

**A Longitudinal Study of Linguistic and Rhetorical Development in the
Academic Writing of a Japanese ESL Student**

by

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Abstract

The general methodology of this research is a longitudinal text analysis of writing samples written by one Japanese ESL student. By examining the subject student's writings, the Japanese ESL writing features and the developmental features of acquiring proficiency in written English as a second language will be analyzed.

Seven writing samples from a three year period were selected from the subject's collection of academic writing. Two of the writing samples include both the first and the final versions and the other five are only the final versions of academic papers. Two sets of first and final versions were analyzed to examine the qualitative difference of texts before and after revision. The seven final versions were analyzed to examine the developmental process of academic composition over a three year period.

This study is conducted at two levels of analysis: 1) a linguistic level and 2) a rhetorical level. At the linguistic level, two types of cohesive ties, pronominals and conjunctions, are examined. At the rhetorical level, the topical organization of the text is examined by analyzing the topic of each sentence and plotting the topical structure.

This study highlights problem areas caused by transferring the first language (Japanese) rhetorical patterns, *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu*, into English. By analyzing the features of development of Japanese ESL writings in detail, this study also suggests an effective method of instruction to guide Oriental ESL students in writing for academic purposes.

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日本に居る私の家族に、日本語でお礼を記したいと思います。
飛行機に乗れば10時間以内で会えるとはいえ、やはり日本とカナダ
は遠く離れています。 いつでもすぐに会えるというわけにはいきま
せん。 でも、そのかわり、17時間の時差のおかげで、論文を書い
ていて夜中過ぎに急に人恋しくなった時、電話をすることができまし
た。 電話で話すだけで、なんとなく気持ちが楽になって、それ程疲
れも感じず、勉強を続けられました。 家族、特に、母の支えなしに
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ありがとうございました。

Chapter I Introduction

1. 1 Overview

In Chapter I a general overview of contrastive rhetoric is outlined. Why a study of contrastive rhetoric is important in the field of ESL education is explained, especially in the case of Oriental English-as-a-second-language students.

The focus of the literature review in Chapter II is mainly on the explanation of the Japanese rhetorical pattern as it contrasts the typical North American expository writing pattern such as the "five-paragraph theme." As John Hinds (1982, 1987, 1990) suggested, the traditional "ki-shoo-ten-ketsu" pattern and two other rhetorical features, "reader-responsible" and "quasi-inductive," seem to be the features that most commonly appear in descriptions of Japanese ESL texts. These Japanese rhetorical patterns, when applied to English language expository writings, violate the expectation of native English readers who are traditionally exposed to the North American rhetorical pattern (five-paragraph theme). Reasons why those features tend to be negatively perceived by native English readers, are discussed, in particular as they relate to communicative style and cultural values.

In Chapter III the method of analysis is explained. The selection of samples for analysis and the techniques for analyzing the linguistic and rhetorical features are described.

In Chapter IV, the analysis of Japanese ESL writings is examined. Seven expository writing samples from the subject's ESL and university courses are examined at both the linguistic and rhetorical levels. The attempt of this twofold analysis is to analyze how Japanese rhetorical

patterns influence ESL writings and how they contrast with the appropriate rhetorical features expected in North American exposition.

In Chapter V, the educational implications and consideration for further study are discussed. Considering the observed data, the importance of the rhetoric and a culture-specific approach in ESL curriculums for expository writing is reviewed. Then, a model instructional course for Oriental ESL students is described.

1. 2 Contrastive Rhetoric

A notion of contrastive rhetoric, that is, a study of rhetorical structure across cultures, was first proposed by Robert Kaplan in his article entitled, "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education" (1966). Kaplan (1966, 1987) noticed that students who are non-native speakers of English organize text differently from native speakers of English. He characterized other native language patterns of rhetorical organization into five language groups with figures to show the characteristics of each. The five figures he proposed have become well known and are meant to describe the English, Semitic, Oriental, Romance, and Russian patterns.

Kaplan's insights proved useful to both English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) and English-as-a-second-language (ESL) educators. The notion of contrastive rhetoric promoted an awareness that each language has a culturally preferred way of organizing ideas in discourse and that writers from different sociolinguistic and cultural backgrounds may transfer their preferred discourse patterns when they write in English. In other words, even after ESL students achieved English proficiency levels

necessary for writing text, their writings still have differences not only at the syntactic level but also at the broader level of organization of the whole text (Kaplan, 1987).

Proficiency in this organization of the whole text, which Kaplan called the rhetorical level of writing, seems essential to acquiring native-like writing proficiency.

1. 3 Study of Texts Written by ESL Learners

Texts written by ESL students contain features which are clearly unlike the writing of native speakers. These writing features were once considered grammatical mistakes since such linguistic mistakes are often the most obvious features of ESL writings, especially those written by less proficient ESL learners. Grammatical mistakes are, for example, the incorrect choice of words or tense, and the wrong phrasings. Acquiring essential grammatical proficiency may help to improve ESL writing to a certain extent, however there are other types of ESL writing features, those which are beyond grammatical proficiency.

As Kaplan (1966, 1987) points out, writing involves not only the linguistic level but also the rhetorical level. In other words, writing in another language is not only a matter of translating word by word or sentence by sentence from one language to another. Replacing each word or sentence of one language into another by following grammatical rules does not sufficiently compose fluent writing in a target language. For example, good translation or proofreading often involves the reorganization of the original text (Hinds, 1990; Sawada, 1977, 1995).

Since the study in the area of contrastive rhetoric highlighted the cross-cultural difference in the discourse of writing styles, the need for more culture-specific ESL research has been advocated and more research has been done in the discourse pattern of writings across culture (Connor & Kaplan, 1987; Johnson & Roen, 1989; Purves, 1988). However, beyond the general notion of rhetorical contrast there was little research that points out in what ways the features are contrastive across specific cultures. If the first language rhetorical pattern influences ESL writings, then the differences and similarities in rhetorical patterns between English and a specific language need to be examined.

Hinds (1982, 1987, 1990) is one of a few researchers who focused the study of contrastive rhetoric on a specific culture. His studies have concentrated on analyzing the the Japanese rhetorical pattern, "ki-shoo-ten-ketsu," and made a significant contribution to the area of contrastive rhetoric between English and Japanese. He described Japanese rhetorical features by coining several terms such as "reader-responsible" and "quasi-inductive," and clarified the rhetorical differences between English and Japanese conventions. However, his research mainly analyzed Japanese texts, which were written in Japanese or translated into English, rather than examining the actual English compositions by Japanese ESL writers.

As Hinds points out, the study of contrastive rhetoric using translated texts originally written in Japanese holds the potential difficulty caused by translation (1982). The features that may be highly appreciated by native speakers of Japanese cannot be shown in the translated version because those Japanese rhetorical features are valued

only when they are written in Japanese and read by native speakers. The quality of translation may also cause a different impression.

Moreover, to determine Japanese ESL features, the texts originally written in English by Japanese ESL writers need to be studied. This study analyzes English texts written by a Japanese student in order to depict the transferred features from her first language. Those texts are examined by a native speaker of Japanese in order to thoroughly identify Japanese rhetorical features that appear in English writing.

By examining both linguistic and rhetorical features of texts, this study aims to: 1) identify whether those Japanese rhetorical features suggested by Hinds appear in this Japanese student's English writing; 2) examine other rhetorical features such as cohesion and topic organization; and 3) describe the effect of time, practice, and teaching on the development of conventional English patterns of academic writing.

1. 4 Definition of Terms Used in This Study

There are several terms frequently used in a particular way in this study. The following are the definitions for those terms.

The **linguistic level** means a mechanical technique that creates cohesion. In other words, it is the connectivity of relevant words to make phrases and sentences cohesive.

The term **rhetorical level** was used following Kaplan's (1987) definition. He used it to differentiate the discourse features which show ESL-likeness at "the level of organization of the whole text" from other ESL features at the syntactic level, such as the use of sentence, phrase and word.

Genre is a social and cultural conventional aspect of language. In other words, it is a mechanical aspect of text formed by social and cultural expectation. The rhetorical conventions of writing can be regarded as a part of the genre difference, however the rhetorical conventions were dealt separately in this paper since they were the main focus of this study. Other than that, this study only deals with personal/impersonal form of expository writing.

Ki-shoo-ten-ketsu is a Japanese term for a four-part writing style prevalently used in Oriental cultures with a Chinese influence. In Chinese characters, it is written 起承転結 and the pronunciation differs from language to language (see 2. 2. 3).

Topical structure represents the structure of the topic movement of the text. In this study, a topic from each sentence was depicted and charted to show the topical structure, and the chart is called a **coherence diagram**.

Cohesive markers are discourse markers that help the topic flow and organization. They are *first, second, third, for example, however, on the contrary, therefore* and so on.

1. 5 Limitations of the Study

The data used for this study were collected from one ESL student, so, may not be generalizable to all Oriental or even Japanese ESL learners. This study only seeks evidence of how influential transferring the rhetorical pattern of the first language (Japanese) could be. A study of more Japanese ESL learners may not confirm the data or findings of this study.

Second, the subject may not be showing her actual pattern of development because she was writing under the direction of teachers, so accidental gaps in the developmental pattern may have occurred. Also, the observation of the developmental process in English as a second language writing is limited to exposition from her collected texts in various genres.

Third, the analysis is limited to a small domain of issues, specifically linguistic features of cohesion and rhetorical features of text structure. Grammar is deliberately left out of the analysis. Other important elements of development have been similarly overlooked. Thus, while the analysis is carefully undertaken, it is limited in scope.

Fourth, all the analyses are done by a native speaker of Japanese. Therefore, some expressions such as "negatively perceived by native English speakers," "violate the expectation of native English speakers," and other phrases may imply having had a native speaker's verification. However, those expressions were used only conventionally, since they were commonly used in the literature when referring to the different perception by native English readers of the rhetorical differences of texts written by Oriental ESL student (Cai, 1993; Hinds, 1982; Kaplan, 1966; Kubota, 1992; Oi & Kamimura, 1995;).

Chapter II Background of the Study

2. 1 Different Features and Conventions of Writing Across Culture and the Importance for ESL Students of Developing Writing Proficiency

When students for whom English is a second language study in a North American university, they usually face difficulties in writing in English. These ESL students are already literate in their first language, but developing literacy in another language is often not easy (Bell, 1995; Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll & Kuehn, 1990; Connor, 1996).

Developing native-like proficiency in writing skills is a critical matter for ESL students in North America since their academic achievement is often evaluated on their writings, such as research papers, reports, or essays. To be successful, students in North America must familiarize themselves with the conventions (Leki, 1995; Leki & Carson, 1994; Reynolds, 1993; Schneider & Fujishima, 1995) since academic writing in North America has its own distinct type of discourse framework (Connor, 1996; Gutierrez, 1995; Hyland, 1994; Kusel, 1992). Schneider & Fujishima stated that "...achieving success at the postsecondary level involves more than control of the English language; it also involves familiarity with the writing conventions of the university culture and disciplinary subcultures in which the second language learner participates" (1995, p.8). Hyland (1994) points out that in North American academic writing features such as the organization of the contents, the way topic develops, and even the uses of cohesive markers seem to be systematically predictable. Most native speakers can become familiar with the appropriate conventions through their educational experience. However, this cannot be applied to non-native speakers

whose literacy skills were acquired in a different culture and in a different curriculum, even if their language proficiency is advanced.

Text written without following the common North American convention of academic writing may fail to be evaluated reasonably (Cai, 1993; Hinds, 1982, 1987, 1990; Silva, 1990), which is crucial for students' academic success since most evaluation at a university level is based on writing.

2. 2 Oriental ESL Students' Problems in Writing

ESL students, and particularly students from Oriental cultures, are often considered problematic learners because of their poor writing skills (Agnew, 1994). Oriental-language speakers may face more distinct obstacles than English cognate language speakers when learning English writing skills because of the remoteness of their languages from English grammatical and syntactic features. ESL educators usually emphasize grammar in a curriculum, assuming that grammar instruction will help students to acquire writing fluency. However, Oriental ESL writing still retain some distinctive elements. Although having the grammatical and syntactic proficiency is fundamental to writing skill, it does not allow full proficiency in second language writing.

The awkward features of Oriental ESL students' expository writings are often due to cross cultural rhetorical differences as Kaplan suggested. ESL writing features which are influenced by Oriental rhetorical style seem to be negatively evaluated by native-English readers (Cai, 1993; Grabe & Kaplan, 1989; Hinds, 1982; Johns, 1984; Kaplan, 1966, 1987; Kubota, 1992; Takano, 1993; Reid, 1989). The unconventional features

of Oriental ESL writings which impart a negative impression on native speakers may appear most obviously in expository writing since English expository writing is highly conventional.

Another reason that attaining writing proficiency is so challenging for most ESL students, especially for Oriental ESL students, is their first-language culture and education are so different than English. For example, in North America, evaluation is often done by assessing a report, a research paper, or an essay. Students are required to have skill in expository writing at an early age (BC Ministry of Education, Integrated Resource Package, 1996). To be academically successful, having good expository writing skill is important (Scarcella, 1984). In Oriental countries, such as Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and China, the academic achievement of students is assessed mostly by examination, and students are rarely asked to write expository essays in elementary and secondary schools (Kohn, 1992; Lee & Scarcella, 1992). For example, in elementary education in Japan, it is often 'free-style' writing that is assigned, such as a personal journal, a story, a short novel, a book review, or a poem. Expository writing, such as reports, research papers, or essays, which are very common in North America, are rarely assigned in the Japanese school curriculum.

Furthermore, the expectations towards literacy are different between Oriental countries and North America. In the North American perspective of literacy, more importance is placed on the ability to be eloquent in a logical, argumentative way and making a clear statement of one's opinion. In contrast, in most of the Oriental cultures which have a Confucian influence, being argumentative and making a clear statement of one's opinion are often negatively perceived as self-centered

or arrogant traits. Rather, being eloquent in an aesthetic manner and capable of expressing feelings seem to be more valued. For the ESL students raised in this type of culture, making a logical argument directly and clearly could be in opposition to their aesthetic value unless they understand the different North American cultural values and adapt their writing style.

2. 3 Oriental Languages: Japanese and Chinese

Although Japanese is often categorized together with Chinese as "Oriental languages" on a rhetorical level, these languages are very different from one another on a linguistic level. For example, at an elementary level syntactic Japanese is characterized as an SOV (subject+object+verb) language while Chinese is characterized as SVO (subject+verb+object). Moreover, the writing systems used in these languages are quite different. Although Chinese characters have been borrowed into Japanese, Japanese also has phonologically based *hiragana* and *katakana* characters which have no counterpart in the Chinese system. All of Japanese can be transcribed into these phonetic alphabets. While Chinese characters used in Japanese retain their ideographic meanings, these characters follow several different patterns of pronunciation, influenced by both Japanese and Chinese. The number of ideographic characters in use in Japanese is less than that found in Chinese. Chinese characters in Japanese are used for nouns, and stem parts of verbs, adjectives and adverbs. All of them can also be phonetically transcribed into *hiragana* or *katakana* as well. Since Chinese characters help to capture meaning faster and more efficiently,

hiragana components are mostly particles or conjugative parts of verbs or adjectives and adverbs.

Despite these significant differences, Japanese and Chinese languages have been collectively referred to in the literature as "Oriental" languages. There is some basis for this collective term. Historically Chinese has had an influence on all the Oriental cultures somewhat analogous to the influence of Greek language and culture on western Europe. Kaplan (1966), Hinds (1986), Cai (1993) and others have observed that some of the more unconventional features of writing in English are commonly exhibited by Japanese, Chinese, Taiwanese, Korean and other Oriental EFL/ESL learners.

2. 4 Traditional Oriental Rhetorical Organization

Although the comparison of rhetoric in this study will be only between English and Japanese, examining Japanese ESL writings helps to provide some guidance for teaching writing to Oriental ESL students. As described in the previous section, Japanese, Chinese, Taiwanese, Korean, and other Oriental cultures all share similar rhetorical features. For example, the Japanese traditional rhetorical organization, ki-shoo-ten-ketsu, is adopted from Chinese rhetorical organizational pattern, qui-chen-jun-he, which originates in classical Chinese poetry (Cai, 1993). In Korean, it is ki-sung-chon-kyul. Though the pronunciations of those terms differ, ki-shoo-ten-ketsu, qi-cheng-jun-he and ki-sung-chon-kyul point to the same rhetorical pattern. When they are written in Chinese characters, the same characters are used as 起承轉結.

起承転結 consist of four sections: begin, development, subtheme, maintheme. One sample story-line of this pattern would be:

"A and B separated at this river-side a long time ago," "it must have been a tragic incident," "those people in old days are no longer here," "the water of the river is still cold" (example from Sawada, 1995, p. 104)

If this pattern was applied to expository essay writing, it would be:

Chapter I "the Emperor system of Japan has problems," Chapter II "there are various perspectives towards the Emperor system," Chapter III "the British Emperor system starts from Egbert," Conclusion "the Emperor system is difficult" (example from Sawada, 1995, p. 104)

起承転結 pattern does not work when it is applied to expository essay-writing as the latter example shows.

The influence of an Oriental traditional rhetorical pattern, **起承転結**, seems to be the main elements that make ESL writing awkward for native-English readers (Cai, 1993; Hinds, 1982). Therefore, this needs to be explained in more detail.

The following case study will examine Japanese ESL writings, and henceforth the rhetorical pattern **起承転結** will be referred to the Japanese pronunciation of ki-shoo-ten-ketsu.

2. 5. Rhetorical Patterns of North America and Japan: Five-Paragraph Theme vs. Ki-Shoo-Ten-Ketsu

While ki-shoo-ten-ketsu is the common model of writing traditionally used in the Japanese culture, there is a North American common model of expository writing, the five-paragraph theme. Those two models of writing have the similarity in the form of structure. That is, both of them can be described as introduction-body-conclusion. This seem to lead ESL writers to confuse the two patterns or even to consider them identical. But they actually present great differences in the pattern of developing the topic, which may give native-English readers a negative impression of an ESL writer's completed text.

The five-paragraph theme (FPT) has been used for a long time in North American education as the common framework for school expository writing. Students are required to be proficient in the FPT. In the North American educational consensus, FPT is a "highly structured format for essay writing [which] provides for effective inculcation of concepts such as unity, coherence, and development" (Nunnally, 1991, p.67).

Following are explanations contrasting five-paragraph theme and ki-shoo-ten-ketsu, highlighting the features between those two rhetorical patterns which are often a source of confusion to both ESL writers/readers and North American readers of Japanese ESL writings.

Nunnally (1991) defines the FPT as follows:

The FPT requires (1) an introductory paragraph moving from a generality to an explicit thesis statement and announcement of three points in support of that thesis, (2) three middle paragraphs, each of which begins with a topic sentence restating one of the

major ideas supporting the thesis and then develops the topic sentence (with a minimum of three sentences in most models), and (3) a concluding paragraph restating the thesis and points. (p. 67)

In contrast, *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* (KSTK) could be defined as having four sections. They are (1) an introductory sentence or paragraph indicating a theme that is rather general or obscure compared to the FPT introduction, (2) development of the theme, (3) shifting of idea from the main theme to a subtheme, where there is a somewhat topical relation but different types of coherence from that required in FPT, and (4) a conclusive implication, speculation, or suggestion, which is very different from the one required in FPT. (The features of these four sections of KSTK are explained in more detail in Table 1 and in the following section).

The third and fourth paragraph especially seem to be digressive for English readers who are used to the FPT pattern. Table 1 provides a more explicit comparison of these two paradigms.

