relationships	Many elements/relationships
c. Degree of structure	Well-defined structure	Little structure
d. Context dependency	Here-and-now orientation	There-and-then orientation
4. Familiarity of information	Familiar	Unfamiliar
B. Condition		
1. Interactional relationship	Two-way	One-way
2. Task demands	Single task	Dual task
3. Discourse mode required to	Dialogic	Monologic

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perform task		
C. Processes		
1. Cognitive operations	Exchanging → reasoning	→ exchanging opinions
a. Type	opinions	
b. Reasoning needed	Few steps involved	Many steps involved
D. Outcomes		
1. Medium	Pictorial	→ written → oral
2. Scope	Closed?	Open?
3. Discourse mode of task	Lists; description,	→ instructions; arguments
outcome	narrative; classification	

→ *indicates a continuum of difficulty*

Another framework for characterizing cognitive complexity of tasks that leads to variability in task-elicited language behavior has been presented by Robinson (2001). In his framework, he categorizes all variability into three areas of task complexity, task difficulty and task conditions. The first one, i.e. complexity, which is seen as sets of cognitive factors, divides into *resource-directing*, and *resource-depleting*. Task difficulty in his formulation is associated with participation (e.g. open vs. closed, one-way vs. two-way) and participant variables (like gender, familiarity, power and solidarity). Finally task conditions are divided into affective variables (like motivation, anxiety and confidence) and ability variables (such as aptitude, proficiency, etc).

Based on Givon's (1985) functional linguistics, requirements on manipulation of language impose constraints on the attentional resources of the speakers (task complexity/difficulty) which in turn lead to variability in speech accuracy, complexity, fluency, diversity, etc. Factors that claim the attentional resources in this way include attention, time planning, focus on form, topic, topic familiarity, displaced reference, discourse mode, medium, scope, etc (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Robinson, 2003). Behtary and Yaghoubi-Notash (2006, 2008) and Behtary et al (2006) have explored some factors, such as time constraint, gender and text access which bring about variation in the L2 oral performance of learners. So far no attempt has been made to explore length constraint as a source of variability.

Very recently, planning has been dissociated from its subordinate status under cognitive factors and has been pursued as a cognitive variable in its own right. Now, planning is such a widely investigated area that "one can now offer the powerful and robust generalization" (Skehan 2003: 6) concerning the influence of

planning on complexity and fluency (see Foster and Skehan 1996, 1999; Menhert 1998; Ortega 1999; Skehan and Foster 1997, 1999). As with accuracy, it is far from clear whether planning leads to more or less accurate performance. Foster and Skehan (1996), Skehan and Foster (1997), and Menhert (1998) endorse accuracy improvement as a factor of planning effect. However, Crookes (1989), Ortega (1999), and Wiggleworth (1997, 2001) argue against accuracy gain. A relatively new characterization has been introduced by Yuan and Ellis (2003) in which on-line planning is contrasted with pre-planning. By the former they mean the planning during speech along with pre-production and post-production of speech acts by the learners. Findings in their study indicates that pre-task planning affects grammatical complexity while on-line planning enhances both grammatical accuracy and complexity (Yuan and Ellis 2003).

With the preceding background, the present paper seeks to explore the effect of length constraint on the learners' oral performance variability. It is an attempt to establish an empirically-supported cause-effect relationship between constraint on length of speech and lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy of L2 learners' task-prompted oral discourse. Accordingly, the research question posed is: Does length planning as task condition bring about any L2 speech variations in terms of lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy?

METHOD

Participants

The participants of this study were initially 35 undergraduate English majors doing their oral reproduction course at the Islamic Azad University, Ardabil Branch. One participant was removed from the research in order to yield two equal-sized groups regarding gender. This was done to exclude gender as a moderator variable; therefore, the participants came to be 34, i.e., 17 male and 17 female learners.

Materials

A single-page unseen narrative text, No. 57 from the book '*Advanced Stories for Reproduction*' (see Appendix), was used for the purpose of the study. The

selection of the text involved the following stages. First, five intermediate-level university books commonly taught for oral reproduction courses in Iran were randomly selected. Second, out of those books, 10 passages were randomly chosen as the reference pool. At the next stage, the mean difficulty level of the pool was calculated employing the Flesch reading ease formula. Finally, an unseen passage out of the pool was chosen for the purpose of learner performances, having the closest Flesch reading ease index to the afore-set mean.

Procedures

The students were supposed to read the text in ten minutes. Then the papers were collected. The students had four minutes of planning time. After that they were to reproduce the text as much in detail as possible in five minutes. Here, there was no length constraint. Then they had the second four minutes of planning time. This time the same participants were asked to reproduce the same passage as much in brief as possible within five minutes. The brevity demand to be met was actually the imposed length constraint.

All the times for reading the text, first and second plannings, and first and second reproductions were calculated by a pilot study on five similar students and measuring the mean times for each of the above-mentioned five steps.

The subjects were not allowed to take notes or consult dictionaries during these steps because this was the end-of-term examination in the oral reproduction of stories course which was administered in the language laboratory. The reproductions of the students were simultaneously recorded on the tapes.

All the recorded tapes were transcribed and lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy were calculated twice by different raters for each reproduction in order to maintain inter-rater reliability (Kappa co-efficient values for lexical density, lexical diversity, and grammatical accuracy turned out to be 0.82, 0.79, and 0.88). Following Li (2000) and Laufer and Nation (1995), lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy indices were obtained[*].

Data Analysis

Using SPSS software three matched-pairs t-tests were employed to compare the two reproductions of the subjects with regard to the calculated indices for lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy.

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics for both performances are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3: *Descriptive Statistics for Both Performances*

	N	M	SD
Lexical Density of Performance 1	34	19.793	2.797
Lexical Density of Performance 2	34	25.98	14.014
Lexical Diversity of Performance 1	34	33.171	4.896
Lexical Diversity of Performance 2	34	46.509	31.949
Grammatical Accuracy of Performance 1	34	34.366	21.583
Grammatical Accuracy of Performance 2	34	32.275	20.036

Figure 1 below presents mean lexical density, lexical diversity, and grammatical accuracy of length-constrained and non-length-constrained
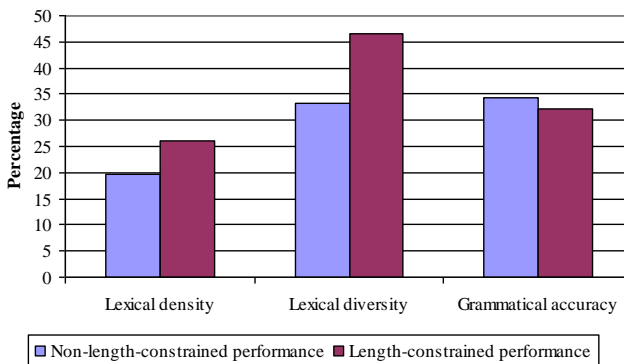
performances.

FIGURE 1: Lexical density, lexical diversity, and grammatical accuracy across the performances

In order to compare the performances of participants on the two reproductions, three matched-pairs t-tests were applied. Table 4 below presents the results of the three matched-pairs t-tests.

<u>*TABLE 4:*</u> *Matched-Pairs* t-*tests on Both Performances*

	t	df
(Pair 1) Lexical Density of Performance 1 - Lexical Density of Performance 2	-2.759*	33
(Pair 2) Lexical Diversity of Performance 1 - Lexical Diversity of Performance 2	-2.576*	33
(Pair 3) Accuracy of Performance 1 - Accuracy of Performance 2	.621ns	33

*p< 0.05
ns= not significant

Table 4 indicates that the two performances are significantly different at 0.05 probability level with regard to both lexical density and lexical diversity, but not grammatical accuracy.

DISCUSSION

Findings obtained by the application of matched-pairs t-test provide statistically-supported answers to the research question posed, that is, "Does length planning as task condition bring about any L2 speech variations in terms of lexical density, lexical diversity and grammatical accuracy.?"

As with grammatical accuracy, no significant difference could be established between the performances with as opposed to the performance without length constraint (t-value = 0.621). Mean accuracy values for the two performances were 32.275 and 34.366, respectively. Therefore, it can be concluded that awareness of length constraint on the part of L2 learners does not influence grammatical accuracy of the task-prompted oral performance.

Lexical diversity varied across the performance with as opposed to the performance without length constraint. The t-value equalled -2.576 rejecting null hypothesis at p<0.05. Mean lexical diversity value of non-length-constrained performance equalled 33.171 and for length-constrained the value amounted to 46.509. It follows that participants (L2 learners) produced a more lexically-diverse L2 speech as a result of awareness of length constraint.

Lexical density as a criterion for linguistic complexity of the participants' L2 speech significantly varied across non-length-constrained and length-constrained

performances (t-value = -2.759 at p<0.05). Mean lexical density of the participants in the former was 19.791 while the mean lexical density of the latter equalled 25.98. In other words, it can be argued that L2-learner's task-prompted oral performance became more linguistically complex due to their awareness of length constraint.

The contribution of the present study to the existing body of literature is the finding that length pressure or the brevity demand on learner speech contributes to task difficulty. In this way, length constraint appears to be congruent with the notion of stakes as a subcategory of communicative stress presented by Skehan (1998). Also, in some ways it can be associated with 'attention' in Hulstijn and Hulstijn (1984) and Menhert (1998). In both cases, length constraint imposes processing demands on the learners' cognition leading to variability. If length constraint is assumed to induce planning on the learner's part, variability of the learners' performance in terms of complexity obtained in the study is justified in the light of well-supporting literature (Foster and Skehan, 1996, 1999; Menhert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Skehan and Foster, 1997, 1999). The fact that this study could not come up with statistically significant gain in terms of accuracy is supported by (Crookes, 1989), Ortega (1999) and Wiggleworth (1997, 2001). On the other hand it is contradicted by Foster and Skehan (1996), Skehan and Foster (1997), and Menhert (1998) who argue for improvement of accuracy in speech as a result of planning.

