2003

Effective writing instruction for English-as-a-foreign-language university students in Korea

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EFFECTIVE WRITING INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN-LANGUAGE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN KOREA

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

in

Education:

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

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by

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December 2003

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ABSTRACT

As one nation where English is taught as a foreign language, South Korea has invested a lot of money and time in English education. However, English proficiency on the part of many English learners is still low. Beginning with an analysis of current problems in English education in South Korea, this project is intended to suggest various ways to implement effective English education, especially for writing instruction.

This project, even though its focus is on how to effectively develop writing instruction for English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) university-level students, emphasizes communicative competence, because ultimate goal of language learning, even in writing, is to be able to communicate in various social interactions. In addition, a review of literature is included covering various components to be considered for effective EFL writing instruction.

This project is designed for students who have low English proficiency in South Korean colleges and universities. In order for them to experience enhanced academic achievement, a process approach in writing is encouraged in this project because the act of writing is

enormously complex. This project will help EFL students to construct their own sound writing process.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It feels like long journey for me; it has taken a long time to finish this project. However, the time and energy dedicated for the project is one of the most valuable experiences in my life. Regarding the project, I owe special thanks to several people.

First, I would like to give special acknowledgements Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, who is a real specialist in the field of crosscultural instruction. She has enlarged my knowledge of English. Her continuous advice and encouragement made it possible to complete the project. I would also like to thank Dr. Joseph Turpin. He gave me considerate understanding about the difficulties of international study.

I would like to send sincere appreciation to my parents who gave me the invaluable opportunities to expand my world. They have encouraged me through endless love and prayer.

My greatest appreciation goes to Mingyung Kim, my wife, who has continuously cheered me on throughout the study. I could not even imagine this project without her priceless consideration and sacrifice. I dedicate this project to my wife and our coming baby.

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INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

Introduction

English is the most common second language all over the world. As international trade has grown in the various domains of industry, the role of English as an international language has greatly increased. Furthermore, the importance of English has accelerated with the rapid worldwide spread of the Internet. The Internet enables communication, business, and research in many areas, and English is the major language of the Internet.

This trend has an effect on national education policy in many countries. The South Korean government has placed English learning and teaching high on its agenda to ensure that South Korea will play an active and important role in world political and economic activities. Rather than wait for speakers of other languages to learn Korean, the government wants its people prepared to communicate in English with those who do not speak their language (Li, 1998). To that effect, early in 1994 the government decided that English teaching would begin at a younger age

(Grade 3 in elementary schools) starting in 1997, and began to train prospective elementary English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teachers.

This is certain evidence of how important English is in South Korea. As one nation where English is taught as a foreign language, South Korea has invested a lot of money and time in English education. Almost all students in Korea learn English for nine to thirteen years during formal schooling. Despite the long periods of English education, however, most South Korean students have very little proficiency in English.

The Role of English in Korea

Language is a systematic means of communicating and exchanging one's feelings, ideas, and thoughts. As the Korean language serves that purpose in Korea, so does English among native-English speakers.

The purpose of studying English in Korea, however, has gone beyond the original function of language. In Korea, English is not a way for communicating with someone and conveying information, but is only a means of achieving success. Those who have better English proficiency enter the highest-level universities and attain better-respected occupations. Parents in South

Korea, therefore, have to spend a lot of money, time, and energy in order to improve their children's English, so Korea has clearly become one of the largest markets in the world for English education.

In order to meet the needs of the times, English has taken precedence over other subjects in the education policy of the South Korea Ministry of Education. Not only has English become compulsory in elementary schools, but also it is obligatory both to pass State Examinations which enable Korean to work in government service, and to get good grades on the Academic Aptitude Test which is used as the university entrance examination.

Regardless of their specific major, almost all students at colleges or universities in South Korea need to study English to get a job. A college or university student who is proficient in English has a better chance of getting a job in a prestigious company than a non-English speaker. This holds true even for those Korean students whose grades are superior.

The Problems in English Education in Korea

As do many Asian countries, South Korea uses traditional characteristics of English education, for example, grammar-translation methods and large classes.

Although most students have spent much money and time in learning English, many have found it difficult to achieve enough English proficiency to meet the needs of times by means of these curricula, especially in an English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) country. The following constraints hinder Korean English proficiency: misguided policies of the government, lack of English teaching methodology, and lack of students' motivation in learning English.

Misguided Policies of the Government. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), language teaching should start with a theory of language as communication, and the goal should be to develop learners' communicative competence. Larsen-Feedman (1986) also states that the best way to teach a language is that almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent. However, the government has stuck to the grammatical syllabus in English education, even recently. Under the traditional grammar translation methods with large class sizes, many Korean students have struggled to succeed in English study. Finally, this has made the government change its curriculum of English education.

Realizing that the grammatical syllabus does not help much to develop learners' competence, the government

decided to introduce communicative language teaching (CLT) into English teaching (Li, 1998). The new curricula, which are to guide Korean English teaching from 1995 to 2010, clearly state that CLT should replace the dominant audio-lingual method in middle schools and the grammar translation method in high schools in South Korea (Choi, Park, & Kim, 1990).

In the new curricula, the goal of English teaching is to develop the learners' communicative competence in English through meaningful drills and communicative activities, such as games, with the aid of audio-visual equipment (Development Committee, 1992). Students are to learn by means of authentic materials, such as newspapers, magazines, English news on radio, and English TV programs. The curricula reflect the belief that CLT is characterized by learner-centeredness, and teachers are encouraged to organize materials based on students' needs.

Accompanying the release of the new curricula was the publication of a series of the new textbooks (Li, 1998). Over 10 sets of English textbooks are now available to secondary school English teachers, who are free to choose any set provided that the whole school adopts it. The new textbooks incorporate a communicative perspective and more

listening and speaking materials and activities relative to the older ones (Li, 1998).

However, the shift in the government's policy is still challenge. The Korean teachers are quick to point out that it is difficult to incorporate the new curricula into English teaching. The difficulties, for example, are caused by teachers' deficiency in spoken English, lack of training in CLT, few opportunities for retraining in CLT, and little time and expertise for developing communicative materials (Li, 1998). The vicious cycle of English education in Korea will not be brought to an end until the Korean government essentially formulates its policies for English education.

Lack of English Teaching Methodology. The dominant English teaching methods in Korea are still based on the teaching of grammar, and are translation centered. According to Li (1998), because of their deficiency in sociolinguistic competence in English and fear of losing the respect of their students when they are unable to give prompt answers in class, teachers chose to stick to the traditional grammar-centered, text-centered, and teacher-centered methods so that they always have a good idea

about what is going to happen in every class and can make adequate preparations for it.

In fact, English teachers in Korea coerce their students to memorize grammar rules, regardless of whether the students understand these rules. It is impossible for a student who learns English in this way to attain comprehensible output, and incorporate the English they have just memorized into their everyday lives.

Although an increasing number of people in Korea have realized how important it is to be able to communicate in English rather than to know English grammar well, students in secondary schools still care much more about grammar. Because grammar still plays a decisive role in all English examinations in Korea, teachers who teach English in challenging ways are not liked as well as those who teach grammar. This results from the lack of up-to-date methodology in teaching English.

In addition, culture is the most important aspect of a nation's language. In this sense, teachers must be familiar with the culture of a target language in order to teach it effectively. The lack of cultural knowledge is one of the problems that Korean teachers need to overcome. If a number of culture-teaching methodologies are

introduced at English classrooms in Korea, teachers as well as students may learn the culture of native-English speakers. The challenge of introducing various kinds of methodologies is an urgent problem for teachers to solve in Korea.

Lack of Students' Motivation in Learning English. Learning English is one of the subjects which Korean students must study to be successful, but many give up in studying English. The most important reason in which they abandon studying English is a lack of interest and motivation. In order to recover the interest and motivation in studying English, students need to escape from traditional English studying methods.

As students have already been in school for at least six years by the time they enter middle school, they have become accustomed to the traditional classroom structure, in which they sit motionless, take notes while the teacher lectures, and speak only when they are spoken to. After so many years of schooling in traditional settings, students rely on the teacher to give them information directly, making it very difficult to get the students to participate in class activities (Li, 1998). This makes students become passive learners, and lose their interest.

It seems that there is a lot of types of English requirements in Korea, such as English for academic aptitude tests, English for transfer admissions, English for government officials, English for State Examinations, Test of English for International communication (TOEIC), Test of English as a Second Language (TOEFL), and so on. When English is considered as one language that has general rules, however, these kinds of English requirements might be all same. This is untrue. For example, if someone who prepared TOEIC wants to make preparation for TOEFL, he/she must begin his/her work again. Ironically, in Korea, students may attain high score on one test, but not another. This unexpected phenomenon happens because most of students in Korea study only the patterns of a certain exam in English, rather than the basic principles of English. This is evidence that most Korean students think of English not as a language with the basic rules, but as a requirement for success.

They also consider English as an objective to memorize, and not as a language, a means to communicate to one another. For them the preferred methodology is only to memorize the rules of grammar, vocabulary, and even

everyday conversation in English. However, this kind of memorization is not conducive to everyday communication. It does not insure an interest in the language, which is one of the best motivations for someone to learn something. Most Korean students lack the ability to apply knowledge to everyday life, because they memorize rules without complete comprehension. By introducing a variety of methodologies for studying English, the motivation for English learning might be aroused in Korean students who want to learn English. They can then apply what they have learned to everyday life.

Target Teaching Level

In South Korea, the level of students who want to learn English varies widely in age from preschool students to the aged. In these days, moreover, the trend of the early education in English results in the level of students being more varied than ever. My target teaching level will be college or university students who have especially low proficiency in English.

The number of colleges or universities in South Korea is as diverse as in the United States. In spite of studying English almost everyday, many students find it an unbearable burden, because English is one of the most

significant measures for their future. In order effectively to improve their English proficiency, English teaching and studying approaches need to be changed.

What to Teach

The most important philosophy I would like to introduce in classrooms is oriented toward communicative approaches in teaching English. As explained before, grammar- and translation-centered English teaching has given students false images of English, and made students lose their interest in English. Communicative language teaching can change students' false images of English, and encourage them to study it as a language, not a subject for test taking.

Especially, what I will teach to students in English is academic writing based on the writing process. Although all freshmen in colleges or universities have been studying English for at least six years, their writing proficiency is very low. By introducing the writing process in writing instruction, students will learn to generate text fluently, logically, and accurately, according to an academic writing curriculum. However, the writing instruction should not be outside the communicative approach in teaching English. Achieving

communicative competence is the primary goal to be achieved in studying English, even in writing.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of the project is to suggest various ways to implement effective EFL writing, and develop a model for effective EFL writing instruction. Various linguistic and sociocultural components for effective EFL writing instruction are described in order for students to generate text fluently, logically, and accurately. In addition, communicative competence is emphasized because the ultimate goal of language learning, even in writing, is to be able to communicate in various social interactions. In the project, communicative competence establishes a solid philosophy underlying effective EFL writing instruction.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters. Chapter One, Introduction, describes the background of the project and the problems in English education in South Korea. Chapter Two, Review of the Literature, explores five key concepts: communicative competence in writing, writing instruction for English learners, writing process, writing English for

academic purposes, and computer-mediated writing. Chapter Three, Theoretical Framework, integrates the five concepts described in Chapter Two and presents a model for effective writing instruction. Chapter Four, Curriculum Design, describes the contents of two instructional units created based on the theoretical framework in Chapter Three. Finally, Chapter Five, Assessment, presents the purposes and methods of assessment, and how students will be assessed in the lessons.

Significance of the Project

Many EFL students have struggled with how to expand their knowledge and performance on academic writing tasks. In response to this, both linguistic and sociocultural components are essential in order for students to expand their knowledge and performance in academic environments. Considering those components in depth, this project develops an effective writing instruction model for EFL students. This project will help EFL students attain the knowledge and performance required in academic environments and generate their writing fluently, logically, and accurately.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Communicative Competence in Writing

Language is a form of communication that occurs in social interaction (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Language is used for social purposes, such as persuading, commanding, negotiating, and developing interpersonal relationships. A competent language user is one who knows when, where, and how to use language appropriately. The ultimate goal of language learning is the ability to communicate in various social interactions. Much literature in foreign language education has emphasized the need to teach students how to communicate in the target language, especially in American English.

However, in the past, foreign language has been taught or learned as a system, not for communication purposes. Since Hymes (1972) introduced the term communicative competence, the teaching of languages has taken a new direction (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Widdowson (1978) pointed out that there is a significant paradigm shift toward an emphasis on language as communication in the field of foreign language teaching.

Communicative Competence

Since the introduction of the term communicative competence into language teaching, there have been numerous interpretations of its meaning (Savignon, 1997). Larsen-Freeman (1986) described communicative competence as being able to use the language appropriately in a given social context. Brown (1994) indicated that communicative competence is the aspect of language users' competence that enables them to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts. According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), the skill enables speakers to weave utterances together into conversations, apologies, requests, descriptions, sermons, scolding, or jokes, and to do the myriad things done with language when it is appropriate to do them.

In the 1970s, research on communicative competence distinguished between linguistic and communicative competence. According to Paulston (1974), the former is knowledge about language forms, and the latter is knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively. Canale and Swain (1980) conducted an extensive survey of communicative approaches

to language teaching. Their purpose was to develop a theoretical framework for subsequent curriculum design and evaluation in second language (L2) programs. In a later article, Canale (1983) noted that the framework was valuable because it brought together the various views of communicative competence and placed linguistic competence into a proper perspective within the larger construct of communicative competence.

The four major components of communicative competence that this framework identifies are as follows: grammatical competence, the knowledge of the elements and rules of the language code; sociolinguistic competence, the knowledge of rules by which language is produced and understood appropriately in different sociocultural contexts; discourse competence, the knowledge of the ways in which linguistic form and meaning combine to achieve unified and functional spoken and written texts; and strategic competence, the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that can be called into action when grammatical, sociolinguistic, or discourse rule systems have not been fully developed or are temporarily broken (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Grammatical Competence. Grammatical competence is "mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences" (Savignon, 1997, p. 41). This is often considered a central part of language learning, because it focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to speak and write correctly (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). This does not link to any single theory of grammar, nor does it assume the ability to make explicit the rules of usage. A person demonstrates grammatical competence by using a rule, not by stating a rule.

Sociolinguistic Competence. Sociolinguistic competence involves "knowing how to produce and understand language in different sociolinguistic contexts, taking into consideration such factors as the status of participants, the purposes of the interaction, and the norms or conventions of interaction" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 14). According to Savignon (1997), sociolinguistic competence is an interdisciplinary field of inquiry having to do with the social rules of language use. This competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of

the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgments be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance. The appropriateness of an utterance refers to both meaning and form (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Discourse Competence. Discourse competence is "concerned not with the interpretation of isolated sentences but with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context" (Savignon, 1997, p. 42). Discourse means everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts (Brown, 1994). Like sociolinguistic competence, this competence is the subject of interdisciplinary inquiry. The theory and analysis of discourse bring together many disciplines--for example, linguistics, literary criticism, psychology, sociology, philosophy, anthropology, and print and broadcast media (Savignon, 1997).

Pica (1988) believed that discourse competence is a difficult level to attain in the competence of using a language, because the meaning of a utterance or sentence

on the discourse level might not mean as it sounds or seems. According to Hatch and Long (1980), discourse competence intersects with grammatical and sociolinguistic competence to enable the language user to infer meaning and function from grammatical structures and lexical items which have less than obvious surface cues.

Strategic Competence. Strategic competence is "knowledge about how to support communication through paraphrase, emphasis, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style" (Savignon, 1997, p. 47). According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), strategic competence involves the manipulation of language in order to meet communicative goals. This enables a language user to employ verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication because of performance variables or insufficient language competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). In a later article, Canale (1983) noted that speakers employ this competence for two main reasons: to compensate for breakdowns in communication (as when a speaker forgets or does not know a term and is forced to

paraphrase or gesture to get the idea across), and to enhance the effectiveness of communication (as when a speaker raises or lowers the voice for effect). Yule and Tarone (1990) referred to strategic competence as "the ability to select an effective means of performing a communicative act that enables the listener/reader to identify the intended referent" (p. 181).

The analysis into these four components of communicative competence has resulted from research into how language is actually used in the classroom and community, and in speech and writing (Pica, 1988). According to Savignon (1997), communicative competence applies to both written and spoken language, as well as to many other symbol systems. Although much of the research in communicative competence has focused on oral skills and to a lesser extent on reading, communicative approaches to language teaching are certainly occurring in ESL writing classrooms (Reid, 1993).

Identity in Communicative Competence

Savignon (1997) noted that communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved. Communicative competence is a dynamic rather than a static concept. It

depends on the negotiation of meaning between two or more people who share to some degree the same symbol system. In this sense, then, communicative competence can be said to be an interpersonal rather than an intrapersonal function.

According to Halliday (1993), the interpersonal function includes the expression of identity. Based on ethnicity, gender, religion, race, occupation, and most significantly, culture, people have multiple identities that can emerge through and in an interaction. Because of this, communication competence is a dynamic phenomenon that changes with the identity which emerges in a particular situation.

In her study on writing and identity, Ivanič (1998) suggests three main components which construct people's social identity. First, social identity consists of people's set of values and beliefs about reality, and it affects the ideational meaning which they convey through language. Second, social identity consists of people's sense of their relative status in relation to others with whom they are communicating, and it affects the interpersonal meaning which they are conveying through language. The third component of social identity is

personal orientation to language use, which affects the way that people construct their messages.

All writers encounter literacy practices which belong to people with social identities different from theirs (Ivanič, 1998). Ivanič notes that "writing is an act of identity in which people align themselves with socioculturally shaped possibilities" (1998, p. 32). It means that writing is not an individual act of discovery and creation, but an act embedded in social context.

According to Ryan (2001), most foreign students often have a hard time understanding and appreciating the values of other cultures because they assume their own values and behaviors to be normal. Ryan suggests that by encouraging students to see themselves as others, students move beyond the self-assessment of normality. It makes students "begin to question the natural superiority of American culture, come to see the quirky and peculiar stereotypes of American culture (as seen by the rest of the world), learn to appreciate that the everyday practices of other cultures are at least as complex and diverse as our own, and gradually realize that their opinions of other cultures are based on very limited data" (Ryan, 2001, p. 192). It is important for

foreign students to be aware of the notion of other cultures in order to interact socioculturally with others who have different identity.

Communicative Competence in Writing

Writing is often introduced in the early stages of instruction not as a meaningful way of communicating ideas, but as a way of reinforcing what was taught in class. Writing instruction is generally left for the later stages of second language development. However, according to Mangelsdorf (1989), students should incorporate communicative competence in their writing as well as their speech. Writers need to do more than simply produce correct language forms.

Taylor (1981) noted that the emphasis in a writing program must be on communicating meaning. He suggested encouraging student-generated material in the early stages of writing instruction in order to draw on the students' originality and motivation. Similarly, Raimes (1987) offered techniques for allowing students to develop their own responses to material while at the same time selecting from a range of language forms.

In addition to communicative intent, the concept of communicative competence in writing includes appropriate

language use (Mangelsdorf, 1989). For example, just as students learn how to politely debate each other in an academic setting, they also need to learn how to argue their point in an academic paper. Achieving appropriate language use involves audience awareness, or moving from writer-based prose in which writers are mainly addressing themselves to reader-based prose in which writers have altered their text to adapt to the needs and expectations of readers. Reader-based prose creates a shared language and shared context between writer and reader, while writer-based prose often simply reveals the process of the writer's thinking (Flower, 1979). Zamel's (1983) case study of advanced ESL writers indicates the importance of audience awareness; she found that many of the skilled writers tried, while revising, to reread their papers from the point of view of a reader so that they could anticipate and meet their reader's responses and informational needs.

The importance of audience awareness during composing indicates that communication, whether oral or written, does not consist of a message being delivered, in a single coherent piece, to a receiver. Instead, communication is interactive; meaning is constructed,

predicted, and negotiated by communicators (Mangelsdorf, 1989).

According to Reid (1993), communicative competence in the writing classroom stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it: authentic audiences and purposes. In specific ways, communicative writing classes allow students to write about what they are reading, and speaking; this integration of skills gives students an authentic, shared context for writing (Purves & Purves, 1986). They also employ the use of student writing samples in textbooks, and peer review of essays that allow fellow students to read, evaluate, and learn from authentic responses to academic assignments. According to Reid (1993), the general goals of academic writing instruction that genuinely reflect the communicative approach in language learning are as follows: "to assist students in the generation of ideas and strategies for identifying the purpose of the instruction; to help students in developing strategies for the identification of audience expectations; and to provide materials and activities for the consequent preparation and polishing of students' written texts to meet academic expectations" (pp. 39-40).