Table 1. Five-Paragraph Theme and Ki-Shoo-Ten-Ketsu

Five-Paragraph Theme	Ki-Shoo-Ten-Ketsu (起承轉結)
a common model of writing in English speaking culture	a common model of writing in cultures influenced by Chinese
a text structure for expository writings	a text structure for free-writings (more like narrative)
requires 5 sections or paragraphs:	requires 4 sections or paragraphs:
an introductory paragraph , moving from a generality to an explicit thesis statement and announcement of three points in support of that thesis	ki(起): an introductory sentence or paragraph , indicating a theme which is more implicit compared to the FPT introduction
three middle paragraphs , each of which begins with a topic sentence restating one of the major ideas supporting the thesis and then develops the topic sentence (with a minimum of three sentences in most models)	shoo(承): development of the theme ten(轉): shifting of idea from the main theme to a subtheme , where there is a kind of topical relation but not a direct restatement as required in FPT
a concluding paragraph restating the thesis and points	ketsu(結): a conclusive implication, speculation, or suggestion

More explanation is required to further depict the contrasting features between KSTK and FPT. Here the pattern of FPT will be used as the prototype for each of the three sections (introduction, body, conclusion) and those of KSTK will be explained with a comparison to the FPT pattern, since FPT is familiar to English-speaking readers. The purpose of this explanation is to reduce misunderstanding and to identify the cross-cultural differences inherent in the words, introduction, body, conclusion.

The first part of this organizational framework is *ki* which means *begin* or *start*. Here the writer brings a topic, however it is not always a thesis statement as is expected in the English exposition. It is not like an English introduction which includes a summary of the essay. Rather, it is a *generalization* of the whole essay. This introductory part of KSTK does not have to be as long as one paragraph, which it should be in English exposition, but it can be stated in a single sentence. It is often just an *indication* of the main theme, which is usually not clearly stated as is required in the FPT pattern. Even if it is clearly stated in terms of the phrasal expression, the direction of the following text is not usually stated. In other words, *ki* introduction could be an implicative statement toward the following part of the essay. Thus the beginning part, *ki* does not necessarily introduce the main focus directly but works more like a prelude part of symphony music.

In the introduction of the FPT pattern, the main theme should be clearly stated along with a brief summary of the following support topics. The introductory part of the KSTK pattern, however, could be just one

sentence or a cliché type of proverb insofar as indicating the main theme. Therefore, if the Oriental ESL writers applied to English expository writings, their notion based on the KSTK pattern for introduction, their introductory passage would likely be seen as insufficient by North American readers.

The body of KSTK consists mainly of two parts, *shoo* and *ten*, which parallel the three middle paragraphs of FPT pattern. *Shoo*, the second part, means *receive* or *take over*, where the writer develops the topic mentioned in *ki*. *Ten* is also a part of the topic development, however this third part gives a awkward impression to native English language readers. The Chinese character of 转 (*ten*) means *change* or *shift*. Thus, at *ten* the topic usually shifts to a sub thematic section. This change seems to be off-topic for readers who expect the FPT pattern of body development involving the three supporting topics for the main theme. The FPT structure does not have any equivalent for *ten*, so North American readers perceive this part of the KSTK pattern as awkward and generally refer to it as digressive (Hinds, 1982). For North American readers, *ten* part may not be perceived as efficient body development and may seem incoherent.

The conclusion of KSTK, which is the fourth part, *ketsu*, also differs from that of FPT. *Ketsu* means *tie up*, *close*, *conclude*, and the writer brings *ki*, *shoo*, *ten* together to reach the conclusion. This, again, is not the same kind of conclusion as in an English expository essay. It does not need to be decisive. It could be just an implicative statement or an interrogative speculation. It often ends without referring to the main thesis but leaves the conclusion open to the readers. This kind of open

statement comes from the cultural preference in expression that will be explained in more detail at sections 2. 5 and 2. 6.

Thus, Oriental ESL writers who do not have a detailed explanation of the FPT pattern may not understand how this pattern differs from KSTK, and they would likely miscapture the notion of introduction-body-conclusion of the FPT pattern. For ESL students who have different cultural background, helping them to identify these differences is important to avoid confusion and misreading.

When Oriental ESL students apply their KSTK patterns in writing FPT style, the text becomes a mixed style of KSTK and FPT. This could be evident by the names given texts, for example, "five-paragraph monster" (Moneyhum & Zapico, in "American written academic discourse", Cited by Cai, 1993) or "three-foot monster" (Cai, 1993). Oriental ESL writers' writings which have KSTK influence do not fulfil the expectation of the North American readers who commonly share the notion of FPT for expository writings. In consequence, North American readers perceive such Oriental ESL writings as a strange adaptation of the five-paragraph pattern or the three parts of introduction-body-conclusion pattern.

There are other cultural aspects of Japanese writing that affect the structure of Japanese ESL writing for North American readers. In the following section, the cross-cultural differences between Japanese and North American expository writing styles specifically will be discussed.

2. 6 Other Rhetorical Features of Japanese Writings

The value and preference of writing styles seem to vary between cultures and languages. The differences in rhetorical features of Japanese and English seem as distinct as are the languages themselves. However, it seems to be difficult for even native speakers of Japanese and English to point out the specific differences unless they are familiar with both rhetoric styles. John Hinds contributed much in this area of contrastive rhetorical study between Japanese and English. In his insightful studies, he coined several terms that explain the features of Japanese rhetoric which contrast to the North American rhetoric.

The key terms that will be used in the following study are, "quasi-inductive style" (Hinds, 1990) and "reader-responsible" (Hinds, 1987). These terms represent Japanese rhetorical features quite accurately. Although they were analyzed individually by Hinds, one important thing to keep in mind is that no single feature can exist by itself. Rather, they coexist intricately in Japanese rhetoric with KSTK. In the next section, quasi-inductive and reader-responsible styles will be explained as implications of the KSTK and the cultural aspect of rhetoric.

2. 6. 1 Reader-Responsible Style and Quasi-Inductive Style

If North American expository writing style is characterized by *clarity*, then Japanese could be characterized by *openness* (or "vagueness" in Takano, 1993, p.50). This contrast comes from the different perspectives towards writing. North American writings is *writer-responsible*, that is, the writer assumes the responsibility to make clear and well-organized statements for the reader to understand. On the

other hand, Japanese writing is more *reader-responsible*, where it is the reader's responsibility to understand what the writer intended to say in the text (Hinds, 1987).

In the writer-responsible perspective, the writer has to express her idea explicitly in a written form in order to avoid any misunderstanding by the readers. In English it is important "to write as if we are talking to an idiot" (Nozaki, 1988, p.13). On the other hand, in the reader-responsible perspective, the writer does not need to write so explicitly. Rather the writer has to leave some room for the readers to apply their intelligence and knowledge. In Japanese it is important not to be too *dictatorial* when making a statement.

In the reader-responsible style, then, the major responsibility for interpreting messages is up to the reader (Takano, 1993). This notion may be regarded as very irresponsible by those whose culture demands the writer-responsible style. But the reader-responsible style of writing is compatible with the culture of Japan where the communicative style "stems from the social dogma of group harmony" (Takano, 1992, p.48). In that style the writer always allows for the readers' perspective and engagement, thus maintaining the social dogma of group harmony. The interpretive work required on behalf of the reader is appreciated as a part of the intellectually thought-provoking interaction. This relates to the cultural value of the communicative style as well, which is mentioned in section, 2. 7.

Another characteristic difference in rhetoric is the topic organization. North American rhetorical organization is usually based upon a deductive style, whereas Japanese rhetorical pattern is more commonly of inductive (Hinds, 1990). However, Japanese rhetorical style

is also slightly different from the inductive style that North American readers expect. In both deductive and inductive styles that English convention of writing employ, the thesis statement should be clearly presented either in the beginning or in the end of the paragraph. Japanese rhetorical style, defies both these conventions. As Hinds termed, Japanese rhetorical organization could be expressed as quasi-inductive style. This feature strongly relates to the KSTK style of text organization.

In KSTK organization, the beginning of the text starts with an indicative statement and the end of the text is often closed with an implicative speculation. The main theme does not need to be clearly stated in either the beginning or the ending, but just implied. The thesis is more often embedded in the whole text rather than directly stated. As the reader reads the text, the main statement is supposed to be derived through the text and the reader's schemata. By the time he or she finishes the text, the main idea is developed in his or her mind. The conclusive ending of KSTK is more like an implication for the thesis statement that will help to form the conclusion in the reader's mind. Thus, in KSTK style, the thesis statement is often not in the text but in the reader's mind.

2. 7 Communicative Style Affected with the Cultural Value

One valued Oriental communicative style in general is to be humble in expressing an opinion and in shaping an idea with readers. The writer tends not to make his or her own statement explicit and precise because doing so might exclude the readers' point of view, and that would be perceived as arrogant in Oriental culture (Lee &

Scharcella, 1992). This feature seems to be particularly noticeable in Japanese culture. In Japanese rhetoric style, for example, the author's opinion can be embedded between the lines instead of stating it directly.

Oriental rhetoric, however, does not leave the reader guessing something out of nothing. There exists a certain sociocultural background that helps the readers to elicit the writer's intention. Takano (1993) describes this type of communicative style as follows:

Mind-reading takes place without serious misunderstanding of the real intentions of the speaker/writer. The ideal communication for Japanese is one in which the listener/reader can adequately anticipate the needs, wants, and reactions of the speaker/writer, irrespective of whether they are explicitly stated (p.48).

Eliciting the writer's intention from the text written in a reader-responsible style seems like mind-reading, however it is possible in a culture where everyone is sensitive to the consensual norm of most cultural and social issues. For example, in a culture like Japan's where the majority of the people follow the social and cultural norm, it is not hard to assume what is on another's mind. Also, where people are brought up with education that places more emphasis on standardizing knowledge (regarding things mandatory to know), it is relatively easy to make an assumption as to what the readers' background knowledge might be. The writer works with the target reader in mind.

Another communicative style valued in Oriental cultures is the expectation of a certain level of reader's knowledge. There is an

underlying assumption that the more educated the readers are the better their understanding. The writer thus also makes some kind of assumption as to how knowledgeable their readers should be. The readers are responsible for the depth of content understanding. The readers also have been trained to assume correctly what the author has intended to say. The writer, therefore, does not have to include much detail regarding things the target readers are expected to know. It is very different from the expectation in Western cultures, where a writer has to be fully responsible for clarity in the text without regard to the background knowledge of the readers.

2. 8 Readers' Expectations of Text and Coherence

Text which uses an unfamiliar writing convention would violate a reader's expectation. Any writers or readers who are not aware of cross-cultural rhetorical differences would naturally apply their first language rhetorical pattern. The first language rhetorical pattern is always perceived as the most appropriate one and any other language patterns would be *illogical* and *incoherent*. It is therefore quite reasonable that ESL writers usually apply their first language rhetorical pattern in second language writings and as a result native-English readers may find ESL writings awkward and unsatisfying.

For readers who are used to the logical argumentative construction of topic development in the linear Aristotelian manner, the Japanese KSTK pattern of topic development may be perceived as somewhat circular, conflicting with their expectation of expository writing (Reynolds, 1993). This description of the perception of Oriental ESL

texts might have been influenced by Kaplan's diagrams which observed Oriental discourse style as an inward-swirling figure in contrast to English as a linear figure (1966), and which was explained in more detail in Chapter 1. For example, Chinese ESL students' writings, following the KSTK pattern, are often perceived as indirect, digressive, and loosely-developed (Cai, 1993).

Coherence is difficult to study and to teach (Enkvist, 1990). A number of studies have investigated the way to improve coherence in written text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) examined cohesion, which is the basis for making a text coherent (Carrell, 1982), by a rather mechanical linguistic level of analysis. By examining the inter- and intra-sentential level of the 'liaison' of words, and cohesive ties, they attempted to present the density of cohesion. Ulla Connor has been trying to teach coherence of writing as one method to improve ESL writing (Cerniglia, Medsker & Connor, 1990; Connor & Farmer, 1990). For example, teaching "topical structure analysis" to ESL students to help their revision process is one of her significant research areas. Cerniglia, Medsker & Connor (1990) found that:

Topical structure analysis, originally developed by Lautamatti (1978) for the purpose of describing coherence in texts, focuses on the semantic relationships that exist between sentence topics and the discourse topic. Through topical structure analysis, these relationships can be studied by looking at sequences of sentences and examining how topics in the sentences work through the text to progressively build meaning (p. 127).

By using topical structure analysis as a revision tool, Connor and Farmer (1990) taught intermediate- and advanced-level ESL students to develop clearer focus of topics, in other words better coherence in writing. The result was positive feedback from students. Students became more capable of editing their writing. Extensively, Cerniglia, Medsker, & Connor (1990) designed a computer-assisted program of topical analysis to improve coherence of writing, particularly for ESL students. They seemed to receive positive feedback for this approach as well.

Making text coherence is not only a matter of what is written, but also depends on the interaction between the writer and the reader. In this interaction, the social and cultural background knowledge of the reader are intricately linked. The social and cultural background knowledge includes the reader's expectation about the way a text organized. That is a kind of framework, a schemata, which a writer or a reader applies in the process of writing or reading. Should the writer and the reader apply different schemata, the writer's intention would not be conveyed to the reader. Thus, by applying a different schemata, the coherence of the text could be transformed or even perceived as incoherent. This is the result of cultural differences in textual features rather than grammatical interference.

In a culture like North America's where the writer is responsible for what is written and how it is conveyed to the reader, having a predictable rhetorical pattern helps the reader to decode what was intended. Carrell (1984, 1985) claims that the comprehension of the text becomes better if the readers are familiar with the rhetorical organization. However, the comprehension of the text could be disturbed by applying a different

rhetoical scheme in reading. The problem of ESL writing is that the rhetorical schemata applied by non-native English writers are incongruent with the schemata applied by native English-readers. Since the rhetoric works like a code to create coherence between the text and the reader's mind, it is important for ESL students to learn the rhetorical code of English-speaking culture in order to be proficient in writing.

2. 9. Misconceptions about English Expository Structure

There are at least two more points that may lead to misconceptions for Japanese ESL students in acquiring the norm of English expository writing. One is a conceptual misunderstanding that comes from the term *essay*, and the other is misidentification of rhetorical structure for expository writing.

2. 9. 1 A Misconception that Comes From the Term. "Essay"

Japanese language uses many words adopted from foreign languages. When a foreign word is adopted, the pronunciation of the word is often modified slightly to be more suitable to Japanese phonology. Also quite often the word is limited to a certain usage. A word could be misconceptualized because of this limited use. For example, the word *essay* is one of the adopted words commonly used in Japanese. The pronunciation of *essay* would be more like *essei* and written in katakana (foreign words are written in katakana) as エッセー . In Japanese, *essei* refers to a personal journal or a short easy-reading story that includes the writer's personal opinions or speculations and narrative

style is quite acceptable. The word that is equivalent to the North American expository *essay* is 論文 (ronbun) in Japanese.

Before Japanese ESL students become familiar with the notion of essay writing in North America, they tend to misinterpret the term *essay* as *essei*. For example, the subject of this case study mentioned that she did not realize *essay* meant 論文 (ronbun) when she was assigned to write one in the ESL course. Only later, when she understood the notion of expository writing, was the word *essay* reconceptualized as *ronbun*. In the other words, if ESL students were not taught *essay* as an expository writing format along with a explicit and distinctive example, they may keep to a format that is not appropriate for North American essay writing.

2.9.2 Misidentifying the Common Model of Expository Writing

Another point that may lead Japanese and other Oriental ESL students to misconceptualizing English expository writings is the misidentification of the common model of expository writing, FPT, because of its form. As mentioned earlier (see, 2. 5), the North American common model of writing for exposition and the Oriental 起承転結 (ki-shoo-ten-ketsu) look similar in terms of the form of the structure. Oriental ESL students often transfer the KSTK pattern in place of the five-paragraph structure for expository writing (Cai, 1993; Hinds, 1982, Takano, 1993). Even if students were taught the FPT, they may still apply the Oriental KSTK pattern to the FPT because of misidentifying FPT.

The purpose and value of writing is also different in Oriental school curricula (Kohn, 1992; Lee & Scarcella, 1992). For example, in Japan compositions are mostly assigned to learn the aesthetic aspect of literacy and not so much emphasis is placed on learning the logical argumentation or persuasiveness. Students are encouraged to express their own feelings in writings, so a personal style is quite acceptable. A pilot study that showed evidence of Oriental students' misconceptions about the North American exposition, FPT, will be introduced in the next section.

2. 10 A Pilot Study of 'Ki-Shoo-Ten-Ketsu'

A pilot study by Anthony & Harama (1996) examined native-speaker and Oriental ESL students' differing conceptions of expository writings. In this study, five passages on the same topic written with five different rhetorical patterns were used to examine the students' perceptions of the rhetorical patterns. These passages were designed to be equivalent, incorporating the same length, reading level number of earthquake facts, but were composed with different rhetorical features.

Three of the five passages were in English expository style varying in terms of some well-formed conventions: one of these has marked cohesion; another lacked explicit cohesion; and the other reflected a conventional cause-effect pattern with an oblique opening paragraph. Two other passages were written in style unconventional for English exposition: one in the personal recount style, and the other representing a traditional Oriental pattern, ki-shoo-ten-ketsu.

The subjects were seven Oriental language speakers (two Japanese, two Chinese, and three Taiwanese) and eight Canadian students. Chinese and Japanese speakers perceived the traditional KSTK as the most linear. One ESL student made an interesting remark to the text written in appropriate North American expository style. She commented that the text was too boring and not well-written because it did not contain a subtheme, which the KSTK pattern should include.

The main findings of this study were that Oriental ESL students perceived the KSTK pattern as most logical and linear, and that Canadian students do not seem to know what is a good expository writing pattern (Anthony & Harama, 1996).

The difference in perception of good writing features may lead to different writing styles. Since Oriental ESL students' perception of good expository writing proved to be different from native English speakers' in the pilot study, the following sections will examine how a Japanese ESL student produces expository writing. If transferring KSTK pattern to expository writings in English is one of the particular tendencies of Oriental ESL students (Cai, 1993; Kamimura & Oi, 1994; Hinds, 1982, 1987, 1990; Oi & Kamimura, 1995; Sawada, 1977; Takano, 1993), the questions are how the transferred features appear in expository writing, and in what way they are different from the conventions of English expository writing.

Chapter III. Method

3. 1 The Subject of this Case Study

The subject of this study is a female Japanese student who came to Canada after finishing her university education (B.Ed.) and several years of working experience as a high school teacher in Japan. All of her educational background up to and including her bachelor's degree was in Japan. Furthermore, this ESL student had a firm background in the Japanese language and culture before she came to learn writing in her foreign (second) language, English. The subject came to Canada and joined an ESL course, and this was her first experience in an English-speaking environment to learn English. She had a basic knowledge of English grammar from her previous studies in Japan but did not have many communication skills or writing experience in English. For example, she had difficulty communicating with her homestay family when she came to Canada. Also, she had few opportunities to practice writing English in Japan. Her first ESL courses included training in writing that consist of sentence-level exercises. Following the ESL courses, she proceeded to attend regular university classes. She has kept all of her writings, from the first ESL course through the university courses.

The chronological order of the subject student's experience in Canada follows. She started *Intermediate 1 ESL* from May until July, 1992; she then worked for 8 months and following that she enrolled in *Advanced II ESL* from September until December, 1993; *Foundation ESL English & English 067* from January until April, 1994; and 3 semesters of

regular undergraduate courses from September, 1994 until December, 1995. The university courses were English 215, Economics 111, Anthropology 111, History 111, History 112, Sociology 112, and Geography, 290. She then started in a Masters' program at the University of Victoria in January, 1996.

Table 2. Summary of ESL experience

Intermed I	Work	Advanced II	Foundation English & English 067	Undergraduate courses	Graduate program
Mar-July 1992	8 months	Sep.- Dec. 1993	Jan.-Apr. 1994	Sep. 1994-Dec. 1995	started Jan. 1996

The subject's text writing experience started when she started Advanced II. Before this course, in Intermediate I she had sentence-level exercises only. From the Advanced II period some expository writings were evident. According to the subject, she learned the basic form of academic writings, the five-paragraph essay, in the Advance II and English 067 courses. The focus of this study was placed on these ESL periods because it was the time the subject learned a second language (L2) rhetoric five-paragraph theme and because it seems to be the most important transitional stage of rhetoric.

The three year period that was studied to examine the development of writing skill includes eleven months of ESL classes, eight months employment, and one year undergraduate study. Four writing samples are from the ESL period and three from the undergraduate course period. In her working period, no texts was written by the subject.

3. 2 Writing Samples

The significant feature of this case of ESL writing development is that all of the subject's compositions written through her ESL period and later in her university courses have been kept. The early stage of her collection includes several draft forms as well as the final versions and some include the instructors' comments.