The fact that awareness of length constraint does not lead to accuracy is endorsed by Van Patten (1990, 1996) who has shown that meaning is primary when attentional resources are limited. He argues that "under such conditions there is attention to form only if it is necessary for the recovery of meaning" (Skehan, 1998: 45). The present study shows the relationship between complexity and accuracy proposed by Crookes (1989), Ortega (1999), and Wiggleworth (1997; 2001). On the other hand, the results are rejected by Foster and Skehan (1996), Skehan and Foster (1997), Menhert (1998). If length constraint is assumed to prompt on-line planning by the learners, the findings are found to be contradicted by (Yuan and Ellis, 2003) in that no accuracy gain can be established as a result of length constraint.

Implications of the study

The present study contains important implications for SLA. The first and foremost message is for general ELT teaching practitioners, and testers. A common illusion for language teachers that may seem misleadingly commonsensical is that being brief is equated with being simple. Quite often teachers, interviewers, and testers in various ESL learning contexts encourage brief productions on the learner's part mistakenly believing that a requirement on the learners to produce less in quantitative terms would ease the burden of the task. This study clearly shows that, at least as far as oral reproduction tasks are concerned, a length constraint functions as a double processing burden on the learners' cognitive in addition to the original task fulfilment. In other words, shorter does not at all mean simpler, rather it means demanding and more complex because of being a surplus requirement.

Following the literature on cognitive approach to task, a methodological use can be made of length constraint in the language learning process. This can be achieved through manipulating length as a cognitive demand in order to;

1. push learners to more varied use of language in speaking and writing,
2. raise awareness of the learners to attend to native-like use (procedural knowledge) by means of promoted attention to learning from input,
3. maximize the likelihood of learner intake from L2 exposure due to longer input retention,
4. promote learning how to learn because of 'attention' to input,
5. enhance vocabulary learning as a means of longer retention of input,
6. make the learners activate their passive vocabulary, or other language forms as a result of 'stretched interlanguage', and
7. have the L2 learners analyze their input and output

NOTE: *Lexical density, lexical diversity, and grammatical accuracy were calculated using the following formulas: Lexical density = number of different lexical words × 100 / total number of tokens.; Lexical diversity = number of different lexical and functional words (types) × 100 / total number of tokens.; Grammatical accuracy = number of error-free T-Units × 100 / total number of T-Units

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APPENDIX

It was a very wide river, with many great curves in it, and in one of these there lived a large number of wild pigs. Nobody could remember how they had got there, but they managed to live through floods, fires, ice and attacks by hunters.

Then one day a stranger came to the nearest village and asked where he could find the wild pigs. Somebody told him, and he went off. He had no weapons with him, and the village people wondered what he was going to do with the pigs.

When he came back a few months later and said that he had caught all the pigs, the villagers were still more surprised, but some of the men agreed to go with him when he asked for help in bringing the pigs out. They wanted to see whether he was telling the truth.

They soon discovered that he was. All the pigs were inside an enclosure which had a fence round it and a gate in one of its sides.

'How did you do it?' they asked the stranger.

'Well, it was quite easy really,' he answered. 'I began by putting out some Indian corn. At first, they would not touch it, but after a few weeks, some of the younger pigs began to run out of the bushes, take some of the corn quickly, and then run back. Soon all the pigs were eating the corn I put out. Then I began to build a fence round the corn. At first it was very low, but gradually I built it higher and higher without frightening the pigs away. When I saw that they were waiting for me to bring the corn each day instead of going and searching for their own food as they had done in the past, I built a gate in my fence and shut it one day while they were all eating inside the enclosure. I can catch any animal in the world in the same way if I can get it into the habit of depending on me for its food.'

The Relationship between Sentence Structure Awareness and Iranian High School Students' Performance in Reading Comprehension

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between sentence-structure awareness and reading comprehension. The significance of this study lies in the possibility that knowledge of text structure may create connections among the disciplines that could enhance understanding of content and promote thinking and reading comprehension abilities.   After being administer a standardized reading comprehension test, a group of 64 high school students were selected from a total population of 84.The selected subjects were randomaly assigned to experimental and control groups. For the experimental group, the researcher held a treatment which lasted for 4 weeks, two 90 minute sessions per week. During the experiment both groups had the same instructor, curriculum, and schedule of instruction, except that in the control group the students had conventional learning, that is they worked just with the reading passages without any explicit instruction or without any awareness about the types of structures which were the target structure of the researcher- adjective clauses, gerunds, and infinitives-, while for the experimental group, they received explicit instruction and awareness about the types of structures that were the target structure of the researcher. At the end of the study, the obtained scores on the pre- and post-tests were analyzed through different statistical procedures. The results showed that being aware of sentence structures and being explicitly taught grammatical structures had a significant effect on improving Iranian high school students' reading comprehension performance. The results also indicated that significant relationships exist among the variables of sentence-structure recognition and reading comprehension. The associations support the theory that students may use sentence structure to improve thinking and reading comprehension processes.This association provides educators with a potentially powerful way to structure instruction.

Key Words: Sentence-structure; awareness; reading comprehension; consciousness raising; input enhancement

INTRODUCTION

Reading for full comprehension and learning is a special type of reading, which needs a different type of processing in terms of focusing attention, information encoding and retrieval than reading for enjoyment or reading for general information.

Sentence-structure knowledge (awareness) helps a reader to see relationships between ideas, including those between main ideas and details and also relationships among all sentence component parts in order to have a better analysis of the text and sentences and concequently a better understanding and comprehend of the text and sentences.

According to Mandler & Johnson, in both L1 and ESL , students who have been taught how to identify text structure and use this knowledge to guide their reading process have showed better comprehension and recall of information than readers lacking such knowledge (Mandler & Johnson, 1977). Students who are reading texts need to work actively at finding and using appropriate cues in the texts in order to enhance their understanding of them.

Research has indicated that understanding how a passage is structured is an important factor in reading comprehension. (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Meyer, 1979, 1982; Meyer,Brandt, & Bluth, 1980). More specifically, it has been proved that readers who are able to identify sentence structures as well as paragraph-level relationships of a passage are better able to understand the passage than those readers who remember only a collection of details (Meyer, 1985). Of particular interest in the present study is the comprehension of some grammatical structures, which are interpretable only through relationships that are presupposed in the text.

It is time to say something about another important dimension of the present study which is the explicit teaching of grammar by the teacher for the experimental group. It is better to begin with this question: What is the role of grammar instruction in language teaching?

The grammar translation method, the audiolingual method, the cognitive code method, the comprehension method and the communicative method all view the role that grammar should play in language teaching with slight variations. Very early in the days of the communicative competence movement, Canale & Swain (1980) proposed that grammatical competence was an integral part of communicative competence. Some language teachers moving into the communicative era may have reacted too quickly in assuming that grammar was

not a significant part of language teaching and thus ignored its role in the classroom. Fotos (1994) states that the recent discussion of the role that grammar plays in language teaching:

"presents a dilemma for many teachers who have become committed to the use of communicative approaches to language learning, wherein learners are given a rich variety of comprehensible input, and teacher-fronted grammar instruction is generally omitted" (Fotos 1994, p.323).

Language teaching should place grammar back into the curriculum through a careful evaluation of the variables that influence learning and through appropriate techniques to make language learning enjoyable.

SENTENCE STRUCTURE AWARENESS

If awareness of text organization is essential for text comprehension (Meyer, Brandt, & Bluth, 1981), it follows that the presence of some grammatical structures in text should facilitate the instantiation of textual schemata (Kieras, 1985), help to direct readers' attention to important text information (Lorch & Lorch, 1986), and help in checking information in memory (Spyridakis & Standal, 1987). Typical research studies addressing the question of whether explicit text signaling facilitates comprehension compare the effect on comprehension of reading intact texts with texts from which conjunctions have been removed. Results have been controversial. Some studies lead to the conclusion that comprehension is not affected, whereas others suggest that awareness of grammatical structures facilitate comprehension under some reader and text conditions. Spyridakis and Standal (1987) found that signaling facilitated comprehension of expository texts by college students when passages were "neither too easy, nor too difficult" (Standal, 1987, p. 285).

Skilled and less skilled readers have been shown to differ in the degree to which they infer logical relations in text (Bridge& Winograd, 1982; Evans & Ballance, 1980; Geva, 1986a; Geva & Ryan, 1985; Irwin, 1980). Meyer, Brandt, and Bluth (1981) showed that connectives facilitated recall among ninth-grade students who were poor comprehenders but did not among skilled readers.

The schema theory proposed by Bartlett (1932); stresses the importance of background knowledge and knowledge of structures (schemas) for text

comprehension. Richards (1989) and also Brown and Yule (1983a) discuss different types of knowledge schemas such as frames and scripts. Richards defines scripts as a specific variety of knowledge schemas that comprise situation-specific knowledge about the goals, participants and procedures in real-life situations.

Goodman and Niles' (1970) psycholinguistic view points out that the reader interacts with the text in the form of a guessing game. The aim of this guessing game is to re-construct the message that has been encoded by its author in the form of a graphic display. For this purpose readers create meaning in a cyclical process by predicting, testing, confirming or revising their own initial predictions. A text does not carry meaning by itself; it becomes its meaning from the readers' actualization of their own pre-knowledge including their knowledge of various grammatical structures which are used within the texts.