Communicative competence is the ability of language learners to interact with others. The notion of developing communicative competence for the purpose of interacting with people from other cultures should be considered as one of the important factors for the achievement in ESL/EFL writing instruction.

Writing Instruction for English Learners

It has become increasingly important for English learners to gain adequate control of written English in order to achieve academically. Experts consider writing to be the most advanced language skill. Writing is not only a cognitive and linguistic activity, but also a social and cultural activity (Johnson & Roen, 1989). Learning to write is part of a process of enculturation into the social life of one's community, school, and workplace (Freedman, Dyson, Flower, & Chafe, 1987).

According to Ivanič & Camps (2001), writing involves the linguistic and cultural resources available to writers to define their relationship to the world they live in. Much recent research indicates that using and learning a second language (L2), including writing, is a social activity; it is shaped by, and in turn affects,

the social context of the classroom (Ellis, 1985). In other words, writing is more than a simple transmission of information or thought.

However, language has long been imagined as a complex of small, easily digestible bits of grammar, which students could master one at a time, adding each new bit to those already under control. Learning to write, then, consisted of practicing bits of language in sentence patterns, striving for grammatical perfection (Leki, 1992). Concerned not to overload students' capacity to learn these grammatical patterns, teachers had students focus on one part of the writing task at a time and prepared carefully guided composition activities in which, for example, students might manipulate a text by changing all singulars to plurals, or all male pronouns to female pronouns, and making all other necessary, related grammatical changes (Paulston & Dykstra, 1973).

However, students under these curricula tended to produce peculiar, non-English-sounding texts, even if they were able to do grammar-based guided compositions, and even if they did have a fairly good grasp of grammar (Leki, 1992). As a result of this shortcoming, there has

been a growing need to develop specific writing instruction tailored for academic purposes, and special purposes.

History of ESL Writing Instruction

During the first three decades of the field of teaching English as a Second Language (TESL), the audio-lingual method (ALM) prevailed (Reid, 1993). Only oral language was seen as the foundation for language success. Reading and writing were seen as tangential or support language skills. Until the early 1970s, writing in many English-as-a-second-language (ESL) classrooms was limited to the teaching of handwriting skills to students whose native language differed graphically from English, and filling in the blanks of grammar and reading comprehension exercises (Reid, 1993).

The lack of experience and knowledge about teaching composition among teachers and researchers has negatively affected the teaching of ESL writing. Until recently few ESL teachers received any particular training in teaching writing and even now few graduate ESL programs include separate courses in teaching writing (MacDonald & Hall, 1990). Teachers who know almost nothing about the theories and practices in the teaching of writing are

less likely to abandon more traditional views of teaching writing and more likely to resist the de-emphasis on grammar characteristic of process methodologies (Leki, 1992). In addition, even teachers who have abandoned strict adherence to the audio lingual method often continued to rely, in ESL writing classes, on sentence-level construction and on the teaching of grammatical sentence structures (Kroll, 1991).

Controlled Writing. In the 1970s, most ESL classes were focused on grammatical sentence structures that supported the grammar class and on controlled writing (Reid, 1993). The basic notions of controlled writing are that language is speech (from structural linguistics) and that learning is habit formation (from behaviorist psychology).

Although the philosophy of controlled writing grew directly out of the ALM, from this perspective, writing was regarded as a secondary concern, essentially as reinforcement for oral habits (Kroll, 1990). According to Rivers (1968), in the controlled writing model, writing functions as the handmaid of the other skills (listening, speaking, and reading), must not take precedence as a

major skill to be developed, and must be considered as a service activity rather than as an end in itself.

Free Writing. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, ESL writing teachers became more aware of a movement from strictly controlled writing to free writing or guided writing (Carpenter & Hunter, 1981). However, free writing was still limited to the writing of sentences to show mastery of sentence structures, often in direct answers to questions, the result of which looked like a short piece of controlled text, usually a paragraph (Reid, 1993).

Content-Based Writing. Many ESL writing textbooks of the early 1980s reflected a content-based approach to writing (Bliss, Burgmeier, Fulleright, Gilbert, Beufeld, & Richman, 1985). This approach was based on the practice of language components--a verb tense, the use of adjectives, a particular sentence structure--that links them to free writing classes (Reid, 1993).

Audio transcription and sentence-combining activities were generally used for content-based writing techniques. Audio transcription consists of the use of dicto-comps, in which the teacher dictates short passages; after listening to the prose several times, students

recreate the passage, partially or completely, as they remember it (Kroll, 1991). The concept of sentence-combining was based on the ideas that native-English readers of prose prefer a style that is full of subordination and free modifiers and writing sentences that are more syntactically complex encourages students to discover and demonstrate relationships between ideas (Reid, 1993). Advocates of sentence-combining activities believe that discrete instruction at the sentence level extends the cognitive strategies of students, improves the sophistication of their sentence structures, and eventually improves their compositions (Johnson, 1992).

The Pattern/Product Approach. Raimes (1985) proposed that ESL writing teachers needed a new model for language teaching, one that acknowledges the value of writing for generating language, and that sees writing not just as one of the language skills to be learned, or the last skill to be learned, but as an effective way for a learner to generate words, sentences, and chunks of discourse and to communicate them in a second language. In addition, the recognition of the needs of ESL students in the academic environment made ESL writing instruction

change from content-based writing to pattern-product approach.

This approach focuses on the concepts of the thesis statement and the topic sentence, paragraph unity, organizational strategies, and development of paragraphs by patterns or modes: process, comparison/contrast, cause-effect, classification/partition, definition, etc. According to Reid (1993), exercises to teach the logic of English organizational patterns included re-ordering deliberately scrambled paragraphs, identifying suitable topic sentences for specific paragraphs, and writing topic sentences for paragraphs from which the topic sentences had been removed. However, this approach, even though it took students beyond sentence-level writing, did not really focus on students' producing original text.

The Process Approach. The introduction of the process approach to ESL composition seems to have been motivated by dissatisfaction with the former writing pedagogies such as controlled writing, free writing, content-based writing, and pattern/product approach. For example, controlled writing was largely irrelevant to the goal of adequately fostering thoughts or expression, and pattern/product approach discouraged creative thinking

and writing. Zamel was among the first ESL researchers and teachers to begin stressing the value of what is now called the process approach writing in the classroom. Zamel (1976) recommended teaching process writing as she criticized sentence-combining because it ignored the enormous complexity of writing (prewriting, organizing, developing, proof-reading, revising, etc.).

Translated into the classroom context, the process approach called for providing a positive, encouraging, and collaborative workshop environment within which students, with ample time and minimal interference, can work through the processes of prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and sharing (Kroll, 1990). According to Kroll (1990), the teacher's role is to help students develop viable strategies for getting started (finding topics, generating ideas and information, focusing, and planning structure and procedure), for drafting (encouraging multiple drafts), for revising (adding, deleting, modifying, and rearranging idea); and for editing (attending to vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, and mechanics).

Certainly the process approach in ESL writing research and teaching has fulfilled the needs of some ESL

students and furthered the field of ESL composition (Zamel, 1991). As teachers incorporated process teaching into their classes, writing became freer as a result of student discovery activities, journal writing, and lowered anxiety levels (Reid, 1993). More extensive research on the process approach will be discussed later in this chapter.

The history of the ESL writing pedagogies has been briefly reviewed so far. However, there is no doubt that developments of instruction in ESL writing have been influenced by and, to a certain extent, are parallel to developments in the teaching of writing to native speakers of English.

Criticism of ESL Writing Instruction

In general, the progress of ESL composition theory and practice has followed native-English-speaker composition, but often as much as a decade or more later. Even as recently as the 1970s, writing, for many ESL writing teachers in intensive language programs, meant doing grammar exercises, answering reading comprehension questions, and writing dictation (Reid, 1993).

Writing was seen as one of a variety of techniques to add interest to a lesson, or as a testing device to

diagnose grammar or comprehension errors (Reid, 1993). The patterns taught to ESL students were the traditional ones taught to native-English-speaking freshman writers in academic institutions: that a paragraph consisted of a topic sentence, three supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence; and an essay consisted of an introductory paragraph with a thesis statement at the end of it, followed by three paragraphs of development, followed by a concluding paragraph (Leki, 1992). The unique context of ESL writing, however, has necessitated somewhat distinct perspectives, models, and practices (Kroll, 1990).

Effective Writing Instruction for ESL Students

As Chamot and O'Malley (1994) suggested, if students are to be academically successful, follow a curriculum, and learn content, they need instruction in language that requires them to use both receptive and productive language to think and reason. During the past decade, the field of ESL writing research has expanded significantly, in many cases paralleling studies of native-English-speaking writers (Reid, 1993). Accordingly, there have been various types of writing instruction developed for ESL students. The similarities in most of those types of

writing instruction have been the basic assumptions of how best to teach L2 writing.

Much of the theory underlying writing instruction focused on what language needs students will face in their other academic courses or as participants in the social and political life of their communities. According to Leki (2001), learning to write in an L2 is not considered to be an end in itself but, rather, learning to use a tool with a special capacity to link and integrate other language skills; to probe and consolidate budding disciplinary knowledge; to unite the L2 writers with other individuals and communities; and to facilitate access to different social, political, and intellectual worlds. Rather than teaching L2 writing in isolation, language skills such as reading, conversation, academic listening, and data gathering play significant roles in nearly all writing instruction (Leki, 2001).

As discussed in the beginning of this chapter, writing is not merely a simple transmission of information or thought. Writing instruction needs to feature not only cognitive and linguistic activities, but also social and cultural activities in order to help students' enculturation. Pennycook (1997) has suggested

that ESL teachers think of themselves not as writing and language teachers but as cultural workers, as people who know something about the world they live in beyond how to teach writing and language, and that they use that knowledge in their classes. In order to develop effective L2 writing instruction, it is important to understand students' social and cultural backgrounds, as well as cognitive and linguistic backgrounds. The analysis of writing process will help understand those backgrounds for effective writing instruction. More concentrated study on understanding of social and cultural backgrounds will be discussed later in this chapter.

The Writing Process

Writing is not a one-shot affair (Speck, 2000). Murray (1978) suggested that the act of writing is a complex process wherein writers use language as a tool to discover and clarify meaning in order to say exactly what they want. According to Zamel (1976), the act of writing is a process of enormous complexity including pre-writing, organizing, developing, proof-reading, revising, etc. In a later article (1982), Zamel suggested how writing can be taught as a process of discovery. Writing taught as a

process of discovery implies that revision becomes the main focus of the writing course. Taylor (1981) believed that writing is a creative discovery procedure characterized by the dynamic interplay of content and language. Central to this view of writing as a discovery procedure is revision, a skill all but ignored in the literature on composing and largely unexplored in most writing programs. According to Taylor (1981), writing as a discovery procedure relies heavily on the power of revision to clarify and refine that discovery.

The writing process approach represents a shift in focus from product to process. This shift to a focus on process is the most significant single transformation in the teaching of writing (Kroll, 1991). With the emphasis on the act of writing rather than on the result, the activity of students to edit and revise their writing creates situations in which language can be used in more meaningful ways (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Models of the Writing Process

The process approach to writing is based both on classical rhetoric and cognitive psychology. According to Tompkins (1990), cognitive theorists have provided crucial insights by describing the impact of thought and

language on writing. The emphasis in the writing process has shifted from analyzing students' finished products to investigating what students think and do as they write.

Researchers such as Britten (1970) and Emig (1971), who examined students' writing processes, generally divided the writing process into three subprocesses or stages. Britten (1970) labeled these as conception, incubation, and production. In the conceptual stage, writers choose topics and decide to write; in the incubation stage, they develop the topic by gathering information; and in the production stage they write, revise, and edit the composition.

Graves (1975) described a similar process using three different labels; prewriting, composing, and postwriting. In prewriting, writers choose topics and gather ideas for writing; in the composing stage, they write the composition; and in the postwriting stage, they share their writing. The single biggest drawback of these descriptions of the writing process is that they suggest a linear, lock-step progression through the three activities (Flower & Hayes, 1981).

Flower and Hayes (1981) developed a model of the writing process that described wiring as a complex

problem-solving process. Their model included three major elements: the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing process. The task environment is the assignment and the text the writer is writing. The writer's long-term memory is the knowledge of the topic, audience, and writing. The writing process involves three activities: planning, in which writers set goals to guide the writing; translating, in which writers put the plans into writing; and reviewing, in which writers evaluate and revise the writing. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), these three activities are not separated into linear stages because writers continually monitor their writing and move back and forth among the activities.

These researchers have confirmed the importance of the process approach to writing and the position that the examination of what writers do as they write is at least as important as the products they produce (Tompkins, 1990). The stages of writing process are described in a variety of ways depending on how detailed the description. However, generally speaking, the writing process includes prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and sharing. Here, it is important to restate that the writing process is recursive, rather than linear. In other words, writers

move back and forth through the stages as they develop, refine, and polish their compositions, and they participate in some activities such as revising and editing throughout the writing process (Hayes & Flower, 1980). The following sections examine each of these stages in depth.

Prewriting

Prewriting is the getting-ready-to-write stage. According to Tompkins (1990), prewriting has probably been the most neglected stage in the writing process; however, it is as important to writers as a warm-up is to athletes. Murray (1982) believes that 70% or more of writing time should be spent in prewriting.

Prewriting refers to any activities that get a student's brain to move on a writing task. Prewriting activities generate ideas and encourage the free flow of thoughts, which helps students discover both what they want to say and how to communicate it on paper. In other words, prewriting activities facilitate the planning for both the product and the process (D'Aoust, 1996).

Prewriting involves analyzing a writer's communication situation, such as "who is the audience?" "what is the purpose?" and "what kind of forms will be

used?" Especially, prewriting should include tentative attempts at organizing ideas based on preconceptions about how readers expect the document to be organized (Moxley, 1994).

Graves (1983) has labeled as "rehearsal" this activity which students engage in to gather and organize ideas for writing. Perhaps in response to Tompkins's opinion (1990) that prewriting has been neglected as a part of the writing process, much has been written recently on the prewriting stages. Prewriting activities take many forms, including brainstorming, clustering, looping, cubing, outlining, reading, interviewing, informal drama, and other content area experiences.

Brainstorming. Brainstorming is a prewriting activity in which a writer quickly writes down a list of ideas, images, or details that come to mind about a topic. According to Leki (1989), this technique is one of the most useful ways for writers to get started if, for some reason, their ideas dry up as they are prewriting. When brainstorming, such questions as who, what, when, where, why, and how are crucial, for they allow a writer to go beyond his/her own initial impressions and to uncover new material (Blum, Blinkman, Hoffman, & Peck, 1984).

Clustering. According to Carr (1986), clustering has been defined as a prewriting technique that enables the students to map out their thoughts on a particular topic or subject and then to choose which ones to use. Clustering is based on the premise that any effective writing effort moves from a whole--no matter how vague or tenuous--to the parts, then back to a more clearly delineated whole (Rico, 1996). Like brainstorming, clustering allows students to quickly record their ideas about a topic. Clustering, however, also permits students to show the connections among these ideas. For this reason, some people find that clustering results in a better map of their thinking (Blum et al., 1984).

Looping. Looping is especially useful when students have many ideas in their mind all at the same time. Looping can help students focus their thought on a subject, find the core or center of their thought, and pinpoint a main idea on which to elaborate (Leki, 1989). According to Spack (1984), in looping, students write nonstop without fear of errors or self-censorship on anything that comes to their mind on a particular topic. After free-writing for a while, a student reads what he/she has just written, looks for the main idea or core

toward which all the other ideas are turned, and summarizes that core idea in one sentence.

Cubing. Cubing involves looking at an idea form six different points of view, each representing one of the six sides of a cube: describing, comparing, analyzing, applying, and arguing for or against the idea (Leki, 1989). Students, through the cubing activity, will look quickly at their subject from these six angles so that students have several perspectives on the subject available to them, as they develop a composition.

Outlining. An outline is a structured method of exploring students' thoughts on a subject. Basically an outline helps students divide up a subject. Outlining can be a transition between inventing and writing a first draft. It is extremely helpful in dividing up the big task of writing a formal paper into the much more manageable task of writing small parts that will eventually make a unified and organized whole (Leki, 1989).

Reading. Reading and writing are symbiotic, mutually beneficial processes (Tompkins, 1990). According to Smith (1982), reading and writing are two skills that mirror each other, and they ought to be taught in such a way as

to complement each other. Reading what others have written can both acquaint a student with other people's ideas and stimulate him/her to think of new ideas of his/her own (Leki, 1989). Smith believes that silent reading or extensive reading is a useful tool for generating ideas for writing as well as a means of exposing the students to the vocabulary, idioms, conventions, and nuances of written language (1982).

Interviewing. In order to generate ideas for writing, students can interview people in the community who have special knowledge about the topic they will write about. In addition, this activity reduces the fear of writing and feeling of inadequacy students sometimes have. According to Johnson (1986), asking students to interview each other helps to establish a relaxed atmosphere for writing.

Informal Drama. Through informal drama, students discover and shape ideas that they will use in their writing (Wagner, 1983). According to Mills (1983), having students role-play an experience provides energy and purpose for writing. Often writing grows out of dramatic play and role-playing stories (Tompkins, 1990). Wagner (1983) advocates an approach in which teachers choose a

dramatic focus or a particular critical moment for students to reenact.

Drafting

Drafting is getting ideas down on paper in rough sentences and paragraphs (Tompkins, 1990). According to Law and Eckes (1990), this is a stage of exploration and articulation and can be the most difficult. The drafting stage is the time to pour out ideas which have tentatively been developed through prewriting activities, with little care about spelling, punctuation, and other mechanical errors. It is important in this stage not to emphasize correct spelling and neatness. In fact, when teachers point out mechanical errors during the drafting stage, they send a false message to students that mechanical correctness is more important than content (Sommers, 1982). Later, during revising and editing, students can clean up mechanical errors and put their composition into a neat, final form.

However, as students draft their compositions, they may need to consider and modify their earlier decisions about the audience, the purpose, and especially the form their writing will take (Tompkins, 1990). According to Reid (1988), the format for an essay for a first-year

composition class, an argumentative paper for a speech class, or a master's thesis, has the same general content: first, an introduction begins the text, one that appeals to the needs and interests of the audiences, gives background information about the topic, and has a strong, clear thesis statement that gives the main idea of the essay. Next, paragraphs within the body of the text have topic sentences that relate to the thesis statement and contain controlling ideas, as well as supporting sentences that explain, define, and/or illustrate controlling ideas through facts, examples, physical description, and/or personal experience. Finally, a conclusion summarizes the main ideas in the essay, emphasizes the important points, and offers prediction, solutions, or recommendations.

Revising

Although many aspects of the writing process have been targeted with respect to their importance in the overall task of writing, Beach (1992) points out that "learning to revise is essential for learning to improve one's writing" (p. vii). Revising is a re-viewing of writing in light of the feedback. It is a reworking of the composition on both semantic and lexical levels; the

writers are concerned not only with the words they have chosen to express their ideas, but also with how these words work together.

Revising is not a punishment for writing bad text (Leki, 1989), and is not just polishing writing; it is meeting the needs of readers through adding, substituting, deleting, and rearranging (Tompkins, 1990). Zamel (1983) reports very clear differences between skilled and less-skilled second language writers in revision behavior: skilled writers revise at all levels, from small points of form to important changes in context; whereas less skilled writers are mostly concerned with local problems from the very beginning, changing words and phrases but rarely making changes that affect meaning. Rather than viewing revising as a form of punishment or merely as an act of polishing ideas, good writers consider revising to be an opportunity to redevelop their thinking.

Revision actually can occur at any time during the writing process because of the recursive nature of the act of composing (D'Aoust, 1996). It means that writers go backward to discover what they said and move forward to elaborate on it. This impulse to revise could occur at any time. As Flower and Hayes (1981) believe, writing is

not simply a linear process, but a forward-moving action that exists by virtue of a backward-moving action. According to Perl (1980), writers not only go back to bits of discourse but also return to their notion of the topic as well as to the nonverbalized perceptions that surround the words.

Editing

Editing is putting the piece of writing into its final form. Before this stage, the focus has been primarily on the content of writing. Once the focus changes to mechanics, students refine their writing by correcting spelling and other mechanical errors. The goal here is to make the writing optimally readable (Smith, 1982). Writers who write for readers understand that if their compositions are not readable, they have written in vain because their ideas will never be read (Tompkins, 1990).