According to the subject student, she had to make many revisions when writing for the Advanced II ESL course. The instructor of this course assisted in the revision process. For example, one term paper for this course, "Math," was revised five times with the assistance of the ESL instructor. The next period of ESL training involved Foundation English and English 067. In these courses revision was a rarity, but rather the emphasis was on producing a text more rapidly. During this period, the instructor did not help much with the revision process.

Later, as an undergraduate student, she produced papers for the regular course work. Sometimes the revisions were assisted by a classmate, but those pre-final revisions were not kept.

Not all the samples could be used for this study since the focus of this study was strictly on the rhetorical features of expository writing, and not all of the course assignments were suited to this category. The total collection of writing samples includes many different types of texts such as sentence-level exercises, short narrative stories, poems, book reviews, short expository writings, and academic essays. The sentence-level exercises, narrative writings and free writings (such as stories and poems) are excluded from this study. For example, no samples were used from the first ESL course, Intermediate I, because the only samples

produced in this course were sentence-level exercises. Also, some undergraduate courses did not produce writing assignments which could be used for the purpose of this study. For example, in English 215, an equivalent to Grade 12 English, most of the writing assignments were of a narrative style. Furthermore, the grades of some courses were evaluated by examination rather than term paper. Other course term papers were in a point-form report style and those papers were excluded from this study as well. Only expository writings in an essay form were targeted for this study. Examples of the subject's academic writings appear beginning September, 1993.

Seven samples were selected for detailed examination in this study. They included book reviews and academic essays. The selections spanned 36 months from the early stage of her ESL course work, September, 1993, to the end of her undergraduate studies, December, 1995. The first four samples selected are from the ESL period, Advanced II, September-December, 1993, and Foundation & English 067, January-April, 1994. This period is assumed to be the transitional period from Japanese rhetoric to English rhetoric. It was expected to be the period when the most significant rhetoric changes occurred. There are four samples from this period: "Friends" and "Traveler" are short compositions assigned as practice in expository writing; "Math" is a research paper; and "Two Stories" is a book review. The other three writing samples were academic essays written from October, 1994, to October, 1995. These three samples were chosen from consecutive six month periods. These three samples were expository writings for academic purposes written for the subject's regular undergraduate course work.

The chronological order of writing samples examined here are "Friends" written in September to October, 1993; "Math" in November to December, 1993; "Traveler," January, 1994; "Comparison of Two Stories," February, 1994; "Gender," in October, 1994; "Two Poets," April, 1995; and "Women's Rights," in September to October, 1995. Two of these writing samples, "Friends" and "Math," included several revisions that had been kept, and that enabled the comparison of the first and the final drafts of these writings. The other five samples were available only in their final versions.

Table 3. Summary of selected texts

Text	Friends	Math	Traveler	Two Stories	Gender	Two Poets	Women's Rights
Time	Sep/Oct.93'	Nov/Dec.93'	Jan, 94'	Feb, 94'	Oct, 94'	Apr, 95'	Oct.95'

3. 3. Method of Analysis

The analysis of this study is twofold: 1) the linguistic level and 2) the rhetorical level. For the linguistic level of analysis, two types of cohesive ties, pronominal references and conjunctions, were examined. For the rhetorical level of analysis, the topic-structure was examined in detail.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, grammatical or syntactic mistakes of the ESL writings are not considered in this study. Rather, the emphasis is on investigating other elements of ESL writing features that are negatively perceived by native English readers. In addition to analysis of the texts themselves there are also instructor's comments on several samples. By examining instructors' feedback it is possible to report a

native speaker's perception of these ESL writing samples. This study's aim is to distinguish ESL features that are confusing and could be negatively perceived by native English readers because of their unconventionality in expository writings. The criteria used in this study will be explained in the following sections.

3.3.1 Linguistic Level of Analysis

Many researchers (Carrell, 1982; Connor & Kaplan, 1987; Johnson & Roen, 1989; Purves, 1988) point out that being proficient in writing requires more than the syntactic level of second language skill. For example, Carrell (1982) suggests that teaching cohesive ties in English would not answer all the ESL composition problems. Thus, this linguistic level of analysis seeks evidence as to the level of influence of syntactic features, the use of cohesive ties, in improving ESL writings. In other words, how much does the linguistic level of second language skill affect the proficiency of the L2 writing.

The basic criteria of this linguistic analysis was adopted from Halliday and Hasan's study of "Cohesion in English" (1976). Halliday and Hasan broadly classified linguistic features of cohesion in English into five categories of cohesive ties: 1) reference, 2) substitution, 3) ellipsis, 4) conjunction, and 5) lexical cohesion. By this classification, cohesive ties within and between sentences were intended to be mechanically analyzed.

This study examines two categories of cohesive ties, pronominal referenceness and conjunctions. The selection of these two categories modeled the study of Reid (1992), which partially adopted from Halliday and Hasan's cohesive-tie analysis (1976). Reid's study (1992) examined

four elements of cohesive ties, the referential and conjunctive devices, in native and non-native English writings. Those were pronouns, conjunctions, subordinate conjunction openers, and prepositions. The current study focuses on the examination of five features of two types of cohesive ties, pronominal references and conjunctions, with detailed data, following Reid. Five features examined in this study are: 1) pronouns, 2) additive-, 3) adversative-, 4) causal-, and 5) temporal-conjunctions.

The reason that pronominals were selected in this study is that one of the features of Oriental and Japanese ESL writings identified in the literature is an excessive use of the personal mode in formal writings (Liebman-Kleine, 1987; Reid, 1992). The use of pronominals, especially the first person pronoun, is an indicator of a personal mode in writings that is often deemed inappropriate for expository writing. In this study, every occurrence of pronominals was counted and tabulated as first person, second person, and third person, as well as singular or plural. Comparing the use of each pronominal allows for the analysis of whether the level of personal mode changes over time, and also whether the level of personal mode changes depending on the topic of the writing.

The use of conjunctions was examined because some literature indicates that ESL writings seem to show different use of conjunctions as part of their non-native like features (Izzo, 1995; Reid; 1992). Conjunctions are cohesive markers, text devices which signal the flow of text and help to maintain its coherence. This study examines the use of conjunctions and distinguishes them into four types following Halliday and Hasan's study (1976): additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.

They were examined respectively with the distinction of each use of the word.

The examination of the use of cohesive ties will be, first, in the data of the revision process, then in the data over the developmental process. For the comparison within the revision processes, the first and the last version of two expository writings will be used to examine the influence of cohesive tie use in improving a text. For the comparison over the developmental process, the final versions of seven sample writings in chronological order will be used to examine the influence of cohesive tie use in improvement of text over time.

The model study of this linguistic analysis of cohesive ties used a computer text-analysis program (Reid, 1992) to facilitate and simplify large scale analysis. But there were also some weaknesses. For example, in the computer text analysis of cohesion devices, Reid (1992) had to limit the analysis of subordinate conjunction to the first word in the sentences "because inner sentence subordinate conjunctions occur as several parts of speech; as a consequence, they cannot be identified accurately [by computer text-analysis]"(p. 80) The existing computer text-analysis programs cannot detect words by differentiating their use and also cannot distinguish the detailed differences of those words. For example, a word like *so* can be used as an emphazier of adjective and also as a conjunction. The word *and* can be used as an additive conjunction of two or more words and also used as a clause conjunction which could sometimes imply more extensive meaning such as *then*, *moreover*, *in addition*, etc. Using a computer, detailed analysis to classify a word category is not yet possible. Therefore, the word counting

by computer was only used for total numbers of words, sentences, or paragraphs in this study. The classification of cohesive ties in this analysis was examined by eye, by hand and a simple calculator.

3. 3. 2 Rhetorical Level of Analysis

The other analysis is rhetorical. This rhetorical level of analysis examines whether the ESL writing samples have features transferred from the Japanese rhetorical style, such as ki-shoo-ten-ketsu and inductive/deductive rhetorical organization and reader-responsible style. To examine the rhetorical level of writing proficiency, topical structural analysis was conducted. Topical structure analysis attempts to "describe coherence in texts, focusing semantic relationships" (Connor, 1996, p.84) that would be created by readers as depicting the relationships between sentence topics and the overall discourse topic. It also "examines how topic repeat, shift, and return to earlier topics in discourse" (Connor, 1996, p.84). In this analysis the method of Schneider & Connor (1991) was applied. That is, a coherence diagram was constructed to graphically present the topic of each sentence in an attempt to visualize the coherence of the text. Connor (1996) categorizes the charted types of coherence of texts into three types. They are 1) parallel progression, in which "topics of successive sentences are the same" (p.84); 2) sequential progression, in which "topics of successive sentences are always different, as the comment of one sentence becomes the topic of the next" (p.84-85); and 3) extended parallel progression, in which "the first and the last topics of a piece of text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression" (p. 85). According to the study by Schneider and

Connor (1991), the characteristics of more highly rated essays are "high proportion of sequential progression" and "an extended parallel progression".

In the process of making the coherence diagram, the topic of each sentence was elicited and was charted sequentially from top to bottom as the topic of the text flows. Each sentence was numbered in order within each paragraph. For example, 2. 1) means the first sentence in the second paragraph.

The position of the topic in the diagram shows the flow of each topic in the text. If the topic of the sequential sentence was closely related, the head of the topic is placed close to that of the former topic. If the topic of the sequential sentence was not related as closely, the head of the topic is placed indented to that of the former topic. In other words, the more indented the topic heading, the more indirect the topic relation is.

The coherence diagrams used in this study include a few innovations. They are 1) how the topic was elicited; 2) how the multiple sentence was treated; and 3) how the topic flow was charted.

The way the topic was elicited involved using the original words of the sentence to depict it rather than extracting a topic and writing the examiner's wording for it. This method was chosen after trying several other ways of making a coherence diagram. For example, the method applied first was to depict the topic of each sentence and chart in a parallel line if the topic was same (see Figure 1-a).

Figure 1-a Topic identification pattern 1

1.
 - 1) rubic cube--oriental
 - 2) oriental brain
 - 3) solve puzzle
2.
 - 1) math score
 - 2) factor
 - 3)
3.
 - 1) difference owning textbook
 - 2) owning textbook
 - 3) owning textbook
 - 4) ownng textbook--students' volition
 - 5) students' volition
 - 6) keep textbook clean
 - 7) without owning textbook

However, this method involved too much manipulation by the researcher to elicit the topic. After several trials, using the original phrasing from the raw data was chosen to chart the topic of each sentence. (see Figure. 1-b)

Figure 1-b Topic identification pattern 2

1.
 - 1) a. solving rubic puzzle in a short period
 - b. **but** because I was oriental
 - 2) a. It was not by accident that I solved puzzle
 - b. **but**, I don't think I have a special ability
2.
 - 1) intelligence and math achievement
 - 2) **However**, other factors
3.
 - 1) One of the important factors making students' attitude different is owning textbook
 - 2) a. Japanese government give us textbooks in elementary
 - b. **and after** junior high parents pay for them
 - 3) Here school owing textbook
 - 4) owing textbook is important because it relates to students' volition
 - 5) students' volition
 - 6) a. Students cannot make notes
 - b. **because** they have to keep textbook clean
 - 7) a. If student want to study at home
 - b. it is difficult without owing textbook

While following this approach may make the diagram appear more complicated, it excludes any examiner's bias in decoding the topic.

The second innovation involved the treatment of multiple sentences. In the subject's writings all multiple sentences were handled as two-sentence units and charted respectively. The lettering, a. or b. marks the differentiation between sentences in one multiple sentence unit. This treatment was added because there were sometimes more than two topics in one multiple-sentence unit and those needed to be treated separately.

Another innovation involved indicating cohesive markers in bold type in the diagrams, thus highlighting their use. This simplifies comparisons in the use of cohesive markers as the subject's writing experience progresses. (see Figure 2)

Figure 2 The example of cohesive marker identification

1. 1) a. **Although, different** time and place
 b.. two imagist poets had similar experiences
- 2) a. **both** learned 'haiku'
 b.. and employ images of Oriental literature
- 3) **there are** similarities between their poems in diction, imagery and sentence structure

The fourth innovative feature was the differentiation of text organization, such as deductive or inductive, or KSTK-like quasi-inductive style. Following a FPT or the most common type of North American academic writing, a topic is expected to develop in a deductive manner. On the contrary, Japanese rhetoric often employs a quasi-inductive style, which is a common topic development in KSTK pattern. Such overall topic developments could also be indicated in the coherence diagram.

In the case of deductive style, for example, the beginning of the topic flow was started from close to the left margin and the topics of sequential sentences were indented. If it was the inductive style, the beginning of the topic flow was placed close to the right margin, and the topics of sequential sentences were indented towards the left. And the further the topic was placed from the head of the former topic, the more distant the relationship of the topics. In other words, the diagram then indicates the semantic ties of each sentence by the location of the head of each sentence. Figure 3 illustrates this.

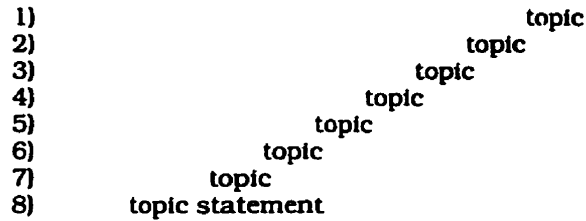
For example, a typical five-paragraph theme could be charted like this:

Figure 3 The expected topic move of a topical structure analysis of five-paragraph theme

1. 1) The main topic
 - 2) first example of the topic
 - 3) second example of the topic
 - 4) third example of the topic
 - 5)
2. 1) topic statement of the first example
 - 2) topic
 - 3) topic
 - 4) topic
 - 5) topic
 - 6) topic
 - 7) topic
3. 1) topic statement of the second example
 - 2) topic
 - 3) topic
 - 4) topic
 - 5) topic
 - 6) topic
4. 1) topic statement of the third example
 - 2) topic
 - 3) topic
 - 4) topic
 - 5) topic
 - 6) topic
 - 7) topic
 - 8) topic
5. 1) overview of contents
 - 2) topic summary
 - 3) conclusion

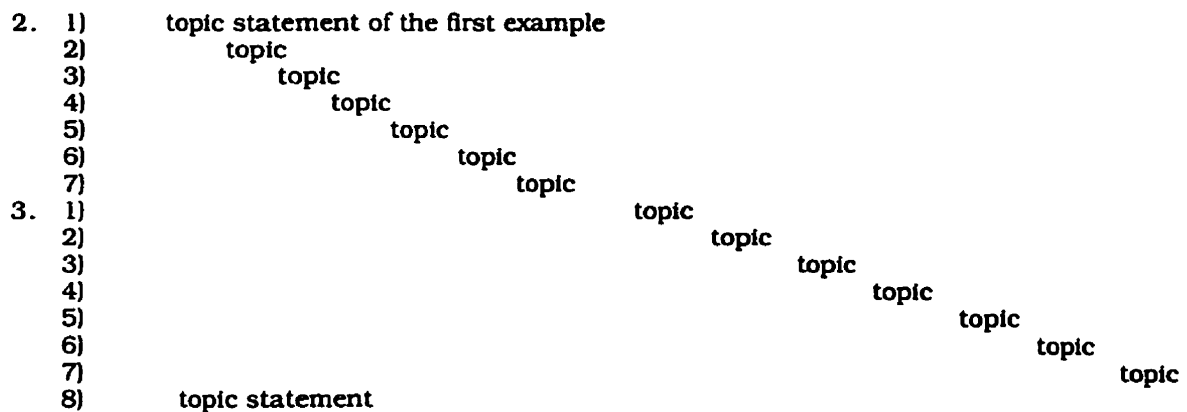
A topic move from left to right means the inductive style, which is plotted as follows:

Figure 4-a The expected topic move of a typical inductive style



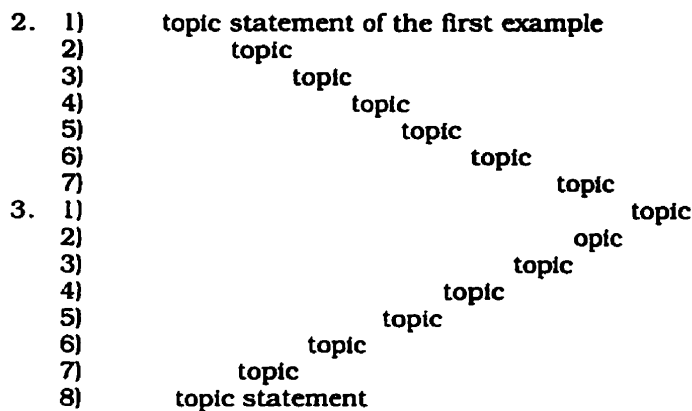
The differentiation between deductive and inductive in the chart was developed in the analysis of the sample passages of this study. In the beginning of this analysis, all topic developments were charted sequentially indented from the left edge because topic flows sequentially the same in both deductive and inductive styles. However, this charting created a problem in two points: 1) the visual impression of coherence; 2) the connection to the topic statement in the case of inductive topic development.

Figure 4-b The false chart of inductive topic move



For example, in Figure 4-b the paragraph 3 has inductive topic development. When the paragraph is written in inductive style, the topic of the first sentence of the paragraph is usually close to the previous topic, which would be at 2. 7). Then, after the topic develops, the topic statement is the last sentence of the paragraph, and is charted towards the left edge because it is the topic statement. In Figure 4-b. the visual distance between sentences 3. 7) and 3. 8) makes it look very incoherent although they are coherent in the actual text. To make the chart more accurately represent the coherence of the text, the chart should appear like this:

Figure 4-c The altered chart of inductive topic move



In this way, intra-sentential cohesion can be accurately charted as well as the sequential topic flow.

3.3.3 A Conjunct Feature at both the Linguistic and Rhetorical Level

Another feature considered in the analysis is the awareness of the personal and impersonal modes of writing with an intent to examine any specific genre-approach that might help ESL writers to eliminate negative elements and to learn more appropriate genre types for academic purposes.

In this study, the main focus was on the examination of the inappropriate use of the personal mode in the expository writings. Any formal writings, including academic writings, usually avoid using the personal mode. However, novice Oriental ESL students' writings often exhibit an excessive use of the personal mode, simply because their writing experience in their first language followed a different approach toward literacy. The use of personal mode was analyzed by calculating a percentage based on counting the first person pronominals (I and we) and dividing them by the total word count.

Chapter IV. Analysis of Writing Samples

4. 1. The Samples

The first four samples, "Friends," "Math," "Traveler," and "Two Stories," were from the ESL period Advanced II ESL and Foundation & English 067 from September, 1993 to April, 1994. During this eight month period, the subject student studied the FPT, and was assumed to have learned the new FPT rhetorical style. In other words, this is the period the subject ESL student moved from the linguistic level of exercise to the rhetorical level of writing exercise. It is in this period that the most drastic change in her writing occurred, especially with regards to rhetorical style.

The other three samples, "Gender," "Two Poets," and "Women's Rights," were culled from the subject's undergraduate courses, from September, 1994 to November, 1995, over fifteen months (There was a six month period between each of these three samples).

The first four samples spanned a shorter time duration (only eight months total), as it is this time that was assumed to produce the most drastic change in the subjects' rhetorical level of writing development. The changes in writing over time will be examined by comparing the data of all the final texts of seven samples.

4. 2 Linguistic level of Analysis: Cohesive Ties

4. 2. 1 Analysis of Cohesive Ties Between the First and the Last Versions

First, two sets of the first and the final draft were compared to examine the use of cohesive ties, pronominals and conjunctions. One set is titled, "Friends" and the other is "Math." "Friends" was one of the

earliest of the writing samples, written in September, 1993. "Math" was written over November and December, 1993, as a term paper for the Advanced II ESL course.

Table 4 shows detailed data of cohesive ties from the first and the last version of "Friends."