When students process a simple sentence, they mainly use word associations. Syntax merely helps them corroborate the associations. But when the associations are ambiguous and/or the syntax is complex, students must have a good understanding of syntax in order to work out how each word fits into the sentence structure and, ultimately, comprehend the sentence.

Students are more likely to encounter ambiguity and complexity in reading than in speech; the grammatical structures used in written text are more varied and complex than those used in casual conversation. Thus, students must learn the rules of formal syntax in order to become fluent readers.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methodology

As previously stated, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between sentence structure awareness and performance in reading comprehension. What follows is a description of the methodology used in the study.

Participants

The participants were 84 third-grade high school students at Bagerololom high school in Ilam. A Michigan test was used to screen the required number of

students who were supposed to take part in the main part of the study procedures. Among 84 students taking the Michigan test, 64 students were qualified to be classified into both the control and experimental groups because their scores were between1 SD above and1 SD below the mean scores of all the subjects.

Materials

The materials used in this study were two texts from Englishh Book 3 consisting of passages in which the researcher's target structures were used deliberately in order to convey a message. The researcher used passages that were more likely to contain large numbers of adjective clauses,gerunds and infinitives.

A Michigan test (1997 version) of language proficiency was given to the subjects in order to come up with a homogeneous number of subjects. The test consisted of three sections: grammar (40 questions) , vocabulary (40 questions), and reading comprehension (20 questions).

Out of 84 participants, 64 participants were considered to be homogeneous.

Design

The statistical procedure used in the study was a series of Matched T- tests and Independendent -Sample T- tests. The Design of this study was a: Pre-test Post-test Control Group Design:

G1 T1 X T2
G2 T1   T2

G1 = Experimental group, G2 = Control group, T1 = Pretest, T2 = Posttest, and X = Treatment

As mentioned previously, on the basis of the results of the proficiency test - the Michigan test- 64 students whose scores were between 25 and 49 (1 SD above and 1 SD below the mean) were chosen as the key informants. That is, scores which were very high or too low on the test were discarded. The selected subjects were randomaly assigned to the two groups of experimental and control. For the experimental group the researcher held a treatment which lasted for (4) weeks, two sessions a week and each session lasted for 90 minutes. During the

experiment, both   groups had the same instructor, curriculum, and schedule of instruction, except that in the control group the students had conventional learning; that is they worked just with the reading passages without any explicit instruction or without any awareness- by being underlined- about the types of structures which were the target structure of the researcher - adjective clauses, gerunds, and infinitives-, while the experimental group got explicit instruction and awareness- by being undelined - about the researcher's intended structures.

The description of the design for the assessment of the variables at hand is as follow:

The research hypothesis:

There is no relationship between sentence structure awareness and Iranian high school students' performance in reading comprehension.

The level of significance for this two- tailed test was 0.05, the dependent variable was reading comprehension, while the independent variable was sentence structure awareness.

Procedures

The Michigan test of language proficiency was given to the participants. In order to come up with a homogeneous number of subjects the exam papers were scored and the scores were scattered over a normal distribution diagram with the mean of 37 and the standard deviation of around 12. After this, 64 out of 98 subjects were classified into Control (32) and Experimental (32) group.

Data collection and analysis procedure

Evaluating the effectiveness of a metacognitive approach to teaching adjective clauses, gerunds and infinitives as grammatical structures and their effect on the reading comprehension abilities of readers was the researcher's primary goal. To discover this, the researcher gave a pretest in order to know if the two groups were at the same level,   then experimental subjects received grammatical-structure awareness training in order to be able to analysis, monitor and understand the specific grammatical structures which were used in the texts and passages and to

learn if the understanding of these structures played a crucial role in the understanding of the texts and passages.

After the treatment the researcher collected the required data by giving a post-test to the two groups, and after that by using a series of Independent- Sample T-tests. The means of the two groups were compared with each other in order to determine if the difference between them is sufficiently meaningful that the researchers can claim that this gain of the experimental group is solely because of the treatment.

TABLE 1: Frequency Table of Statistics

	Pre-test Experimental	Post-test Experimental	Pre-test Control	Post-test Control
N Valid	32	32	32	32
Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean	10.0000	12.1875	9.9063	9.8750
Std. Error of mean	.48775	.63092	.45649	.56395
Median	10.0000	11.0000	10.0000	10.5000
Mode	11.00	9.00	8.00a	11.00a
Std. Deviation	2.75915	3.56902	2.58231	3.19021
Variance	7.61290	12.73790	6.66835	10.17742
Range	12.00	12.00	11.00	12.00
Minimum	4.00	7.00	5.00	4.00
Maximum	16.00	19.00	16.00	16.00
Sum	320.00	390.00	317.00	316.00

a. Multiple models exist. The smallest value is shown

The descriptive statistics are shown in table 2. This table is one more indication of the students' performance on the pretest. It shows the calculation for the mean, standard deviation, and variance for both sets of scores.

TABLE 2: Descriptive Statistics (Pretest for Both Groups)

Group	X	S	V
Experimental	10.00	2.75	7.61
Control	9.90	2.58	6.66

The table indicates that our two samples had, though not exactly, the same dispersion of scores that seemed to be suitable for our purpose in this research. Next an independent t-test was calculated to verify the pretest results for both groups.(table 3). It showed no significant difference on the pretest between the performance of the experimental and control group prior to training.

TABLE 3: Independent *t*-Test Experimental vs.. Control Group on Pretest

Observed t	Degree of freedom	2-tail p.	Critical t
0.14	62	0.05	2

As the table shows the value of the calculated t is (0.14) which is less than the value of the critical (2) at 0.05 level of probability. Therefore, the two groups have little or almost no differences.

The treatment that the experimental group received, was related to explicit instruction of some specific grammatical structures (here adjective clauses, gerunds and infinitives), and also the underlining of these structures in order for the students to be aware of them within passages. After 8 sessions which lasted 4 weeks, the same reading comprehension test with the same nature and characteristics with respect to the organization, administration, and scoring as the one in the pretest was conducted with the aim of statistically determining whether there was any significant improvement in the reading comprehension ability of the participants in the experimental group. This was done through calculating and comparing the t-test of the groups. Complete data analysis is given in the next part(results).

As has been indicated above after four weeks of treatment in which the experimental subjects were instructed explicitly about the the kinds of structures that were going to be used in the texts and passages of the post-test and the understanding of them was going to have a crucial rule in the understanding of the texts and passages, and also the underlining of these structures above structures in the texts and passages during the treatment phase, after two weeks the post-test was held and then a series of Independent- Sample T-tests in which the mean of the two groups had been compared had been used (see the next part).

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RESULTS

As stated earlier, the purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between sentence structure awareness and Iranian high school students' performance in reading comprehension. To investigate this claimed link the following question was raised, and the following hypothesis was put forward.

Is there any relationship between sentence- structure awareness and Iranian high school students' performance in reading comprehension ?

Restatement of the Hypothesis:

There is no relationship between sentence- structure awareness and Iranian high school students' performance in reading comprehensio .

In order to test the above stated hypothesis, a series of Independent- Sample T-tests and matched T-tests were utilized. The step- by-step procedure is detailed here.

TABLE 4: Descriptive Statistics (Posttest)

Group	X	S	V
Experimental	12.18	3.56	12.73
Control	9.87	3.19	10.17

This table presents the calculations for mean ,standard deviation, and variance for both sets of scores on posttest.

An independent T-test also is calculated to compare the experimental and control group mean scores on the posttest.

TABLE 5: Experimental VS. Control Group on Posttest

Observed t	Degree of freedom	2-tail p.	Critical t
3.12	62	0.05	2

The t-observed value (3.12) at (62) degree of freedom and at the probability level of 0.05 is greater than the critical value of t (2). Thus the null hypothesis is rejected, meaning that the experimental group   (X= 12.18) outperformed the

control group (X= 9.87) on the post-test.

As the results of the study indicated, explicit teaching and students' awareness of grammatical structures had a significant effect on the improvement of the Iranian high school students' performance in reading comprehension. The findings of this study suggest that explicit teaching and students' awareness of grammatical structures play an important role on the improvement of the subjects reading comprehension ability. Therefore more emphasis should be put on the readers' explicit instruction and awareness.

Having compared the pre-test and post-test scores of both groups, we found an increase in the posttest mean score of experimental group, which demonstrated empirically that explicit teaching and students' awareness of grammatical structures play an important role in the improvement of the subjects' reading comprehension ability.

In conclusion, there is some evidence that explicit teaching and students' awareness of grammatical structures can provide positive effects on reading comprehension ability (see tables 4&5).

DISCUSSION

The results of the hypothesis of the present study demonstrated a positive relationship between the subjects' sentence- structure awareness and reading comprehension ability meaning that experimental group students scores on both the pre-test and post-test   changed significantly due to explicit instruction during treatment and also due to experimental group students' awareness of the kind of specific grammatical structures(gerunds, infinitives, and adjective clauses) used in texts, so we rejected the null hypothesis and came up with an alternative hypothesis that said that there is a positive relationship between sentence-structure awareness and subjects' reading comprehension ability.

These findings are in keeping with Mandler & Johnson, (1977) and Meyer, (1979) who claimed that in both L1 and ESL, students who have been taught how to identify text structures and use this knowledge to guide their reading process have shown better comprehension and recall of information than readers lacking such knowledge. Students who are reading texts need to work actively at finding and using appropriate cues in the texts in order to enhance their understanding of them.