However, in any case, there is not much point in worrying about details of grammar and mechanical perfection until writers are satisfied with the larger components of a text (Leki, 1989). Once they are satisfied that a text effectively communicates the substance of their ideas in an emphatic way, successful

writers read sentence by sentence, word by word, and identify grammatical, mechanical, and format errors through editing (Moxley, 1994). This process includes capitalization, punctuation, spelling, sentence structure, usage, and formatting considerations specific to poems, scripts, letters, and other forms of writing. In keeping with the purpose of their works, writers conform to the standards of written English. The use of these commonly accepted conventions is a courtesy to those who will read the compositions (Pumpkins, 1990). Proofreading is one of the most widely used methods for editing.

Proofreading. Proofreading is a unique form of reading in which students read word-by-word and hunt for errors rather than for meaning (King, 1985). Concentrating on mechanics is difficult because of the natural inclination to read for meaning. According to Pumpkins (1990), even experienced proofreaders often find themselves reading for meaning and overlooking errors that do not inhibit meaning. It is important, therefore, to understand what proofreading is and to distinguish how it differs from regular reading. According to Reid (1988), the most important part of revision is the writer's reconsideration of the reader's view.

Sharing

In this final writing stage of writing process, sharing, students bring the composition to life by publishing their writing or sharing it in lots of different ways with appropriate readers or audience. According to Enright and McCloskey (1988), ways of sharing may vary: a play performed, a story bound into a book for circulation in the class library, a poem read aloud, an essay posted on a bulletin board, a video made of a student reading aloud, or a class newspaper circulated to the community.

Sharing writing is a social activity, and through sharing, students develop sensitivity to the audience and confidence in themselves as authors (Pumpkins, 1990). If the writing is published or publicly shared, students achieve the pride of authorship (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). When students share writing, Dyson (1985) advised that teachers consider the social interpretations--students' behavior, teacher's behavior, and interaction between students and the teacher--within the classroom context. Individual students may naturally interpret the sharing event differently. More than just providing the opportunity for students to share their writing, teachers

need to teach students how to respond and offer feedback to their classmates.

Writing Process in L1 and L2

In spite of huge amount of research on writing process in the field of ESL/EFL, very little research has been conducted on the relationship between writing in a first language (L1) and writing in ESL/EFL. Then, the arising question is whether the writing process is the same in ESL/EFL as in L1 writing, and whether writers use the same strategies when writing in ESL/EFL as they do in their L1.

In her case studies of six ESL students, Zamel employed direct observations and interviews to study their second language (L2) writing process. She maintained that "similar to L1 research findings on the characteristics of competent L1 writers, skilled L2 writers concentrated first on how to make meaning, second on how to order it, and finally how it can best be expressed; whereas the least skilled writer in her group edited throughout the writing process, focusing mainly on word choice, and made no major revisions in subsequent drafts" (1983, p. 180). In a similar study, Raimes (1985) analyzed eight unskilled ESL writers using audio-taped

think-aloud protocols and compared their writing process with those process discussed in L1 research studies. She found that although ESL participants were similar to their L1 counterparts in their overall lack of planning and in their preoccupation with sentence-level revisions, the ESL writers also exhibited some interesting differences compared to the L1 writers: they wrote more, showed a greater commitment to the writing task, and were less focused on error correction. Thus, whereas it appears that the composing process transfers--to a certain degree--from L1 to L2, the extent to which writers use similar strategies in L1 and L2 writing remains unclear.

Studying twenty eight Chinese-speaking ESL participants, Friedlander (1990) claimed that their compositions were of greater quality if they matched the language of planning to the topic; that is, if the students were writing about a Chinese event, their essays were better if they did their planning in Chinese and not in English and, conversely, if they were writing about an American topic, the quality of the essay improved if it was planned in English and not in Chinese. Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) compared the texts of 48 Japanese ESL

students using two writing approaches--composing directly in the L2, versus composing in the L1, and translating the text into the L2--and found that lower-level writers often benefited from translation in terms of the quality of the content, organization, and style. Higher-level students, however, tended to make more semantic errors when using the translation approach than lower-level students.

According to Thorson (2000), ESL/EFL research has suggested that, although certain process may be transferred from L1 to L2, writing in L2 is fundamentally different from writing in L1. In the case studies of two university students, Thorson (2000) proposed that, although students often transfer writing process from L1 to L2, the specific techniques that students use may vary in terms of language and genre. Students often employ different strategies when composing in a language in which they are not completely fluent, as well as in assignments that are more or less challenging. Therefore, writing instructors need to be aware of the complex process involved in ESL/EFL writing in order to help guide students in the appropriate pedagogical implications for ESL/EFL writing.

Writing English for Academic Purposes

At more or less the same time as the process approach to teaching writing was being explored by ESL teachers, another movement grew in second language classes: interest in English for Special Purposes (ESP), which is the general term for the courses designed according to a learner's needs and specific goals, or English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which is the general term for the courses developed to address the academic needs of both undergraduate and graduate ESL students. Proponents of an EAP orientation have been critical of the process approach to writing and have attempted to construct a new and distinct perspective on ESL composition (Silva, 1990).

One major part of this criticism is that the process approach does not adequately address some central issues in ESL/EFL writing. Reid (1984) suggested that the process approach neglects to seriously address variations in writing process due to differences in individuals, writing tasks, and situations; the development of schemata for academic discourse; level of language proficiency; level of cognitive development; and insights from the study of contrastive rhetoric.

Critics also question whether the process approach realistically prepares students for academic work. According to Horowitz (1986), the process approach creates a classroom situation that bears little resemblance to the situations in which students' writing tasks usually take place (particularly essay exams) and gives students a false impression of how university writing will be evaluated. In essence, Horowitz (1986) asserts that the process approach overemphasizes the individual's psychological functioning and neglects the sociocultural context, that is, the realities of academia; and, that, in fact, the process approach operates in a sociocultural vacuum.

According to Hansen (2001), the debate over EAP writing courses has generated a considerable amount of research. A topic of the debate among ESL teachers is the extent to which ESL composition courses should prepare students to become members of their field-specific discourse communities. For example, Johns (1997) proposed that ESL composition courses should prepare students to write for their academic fields, but other experts such as Leki and Carson (1997) expressed concern over non-discipline specialists teaching field-specific discourse.

Determining Academic Writing

Determining what academic writing is and what ESL students need to know in order to produce it has not been an easy task for researchers and teachers. According to Spack (1998), a number of L2 writing instructors have tried several different approaches, faithfully following textbook guidelines. Early ESL writing textbooks were largely workbooks that fostered controlled composition and that did not satisfy students' need to learn how to produce their own body of work for their other university courses.

In response to dissatisfaction of the early ESL writing textbooks, the ESL field has begun to publish textbooks that emphasize the cognitive process of writing (Spack, 1998). According to Raimes (1985), the cognitive process approach is based on the research of composition specialists who have drawn on the theories of cognitive psychologists and psycholinguists to explore the mental procedures writers use to communicate ideas. The thrust of these ESL textbooks is to teach students systematic thinking and writing skills so that they can use their own composing strategies effectively to explore ideas (Hartfiel, Hughey, Wormuth, & Jacobs, 1985). Although the

cognitive process approach is admired because of its emphasis on writing as a learning process and its development of useful, teachable skills, the writing produced in such courses has not been universally accepted as academic (Spack, 1998). Much of the writing is based solely on students' personal experiences or interests.

According to Bizzell (1982), to succeed in their university studies, students need critical training. Brizzell (1982) recommended "a social-contextual approach that demystifies the institutional structure of knowledge, and contends researchers and textbook writers need to focus on the conventions of academic discourse, emphasizing the relationship between discourse, community, and knowledge" (p. 205). When students are confronted with either academic or professional writing tasks that surface in relation to texts of various kinds or data, these tasks should be viewed as a means of promoting understanding of the content presented in subject-matter courses (Shih, 1986).

The Process of Academic Writing

Each writing task in academic communities takes place within the context of a process-centered approach,

with students employing appropriate inquiry strategies, planning, drafting, consulting, revising, and editing (Spack, 1998). An assigned paper is not a test of their abilities to follow prescribed rules of writing, but a chance to examine and organize, and then reexamine and reorganize, their thinking. According to Spack (1998), students can be trained to respond productively to each other's work-in-progress; thus, they can learn how collaboration among scholars evolves. These experiences in collaborative learning help students become socialized into the academic community (Maimon, 1983).

According to Herrington (1981), a writing task can be given in such a way that students understand from the beginning what the task requires and what its evaluative criteria will be. After they have done some informal writing, including invention techniques, students can be given a variety of suggestions on how to organize an academic paper that makes reference to another author's work (Spack, 1984). For example, they can be told what might belong at the beginning--a summary of the author's articles and an identification of the particular issue the student will respond to; what is appropriate for the middle--ideas and examples presented in logical order,

never wandering from the central issue and frequently referring back to the reading; and what might go at the end--a discussion of the implications of what has just been written (Spack, 1998).

The constraints of the form are meant to benefit, not hamper, the students' writing. According to Coe (1987), an understanding of the purpose of form--to enable writers to communicate accurately and effectively to readers--can empower students to understand, use, and even invent new forms for new purposes. According to Spack (1998), respect for form should be encouraged, but flexibility should be built into the course to encourage students to respect the composing process as well.

Writing English for Academic Purposes

Casanave (1995) argued that students should learn skills in EAP courses that can aid them in developing field-specific academic literacy. Belcher and Braine (1995), for example, saw EAP courses functioning as a means of academic discourse consciousness-raising wherein students can begin to be familiarized with the rules and conventions for writing in their own discourse communities; although students may not learn all the rules, they may be more familiar with the way rules are

constructed, which in the end makes learning the rules easier. Johns (1995) asserted that, at least at the graduate level, focused teaching on research writing and other genres becomes a necessity. And according to Frodesen (1995), EAP courses, rather than general writing courses, better serve the needs of ESL graduate students.

On the other hands, EAP opponents raise a number of concerns that cannot be ignored. One of the most cited concerns is the appropriateness of ESL teachers, teaching field-specific discourse (Hansen, 2000). According to Silva, Reichelt, and Lax-Farr (1994), it is important that ESL writing teachers have the requisite knowledge and experience to teach a useful course for an interdisciplinary student population in an EAP orientation.

In addition, it is also crucial what criteria are employed to evaluate students' writing. According to Hansen (2000), ESL faculty and content area faculty assess student writing differently. Content course faculties tend to place emphasis on content, whereas writing faculties typically emphasize linguistic and rhetorical forms. In addition, writing topics may differ,

and audience needs vary greatly between ESL and content courses (Leki & Carson, 1997).

Another concern some researchers and teachers raise is the appropriateness of assignments, especially in terms of audience (Hansen, 2000). Describing instructor and student concerns about EAP courses, Silva, Reichelt, and Lax-Farr (1994) stated that students have expressed particular frustration with audience concerns about the research proposal, because of the difficulty of explaining their very specialized research areas to outsiders. In fact, students have indicated that it is easier to write for a discipline-specific audience rather than a general audience because of the level of the reader in terms of the amount of shared information and because the writer can rely on field-specific shortcuts (Leki & Carson, 1997).

Other concerns raised by critics of EAP courses include the necessity of the academic writing requirement and valid placement testing (Hansen, 2000). Based on research on the effectiveness of ESL writing curricula for writing in content courses, Leki and Carson (1997) argued that the question of teaching disciplinary forms

is irrelevant; if the forms are needed, the disciplines appear to be teaching them.

It appears that learning to write in one's academic discourse community is complex, involving reading and writing processes specific to each class, professor, and student (Connor & Mayberry, 1996). However, it is necessary to understand how students perceive the value of EAP courses and whether EAP courses improve their writing in content courses. If students are expected to be informants and therefore in some sense experts of the conventions of their discourse communities when they themselves are novices in their fields, students may face a double burden in acquiring academic literacy as they are simultaneously learning the academic conventions of the ESL classroom (Hansen, 2000).

In brief, from an EAP orientation, writing is the production of prose that will be universally acceptable in any academic communities, and learning to write is part of becoming socialized to the academic communities. According to Silva (1990), the writer is pragmatic and oriented primarily toward academic success, and meeting standards and requirements. The reader is a seasoned member of the hosting academic community who has well-

developed schemata for academic discourse and clear and stable views of what is appropriate. The text is a more of less conventional response to a particular task type that falls into a recognizable genre. The context is, of course, the academic community and the typical tasks associated with it. Silva (1990) claimed that for the purpose of EAP writing courses, a primary focus should be on academic discourse genres and the range and nature of academic writing tasks, aimed at helping to socialize students into the academic context and thus ensure that student writing falls within the range of acceptable writing behaviors dictated by the academic community.

Computer-Mediated Writing

In this globally linked world, technological advances are exerting an influence on all parts of life, even education. Computer networks as a medium for communication have created opportunities for writing and learning that were never before possible (Peyton, 1999). As foreign language professionals continue to strive to find the most productive and advantageous means of using new technology in empirical research and pedagogical

approaches, more attention is being devoted to computer-assisted language learning (Semones, 2001).

Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) concerns the use of computers to assist in second language or foreign language instructional activities. Wyatt (1984) described the objective of CALL as "to help students improve their reading, writing, and communicative skill in English by enhancing teachers' ability to teach" (P. 128).

Levy (1990) claimed that CALL provides English teachers with a framework for teaching and learning with technology. According to Egbert, Chao, and Hanson-Smith (1999), the main purpose of CALL is to create an individualized interactive environment in which students can self-access a variety of learning conditions relevant to their needs and interests.

Advantages of Computer-Assisted Language Learning.

The most significant advantage from introducing CALL in the classrooms is interactivity. According to Simonson and Thompson (1990), CALL has strengths in that it provides immediate feedback; it focuses on individualization; it can keep records effectively; it is

motivating to students; and it emphasizes social interaction and problem solving with a real world. DeVillar and Faltis (1991) indicated that CALL facilitates social interaction, communication, and cooperation for English language learners. Wyatt (1984) also emphasized interactivity in the sense that computer programs respond differently and appropriately to the best answers, alternative correct answers, predicted wrong answers, and other wrong answers. Immediate and informative feedback can thus be provided, and students are generally kept continuously aware of the results of their use of language.

Second, CALL provides students the opportunity for working collaboratively in pairs or small groups. According to Dixon (1995), such pairings or groupings have been found to improve students' cognitive outcomes and benefit the psychosocial development of English language learners. Considering several important factors for language learning such as interaction, motivation, and collaboration, CALL is able to supply language learners with a variety of opportunities that help master a target language in an unlimited learning environment.

As Egbert, Chao, and Hanson-Smith (1999) mentioned, individualization is also in important advantage from CALL introduction. They indicated that the main purpose of CALL is to create an individualized interactive environment. According to Lewis and Doorlag (1991), CALL is used to focus on meaning and comprehension, foster active involvement, stimulate thinking, and reinforce or extend students' knowledge of text. They also note four effective classroom uses of CALL; it allows individualization of instruction, motivates students, supplies new types of learning and new ways of accomplishing old tasks, and helps special students bypass or compensate for disabilities.

Using Computers in Writing

Using computers in current ESL writing classes involves much more than word processing programs and language drills; software programs, which are often designed or adapted for use by ESL writers, prompt students to improve their composing and revision skills (Reid, 1993). In addition to the word-processing programs which once seemed so revolutionary, more sophisticated programs are available which check not only spelling and grammar, but also writing style; or programs which prompt

students for responses which the computer strings together into an essay (Rapp, 1991). Investigations into computers' effects on the writing process show similar advances in sophistication.

Advantages of Using Computers in Writing. According to Miller and Knowles (1997), the computer is an especially valuable writing tool because its technological functions encourage writers to vary, combine, and rethink the writing process to fit their goals and the time allotted for a specific writing situation. In addition, the computer makes it easier to think and write simultaneously, helps writers become better editors, and improves the appearance of finished writing. Writing with a word-processing program gives writers more time to focus on decisions about content and effective style because it allows writers to make quick changes while they write, and helps them revise and correct later.

Writing on a computer network is a type of communicative process that can be especially valuable for foreign-language learners. In a computer-mediated environment, writing resembles the give-and-take of conversation, because in the best situations it is

spontaneous and unplanned and requires the participation of the discourse community. Each writer anticipates and responds to another's reaction, so the process of writing builds on the action-reaction responses (Pennington, 1996). Semones (2001) believes that through this evolving communicative process, unskilled writers are pushed to achieve higher levels of writing as they learn from others, and skilled writers have the opportunity to exchange ideas and think critically about their writing before a teacher evaluates it.

One of the most important benefits of writing using computers is that it makes students aware that writing is a recursive process, allowing them to focus on each phase of the writing process (Semones, 2001). Anton and Dicamilla (1999) observed that peer interaction in a computer-mediated environment helps enlist students' interest in the task. When working together on the same assignment through computers, students hold one another accountable for their participation and their contribution to a given task.

Reid (1993) indicated that students react positively to CALL use; they find revision easier, they enjoy working with computers, and they believe that the use of

word processors, invention programs, and revision aids helps to improve their writing. According to Rapp (1991), authors frequently credit the computer with allowing them to write more in less time, and to focus on content rather than mechanics, or process rather than product. Countless writing instructors claimed that with computers, students revised more, produced more sophisticated papers, and actually thought writing was fun.

Limitations of Using Computers in Writing. However, in spite of these strengths, there have been some limitations to be solved in using computers in language learning, especially in writing. Chapelle and Jamieson (1986) cautioned that it is hard to support the effectiveness of CALL without looking at the other student variables that are important in second language acquisition. Although certain types of learners may be better suited for CALL than others, their research shows learners are more successful when the method of CALL which is employed in a particular learning activity matches students' cognitive style (Chapelle & Jamieson, 1986).

Studies of student use of learning strategies in CALL indicate that ESL writing students use specific

coping strategies in computer-assisted instruction, but that the strategies are in many ways inadequate (Chapelle & Mizuno, 1989). One solution to this problem, demonstrated by Brent (1991), is that teachers must not leave intervention solely to the computer programs; the teachers' role remains the most important part of the ESL computer-mediated writing class. The following sections will focus on both teachers' role in a computer-mediated writing class and considerations on selecting appropriate software for a computer-mediated writing class.

Teachers' Role in Computer-Mediated Writing Class

As many teachers and researchers have turned to computers and electronic materials to assist students' language learning, tools to enhance writing instruction have changed over the past few years. As technology tools change, techniques for teaching and learning writing in the classroom evolve. According to Castellani and Jeffs (2001), teachers are taking advantage of technological advances that can be implemented smoothly into the classroom. Currently, teachers are beginning to look at emerging technologies, such as the Internet, as viable tools for all areas of education including writing instruction.

Teachers as Collaborators. Teachers play a crucial role in computer-mediated writing classes, frequently speaking of themselves as collaborators within a group of learners, not primarily dispensers of knowledge (Hawisher & Pemberton, 1991). According to Semones (2001), the teacher's mission is to encourage student interaction throughout the writing process. Students need to be guided to use computer-mediated communication through creative collaborative activities that promote reading and writing in the foreign language. A recent study of collaborative activities promoting reading and writing in foreign-language study revealed that although students may be aware of the benefits of writing and collaborating with peers, they rarely initiate interaction without being instructed to do so (Scott & Semones, 2000).

In their foreign-language writing textbook, New and Scott (2000) suggested that if students receive explicit directions to collaborate on a computer network from the beginning of the writing process, they will experience greater success in all of the subsequent phases of the process. New and Scott (2000) recommended several ways that foreign-language instructors can promote writing in the classroom. One of their suggestions is that the

instructors encourage students to constantly develop and share their ideas with their peers. Similarly, working with peers should be part of the prewriting and editing phases of the writing process.

According to Semones (2001), in a student-centered classroom, the teacher is not the only audience for student writing. Student writers can and should serve as readers of their own and their classmates' work if they are carefully guided through the process. In fact, a review of students' conferences showed that the students provided one another useful expressions such as phrases for stating an opinion or closing a formal letter. They exchanged lists of vocabulary words, expressions, and ideas. In the exchange process, each student selected given information and then made a contribution of his or her own. From these lists, students then helped one another create a text, first constructing simple sentences and eventually an entire paragraph.

An analysis of a 1988 survey taken at the Conference in Writing and Language Instruction confirms that writing instructors have distinct perceptions of computer-assisted classrooms. Asked what differences the use of computers make in writing classes, instructors provided

the following answers, listed in order of their frequency; students spend a great deal of time in writing; lots of peer teaching goes on; the class becomes more student-centered than teacher-centered; the number of one-on-one conferences between instructor and students increases; opportunities for collaboration increase; students share more with other students and the instructor; and communication features provide more direct access to students, allowing teachers to get to know students better (Hawisher & Pemberton, 1991).