Table 4 . "Friends": Comparison of the first and the final drafts in the use of pronominals and conjunctions

type	Friends #1	Friends final
1. REFERENCE:		
1a pronominals	37	44
I	20	21
me/my/myself	2/2/2 = 8	3/6/2 = 11
they/their/them	3/2/4 = 9	3/1/3 = 7
we	0	5
4. CONJUNCTION		
4a additive	2	10
and (noun)	-	5
and (verb/clause	1	2
or)	1	3
4b adversative	3	5
but/however/though	3	3/1/1 = 5
4c causal	4	3
because	1	2
if	2	1
so	1	-
4d temporal	1	5
before/after	-	1/1 = 2
when	1	2
until then	-	1
Total word count	168	283

There are differences in the raw data of frequency of cohesive ties between those two versions of "Friends." However, as the total word count indicates, the length of each passage is also quite different. The first version of "Friends" has 168 words, while the last has 283, 115 more

than the first version. To compare the density of the use of cohesive ties, it can be helpful to chart the raw data in percentages. The percentage of each cohesive tie was calculated by dividing the sum of the words of each section of cohesive ties by the total word count.

Table 5 Friends: Comparison of cohesive ties in percentage

Type	Friends #1	Friends final
1. REFERENCE:		
1a pronominals	22.0 (%)	15.5 (%)
4. CONJUNCTION:		
4a additive	1.2	3.5
4b adversative	1.8	1.8
4c causal	2.4	1.1
4d temporal	0.6	1.8
Total Word Count	168	283

There are differences in the percentage of cohesive ties in all types except adversative conjunction. Additive conjunction and temporal conjunction types increased, while pronominals and causal conjunction decreased. There was, however, no significance in this rate of change. The reason for this seems to be the broad rewriting of content as well as the difference in length from the first to the last version, and the content change seemed to affect the use of cohesive ties. Because of the extensive content revision of "Friends," it is difficult to judge whether the changes in cohesive ties are significant or not.

The second sample, "Math," was selected since the total length and content were relatively unchanged after many revision processes. Table 6

shows the raw data of each of the cohesive ties used in two versions of "Math."

Table 6 "Math" : Comparison between the first and the final drafts in the use of pronominals and conjunctions

Type	Math #1	Math #5
1. REFERENCE:		
1a pronominals	51	54
I	19	19
they	15	16
them	4	4
their	7	9
we/us	1/1 = 2	1/1 = 2
she/his	2/- = 2	1/1 = 2
my	2	2
4. CONJUNCTION		
4a additive	35	41
and (noun connection)	8	10
and (verb/clause connection)	17	22
or	5	5
in addition to	1	2
for example	1	1
especially	1	-
according to	2	1
4b adversative	9	12
but	7	9
however	-	1
although/though	1/1 = 2	-
in contrast to	-	2
4c causal	22	17
so	6	3
as	3	2
because	7	4
if	4	4
therefore	-	1
besides	1	2
in fact	1	1
4d temporal	7	8
before/after	1/1 = 2	1/2 = 3
first/second	-	1/1 = 2
when	3	1
while	2	2
Total word count	1223	1348

The percentage of cohesive tie use was calculated by following the same procedure for the previous chart of "Friends."

Table 7 Math: Comparison of cohesive ties in percentage

Type	Math #1	Math Final
1. REFERENCE:		
1a pronominals	4.2 %	4.0 %
4. CONJUNCTION:		
4a additive	0.3	0.3
4b adversative	0.1	0.1
4c causal	0.2	0.1
4d temporal	0.1	0.1
Total Word Count	1223	1348

"Math" reveals no major change in the frequency of each type of cohesive tie, even though a lot of change was observed in the revision process to make it more coherent (this will be shown in the section 4. 3 where coherence diagram is presented). This could be an evidential result in support of the claim by Carrell (1982) and Kaplan (1987), who said that coherent writing requires more than a linguistic level of cohesion.

However, the small difference in the density of cohesive ties was observed in the use of pronominals and causal conjunction. Both of them were reduced slightly from those in the first version. The reason for the reduction in the percentage of pronominals relates to the reduction of the personal tone in the writing style. The use of the first person pronoun, I, for example, was considerably reduced in the last version (to be explained in more detail in section 4. 3. 2). The following excerpts will show the obvious difference in the use of pronominals.

An excerpt from the first draft of "Math"

When I was teaching, I was struggling how I can cover the curriculum. I always felt the class time was not sufficient to do all of the curriculum. Surely the curriculum of Japanese education is tough *even though* it is getting decreasing its contents. *Because* the length of Japanese school year is two months longer than North American's, and other subjects are emphasized as well as mathematics, so teachers can teach much less things each year, I **guess**.

An excerpt from the last draft of "Math"

The amount of material covered in Canada is very different from that covered in Japan. *While* I was teaching, I was struggling to think how I could cover the curriculum. I always felt the class time was not sufficient to do all of the curriculum. Surely the curriculum of Japanese education is tough even though its contents is decreasing. I believe, *because* the length of Japanese school year is two months longer than North American's, *and* other subjects are emphasized as well as mathematics, teachers can teach more less things each year.

The reduction in the percentage of causal conjunctions seems to be related to the change in organization of the sentence structure and also the reduction of unnecessary linkage of contents. In the first draft, because of the simple grammatical mistakes or the novice use of cohesive

markers, there were a number of inappropriate conjunctions which could be rectified by changing the rhetorical organization.

4. 2. 2. Speculation about the different results in the density of cohesive ties between "Friends" and "Math" over revision process

One reason for the different results in the frequency of cohesive ties between "Friends" and "Math" may relate to the difference in total length and in content from the first to the last draft. The change in word count of "Friends" was quite broad for such a short essay, from 168 in the first sample to 283 words in the last. Thus the total number of words increased by 115, or 68% (283 divided by 168) for the final draft. In consequence the contents had been changed considerably. On the other hand, "Math" did not change much in total length. A change from 1223 to 1348 words meant an increase of only 10% (1348 divided by 1223) for the final draft. While the last version of "Friends" was quite different in content from the first version, like a rewritten text, the last version of "Math" maintained mostly the same content as the first version, only slightly edited.

While the apparent inconsistency in the frequency of use of cohesive ties between the first and the last version of "Friends" seemed to result mainly from the broad change of content, almost the same density of cohesive ties was observed in the first and the last versions of "Math." Since the revision of "Friends" seems to be the consequence of rewriting rather than a revision, the data of "Math" would probably make for a better comparative study of cohesive ties over the revision process. In

Table 8, the frequencies of cohesive ties are charted for the first and the last drafts of both "Friends" and "Math."

Table 8 Percentage of each type of cohesion
(the number of words of each type divided by total word count).

Type	Friends #1	Friends final	Math #1	Math Final
1. REFERENCE:				
1a pronominals	22.0 (%)	15.5 (%)	4.2 (%)	4.0 (%)
4. CONJUNCTION:				
4a additive	1.2	3.5	0.3	0.3
4b adversative	1.8	1.8	0.1	0.1
4c causal	2.4	1.1	0.2	0.1
4d temporal	0.6	1.8	0.1	0.1
Total Word Count	168	283	1223	1348

From the comparative data on "Math" it can be concluded that there is no significant change between the first and the final draft in the use of pronominals and conjunctions. In other words, cohesive ties are not so influential as to make the final draft of "Math" more coherent. This data could be evidential support for the claim by Kaplan (1987) that to make ESL writings fluent, more than the linguistic level of fluency is required. Also, as Carrell (1982) claims, "cohesion is not the cause of coherence; ... it's the effect of coherence" (p.486), the linguistic elements such as cohesive ties seem not to be so influential in improving the total coherence in the linguistic level.

4. 3. 3 Analysis of Chronological Change in Cohesive Ties

The second analysis of cohesive ties examines whether there is any chronological change in the use of pronominals and conjunctions. This

chronological comparison is to determine whether the consequential developmental features can be observed over the final version of seven samples in the use of cohesive ties in expository writing.

Table 9 Percentage of each type of cohesive ties in seven writing samples
(the number of words of each type divided by total word count)

	Friends (Final)	Math (Final)	Traveler	Two Stories	Gender	Two Poets	Women's Rights
Time	Oct. '93	Nov. '93	Jan. '94	Feb. '94	Oct. '94	Apr. '95	Oct. '95
1. REFERENCE:							
pronominals	15.6%	4.0%	13.3 %	8.7%	5.2%	4.5%	3.9%
4. CONJUNCTION:							
additive	3.5	3.0	2.1	2.8	1.6	5.3	2.7
adversative	1.8	8.9	3.2	1.8	1.4	0.8	1.7
causal	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.1	0.8	2.2
temporal	1.8	0.6	1.6	0.9	0.4	0	0.5
Total Word Count	283	1348	188	458	554	358	846

As Table 9 indicates, there seem to be no obvious or significant changes found over the seven sample writings. If anything could be speculated, it would regard the use of pronominals. The density of pronominal reference, which relates to the degree of personal tone in each writing sample, seems to decrease as the subject gains more experience in writing exposition. The latter three writings, "Gender," "Two Poets," and "Women's rights" have less density in the use of pronominals than the earlier samples. Also the topic of the writing seems to relate to the degree of personal/impersonal tone. For example, "Friends" and "Traveler" expressed a higher degree of personal tone, while "Math" used the least degree of personal tone among the subject's early

four writings in the three-month ESL course. These results could suggest that "Friends" and "Traveler" are more personal topics, while "Math" represents the least personal topic among the four samples in the earlier period.

Based on this analysis, the use of conjunctions seems to vary in density between the seven samples but these changes are easily accounted for by topic features and may not indicate a developmental trend. This finding matches the result of Goldman and Murray's study (1992), that overall performance levels in English are "not primarily associated with differential patterns among the connectors [conjunctions]" (p. 518).

4. 3. Rhetorical Level of Analysis

The rhetorical level of analysis will examine ESL features in the writing samples, especially those features that may appear awkward to native-English readers for their unconventional features of English expository writing. The main focus, then, will be on finding those features transferred from Japanese rhetorical patterns, such as *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu*, quasi-inductive, and reader-responsible styles.

4. 3. 1 Comparison of Topic Structure Between the First and the Final Version of the Text

The first question in a rhetorical level of analysis is whether any significant change in the rhetorical level occurred over the revision process. For this comparison, the coherence diagram of the first and the last version of "Friends" and "Math" will be used.

Figure 5 below represents the first version of "Friends".

Figure 5 The Coherence Diagram Analysis of the First Version of "Friends"

- 1) have a lot of friends in Japan
- 2) a. friends are people who I can talk to
- b. **so**, I have a lot of friends
- c. **but**, I do not have so many here
- 3) a. **When** I talk to my friends
- b. I expect something which I cannot get by my self from them.
- 4) a. **For example**,
- b. expect them to give me some advises
- 5) **Of course**, I will give them back some as well
- 6) I do not mean those are just good things.
- 7) a. Friends influence each other,
- b. **because**, their own experiences are all different
- 8) a. have a lot of them like those in Japan
- b. ---they are different
- c. **but**, they are all Japanese
- 9) a. **If** I get multicultural friends,
- b. they will give me so many things
- 10) a. It takes a while to be friends
- b. **but**, I want to have friends as many as I can.

In this first version of "Friends," grammatical and syntactic mistakes were apparent but they will not be discussed here as they are not the main concern of this study (see Chapter 2).

Clearly, the rhetorical organization in the first version of "Friends" is not well structured as an English exposition. The main theme statement is not clear enough in the first sentence. Although the first sentence includes a word that indicates the topic of this passage, "Friends," the statement is rather oblique for an opening sentence. As the diagram shows, both the first and the last sentences of the passage may give an obscure impression of what the writer intended to say, as there is no topic statement in the opening sentence but just an indication of the topic. This type of topic development is adequate in Japanese rhetoric, but not for English rhetoric and expository writing.

The next coherence diagram represents the last version of "Friends". (Figure 6)

Figure 6 The Coherence Diagram Analysis of the Final Version of "Friends"

1. 1) friends are very important
 - 2) a. I have a lot of friends in Japan
 - b. **and**, I miss them
 - 3) a. These are people to whom I can talk about myself;
 - b. **However**, I do not have so many friends
- 2 1) I have not define friends/shared ideas
 - 2) a. **When** I was in the elementary school
 - b. people who play together
 - 3) a. In junior-high and high school friends are rivals
 - 4) a. When I entered my university
 - b. I made a lot of friends
 - 5) **Until then** I only had friends with similar background
 - 6) a. Most of these friends are still my friends
 - b. **and**, I also made friends outside of school
 - 7) a. we could not spend as much time together after graduation
 - b. **but**, we can talk freely as soon as we meet
 - 8) friends are people who support me
3. 1) a. **When** I talk to my friends,
- b. I get something from friends,
- 2) a. **For example**, before I decided to come to Canada
- b. I consulted friends
- 3) some friends agree, some disagree
- 4) friends could point out something I never thought about
4. 1) friends influence each other
 - 2) a. **If** I get multicultural friends,
 - b. they will give me many things
 - 3) a. It takes while to be friends,
 - b. **but**, I want to have as many as I can.

The last draft displays far better coherence for English-speaking readers than the first. The rhetorical organization of the last version is much improved. There is a clear topic statement in the opening sentence, and it is followed by a topical structure which flows similar to the one in FPT. While the coherence diagram of the first version does not follow the pattern of FPT, the last version of "Friends" effects a rhetorical organization much closer to this pattern.

The paragraph distinction is also different between the first and last versions. The first version is a one-paragraph passage, and the last version is a four-paragraph passage. One interesting assumption could be made here: that the four-paragraph pattern would be more naturally written than the five-paragraph because of the KSTK pattern of organization, which is more familiar for a Japanese ESL student.

Next, the first and the last versions of "Math" will be examined. "Math" was written as an essay exercise, so it is much longer than the FPT passage expository. The coherence diagram of the first and final drafts of "Math" follow in Figure 7 and Figure 8:

Figure 7 The Coherence Diagram Analysis of the First Version of "Math"

- 1..
 - 1) a. **when** I solved the rubic cube in a short period
 - b. some Canadian friends were so surprised
 - c. **but**, one of them understand
 - d. **because** I was oriental
 - 2) I must have oriental brain for being good at solving puzzle
 - 3) a. It was not accident to solve puzzle
 - b. **but**, don't think I have a special ability
2.
 - 1) North American students have lower math score
 - 2) a. North American think most important factor is **innate intelligence**
 - 3) other factors
3.
 - 1) difference is owing textbook
 - 2) a. Japanese government give us textbook while in compulsory
 - b. **and** parents pay for them after junior-high
 - 3) Here school owing textbook
 - 4) a. owing textbook is important
 - b. **because**, it is related to students' volition
 - 5) I remember I had been motivated when I had new texts
 - 6) a. Students cannot write on the text
 - b. **because** they have to keep textbook clean
 - 7) a. If students wants to study
 - b. it's difficult without owing textbook
 - 8) a. **In fact**, last year while I was with homestay family
 - b. grade 2 boy never studied home
4.
 - 1) teacher don't give homework
 - 2) a. Doing home work has two important meanings
 - b. establish the things they learned
 - c. homework and good study habit
 - 3) In math field good study habit is important
5.
 - 1) In Japan most of the students go to juku
 - 2) a. **Although** students are forced to go to juku
 - b. at least desire of learning
6.
 - 1) teacher's quality influence students' achievement
 - 2) students with difficulty dislike math
 - 3) a. **Because** to understand well is important in math field
 - b. teachers are required to have the teaching technique
7.
 - 1) a. teacher education
 - b. **and**, the system of education at elementary school
 - c. **and**, the system of education at high school
 - 2) a. the system of education
 - b. **so**, the teachers in North America is not less trained
 - 3) **In addition**, condition of teaching
8.
 - 1) two difference between teacher in Canada and in Japan
 - 2) Japanese teacher
 - 3) teacher status
 - 4) teacher devoted
 - 5) prepare class
 - 6) teachers have lot of things to do
 - 7) teachers have to improve their skill
 - 8) a. IF things teachers have to do
 - b. they will have to devote their free time
 - 9) Some do but some don't
9.
 - 1) I often struggled with curriculum
 - 2) The time was not enough to do curriculum
 - 3) Japanese curriculum is tough
 - 4) a. curriculum in Japan
 - b. **and**, other subjects
 - c. **so**, teachers teach mush less
 - 5) curriculum in Japan
 - 6) **For example**- equation
 - 7) a. same contents in both country
 - b. **but** it is no doubt Japanese students establish firmer
10.
 - 1) in curriculum--using calculator
 - 2) In Canada students use calculator
 - 3) calculator
 - 4) a. calculator is useful
 - b. **but** cause falling of power of calculation
 - c. **and** students don't know how to calculate

- 5) students use calculator even for easy calculation
 6) a. I don't disagree with calculator
 b. but students should know how to calculate
11. 1) Japanese farmer--custom of hardworking
 2) custom of hardworking
 3) enthusiasm in education
 4) a. In addition to these, people are required to be highly educated
 b. studying hard
 5) this is statistically shown
 6) keeping practice
 7) a. social and cultural value
 b. so, it would not work in North American education
 8) students' attitude and believes
12. 1) Kumon system
 2) a. the day of math-Ed. approach changes
 b. and they will success on math

Figure 8 The Coherence Diagram Analysis of the Final Version of "Math"

1.
 - 1) a. solving rubic puzzle in a short period
 - b. but because I was oriental
 - 2) a. It was not by accident that I solved puzzle
 - b. but, I don't think I have a special ability
2.
 - 1) intelligence and math achievement
 - 2) However, other factors
3.
 - 1) One of the important factors making students' attitude different is owing textbook
 - 2) a. Japanese government give us textbooks in elementary
 - b. and after junior high parents pay for them
 - 3) Here school owing textbook
 - 4) owing textbook is important because it relates to students' volition
 - 5) students' volition
 - 6) a. Students cannot make notes
 - b. because they have to keep textbook clean
 - 7) a. If student want to study at home
 - b. it is difficult without owing textbook
4.
 - 1) homestay family boy/never studied home
 - 2) not much homework
 - 3) importance of homework--review and good study habit
 - 4) importance of practice
5.
 - 1) In contrast to Canada, Japanese students study at juku
 - 2) students learn special technique at juku
 - 3) study habit and devotion
6.
 - 1) quality of teaching is another factor of achievement
 - 2) quality of teaching-influence student achievement
 - 3) students with difficulty dislike math
 - 4) a. importance of the teaching technique
 - b. students with good understanding will like math
7.
 - 1) similar system of teacher education
 - 2) high school education
 - 3) In addition, ratio of teacher and students
8.
 - 1) two difference between teacher in Canada and in Japan
 - 2) First, Japanese teacher
 - 3) a. teacher's responsibility
 - b. and also, parents complain if their children can't achieve
 - 4) second point/teachers' devotion to work
 - 5) Canadian teachers' case
 - 6) their regular working hour
 - 7) Japanese teachers' case
 - 8) need for improving teaching skills
 - 9) teachers' devotion to work
 - 10) teachers' devotion
9.
 - 1) material to be covered is different
 - 2) I struggled how to cover the curriculum
 - 3) problem of curriculum
 - 4) curriculum in Japan
 - 5) curriculum in Japan/North America
 - 6) statistical report of curriculum
 - 7) For example- equation
 - 8) a. almost same contents were taught
 - b. but better because of repetition
10.
 - 1) another factor in curriculum--calculator
 - 2) in Canada students use calculator at grade 3
 - 3) calculator should be used everyday curriculum
 - 4) a. using calculator is useful
 - b. but cause to lose the power to calculate
 - c. and students don't know how to calculate
 - 5) a. students tend to relay on calculator
 - b. students lose the ability of mental arithmetic
 - 6) a. I don't disagree with calculator
 - b. but student should know how to calculate
11.
 - 1) Japanese farmer--custom of hardworking
 - 2) custom of hardworking
 - 3) education before modernization
 - 4) high education is required in Japan
 - 5) studying hard is Japanese national character
 - 6) studying hard is important

- 7) in contrast American don't think so
 8) patience in drill work
 12. 1) Kumon system
 2) a. Because many difference are from social value
 b. difficult to change the value
 c. but they should try
 d. mathematical thinking
 3) success on math. ed. achievement.

The topic move indicates the topic development of the text and the level of coherence. As the charts show graphically, there are several differences in the way each topic moves between the first and the final version. In the first version the topic moves much more irregularly. The left-side edge of Figure 7 does not display as many parallel or sequential moves. On the other hand, the left-side edge in Figure 8 appears much more organized, with a high proportion of sequential progressions which indicates topic development with good topical coherence between sentences.