Research has indicated that understanding how a passage is structured is an important factor in reading comprehension. (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Meyer, 1979, 1982; Meyer,Brandt, & Bluth, 1980.). More specifically, these findings are in keeping with the claim that readers who are able to identify sentence structures as well as paragraph-level relationships within a passage are better able to understand the passage than those readers who remember only a collection of details (Meyer, 1985).

CONCLUSION

The present research was an attempt to investigate the relationship between sentence- structure awareness and Iranian high school students' performance in reading comprehension. One research question was put forward as follows:

Is there any relationship between sentence- structure awareness and Iranian high school student's performance in reading comprehension?

After choosing 84 high school students at Bagerololom school in Ilam who were studying in the third grade, a Michigan test was used to screen the required number of students who were supposed to take part in the main part of the thesis procedures. Among 84 students taking the Michigan test, 64 students were qualified to be classified into the control and experimental groups because their scores were between 1 SD above and1 SD below the mean score of all the participants.

Then the participants took a pretest in which they answered 20 multiple-choice reading comprehension question items from two reading texts within which the researcher's intended grammatical structures (gerunds, infinitives, and adjective clauses) were used profoundly. The purpose was to learn if the two groups were at the same level, then experimental subjects received grammatical- structure awareness training in order to be able to analyse, monitor and understand the intended grammatical structures that were used in the texts and passages, and determine if their understanding had a crucial role in the understanding of the texts and passages. Subjects in control group received conventional classroom reading activities without any treatment.

As has been mentioned above, the materials used in this study were two texts

from Book Three, and the texts themselves consisted of passages in which the intended grammatical structures were used in a deliberate fashion in order to convey a message. The researcher used passages that were more likely to contain large numbers of adjective clauses, gerunds and infinitives.

After four weeks of treatment the post-test was held and then the observed value of 3.12 was found to be larger than the most probable value found for 62 degrees of freedom. Indeed the results showed a positive relationship between sentence structure awareness and reading comprehension ability.

Pedagogical Implications

The results of the present study have implications for second language pedagogy in different areas, including second language teaching. The present study represents a research project that investigated the effect of raising general metacognitive awareness of language grammatical structures on student achievement in reading comprehension. The study addressed issues raised in the literature: for example, (1) whether there is any empirical evidence to the claim that conscious awareness of language grammatical structures correlates with greater reading comprehension ability, and (2) whether students actually profit from it.

In this study it was showed that strategy training (in this case being aware of grammatical structures) is needed to transform less successful readers into more proficient ones and to enhance the already steady progress of good strategy users.

However, the success of strategy training as measured by the researcher is not as great as one might suspect.

From a pedagogical perspective, we can ask, how learners' attention might be directed toward formal features of the input so that they process them. That is, how can learners be directed both to make meaning and to make form-meaning connections? A type of grammatical instruction called "processing instruction" investigates the connection between input processing, input comprehension, and building linguistic systems. The research carried out to date, summarized in VanPatten (1996), consistently reports the benefits of grammatical instruction aimed at having learners attend to formal features of the input provided they attach meaning to the form (Cadierno, 1995; Cheng, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; VanPatten & Sanz, 1995). In these studies, learners not only gain in their ability to comprehend grammatical form during input processing, but they also gain in their

ability to use the form in output. Both theory and pedagogy have something to gain by a continued investigation of how learners attend to input data.

Suggestions for Further Research and Investigation

The study can be replicated in the following ways:

The present study focused only on adjective clauses, gerunds, and infinitives. Other studies of the same type can be done developing the scope of the research into other types of grammatical structures.

More 'planned focus-on-form' research, which targets other additional grammatical features over longer periods of time for instructional treatments, is needed in order to further our understanding of how focus on- form can be implemented in the classroom.

Replications of this study using a larger sample size, additional levels of language ability, lengthier tasks/tests and collecting additional data on student strategy use through think-aloud protocols or strategy-use questionnaires will be needed in order to shed light on the potential currency of the trends detected here.

Limitations of the Study

As it common with every study, this study had its own limitations.Grammar teaching was boring for the students, so students in the experimental group were not very interested in the classes.

Another problem of this study was the selection of only some grammatical structures among a lot of structures in the English language, because the researcher did not have any specific criteria in advance. Finally, those structures with which the subjects had difficulties in the general proficiency test-the Michigan Test-were selected.

Another problem is that we are in need of longitudinal intervention studies in order to determine whether development of text structure knowledge results in long-lasting improvements in comprehension because it is felt that students would lose their knowledge of sentence structures over time.

A further limitation is that it was not possible to remunerate the students for their participation in this research experiment.As has been mentioned, lack of motivation may also have negatively influenced the results of the experiment.

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Challenges for Becoming a Successful Writing Teacher of English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

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ABSTRACT

This teacher reflective report is based on the author's teaching of academic writing workshops to international students at a university in the United States. For newer international students in the U. S., writing assignments can be challenging because expressing academic ideas in a second language requires knowledge of specific academic genres and American writing conventions as well as certain levels of English writing proficiency. The vivid descriptions of the writing classes and the teacher's reflection on teaching international students to avoid plagiarism, to write coherently and to prevent pragmatic failure will provide the practical implications for practitioners.

INTRODUCTION

For newer international students in the United States, writing assignments may be challenging. The main reason is that expressing academic ideas in a second language requires knowledge of specific academic genres and American writing conventions in addition to certain levels of English writing proficiency. Plagiarism among non-native English speaking (NNES) college students has been a persistent issue. International college students whose first language is not English use the original texts of readings for their writing with words rearranged or copied (Currie, 1998) and the international students use the original texts without appropriate citations (Shih, 2004). Another issue for the non-native English speaking students is the organization of their writing, which should be an important consideration in writing not only for the non-native English speaking students (NNES) but also for native English speaking students (NES). Some researchers have claimed that there are organizational patterns according to writers' cultural backgrounds, but the

debate over contrastive rhetoric has not been resolved. Apart from this debate, research has revealed that English as a Second Language (ESL) students improved the cohesion and coherence of their writing through direct instruction. The other issue is that NNES students' claim that they lack skills of hedging (or softening a claim to avoid over-generalization) in their writing, which lead to the failure of pragmatic competence of writing (Hyland & Milton, 1997)**.** To elaborate, NNES writers often fail to hedge their claims because of complexity, variety, and cross-cultural differences of hedges. I agree that learning and appropriately using hedges in second language (L2) academic writing is not easy because using hedging requires linguistic knowledge as well as socio-pragmatic understanding. Some fields or genres may prefer a strong and firm tone of writing, while other fields or genres prefer careful and accurate claims.

I believe that teaching international students to avoid plagiarism, to write coherently and to prevent pragmatic failure raises their awareness of cross-cultural and genre-specific variations as well as language use for academic purposes. The awareness is crucial for the NNES students studying in American higher educational institutions. Through reflecting on teaching a series of academic workshops to NNES university students, the questions to be explored are:

1. If I want to assist the international students in increasing their knowledge about coherent academic papers, what kinds of activities can I facilitate?
2. Can I raise students' cross-cultural pragmatic awareness by teaching hedging/softening words?
3. When I teach about plagiarism to international students, what challenges do I have and how can I overcome those challenges?

Brief description of setting and participants of my service project

I taught a series of academic writing workshops at the Center for Academic Learning Support (CALS- a pseudonym) at a university in the United States for two semesters from July 14th, 2008 to March 27th, 2009. CALS supports undergraduate and graduate students through interactive learning strategy workshops and one-on-one individual learning instruction. According to the instructors at CALS, a majority of international students who used CALS's service commented that writing was the skill that they felt most difficult and wanted to learn more about. The learning center allowed me to develop my own curriculum

and materials. Before teaching a workshop, I selected contents and skills that I thought students should learn by extensively researching academic writing in various writing textbooks and academic research journals, and I integrated and modified the information for my students. In addition, I created PowerPoint slides and handouts based on reliable sources, and revised them at least three times after talking with two learning instructors at CALS.

The series of workshops consisted of six topics: paraphrasing, summarizing and synthesizing, writing literature reviews, grammar and vocabulary mistakes, organization mistakes, and avoiding plagiarism. The workshop team at the learning center selected essential writing skills and knowledge for international students. Moreover, we organized the workshops to be connected as a series, for example, covering paraphrasing, summarizing and synthesizing skills before teaching how to write a literature review.

The workshops differed from the regular classes in several ways. The workshops were open to any international undergraduate and graduate students at the university at no cost. Participants voluntarily registered and attended the workshops. Because the students attended the workshop based on their interest and availability, the workshops did not have a regular group of students. Each workshop met one hour per a week for six weeks, and the same series of workshops was held for the fall semester, 2008 and the spring, 2009. The average number of students per workshop was eight to ten. Although each workshop did not consist of the same students, many students attended fairly regularly. Most of the attendees originally came from China, Taiwan, Japan, Korea, Pakistan and the Philippines and had not studied in an English speaking country before. However, their English proficiency was considered to be advanced based on their high TOEFL scores and fluent speaking in the workshops. Most of the attendees were graduate students in the spring semester, while both graduate and undergraduate students evenly attended in the fall semester. The graduate students were from several disciplines, including education, nursing, and social science. In this report, not all topics taught will be covered. Instead, the topics that are related to cross-cultural awareness and genre specific variations will be the focus.

If I want to assist the international students in increasing their knowledge about coherent academic papers, what kinds of activities can I facilitate?