Considerations on Appropriate Software

Word processing is viewed by many educators as a vehicle that may ease the writing process, help change the nature of composing, and create a qualitatively and quantitatively different kind of written product (Sturm, Rankin, & Beukelman, 1997). Research on the impact of word processing on writing has shown that when using word processors, as compared to handwriting, students make surface-level revisions and produce slightly longer, neater, and more error-free texts. In addition, students of all age ranges demonstrate improved attitudes toward writing (Cochran-Smith, 1991).

However, as there are currently a number of software packages available for computer-mediated writing, it is important to select appropriate software in alignment with a student's writing needs and his/her current writing curriculum. Instructors can help student select software that is in alignment with his/her individual goals by considering several features such as writing needs, writing requirements, and individual writing characteristics.

In their study on how to select appropriate software for computer-assisted writing, Sturm, Rankin, and Beukelman (1997) suggested several aspects to be considered in order to determine a target student's appropriate writing software. The suggested considerations consist largely of three parts: a writing needs checklist, a writing requirements checklist, and features of computer-supported writing. The following tables are made by summarizing Strum, Rankin, and Beukelman's research (1997) of how to select appropriate software for computer-assisted writing.

Table 1. A Writing Needs Checklist

Conventions: handwriting and mechanics	• Preference between handwriting and word processing
Spelling	• Underlying spelling pattern (deviant, pre-phonetic, phonetic, transitional, or standard speller)
Form and syntactic maturity	• Word order • Grammatical feature • Sentence structure
Content and vocabulary	• Word choice • Word meaning
Fluency	• Generating ideas • Text length
Organization	• Organizational structure (shape, sequence, and direction) • Sense of audience
Editing	• Revising throughout writing process (not one-shot writing)
Visual and auditory skills	• Visual stimuli • Sensitiveness to sound

Table 1. Writing Needs Checklist (Cont.)

Attitudes and beliefs	• Motivation and willingness • Self-confidence
Approach and strategy use	• Problem-solving skills • Independence (need for assistance)

Source: Adapted from Strum, Rankin, and Beukelman, 1997, p. 159

According to their research, it is important to recognize that which need requires the most cognitive and physical efforts. Instructors also need to know that what is most difficult about writing, and what is most enjoyable about writing for students (Strum, Rankin, & Beukelman, 1997).

Table 2. A Writing Requirements Checklist

School writing	• Fiction/narratives, descriptions expositions, journals, creative writing, reports, essay exams, etc.
Personal communication	• Notes, letters, journals/diary, personal experiences, etc.

Source: Adapted from Strum, Rankin, and Beukelman, 1997, p. 160

The key point in the writing requirements checklist is students' purposes for writing, that is, what kind of writing products they are working on. Appropriate computer software for writing will vary from genre to genre.

Table 3. Features of Computer-Supported Writing

Keyboarding assistance	• Access • Speed • Accuracy
Talking word processors	• Level of speech output • Speaking rate/loudness adjustment
Spelling and vocabulary support	• Spell checking • Simultaneous error detection (with suggestion)
Forms of organizational assistance	• Topic suggestions • Writing style guides • Cohesion assistance
Grammar assistance	• Error detection • Grammar correction
Illustration assistance	• Pictures/art work • Drawing tools/coloration

Source: Adapted from Strum, Rankin, and Beukelman, 1997, p. 160

The instructor continues to be aware of students' computer skills, and motivating factors for their writing such as illustration, auditory system, and so on. It will

help choose appropriate computer software with special features.

The Future of Computer-Mediated Writing

Computer-mediated collaborative writing encourages students to focus carefully on each phase of the writing process, to anticipate an audience other than the instructor, and to practice writing in the foreign language both in and out of class. When used intensively in the computer-mediated environment, peer interaction mimics the social context of initial language acquisition, wherein the student can continuously learn about a written text, the writer's ideas, the writing process, and the target language (Semones, 2001).

Ultimately, computer-mediated communication fosters creativity, risk-taking, and the confidence necessary for writing in a foreign language. Instructors must continue to expose their students to these technological resources because when used appropriately, they can enhance the writer's experience throughout the foreign language writing process.

Networked computer classrooms currently offer the most promise for enhancing collaborative and student-centered classroom learning. Continued research that

examines the social and intellectual effects of CALL on language learning and, in particularly, in the ESL/EFL writing classroom, as well as the development of better and more user-friendly programs and intensive training of both teachers and students for computer use will be essential (Reid, 1993). In addition, a well-designed CALL class should be integrated into the curriculum as a whole and serve as an effective instructional tool, a facilitator of communication, a supplier of a variety of resources, and a medium of expression for listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English as a second or foreign language.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A Model for English-as-a-foreign-language Writing Instruction

The purpose of this curriculum project is to suggest various ways to implement effective ESL/EFL writing instruction using a model developed for this purpose. Based on the literature review presented in the previous chapter on the concepts communicative competence in writing, writing instruction for English learners, writing process, writing English for academic purposes, and computer-mediated writing, this chapter presents a theoretical framework for ESL/EFL writing instruction.

Features of an Effective English-Learner Writer

There are a lot of features which an effective writer might have in his/her writing. However, the features of interest here are fluency, logicality, and accuracy, because this project is developed for academic purposes.

Fluency. Fluency is one of the most vital features to be encouraged in the academic writing. It is not easy --especially for ESL/EFL students--to write fluently,

because they tend to put first priority on other features such as accuracy rather than fluency. Students are encouraged to generate and express ideas without concern for the correctness of their writing.

Logicality. Another important feature emphasized in the curriculum design is logicality. Logicality involves writing with coherence. It is important that ideas in academic writing should logically be interrelated each other, supporting the main purpose of the writing.

Accuracy. Accuracy is also emphasized in the curriculum deign because this project deals with academic writing. Accuracy involves correctness of usage.

A Description of the Model

To promote the outcome of fluency, logicality, and accuracy resulting from effective writing instruction, five key components of EFL writing instruction described in the previous chapter should be considered together. Figure 1 provides a theoretical framework that unites the five key concepts.

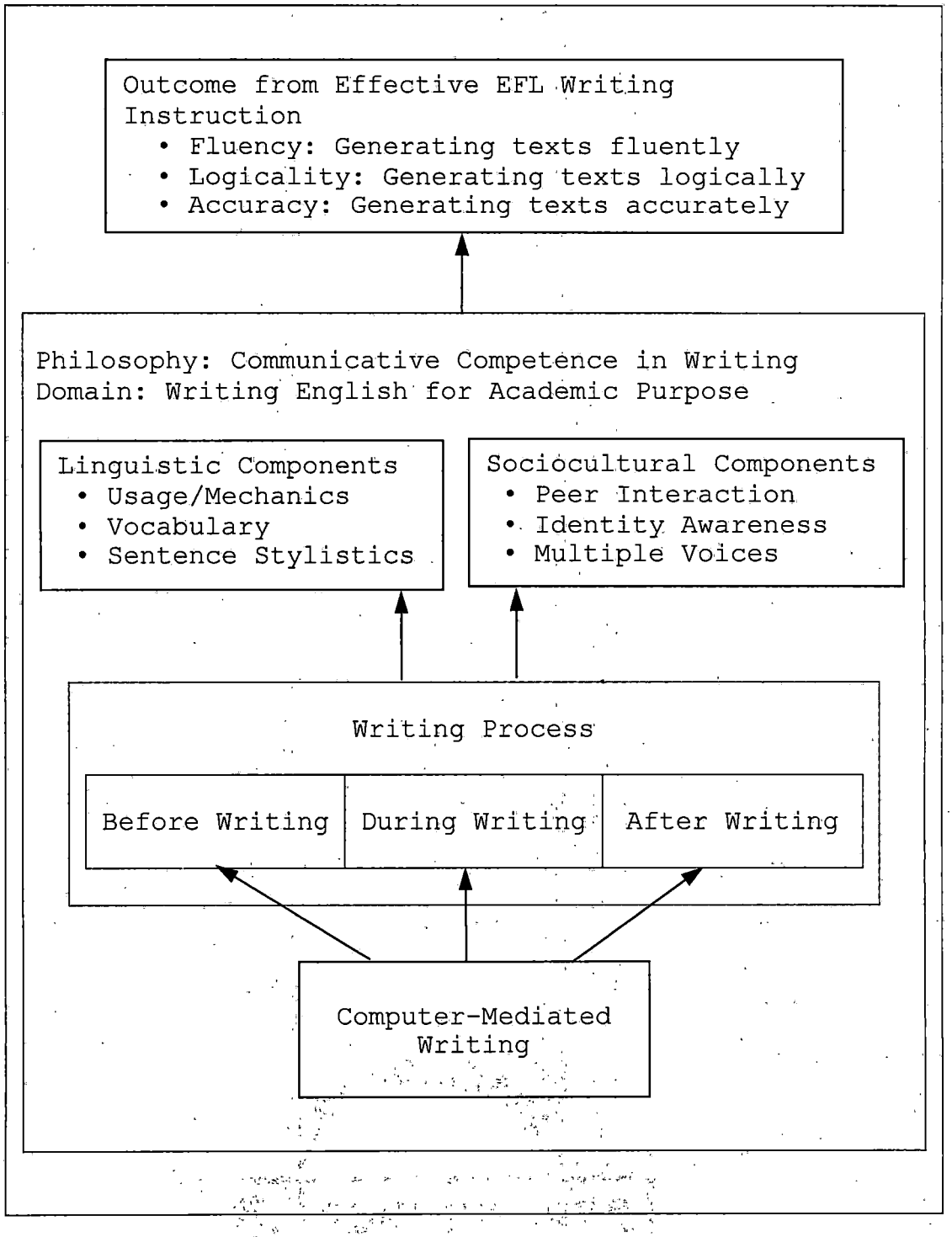


Figure 1. A Model for Effective English-as-a-foreign-language Writing Instruction

Communicative Competence in Writing

Communicative competence establishes a solid philosophy underlying effective EFL writing instruction. It means that the ultimate goal of language learning, even in writing, is to be able to communicate in various social interactions.

Communicative competence is the aspect of language users' competence that enables them to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally with specific contexts. The notion of developing communicative competence for the purpose of interacting with people from other cultures is considered as one of the important factors for this model of effective EFL writing instruction.

Writing English for Academic Purposes

The concern of writing English for academic purposes is on how writing instruction should meet a learner's specific needs and goals, primarily academic achievement. Writing English for academic purposes mainly focuses on individualized sociocultural interaction on the tasks of writing in the academic community, and it, therefore, ultimately helps students socialize. Effective EFL writing instruction can overcome such limitations in the

process approach by attending to differences in individuals and sociocultural contexts, and by combining the writing process with writing English for academic purposes.

The components which significantly affect EFL writing instruction can be summarized in two major characteristics: linguistic components and sociocultural components.

Linguistic Components

Usage/Mechanics. Grammar can help students improve the use of forms. It provides rules and general guidance that facilitate better understanding of the structures of the target language. Grammar instruction does not mean presenting meaningless structural information that learners cannot use. On the contrary, it serves as a tool to refine and further "build on what learners already knew and to give them opportunities to deductively construct new meanings" (Hinkel, 1999, p. 18). In this theoretical framework, grammar instruction is designed to achieve fluency and accuracy in language expression.

Vocabulary. Vocabulary instruction helps students deal with text at the word level. Because English words have multiple meanings, it is not easy for EFL students

to understand what words represent in the context. Therefore, effective vocabulary instruction should involve flexible understanding of concepts that words represent.

Sentence Stylistics. Style may be defined as "the choice and use of words" (Reinard, 1998, p. 176). Students use different writing stylistics to select and arrange such linguistic features as grammar, sentence length, and diversity or complexity of sentences. Writing instruction needs to consider various stylistics, because those linguistic features are open to choice.

Sociocultural Components

The objective of sociocultural instruction in language learning is to prepare learners for intercultural communication and cultural dialogue.

Peer Interaction. Learning is socially constructed during interaction and activity with others. Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) indicated that "using peer interaction as a means for enriching a student's exposure to language maximizes the opportunity for a student to hear and enjoy English" (p. 16). Peer interaction in writing class "becomes an important measure of communicative success and lead to increased effort and interest" (Diaz-Rico &

Weed, 1995, p. 109). In this theoretical framework, peer interaction focuses on being socialized for the purpose of communicative competence.

Identity Awareness. Taylor (1992) defines identity as a person's understanding of who s/he is, of her/his fundamental defining characteristics as a human being. Because identity is constructed within the social, and cultural context they engage, each student has a different identity according to their context. The differences in sociocultural identity result in differences in communication and interaction styles, and cognitive and learning styles (Ghosh, 2000). These differences make it necessary for teachers to develop instruction by considering students' different styles resulting from different identities. In this theoretical framework, identity is considered as an important factor affected in sociocultural components in writing instruction.

Multiple Voices. "Writing is not an individual act of discovery and creation, but an act embedded in social context" (Ivanič, 1998, p. 96). It requires encountering multiple voices in English through social context. According to McCafferty (2002), through either direct or

indirect use of another's voice, students discursively form a sense of self. Bruner (1990) described self as a socially distributed entity; the narratives that we form about ourselves are woven out of the voices of what others have said to us and about us. The opportunity to encounter multiple voices can be an important aspect of the acquisition and production of a voice in English for L2 students.

Writing Process

The writing process approach can be an effective tool for satisfying both linguistic components and sociocultural components in EFL writing instruction. As described in the previous chapter, the writing process can be divided into three stages: before writing, during writing, and after writing.

Before Writing. Before writing, the writer must analyze the communication situation, such as "who is the audience?" "what is the purpose?" and "what kind of forms will be used?" The activities before writing can take many forms, such as brainstorming, clustering, looping, cubing, outlining, reading, interviewing, informal drama, and other content area experiences.

During Writing. Drafting is the stage of pouring out ideas which have tentatively been developed through the activities before writing. During writing, it is important not to emphasize correct spelling, punctuation, and other mechanical errors. The focus during writing is primarily on the content of writing. In that way, students can be generating their texts fluently.

After Writing. After writing first draft, it is time to put the piece of writing into its final form, correcting errors made during writing. This includes the capitalization, punctuation, spelling, sentence structure, usage, and formatting specific to poems, scripts, letters, and other writing forms. In keeping with the purpose of their work, writers conform to the standards of written English.

Computer-Mediated Writing

Computer-mediated writing can be applied to each step of the writing process. It allows students to be aware that writing is a recursive process, letting them focus on each phase of the writing process.

Furthermore, it emphasizes social interaction and problem solving in the real world. Students can create their own individualized sociocultural interactive

environment in effectively designed computer-mediated language instruction.

Writing using computers is a type of ongoing process of communication, interpretation, and negotiation which can be especially meaningful for foreign language learners. In other words, using computers for writing enables students to construct their own writing process. Hansman and Wilson (1998) point out that "viewing knowledge about writing as socially constructed through social interactions within the computer classroom situates students in the active construction of their own process for writing" (p. 28-29).

In the theoretical framework of this project, all of these important features, communicative competence in writing, writing English for academic purposes, writing process, and computer-mediated writing are applied to effective EFL writing instruction, for the purpose of fluency, logicality, and accuracy. Based on the theoretical framework described in this chapter, the curriculum design of instructional unit for effective EFL writing instruction is developed in the next chapter. The lesson plans support the theoretical framework, and make

it easy to understand the concept explained in the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULM DESIGN

The Rationale for the Design

This curriculum design, based on the theoretical framework model presented in the previous chapter, contains two instructional units which are intended to help students acquire fluency, logicality, and accuracy in their writing. The five key concepts, communicative competence in writing, writing instruction for English learners, writing process, writing English for academic purposes, and computer-mediated writing, are incorporated into the instructional units.

The instructional units developed in this curriculum design are for those who have low English proficiency in South Korean colleges or universities. The instructional units provide crosscultural understanding to students, which is helpful for academic writing environments. Students will carry out academic writing tasks by utilizing the writing process described in the theoretical framework. The instructional units also will be helpful for the students who wish to develop their writing in accordance with the process approach.

Content of the Instructional Units

This curriculum design contains two instructional units. Instructional Unit One consists of three lesson plans, and Instructional Unit Two consists of five lesson plans. Each lesson has linguistic and sociocultural components drawn from the theoretical framework. Utilizing the theoretical framework described in the previous chapter, the instructional units incorporate five key concepts: communicative competence in writing, writing instruction for English learners, writing English for academic purposes, writing process, and computer-mediated writing.

In the beginning of each lesson, the objectives of the lesson are described. The objectives intended are achieved by several activities which are explained in the task chain of the lesson. Focus sheets, work sheets, and assessment sheets support the activities in each lesson in order to accomplish the objectives.

First, focus sheets contain information which is intended from the objectives of the lesson. Students can easily approach the objectives of the lesson with the examples or description provided by the focus sheets. Second, work sheets involve various activities which help

students understand the objectives of each lesson. Work sheets serve as a tool for students to become familiar with the objectives of the lesson. Finally, assessment sheets provide an opportunity for teachers to measure students' understanding of each lesson. Teachers can get feedback of how students understand and learn the lesson through assessment sheet.

Instructional Unit One

Instructional Unit One is designed for students to enhance crosscultural understanding. The unit is also helpful to understand writing process.

Lesson Plan One. In the beginning of lesson, various Venn diagrams are introduced to students. Students learn how to use Venn diagrams, and apply them for better crosscultural understanding. Pair work in task chains plays important roles in developing communicative competence especially related to sociocultural components in the theoretical framework.

Venn diagrams can help students think logically. In the connection with the theoretical framework presented in the previous chapter, this lesson plan serves as a prewriting process which is getting-ready-to-write stage. Through various Venn diagram activities, students can

rearrange free flow of thoughts logically. It helps students get their brain to move on a writing task.

Lesson Plan Two. The purpose of the lesson plan is for students to be familiar with culture of target language. Students enhance their crosscultural understanding, by becoming familiar with culture of target language. In this lesson plan, Halloween is adopted as an example of culture. Many other topics about U.S. holidays are available for lessons, such as Thanksgiving, New Year's Day, Valentine's Day, April Fool's Day, Independence Day and so on.

Halloween may relatively be a new term for EFL students. However, through this lesson plan, students can compare and contrast their identities with others' which are constructed within different social and cultural contexts. This lesson plan emphasizes sociocultural components such as peer interaction and identity awareness as well as linguistic components such as vocabulary.

Lesson Plan Three. In this lesson plan, students are encouraged critically to think and solve problems. Group work serves as a tool to develop communicative competence in the theoretical framework. In addition, group writing

helps students understand and apply process approaches in their group writing. The group work will be shared with others' in order to improve crosscultural understanding.

Instructional Unit Two

The Instructional Unit Two is designed for students to create an academic essay. Each lesson is generated according to sequential order.

Lesson Plan One. This lesson plan is designed for students to learn what a paragraph is, and what the components of a paragraph are. It allows students to identify a topic sentence in a paragraph. Peer interaction described in the task chains helps students build communicative competence.

Lesson Plan Two. This lesson plan is intended for students to understand the process of writing a paragraph. Each task in the focus sheets represents the process approach in writing. The step-by-step approaches in writing make it easy for students to realize the writing process. According to the steps described in this lesson plan, students create a paragraph with coherence. In addition, students confirm the fluency, logicality, and accuracy of the paragraph they created through self-revision checklists in assessment sheet.

Lesson Plan Three. In this lesson, students expand a paragraph to an essay. Students learn what an essay is and what its components are. Through the activities in the lesson plan, students identify a thesis statement in an essay.

Lesson Plan Four. Utilizing examples in the focus sheets, students generate an essay in this lesson plan. The examples help students outline their own essay. The activities in this lesson plan involve process approaches in writing. Students also ensure fluency, logicality, and accuracy in their essay through self-revision checklists as part of the assessment process.

Lesson Plan Five. This lesson involves the revision process. As Beach (1992) points out, "learning to revise is essential for learning to improve one's writing" (p. vii); revision plays significant roles in writing process. It is important to be aware that revision actually can occur at any time during the writing process. In addition, when revising, students must not only go back to bits of discourse but also return to their notion of the topic.

In summary, the two instructional units are developed by integrating five key concepts in the theoretical framework. The five key concepts,

communicative competence in writing, writing instruction for English learners, writing English for academic purposes, writing process, and computer-mediated writing, supplement each other in order to meet the linguistic and sociocultural requirements of writing instruction.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

Assessment of Instruction

Assessment is a process for determining the current level of a learner's performance and knowledge (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 176). Students can be assessed through several different ways, and for different purposes. Teachers are responsible for developing adequate assessments in each lesson, because assessment is an essential element in affirming that learning has taken place.