The big change in the final revision was the appearance of a topic statement in the first sentence of the paragraph. In the last version of "Math," most of the paragraphs started with a much clearer topic statement than those in the first version. This change helped to improve the total quality of the text. The following excerpts from the first and the last version of "Math" shows some examples of the improvement of total quality.

The excerpts from the first version (9th paragraph):

- 1) **When** I was teaching, I was struggling how I can cover the curriculum. 2) I always felt the class time was not sufficient to do all of the curriculum. 3) Surely the curriculum of Japanese education is tough even though it is getting decreasing its contents. 4) **Because** the length of Japanese school year is two

months longer than North American's, **and** other subjects are emphasized as well as mathematics, **so** teachers can teach much less things each year, I guess.

Those sentences were changed as follows in the last version (9th paragraph):

1) The amount of material covered in Canada is very different from that covered in Japan. 2) **While** I was teaching, I was struggling to think how I could cover the curriculum. 3) I always felt the class time was not sufficient to do all of the curriculum. 4) Surely the curriculum of Japanese education is tough even though its contents is decreasing. 5) I believe, **because** the length of Japanese school year is two months longer than North American's, **and** other subjects are emphasized as well as mathematics, teachers can teach more less things each year.

Having a topic statement at the first sentence of the paragraph made the last version much more akin to the North American expository structure.

Along with the appearance of the topic statement, there is one other noteworthy feature regarding topic development in the last version of "Math." As explained in Chapter 3, the sequential progression from left to right indicates deductive style and from right to left indicates inductive style. In deductive style the main topic of the paragraph is usually stated in the first sentence, while in inductive style it is usually last. Although the final version of "Math" has many features of inductive style topic development, interestingly the first sentence of those inductive paragraphs contains a clear topic statement. However, the topic statement of the first sentence was not always a true topic to the paragraph even if it read like one.

This false topic statement could be very misleading for the production of coherence diagram. Some of the first sentences were written as if they were the topic statements of the paragraph. The first paragraph is written in a typical deductive way. If English-speaking readers read only the first sentence, they would perceive that it is the topic of the paragraph and also would expect the topic development of the paragraph to be a deductive style. However, most of the paragraphs of the last version of "Math" were written in the inductive style and the true main topic was often embedded somewhere in the paragraph. This type of topic development seems to be influenced from Japanese rhetoric, specifically the quasi-inductive style (Hinds, 1990).

This quasi-inductive feature can be notably observed in Figure 7, the coherence diagram of the first version of "Math." The topic development does not appear sequential, parallel, or extended-parallel progression. Rather, the topic movement in the coherence diagram follows a wavy curve, suggesting that the topic develops sometimes deductively and sometimes inductively. These topic shifts would give an impression of oblique logical development for native-English readers because the topic statement of the paragraph appears unpredictably. The main topic statement of the paragraph is sometimes placed at the beginning of the paragraph and sometimes at the end, while other times it is obliquely embedded in the middle. This is very different from the expected type of English expository topic development. In consequence, this type of writing would be evaluated as not clear or not very coherent.

In Japanese rhetoric, however, a clear topic statement would be avoided. Rather, the topic is usually embedded somewhere indirectly in the whole paragraph. Writing softly is considered more sophisticated in

general. It is the preferred style in Japanese culture, although not suitable for Western essay writing.

This style is also related to the preference for reader-responsible style (Hinds, 1987). In reader responsible style the writer does not reveal her opinion directly but is more likely to suggest a position. In consequence, the reader-responsible style would be perceived as not clear enough for English-speaking readers whose culture conventionally uses a writer-responsible style.

This reader-responsible rhetorical feature was described as the sequential wavy curves in Figure 7. However, it could be considered a 'spiral' move of topic development if the model of communication style could be described in a three dimensional way. The topic development feature in Japanese rhetoric is somehow more three dimensional because the reader-responsible style always involves mind-reading that "adequately anticipate the needs, wants, and reactions" (Takano, 1993, p.48) and also the sociocultural norm, all features which exist beyond the written dimension of the text (ref. 2. 7).

Having analyzed both versions of "Math," it could be concluded that the rhetorical organization of the text was greatly altered during the revision process, while the linguistic features (such as cohesive ties, examined in section 4. 3. 1) did not alter much between versions. The change most apparent in the last version was the topic statement in the first sentence of the paragraph. The text was revised to read more like the deductive style. The subject ESL writer revised her text with the guidance of her ESL instructor and this probably accounts for the emphasis on changing to the deductive topic development. "English-speaking readers typically expect that an essay will be organized

according to a deductive style" (Hinds, 1990, p.99), and so do ESL teachers. Some paragraphs were well revised into a deductive style. Other paragraphs were only superficially deductive because of the false topic statement, resulting in the quasi-inductive style.

4. 3. 2 Chronological Comparison of Rhetorical Features Over Seven Writing Samples

After finding some significant differences in the topic structure between revisions of the same passage, the second question is how have the English expository writing features been developed by the subject ESL writer over time. For this comparison, the final version of all seven samples will be used. Since the data of two earliest samples, "Friends" and "Math," were already introduced in the previous section, the next sample is "Traveler," which is the third in chronological order.

"Traveler" was written in January, 1994 while the subject was in an ESL program. This text was to be a short expository writing exercise. This passage contains several unconventional rhetorical features. It will be shown that those features are influenced by Japanese rhetorical features which are intricately amalgamated with North American essay writing features. Since this text contains many features that need to be explained, the presentation of the whole text is necessary.

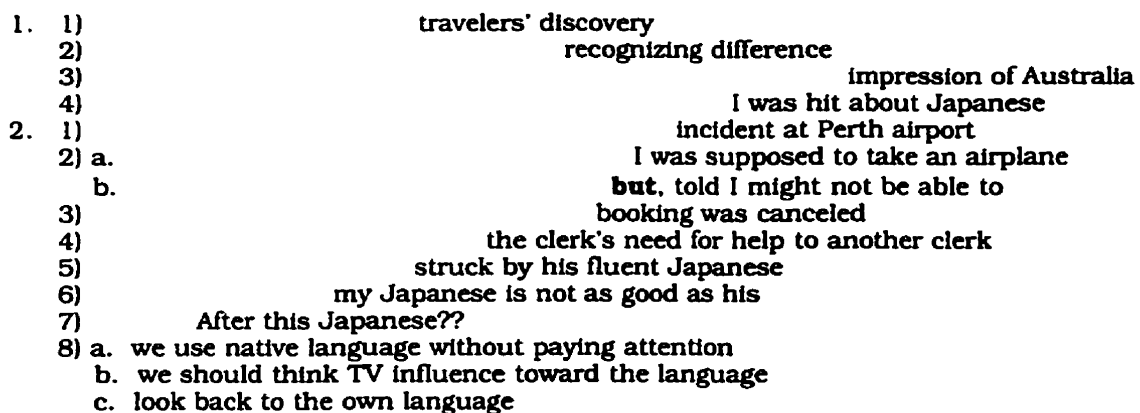
"Traveler"

1. 1)Travelers make many discoveries in visiting foreign country. 2)We recognized that culture, people and weather are different between the our country and the country which we visit. 3)When I went to Australia, I felt that Australia is a big country, and that Australians are kind. 4)Besides of these feelings, I was hit about my Japanese.

2. 1)The incident was at Perth airport. 2)I supposed to take the airplane to Japan, but at the counter of the airline company, I was told I might not have taken the airplane. 3)According to a clerk, my booking of the airplane was canceled even though I reconfirmed. 4)In the conversation between the clerk and me, she felt she needed help and asked another clerk. 5)I thought the clerk was an Australian, but he spoke to me with incredibly fluent Japanese. 6)I was shocked because even though I'm Japanese, my Japanese is not as good as his. 7)After this incident, I make much of Japanese. 8)We use native language every day without paying attention, but we should think TV influence toward the language and look back to the own language before learning foreign languages.

The coherence diagram of "Traveler" reveals a quasi-inductive style of topic development. However, its detection was difficult since it was mixed with the deductive style. Before going into more detail, the following coherence diagram will support further discussion:

Figure 9. "Traveler"



First, this passage was observed as deductive in style because the main theme of "Traveler" looks like a discovery of travelers, which is clearly stated in the first sentence of text. However, in the last sentence (2.-8), the topic of the first sentence, discovery, was concluded with the topic language. Language, seems to leap beyond the main theme of this text as it was clearly stated in the first sentence as discovery of the traveler.

The detection of the main theme of this text was difficult because of the title, "Traveler." With this title, and having the topic, traveler's discovery, in the first sentence, readers expect this text to have been written in the North American deductive style. However, there were some materials which helped in this analysis. To assist the student's planning of this writing, the ESL instructor had provided a printed handout (see Table 10) that shows the scheme of the FPT. Also available were some of the subject's notes written on another printed handout (see p.71), the form for planning an essay, on which the theme and topics were planned before writing this text. Examining the notes revealed that the main theme is not a traveler or traveler's discovery but rather, language.

Table 10. Five-paragraph theme handout

<p>Introductory Paragraph</p> <p>Introduction</p> <p>Thesis sentence</p> <p>Plan of development</p> <p>Points 1, 2, 3</p>	<p>The <i>introduction</i> attracts the reader's interest.</p> <p>The <i>thesis sentence</i> states the main idea advanced in the paper.</p> <p>The <i>plan of development</i> is a list of the points that support the thesis. The points are presented in the order in which they will be developed in the paper.</p>
<p>First Supporting Paragraph</p> <p>Topic sentence (point 1)</p> <p>Specific evidence</p>	<p>The <i>topic sentence</i> advances the first supporting point for the thesis, and the <i>specific evidence</i> in the rest of the paragraph develops that first point.</p>
<p>Second Supporting Paragraph</p> <p>Topic sentence (point 2)</p> <p>Specific evidence</p>	<p>The <i>topic sentence</i> advances the second supporting point for the thesis, and the <i>specific evidence</i> in the rest of the paragraph develops that second point.</p>
<p>Third Supporting Paragraph</p> <p>Topic sentence (point 3)</p> <p>Specific evidence</p>	<p>The <i>topic sentence</i> advances the third supporting point for the thesis, and the <i>specific evidence</i> in the rest of the paragraph develops that third point.</p>
<p>Concluding Paragraph</p> <p>Summary, conclusion, or both</p>	<p>A <i>summary</i> is a brief restatement of the thesis and its main points. A <i>conclusion</i> is a final thought or two stemming from the subject of the paper.</p>

The notes for "Traveler" were:

Opening remarks:	There are many discoveries in visiting foreign country.
Thesis statement:	We should speak Japanese carefully and correctly.
Plan of development:	1) We don't pay attention so much 2) TV influence 3) We tend to learn foreign language

As the notes show, the main theme of this text was the need to speak Japanese carefully and correctly. The true main theme was presented in the last sentence. It means that "Traveler" was written in the inductive style from the plan for the deductive style.

The subject had planned to present the main topic clearly in the opening sentence as she was taught when she learned the five-paragraph theme. The opening sentence seems clear enough in terms of the sentence structure, however the topic of the opening sentence was not the main topic but rather a subthematic topic. The reason for this subthematic statement in the opening sentence could be because of the subject's misunderstanding the concept of the five-paragraph theme. She tried to write in North American rhetoric, which is usually deductive, but mixed this with her first language rhetoric, which is more inductive. Although the ESL instructor may have explained the scheme of FPT, the subject might have overlapped FPT with the concept of the KSTK

framework because of using her background knowledge. As explained in Chapter 2, these rhetorical patterns have some similarities which could cause confusion. In consequence, the text turned out to be the hybrid form of two rhetorical patterns. This accounts for the other negative features, following, that were detected in "Traveler."

Another feature is that this text is not written in English exposition form. Only the first, the second, and the last sentences are written in expository manner. Moreover, there is no supportive argument for this theme in the body of the text. Rather there is a personal, anecdotal, recount-style which is not suitable for English expository writing. This feature seems to be also influenced by the KSTK style, which is often applied in the text through a personal journal-like form in Japanese rhetoric, and is considered a good prototype in Japanese composition classes.

In the KSTK style for an expository-like personal journal, the pattern is usually: 1) presenting a cue-topic that inducts the main theme as an opening sentence (ki); 2) mentioning some personal anecdotal incident as an example (shoo and ten); 3) tying up the cue-topic and the incident into the conclusive speculation (ketsu). The KSTK type of Japanese exposition is commonly observed in Japanese newspaper editorials, such as "Tensei-Jingo," which Hinds (1982) used for his analysis of Japanese rhetorical features. This type of rhetorical pattern is "evaluated highly by speakers of Japanese..." and is often used as a good prototype of writing in Japanese composition, but "...may be responsible for some types of negative transfer in English compositions" (Hinds, 1982, p. 15).

Although "Traveler" was written after "Friends" and "Math," it contains unconventional features. In some way it is more unconventional than the previous samples. The subject mentioned the reason for this digressive developmental process in the interview:

...the revision was not done so much in this period of ESL course compare to the former ESL course period when the text "Friends" and "Math" were written. In the process of revision for "Math" there were many more chances to have ESL instructor's help, but "Traveler" was written without having such a help.

This explains the apparent digression in writing development of this ESL student. The previous sample text, "Math," had a more English-like rhetorical structure. "Traveler" seems to be too novice-like for a text written after the accomplishment seen in "Math."

The findings from "Friends," "Math," and "Traveler" are also commonly detected in the other four sample texts. Hereafter, the features commonly found in all seven texts will be dealt with together. The other four samples are "Two Stories," "Gender," "Two Poets," and "Women's Rights". "Two Stories" is a book review written in February, 1994, at the end of the subject's ESL program. "Gender" is a paper written for the anthropology class in October, 1994. "Two Poets" is a paper written for English 112 in April, 1995. "Women's Rights" is a paper written for sociology in October, 1995. The following are the coherence diagrams of those four samples.

Figure 10. The coherence diagram analysis of "Two Stories"

1. 1) relationship between mother(M) and daughter(D)
 2) M & D understand each other well
 3) **however**, sometimes problems between M & D
 4) Titles of two stories/ about relationship between M & D
 5) **Although** there are similarities/differences of relationship
 6) similarities
2. 1) **Both** single working mothers
 2) the reason to have left a husband
 3) single working mother
 4) her character
 5) the other M's character
 6) her husband
 7) single working mother
3. 1) daughters in both stories
 2) their characters
 3) character of one of them
 4) her episode
 5) her boy friend
 6) **In contrast**, the other's character
 7) her episode
4. 1) hard time in their background
 2) the year when a story written
 3) the society at that time & story
 4) the year when the other story written
 5) the society at that time & story
 6) single working mother
5. 1) Two stories have things in common/**but** include different women
 2) comparison of different characters

Figure 11. The coherence diagram analysis of "Gender"

1. 1) differences between men & Women
 2) **For example**, many women work like men
 3) a. **However**, always men & women
 b. **and not be changed**
 4) two kinds of human/different anatomically
 5) a. **not only** that difference
 b. consciousness of difference make them behave
2. 1) **There are some** gender difference in behavior among children
 2) a. **Although** enjoy playing as groups
 b. difference in the organization of groups
 3) mixed gender group
 4) **On the other hand**, same gender group
 5) consciousness of gender
3. 1) when start being conscious of gender difference
 2) not they were born
 3) **On the other hand**, parents start
 4) parents' consciousness of baby's gender
 5) blue for boys & pink for girls
4. 1) baby and gender
 2) the way girl baby will be brought up
 3) the way for boy baby
 4) different gender and different things
 5) different diapers
 6) different toys
 7) different toys
5. 1) consciousness of gender after school age
 2) gender
 3) boys & girls
 4) boys & girls
 5) black bags for boys & red bags for girls
6. 1) becoming conscious of gender and behave differently
 2) a. **Therefore**, pre-school less conscious
 b. **but** , school age /gender behave in the same way

Figure 12. The coherence diagram analysis of "Two Poets"

1. 1) a. **Although, different time and place**
 b. two imagist poets had similar experiences
 2) a. **both** learned 'haiku'
 b. and employ images of Oriental literature
 3) **there are** similarities between their poems in diction, imagery and sentence structure
2. 1) same kind of diction
 2) simple language
 3) **For example,** one or two syllables
 4) **Similarly,** few syllables
 5) simplicity of the language
3. 1) similarity in their imagery/sharp and vivid
 2) image of girls in three different times
 3) image of Yin and Yang
 4) draw a picture of visual experience
4. 1) simple sentence structure
 2) a. incomplete sentences
 b. even omit verbs
 3) **For instance, ???**
 4) While, complete sentences/unnecessary word
 5) two sentences with twelve words
 6) a. **Both** are short
 b. **however, because of** the space
 c. they express more images
5. 1) two poems are very close in some points: diction, imagery, and sentence structure
 2) a. **another** thing in common
 b. their characteristics
 3) a. people understand internationally
 4) b. hope two poets will be recognized

Figure 13. The coherence diagram analysis of "Women's Right"

1. 1) a. Since women got rights to vote,
b. their social situation has changed
- 2) a. For example, work outside
b. ; more women go to university
c. :and easier pregnancy and birth
- 3) women's situation
- 4) a. At Beijing Conference, for example,
b. all the governments agreed to improve three areas
c. economy, education, health
- 5) Similarly, change women's social situation
- 6) a. women's situation has changed
b. both in industrialized and developing countries
- 7) a. With this international agreement
b. women's situation will be changed
2. 1) First, economic status of women
2) dependent in the old days
3) women work during WWII
4) a. women work but less money
b. women low income
5) reason for low income
6) However, women's situation
7) women will work
8) In addition, salary improvement
9) Therefore, economic status of women
10) economic status of women in the third world
11) a. Third world women work in agriculture
b. and, they do not get paid
12) a. women in industry
b. and they will be paid
13) economic status improves women's situation
3. 1) Second, education change women's situation
2) few women educated before the mid-twentieth
3) However, more women than men are educated
4) Yet, a few in a male-dominated field
5) For example, women in science and technology
6) In addition, women's attitude
7) women's attitude
8) In contrast, women's attitude/active
9) Moreover, issues of women's study
10) a. education in the 3rd world changed women's situation
b. illiteracy rate
11) illiteracy rate
12) education changes women's situation
4. 1) a. Finally, medicine improves women's situation
b. conceptional freedom
2) a. women's career
b. birth
3) For instance, baby/leave job
4) work/baby
5) However, abortion & sterilization for career
6) a. career and medicine
b. control pregnancy and birth
7) Women's situation in the 3rd W.
8) a. For example, public health and nutrition
b. disease
c. mortality rate
9) not have to breed many children
10) Thus, free from pregnancy and birthing
11) women's role change
5. 1) In conclusion, women's situation will change; economy, education, and medicine
2) these and women's situation
3) women & men are different/ equality
4) equality
5) this goal

As the coherence diagrams indicate, all the texts contain some features that do not quite follow these English expository pattern. All four texts still contain some common features which seem to indicate the transferring of Japanese rhetorical patterns. In terms of the rhetorical level of development across those seven writings, there seem to be no significant transitional changes. Although the structure of the FPT was already taught before these essays, it was apparently insufficient to make an ESL student fully understand the common rhetorical scheme in English. All her writings still seem to be mixed with Japanese rhetorical features, such as *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu*, quasi-inductive, and reader-responsible rhetorical patterns.

First, the opening sentence does not start with the main thesis of the text (as indicated by the shape of the coherence diagram). In the North American style of expository writings, the theme should be stated clearly in the beginning, especially if the text is short. Likewise, the theme and the summary of the whole text should be presented in an introduction if the text is long. However, none of these four texts follow this pattern. For example, the first sentence in the coherence diagrams starts somewhere in the middle of the chart, not near the left-side edge where the main topic should be placed. Rather, the main topics are usually placed a couple of sentences after the opening sentence. For example, in "Two Stories" at 1-3), in "Gender" at 1-5) , in "Two Poets" at 1-3) ; in "Women's Rights" at 1-3). Hinds (1990) called this feature, "Delayed introduction of purpose" (p.98), whereby the main topic is presented a couple of sentences after the opening sentence. This delayed

introduction of the main theme could be perceived as an unclear thesis statement because it is unconventional for the expository writing.