Organization of writing is important because it makes writing logical and persuasive. International non-native English speaking (NNES) students often view organizational structure of writing as a secondary priority to content, grammar, and words when writing a paper. Including the work of Kaplan (1966), there has been much research about contrastive rhetoric (different language use and thought patterns depending on a writer's culture). The controversy over contrastive rhetoric has not been resolved. Kaplan, who initiated the concept of contrastive rhetoric, asserted that NESs' writing was linear and direct while that of NNESs was digressive and indirect as Figure 1 shows.
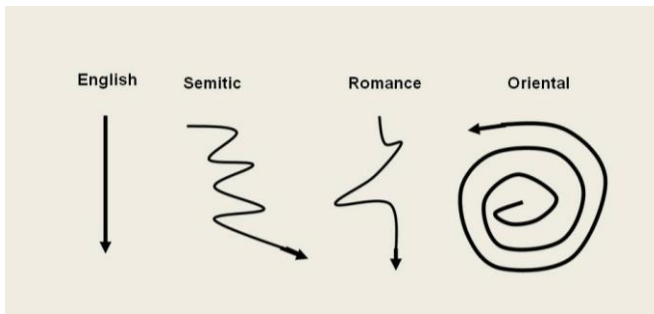
FIGURE 1: Cultural Differences of the Organization Pattern in Kaplan's (1966) Study (Source: Kaplan, 1966, p. 15)

I have always explored effective ways to teach organization of academic writing. However, I made a mistake in my workshop; I showed Kaplan's (1966) diagrams to demonstrate different organization patterns by different language groups at the beginning of the workshop for organization. Moreover, I used Hinds' (1987) terms, 'reader responsible' and 'writer responsible,' and explained that international students need to take the 'writer responsibility' in the U.S. At the time of the class, I did not realize that the diagrams and terms I used were very controversial. While Kaplan (1966) maintained rhetorical patterns of NNES students from other cultures were different from or inferior to rhetorical conventions of NES, more recently, Kubota (1999, 2004) asserts that those cultural images are shaped by linguists, reflecting the power issues.

Although I briefly mentioned that these diagrams were just patterns that one researcher claimed, I realized that the decision to use the diagrams must have been a behavior of a novice teacher because I provided one side of the controversial

issue without sufficient research of the other side. It was easy for me to say that the English writing pattern was linear and straightforward as the research supported, so I told students to write in this linear manner. However, the patterns might be limited to essay writing, rather than academic writing genres, as Connor (2002) posited. Considering that my class focused on academic writing, I should have more carefully examined not only cross-cultural variations but also genre-specific issues, rather than grouping writing patterns by countries.

Later in the same workshop, I offered a ground rule that I developed: Sentences and paragraphs should be interrelated under a topic. I explained that successful writers use examples, elaborations, counter arguments or reasons to support a statement or a claim. I hoped that students could apply this ground rule to the activity they were going to do in the same workshop.

For the activity, the students were asked to analyze a paragraph-long sample synthesis. (See Appendix 1). The topic of the synthesis was various perspectives on citation. I provided three factors for the students to consider while reading and analyzing the synthesis: (a) the role of the first and second sentences, (b) the method of organizing different sources and (c) the way of connecting ideas. Students worked in pairs, and were asked to report their observations. After a student answered, "The first sentence is the topic sentence," I explained, "A topic sentence is generally a broad statement of what you are going to write in the paragraph. Also, notice how the following sentence is written. The second sentence introduces the supporting examples." For the question of how to organize the sources, students quietly murmured, so I explained that the sources were organized thematically as the matrix on the handout showed. (See Appendix 1). Also, I explained that there were other ways to organize them, such as chronologically. For the way of connecting ideas, students easily recognized transitions.

I created this activity to teach three aspects of organization. First, through examining the first two sentences of a paragraph, the students would learn how to write a topic sentence and how to support the first sentence with the second sentence in a logical way. Second, by realizing that the different sources were grouped by certain commonalities, the students would learn how to organize and synthesize multiple sources. Lastly, noticing the transitions as performing connective functions between sentences could help them learn the functions of transitional expressions in context.

Having the students investigate the roles of first two sentences was inspired by Reid's (1996) interesting research. Reid found that the NESs guessed the expected second sentence correctly twice as often as Chinese students did when they were supposed to create a sentence following the first one. Appropriateness of their responses was evaluated by experienced NES readers. Based on the study, Reid concluded that more NESs than NNESs could satisfy the NES readers' expectation about complete cultural knowledge, which includes linguistic, content, context and rhetorical knowledge as clues.

I adopted the genre approach to teach coherent organization of academic writing. According to Hyland (2003), genre pedagogies focus on the genres that are written (or spoken) for particular purposes and encourage students to be aware of the language of a specific context. One popular activity in the genre-based classroom is investigating texts and contexts of the target situations, as I used the analysis activity of the sample synthesis. Moreover, explicitly teaching the language, such as a range of transitions can help learners be aware of the discourse of the target context.

There are a wide variety of transitional expressions used in academic writing. A teacher can provide students with lists of transitions and make the students memorize them. But several critical questions should be answered for the sake of learners' learning: whether the students can use those transitions, whether the students know how to use them in appropriate contexts, and whether the students understand why they use transitions. I know that distributing a list of transitions is easy for me, but the list itself does not guarantee that learners use the transitions appropriately.

I consider transitions an important tool for making writing coherent because they make the relationship between sentences or paragraphs explicit. Based on this belief, I developed a classroom activity. I put students in pairs, and distributed a worksheet. (See Appendix 2). The text was an excerpt of a textbook, *Life-span development.* I removed all the transitions in the excerpt and asked the students to read the text and fill in the blanks with appropriate transitions. I put small pieces of paper containing transitional expressions on the table. Two pairs had to share a set of these transitions. (See Appendix 2). Transitions provided were words, phrases, or sentences. The rationale of this activity was to teach learners select transitions appropriate in context and expand their repertoire of transitions by choosing synonyms or similar expressions. Also, the students would be able to learn the roles of the particular transitions by understanding the context in which

they could be used. Students talked to each other and stood to pick up little pieces of paper. I told them to select appropriate transitions, but if the specific transitions they were looking for were not available because another group had already picked them up, then to find alternative transitions so they could learn to diversify the transitions in their writing rather than repeat the same expressions. After students completed the activity, I asked them to share their choices. Some students nodded when another group chose different transitional expressions for the same blank. They learned using another transition for the same context through the sharing.

Although transitional words are only one type of words, transitions play important roles in writing by connecting sentences and paragraphs. As Hyland (2004) found after analyzing a corpus of 240 masters' and doctoral theses in Hong Kong, a large numbers of transitional words were used in academic writing regardless of discipline and genre. Hyland's study may imply that the language teachers of English as Academic Purposes (EAP) should teach transitions to the students. Since transitions signal in which direction the writer is going, they are beneficial for both the writers to guide the writing coherently and the readers to understand easily. To help my students write papers coherently, I taught how to structure the overall organization of the writing and how to write topic sentences and supporting sentences. Also, to connect the ideas smoothly and logically, the use of transitional words was introduced and practiced.

Can I raise students' cross-cultural pragmatic awareness by teaching hedging words?

Academic writers are expected to consider readers' reactions because academic communication is social interaction, (Hyland, 1998). The writer's pragmatic failure can result in the reader's misunderstanding of the writer's intention. Hyland and Milton (1997) assert that expressing certainty and uncertainty appropriately in English is an important area of pragmatic competence and critical to successful academic writing. Also, Hyland (2000) remarked that L2 writers from different cultures face pragmatic failure because of lack of pragmatic understanding in the English academic setting, including degrees of indirectness and formality, as well as language skills. When the writer claims, states, assesses, or interprets, he or she indicates uncertainty or possibility. In other words, the

writer hedges his claim in writing, so he or she does not generalize or exaggerate his/her claims or opinions.

Teaching hedging words to my students was challenging because of their unfamiliarity with hedges. Although I have learned English as a second language for more than 15 years, it was not long ago that I became conscious of hedging in writing. I have never explicitly learned about hedging in my entire English learning experience. However, I realized the importance or usefulness of hedges in academic writing through reading scholarly journals and receiving feedback from writing instructors and professors. Moreover, several researchers mentioned that many inexperienced NNES writers failed to use language appropriately. Hyland (2000) said that NNES often failed to distinguish in their writing between accepted fact and their own thoughts (p. 87).

There are two reasons I decided to include hedging expressions in my syllabus. First, I wanted to give my students the opportunity to learn hedging expressions that I had not had, so they would become more competent L2 writers. Second, hedging expressions frequently occur in professional English academic writing. The high frequency of hedging in academic writing was demonstrated by Hyland's (1995) corpus analysis: To be specific, more than one hedging word was found in every 50 words. Despite the extensive information about hedging in writing, I planned to introduce hedging as an initial step because of the limited time: I aimed to draw students' attention to hedging expressions and their functions in this class. I did not extensively cover hedging, but I believed that especially students with the high English language proficiency could expand the knowledge and skills once they started to understand its concept.

First, I showed two generalized or exaggerated sentences on a PowerPoint slide in order to introduce the meaning of hedging (Excerpt 1).

EXCERPT 1: Two Sentences of Generalization or Exaggeration

- *People living in poverty <u>always</u> have medical problems.*
- *<u>Everything</u> is falling apart today. (Source: The 03/06/09 workshop)*

Then, I asked a student to read the sentences aloud, and asked the rest of students to find something in common in these two sentences. No student answered, even though they looked as if they had some ideas. Some people nodded, when I said, "Maybe you noticed something, but it's hard to explain."

The fact that nobody answered was still surprising. Most of my students were graduate students and had learned English as a second language for many years. They were confident about explaining grammatical errors in other activities; they quickly and correctly found the errors in the sentences and explained the errors using grammatical terms, 'voice' and 'parallelism.' In contrast, they were uncertain about hedging words, which might indicate that they had not learned about hedging in English.