The purposes of assessments vary: to place students in class, to measure student progress and achievement, to guide and improve instruction, and to diagnose students knowledge of a topic before it is taught. According to O'Malley & Pierce (1996), assessment can be used for at least six purposes with ESL/EFL students: screening and identification, placement, reclassification or exit, monitoring student progress, program evaluation, and accountability. Single form of assessment is not enough to meet all of these purposes. In order to cover the full range of assessment needs for ESL/EFL students, multiple

forms of assessment are necessary, which reflect student learning, achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities. Performance assessment, portfolios, and self-assessment are examples of the multiple forms of assessment.

Performance Assessment. Performance assessment consists of any form of assessment in which students construct a response orally or in writing. It requires students to "accomplish complex and significant tasks, while bringing to bear prior knowledge, recent learning, and relevant skills to solve realistic or authentic problems" (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 4). Examples of performance assessment are oral reports, writing samples, individual and group projects, exhibitions, and demonstrations.

Portfolio Assessment. Portfolio assessment is a systematic collection of student work that is analyzed to show progress over time with regard to instructional objectives (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). Examples of portfolio assessment include writing samples, reading logs. Drawings, audio or videotapes, and comments on progress made by the students.

Self-Assessment. According to O'Malley & Pierce (1996), self-assessment promotes direct involvement in learning and the integration of cognitive abilities with motivation and attitude toward learning. In becoming self-regulated learners, students make choices, select learning activities, and plan how to use their time and resources.

Application of Assessment

Assessment in this curriculum design is intended for students to incorporate together what they have learned in each lesson. Among multiple forms of assessment, self-assessment and group assessment are mainly used in the curriculum design.

According to Short (1993), self-assessment offers students opportunities for reflection, and encourages students to take responsibility for assessment. In addition, self-assessment provides one of the most effective means of both critical self-awareness of whit it is to be a learner and skills to learn how to learn. Students who are self-regulated learners collaborate with other students in exchanging ideas, eliciting assistance when needed, and providing support to their peers. As

they go about learning, students construct meaning, revise their understandings, and share meaning with others.

Group assessment used in the curriculum design focuses on evaluating group member's performance. Feedback from peers enables students effectively to construct their knowledge and performance in lesson. Through group assessment, students not only evaluate peers' work, but also demonstrate successful communicative and social skills.

In this curriculum design, students evaluate the fluency, logicality, and accuracy in their writing through the process of self-assessment and group assessment. In addition, self-assessment and group assessment apply in each step of the writing process. It helps students be aware of where they are on writing tasks. It is important to be aware of the stage in which they are in, because it enables students to move back and forth in order to refine and polish their writing, that is, students construct their own writing process by self-assessment and group assessment.

In summary, this curriculum design has explored various components to be considered in effective ESL/EFL

writing instruction. In Chapter One, the background of the project was described with the current existing problems in English education in South Korea. Chapter Two was developed to suggest effective and efficient methods of solving the problems by reviewing literature. Those methods were incorporated in Chapter Three, and Chapter Three finally constructed the theoretical framework for effective ESL/EFL writing instruction. In Chapter Four, curriculum design based on the theoretical framework was described for real classroom application, explaining instructional units. Finally, in Chapter Five, assessment was discussed for both better understanding of students and better development of instruction. Two instructional units are presented next in Appendix A.

APPENDIX

INSTRUCTIONAL PLANS

Instructional Unit One--Crosscultural Understanding

Lesson Plan One: With Graphic Organizer

Lesson Plan Two: About Halloween

Lesson Plan Three: With Critical Thinking

Instructional Unit Two--Creating an Academic Essay

Lesson Plan One: Creating an Academic Essay-A

Lesson Plan Two: Creating an Academic Essay-B

Lesson Plan Three: Creating an Academic Essay-C

Lesson Plan Four: Creating an Academic Essay-D

Lesson Plan Five: Creating an Academic Essay-E

Instructional Unit One: Lesson Plan One

Crosscultural Understanding with Graphic Organizer

Objectives:

1. To introduce various types of graphic organizers to the students
2. To compare Korean attitudes toward education with those of Mexican immigrants for better crosscultural understanding
3. To get ready to write by logically rearranging ideas on writing task

Materials:

Focus Sheets A-1, A-2, A-3, A-4, A-5, A-6, A-7, and A-8
Work Sheets A-1, A-2, and A-3
Assessment Sheets A-1

Warm-Up: *Instructor asks students the following questions*:

Do you have any friends from another country?
Are you familiar with any cultures that are different from your own?

Task Chain 1: *Introducing various types of graphic organizers to the students*

1. Instructor shows students seven different types of graphic organizers by placing them on the overhead projector one at a time (see Focus Sheet A-1, Focus Sheet A-2, Focus Sheet A-3, Focus Sheet A-4, Focus Sheet A-5, Focus Sheet A-6, and Focus Sheet A-7).

Task Chain 2: *Demonstrating how to use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast two familiar animals*

1. Instructor pairs students and distributes Work Sheet A-1 to each of the students.
2. Instructor gives directions to choose two familiar animals.
3. Instructor explains to students how to describe the similarities and differences between the two animals they chose.
4. Instructor has students fill in Work Sheet A-1.
5. Instructor distributes Work Sheet A-2 and explains to students how to fill in the

similarities and differences between the two animals using the Venn diagram.

6. After students finish task, instructor has students share their finished Venn diagrams with a different pair of students.

Task Chain 3: *Comparing Korean attitudes toward education with those of Mexican immigrants*

1. Instructor distributes Crosscultural Information Sheet (Focus Sheet A-8-1 for Mexican-American students and Focus Sheet A-8-2 for Korean students) to students.
2. Instructor tells students to read Focus Sheet A-8 and discuss it with each other.
3. Instructor calls on pairs to share the information that they learned from the reading.
4. Instructor distributes a Venn diagram (Work Sheet A-3) to each pair.
5. Instructor tells students to use Work Sheet A-3 to compare and contrast Korean attitudes toward education with those of Mexican-Americans.
6. Instructor calls on pairs of students to share their Venn diagrams with the rest of the class.

Assessment:

1. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet A-1 and has students answer each question according to the direction.

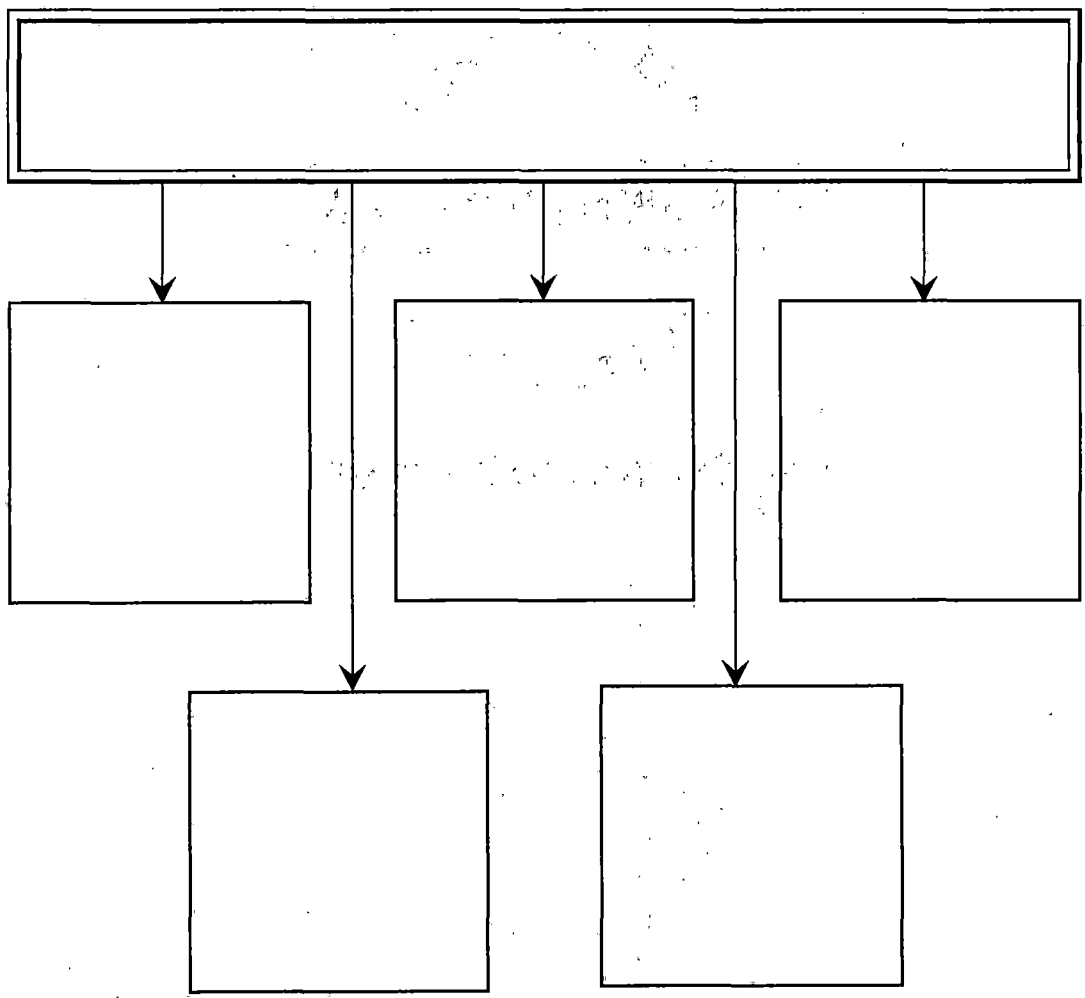
Criteria

100-91: A	80-71: B	60-51: C
90-81: B+	70-61: B-	≦50 : F

Focus Sheet A-1

Main Idea Chart

A Main Idea chart can help you to focus on the most important idea in a paragraph or section. You also and use this chart to find supporting details that tell about the main idea. Making a Main Idea chart can help you decide which details to include in your own writing.

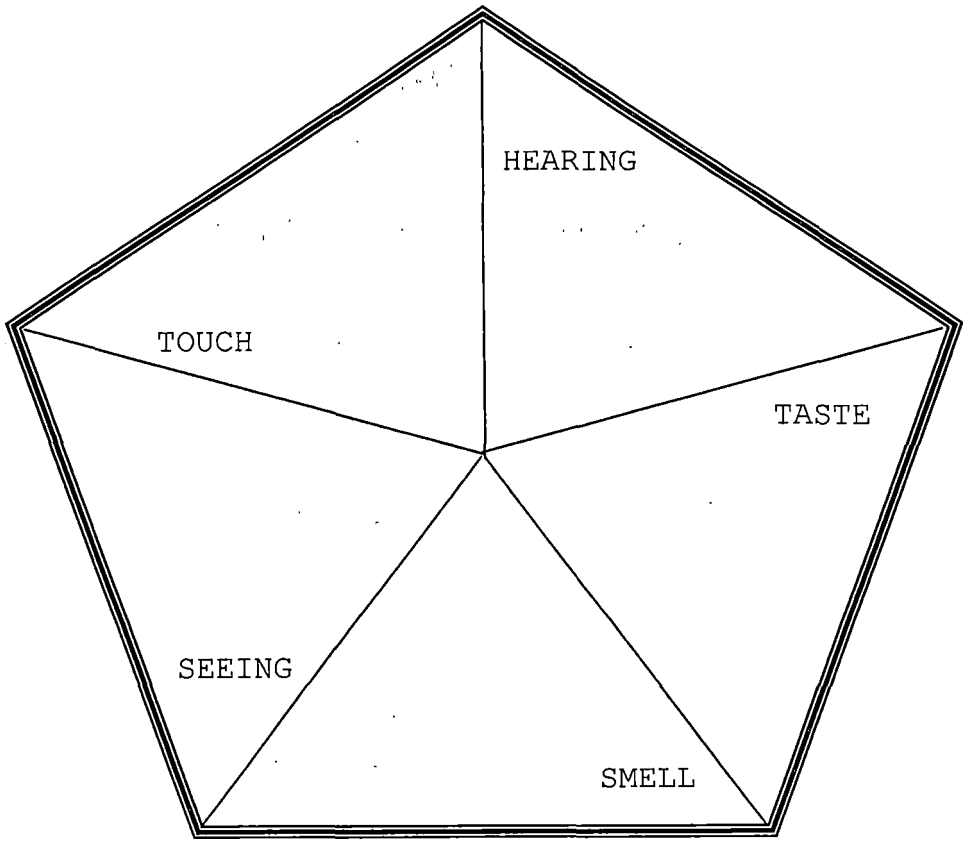


Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 17.

Focus Sheet A-2

Sense Chart

We get information from the world around us using all our senses. We see, hear, feel, smell, and taste. Use a Sense chart like the one below to help organize information about the senses.



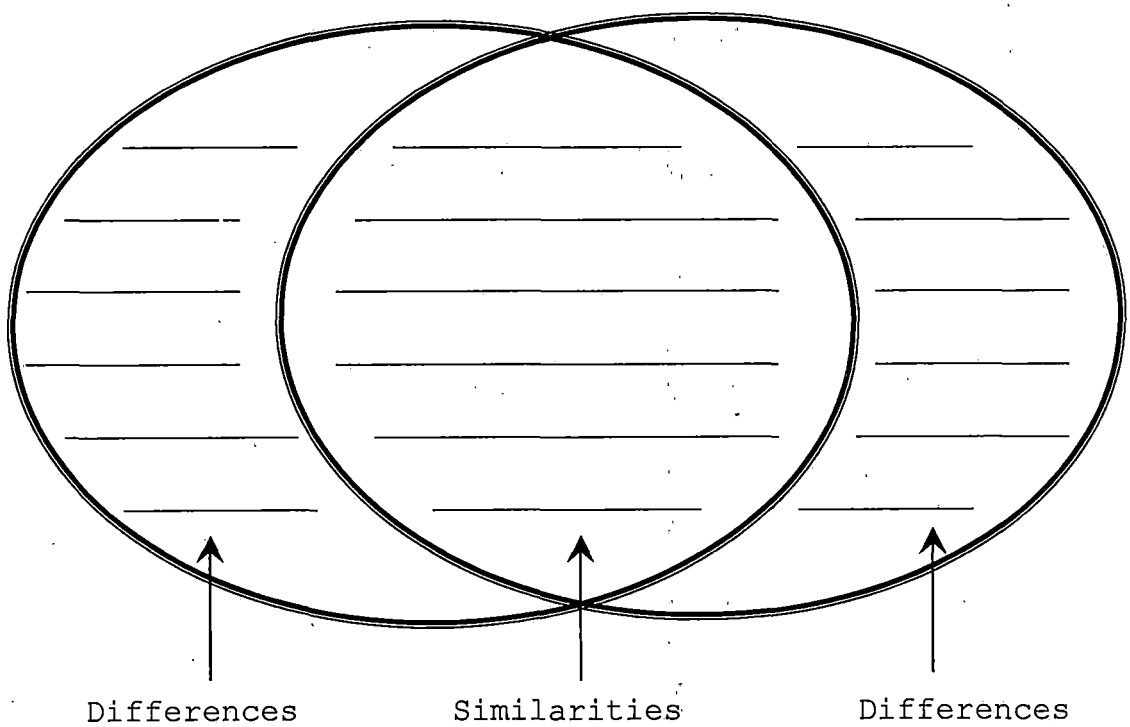
Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 18.

Focus Sheet A-3

Venn Diagram

A Venn diagram can help you to compare and contrast two different things. The part of a diagram where the circles overlap tells how the two things are alike. The parts that do not overlap tell how the two things are different.

Object A	Object B

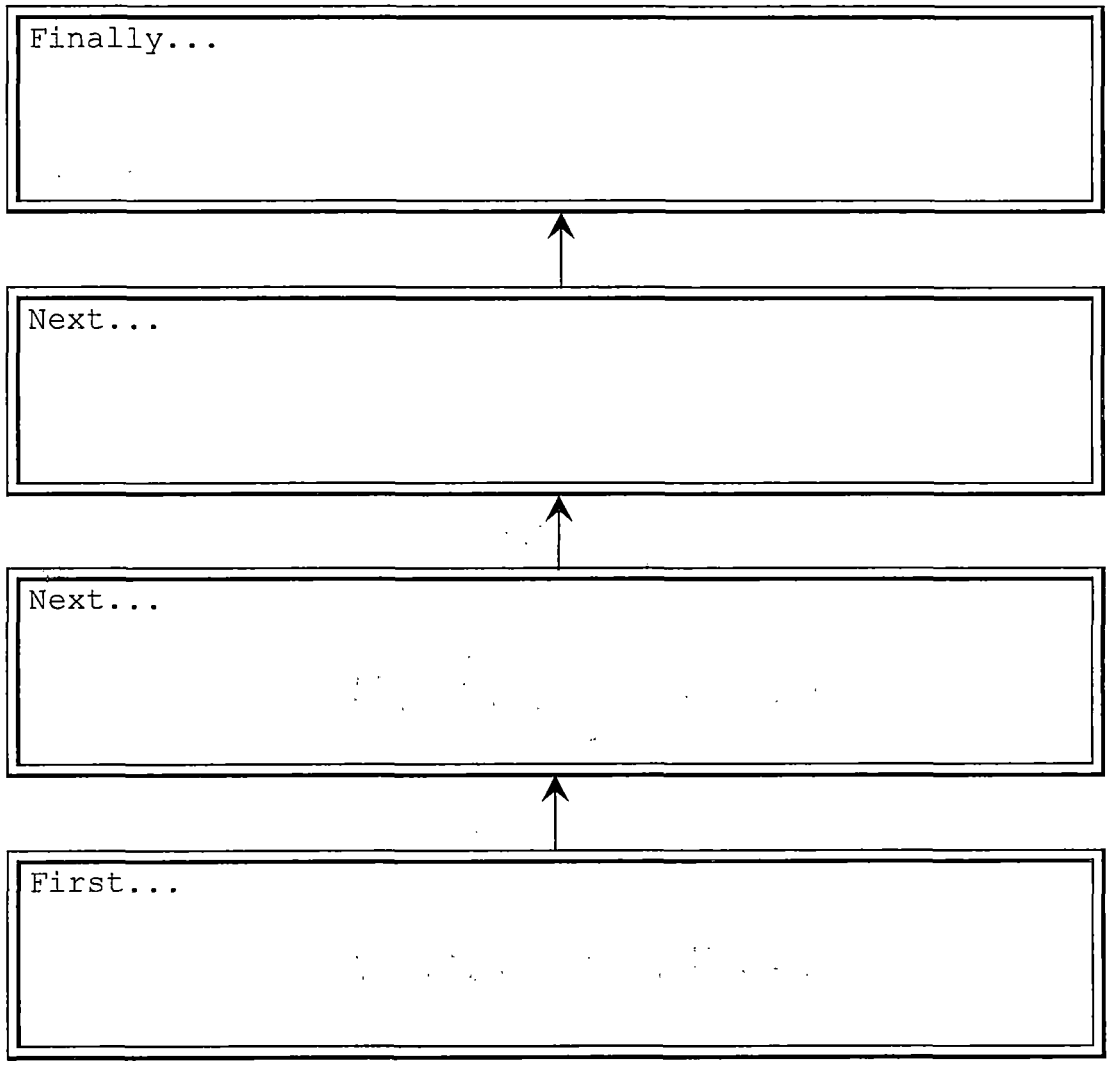


Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 19.

Focus Sheet A-4

Sequence Chart

A Sequence chart can help you keep track of the order in which things happen. When you write, use a Sequence chart to help plan how you will tell about your topic.



Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 20.

Focus Sheet A-5

K-W-L Chart

A K-W-L chart helps to you to organize your thoughts before, during, and after reading. Before you read, write what you know in column headed K. Write what you want to learn in the column headed W. After you read, write what you have learned in the column headed L.

K	W	L
Write what you Know	Write what you Want to know	Write what you have Learned

Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 21.

Focus Sheet A-6

5 W's Chart

Asking the questions *who, what, where, when, and why* can help you understand what you read. Use a 5 W's chart to record your answers. The chart will also help you when you write.