Secondly, an inductive style of topic development was frequently found in all of the sample texts. In the coherence diagram, an inductive style of topic development was charted as the sequential progression from right to left. Those parts of the texts written in inductive topic development were usually intermixed with deductive topic development, creating partially digressive sequential topic development in between deductive topic developments. This mixed topic development with both deductive and inductive patterns creates the impression of a digressive or unclear topic development.

A more emphasized inductive style of topic development, the ten part of the KSTK pattern, was also found in many sample texts. For example, the ten type of topic shift was strongly evidenced in "Math" at sentence 11. 1), where the topic shifts to the Japanese farmers from the main theme, mathematics education. From the sentence 11. 1), the topic develops as follows: farmers are hard-working--the custom of hard working--education--studying hard--patience in drill work, and, finally, goes back to the main topic, mathematics.

- | | | |
|-----|-------|-----------------------------------------------|
| 11. | 1) | Japanese farmer--custom of hardworking |
| | 2) | custom of hardworking |
| | 3) | education before modernization |
| | 4) | high education is required in Japan |
| | 5) | studying hard is Japanese national character |
| | 6) | studying hard is important |
| | 7) | in contrast American don't think so |
| | 8) | patience in drill work |
| 12. | 1) | Kumon system |
| | 2) a. | Because many difference are from social value |
| | b. | difficult to change the value |
| | c. | but they should try |
| | d. | mathematical thinking |
| | 3) | success on math. ed. achievement. |

In Figure 10, "Two stories", the ten type of topic shift was observed at 4-1)

- | | | | |
|----|----|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 4. | 1) | | hard time in their background |
| | 2) | | the year when a story written |
| | 3) | | the society at that time & story |
| | 4) | | the year when the other story written |
| | 5) | | the society at that time & story |
| | 6) | single working mother | |

In Figure 13, "Women's Rights", the 'ten' type of topic shift was observed at 4-8).

- | | | |
|----|-------|------------------------------------------------------|
| 4. | 1) a. | Finally , medicine improves women's situation |
| | b. | conceptional freedom |
| | 2) a. | women's career |
| | b. | birth |
| | 3) | For instance , baby/leave job |
| | 4) | work/baby |
| | 5) | However , abortion & sterilization for career |
| | 6) a. | career and medicine |
| | b. | control pregnancy and birth |
| | 7) | Women's situation in the 3rd W. |
| | 8) a. | For example , public health and nutrition |
| | b. | disease |
| | c. | mortality rate |
| | 9) | not have to breed many children |
| | 10) | Thus , free from pregnancy and birthing |
| | 11) | women's role change |

After shifting to the side-thematic topic at ten, the topic goes back to the main theme in inductive style. This type of topic development may appear most peculiar to North Americans because of the large leap of the topic. For example, at the ten part of "Math" the ESL instructor suggested adding some sentences or paragraphs before this ten section. This presumably indicates that for the ESL teacher, a native English reader, a topic shift like this was perceived as too big a leap (but there is no actual evidence).

The ketsu type of conclusion was evidenced in many of the sample texts. It is a conclusive implication or speculation that leaves the conclusion up to the reader. Since Japanese rhetoric takes the reader-responsible stance, it is quite common to leave the conclusion vague. However, this is not a suitable style of writing in English expository. This type of conclusion was observed even in the latter period of the sample texts. For example, the coherence diagram of "Two Poets," (Figure. 12) shows the ketsu like ending:

5. 1) two poems are very close in some points: diction, imagery, and sentence structure
- 2) a. **another** thing in common
- b. their characteristics
- 3) a. people understand internationally
- 4) b. hope two poets will be recognized

The ending of "Women's Rights" is written also in ketsu style:

5. 1) **In conclusion**, women's situation will change; economy, education, and medicine
- 2) these and women's situation
- 3) women & men are different/ equality
- 4) equality
- 5) this goal

While the North American style of expository writing requires the topic to be pulled back to its main theme in the last sentence, Japanese rhetorical style does not. As each topical structure diagram shows, the topic of the last sentence is not pulled back to the main theme. The ketsu style ending does not need to present any conclusion but rather leaves off with some indication or implication, thus leaving the readers responsible for the conclusion. The readers can interpret the ketsu

ending with their own understanding, or overlap their ideas with the writer's to make a conclusion.

Another Japanese rhetorical feature is the use of a personal mode. This feature diminished in frequency as the subject became more aware and proficient in expository writing. For example, some personal anecdotes were included in the earlier texts, "Friends," "Math," and "Traveler," but not in the latter four texts. The reduced use of pronominals in the latter texts also indicates the reduction of this personal mode.

Table 11 The density of pronominals

	Friends	Math	Traveler	Two Stories	Gender	Two Poets	Women's Right
Time	Oct. '93	Nov. '93	Jan. '94	Feb. '94	Oct. '94	Apr. '95	Oct. '95
Use of Pronominals	15.6%	4.0%	13.3 %	8.7%	5.2%	4.5%	3.9%
Total Word Count	283	1348	188	458	554	358	846

Table 12 The density of first person pronominals

	Friends	Math	Traveler	Two Stories	Gender	Two Poets	Women's Right
Time	Oct. '93	Nov. '93	Jan. '94	Feb. '94	Oct. '94	Apr. '95	Oct. '95
Use of First Person Pronominals	13.1%	2.0%	11.2 %	0%	1.6%	0.3%	0%
Total Word Count	283	1348	188	458	554	358	846

As Table 11 indicates, the reduction in the use of pronominals is observed in the latter three texts that have the relevant data. Among the

earlier four samples, the use of pronominals in "Math" is exceptionally small for text earlier in the chronological order. There seem to be two reasons for this. First, "Math" went through several revisions with the assistance of the ESL instructor. Secondly, there was a difference in the purpose of writing: the subject was aware that "Math" was a ronbun essay, while "Friends" and "Traveler" were short essays, and "Two Stories" was a book review. This evidenced that Japanese ESL writers often tend to overlap the concept of KSTK on FPT when the purpose of writing is not clearly understood as 論文 (ronbun essay). Thus the use of the personal mode was influenced not only by the level of writing proficiency but also by the purpose or the intent of the work.

Being clear of the purpose of an exercise seems to be an important factor. When the subject ESL student wrote "Math," a longer expository writing, the personal mode was diminished. This was probably because she knew that the purpose of writing was 論文 (ronbun). However, after writing "Math" she encountered a digressive stage of expository writing. The personal mode of "Traveler" is almost as marked as "Friends." I assume the subject was not yet clearly aware of the purpose of expository writing at that time, even though she learned the basic form of the FPT when she wrote "Friends." In other words, if the intent of the writing was not clear, the subject transferred Japanese KSTK style more obviously.

One of the distinctive features of KSTK and FPT is the level of personal mode. While the KSTK often includes a personal anecdote as a supporting example of the theme, FPT is a dry impersonal expository. Detailed features cannot be learned strictly from having guidance on the form of FPT. When teaching expository writing to ESL students explicit

examples may need to be included in order to avoid confusion about writing style.

Chapter V. Implication for Teaching and Further Research

In this study, ESL writing samples were analyzed by comparing and contrasting English and Japanese rhetorical patterns in order to specify Japanese ESL writing features that appear unconventional in English expository writing. From this study, I hope to contribute some guidance to the ESL educators who have been wondering why the writing proficiency of Oriental ESL students does not develop as naturally as that of other ESL students whose first languages are cognate to English. In this chapter, first the findings which can be utilized for teaching will be reviewed, then the teaching implications for providing more effective instruction to Oriental students will be discussed followed by a model teaching plan, and last further research will be suggested.

5. 1 The Findings of this Study

In this study seven samples have been examined to identify a pattern of development of English academic writing. This study also focused on examining how influential rhetoric is to the quality of this development. There were four major findings which raise instructional implications.

The first is at the linguistic level and arises from the comparison of the frequency of cohesive ties over the revision process. It was noticed that cohesive ties do not seem to have a major influence on improving the texts. Rather, the comparisons over the developmental process indicated that the rhetorical level of change strongly influenced the linguistic level.

At the rhetorical level of analysis, two observations have significant implications for teaching. One is the change in the topic statements, which was most apparently observed over the revision process. While the first draft did not have any clear topic statement in the beginning of each paragraph, the last version of text did. This change helped to improve the total quality of the coherence of text and also to be more like the North American expository convention.

Another observation significant for instruction at the rhetorical level was in the topic movement over the developmental process. The comparison over the final versions of seven samples indicated that the transfer of the first language (L1) rhetorical pattern remained even in the latter samples and mixed with the English rhetorical pattern. Occasional L1 transfer resulted in the mixed pattern of two rhetorical patterns; some were well-formed and some did not follow the North American conventions of expository writing. The unconventional features, such as the quasi-inductive topic development, and ten type of topic shift, appeared when the subject mixed up the two rhetorical patterns, FPT and KSTK.

One more feature that needs to be mentioned is the excessive use of personal mode that could be observed in the frequency of personal pronouns, especially first person pronouns. The use of the personal mode is a linguistic feature but strongly related to the rhetorical feature of text, which could be defined as a genre feature (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Swales, 1990). It is like a register of spoken language use. Even though the sentences were grammatically correct, some sentences could be inappropriate if they did not match the purpose of the writing. In

expository writing, the use of personal mode may be inappropriate and should be changed to a more impersonal voice.

In the next section, the teaching implications for providing more effective instruction to the Oriental students' acquisition of academic writing skill will be discussed.

5. 2. Teaching Implications

The teaching implications discussed here are for ESL students whose linguistic skill in English is sufficient to compose text and who have writing proficiency at a university level in their first language. Students who are already literate in their first language can transfer some first language writing skills. Although acquiring L2 writing skill is acknowledged as complex (Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll & Kuehn, 1990), at least part of the L1 literacy could be used as positive transfer to help the acquisition of that target language writing skill. For example, the subject ESL student could write a better essay in English when she was aware that the expected form of the writing was a ronbun essay because she could transfer some of the literacy skills acquired in her first language.

One could also expect a negative transfer of L1 influence. For example, inadequate text was written when she mixed the concept of essay writing with a personal journal (see section 2. 8. in Chap. 2). This was a result of mixing up L1 rhetorical pattern with L2. When the assigned task was not clearly understood as ronbun essay, the subject applied ki-shoo-ten-ketsu pattern. This type of examples of negative transfer and the interference of Japanese rhetorical style was observed

particularly in the data of "Friends" and "Traveler". When she learned FPT, a planning page which outlines the framework for FPT was provided by the instructor. Although it seemed to be a well-planned guide for FPT instruction, the student did not seem to capture the concept of FPT well enough because the topic of the assignment was rather casual to write in a strict expository style, and the framework for FPT explained on the planning page seemed not clear enough for learners. A concrete example text to show the FPT pattern may help the learners' understanding of FPT.

One teaching implication that arises from the samples examined in this study is the appropriateness of writing exercises. Most often ESL class assignments start with elementary level writing exercises such as a journal or a short composition. For students who still have trouble making sentences in English, assigning a journal or a short composition may be sufficient to start with. However, for students who need to prepare to join regular university courses, learning to write journals or composition is not sufficient help. Rather they need to learn to write an appropriate term paper. Expository writing for an academic purpose, such as essay writing would be more useful. Teaching a five-paragraph theme is a better starting point than a journal if it is clear that the purpose of the writing is academic.

Also writing exercises that have a clear rhetorical pattern, such as essay writing, would be more useful than those that have less well defined patterns, such as journal writing. The word journal is often confusing in terms of directing the purpose of writing even to a native speaker of English. It could be a personal journal in narrative style or some report in a more expository style. To provide students with

sufficient instruction within a limited course period of ESL, a clearly focused writing pattern is needed and/or clarifying a pattern for each writing task. For ESL students who aim to join regular university courses, expository writing for an academic purpose should be the type of writing learned. Focusing on expository writing patterns would be more useful and effective.

Another implication would be that instruction for ESL students who have a certain linguistic proficiency to compose text but do not yet know English rhetorical patterns should be first focused on teaching the form of writing and its conventions. Also, students should be taught with the explicit explanation of the purpose and its pattern of writing. Since FPT pattern and Oriental traditional rhetorical pattern, KSTK, are similar, students tend to overlap these patterns if the differences are not explained explicitly. Therefore, it is important to teach the L2 rhetoric along with a distinctive example. This corresponds to Takano's claim "L2 rhetoric is learnable only if the learner is provided with explicit instruction on rhetorical strategies and becomes consciously aware of rhetorical differences between L1 and the target language" (1993, p. 71).

Detailed explanation with examples to teach Oriental ESL students English expository style would include: presenting the passages that manifest FPT, a basic pattern for English expository writing for an academic purpose, and Oriental KSTK pattern respectively. Then students could capture the concept more clearly and use part of their L1 literacy skill to learn L2 literacy.

In teaching English exposition to Oriental ESL students there are two important issues in detailed instruction. One is the topic statement and the deductive topic development. The results of the study indicated

that the appearance of the topic statement at the first sentence of each paragraph improved the quality of the text. Since the Oriental rhetorical pattern, KSTK, often develops the topic in quasi-inductive style, to teach students the deductive style of topic development is important. Secondly teaching the differences in topic development between FPT and KSTK is important. Since KSTK has *ten* type of paragraph-topic shift which is not appropriate for English expository convention, it is important to teach students FPT pattern of topic development in a whole scheme. Both of these issues, the deductive topic development and the FPT style paragraph development require explicit explanation such as using sample passages that show the way topic develops in text.

In the case of the subject, the ESL instructor provided the printed material that shows FPT pattern and its topic structure. This printed material (see Table 10 in section 4. 4. 2.), however, did not seem to help the subject ESL student very efficiently . If this material was used with model passages which include model with all the criteria of FPT pattern present and some with missing features, the structure of FPT might be more clearly understood by the student.

Another issue is the use of personal mode. The frequency of personal mode found in some passages in this study was inappropriate in expository writing and should be changed to a more impersonal voice. This could be altered by teaching the notion of genre, the appropriate rhetorical pattern for a certain purpose. Cope and Kalantzis (1993) suggest the importance of knowing culturally appropriate conventions of writing. Since "genres are learnt by some form of copying" (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993, p.67), using prototypes to learn certain conventions would be useful. This genre approach for teaching the rhetorical level

features seems important for ESL students to acquire more appropriate expository writing styles. Explicit guidance in writing should "meet the expectations of the academic audience in terms of content, of form, and of language" (Reid, 1989, p. 232). The different model passages would be used to teach the genre appropriate to academic writing. For Oriental ESL students, the features to start with may be the impersonal mode and the use of cohesive markers that suit writing for an academic purpose.

A plan for a series of lessons for teaching Oriental ESL students will be presented in the following section.

5. 3. Teaching Implication in Practice

The following lessons are designed for Oriental ESL students who have higher than the Grade 11 level of first language literacy. The aim of the lessons is to learn North American expository writing conventions for an academic purpose.

Lesson 1: Show students sample passages to clarify the difference between FPT and KSTK patterns

Teacher provides a few example passages for students to understand FPT and KSTK difference more clearly. The examples should contain similar contents. This way would help students to understand the rhetorical difference more clearly. The example passages would be something like the following:

Table 13. Model Passages to Teach Expository Writing

Passage 1	Passage 2	Passage 3
<p>One day on my way home by bicycle an earthquake happened. At first I thought I was dizzy because I lost control of the bicycle. It did not take long before I realized that it was an earthquake. First I noticed a loud roaring noise. Then suddenly houses and buildings started to shake apart. Everything was collapsing around me. I felt very scared but I could not move. It must have been only a couple of minutes but it felt like forever.</p> <p>When the shaking had almost ceased, I quickly started back home to see if my family were all right. As I passed by familiar places, I felt even more afraid because I could see how serious the earthquake was. Many of the houses were totally squashed.</p> <p>When I got home, my mother and a five year old brother were all right but many things were broken. Window glass, dishes, and anything fragile was broken. However we did not have time to cry about how much damage we had suffered. We needed to grab a few necessities and escape because we could hear people shouting "fire!"</p> <p>As we came out we could see the houses a few blocks away had caught fire already. Some people were searching for water to fight the fire. Most waited for the fire engine to come. We could hear a siren somewhere far off. The fire was getting worse and worse. The narrow streets were clogged by the collapsed houses and damaged cars so that rescue vehicles could not function. We could do nothing but watch the fire and hope it would not spread to our house.</p>	<p>Before a ground shaking earthquake happens, there is first a gradual build up of pressure on the rocks under the surface of the earth for many years. The last big earthquake in this area was about 160 years ago so it can take a long time. Then as the pressure builds up the rocks are twisted by the force until finally the rocks suddenly snap. The rupture involves the sudden movement of the crust around the break. This release of energy is what shakes the ground for miles around.</p> <p>The people at the site of an earthquake first notice that the ground starts shaking with incredible violence. Then there is a deafening roaring noise. This is caused by the first pulse of energy in the form of P-waves. The P-waves travel the fastest (25,000 kph) in rock and more slowly in soft sand or mud. They travel like sound waves with a push-pull movement through the crust. These waves often result in the huge noise of an earthquake.</p> <p>A short time after the start of the earthquake the S-waves arrive. They travel at half the speed and distort the rocks in a more complicated way like waving a rope quickly from side to side. This energy usually causes even stronger shaking. The waves of energy are deflected by features in the crust and on the surface. Sometimes the peak of one wave cancels out the trough of another and there is a brief calm. At other times, the moving energy coincides and there is a particularly violent shake. As the quaking continues, buildings are broken apart and crash to the ground. Finally, after the main shaking of the earthquake, there are often smaller and shorter after shocks. These may continue for many days.</p>	<p>An earthquake is the explosion of the angry ground. It is very difficult to predict and comes from deep under the surface.</p> <p>One kind of earthquake is caused by the gradual building up of stresses within the rocks under the surface of the earth. These forces are so great that "solid" rock gradually bends or stretches. This distortion of the rocks stores a lot of energy like a wound up spring. When the forces are finally greater than the strength of the rock, the rock will snap. This results in the sudden release of the stored energy. Waves of energy spread out from the break causing the Earth's surface to vibrate. The greater the energy of the vibration, the greater the disaster. As the quaking continues, buildings are broken apart and crash to the ground. Sometimes many small earthquakes reduces the possibility of a big earthquake. The energy would be released gradually with frequent earthquakes and the snapping movement of the earth would be less disastrous.</p> <p>This is very much like when people get angry. Usually there is some underlying cause for anger, while on the surface we try to be calm. However, if the stress becomes too great, the anger breaks out. As the anger spreads a lot of damage is caused. Relationships, belongings even people can be hurt from an eruption. So sometimes it is better to release anger gradually before bursting.</p> <p>If a violent explosion happens, it seems that we can do nothing about it. We just wait until the shaking stops then try to recover from the damage.</p>
narrative	overtly marked sequence, expository	ki-shoo-ten-ketsu traditional oriental pattern
274 words	294 words	277 words
22 sentences	20 sentences	22 sentences
7.0 Flesch grade equivalent	7.6 Flesch grade equivalent	8.1 Flesch grade equivalent

(model passages from the study of Anthony & Harama, 1996)

Passage 1 is written in narrative style, passage 2 is in expository style, and passage 3 is in KSTK style. Along with the material showing the structure of FPT (like the one on p. 70), the teacher could use such examples to let students guess which would be the best FPT expository style. Then, students could discuss what is wrong with other patterns. Two important points in this lesson are letting students recognize: 1) the difference between FPT and KSTK patterns, and 2) the difference between narratives and expositions.

Explicit examples are helpful for students in conceptualizing the differences in writing style more clearly. Explaining new concepts without detailed examples always has some risk of misleading students. For example, some ESL students are not familiar with the words, *narrative* or *expository*. Some might have not understood the FPT pattern as the teacher expects. Showing examples can reinforce students' understanding of the first lesson.

Lesson 2: Explaining the five-paragraph theme in more detail as differentiated from the pattern of ki-shoo-ten-ketsu

The teacher explains first the structure of FPT using the chart, which shows FPT and KSTK patterns (e.g. Table 1 in Chapter 2). It is important to check students' understanding of the differences between those patterns. This could be done by assigning students to write or simply asking them the similarities and differences of those two patterns. Here students can point out each feature of the patterns in an example like the ones in Table 13.