I explained hedging expressions and gave a number of examples during the class. According to articles about hedging (Hyland, 1995; Lewin, 2005), hedging words soften and tone down a writer's claims in order not to generalize or exaggerate, so it is a careful way to express opinions and claims. In the two sentences that I showed at the beginning of the class, the writers wrote categorically, not considering other possibilities. The statements can be questioned by readers. Readers might criticize the generalization, which possibly represents immaturity as a writer because the writer has not thought critically and comprehensively.

I paused to check students' understanding, and asked, "Is this difficult?" and no student answered. It was obvious that even students with high language proficiency were not familiar with hedging expressions. I believed that examples would help students easily understand what hedging words were and how to use them in academic writing, even if the word 'hedging' and the explanation of it might be new to them. I adopted a few examples from Hyland (1995) because he offered an exceptionally in-depth explanation with examples of hedging expressions.

Starting with modal verbs (e.g., *can, may, could,* and *might*), I showed students two sentences '*X causes Y*' and '*X may cause Y*' and directly explained how those two are different, "If you write X causes Y, then it is a fact or knowledge that you assert without considering other possibilities. But if you say 'X may cause Y', it shows your inference, understanding, and plausible reasoning. Here 'may' has some degree of uncertainty, which indicates other possibilities" (transcript of audio-recording from workshop on 3/6/09). In addition, I pointed out more modal verbs (e.g., *can, may, could*, and *might*) on the handout. (See Appendix 3). However, I regret not asking students to contrast those two sentences and facilitating their analysis. I think I underestimated students' ability only because the content was being introduced for the first time. I believed they could have found how a sentence's meaning changed because of the modal verb 'may.'

The second example, 'S*tatistics is used everywhere'* was related to quantifiers as hedges, adopted from Hinkel (2004). Because this example was similar to examples that I had presented at the beginning, some students could easily modify 'everywhere' to 'many places.' I added more phrases 'a number of places' and 'almost everywhere.' Additionally, I provided more phrases, including 'some, a few, a great deal of, and a little,' and then, advised not to generalize a situation because other possibilities might refute the generalization.

The next example sentence, '*The chance is 70% according to our method'* was also adopted from Hyland (1995). After reading this sentence, I immediately explained, "Let's say you conducted a survey or an experiment and you obtained 70% chance as a result, but you don't want to say for sure that it fits every situation so you specify this is the result based on my study and my method." Also, I emphasized that the writer could express his/her anticipation of an opposition and open up a discussion by indicating other possibilities in his/her writing. Reflecting on the session, if I had asked students to carefully examine the sentence and tell which part made the sentence soft and indirect without any modal verbs and qualifiers, teaching would have been more effective than the teacher-centered teaching I conducted.

Based on the explanation of the examples and Hyland's (1995) analysis, I summarized that hedging words indicated other possibilities and anticipated counter-evidence. Also I told my students that another important function of hedging was to respect readers' thinking and judgment. Myers (1989) explains that hedging mitigates a writer's claim and allows readers to judge for themselves. I value students' independent learning, in which I teach the essential concept and students expand their knowledge or skills based on classroom learning. These three functions of hedges also provide a rationale for using hedges, so students having learned them could write their own hedges, depending on the situation.

I believed that teaching a new concept and the related language through examples would be beneficial for students to develop consciousness about hedging. Nevertheless, it was not easy to find proper examples of hedging expressions in ESL textbooks; as Hyland (2000) points out, there is a lack of information on hedging in current textbooks. Thus, I used examples of published research articles about hedging (Hinkel, 2004; Hyland, 1995; Hyland, 2000; Hyland and Milton, 1997). Hyland (2000) also indicates that because of the lack of availability of textbooks about hedging both teachers and learners, who rely on textbooks, tend to consider hedging unimportant.

Despite all the examples and explanations I provided, students did not look interested. Perhaps the class would have been more interesting to them if I had provided examples from different disciplines. Since most of the students were graduate students from social work, education, or nursing, I could have differentiated representative types of sentences between the humanities and science. Writers from humanities-related majors, for instance, might use language expressing more personal views in their academic papers (e.g., "I believe" or "we understand"), while those from scientific or medical disciplines might use more experiment-based discussion terminology (e.g., "approximately" or "according to").

Another effective way to explain hedging expressions might be following Swales and Feak's (2007) approach. They did not mention the term 'hedging' but instead called these types of words and phrases which help a writer express 'defensible' statements 'combined qualifications.' The example sentence Swales and Feak used is '*Washing hands prevents colds*' (p. 129). Its first step in the hedging process is using a weak verb (e.g., *reduce* instead of *prevent*), the second step is adding probability (e.g., *may reduce* instead of *reduce*), the third step is weakening the generalization (e.g., Washing hands may reduce colds *in some circumstances*), and the final step is adding distance (e.g., Washing hands may reduce colds in some circumstances *according to simulation studies*). These steps can help students have the different degrees of generalization depending on the word choice.

After my extensive explanation and students' limited interaction, I provided an activity with the intention of testing students' understanding and encouraging their participation. This activity was originally used by Figueiredo-Silva (2004). She introduced two activities that asked students to mark hedges used in selected journal abstracts and to create hedges in a given conference paper. In my activity, students were given a short paragraph:

EXCERPT 3

Although there is some debate surrounding the specialization of the brain, researchers generally agree that speech is controlled by the left side. There is no debate that in the great majority of cases, injuries to the left side nearly always have an impact on speech. (Source: Swales & Feak, 2007: 301)

I asked my students to underline all the hedging expressions in the paragraph, many of which did not overlap with the specific hedging expressions that I had covered in the class. I chose this specific activity not to test students' memory, rather to encourage students to learn independently.

As an assessment, I evaluated students' performance by grading their answers. In the given paragraph, *some, generally, the great majority of,* and *nearly always* were considered to be hedges. Although hedging as a toning-down technique can include a longer phrase, clause, or sentence, as Lewin (2005: 169) suggested, I focused on only words and short noun phrases in this activity, taking into account students' limited learning experiences about hedges. No correct answer was equivalent to 0% score, one correct answer was 25% score, two correct answers is 50% score, three correct answers was 75% score, and four correct answers was 100% score. 75% score was considered to be high, and below 50% score was considered to be low.

Marking hedging or down-toning expressions might have been a new activity for students. Nevertheless, the result was surprising to me: three students of ten received 0% score, two students scored 25%, and scores of five students were ranged from 75% to 100%. The average score was 50%. The fact that half of the students were correct on only one hedge or none was discouraging to me because all attendees for the workshop on 3/6/09 were graduate students and their English speaking proficiency was high.

I wondered why their scores were not as high as I expected. One possible explanation could be that the activity was done immediately after I taught hedging, so students had not internalized the information yet. Another possible explanation would be the difficulty of learning hedging. As Hyland (2000) proposed, one of the reasons why hedging was difficult to learn for NNES was that hedging could be written in a wide variety of ways. For instance, depending on the situation, different modal verbs, such as *may, might*, or *could*, and different adverbs, such as *apparently* or *possibly* are used. Utilizing appropriate hedging expressions or strategies is not easy for inexperienced NNES writers.

Overall, teaching and learning about hedging expressions was challenging for both me as a teacher and seemed to be challenging for my students. For students learning a new concept and doing an unfamiliar type of activity about hedging could have been difficult, and for me teaching hedging with limited materials and experience was challenging. However, I happened to have a short conversation with two students after workshop (One conversation was in person, and the other

was through email). When I worried about students' indifferent reaction, one student told me,

EXCERPT 4

I have never thought about how to hedge in either my native language or English, but I tried to use most rather than every and may or could rather than is because I am not a perfect person and every paper has some weak points. The term 'hedging' was totally new to me, but later during the workshop, I had an 'aha moment,' so maybe other people were quiet because they were processing, like absorbing the new term and thinking back and forth, like me. (Source: Interview, 3/6/09)

I was a little relieved by her comment. The other student said through email.

EXCERPT 5

I have heard of hedging from a TA (Teaching Assistant) when I just started to study in the United States, but I did not pay attention to it. The workshop was my first official experience of learning hedging, which was very helpful. (Source: Email conversation, 3/11/09)

Although both students said that they had some sense about hedges, they were not sure exactly when and how to use them. To be sure how to use hedging expressions, they said, they would need more practice. They seemed to want a next step. It would have been helpful to the high mark students if I had prepared an extra activity. For example, I could have asked them to complete a paragraph with hedging expressions, similar to one of the activities that Figueiredo-Silva (2004) used.

Despite not having had any learning opportunities of my own and a lack of available learning materials, I decided to teach hedging words because of their high frequency and importance of in academic writing. Although only a short time was allowed, students learned to recognized exaggeration or generalization in the examples discussed and learned the functions of hedging words in academic writing. Furthermore, they were able to identify the hedging expressions in a given paragraph. Through my explanations and classroom activities, students could have started to be conscious of hedging, as two students reported to me. The appropriate use of hedging expressions may make their writing more sophisticated, accurate, and trusty.

When I teach international students about plagiarism, what challenges do I have and how can I overcome these challenges?

My learning and teaching experience alerted me that plagiarism in the United States is considered to be a 'crime' in academic settings, so every level of student from elementary to higher education seems to be educated about avoiding plagiarism. It is my experience and impression that people in Korea do not tend to be as strict as people in the United States about plagiarism in writing. Although it is obvious that copying parts or all of somebody's paper is problematic, following a certain academic writing style, such as APA style, is rarely taught in Korean high schools and colleges. After spending time working with international students in the U.S. as a learner and a teacher, I heard from many of them mentioned that they were surprised by how strict policies about plagiarism are in the U.S.