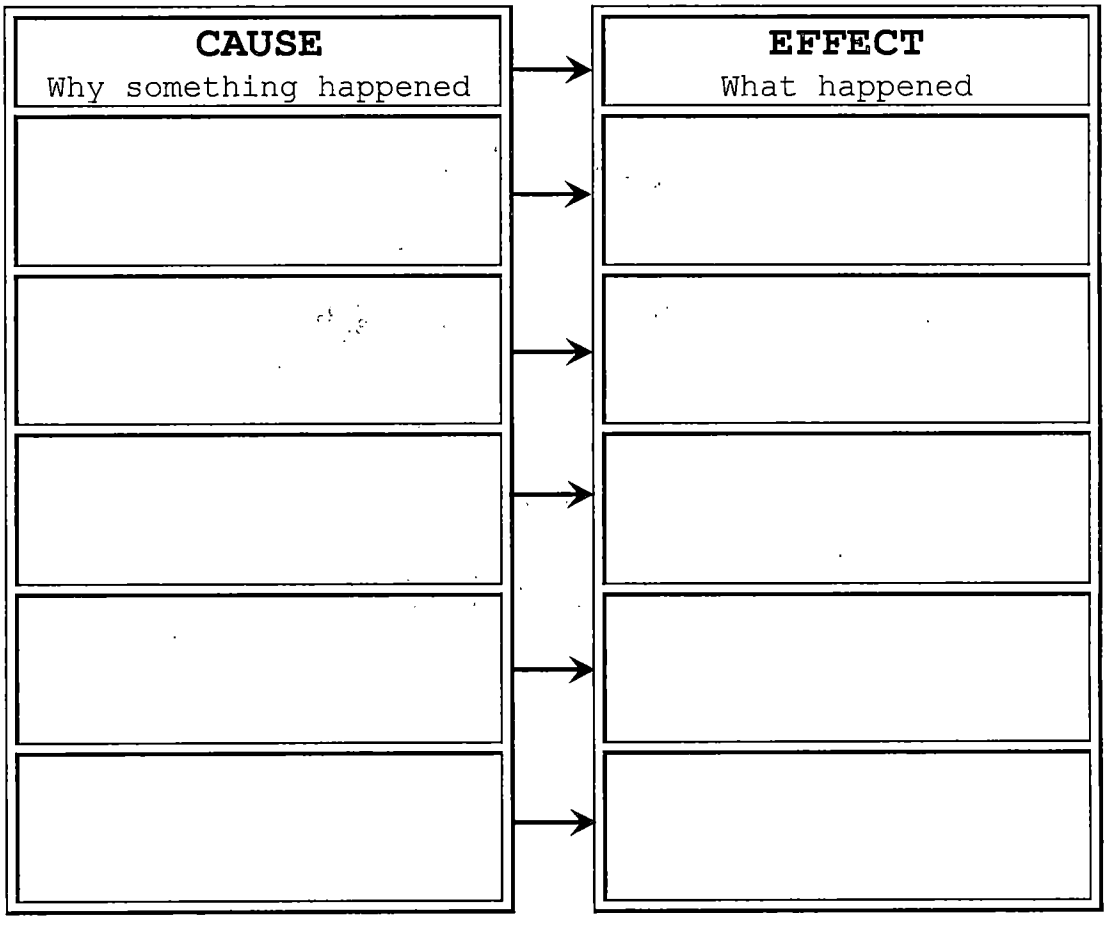
Who?
What?
Where?
When?
Why?

Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 22.

Focus Sheet A-7

Cause-and-Effect Chart

A cause is why something happens. An effect is what happens. A Cause-and-Effect chart helps to show causes and their effects.



Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 23.

Focus Sheet A-8-1

Attitudes of Korean Parents toward Education

Koreans consider education as the single most important key to their children's future success. Education in Korea is esteemed not only for its economic value in later life but also for the social status associated with educational achievement, especially at prestigious schools.

Parents are willing to go into debt to pay for expenses related to education. Many parents also pay high tuition at private institutes where students take additional classes to prepare for entrance examinations of higher leveled university. Students who have failed examinations also study at these institutes to get ready for another attempt. The persistence and economic sacrifice of Korean parents demonstrate their commitment to their children's education.

Parents in Korea generally support the schools and hope for fulfillment of their own lives through the success of their children. Parents instill in their children very early the idea that parental acceptance is contingent on high performance in school.

Source: Honig, 1992, p. 142.

Focus Sheet A-8-2

Attitudes of Mexican Immigrants toward Education

Many Mexican parents lack a formal education in their own country. Because of this, often these parents feel that they are not able to participate in their child's education even though they possess a wealth of cultural values and traditions.

Many of these people are poor and work at the lowest paying and least desirable jobs. Often these parents work long hours and have little time or energy to devote to helping their child in school. They are most concerned with providing their family with the basic necessities. These people come from a minority group that has been traditionally exploited by the dominant culture of the United States. According to educational research, academic success has not always been seen by such groups of people as helpful or even desirable.

Most Mexican immigrants believe that the mother has the primary responsibility for taking care of the children. Thus, most families believe it is the mother's job to help the children in school. Rarely do the fathers get involved with their children's education.

Source: Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 216.

Work Sheet A-1

Comparison and Contrast Sheet

Directions: A comparison tells how things are alike. A contrast tells how they are different. After choosing two familiar animals, compare and contrast the two animals below.

Two animals which are familiar to me:

A: _____

B: _____

How they are alike: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

How they are different: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

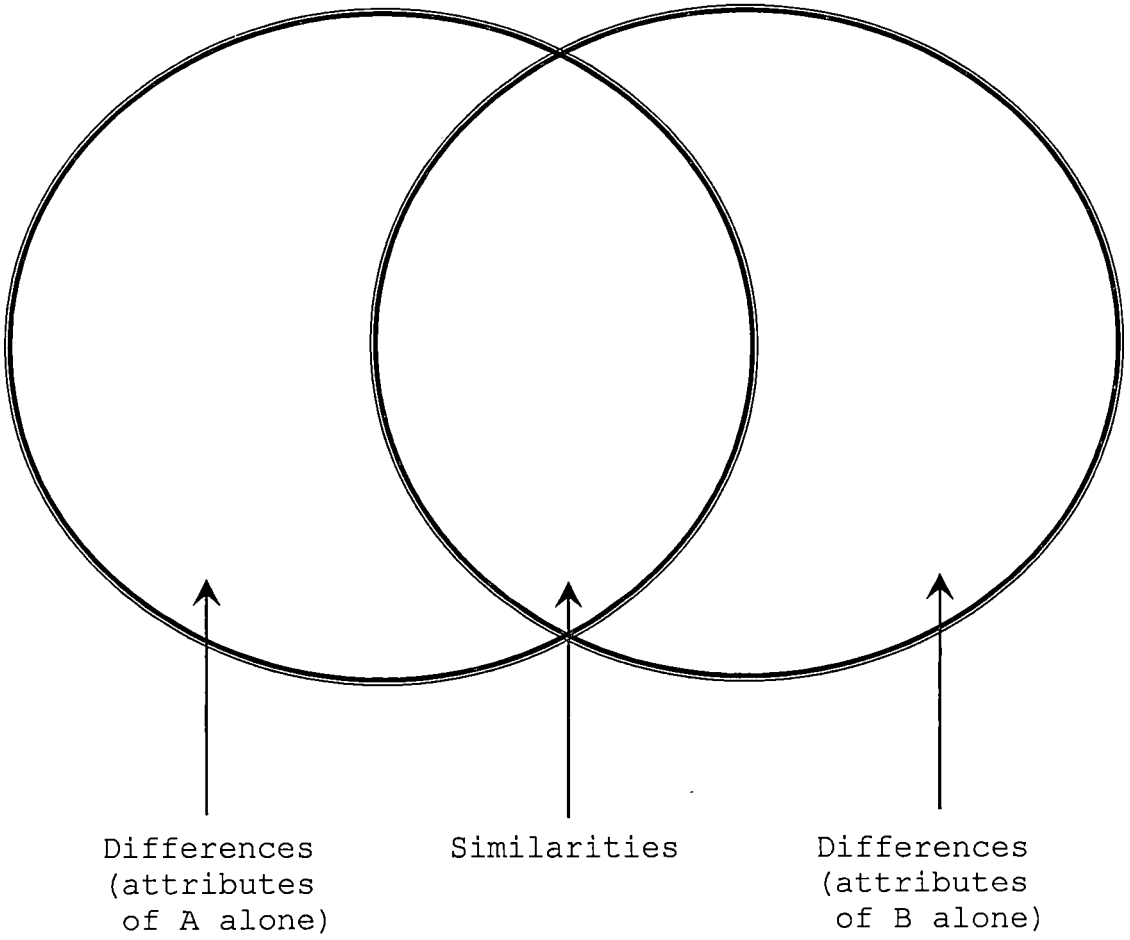
Source: Capstone Press, 2000, p. 28.

Work Sheet A-2

Using a Venn Diagram

Directions: Fill in the following Venn diagram using the Work Sheet A-1.

Object A:	Object B:

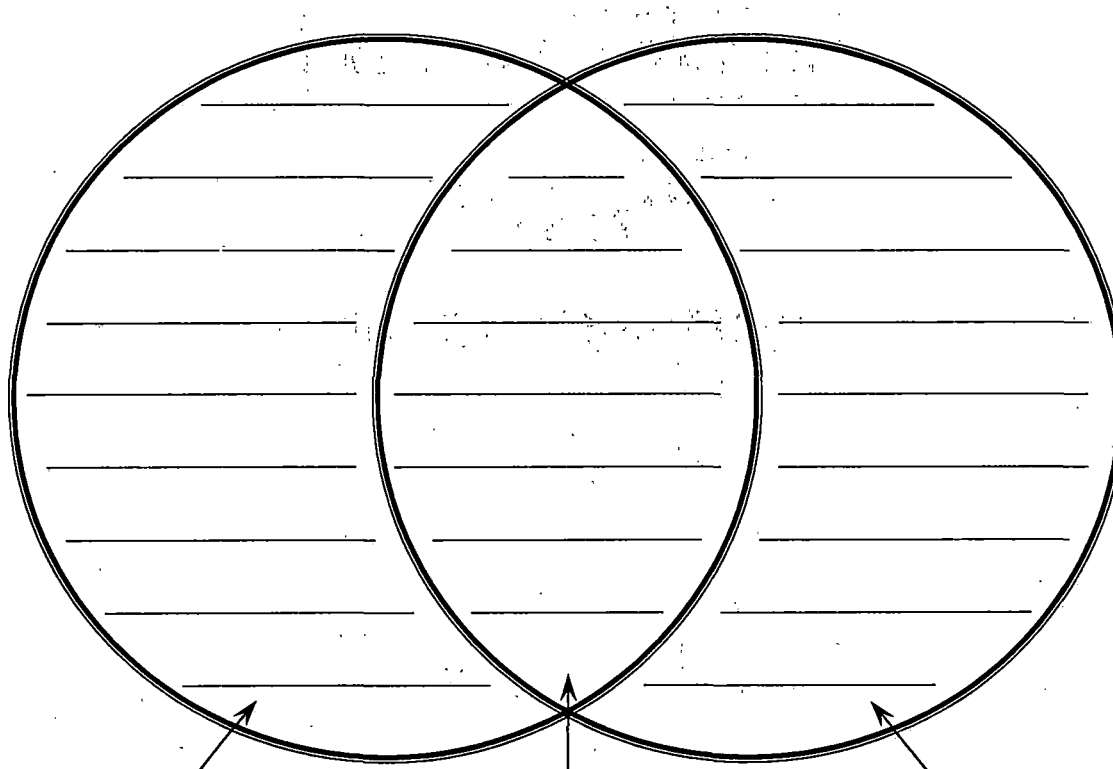


Work Sheet A-3

Crosscultural Comparison

Directions: Using the following Venn Diagram, compare and contrast Korean attitudes toward education with those of Mexican American.

Korean Attitudes	Mexican-American Attitudes



Korean attitudes which are not similar to Mexican-American attitudes

Korean & Mexican-American attitudes which are similar

Mexican-American attitudes which are not similar to Korean attitudes

Assessment Sheet A-1

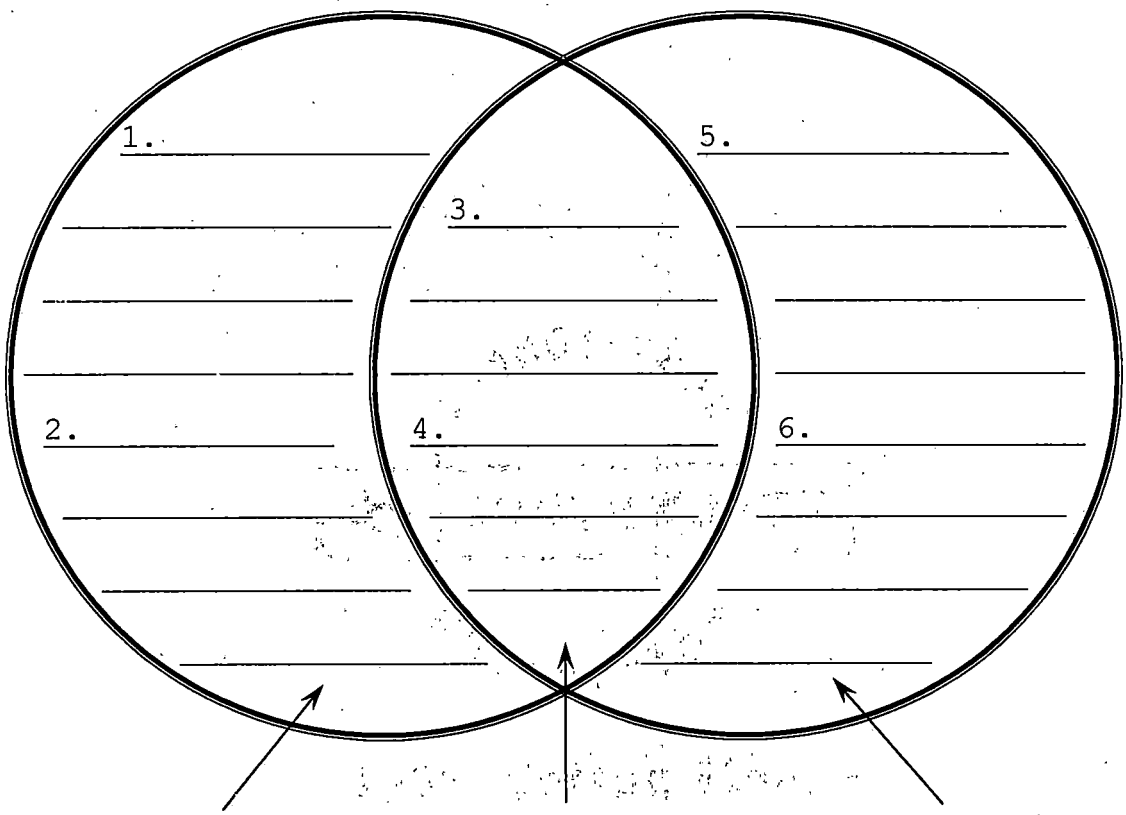
Directions: Match the following graphic organizers with their characteristics (10 pts per question).

1. Main Idea chart	A. can help organize information about the senses
2. Sense chart	B. can help to compare and contrast two different things
3. Venn diagram	C. can help to keep track of the order in which things happen
4. Sequence chart	D. can help you organize your thoughts before, during, and after
5. K-W-L chart	E. can help you understand what you read and write
6. 5 W's chart	F. can help to show causes and effects
7. Cause-and-Effect chart	G. can help you focus on the most important idea in a paragraph or section

ASSESSMENT SHEET A-1 (Cont.)

Directions: Fill out the following Venn diagram by comparing and contrasting Korean attitudes toward education with those of Mexican-American (5 pts per each).

Korean Attitudes	Mexican-American Attitudes



Korean attitudes which are not similar to Mexican-American attitudes

Korean & Mexican-American attitudes which are similar

Mexican-American attitudes which are not similar to Korean attitudes

Lesson Plan Two

Crosscultural Understanding about Halloween

Objectives:

1. To enhance crosscultural understanding by introducing Halloween
2. To become familiar with vocabulary about Halloween
3. To learn how to carve a Jack O'lantern from a pumpkin

Materials:

Focus Sheets B-1, B-2, B-3, B-4, B-5
Work Sheets B-1, B-2
Poster B-1, B-2, B-3, B-4, B-5, B-6, B-7, B-8, B-9
Halloween vocabulary card
Assessment Sheets B-1

Warm-up: *Ask students the following questions*:

Have you ever heard about Halloween?
Do you know the origin of Halloween?
What kinds of activities are held in Halloween?

Task Chain 1: *Understanding Halloween as a cultural event*

1. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet B-1 to students and explains the origin of Halloween.
2. Instructor explain such favorite Halloween traditions as *trick-or-treating*, *bobbing for apples*, and *carving a Jack O'lantern from a pumpkin* (Focus Sheet B-2).

Task Chain 2: *Vocabulary about Halloween*

1. Instructor shows students vocabulary lists using overhead projector (Focus Sheet B-3) and helps them understand the meaning of vocabulary, by letting them see Poster 1 to 9 associated with Halloween. To practice the vocabulary, use Halloween vocabulary cards.
2. Instructor has students read the definition of vocabulary words (Focus Sheet B-4).
3. Distribute Work Sheet B-1 and have students match the correct definitions of vocabulary words.
4. Have students fill in the blanks by using proper words (Work Sheet B-2).

Task Chain 3: *Learning how to carve a Jack O'lantern*

1. Instructor explains the task: Sequence the strips of written directions using context clues.
2. Divide students into small groups of 2 or 3 and distribute an envelop with directions on how to carve Jack O'Lantern from a pumpkin (Focus Sheet B-5, cut up). Make each group sequence the strips of written directions on how to carve Jack O'Lantern.
3. After sequencing task is completed, instructor shows solution through overhead projector (Focus Sheet B-5 for overhead projector).
4. Group self-assesses their versions for accuracy, and re-orders, if necessary.

Assessment: *Checking on how students understand Halloween as a cultural event*

1. Instructor hands out Assessment Sheet B-1.
2. Students check vocabulary about Halloween, how to carve a Jack O'Lantern, and their awareness of sequence.

Criteria:

100-91: A	82-75: B	66-60: C
90-83: B+	74-67: B-	≦59 : F

Focus Sheet B-1

The Origin of Halloween

In A.D. 853, the Roman Catholic Church made November 1 a church holiday to honor all the saints. This holy day was called *All Saints' Day*, or *Hallowmas*, or *Allhallows*. People celebrated October 31 as All Hallow Even (*even* is an old-fashioned form of the word *evening*), and in time the name was shortened to Hallowe'en or Halloween. November 2 was a holy day called *All Souls' Day*, when all dead people were honored.

There are many superstitions and symbols associated with Halloween. Orange and black are "Halloween colors." Halloween was once a harvest festival. Orange is the color of ripened fruits and vegetables. Halloween was also the time for evil spirits. Black was the color associated with death and evil.

In England and Scotland, a traditional belief is that if a supper is not left for the hobgoblin (a mischievous sprite or fairy) on Halloween, it will upset all the cooking and scatter ashes all over the house.

The word *jack-o'-lantern* is from an old Irish story. Once there was a man named Jack who was very mean. When he died, he went to the Devil. The Devil threw Jack a hot coal and told him to put it inside the turnip he was eating. "This is your lantern," said the Devil. Jack is still walking with his lantern, looking for a place to stay.

At one time, Halloween was a celebration filled with fear. People wore costumes to ward off evil spirits and gathered together because they were afraid to be alone. This came to be known as *Witches' Night*, and since then, witches have become common symbols of Halloween.

The colonists brought their Halloween customs from England. Halloween changed over the years, from a time when the Devil did his evil work to a more fun-filled time. The colonists gathered at farmhouses and sang songs, told ghost stories, and bobbed for apples. They called this *Nutcrack Night* or *Snap Apple Night*.

Now it is customary for children dressed in costumes to participate in school parades, parties, and trick-or-treating in their neighborhoods on Halloween. Children visiting the neighbors and asking for treats is a custom that may have originated in the 1800s in Ireland. Irish peasants went from door to door asking for money to buy food for a special feast for St. Columba.

Today, on Halloween many children go "trick-or-treating" for UNICEF, the abbreviation for the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, or the UN Children's Fund, for short. This custom was started in 1950 by children from a small Sunday school near Philadelphia who decided to send the money from their trick-or-treating to UNICEF. The money was used to buy food and medicine for children in poor countries. A presidential proclamation in 1967 made October 31 National UNICEF Day in the United States.

Source: Resnick, Pavol, & Pappas, 1991, pp. 84-85.

Focus Sheet B-2

Favorite Halloween Traditions

In the modern times, Halloween has become a fun-filled secular holiday which focuses on ghoulish things like skeletons, cemeteries, warlocks, goblins and more. It is celebrated on October 31 in some English speaking countries, including the USA and Canada.