In this lesson the teacher needs to help students understand the following concepts: 1) FPT is a model of expository writing commonly used in North American school writing and this is different from KSTK; 2) although FPT and KSTK look similar in the form, the topic development is different (use the material like Table 1 to explain this); 3) in FPT writing ten type of topic shift is not appropriate; 4) all of three middle paragraphs should support the main theme; 5) expository writing should not contain the personal mode; 6) essay writing is an extended version of FPT, and therefore is expository writing.

Lesson 3: Show more specific example passages to clarify the pattern of FPT

The teacher provides a few more sample passages written in expository style to let students compare the well-formedness of FPT pattern. The following three passages are the examples of expository writing in different forms (passage 2 is the one used in Lesson 1 for the example of FPT).

Table 11. Model Passages to Teach Well-Formedness of FPT Pattern

Passage 2	Passage 4	Passage 5
<p>Before a ground shaking earthquake happens, there is first a gradual build up of pressure on the rocks under the surface of the earth for many years. The last big earthquake in this area was about 160 years ago so it can take a long time. Then as the pressure builds up the rocks are twisted by the force until finally the rocks suddenly snap. The rupture involves the sudden movement of the crust around the break. This release of energy is what shakes the ground for miles around.</p> <p>The people at the site of an earthquake first notice that the ground starts shaking with incredible violence. Then there is a deafening roaring noise. This is caused by the first pulse of energy in the form of P-waves. The P-waves travel the fastest (25,000 kph) in rock and more slowly in soft sand or mud. They travel like sound waves with a push-pull movement through the crust. These waves often result in the huge noise of an earthquake.</p> <p>A short time after the start of the earthquake the S-waves arrive. They travel at half the speed and distort the rocks in a more complicated way like waving a rope quickly from side to side. This energy usually causes even stronger shaking. The waves of energy are deflected by features in the crust and on the surface. Sometimes the peak of one wave cancels out the trough of another and there is a brief calm. At other times, the moving energy coincides and there is a particularly violent shake. As the quaking continues, buildings are broken apart and crash to the ground. Finally, after the main shaking of the earthquake, there are often smaller and shorter after shocks. These may continue for many days.</p>	<p>An earthquake is most simply defined as a shaking of the ground. This is a very common occurrence. Up to 800,000 earthquakes occur each year. One time my father was in an earthquake but it was only small. Most earthquakes are not even noticed. A few are powerful enough to destroy buildings and cause many deaths.</p> <p>Seismology is a special discipline that studies the movement of the rocks that make up the Earth. Earthquakes are measured by a seismograph. The oldest known seismograph was invented by a Chinese scientist Chang Heng in the second century. Seismologists study earthquakes and how their shock waves travel through the earth. By examining the global pattern of waves produced by an earthquake, seismologists try to understand the Earth's internal structure. This is how we know that the center of the Earth is molten rock.</p> <p>The Richter scale is used to compare the strength of earthquakes. The Richter scale is based on the measurement of seismic waves. The magnitude of an earthquake is the calculation of the total amount of energy released at the epicenter. Each point on the Richter scale represents a tenfold increase in energy over the previous point. An earthquake with a magnitude of 7 is 10 times bigger than a magnitude 6 quake and 100 times bigger than a magnitude 5 earthquake. A magnitude 3 earthquake is barely felt, a magnitude 5 quake does minor damage, while a magnitude 6 quake will likely result in widespread destruction.</p> <p>Most earthquakes last only a short time. The longest recorded earthquake was the Alaska earthquake in 1970. This earthquake lasted more than 4 minutes.</p>	<p>It is very difficult to predict when and where an earthquake will happen. Seismologists who study earthquakes have been trying to find a way. Meanwhile, an earthquake is one of the disasters that makes us realize the power of nature.</p> <p>There are two main causes of earthquakes. One kind of earthquake is caused by the gradual building up of stresses within rocks under the surface of the Earth. These forces are so great that "solid" rock gradually bends or stretches. This distortion of the rocks stores a lot of energy like a wound up spring. When the forces pressing on the rock finally are greater than the strength of the rock, the rock will snap. This results in the sudden release of the stored energy. Waves of energy spread out from the place where the rocks broke causing the Earth's surface to vibrate. It is this vibration of the Earth's surface that results in the damage of earthquakes.</p> <p>Most common type of earthquake happens along cracks in the Earth's crust called faults. There are many faults which separate the crust into several large sections. Each of these is constantly moving very slowly. For example, North America and Japan are moving apart about as fast as your fingernails grow. The plates are moving in different directions so there are different forces on the rocks on either side of the fault. These forces cause the rocks to gradually move by one another along the fault. The rocks do not slide smoothly but rather alternately stick and slide. Sometimes this sudden slip is very small and the resulting movement is not noticed. But when the displacement is large and sudden, an earthquake results. In the San Francisco earthquake of 1906 the displacement was up to 21 feet (7 meters) in places.</p>
overtly marked sequence	stack of information with no explicit cohesive markers	oblique introduction + cause-effect
294 words	252 words	268 words
20 sentences	19 sentences	19 sentences
7.6 Flesch grade equivalent	8.5 Flesch grade equivalent	7.6 Flesch grade equivalent

(model passages from the study of Anthony & Harama, 1996)

By using some example passages, students can be more conscious with the better FPT pattern. For example, the above sample passages are all written in expository style but are different in organizational quality. While Passage 2 is written in a better form of expository style, the other two passages have some negative features such as unorganized topic development or an odd introduction. Presenting explicit examples like these helps students to conceptualize the topic development of FPT.

Then, listing criteria of good expository writing as referring to the issues learned in the first three lessons would be a good reinforcement at this point.

Lesson 4: Assignment: students to write FPT pattern exposition
Let students write an exposition in FPT pattern as a reminder of the points mentioned in the first three lessons.

Lesson 5: Evaluate assigned exposition
Let students evaluate each other's writing as to remind them of the criteria of FPT expository writing.

Lesson 6: Teach longer expository essay writing using topical structure analysis
Bring one essay and let all the students read it. Teach students the topical structure analysis and together make a coherence diagram using the model essay. Then, let students analyze topical structure and make

coherence diagrams using another example essay. After students have made a coherence diagram, check their perception of essay writing.

Lesson 7: Assignment: students write an essay

The teacher needs to remind students to follow the conventions of expository writing for an academic purpose such as 1) structure of FPT by using printed material such as Table 10; 2) criteria from essay models; 3) self check the criteria by making a coherence diagram.

Lesson 8: Assignment: students to examine their own essays

The purpose of this lesson is to let students be sensitive to their style of writing and the expectations of expository writing. First, students can try analyzing the topic development of their own essays and make coherence diagrams. Then, let students revise the topic development of their own essays.

Lesson 9: Teach the impersonal mode and the effective use of cohesive markers

This lesson is an extensive lesson in revising texts. First teach students the features of impersonal mode by using model sentences such as:

1-a) When I was teaching in Japan, I always had too much curriculum to cover in a limited course period.

1-b) The curriculum that needed to be covered in Japan was always overloaded for a limited course period.

Then, let students revise the sentences that contain the personal mode to the impersonal.

Lesson 10: Teach the effective use of cohesive markers

This is another extensive lesson in revising texts. First, provide students with a list of cohesive markers that could fit the FPT pattern for organizing a text in a specific type, such as sequential, cause/effect, problem/solution, comparison, or collection of description (cf. Carrell, 1985). Using model sentences to teach students how the clarity of text can be changed by using cohesive markers. Students practice the effective use of cohesive markers by editing the model sentence first all together with a instructor, then by themselves.

Lesson 11: Feedback to students' texts

Check students' first and final drafts and give them feedback on how well the texts have been revised or which features still need to be revised. This could be done as a personal feedback comment or class discussion.

5. 4 Further Study Implications

All the analyses of ESL writing in this study were done through the eyes of native Japanese speaker in order to detect Japanese rhetorical influence in the subject student's writing pattern. One complicating factor is that the unconventional features which are referred to arise from published descriptions of such features. Further research could be done by having native English speakers try to identify the expository features found in this study and judge to what degree they are unconventional.

Although they are described as unconventional or violating the expectaion of native speakers by Hinds (1982), Kaplan (1966), Takano

(1993) in the published literature, it remains to be seen how native speakers react to these features. Further research questions involve how unconventional are Oriental ESL features to native speakers of English. Some of these unconventional features could appear even in texts written by native speakers of English. For example, a pilot study showed a low level of familiarity with formal academic writing even among native speakers of English. In Anthony and Harama's study (1996), 50 % of native English speakers (including one teacher) chose the text written in narrative style as a good expository essay. In addition, there was no consistency in the identification of the best expository passage. These results indicate confusion about the expository features of writing amongst native speakers. Further research may be required to examine the criteria which native speakers of English use for identifying good expository writing.

Further research could apply the method of analysis of this study to other Oriental ESL students' text to examine whether the ESL features found in this study would be commonly found in other Japanese and Oriental ESL students' texts. Also, examining ESL writing development along with explicit instruction of rhetorical convention would show the effect of instruction on the developmental process. These results could then be compared to writing from Oriental students who have not been taught rhetorical structures.

As an extensive study, comparing texts written by international ESL students and EFL students in Japan, and comparing texts written by Japanese and other Oriental ESL students, would be interesting because the features of their English writing could be different due to schooling or cultural backgrounds.

The rhetorical level of improvement during the revision process influenced some linguistic features. Although the cohesive ties did not change in frequency, the rhetorical change naturally influenced some qualitative change, such as phrasing, at the linguistic level. This study categorized such changes in the phrase as a part of the changes at the rhetorical level, since they were influenced by this level of the change. Also those types of change in the use of words and phrases were not dealt with in this study, since the analysis of this study was done through the eye of a native Japanese speaker. To make a closer judgment of the qualitative change, further research by native English speakers would be required.

5. 5 Conclusion

The major result of this study indicated that the importance of the rhetorical level of text in ESL text development than. This does not deny that the linguistic level of proficiency is basic in order to compose a text. The grammar mistakes which were not dealt with in this study are often the most obvious problematic factor in ESL writings. This is not to be neglected; however, the linguistic problems of ESL writing such as grammatical and syntactical mistakes are expected to improve along with the overall improvement of a writer's proficiency. Moreover, linguistic problems are relatively easily detected by any native speaker.

However, it is the rhetorical level of proficiency which overlays the level of linguistic skill that most influenced ESL writings. ESL problems at the rhetorical level are more difficult to identify. For example, the

teacher comments examined in this study never made direct reference to unconventional rhetorical features. Rather, they referred to features of text as disorganized or unclear. In order to identify this type of writing problem, knowing the characteristics of the writer's first language rhetorical pattern as well as English rhetorical patterns is required. However, it may be not so easy to be familiarized with all types of ESL students' first language rhetorical patterns. Instead, ESL educators could explain rhetorical conventions in English more explicitly in order to let ESL students be aware of the difference in rhetorical conventions between English and their first language. Without explicit instruction, the rhetorical conventions of English expository writing are very difficult for ESL students to learn.

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Appendix

Appendix 1:

"Friends" (the first draft)

Sep. 24th, 1993

I have a lot of friends in Japan, and I really miss them. I call people whom I can talk about myself "friend", so I have a lot of people I can talk to, but I do not have so many friends here. When I talk to my friends, I expect something which I can not get by myself from them. For example if I talk about my future, I want them to give me some advices or their opinions. Of course I give something to them back unconsciously. I do not mean those are just good things. Friends influence each other, because people have their own experiences which are all different. I have a lot of people like those in Japan---they are different sex, age, sense of values, but they are all Japanese. If I get multicultural friends, they will give me many things I have not met. It takes a while to be friends, but I want to have friends as many as I can.

Appendix 2:**"Friends" (the final draft)**

Friends are very important for my life. I have a lot of friends in Japan, and I really miss them. These are people to whom I can talk about myself; however here, I do not have so many friends.

I have not always defined friends in terms of shared ideas. When I was a student at elementary school, friends were people who played together. In junior high and high school sometimes friends were school rivals. When I entered my university, I made a lot of friends who had different hometowns, values, and sex. Until then I only had friends who had similar backgrounds because my school was a private girl's school. Most of these school friends are still my friends, and I also made other friends outside of school. After graduation we could not spend as much time together as we did when we were students, but we can talk freely as soon as we meet. Through these experiences I recognized that who supports as a friend of the people around me.

When I talk to my friends, I get something which I cannot get by myself from them. For example before I decided to come to Canada, I consulted many friends. Some of them agreed with my studying abroad, but others did not. They gave me some points as reasons why they did not agree, and I had never thought about the points before.

Friends influence each other because people have their own experiences which are all different. If I get multicultural friends, they will give me many things I have not yet encountered. It takes a while to be friends, but I want to have as many friends as I can.

Appendix 3:

"Math" (the first draft)

A few months ago, when I solved the rubic cube in a short period, some Canadian friends were so surprised, but one of them said she could understand because I was oriental. As she said I must have an oriental brain for being good at solving the puzzle. It was not by an accident to solve the puzzle, but I don't think I have a special ability.

North American elementary and high-school students routinely score lower than students from industrialized nations on mathematics achievement tests. According to the research (Stevenson, Chen and Lee, 1993, p.53), many people in North America think that the most important factor which the achievement was influenced by, is innate intelligence. There are also many other factors; including students' attitude, teachers' technique, curriculum and culture.

One of the big difference from my experience is owning textbook. The Japanese government give us all textbooks free while we are in compulsory school, and after junior high-school parents pay for them. Here schools own textbooks, and students borrow them according to their needs, and teachers let students keep them at schools. Owning textbook is very important because it is related to the side of students' volition. I remember I had made my mind to do my best every time when I had new textbooks. Students can't make notes, highlight and underline on the textbooks because they have to keep their textbooks clean. If the student wants to study at home for preparation or review, it's difficult to do without textbooks. In fact, last year while I was staying at a family, the grade 2 boy had never studied at home.

This means teachers don't give homework to students so much. I think doing homework has two important meanings - to establish the things which they leaned in the class, and to establish of good study habit. In mathematics field keeping practices is very important to build skills.

In Japan most of the students go to jukus - private cram schools - and spend a few hours after school and weekends. Although the students are required to special technique for entrance examination of higher level of school besides the school education, at least they have desire of learning because they cut down the time of playing with friends, watching TV and even sleeping.

According to the research 54% of parents in the United States think the teacher's quality influenced to the students' achievement much. Most of the students who don't like mathematics started to dislike it when they faced to difficulties. Because in mathematics field, to understand well is very important, teachers are required to have the technique of explaining material clearly to students' understanding.

The education to be a teacher is 4 years at university, and one teacher teaches every subjects at elementary school, and each subject is taught by special teacher at high-school. These systems are seen in many countries, so in this point the teachers in North America may not be less trained. In addition, the ratio of teacher and students is much lower than Japan, so it must be easier to teach here.

I can point two differences about teachers between here and Japan. Japanese teachers don't eager to let the students skill develop, but they eager to reduce the students whose ability are low because parents complain to teachers if their children can't make achievement. In Japan teacher is called "Holy Orders" and is not only one occupation. Teacher shouldn't work just in working time and needs to have an attitude of devotion. I sometimes read the teachers don't have enough time to prepare the class. I think this means in their working time. Besides teaching they have a lot of things to do including many kinds of meetings. They also need to improve their teaching skill. If they do everything which they want to do and should do, they will have to devote their free time - stay at school till evening or bring exams to their home to correct. Some teachers do, but others don't in everywhere.

When I was teaching, I was struggling how I can cover the curriculum. I always felt the class time was not sufficient to do all of the curriculum. Surely the curriculum of Japanese education is tough even though it is getting decreasing its contents. Because the length of Japanese school year is two months longer than North American's, and other subjects are emphasized as well as mathematics, so teachers can teach much less things each year, I guess. An Alberta government report (March 1992) found that children in Japan and other countries which have almost same length of the school year as Japan learn mathematics in greater depth and at an earlier age than children in Canada. For example equation is mentioned for the first time at grade 3 in Japan, but at grade 6 in Canada. At the stage grade 12 is finished, almost same contents are taught in both countries, but it is no doubt Japanese students establish firmer with repetition.

The thing which is worth of special mention in the curriculum is using calculator. Here in Canada students start to use calculator at grade 3 to help improve students' self-concept in mathematics. It is also said that calculator should be used as an everyday part of the curriculum. Using calculators is very useful to shorten time of calculation, but it cause falling of power of calculation, and they don't know the answer is wrong or not if students get wrong answer by unknowingly pressing wrong keys or mistakes in the process of operation. After getting use to use calculator, students tend to use it for every calculation even for the simple calculation which student can get answer with mental arithmetic much faster than with using calculator. I don't disagree with using calculator, but at least students should be able to judge the answers are right or not, and also know how to calculate without calculator.

Japanese farmers have gotten crops as they works for more than 2000 years, so they got the custom of working hard. This custom is not limited to the farmers, and strong social consciousness that work itself had an ethical value rose. Even before the modernization Japanese people were very enthusiastic about education. In addition to these historical reason, people are required to be highly educated to obtain work in modern Japanese society, so to study hard is a part of the Japanese national character. This is showed in the above-mentioned research - 72% of Japanese students and 93% of Japanese teacher think that studying hard is the most important factor to achieve in mathematics. In my experiences, to solve the problem repeatedly is the most important to build skills in mathematics. Many these different factors are caused by social and cultural values, so it would not work if North American education adopted the same system as other countries. Especially it is hard to change the students' attitude or their believes.

Many school in the United States have adopted the system of Kumon which is well known as a franchiser of cram schools in Japan, and students drill repetitively on work sheets in series of 19 levels. If they can find any advantage in the system, the day, which the students' attitude and believes are changed, might be coming, and they will success on mathematics achievement tests.

Appendix 4:

"Math" (the final draft)

December 3th, 1993

Advanced II

North American Mathematics Education

A few months ago, when I solved the rubic cube in a short period, some Canadian friends were very surprised, but one of them said she could understand because I was oriental and must have an oriental brain that is good at solving puzzles. It was not by an accident that I solved the puzzle, but I don't think I have a special ability.

Many North American people think that innate intelligence is the most important factor explaining why North American elementary and high-school students routinely score lower than students from other industrialized nations on mathematics achievement tests. However, there are also many other factors; including students' attitude, quality of teaching, curriculum and culture.

One of the important factors which makes students' attitude different, from my experience, is owning textbooks. The Japanese government gives us all free textbooks while we are in compulsory school, and after junior high-school parents pay for them. Here schools own textbooks, and students borrow them according to their needs, and teachers let students keep them at schools. Owning textbooks is very important because it is related to the side of students' volition. I remember I had decided to do my best every time I received new textbooks. Students can't make notes, highlight and underline in the textbooks because they have to keep their textbooks clean. If the student wants to study at home for preparation or review, it is difficult to do so without textbooks.

In fact, last year while I was staying with a family, the grade 2 boy had never studied at home. This means teachers don't give much homework to students. I think doing homework has two important meanings - to establish the things which they learned in the class, and to establish good study habits. In the field of mathematics, practice is very important to build skills.

In contrast to Canada, in Japan most of the students, even in elementary school, go to jukus - private cram schools - and spend a few hours after school and weekends. There the education of students is accelerated and they learn

special techniques for entrance examinations of a higher school. In doing so they develop strong habits even though they reduce the time of playing with friends, watching TV, and even sleeping.

Quality of teaching is another factor of achievement. According to the research (Stevenson, Chen and Lee, 1993, p.53), 54% of students in the United States think the quality of teaching influences the students' achievement more than other factors. Most of the students who don't like mathematics started to dislike it when they faced difficulties. Because in mathematics, understanding concepts well is very important, teachers are required to have the technique of explaining material clearly to students; students with good understanding are less likely to dislike the subject.

Similar systems of teacher education and teaching individual subjects are found in both countries: the education to be a teacher is 4 years at university, and one teacher teaches every subject at elementary school. In high school, each subject is taught by a special teacher. In addition, the ratio of teacher and students is much lower than Japan, so it should be easier to teach here.