At the beginning of the workshop on 3/27/09, I facilitated a discussion for students to identify the gaps between plagiarism in their culture and in the U.S. culture. Excerpt 6 presents the discussion questions.

EXCERPT 6: Discussion Questions about Plagiarism in Your Country

In your country;
1. Did you use outside sources when you wrote papers?
2. Did you paraphrase the ideas of the sources?
3. Did you cite the sources?
4. Did you have (or see) any trouble when you (or somebody) did not paraphrase or cite sources? (Source: The 3/27/09 workshop)

These questions were intended to uncover whether students knew about plagiarism and tried to avoid plagiarism when they wrote academic papers in their countries as well as to share their native culture and experience, so they could compare writing conventions between their countries and the U.S. In the discussion, all the students talked about almost the same experiences. A student from Pakistan said, "I did not cite sources and paraphrase when I was in a college, but professional writers or researchers must cite the sources." A student from the Philippines said, "Students are expected to paraphrase but not cite the sources, and

I have never seen people in trouble because they didn't paraphrase or cite sources." When I asked if they were required to follow any academic writing style, such as APA or MLA, everyone said "No."

Following the discussion, I played a short video clip about definitions and consequences of plagiarism in the U.S. In the video clip, animated images of a professor and students were talking for about one minute: The professor said that plagiarism was taking someone's ideas as your own, and the consequence of it was a failing grade for the paper or course, or expulsion from the university, and then students in the clip screamed. Following the video clip, students listened to my explanation of definitions and consequences of plagiarism in the U.S. (Excerpt 7).

EXCERPT 7

Plagiarism is to use someone's ideas or words without properly giving credit. It is stealing. The consequences of plagiarism are always negative, such as a failing grade for the paper or failing grade for the course. Or you may be kicked out of the university. (Source: The 3/27/09 workshop)

I asked students, "Why do you think people plagiarize?" and a student answered, "Because people don't know." People from outside of the U.S., like my students, might unintentionally plagiarize for various reasons, including unfamiliarity with American writing conventions. Although my focus was unintentional plagiarism, I briefly explained that plagiarism was plagiarism whether it was intended or not. Students may sometimes plagiarize because they are busy or many other students are doing so, even though they are aware of plagiarism. To help students avoid unintentional plagiarism, I highlighted two points. The first was to properly cite sources by quoting, paraphrasing and summarizing. The other suggestion was to thoroughly follow academic writing styles, such as APA, MLA, or Chicago depending on their discipline's requirements.

In planning the workshop, I considered helping students acquire three writing skills: quoting, paraphrasing and summarizing. These three skills are essential when using outside sources. In Currie's (1998) case study, the student used 'patchwriting' (e.g., rearranging the words of the original text) as a survival strategy or an initial stage of becoming a more competent writer in the second language (L2) academic context. By utilizing these three skills, inexperienced

students were able to use outside sources in a legitimate way, rather than improperly changing or rearranging original words.

To teach students how to adopt outside sources, I gave a short lecture about what to quote, how to quote and some cautions about quoting based on Harris' (2002) book, then, used an activity about quotation rules. Harris provides five quotation rules, and I modified the example sentences of the rules and created an interactive and hands-on activity. In this activity, students were paired, and one incomplete grid and five small pieces of paper were distributed to each pair. (For a complete grid, see Table 1). The right side of a grid for examples was blank, and each example was written separately on a small piece of paper. Students were instructed to read the given quotations rules on the grid and match the correct example.

TABLE 1: A Complete Grid for Quotation Rules Activity

Quotation Rule	Example
1. Quotations use double quotation	"Follow American conventions," he
2. Periods and commas go inside quotation marks.	Professor Williams says, "Remember where the comma goes," and adds,
3. Quoting within a quotation uses single quotation marks.	The waiter said, "Our dessert cake has been called 'utterly chocolate
4. Quoting one word uses double	The word "infer" means to deduce
5. A parenthetical citation is part of the sentence but not part of the	APA: Dr. Lee writes, "Listen to Professor Williams" (p. 123).

(Source: Adapted from Harris, 2002)

This activity was intended to give students time to learn specific quotation rules with their examples. These quotation rules are sophisticated because they explain very small details, including the position of a comma. Because just reading examples and matching the rules on a page might be boring, I gave each example as a colorful piece of paper to activate students' cognitive process with the help of the physical activity, picking up and moving small pieces to the grid. My own learning experience had taught me that deciding where to put commas, periods and quotation marks could be confusing. I believed that teaching these complex rules with clear examples could help students accurately quote or at least start to be cautious when quoting. After the activity, a student told me, frowning, "Oh my god, I have never paid attention to the position of a period and a comma,

and I was confused between usage of a single and a double quotation so far. I already submitted two papers." I was pleased to see her reflect on the writing assignment she had done and learn information she could apply to her studies.

In addition to teaching them quoting, I taught students how to paraphrase and summarize again, although I had taught those skills in detail in previous workshops. As Oda and Yamamoto (2007) explain, paraphrasing is an essential skill for English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Since paraphrasing is required for summarizing and frequently used in academic writing, I spent more time on paraphrasing than summarizing in this workshop. After briefly explaining three strategies for paraphrasing: to change words, to change sentence structure and to cite the source, I distributed a worksheet in which there was a sentence and empty space for students to write. The students were then asked to paraphrase the given sentence (Excerpt 8).

EXCERPT 8

Children speak more like adults, dress more like adults and behave more like adults than they used to. (Source: Keck, 2006: 267)

When my students started to read the original sentence, I reminded them of paraphrasing strategies, and I said that citing the source was not required in this activity, although they must do so in real academic papers. After students finished writing, I told the students, "I am going to show you four paraphrases ranging from a 'nearly copied paraphrase' to an 'appropriate paraphrase,' and you can compare them with your own paraphrases."

Keck (2006) classified students' paraphrases into four types and labeled each example according to the degree of revision as in Table 1. The first example is *Near Copy* because the paraphrase contains more than 50% of the words of the original text. For the *Minimal Revision*, the paraphrase includes about 50% of the original text, but the words of the paraphrase are arranged differently and writer's own words are added. I explained to my students that their paraphrases would not be acceptable if they were similar to these two examples. For the *Moderate Revision*, less than 20% of the original text is used, but the order of presentation is similar to the original, while *Substantial Revision* contains fewer than 15% of the original words and the order of presentation significantly diverges from the original. I told students that the *Substantial Revision* would be considered to be an

appropriate and desired paraphrase. Each example represents different degrees of modification as Table 2 shows. I used Keck's (2006) taxonomy to show my students how much they should change the original text when they use outside sources.

TABLE 2: Different Degrees of Revision for Paraphrasing

Near Copy
Nowadays, children's behavior <u>more likes adults than they used to</u>.
Minimal Revision
Yet <u>children</u> are beginning to act more and <u>more like adults</u> everyday, by the way they <u>speak</u> and act.
Moderate Revision
Modern children seem to behaving, through <u>dress</u> and speech, <u>like adults</u> at a <u>young age</u>.
Substantial Revision
It seems that <u>children</u> do and even the clothes that they wear are more adult-like than ever before.

(Source: Keck, 2006, p. 269-270)

Students, especially those with high proficiency, seemed to perceive that paraphrasing is easy. In the interview by Oda and Yamamoto (2007), many students reported that paraphrasing was easy because paraphrasing was just changing the words. However, unlike students' perception, paraphrasing a sentence to avoid plagiarism is not easy for learners because acceptable paraphrasing requires considerable change.

EXCERPT 9: Two of My Students' Paraphrases

Original text: "Children speak more like adults, dress more like adults and behave more like adults than they used to."
Student 1: Now-a-days children speak, dress and behave more like grown-ups.
Student 2: Kids speak, dress, and behave more like adults than before.
(Source: The 3/27/09 workshop)

As shown in Excerpt 9, I collected my students' paraphrases and found that students changed words but kept almost the same sentence structure, which can be regarded as *Near Copy*.

Moving from quoting to summarizing, I explained what to write in a summary and posed a question to students; "If summarizing is writing main points and main supporting ideas in your own words, what's the difference between summarizing and paraphrasing?" I believe that summarizing and paraphrasing are closely interrelated because these two share several common features. I created a grid (Table 3) to compare these two skills, and talked about each category with students.

TABLE 3: A Comparison Chart between Summarizing and Paraphrasing

	Summarizing	Paraphrasing
Length	Reduction from the original	Almost same as the original
Content	Main points and main supporting ideas	Necessary original ideas
How to	Selecting main ideas and supporting ideas Paraphrasing and rearranging ideas	Changing words and sentence structure Rearranging ideas
Citation (Author, year)	Yes	

(Source: The workshop 3/27/09)

After I explained that paraphrasing skills were required when summarizing an outside source, I emphasized, "Although you used your own words, both summarizing and paraphrasing require citation, putting the author's name and publishing year, because you still borrowed someone's ideas." My emphasis on citation was inspired by Shi's (2004) study. Shi (2004) found that students borrowed more words when writing a summary than opinion essays, and Chinese participants in the study used the sources without citing the references. By applying this research data to my teaching, I aimed to protect my students from plagiarizing.

In addition to properly citing sources by quoting, paraphrasing and summarizing, another strategy I used for teaching students how to avoid plagiarism was thoroughly following academic writing styles, such as APA, MLA or Chicago. The past workshop records indicated that a majority of students were from social science, education, criminology and nursing, and they most likely would need to use the APA style. Since I could not anticipate exactly who would

attend my workshop, I prepared information about both APA and MLA styles. I showed one sentence in two different styles, APA and MLA respectively, on a PowerPoint slide and asked students to compare these two in-text styles (See Appendix 4 for the PowerPoint slide). Students took a minute or two and found all the differences, including the ways of writing the author's name and page number. Soon after, I told students which text was written in APA and which one was in MLA.