1. Trick-or-Treating

Young children dress-up in costumes as ghosts, witches, monsters and other imaginative things and go door-to-door saying "Trick or Treat." In other words, either you give me a treat or I play a trick on you. Of course, this is just tradition, and adults all hand out a treat to the children. Treats are usually little pieces of candy or candy bars.

2. Bobbing for Apples

Adults also like having wild parties on Halloween. Many times these parties are costume parties with some people wearing pretty strange costumes! One of the favorite activities at these parties is "bobbing for apples" - a game during which participants try to fetch apples out of a tub of water using only their mouths.

3. Carving a Jack-O'-Lantern

In the United States, most homes also have a carved pumpkin, called a Jack-o-lantern, in front of the house. These pumpkins are usually hollow with a funny or frightening face carved into the pumpkin and lighted from inside by a candle.

Source:
http://esl.about.com/homework/esl/library/weekly/aa101600b.htm

Focus Sheet B-3

Vocabulary Words about Halloween

pumpkin	cemetery
Jack O'lantern	graveyard
carve	haunted house
ghost	scarecrow
spook, spooky	straw
scary, horrified	costume
goblin	mask
ghoul	decorate
monster	candy corn
Dracula	bat
witch	boo
devil	trick or treat
black cat	treat bag
skull	door-to-door
skeleton	bobbing for apples

Focus Sheet B-4

Definitions of Vocabulary Words

pumpkin: a large, round, orange vegetable in the squash family associated with Halloween

Jack O'Lantern: a carved pumpkin usually with a candle burning inside to illuminate the pumpkin

carve: to cut with a knife, in the context of a pumpkin to cut a face into the pumpkin

ghost: a spirit of a dead person which appears again (ghosts at Halloween are usually dressed in white sheets)

spook: a specter; ghost

scary: easily frightened

goblin: an evil or mischievous spirit, often represented in pictures as humanlike and ugly or misshapen in form

ghoul: an evil spirit that robs graves and feeds on the flesh of the dead

monster: a person so cruel, wicked, depraved, etc. as to horrify others

witch: a woman with magic powers

devil: the chief evil spirit, a supernatural being subordinate to, and the foe of, God and the tempter of human beings

skull: the entire bony framework of the head of a vertebrate, enclosing and protecting the brain and sense organs, including the bones of the face and jaw

skeleton: the hard framework of an animal body, supporting the organs

graveyard: a burial ground; cemetery

cemetery: a place for the burial of the dead

haunted house: house supposedly frequented by evil spirits or ghosts

scarecrow: figure looking like a man set up in a field to frighten off birds

straw: hollow stalks or stems of grain after threshing

costume: the style of dress, including accessories, typical of a certain country, period, profession, etc.

mask: a covering for the face or part of the face, to conceal or disguise the identity

candy corn: Halloween treat

decorate: to add something to so as to make more attractive

bat: small mammal which flies by night and hangs upside down to rest

boo: a prolonged sound made to express disapproval, scorn, etc.

trick or treat: saying used by children when going from house to house asking for candy (the phrase also means that if you do not give me a treat, I will play a trick on you!)

door-to-door: from one home to the next, calling on each in turn

bobbing for apples: traditional Halloween game (you put apples in a tub of water and people try to take the floating apples out of the water using only their mouths)

Focus Sheet B-5

Carving a Jack O'lantern

1. Draw the pumpkin lid or bottom opening and with a carving saw, cut the lid in at an angle.

2. Scoop out the seeds and strings with spoon, thin the carving wall to about a 1 inch thickness.

3. Imagine the shape you want to carve on the pumpkin and draw it on the paper.

4. Secure the pattern to the smoothest side of the pumpkin with tape or stick pins, and clip along dotted lines ii needed to fit the pattern to the pumpkin more easily.

5. Use a marker or dull pencil to outline your design, and then remove the pattern.

6. Gently carve along design markings.

7. Put a candle inside the pumpkin, and light.

Source:
http://esl.about.com/homework/esl/library/weekly/aa101600b.htm

Focus Sheet B-1

Vocabulary Matching

Directions: Match the following words with proper meaning.

1. haunted	a. a place for the burial of the dead
2. Jack O'lantern	b. a prolonged sound made to express disapproval, scorn, etc.
3. skeleton	c. supposedly frequented by evil spirits or ghosts
4. witch	d. figure looking like a man set up in a field to frighten off birds
5. scarecrow	e. the hard framework of an animal body, supporting the organs
6. goblin	f. a carved pumpkin usually with a candle burning inside
7. boo	g. an evil spirit that robs graves and feeds on the flesh of the dead
8. cemetery	h. woman with magic powers
9. ghoul	i. an evil or mischievous spirit, often represented in pictures as humanlike and ugly or misshapen in form

Work Sheet B-2

Halloween Words in Context

Directions: Fill blanks with proper word from the lists below, by using context clues.

Carve, haunted, scary, trick or treat, witch, monsters, Halloween, skeleton, Jack O'lantern, bobbin for apples

1. Let's go buy a pumpkin and _____ a funny face on it.

2. Don't be afraid of that _____. After all, it's just made of bones and can't hurt you!

3. Tom won the award for the best carved _____ at the school Halloween fair.

4. If I hear one more child say _____ tonight, I think I'll go crazy!

5. Take off that _____ mask. I can't stand to look at you; it's so repelling.

6. Not all _____ are evil. Some are just misunderstood by the local population--think of Frankenstein.

7. I was scared by that horror film on TV last night. I know it was a _____ film, but there was just too much blood and violence for me.

8. I dare you to open the door and go into that _____ house up on the hill!

9. I have to go change my costume. I got all wet _____.

Source:
http://esl.about.com/homework/esl/library/weekly/aa101600b.htm

Assessment Sheet B-1

Directions: Match the following words with correct meaning.

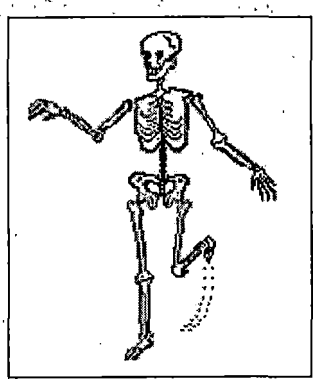
1. ghoul
   a. an evil spirit that robs graves and feeds on the flesh of the dead
   b. figure looking like a man set up in a field to frighten off birds
   c. hollow stalks or stems of grain after threshing

2. skeleton
   a. a person so cruel, wicked, depraved as to horrify others
   b. the entire bony framework of the head of a vertebrate, enclosing and protecting the brain and sense organs, including the bones of the face and jaw
   c. the hard framework of an animal body, supporting the organs

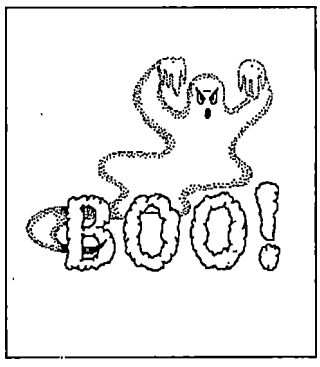
3. cemetery
   a. a spirit of a dead person which appears again
   b. a woman with magic powers
   c. a place for the burial of the dead

Directions: Write a word associated with the following pictures.

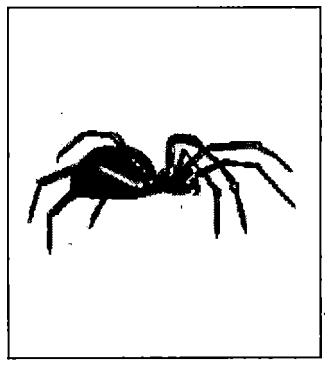
4._____ 5._____ 6._____



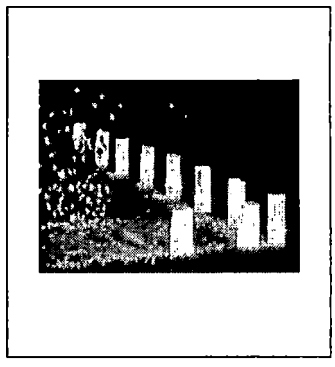
7._____



8._____



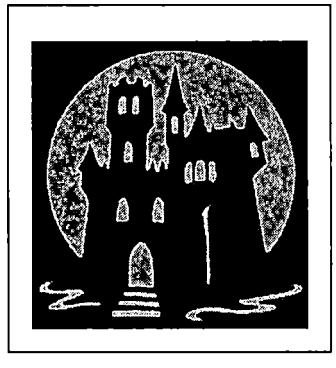
9._____



10._____

11._____

12._____



Assessment Sheet B-1 (Cont.)

Directions: Rearrange the following strips about how to carve Jack O'lantern according to the correct order.

a. Draw the pumpkin lid or bottom opening and with a carving saw; cut the lid in at an angle.

b. Scoop out seeds and strings with spoon, and using a knife or spoon, thin carving wall to about a 1 inch thickness.

c. Imagine the shape you want to carve on the pumpkin and draw it on the paper.

d. Secure the pattern to the smoothest side of the pumpkin with tape or stick pins, and clip along dotted lines if needed to fit the pattern to the pumpkin more easily.

e. Use a marker or dull pencil to outline your design, and then remove the pattern.

f. Gently carve along design markings.

g. Put a candle inside the pumpkin, and light.

Lesson Plan Three

Crosscultural Understanding with Critical Thinking

Objectives:

1. To identify that problems exist and understand problem in their entirety
2. To think critically and independently, and to solve a problem
3. To self-evaluate one's driving habits
4. To enhance crosscultural understanding

Materials:

Focus Sheets C-1, C-2, C-3, and C-4
Work Sheets C-1, C-2, C-3, C-4, and C-5
Assessment Sheet C-1

Warm-up: *Ask students the following questions*:

Do you have your driver's license?
Have you ever driven with drunken driver?
Do you think you are good driver?

Task Chain 1: *Recognizing the problem in the given Situation*

1. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet C-1 to students and gives a chance to predict or guess what the problem might be depicted in the illustration. After that, have students answer the questions at the bottom.
2. Instructor gives out students Focus Sheet C-2 and has students read the story silently.
3. After finishing, the instructor reads each sentence on Focus Sheet C-3 and asks students to answer yes, no, or maybe. Have students respond silently by using hand signals (thumbs up for "yes", thumbs down for "no", and an open wavering hand for "maybe"). When students respond orally, they sometimes say whatever they hear the loudest. Responding silently requires students to think a little harder before committing to an answer.
4. Distribute Work Sheet C-1 to students, and have students answer each question. This helps students fully understand the exact situation and the resulting problem.

Task Chain 2: *Thinking critically and solving problems*

1. Students are divided into pairs.
2. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet C-4 to students and has each group talk over the questions. These questions are effective ways for students to obtain practical information and learn from the experience of others.
3. To identify the problem, find solutions and talk about the consequences, the instructor distributes Work Sheets C-2, and C-3 to students.
4. Instructor has students discuss the solutions and consequences. Each student chooses the one solution which he/she thinks is best. Each group shares its solution and tells classmates the reason why that is the best solution.
5. Instructor distributes Work Sheet C-4 to students. Each student suggests a solution to Mario's problem.

Task Chain 3: *Self-checking driving habits*

1. Instructor hands out Work Sheet C-5 to students.
2. By filling it out, students check their own driving habits.

Assessment:

1. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet C-1 and has students answer each question, according to the directions.

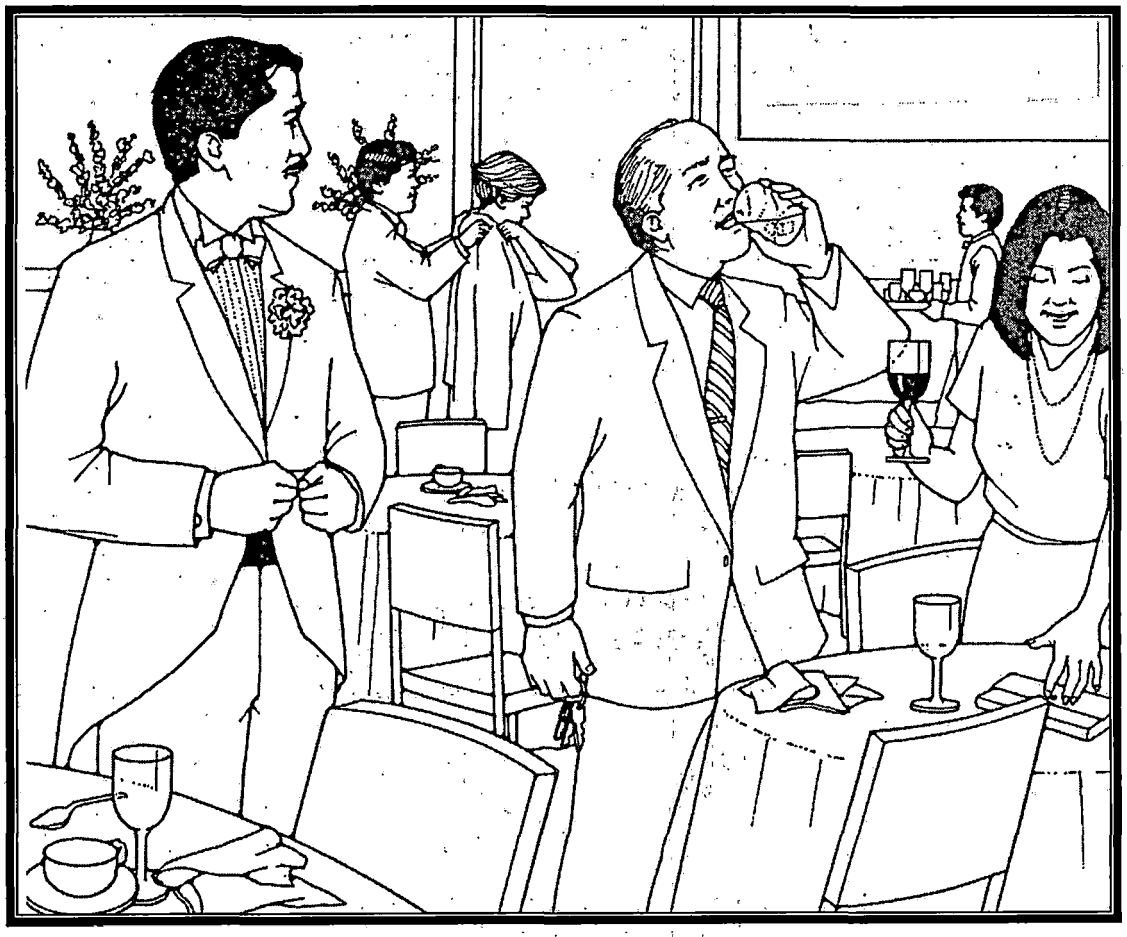
Criteria

100-91: A	80-71: B	60-51: C
90-81: B+	70-61: B-	≦50 : F

Focus Sheet C-1

The Wedding Reception

Directions: Through the illustration, predict or guess what the problem might be. And then, answer the following four questions.



1. Where are the three people?
2. How does the man in the tuxedo feel?
3. How do the other two people feel?
4. What does the older man have in his right hand?

Source: Little, 1991, p. 70.

Focus Sheet C-2

Driving Home

Directions: Read the following story silently.

Mario is a very happy father. His daughter got married today. It was a beautiful wedding and Mario invited over 200 people to the wedding, including Javier, the manager of Mario's company, and Patricia, a friend from work.

After the wedding ceremony the guests went to a nice restaurant to eat. They drank and danced all night. Everyone had a good time.

It is midnight now and people are saying goodbye and leaving. Javier and Patricia are getting ready to leave too. Javier has his car keys in his hand and plans to drive Patricia home. Mario is worried because both Javier and Patricia had a lot of drinks today and are quickly finishing their last drinks now. Mario does not want them to drive home, but he does not know what to do. Javier is an important man in Mario's company and Mario does not want to make him angry.

Source: Little, 1991, p. 70.

Focus Sheet C-3

Comprehension Check: Driving Home

_____ 1. Mario is sad.

_____ 2. Mario's son got married.

_____ 3. The ceremony was in a church.

_____ 4. After the ceremony the guests went to Mario's house.

_____ 5. Mario invited just a few people.

_____ 6. Mario invited the manager of his company.

_____ 7. Javier and Patricia had too much to drink.

_____ 8. Javier and Patricia are planning to walk home.

_____ 9. Javier is planning to drive home.

_____ 10. Mario is worried about Javier and Patricia.

Source: Little, 1991, p. 71.

Focus Sheet C-4

Driving Home: Crosscultural Comparison

Directions: Discuss the following questions with your partner and talk about your personal experience.

1. What do people from your country do at a wedding? Describe a wedding. Is there a party after the ceremony? What do you drink and eat?

2. What other kinds of parties do you go to? Do people eat and drink a lot? What do they drink? How much do they drink?

3. Do you sometimes give a party? If yes, what kinds of food do you serve at your parties? When do you serve the food?

4. What kinds of drinks do you serve? Do you measure the alcohol?

5. Is it better to serve drinks at the beginning of the party or at the end of the party? Why? Is it better to serve drinks with food or alone? Why?

6. What happens if people drink at your home, and then drive and have an accident? Who is responsible?

7. Can children and teenagers drink in your country? Is it legal in your state to serve drinks to minors (people under 21 years ago)?

8. How do you usually get to a party? If you go in a car, should the driver drink?

9. Do you ever drive home with someone who has been drinking? What could happen?

10. Does it legal to have an open bottle of beer, wine or any other kind of alcohol in your car, in your state, and in your country?

Focus Sheet C-4 (Cont.)

11. What happens to people in the United States when the police stop them for drinking and driving? What happens in your country?

12. What does the saying, "Friends don't let friends drive drunk" mean?

Source: Little, 1991, p. 72.

Work Sheet C-1

Driving Home: Comprehension Question

Directions: First, answer the following questions orally. Then write down the answer.

1. Who got married?

_____

2. How many people were invited to the wedding?

_____

3. How does Mario feel about his daughter's marriage?

_____

4. Who are Javier and Patricia?

_____

5. Where did Javier, Patricia and the other guests go after the ceremony?

_____

6. What did the guests do?

_____

7. When did the guests start leaving?

_____

8. How are Javier and Patricia planning on going home?

_____

9. Why is Mario worried?

_____

Work Sheet C-2

Identifying Problems

Directions: With your partner, choose one problem your group wants to discuss and write down the problem below.

Work Sheet C-3

Solutions and Consequences

Directions: Find some solutions to the problem your group chose to discuss about it, and talk about the consequences of each solution.

What can be done about the problem? Write down some possible solutions.	*What might be happen it you do that? Write down a possible consequence of each solution.*
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

Work Sheet C-4

Advice to Mario

Directions: Help Mario. You are his friend. Give him some advice. Tell Mario what to do.

Mario, I think you should _____

Work Sheet C-5

Self-check List: Driving Habits

Directions: Cars can make our lives better, but cars can be dangerous too. By answering the following questions, check your driving habits.

	Yes	No
1. Do you always wear a seat belt?		
2. Do you put a baby in a safety seat?		
3. Do you drive carefully?		
4. Do you always use your turn signal when you change lanes?		
5. Does your car have good brakes?		
6. Do you drive slowly when it is raining?		
7. Do you drive over the speed limit?		
8. Do you drink and drive?		
9. Do you drive after taking medicine that makes you sleepy?		
10. Do you eat and drive?		
11. Do you smoke and drive?		
12. Do you drive when you are tired?		

Source: Little, 1991, p. 74.

Assessment Sheet C-1

Directions: Fill in the following chart correctly, by checking in the column "yes", "no", or maybe" (5 pts per question).

	Yes	No	Maybe
1. Mario is sad.			
2. Mario's son got married.			
3. The ceremony was in a church.			
4. The ceremony the guests went to Mario's house.			
5. Mario invited just a few people.			
6. Mario invited the manager of his company.			
7. Javier and Patricia had too much to drink.			
8. Javier and Patricia are planning to walk home.			
9. Javier is planning to drive home.			
10 Mario is worried about Javier and Patricia.			

Directions: Answer properly the following questions in one complete sentence (10 pts per question).

1. How does Mario feel about his daughter's marriage?

_____

2. Who are Javier and Patricia?

_____

3. What did the guests including Javier and Patricia do in the nice restaurant?

_____

4. How are Javier and Patricia planning on going home?

_____

5. Why is Mario worried?

_____

Instructional Unit Two: Lesson Plan One

Creating an Academic Essay-A

Objectives:

1. To understand what a paragraph is
2. To identify a topic sentence in a paragraph

Materials:

Focus Sheet A-1
Work Sheet A-1
Assessment Sheet A-1

Warm-up: *Instructor asks students to define a paragraph.*

Task Chain 1: *Understanding what a paragraph is*

1. Instructor divides students into pairs of group.
2. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet A-1 to each student.
3. Have pairs of students read Focus Sheet A-1, and discuss about the differences among a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence.