I can point to two differences between teachers here and in Japan. First, Japanese teachers tend to be eager to reduce the number of the students whose abilities are lower, rather than to let faster learners skills develop. It is related to cultural value, but to take care of the former students is one of their responsibilities, and also parents complain to teachers if their children can't achieve. Second, in Japan, people think a teacher should have an attitude of devotion to his students. I sometimes read that Canadian teachers don't have enough time to prepare the class. I think this means in their regular working hours. This is a matter of course, as no teacher complains about that in Japan. Besides teaching they have many things to do including all kinds of meetings. They also need to improve their teaching skills. If they do everything which they want to do, and should do, they will have to devote their free time - stay at school till evening, or bring exams to their home to correct. Some teachers do, but others don't in both countries.

The amount of material covered in Canada is very different from that covered in Japan. While I was teaching, I was struggling to think how I could cover the curriculum. I always felt the class time was not sufficient to do all of the curriculum. Surely the curriculum of Japanese education is tough even though its contents is decreasing. I believe, because the length of Japanese school year is two months longer than North American's, and other subjects are

emphasized as well as mathematics, teachers can teach more less things each year. An Alberta government report, referred to in Maclean's (Laver, 1992), found that children in Japan and other countries which have almost same length of school year as Japan learn mathematics in greater depth and at an earlier age than children in Canada (p.70). For example, equations are mentioned for the first time at grade 3 in Japan, but at grade 6 in Canada. At the stage when grade 12 is finished, almost the same contents are taught in both countries, but Japanese students establish a better understanding because of more repetition.

Another factor worthy of special mention in the curriculum is the use calculators. Here in Canada students start to use calculators at grade 3 to explore number ideas and patterns, to have valuable concept-development experiences, to focus on problem-solving processes, and to investigate realistic applications (Billstein, Libeskind, Lott, p.37). It is also said that a calculator should be used as an everyday part of the curriculum. Using calculators is very useful to shorten the time of calculations, but it causes a losing of the power to calculate, and students don't know the answer is wrong or not if they get wrong answer by unknowingly pressing wrong keys or making mistakes in the process of operation. After getting used to using a calculator, students tend to use it for every calculation; even for the simple calculations for which a student can get an answer with mental arithmetic much faster than with using calculator. I don't disagree with using calculator, but at least students should be able to judge that the answers are right or not, and also know how to calculate without calculator.

For more than 2000 years, Japanese farmers have been rewarded for working harder and growing more crops, so they developed the custom of working hard. This custom is not limited to farmers, and there is a strong social consciousness that work itself has an ethical value among Japanese. In addition, even before modernization Japanese people were very enthusiastic about education. Besides these historical reasons, people are required to be highly educated to obtain work in modern Japanese society. Therefore, studying hard is a part of the Japanese national character. This is showed in the above-mentioned research - 72% of the Japanese students and 93% of the Japanese teachers think that studying hard is the most important factor on high achievement in mathematics. In contrast, only 27% of the American students and 26% of the American teachers think so. In my experiences, to solve problems repeatedly is the most important thing to build skills in mathematics.

Many schools in the United States have adopted the Kumon system, which is well known as a franchiser of cram schools in Japan in which students drill repetitively on work sheets in a series of 19 levels. Because many different factors between North American and Japanese education are caused by social and cultural values, it is difficult for North American to find any advantage in the system to improve their system and change those factors, but they should try to change while keeping their strong points - the individualities of students are thought much, and training the creative power and mathematical thinking are emphasized. If they can change those factors, they will have success on mathematics achievement tests.

Appendix 5:

"Two Stories"

Feb. 7, 1994

Comparison of the two short stories

It is easy to keep the relationship between mother and daughter good. They both are feminine gender, so they understand each other well. However, sometimes there are some problems between them. James Joyce's "The Boarding House" and Tillie Olsen's "I stand here ironing" are stories about the relationship between mother and daughter. Although there are many other similarities between these two stories, it is the differences that stand out. Both stories include single working mothers, teenage daughters, and hard times.

Both Joyce's Mrs. Mooney and Olsen's "momma" are single working mothers. In "The Boarding House," after Mrs. Mooney's father died, Mr. Mooney got drunk, and he was in debt, so Mrs. Mooney left him. She set up a boarding house, and she has been taking care of her daughter. She is decisive, and she controls her daughter and has responsibility. On the other hand, in "I here stand ironing", "momma" is vague, and she does not control her daughter and applies responsibility to her daughter. Her husband left her before her daughter was a year old. Now "momma" is working by ironing, but she has been often out of work.

There are nineteen-year old daughters in both these stories. Joyce's Polly, the daughter of Mrs. Mooney, is dependent and close to her mother, but Olsen's Emily, a daughter of 'momma', is independent, and she is not open with her mother. Polly is controlled by her mother, even her love. When Polly was a typist in a corn-factor's office, a disreputable sheriff's man used to come every other day to the office, so Mrs. Mooney had taken Polly home. Polly has a boy friend, Mr. Doran. Mrs. Mooney also controls their relationship. In contrast, Emily become independent when she was very little, because she spent many hours away from her mother. Even though she wanted to rely on her mother, her mother had to leave her alone and go to work.

Both stories have hard time situations in their backgrounds. "The Boarding House" was written in around 1915. In those days, Irish people had a very strict culture, so Mrs. Mooney is under pressure that she has to bring up the daughter well in the society. "I stand here ironing" was written in around

1935. "It was the pre-relief, pre-WPA world of the depression" (p. 438), so it was hard times for specially single mothers to get job and to make lives themselves. After 'momma' got a job, she also had to spent time letting her daughter be away from her.

These two stories have many things in common, but they include different women. Joyce's story is about a woman who refuses to be defeated, and Olsen's story is about a woman who accepts her situation and lets things happen.

Appendix 6:

"Gender"

October 28, 1994

Anthropology 111

Recently, the differences between men and women seems like getting decrease as women go into the society. For example, there are many women who work like men. However, there were always men and women in the long history of human, and it will not be changed for ever. These two kinds of human are completely different anatomically. Because of not only that difference, because of but also the consciousness they get while they grow up, they decide how they should behave.

There are some differences I notice when I observe the way how to play between both genders among pre-school children and among school age children. Although both age groups enjoy playing as groups, a big difference is found in the organization of the groups. Pre-school children tend to play in the mixed gender groups; there are boys and girls in one group. On the other hand, school age children tend to play in the same gender groups; one group is organized with only boys, and another group is organized with only girls. I analyze that this fact is caused by the consciousness of gender; pre-school children are not so conscious as school age children.

When do humans start being conscious of the difference of gender? Of course, when they are born, they can be noticed which gender they are, but they themselves are not conscious of that. On the other hand, their parents start defining whether their babies are boys or girls even before the babies are born. They prepare some names of each for both boys and girls, cloths, blanket, and so on. Somehow the colours of the blanket are always typical, blue for boys and pink for girls.

As soon as babies are born, they are brought up to behave in the way how they should be, depending on the gender. There is the way how the girls should eat, walk, talk, sit, and so on, and girls are fit into the way. There is the way for boys as well. Also, depending on the gender, everything, except milk, which parents give to children is different. Today there are distinguished diapers, for boys and for girls. Moreover, toys that are given to boys and toys that are given to

girls are different. Boys are given the dolls of "Power Ranger" or hockey sticks, but girls are given the dolls of "Barbie" or the small range for cooking.

After school age, children are getting more conscious of the gender. I am not sure, depending on the gender, how differently children are treated in the school in Canada, so I choose my experience as an example of that. In any cases, we are separated in two groups, boys and girls. When we stand in lines, we are made stand in two lines; one is boys' and the other one is girls'. For boys, the bags they bring to school are black- coloured, and for girls, they are red- coloured. There are so many other examples.

Through these experiences, humans became conscious that they are males or females strongly, and they behave differently depending on the gender. Therefore, pre-school children are less conscious of gender, so they play in the group mixed both gender, but school age children make groups with the children of same gender, who behave in the same way as they do.

Appendix 7:

"Two Poets"

April 13, 1995

English 112

A Piece of the Orient by Westerners

Although the time and the place of their births are different, two imagist poets, Ezra Pound and Fred Cogswell had similar experiences as poets. They both learned haiku, a Japanese style of three-line poetry of 17 syllables, and employ brief and suggestive images of Oriental literature. Because of this fact, there are some similarities between their poems in terms of diction, imagery, and sentence structure.

Pound and Cogswell use a same kind of diction in their poems. Their language is very simple, almost childlike. For example, in Pound's poem "Dance Figure", most words which he uses are basic and have one or two syllables. Similarly, in Cogswell's poem "FULL CIRCLE", his words are plain and have few syllables. The simplicity of the language offers the reader clear understanding of the poems.

The reader can also see a similarity in their imagery, which is sharp and vivid. In the poem, "The Tea Shop", Pound conveys the image of "the girl" in three different times suggested by past, present, and future tense. In "THE WATER AND THE ROCK", presenting the words such as "hard rock", "ego", "channel of the rock", "water", "flowing", and "calm", Cogswell gets across the image of Yang and Yin. In each case, the poet just draws a picture of his visual experience, and leaves the reader to interpret the meaning itself.

Pound's sentence structure is very simple like Cogswell's. It sometimes has incomplete sentences; he even omits verbs. For instance, he puts just two subjects modified with some words in two lines of his "In a Station of the Metro". While Cogswell's sentences are complete, there is no unnecessary word. In his "HAIKU", there are only two sentences with twelve words. Both poems are very short; however, because of the space for the reader to think about the image, they express more possible images successfully.

Pound's and Cogswell's poems are very close in some points; diction, imagery, and sentence structure. Ironically, there is another thing in common: their characteristics are not always welcome to Western literature. Nowadays,

people understand each other internationally in many ways, so I hope that these two poets will be recognized soon.

Appendix 8:

"Women's Rights"

October, 1995

Since women got rights to vote, their situation in society has changed rapidly. For example, more women work outside their home; the number of women who go to university has increased; and pregnancy and birthing are easier for many women. If these movements continue, women's situation will be even more changed in the future. At our 1995 Beijing Conference, for example, all the governments at this UN sponsored event agreed that there are three areas in which the lot of women must improve: economy, education, and health. Similarly, the forum in Our Times suggests that women should stand up as a feminist movement to change their lifestyle in these areas. The present situation of women, in fact, has changed, compared to the past situation in many countries in the world: both in industrialized countries and in the Third World. With this international agreement about economy, education, and health, moreover, the future situation of women will more changed.

First, women's economic status is improving. Even in the industrialized countries, women were completely dependent on their husbands in the old days. During World War II, however, many women worked in industry because the work force was diminished with men's absence. Since then, they have worked as paid workers, but they earn less than men on average; women are the low income population. The reasons why they are in that situation are that they work in female-dominated jobs, that many of them work part-time, and that their salaries are always less than men's. However, these conditions in the labour market will change with rising demands for women's equal rights in the future. Women will work in any kind of job, and there will be more full time workers. In addition, women's salaries will be same as men's. Therefore, women's economic status will become at least equal to men's status. At the moment, women's economic status is still low in the Third World. Most Third World women work in agriculture to grow crops, and they usually do not get paid. Yet, more women will work in industry through industrialization, and they will get some money for their work. The situations of women in industrialized countries and in the Third World are different, but they will both improve with economic reason.

Second, women's situation will raise with better education. Until the mid-twentieth century, there were few women who had an opportunity to attend post-secondary education in industrialized countries. However, it has changed: the number of women who participate in higher education is bigger than the number of men during the last decade. Yet, only a few of them are in the male-dominated fields. For example, the number of women in science and technology is very low. In addition, their attitude toward study is changing. Women used not to speak in the class discussion because they tended to avoid dominating the class. In contrast, they are now more active, and use challenging talking as a learning tool. Moreover, women's issues were often ignored, but now there are studies focuses on women. Education in the Third World also has raised women's situation: the rate of female illiteracy has been reduced. There are still many countries in which female illiteracy rate is high, but those countries will follow industrialized countries in this area. Therefore, women's situation will be higher because of education in anywhere.

Finally, women's situation will become freer in the future with improvement of medicine: they will have more contraceptive freedom. While some women succeed in their careers in society, others give up building their career for their marriage: especially when they give a birth. For instance, when women get pregnant and want to have the baby, they have to leave their job for a while. Even if they return to work, they will still be fettered to nursing the baby. However, women especially of the middle class, have recently used techniques, such as abortion and sterilization, although those are controversial, to keep their career. As more women become professional and medicine progresses, they will demand more of these technologies; they will be able to control their pregnancy and birthing. Women's situation in the Third World also has become freer due to improved health care. For example, public health and nutrition have been improved and epidemic diseases have been cared, so that the mortality rate has dramatically dropped. Because of that, they do not have to breed a lot of children because fewer children are needed to guarantee that they will survive. Thus women are becoming more free from pregnancy and birthing. At any part of the world, women's role is changing from a "baby producer" to an individual who constructs the society.

In conclusion, women's situation in society will change with some social changes such as economy, education and medicine. These three areas are closely related to each other and equally affect women's lives. Women are

different from men in many ways, so equality is not their only goal. More importantly, women should be treated equal to men, but as individuals. This goal will be realized in the near future.

Appendix 9:
Traveler
Data Analysis

type	traveler
1 REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals	25
I	11
me/my	2/3 = 5
we/our	4/1 = 5
she/he/his	4
4 CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive	4
and (noun+noun)	2
and (clause/verb)	2
4b adversative	
but	3
though	2
besides of	1
4c causal	
because	1
according to	1
4d temporal	
when	1
after	1
before	1
Total Word Count	188

Traveler	% per total words
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals	0.1329787
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive	0.0212765
4b adversative	0.0329248
4c causal	0.0106382
4d temporal	0.0159574
Total Word Count	188

Appendix 10:
Two Stories
Data Analysis

type	Two Stories	
1. REFERENCE:		
1a pronominals	40	
they/them/their/themselves		7
he/she/his/him/her		31
it		2
4. CONJUNCTION:		
4a additive	13	
and (noun+noun)		4
and (clause/verb)		9
4b adversative	8	
but/however	3/1	4
although		1
on the other hand		1
in contrast		1
even though		1
4c causal	6	
because		1
so		5
4d temporal	4	
when		1
after		2
before		1
Total Word Count	458	

Two Stories	% per total words
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals	0.0873362
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive	0.0283842
4b adversative	0.0174672
4c causal	0.0131004
4d temporal	0.0087336
Total Word Count	458

Appendix 11:
Gender
Data Analysis

type	Gender
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals they/their/themselves I/my we	29 $17/2/1 = 20$ $5/1 = 6$ 3
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive and (noun/adj) and (clause/verb) both for example moreover not only...but also	9 2 3 1 1 1 1
4b adversative however although but though on the other hand	8 1 1 3 1 2
4c causal because of so as therefore as soon as (depending on)	6 (10) 2 1 1 1 1 (4)
4d temporal after when	2 1 1
Total Word Count	554

Gender	% per total words
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals	0.0523465
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive	0.0162454
4b adversative	0.0144404
4c causal	0.0108303
4d temporal	0.0036101
Total Word Count	554

Appendix 12:
Two Poets
Data Analysis

type	Two Poets
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals they/their he/his I it	16 2/6 = 8 3/3 = 6 1 1
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive and (noun/adj) and (clause/verb) or both for example/for instance such as in each case	19 9 3 1 2 2 1 1
4b adversative however although while	3 1 1 1
4c causal because of so	3 2 1
4d temporal	--
Total Word Count	358

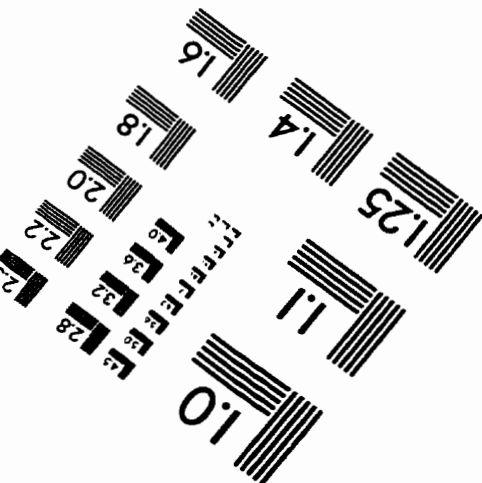
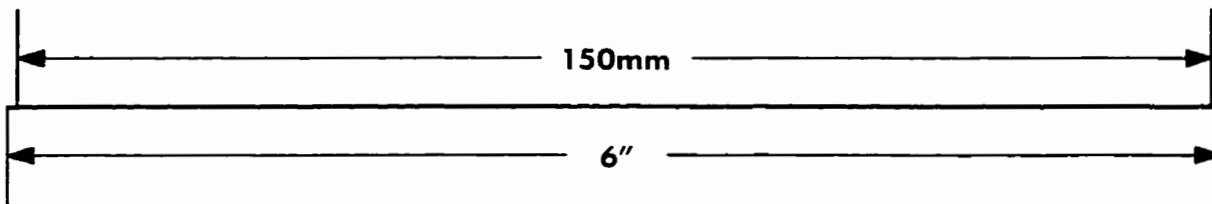
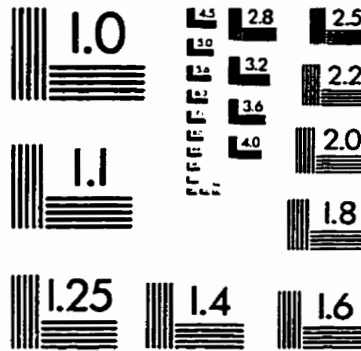
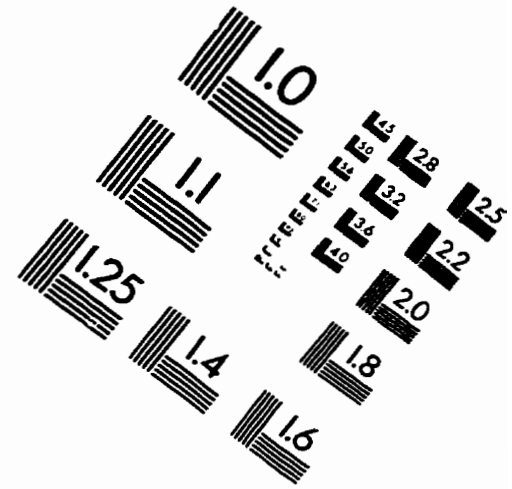
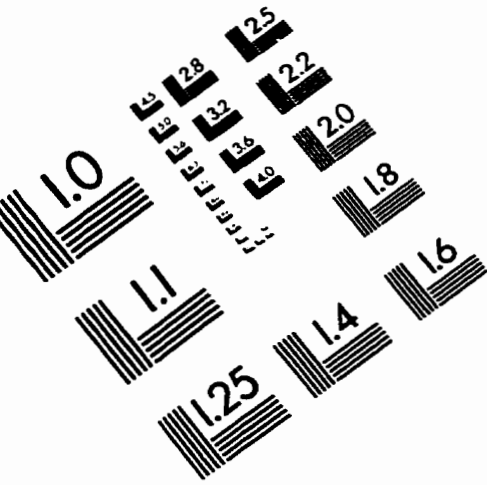
Two Poets	% per total words
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals	0.0446927
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive	0.0530726
4b adversative	0.0083798
4c causal	0.0083798
4d temporal	0.
Total Word Count	358

Appendix 13:
Women's Rights
Data Analysis

type	Two Poets
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals they/their/them	33 $18/13/2 = 33$
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive and (noun/adj) and (clause/verb) both for example/for instance moreover in addition similarly	23 4 8 1 $4/1 = 5$ 2 2 1
4b adversative however although yet but while in contrast	14 4 1 2 5 1 1
4c causal because/because of so so that since if/even if as therefore the reasons why compared to more importantly	19 $3/2 = 5$ 1 1 2 $1/1 = 2$ 3 2 1 1 1
4d temporal first second finally in conclusion	4 1 1 1 1
Total Word Count	846

Women's Right	% per total words
1. REFERENCE:	
1a pronominals	0.039007
4. CONJUNCTION:	
4a additive	0.0271867
4b adversative	0.0165484
4c causal	0.0224586
4d temporal	0.0047281
Total Word Count	846

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