In addition to in-text styles, I presented one bibliography in both APA and MLA styles and asked students to compare the two versions as they had just done in finding differences between the two styles. (See Appendix 4). Students quickly found the differences, including ways to write the author's name and publication year as well as ways to underline or italicize. The goal was not simply recognizing the differences between the two writing styles, rather students were expected to focus on specific points of the academic writing style they would use by comparing it with other style. Since I could not teach every detail of both styles but wanted my students to become autonomous, I provided online resources for the styles and instructions how to use those resources (see Appendix 5).

Students studying in the U.S. are required to follow American writing conventions, but they may not be provided with the information explicitly; instead, they need to learn these conventions by themselves for their writing assignments. As the discussion I facilitated at the beginning of the workshop showed, international students had different cultural and academic backgrounds from students in the U.S. To help the international students learn American academic writing conventions and avoid plagiarism, I emphasized two points: to properly cite sources and to follow academic writing styles thoroughly. These two emphases were based on my own learning experience and research in articles and books. Since students can unintentionally plagiarize because of unfamiliarity with U.S. academic writing conventions, I taught them how to quote, how to acceptably paraphrase, similarities and differences between paraphrasing and summarizing, and how to follow the required academic writing style. At the end of the workshop, I asked students, "You learned what plagiarism is and how to avoid plagiarism. Then, why do you have to try to avoid plagiarism?" One student answered, "To respect other people." I answered, "That's right. You should try not to plagiarize not only to avoid punishment but also to grow professionally and to respect the work of others." A self-evaluation form was distributed to students to evaluate their understanding and confidence about avoiding plagiarism. (See Appendix 6

for the self-evaluation form). The average confidence rate for understanding about how to and why to avoid plagiarism was 9 from 1 for least confident to 10 for most confident Also, a student wrote a comment, "I understood how to avoid plagiarism very well" (student evaluation of the 3/27/09 workshop). Although international students were unfamiliar with academic writing conventions in the U.S., the workshop helped students become aware of and confident about them through discussion, lecture and group activities. The students expressed different conventions of avoiding plagiarism between their country and the U.S., and they started to understand the value of avoiding plagiarism in ways that U.S. and international scholars pursue.

CONCLUSION

In this reflective report, I have described my experience of teaching academic writing to non-native English speaking college students in the U.S., including class preparation, interaction with students, student performance, and my reflection as well as the justification for the selection of topics and materials or activities used. For me as a teacher, teaching coherent organization, pragmatics, and the avoidance of plagiarism in writing was challenging because ESL teaching materials for these topics were not widely available. Despite my initial concern about limited materials, I broadened my knowledge and developed the skills of teaching academic writing by exploring scholarly research articles and books. I recommend that teachers consult research papers if 'ready-to-use' teaching resources are not available for a specific topic or a specific group of students. Academic research papers do not provide teacher-friendly step-by-step teaching instructions, but they can offer crucial ideas and reliable resources, so the teachers can make informed decisions even when the textbooks available do not provide sufficient information. Another suggestion this paper provides is that teachers in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context help students recognize cross-cultural and genre variations. EFL teachers should help the students write in English for potential international readers who understand English and who may or may not be from the English speaking countries. Wherever the EFL students write, whoever the readers, and whatever genres they write, they can become competent academic writers with a teacher's help by increasing their awareness and understanding of academic genres and cultural variations.

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Hyonsuk Cho

Information for Contributors of English Manuscripts

1. Content of Manuscript

The *Korea TESOL Journal* will publish three issues in 2011, in May (Summer Issue), September (Autumn Issue), and December (Winter Issue), and four issues a year thereafter. Manuscripts written in Korean are welcome to meet the demand of the Korean readers.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* invites papers on a wide range of topics which concern theories and/or practices in the field of teaching English as a second or foreign language. The manuscript may be on an experimental analysis, a new proposal, or a critique of theories and/or practices in the field. Manuscripts dealing with topics in linguistics, literature, or interdisciplinary areas to English learning and teaching must have implications for English language learning and/or teaching. Manuscripts which have been published or accepted for publication in other academic journals will not be considered. The paper, conforming to the style specified below, should be e-mailed to:

Korea TESOL Journal Editor-in-Chief: ktj.editor@gmail.com

2. Specifications for English Manuscripts

1) The length of the manuscript should not exceed 25 pages. When exceeding this limit, a surcharge of 10,000 Won ($10 dollars) per extra page will be applied, payable by the author.
2) Manuscripts should be typed on A4-size paper.
3) The paper size should be 16.2 cm (width) x 22.9 cm (height). The left margin should be 2.5 cm and the right margin should be 2 cm; the top margins 2.5 cm and bottom margins 2.3 cm; the top and bottom header, 1.27 cm.
4) The title of the article should not exceed two lines.
5) The abstract should not exceed 200 words. Key words should be included at the end of the abstract.

6) Subheadings should not be numbered.

7) The dash should be presented as '―' rather than double hyphen '--', and the symbol '~' should be used as a marker of pages and time periods.

8) A new line in the body of text should begin with letters not with symbols or punctuations such as dashes or hyphens. For example, if there is a hyphen in the beginning of a new line, the hyphen needs to be moved to the previous line.

9) Examples of words and sentences should be italicized.

10) As for tables and figures, avoid using vertical lines and limit the use of horizontal lines. Use plain single lines for the rest. The numberings and headings of tables or figures should be presented bold, centered above the tables or below the figures. 'TABLE,' 'FIGURE' should be all capitalized. Major words in the headings of tables or figures should begin with capital letters. Do not use < > in headings or texts.

11) For quotes within the text body, follow the regulations for the abstract.

12) References, tables, and figures should conform to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (4ᵗʰ Ed., 1994).

13) A list of references should be made using reverse indentation.

14) Korean references need to be presented in English. If the title of the article and of the journal is not known in English, romanize it including its English translation in brackets.

2-1 General Manuscript Formatting Conventions

The following general formatting conventions should be applied to manuscripts, unless specified.

Font: Times New Roman
Font Size: Article title=14pt; Subtitles=12pt; Text Body=10pt; Abstract=9pt
Font Effect: Plain text, unless specified (e.g., italic, bold, etc.)
Justification: Full, unless specified (e.g., left, right, center)
Indentation: Body=First line 0.5cm; References=0.5cm reverse-indentation
Line Spacing: Title, Body, References, Appendix=fixed-14pt line spacing

2-2. Manuscript Sample *[with notes for formatting]*

Developing the English Pronunciation Test (EPT): Diagnostic Assessment *[14pt, bold; fixed-16pt line spacing, left-justified]*

[2 line spaces]

David D. I. Kim *[12pt, bold; left-justified]*
Kangnam University [12pt, italic; left-justified]

[2 line spaces]

ABSTRACT *[12pt, all cap, bold, all cap; left-justified]*

[1 line space]

This paper examines the development of the EPT … [9pt, italic; fixed-12pt line spacing, 0.5cm left & right indentation, full-justified]

[1 line space]

Keywords: *Assessment, Pronunciation, Korean [9pt, italic; fixed-12pt line spacing, 0.5cm left & right indentation, full-justified]*

[2 line spaces]

INTRODUCTION *[12pt, all cap, bold; left-justified]*

[1 line space]

The current emphasis of communicative approaches for English language teaching requires special attention … *[10pt; 0.5cm first-line left indentation]*

[2 line spaces]

RESEARCH DESIGN *[12pt, all cap, bold; left-justified]*

[1 line spaces]

Participants *[12pt, bold; left-justified]*

[1 line space]

A group of 208 students from two separate universities in Seoul, Korea, participated in this study. … *[10pt; 0.5cm first-line left indentation]*

[1 line space]

Experimental Group *[12pt, italic; left-justified]*

[1 line space]

The experimental group was exposed to various pronunciation features from various sources (as outlined below) … *[10pt; 0.5cm first-line left indentation]*

[1 line space]

TABLE 1*[all cap, bold]*: Correlations Between A and B *[center-justified]*

Participants	Group A		Group B	
	n	%	n	%
Initiations				
Instructor	180	87	111	54
Students	50	13	89	46
Evaluations	131	10	198	78
Total	361	100	399	100

* *P*<.001 *[8p; left-justified, aligned with table]*

[Inside the table: 9pt, fixed-10 pt line spacing, lines 1/2pt, entire table center-justified]

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　　Table 1 shows the correlation between the two groups and as well as the exposure conditions for each group … *[10pt; 0.5cm first-line left indentation]*

[2 line space]

THE AUTHOR

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REFERENCES *[12pt, all cap, bold; left-justified]*

[1 line space]

Anderson, G. (1998). The pragmatic marker like from a perspective. *ELT Journal, 43*(1), 136-143. *[10pt, plain; 0.5cm reverse indentation]*

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APPENDIX A *[12pt, all cap, bold; left-justified]*

[1 line space]

The Script: Part A *[12pt, bold; left-justified]*

It was a quiet room in the railroad station.[1] On the walls were several dull photographs of different animals like cats, dogs, and doves. Suddenly, a …

[2 line space]

_____

[1]Swain (1995) elaborated on the testing of English pronunciation and set forth three primary … *[foot note: 10pt; 0.5cm first-line left indentation, full-justified]*

3. Submission of Manuscripts

1) Send manuscripts by email to the editor-in-chief, in MS Word file format.
2) On the last page of the manuscript, the author(s) should provide biographical information including affiliation, mailing address, email address and contact phone number.
3) Manuscripts with two or more authors are considered "co-authored."

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