Task Chain 2: *Identifying a topic sentence*

1. Instructor hands out Work Sheet A-1 to students.
2. Instructor asks students to find the topic sentence of two paragraphs in Work Sheet A-1.

Assessment: *Analyzing paragraphs using general checklist*

1. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet A-1, and has students read the general checklist in it.
2. Students answer each question in the general checklist about two paragraphs in Work Sheet A-1.

Focus Sheet A-1

What is a Paragraph?

A paragraph is a group of several sentences about the same topic, presented together as a single block of information. In academic writing, indenting each paragraph is a signal to readers that the sentences belong together. There are three parts to a paragraph:

1. A topic sentence
2. Supporting sentences
3. A concluding sentence

Parts of the paragraph	Description
A topic sentence	1. The topic sentence is the most important sentence in the paragraph. 2. The topic sentence contains the main idea of the paragraph. 3. The topic sentence controls and limits the ideas that can be discussed in a paragraph. 4. The topic sentence has two parts; the topic and the controlling idea. 5. The topic is the subject of the paragraph. 6. The controlling idea limits or controls students' topic to one Aspect that students want to write about.
Supporting sentences	1. Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence. 2. Supporting sentences give the reader reasons, examples, and more facts about the topic sentence. 3. Supporting sentences must all be related to the topic sentence.

Focus Sheet A-1 (Cont.)

A concluding sentence	1. The concluding sentence is the last sentence of a paragraph. 2. This sentence signals the end of paragraph. 3. The concluding sentence is similar to the topic sentence. 4. The concluding sentence can be written in two ways; state the topic sentence in different words, and summarize the main points in the paragraph.

Source: Ingalls & Moody, 1999, p. 74.

Work Sheet A-1

Identifying Topic Sentence

Directions: Identify the topic sentence of the following paragraphs.

1. People have always been interested in bees. This interest may have begun with the honey bees make. In fact, archaeologists have found evidence that people have been eating honey for many thousands of years. In the more recent past, people were interested in the way bees made honey. They admired the way bees seemed to work so hard. Some languages even developed expressions about people working like bees. In English, for example, we talk about a "busy bee." Now scientists have a new reason to be interested in bees. They have discovered that bees are able to communicate with each other. Research has revealed some surprising facts about this, but there are still many mysteries.

Topic sentence: _____
_____

2. Communication is also possible among bees through their sense of smell. A group of bees, called a colony, uses smell to protect itself from other bees. This is possible because all the bees in a colony have a common smell. This smell acts like a chemical signal. It warns the group of bees when a bee from a different colony is near. This way, bees from outside cannot enter and disturb a hive (the bee colony's home). If an outsider does try to enter, the bees of that colony will smell it and attack it.

Topic sentence: _____
_____

Source: Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996, p. 80.

Assessment Sheet A-1

General Checklist

Directions: According to the following checklist, re-analyze the two paragraphs in Work Sheet A-1.

General Checklist

1. Is the paragraph about one idea? What is that idea?
2. Underline the topic sentence.
3. What question do you expect will be answered in the paragraph?
4. Does the paragraph communicate successfully?
5. What is the best part of the paragraph? Why?

Source: Reid, 1988, p. 19.

Lesson Plan Two

Creating an Academic Essay-B

Objectives:

1. To understand the process of writing a paragraph
2. To write a paragraph about one topic

Materials:

Focus Sheets B-1 and B-2
Work Sheets B-1 and B-2
Assessment Sheet B-1

Task Chain 1: *Understanding the process of writing a Paragraph*

1. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet B-1 to students.
2. Instructor explains about paragraph-writing process. The example on Focus Sheet B-1 can effectively help students develop the ideas in their writing.
3. After explaining the writing process, instructor distributes Focus Sheet B-2.
4. Students can read a well-organized paragraph according to the example of the writing process on Focus Sheet B-1.

Task Chain 2: *Writing a paragraph about a free topic*

1. Instructor distributes Work Sheet B-1 and B-2.
2. Following the process of Task Chain 1, students write their own paragraph about their own topic.
3. Students are given enough time to finish writing a paragraph.

Assessment: *Revising paragraphs*

1. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet B-1 to students, and has students read carefully the self-revision checklist on it.
2. Following the direction, students revise their own paragraphs.

Focus Sheet B-1

The Process of Writing a Paragraph

1. Choose a subject that you know about.
   Example: Studying abroad (topic)

2. Identify your audience.
   Example: Classmates

3. Narrow your subject to a sentence that will interest your audience.
   Example: 1. Advantages and disadvantages of being a university student in the United States
   2. Problems in living alone while studying at a university in the United States

4. Collect some ideas about your topic.
   Example: 1. Having to clean the apartment
   2. No one to wake me up in the morning
   3. Having to shop and cook for myself
   4. Missing classes because I do not keep a regular schedule
   5. Spending my money too quickly
   6. Having to do the laundry
   7. Loneliness
   8. Not getting my studying completed--no one to discipline me

5. List details about some of your ideas that will interest your audience.
   Example: 1. Waking up: late for class, never time for breakfast
   2. Housework: wastes time, looks nice when finished
   3. Loneliness: homesick, no American friends

6. Limit the ideas to the most important ones you want to communicate.
   Example: Choose one in either housework or loneliness

Focus Sheet B-1 (Cont.)

7. State the main idea of the paragraph in your topic sentence.
   Example: Since I began living in an apartment and going to school, my biggest problem has been the housework.

8. Make a paragraph outline.
   Example: Since I began living in an apartment and going to school, my biggest problem has been the housework.

   A. Cleaning the apartment
      1. Taking away from my studies
      2. Making the apartment look nice
   B. Shopping for food
      1. Not knowing the English names for things
      2. Spending time asking for help
   C. Cooking my food
      1. Food uncooked or overcooked
      2. Sometimes made incorrectly
   D. Doing my laundry
      1. Far away-wastes time
      2. Instructions are complicated

Source: Reid, 1988, pp. 23-24.

Focus Sheet B-2

Example of Writing a Paragraph

Since I began living in an apartment and going to school, my biggest problem has been the housework. Cleaning the apartment is not too bad; although it takes time away from my studies, at least when I finish the apartment looks nice. Shopping for my food is more difficult because I don't know the English names of many foods, and often I have to spend extra time asking for help. Cooking my food is a bigger problem. I have never had to cook before, and usually the results ate discouraging. Sometimes the food is burned, sometimes it is not cooked enough, and sometimes I have not measured correctly, so the food tastes terrible. The worst problem is doing my laundry. The laundry room is far from my apartment, and I waste much valuable time. I also have trouble with the complicated instructions, so occasionally I end up with pink socks or a shirt that is too small. Mostly I am embarrassed as I sit in the laundry room with all the women, and so I wait until all my clothes are dirty before I do this horrible task. If I did not have to do these jobs, I would have many more hours to concentrate on my studies.

Source: Reid, 1988, p. 25.

Work Sheet B-1

The Process of Writing a Paragraph

1. Choose a subject that you know about.

   _____
   _____

2. Identify your audience.

   _____
   _____

3. Narrow your subject to a sentence that will interest your audience.

   _____
   _____

4. Collect some ideas about your topic.

   _____
   _____

5. List details about some of your ideas that will interest your audience.

   _____
   _____

6. Limit the ideas to the most important ones you want to communicate.

   _____
   _____

7. State the main idea of the paragraph in your topic sentence.

   _____
   _____

8. Make a paragraph outline.

Work Sheet B-2

Writing a Paragraph

Directions: According to the writing process described on Work Sheet B-1, develop your own paragraph.

Assessment Sheet B-1

Self-Revision Checklist

Directions: According to the following self-revision checklist, check your own paragraph, and revise your paragraph of necessary.

Self-Revision Checklist

1. Does my writing have a clear focus?
2. Do I need to add more details?
3. Is my writing organized in a way that makes sense?
4. Are there any unnecessary parts I should leave out?
5. Is my writing style appropriate for my purpose and audience?
6. Are my sentences clear and complete?
7. Could I improve my choice of words?

Source: Rinehart & Winstone, 1988, p. 22.

Lesson Plan Three

Creating an Academic Essay-C

Objectives:

1. To understand what an essay is
2. To identify thesis statement in the introduction paragraph

Materials:

Focus Sheet C-1
Work Sheet C-1
Assessment Sheet C-1

Task Chain 1: *Understanding what an essay is*

1. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet C-1 to students.
2. Instructor explains about essay and three parts of essay.

Task Chain 2: *Identifying thesis statement*

1. Instructor divides students into pairs, and hands out Work Sheet C-1 to students
2. Pairs of students work on it. Students can learn how to identify thesis statement in this activity.

Assessment: *Identifying the basic elements of an essay*

1. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet C-1 to students, and has students divide the essay into three basic parts.
2. Students restate the thesis statement, using their own words.

Focus Sheet C-1

What is an essay?

Essays are writing assignments of two, three, or more pages that follow a certain academic writing style. The purpose of an essay is to inform, explain, or argue a point. An essay must be clearly focused on one main idea, which is usually expressed in a sentence called the thesis statement at the end of the introduction.

Essays are organized into three parts: an introduction paragraph, body paragraphs, and a conclusion paragraph.

Parts of an Essay	Explanation
Introductory paragraph	1. The purpose of an introductory paragraph is to capture the attention of readers and provide any necessary background information about the topic. 2. The introductory paragraph should build up to the thesis statement, which is normally the last sentence of the introduction. 3. Many essays begin with general statements about the topic, leading toward the thesis statement.
Body paragraph(s)	1. The body paragraphs of an essay consist of several paragraphs that present details, facts, explanations, examples, arguments, and any other information that supports the thesis statement. 2. Organizing the body of your essay into paragraphs shows readers important divisions or parts of your topic. 3. The first sentence of each body paragraph should connect smoothly with the end of the previous paragraph.

Focus Sheet C-1 (Cont.)

Conclusion paragraph	1. The conclusion paragraph of an essay is very important because it makes a final impression on the reader. 2. The best way to write a conclusion is usually to reemphasize your main idea and review the points that you have made in the body.

Source: Ingalls & Moody, 1999, p. 77.

Work Sheet C-1

Identifying the Thesis Statement

Directions: Read the following introduction paragraphs below, and write the thesis statement using one complete sentence.

1. There is a difference between being an onlooker and being a true observer of art. Onlookers just walk by a work of art, letting their eyes record it while their minds are elsewhere. They have no true appreciation of art. Observers, on the other hand, are informed and appreciative. They have spent the time and energy to educate themselves co that art will be meaningful. They live with it and are aware of its existence in even the smallest part of their daily lives.

Thesis Statement: _____

_____

_____

2. "The only difference between me and a madman is that I am not mad," said Salvedor Dali, probably the most famous Surrealist artist. Like many other modern artists, such as Vincent van Gogh, Edvard Munch, and Jean Dubuffet, Dail was interested in the relationship between madness and creativity. Certainly the works of these artists, with their swirling lines, strange scenes and fantastic dreamlike quality, appear to be the products of unstable minds. Van Gogh produced a whole body of work, and might even have been the force behind it, is a valid one. Where does creativity end and madness begin? Is the line separating them so thin as to be unrecognizable? These are questions that must be explored in any study of the relationship between madness and creativity in the world of art.

Thesis Statement: _____

_____

_____

Source: Ingalls & Moody, 1999, p. 78.

Assessment Sheet C-1

Directions: The topic of the following essay is *against advanced technology*. Read the essay, and divide it into a introductory paragraph, body paragraphs, and a conclusion paragraph. What is the thesis statement in the essay? Using your own words, restate it.

We are now living in the twentieth century in which various kinds of technology have been developed and are being developed. Some examples of these are computers, video-telephones, computerized television, and satellite systems. People have benefited and are benefiting from these technological advances, but there are negative sides to them also. I do not support the idea of having a new information age because it encourages people not to read and think, and it also makes it easy for others to get personal information about you.

The first argument against the new technology is that it takes time away from reading and thinking. Before television, people used to read, think, and converse. They had the time to look at their lives and values. Today, people prefer to watch exciting things on video and television. Few people find time to read books, journals, and newspapers. Students today belong to the "TV generation" and find it hard to read a book. This affects their ability to study for school. Also, because people do not read or think, they cannot look at their own lives and values.

Secondly, because most services are or will be computerized, it is easy for others to get information about a person. For example, right now if you give a check to someone, your bank account number will be on it, and if someone finds out your Social Security number, it will be easy for that person to know how much money you have in your bank account. Also, the use of a credit card number to pay your bills or go shopping can take away your privacy. Someone can easily find out what you bought and what you paid for it. This can also lead to others using your credit card number, or, in other words, theft.

Assessment Sheet C-1 (Cont.)

In conclusion, although we have a very comfortable life because of modern technology, it has created some negative aspects such as taking time away from reading and meditating, and also taking away our privacy. It is important to develop modern technology, but I think it is also important to face and solve its negative aspects.

Source: Broukal, 1994, pp. 48-49.

Lesson Plan Four

Creating an Academic Essay-D

Objectives:

1. To learn how to make outline before writing an essay
2. To write an essay about given topic

Materials:

Focus Sheets D-1 and D-2
Work Sheets D-1 and D-2
Assessment Sheet D-1

Task Chain 1: *Making outline before writing an essay*

1. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet D-1 to students. Students can see the outline which is a process of generating ideas during the prewriting process.
2. Instructor explains about the importance of an outline to students.
3. Instructor distribute Focus Sheet D-2 to students. Students can see an essay based on the essay outline of Focus Sheet D-1.

Task Chain 2: *Writing an essay about a topic*

1. Students receive Work Sheet D-1.
2. Students develop their own outline about a given topic.
4. Using Work Sheet D-2, students write their own essay about the topic. They are given enough time to finish the assignment.

Assessment: *Filling out checklists*

1. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet D-1 to students, and asks students read carefully the self-revision checklist on it.
2. Following the directions, students fill it out about their own essays.

Focus Sheet D-1

Example Outline: Preparation for Marriage in Somalia

Topic: Marriage preparation in Somalia

1. Thesis statement: Preparation for marriage in Somalia consists of very important tasks such as working hard to earn money, collecting contributions of livestock, getting money from relatives, and preparing items for the home.

2. Man's responsibility to raise money
   A. Must work to collect money
      1. Poor man: Working in villages and towns
      2. Rich man: Selling part of livestock
      3. Become a businessman
         a. Selling cigarettes
         b. Selling clothes
   B. Must conserve money

3. Collection of livestock
   Preparation for marriage
   A. Collect from his family
      1. Amount of contribution: one to four heads
      2. Contribution is a tradition
   B. Collect from friends

4. Woman: Making items for the house
   A. Mats, wooden posts, and water containers
   B. Collaborates with family members, relatives, and friends

5. Concluding sentence

Source: Reid, 1988, p. 28.

Focus Sheet D-2

Example of an Essay

The following essay is written, based on the example of the essay outline on Focus Sheet D-1.

Preparation for Marriage in Somalia

Preparation for marriage in Somalia consists of many important tasks such as working hard to earn money, collecting contributions of livestock from relatives, and preparing items for the home.

A man who intends to marry has the responsibility to have money. If he is poor, he must work for others to earn money. If he is rich, he must sell part of his livestock to raise cash. He could become a businessman, selling merchandise such as cigarettes and clothes to make money. This money must be conserved for the marriage.

If a man needs additional resources, he can collect from his extended family. Each family member should contribute one to four heads of cattle. This is a tradition. He can also collect from his friends.

A woman who wishes to marry spends her time making items for the house, such as mats, wooden posts, and water containers. In this effort, she collaborates with family members, relatives, and friends.

Preparing for marriage is a long and tedious task in Somalia, but it is essential for the establishment of a new family.

Source: Reid, 1988. p. 29.

Work Sheet D-1

Essay Outline Sheet

Directions: Make an essay outline about given topic.

Topic: whether or not it is better for children to grow up in the countryside than in a big city.

1. Theses statement:_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Generating ideas:

Work Sheet D-2

Writing an Essay

Directions: Using the topic given in Work Sheet D-1, write an essay of several paragraphs. Be careful to develop your thesis statement.

Assessment Sheet D-1

Self-Revision Checklist

Directions: Read your own essay, and fill out the following checklist about your own essay.

Self-Revision Checklist

1. Does my writing have a clear focus?
2. Do I need to add more details?
3. Is my writing organized in a way that makes sense?
4. Are there any unnecessary parts I should leave out?
5. Is my writing style appropriate for my purpose and audience?
6. Are my sentences clear and complete?
7. Could I improve my choice of words?

Source: Rinehart & Winstone, 1988, p. 22.

Lesson Plan Five

Creating an Academic Essay-E

Objectives:

1. To recognize major grammatical errors
2. To revise grammatical errors in the essay of a partner

Materials:

Focus Sheet E-1
Work Sheet E-1
Assessment Sheet E-1

Task Chain 1: *Identifying mayor grammatical errors*

1. Instructor divides students into the pairs.
2. pairs of students change essay, and read the essay of partner.
3. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet E-1 to each student, and explains about it.

Task Chain 2: *Finding grammatical errors*

1. Using Focus Sheet E-1, students find grammatical errors of their partner again.
2. Instructor distributes Work Sheet E-1 to students, and asks students to fill out the chart.

Assessment: Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet E-1 to students, and ask students to work on it as the directions.

Focus Sheet E-1

Major Grammatical Errors in Writing

In general, there are six different types of common errors. The examples in each section can help easily identify various kinds of errors.

Type 1. Nouns

(1) Noun endings

I need to buy some *book*.

I gained a lot of *knowledges* in high school.

(2) Articles

I need to buy ^ book.

A good *jobs* is hard to find.

Type 2. Verbs

(1) Subject-verb agreement

The boys *was* hungry.

That TV *show* come on at 8:00

Many students in the class *is* failing.

(2) Verb tense

Last year I *come* to Sac State.

I've never been to Disney World, but I *had* been to Disneyland before.

(3) Verb form

My car was *stole*.

My mother *is miss* her children.

Type 3. Punctuation and sentence structure

(1) Sentence fragments

Wrong: *After I got home*. I washed the dishes.

Right: After I got home, I washed the dishes.

(2) Comma errors

When I got home ^ I discovered my house was on fire.

I studied hard for the test ^ but I still got a bad grade.

I studied hard for the test, I still got a bad grade.

(3) Semicolon errors
Although I studied hard for the test; I still got a bad grade.
I studied hard for the test ^ I still got a bad grade.

Type 4. Word form errors
My father is very *generosity*.
Intelligent is *importance* for academic success.

Type 5. Preposition errors
I do a lot of work *on* volunteer organizations.
For an American, I like baseball and hot dogs.

Type 6. Pronoun errors
The main supporters of recycling were Jean and *me*.
Three students-Peter, Richard, and *her*-worked on the report.

Source: Ferris, 1995, pp. 19-20.

Work Sheet E-1

Grammar-Editing Worksheet

Directions: Read your partner's essay, looking specifically for grammatical errors. Fill out the following chart.

1. Noun errors	Total number found in essay: Example from essay:
2. Verb errors	Total number found in essay: Example from essay:
3. Punctuation and sentence structure errors	Total number found in essay: Example from essay:
4. Word form errors	Total number found in essay: Example from essay:
5. Preposition errors	Total number found in essay: Example from essay:
6. Pronoun errors	Total number found in essay: Example from essay:

Source: Ferris, 1995, pp. 19-20.

Assessment Sheet E-1

Directions: Find these following errors in the next essay.

Error types	Number of errors
Spelling	3
Missing subject	2
Missing verb	1
Run-on sentence	1
Sentence fragment	2
Present or past tense	3

My Classmate Maria Espinoza

I met and interviewed Maria Espinoza in my ESL writing class. In spring, 1997. She comes from Cuba nine years ago to join her son and his family.

Maria likes living in United States becaue likes the political system better here. She prefers democracy over communism. Also, she like being near her grandchildren. So that she can watch them grow up. One thing she does not like about this country is the attitude of the teenagers. Says that teenagers do not respect their parents enough, and hopes that her grandchildren grow up with good, old fashioned family values.

I appreciate Maria's concern, I have heard my own parents state a similer opinion. But I certain that with Maria's love and guidance, her grandchildren will grow up with strong family values. I really enjoy interviewing Maria.

Source: Ferris, 1995, pp. 19-20.

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